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composition strategy and product familiarity on advertising recall
: a script theory approach.**

Kenny Kit-Keung Chan
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THE CONTEXTUAL EFFECTIVENESS OF
ADVERTISING CAMPAIGN-COMPOSITION STRATEGY
AND PRODUCT FAMILIARITY ON ADVERTISING RECALL --
A SCRIPT THEORY APPROACH

A Dissertation Presented

by

Kenny Kit-Keung Chan

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

September 1988

School of Management

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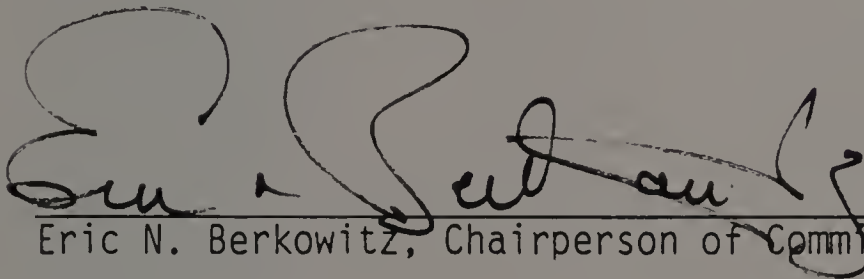
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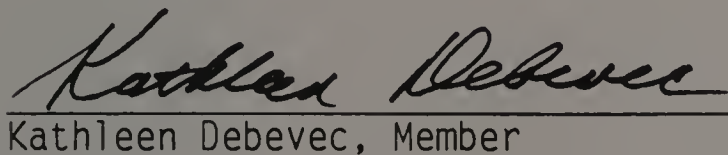
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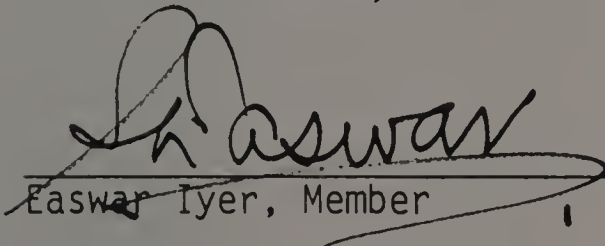
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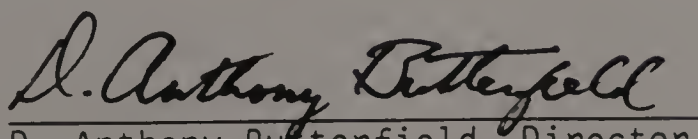
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With much love and great appreciation
I dedicate this dissertation to the memory
of my late father, Mr. Yat Chan

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation has taken a long time to complete. During the process many people have influenced its development and refinement. I would like to take this opportunity to extend my appreciation for their contributions.

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Finally, I wish to thank a special friend and teacher, Bob Fagg, for his many inspirations.

ABSTRACT

THE CONTEXTUAL EFFECTIVENESS OF
ADVERTISING CAMPAIGN-COMPOSITION STRATEGY
AND PRODUCT FAMILIARITY ON ADVERTISING RECALL --
A SCRIPT THEORY APPROACH

SEPTEMBER, 1988

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The goal of this dissertation was to examine the impact of identical, similar and dissimilar advertising campaign-composition strategies, and to determine if these strategies' fundamental differences could be attributable to their differences in degree of scripting. The effects of product familiarity, a potential mediating variable, were also reported.

The causal relationships were tested in an empirical study. The experimental design was a 3 x 2 repeated-measures factorial design: three campaign-composition strategies (identical, similar and dissimilar), two product familiarity levels (high, low). Due to the discovery of a significant factor -- product type, the data were analyzed assuming a 2 x 3 x 2 split-plot design. The dependent variables examined were recall of stated script information, intruded script information and stated new information reported in a day-after telephone interview. The subjects were undergraduate business students at a large California State University campus.

Subjects' capability to develop scripts from a set of stereotypic events contained in a series of commercial copies were established in a pretest.

The results of the final experiment in this dissertation showed that campaign-composition strategy did have an overall effect on all of the recall measures, when they were considered jointly. There was evidence to suggest that after exposures to a series of similar or identical television commercials, viewers may develop scripts and rely on them in the processing of subsequent commercials. The results have also demonstrated the vulnerability of using similar but not identical ads as a means to prevent inattention.

The empirical findings further demonstrated that product familiarity alone was not instrumental to script development.

Based on the significance of an unexpected mediating factor -- product type, this research advocates that a product's category must not be ignored when selecting a campaign-composition strategy or when product familiarity is expected to play an important role in the communication process.

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C H A P T E R I

INTRODUCTION

Advertising Campaign

Business communicates to the public through advertising in magazines, newspapers, posters, television, radio, transit card, direct mail and many other media every day. These marketer-controlled messages represent a vital force in the proper functioning of any marketing effort to inform, remind and persuade consumers about a company's product or service. Most of these advertisements, however, are not isolated entities, but a part of an advertising campaign -- a collection of advertisements created to express a creative strategy designed to communicate a product or service to a target audience during a specified period of time.

As marketers continue to rely on advertising campaigns, creative strategy and execution to market their products, one would expect a proportionate research interest in these topic areas. A survey of recent research suggests that although there seems to be studies on the topics of advertising strategies, execution styles and appeal types, there is a lack of systematic research in evaluation of campaign-composition -- what advertisements of which an advertising campaign will be composed. The majority of research investigating the composition of a campaign has primarily focused on the desirability of using repetition (Craig, Sternthal and Leavitt 1976; Mitchell and Olson 1977; Sawyer 1973; Winter 1973) and related executional resemblance among ads (McCullough and Ostrom 1974). Although these insightful studies have provided many useful implications, there is little

evidence which specifically addresses the contextual effectiveness and mechanics of the different campaign-composition strategies.

Purpose of the Study

The principal problem discussed in this dissertation concerns the contextual effectiveness of three different campaign-composition strategies upon subjects' information processing. The research is experimental and is conducted in the context of a laboratory setting.

The main objective of this research is to examine the contextual effectiveness of one advertising campaign-composition strategy which bases a campaign on identical repetitions of a single commercial, another strategy which uses repetition of similar but not identical commercials with a related executional resemblance, and a third strategy which uses a series of dissimilar commercials with no related executional resemblance. Particularly, this research attempts to focus on these three strategies' impact on recall and new information assimilation.

This dissertation also discusses the mediating effect of subjects' product familiarity. Nine hypotheses covering the potential effects of these campaign-composition strategies are offered and tested using various statistical methods.

Organization

Chapter II contains a literature review, and propositions. The chapter opens with a discussion on the research concerning advertising recall, followed by similar discussions on advertising campaign-composition strategies, the script theory and product familiarity. A

discussion on the effects of campaign-composition strategies and product familiarity on advertising recall is then presented. Each discussion of treatment effect opens with a problem statement, and closes with a summary of research hypotheses and their specific predictions.

Chapter III presents the methodology of this study. Included in this chapter are: (i) a presentation of the research design; (ii) a discussion on the definition of each independent factor and an explanation on how it was developed; (iii) a discussion on the definition of each dependent variable; (iv) a detailed discussion on the procedure used to collect the data for the final experiment.

Chapter IV consists of a presentation of the results from the focal experiment. Included in this chapter is a general discussion on each main effect, a restatement of each hypothesis, and a presentation of the results pertaining to each hypothesis.

Chapter V concludes the dissertation with a discussion on the implications of the results from Chapter IV. This chapter also discusses the study's limitations and suggestions for future research.

C H A P T E R I I

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND PROPOSITIONS

Advertising Recall

Although consumer recall of a product's advertisements does not necessarily translate into sales gains, advertising recall remains a very significant concern to marketers. Information on the degree of recall helps marketers determine the extent to which their communication efforts through advertising have implemented ideas in consumers' mind. Recall indicates whether consumers got the point of an ad's message. Also, recall research can yield useful data on the relative effectiveness of different advertising components, such as campaign-composition strategy. This is vital to the marketing communication function because once having learned the information, the consumer has to retain the information long enough to act on it for any advertising message to be an influential factor on purchase intention or actual purchase. With better knowledge of the relative effectiveness of different advertising components on recall, marketers may be able to prepare more successful communication efforts by manipulating these influential components.

Predictor Variables of Ad Recall

Zinkhan (1982) suggests that six predictor variables may be related to ad recall. They are product interest, motivation to process the ad, enjoyment of the ad, amount of information contained in the ad, cognitive differentiation and ability to predict the structure of the advertisement. The significance of these six variables on ad recall was partially supported in Zinkhan's study. An abstraction of his

discussion on the relationships between these six predictor variables and ad recall is outlined below.

Product interest or product involvement. Audiences are more attracted to information with high personal relevance to their needs at hand (Krugman 1965). This interest in a product category is an important predictor of ad recall (Claycamp and Liddy 1969; Greenburg and Garfinkle 1962). Those people interested in a particular product class have been found to be more willing to pay attention to a print message for the product (Dugoni and Biersdorff 1979).

Motivation to process the ad. Zinkhan points out that motivation depends very much on the latent interests of the reader, but it is heightened by mechanics and content of the message. A motivated reader of an advertisement will pay more attention to the advertisement, and will experience greater emotional and rational responses to it than will a less motivated reader (Janis 1978). Because the attention level of the highly motivated reader is greater, the individual should recall an advertisement better than should a less motivated reader.

Enjoyment of the ad. Zinkhan (1982) argues that pleasurable feelings about an ad can lead to favorable thoughts about the advertised product. Although unenjoyable ads can also be well-remembered, it seems reasonable to assume that a pleasurable ad should provide positive reinforcement for the advertised product.

Information contained in the ad. Jacoby (1977) has pointed out that more information is not always better. In fact, beyond a certain level, increased information becomes dysfunctional. However, information overload is not expected to be relevant here since there is

limited information in any ad. Intuitively, higher levels of information should be associated with higher levels of ad recall. The more information an ad contains, the more likely a person will remember something about the ad.

Cognitive differentiation. Nunnally (1978) defines cognitive differentiation as the number of independent dimensions a person can identify in a given stimulus, and is similar to the notion of dimensionality. This concept can be viewed as a person's capability to view objects, persons and events multidimensionally (Bieri, Alkins, Briar, Leaman, Miller and Tripodi 1966). As conceptualized and measured by Scott (1962), cognitive differentiation reflects a person's ability to comprehend a cognitive domain with a variety of independent attributes for describing the objects within it.

The importance of the relationship between cognitive differentiation and the ability to process information has been demonstrated by Henry (1980), and is best understood in terms of overcoming interference. The "interference theory" (Henry 1980) assumes that once an association is learned and stored in long-term memory, forgetting is a function of declining accessibility or likelihood of retrieval because of competing associations. Receivers do not necessarily forget or fail to learn the new advertising. It is simply overshadowed by the interference of earlier, more familiar advertising (Percy 1978). Those with highly differentiated cognitive structures should be able to keep associations, messages and sources of information separate in their minds, a hypothesis which has been demonstrated empirically by Mandler (1967). His results showed that

memory increases as the number of categories used to represent an experience increases. Therefore, interference should be less of a problem for those with highly differentiated cognitive structures than for those with less differentiated cognitive structures.

Hayes-Roth (1977) has also provided evidence that interference diminishes when a person associates many propositions with a particular object. This finding is quite similar to cognitive differentiation as Zinkhan has operationalized it.

Ability to predict an ad's structure. Zinkhan (1982) found that the better an individual is able to predict the verbal structure of an advertisement, the more information from that ad will the individual be able to recall. Concurrently, Holbrook (1975) found, using the cloze procedure -- a common method for assessing a person's ability to predict the structure of an ad (Bruner 1957; Taylor 1953; Zinkhan, Gelb and Martin 1983), a positive relationship between cloze procedure scores (which he terms verbal uncertainty) and advertising recall scores.

Although six predictor variables are related to advertising recall, only five of them are conceivably gainful research topics. The variable -- cognitive differentiation, is too difficult to analyze because it is a human attribute beyond most marketers' control; thus, too impractical to pursue. Product interest and motivation to read the ad are seldom controllable within a marketer's power. These two variables are best considered as potential contaminating variables in the advertising planning process. On the other hand, the remaining three predictor variables -- enjoyment of the ad, information contained

in the ad and ability to predict the structure of an ad -- presents a useful foundation with promising manipulation possibilities for marketer-controlled advertising strategies.

To this day, much has been written on determinants of recall. Yet little research has been done to explore how it may be facilitated by the mechanics and manipulation possibilities of campaign-composition strategies. Typically, research on advertising campaign effectiveness have only measured the percentage of viewers who mention the brand name of a test product, the percentage who refer to particular aspects of execution, and the percentage who describe the product attributes. These measurements work well if one is simply interested in how many in the audience will recall a particular item of information. Unfortunately, these findings do not provide much indication of whether the viewers recalled as they did because of the mechanics involved in the composition strategies employed in the campaign. Hence, an elaboration of advertising campaign-composition strategies is presented below, followed by a theoretical explanation on how these strategies differ in their abilities to affect advertising recall.

Advertising Campaign-composition Strategy

Each advertisement impressed upon the consumer is a part of an advertising strategy designed to communicate about a product or service, explicitly stated by an advertiser at some juncture in the planning of an advertising campaign. The composition of creative executions or advertisements in a campaign may vary from identical repetitions of a single commercial to a series of commercials based on a similar strategy with a related executional resemblance, to a series

of dissimilar commercials with no related executional resemblance. In this dissertation, the first strategy will be referred to as the "identical-ad strategy" (IS). The second strategy will be referred to as the "similar-ad strategy" (SS), and the third strategy as the "dissimilar-ad strategy" (DS).

Identical-ad Strategy

The identical-ad strategy uses identical repeated exposures of a selected advertisement in an advertising campaign. Benefits of the IS include encouraging the audience to rehearse the message, transferring information to long-term memory, and forestalling forgetting (Loudon and Della Bitta 1984).

Another benefit may be its cost. A good advertising strategy gives direction to a campaign and its development. Once the strategy of a campaign has been established, and a decision has been made to follow the identical-ad strategy, only one advertisement or commercial needs to be developed. Obviously, using more than one advertisement or commercial in an advertising campaign requires greater time and effort for copytesting (Reid and Haan 1979). Also, using more than one advertisement or commercial increases production costs, which surged 99% between 1979 and 1984, more than double the growth rate of the consumer index, according to a recent study by the Association of National Advertisers (Alsop 1985). When \$100,000 to \$200,000 isn't unusual for producing a 30-second commercial, using repeated exposures of one commercial can mean substantial savings (Sawyer 1973; Winter 1973; McCullough and Ostrom 1974).

A third rationale for using repetition of one single commercial in a campaign may be the positive findings on repeated exposure. Much of the research was generated on Zajonc's (1968) theory of mere exposure, which suggests that a person's attitude toward a stimulus is positively related to exposure frequency, an effect Zajonc attributed to the pleasantness associated with having an increasingly familiar stimulus.

A number of studies have examined the effects of repetition on attitude, purchase intention, and cognitive response. They all reported promising findings. For example, Winter (1973) found that exposure to the commercials decreased the distance between attitudes toward the advertised brand and the ideal brand. However, the greater amount of attitude change occurred during the first two exposures and then diminished. A significant effect was reported on individuals initially unfamiliar with the advertised brand and it was positively related to brand familiarity for the relatively new brand. McCullough and Ostrom (1974) examined the effects of repeated exposure and found that repetition resulted in a significant positive effect on cognitive response activity, as subjects listed more positive thoughts and fewer negative thoughts with repeated exposure.

Similar-ad Strategy

The similar-ad strategy employs a series of advertisements in a campaign. Advertisements in SS follow a central theme but with variation. The different ads are carefully created to carry executional resemblance. Often, the ads employ the same actors, use similar action flows or layouts, and adopt the same types of appeal.

The similar-ad strategy stems from the observation that not all research on repetition produced positive findings. For example, null effects of advertising repetition were found in a study by Mitchell and Olson (1977): repetition of two types of print ads had no effect on belief strength, attitude or purchase intention. Ginter (1974) found that neither overall attitude change nor brand choice was affected by the number of message exposures. Other findings (Goldberg 1954; Wilson and Miller 1968; Johnson and Watkins 1971) have shown that repeated exposures do not produce more immediate attitude change than do a single exposure.

Research has indicated that even when persuasive communications are initially effective, subsequent exposures cause effectiveness to level off and ultimately decline -- a phenomenon known as wearout (Calder and Sternthal 1980). Two causes of wearout have been identified in laboratory experiments. One is inattention. With increasing repetition, viewers may no longer attend to a message thus it stands no chance of being yielded to. Evidence of inattention as a cause of wearout was found in a study by Craig, Sternthal and Leavitt (1976). Concurrently, some researchers believe that an important common factor among failures in most repetition studies is that they all use repetition of identical messages (McCullough and Ostrom 1974). Indeed, wearout in attention due to identical repetition of the same commercial was significantly reduced when different commercial executions for the product were used (Grass and Wallace 1969). And wearout did not occur when no pattern of increased own thoughts was produced (McCullough and Ostrom 1974). In another study, Sears and Freedman (1965) reported that

people were more willing to change their attitudes when they thought a message contained new information than when they expected a message to repeat previously received information. The authors suggested that the expectation of new information provided a satisfactory justification for relinquishing previous commitments, thereby allowing greater agreement with the advocated position. Furthermore, people attend more closely to the messages.

The second possible cause of wearout is active information processing (Calder, Insko and Yandell 1974; Cook 1969; Greenwald 1968; Wright 1975). According to this view, recipients of persuasive messages rehearse two kinds of thoughts: message-related thoughts reflecting message content, and their own thoughts reflecting personal associations. With the initial exposure, the individual's thoughts tend to be message-related. At some level of repetition, own thoughts indirectly linked to the message tend to dominate. These own thoughts, in general, are less positive than message-related ones toward the product. This decrease in message-related thoughts and increase in own thoughts produces a wearout effect such as that observed by Cacioppo and Petty (1979). In their study, Cacioppo and Petty reported that increasing the exposure to a persuasive written communication from a low to a moderate level enhanced agreement with the advocacy, whereas additional exposures resulted in a decline in agreement. The number of negative thoughts listed in response to the appeal declines after the first several exposures and increases thereafter, whereas the number of positive thoughts followed a nonsignificant increase-then-decline pattern as repetitions mounted.

Implications from these earlier studies on avoiding wearout from repetition has resulted in a shift from using repetition of identical advertisements to repetition of similar but not identical advertisements (McCullough and Ostrom 1974). This represents a shift from an identical-ad approach to a similar-ad approach (Bogart 1967) which is considered superior to repetition of identical advertisements (Robertson 1970) because different ads on the same theme yet with variation can keep interest high a longer period of time (Gilson and Berkman 1980).

An example of SS is the "Light Beer from Miller" series of commercials starring Bubba Smith and Dick Butkus. The commercials in the series, though not identical, follow a similar execution, using the same pair of star actors and flow of events. In the commercials, the two actors are seen in a relatively stereotypic sequence of events. They are usually featured in relation to a sport activity. They enter the picture, pick up the product, promote its attributes and then follow up with a joke about the game in which they have just participated. The commercial then closes with an ending recap of the product and the punch line. The scenes, selling positions and casts across the series of commercials reveal repetition of a common execution and a highly similar action flow.

Other successful characters such as Mr. Whipple (Charmin tissues), Madge the manicurist (Palmolive dishwashing liquid), Rosie (Bounty towels) and John Houseman (Smith Barney) exemplify the similar-ad strategy's popularity. It is suggested that the people, settings and comments depicted in these respective advertising campaigns following

the similar-ad approach are more readily identifiable and consistent with consumers' perceptions of the advertisements.

Note, however, that the similar-ad does not preclude any specific type of appeal or execution style. An advertiser is free to choose the best format for the message and the product. There are no restrictions on the advance organizers, copy or illustrations. Nor are there limitations favoring the testimonial, humor, sex, comparison, or fear appeals.

Dissimilar-ad Strategy

An advertising campaign can also be made up of a series of advertisements that appear on the surface to have little in common with one another. This strategy does not entail repetition in the same manner as do the IS and SS strategies. In this dissertation, the dissimilar-ad strategy is defined as a strategy using a series of commercials that have very little executional resemblance in common with one another. Such commercials are only related because they are directed to the same set of overall objectives and advocate similar selling positions. The commercials may differ in their themes, appeals, or executions. An example of this strategy is Coca Cola's new series of ads promoting the introduction of its new formula. The commercials in the series are very different in terms of their casts, executions and themes.

The dissimilar-ad strategy does not appear to be a popular one because of its limited benefits. DS could conceivably be appropriate if an advertiser with a tight budget or diverse audience needs to appeal to different product-use or benefit segments (Mandell 1980). For

example, a fast-food chain may want to do some advertising aimed at working wives and some directed at students. Consequently these ads will not show as high degree of cumulative effect on either target market than a concerted effort will.

However, Larry Light, president-ceo of Ted Bates International, believes that the dissimilar strategy is catching on, and will become an important trend in advertising (Danzig 1987). This "album approach," as Light refers to it, is more desirable than using the same "single" commercial merely rearranged several different ways, particularly when marketing to the "Smarter Generation" who is more sophisticated, more sensitive, more skeptical, and always in a state of change.

What theories can best explain the identical, similar and dissimilar campaign-composition strategies' differential effectiveness in affecting consumer recall of advertising? While several theoretical explanations have been offered, one psychological concept -- script theory -- appears to be most congenial in explaining the intrinsic differences in their mechanics. This theory will provide the foundation which is hypothesized to account for the IS, SS, and DS campaign-composition strategies' advantages and drawbacks in influencing advertising recall.

Campaign-composition Strategy and Scripts

From a cognitive standpoint, consumers almost have to prioritize their thinking activities to avoid information overload and cognitive stress. This may be necessary since cognitive psychologists discovered very early that people have limited channel capacities for processing information (Shannon and Weaver 1949), and that as a result of this,

people avoid overload by utilizing models that identify less rigorous and less normatively acceptable rules of inference (Tetlock and Levi 1982, p.73). People do not approach each event as though it were unique. Rather, they try to make sense of the world using organizing principles that classify objects or events as instances of broader categories. This ability and tendency to construct models of the world, to predict occurrences, and to establish expectations is one of human intellect's most powerful aspects. As a result, people have different social knowledge structures -- scripts -- which watch over the processing and retrieval of information.

Abelson (1976) proposed that a script is a "coherent sequence of events expected by the individual, involving him either as a participant or as an observer," and is learned throughout the individual's lifetime through direct or vicarious experiences. Scripts can serve as models of comprehension which enable understanding of conventional activities and texts with standard outcomes (Bower, Black and Turner 1979). With an established script, a person may rely heavily on the most salient information in the situation and settle for the first adequate (satisficing) explanation consistent with it (e.g. the availability and representativeness heuristics, Nisbett and Ross 1980). Here attributions are viewed largely as "top-of-the-head" phenomena (Taylor and Fiske 1978).

Scripts are expected to be applied when consumer are processing marketer-controlled messages, particularly television commercials. This author postulates that repeated viewing of an identical commercial or a series of similar though not identical commercials will lead

viewers to establish stereotypic representations -- scripts -- as a means to avoid mindful processing of that product's commercials. This may indeed reflect the general attitude towards mindful processing of television commercials, because thinking is effortful and is often just not necessary (Langer 1978). For many people, television provides only a pleasant background while they read, study, cook, or entertain (Bovee and Arens 1986). Although advertisers would like to assume that the act of television viewing is active and mindful, they must be ready to accept that this group of activities may be, in fact mindless --- mindless in the sense that attention is not paid precisely to those substantive elements that are relevant for the successful resolution of the situation (Langer, Blank and Chanowitz 1978). Indeed, even young viewers now appear much more judicious and selective in their attention to an operating television set than was once presumed, by using early-acquired knowledge about the medium as a determinant of attention allocation (Collins 1981). And such inattention has been reported to occur despite the implementation of strategies to enhance attention (Calder and Sternthal 1980).

The various advertising campaign-composition strategies do not lend themselves equivalently to the possibility of script establishment. It has been discussed in the previous section that only commercials in the similar strategy usually follow a common theme with variations, use similar sequences in presentation and characteristics. Thus, SS commercials are expected to have the highest degree of scripting -- the degree that events or scenes are stored in appropriately scripted contexts. DS commercials, on the other hand,

are expected to have the lowest degree of scripting, surpassed even by IS commercials. This difference in degree of scripting is expected to affect viewers' comprehension and enjoyment of the commercials, ability to predict the structures of the commercials, and the ultimate recall of the commercials. This may be so because scripting enables viewers to draw upon a script to facilitate the ordering of incoming information thereby reducing the cognitive strain and anxiety resulting from encoding and retrieval. Additionally, scripted information are perceived to be more central, and are more readily recalled.

A high degree of scripting is not always desirable, however. Viewers' stronger ability to predict the structure and recall scripted information of a commercial may be a drawback to some advertisers' plans. Marketers introducing new sets of attributes for their products under a similar strategy may realize that the new information is not readily assimilated because viewers have already developed stereotypic expectations about the product's messages. The new information may simply be perceived as anticipated variations of the script developed from exposure to earlier similar-strategy commercials. By the same token, the same fate may be expected for marketers trying to correct false information about their products with new advertising campaigns.

Two issues need to be examined. First, do viewers establish stereotypic representations of SS commercials? Evidence of a pretest to be presented suggests scripts are established. Second, if viewers indeed establish stereotypic representations of SS commercials, what specific predictions can be made regarding the IS, SS and DS strategies' effectiveness in influencing viewers' recall, and

assimilation of new information? These questions are addressed in the Hypothesis section presented later in this chapter. Following is a more elaborate discussion on the script theory, and how its properties explain for the three campaign- composition strategies' abilities to affect advertising recall and new information assimilation.

Scripts

Situation-schemata or scripts are prior beliefs and expectations about probable behavior in various social settings (Kelley and Michela 1980). Several communication theorists (Smith 1982; Cappella and Folger 1980; Infante 1980) have proposed that dynamic cognitive organizers such as "scripts" might be viewed profitably as mediators of effective communication. They influence attributions by affecting the information which we select to process and the inferences we draw. And, once formed, scripts are slow to change in response to new evidence.

According to script theory, the information processor is hypothesized to possess conceptual representations of stereotyped event sequences; these scripts are activated when one can expect events to occur in an anticipated sequence (Schank and Abelson 1977). Scripts serve two classes of knowledge during the understanding process: general knowledge, and specific knowledge. First, scripts enable us to refer to frequent event sequences in a sketchy manner. It would be improbable to try to recover every missing event in a sequence of actions. Second, scripts provide a mechanism for recovering steps that have been left out of a particular sequence. Some of these steps may be needed to understand a given event. This "script applier" mechanism

fills in the event chain between two seemingly unrelated events by referring to the script.

Langer (1978 p.39) suggests that a continuum of awareness varies directly with the degree of repeated experience with an activity. The more we have engaged in the activity, the more likely it is that we will rely on scripts for its completion. For example, consider the following story:

It's five o'clock, end of a rough day. Mark is anxious to get home and relax. He quickly puts away his work and heads for the parking lot. In a matter of minutes, he is in his car on his way out.

Although no active remembering is necessary, Mark probably will have no trouble locating his car keys, turning on the ignition and following a familiar route back to his residence. The behaviors in this situation come from a "homeward drive" script, activated at the first moment Mark steps out from his office. In a parallel fashion, a Miller Lite commercial might be processed following a "Miller Lite starring Bubba Smith and Dick Butkus" script, activated at the first moment the viewer notices the opening scene in the commercial showing the two actors in a familiar bar scene. In each case, the script contains a standard sequence of events characterizing a routine sequence of activities.

A script governs a body of inferences. For a script to have special status as a cognitive structure, it must embody more than some simple inference rule. Abelson writes (1981, p.717):

In sum, a script is a hypothesized cognitive structure that when activated organizes comprehension of event-based situations. In its weak sense, it is a bundle of inferences about the potential occurrence of a set of events and may be structurally similar to other schemata that do not deal with events. In its strong sense, it involves expectations about the order as well as the occurrence of events. In the strongest sense of a totally ritualized event sequence (e.g. a Japanese tea ceremony), script predictions become infallible -- but this case is relatively rare...

At first blush it may seem that scripts are reminiscent of habits, yet the two are quite different. The difference between a script and a habit is that a script is a knowledge structure, not just a response program. The present concept of scripts, as Abelson (1981) has operationalized it, does not necessarily imply totally automatic performance and is not equivalent to Langer's concept of "mindless behavior" (Langer et al, 1978; Langer and Imber 1979; Langer and Newman 1979). One obvious way in which "mindful" behavior enters scripts is that acts of thinking can appear explicitly in the specified event sequence. Thoughtful processing can occur in script performance, particularly when obstacles or unusual variations occur.

Theoretical Basis of Script Theory

Memory is an important entity that forms the basis of script theory. The form of memory organization upon which arguments are based is the notion of episodic memory (Schank and Abelson 1977). An episodic view of memory claims that memory is organized around personal experiences or episodes rather than around abstract semantic categories. If memory is organized around personal experiences, then one of the principal components of memory must be a procedure for recognizing repeated or similar sequences. When a standard repeated sequence is recognized, it is helpful by "filling in the blanks" in

understanding. In fact, much of language generation behavior can be explained in this stereotyped way.

A competing view is the semantic-memory proposal for memory organization. Briefly, semantic memory is a memory for words that is organized hierarchically using class membership as the basic link. But clearly, such an organization will work neither for verbs, nor abstract nouns that do not submit easily to standard categories. This organization is especially infeasible in the conceptual, non-word-oriented system. An episodic memory, on the other hand, is organized around propositions linked together by their occurrence in the same event or time span. Objects are most commonly defined by their place in a sequence of propositions describing the events associated with an object for an individual. A trip is stored in memory as a sequence of the conceptualizations describing what happened on the trip. Some of the conceptualizations will be marked as salient and some will have been forgotten altogether. It is important to take into account what people systematically ignore as well as what they systematically process. And it is important to distinguish between information that is ignored because it is irrelevant and information that is ignored because it is already known (Langer, Blank and Chanowitz 1978).

As an economy measure in the storage of episodes, when enough of them are alike they are remembered in terms of a generalized episode which we called a script. Thus, rather than list the details of what happened during a Miller Lite commercial, memory simply moves a pointer to what we call the "Miller Lite starring Bubba Smith and Dick Butkus" script and stores the items in this particular episode that were

significantly different from the general script as the only items specifically in the description of that episode. This economy of storage has a side effect of poor memory for detail. But such a side effect is the price of enabling people to remember anything at all.

Types of Scripts and Interactions

There are basically three types of scripts (Schank and Abelson 1977,p.63). There is situation script like in a "salesperson-customer" interaction. It provides great social economy when both parties know the script because neither party needs invest effort in deciding what the actions of the other mean and how appropriately to respond.

Sometimes, an actor may follow some personal scripts, over and beyond the actions needed to conform to the situational script. In personal scripts the actor does not behave in the stylized fashion of situational scripts. In fact, all the participants in personal scripts are not necessarily aware of their participation. The personal script exists solely in the mind of its main actor. It consists of a sequence of possible actions that will lead to a desired goal. It differs from a plan because there is no planning involved for the actor. There is, of course, no limit to the mental projections that a person can bring to a situation in the hope of attaining some goal. From a social economy standpoint, the useful personal scripts to analyze are those which are common to many individuals, and can therefore be conjectured for new characters in a story.

The third type of script is the instrumental script. Instrumental scripts are structurally quite like situational scripts, that is, they describe prescribed sequences of actions. However, these two script

types differ in the kinds of actions they describe, the variability of their ordering, and the use of the script in understanding. Examples of instrumental scripts are "preparing a Peking duck," or "tying one's shoelaces." The order of events is very rigid, there is little variability, and each and every one of the events in the script must be completed.

Distinguishing between situational and instrumental scripts enables one to make some choices that facilitate processing. When one "instantiates" a situational script, one must set up prediction mechanisms that will be able to handle definite references to characters that have not yet been mentioned: infer the presence of important scenes or goals that have not been instantiated; find the appropriate detour path for unexpected inputs. Most importantly, mechanisms of memory must be set up to remember the unexpected events of the situational script together with the explicit and inferred main conceptualizations, MAINCON'S.

An instrumental script has available to it much of this apparatus, but it is unreasonable to bring it to the fore every time that an instrumental script is referenced. Perhaps more important is our treatment of these two script types after they have been processed. We know what a person might like to remember after having used a situational script. However, except under very unusual circumstances, the person is expected to forget the details of an instrumental script and remember only the goal. In fact, it is plausible to even forget the script entirely, to save memory space and processing time because an instrumental script can always be rediscovered.

There are several ways in which more than one script can be active at once. One possibility is when one of the scripts is in "abeyance," with a distracting script occurring within its boundaries. Another possibility is that the second script does more than merely distract from the first, but actually interferes, preventing the occurrences of normal actions.

Abelson describes eight factors that would be included in an elaborated script package. The knowledge associated with each factor could arise either through direct experience or symbolically (Abelson 1981, p.723). The first factor, equifinal actions, indicates that several different actions may accomplish the same result. The individual would presumably remember which way was personally most typical.

Variables are devices that imbue scripts with predictive generality. Although some object or person can be different script episodes, it remains constant once fixed for a given episode.

Script paths arise when there are branch points offering alternatives to normal procedures. The most crucial path choice is the entry path leading into the script.

Tracks are different script variants, each employs characteristic paths, some selections, and props not shared by other tracks.

The above five factors are variations which can be anticipated prior to running through a particular script. The last three -- interferences, distractions, and free behaviors -- are, however, unexpected sources of variation. Free behaviors are those activities that may and commonly intermix with the ongoing script. People

generally have a fairly clear conception of what behaviors are apt in particular locales. Interferences and distractions will be discussed at greater length in another part of this paper.

Script Reference

To refer to a script, one not only must understand that such a structure exists, but one must commit oneself to its performance. Abelson (1981) states three conditions that seem necessary for scripted behavior to occur. First, the individual must have a stable cognitive representation of the particular script. Second, an evoking context for the script must be presented. Third, the individual must enter the script. This third condition is the critical one between cognition and behavior. It is assumed that script entry is contingent upon satisfaction of an action rule attached to the script representation.

These policies or action rules are probably not necessarily consciously articulated by the individual. It does seem a reasonable hypothesis, however, that they are based on very few relevant conditions -- especially if a lengthy decision process is infeasible on each occurrence of the script's evoking context. The relevant conditions for action rules might include cost, effort, mood, incentive, legitimacy, and so on, but one or two of these would typically matter for any given script.

The conceptualizations which invoke a script are its headers (Schank and Abelson 1977, p.49). These headers come in four varieties, which are classified by how well they allow one to predict the associated context. The first type is called a precondition header because it triggers the script reference on the basis of a main script

precondition being mentioned in the text. A precondition header could be an actual statement of the goal that the script is normally assumed to achieve as in the statement, "Dr. John Dole for Anacin 3."

A second type of header making stronger predictions than a precondition header about the associated context is called an instrumental header. An instrumental header commonly comes up in inputs which refer to two or more contexts, of which at least one can be interpreted as "instrumental" for the others. For example, in "Jim took the bus to a local supermarket," both the bus and supermarket contexts would be predicted, since subsequent inputs about either make perfectly good sense. Here, the reference to the store is anticipatory, and the bus is a recognized instrumental means of reaching locales in which more important script goals can be expected to be achieved.

The third type is called locale header. Many situations are known to have a "residence," a place or building where they characteristically go on. Indeed, many organizations have distinctively designed buildings which signal their script to the public. "Taco Bell" is a good example. When one is near such a residence, or better yet, inside the residence, expectations about the occurrence of the script are correspondingly reinforced.

The fourth type of header is called the internal conceptualization header. Any conceptualization or role from a script may occur in a text. It will sometimes call the script up and sometimes will not. The most obvious cases of these alternatives are when a role name, such as "Sear's Patron," is used in the locale of the role or away from the role.

Even if a proper header is encountered, however, it may be inappropriate to call up all the details of a script or even its MAINCON's. This is because script references in stories are often to "fleeting scripts." For a script to be non-fleeting, two of its lines must occur, a header and one other line. When a header is found, requests are called up that connect possible inputs within the scripts. If such an input is found, then the script is "instantiated"; that is, a copy of some of its general details is made, with slots filled in by the known properties of the story at hand.

Recall of Stated Script Information

Abelson (1981 p.718) suggests that events in scripts differ in their centrality to the action flow; and that some events are indispensable to the script and summarize scenes consisting of lower level actions:

If sequence were the only important feature of strong scripts, however, they would be too much like overlearned rote strings such as the alphabet. Even highly stereotyped real-world activities such as going to a restaurant or a laundromat admit many interruptions and interpolations from one occasion to the next. In any realistic script activation, therefore, expectations can be wrong, and the processor must be prepared to deal with script violations (Abelson 1981, p.71).

Indeed, in the original formulation of script structures, there was explicit division of scripts into scenes, and within each scene there was a main conceptualization or MAINCON (Schank and Abelson 1977).

Hence, if a sequence of actions calls up an underlying script from memory to assist in the processing of a television commercial, it may be predicted that in a recall test people will tend to recall explicitly stated script information which reflects expected events

stereotypic to the script. These stated script information units may include standard characters in the script, the usual "props," and selling pitches. In fact, such stated information has been found to be mentioned with high frequency as associates with the underlying script from which it is drawn, and is often rated as centrally important to the script (Bower, Black and Turner 1979) in that subordinate actions within that script depend upon it (Abelson 1977, p.45).

Recall of Intruded Script Information

There is now some experimental evidence that while central events can be verified faster as belonging to their script than can peripheral events (Galambos and Rips 1979), false recognition memory for events in a script-based story also tends to overrepresent central events (Abbott and Black, 1980). Bower, Black and Turner (1979) suggests that high-frequency stated script information which have been mentioned in earlier but not the immediate communication may later attract false-positive recall because such information is implicitly aroused during the act of scripted processing. Thus, it is postulated that subjects may be expected to remember for some minutes the events explicitly stated in a commercial. But as their "surface memory" of the commercial fades, they would intrude more assertions into recall which in theory would be used to fill-in the gaps in the script. A model for this might suppose that television viewers have both a veridical memory for the actually seen commercial and an activated and completely filled out underlying script. In immediate recall, viewers merely reproduce their veridical memory. But this memory fades over time and they then rely upon the fully-completed script, which leads to unstated script

information mentioned in earlier commercials for the same product being intruded into recall. In fact, Bower, Black and Turner (1979) has empirically proven that while recall of stated script information exceeded that of intruded script information, the latter was also reported in an appreciable amount.

Recall of Stated New Information

New information contained in a commercial may be interpreted as an obstacle in the scripted processing of that commercial. In filling out scripts, we are relatively safe with weak inferences precisely because it is useful for non-standard occurrences to be explicitly mentioned. In order to relate an unexpected cue to an instantiated script, we need to know what kinds of events can cause detours or abrupt endings in scripts. We recognize two broad classes of such events: distractions and interferences (Schank and Abelson 1977,p.52). Distractions are unexpected states or actions which initiate new goals for the actor, carrying the person temporarily or permanently out of the script. By their nature, distractions are not tied to a particular script -- any number of things can distract a student in a library. It is possible for some event to be both an interference and a distraction. A detour will be followed until the original script is either reentered or abandoned. Scriptal deviations can thus be handled in a well-structured way.

Interferences are states or actions which prevent the normal continuation of a script. There are two types of interferences: obstacles, where some enabling condition for an impending action is missing, and errors, where an action is completed with an unexpected

and inappropriate result. The actor encountering an error uses repetitions of the action to try to get it to come out right. Often a prescription must accompany the repeated trials. For example, when a pair of custom-tailored pants turns out to be ill-fitting, the standard prescription would be to ask the tailor to fix them or refund the full amount. Alternatively, the customer may tolerate an error and accept the merchandise "as is." But some bad errors may present obstacles that are irreparable, for example, if the pants had been made too short with an insufficient hem for alteration, then the option of tolerating the error is removed.

The actor encountering new information in a commercial may respond by taking corrective action, called prescriptions, to try to produce the missing enabling condition. Alternatively, the actor may give up, either immediately or after one or more prescriptions fail, and exit from the scene. Some obstacle-prescription pairs are so common that they may come to be recognized as a path of the script itself. Every scene in a Miller Lite commercial starring Bubba Smith and Dick Butkus is potentially subject to obstacles, each of which suggests its own appropriate prescriptions. A few of these will occur with sufficient frequency, as with variations in the jokes and scenarios used, that a person repeatedly exposed to the script situation will learn them along with the other constancies of the script. This is the major way in which scripts grow. In time, one may learn a sizeable number of alternative script paths which were once detours, to the point of having prescriptive sub-branches to follow.

Whether a piece of new information will be readily recalled is dependent upon its frequency of occurrence and its similarity to the other stated script events in the underlying script. One may expect new information which resembles stated script information already in the script to be most likely treated as expected variations. Thus, this type of new information will not likely attract a lot of attention in later recall. On the other hand, new information which is different and unexpected, and which may take the processor totally out of the script will likely be better recalled.

It is also important to know that the identification of new information as obstacles often depends upon having scripts available as point of reference. If a commercial were not processed according to an underlying script, one might not recognize the new information as expected variations but rather as major interferences. Hence, one might be expected to have a stronger impression on such new information.

Beyond responding instrumentally to an obstacle or error, a consumer may often respond emotionally. One may express frustration, sadness, or anger at obstacles. These emotional states are all reactions to interferences. They may be intense enough on occasion to abort the initial goals of the script.

This section of the literature review has provided a background to the script theory. It will serve as the basis upon which later hypotheses examining the contextual effectiveness of the identical-ad, similar-ad and dissimilar-ad campaign-composition strategies are founded. The following discussion presents the literature review on the

mediating variable this dissertation attempts to address -- product familiarity.

Product Familiarity

A person's familiarity with a product depends largely on factors such as prior knowledge, usage and purchase of the specific product. Obviously, all consumers start as novices when first experiencing a product. As consumers gain experience, product familiarity grows, and this knowledge will affect the processing of marketing communications.

Indeed, product familiarity is a significant agent in explaining a number of consumer-related phenomena such as information processing (e.g. Marks and Olson 1981; Johnson and Russo 1981; Beattie 1982; Bettman and Park 1980), purchase intention (e.g. Marks and Olson 1981) and decision making (e.g. Park 1976; Tan and Dolich 1981; Alba 1983). Following is a closer examination of these recent studies which may provide a better understanding of the product familiarity concept's significance.

Product Familiarity and Knowledge Structure

Considerable evidence indicates that expert-novice difference in decision making are based on the representation of knowledge in memory (Beattie 1982). These representations can be viewed as schemata: "cognitive structures of organized prior knowledge abstracted from experiences with specific instances" (Fiske and Linville 1980). Cognitive representations are built up through accumulated experience in a domain, and they change with increasing familiarity. Expert-novice differences apparently lie both in the amount of information within a schema, and in the organization of that information. Beattie

(1982) suggests that expert consumers, by virtue of their complex knowledge structures in memory, can process and use information about both similarities and differences between a specific brand and a perceived ideal product. Novices, however, because their knowledge structures are rudimentary, are restricted to processing only similarity.

Chase and Simon (1973) demonstrated that, due to a "vast organized long-term memory of specific information about chess-board patterns," chess masters were better able to remember non-random board positions than were novices. Similarly, a well developed product schema contains structured knowledge about general product class information, product attributes, brands, and use information (Marks and Olson 1981). Since only product-familiar consumers are expected to hold well developed product schema, they are expected to be better able to remember a product's attributes than novices are.

Product Familiarity and Information Processing

Cognitive processing. Marks and Olson (1981) reported that differences in product familiarity can affect subsequent information-processing operations and the formation of product attitudes and purchase intentions. In Marks and Olson's study, secretaries, presumably more familiar with office furniture, reported marginally fewer cognitive responses, and fewer counterarguments to the product promotion than did the less experienced students. The two groups produced approximately the same number of supportive arguments. One may conclude that secretaries possess better integrated, more abstract, and presumably more effective product structures. Therefore, they might be

expected to better understand and appreciate the rather complex information presented in the sales promotion message. These results provided some support for the notion that cognitive processing of a product message is influenced by one's product-related cognitive structure, which, in turn, reflects differences in product familiarity.

Attention. As a result of accumulated experience with a product class, experts' schemata contain knowledge which can identify important product attributes. When expert consumers make brand choices, they can selectively attend to the attributes that they consider relevant to decision making. Novice consumers do not have the necessary knowledge to distinguish among important product attributes. Instead, their attention will be captured by the various salient perceptual features in the message.

Comprehension. Johnson and Russo (1981) studied the effect of product familiarity on learning new product information during subsequent purchase decisions. The stimulus was a brand-by-attribute matrix edited from an advertisement placed by General Motors' Oldsmobile Division. Subjects were asked to judge each automobile on a seven-point scale, based only on the information provided, and to choose the most preferred automobile rather than make individual judgments. Using recall as reflective indicator of amount of learning, subjects were instructed to try to recall, as much as they possibly could, not only on the information that they were given but also any observations and judgments about the alternatives and the attributes. Results from the study showed that the number of statements recalled

increased with familiarity, although the relationship was only marginally significant.

Recall. Familiarity affects both the amount of new information that is recalled, and its organization. Evidence indicates that the amount of product information recalled by both expert and novice consumers supports the "enrichment" hypothesis (Johnson and Russo 1981). The mean number of statements recalled by subjects increases with familiarity. Also found, however, was evidence that the effect of product familiarity on recall is moderated by task instructions. Instead of a linear effect of familiarity on recall, a curvilinear relationship was observed when subjects were instructed to "choose" rather than "evaluate" a product. Subjects moderately familiar with the product exhibited the greatest recall, a hypothesis predicted by Bettman and Park (1980). Johnson and Russo suggest that choice and evaluation tasks require different pattern of information processing. Consumers who make choices use sequential rules that eliminate alternatives, while in evaluation, expertise leads to a highly selective search of information, according to attribute importance.

Alba (1983) tested whether high-knowledge consumers were more capable of making better decisions than were low-knowledge consumers. Subjects were grouped by their self-assessed knowledge level in stereos into low and high knowledge groups. They then read an ad at their own pace and were told that their primary focus was on comprehending the information. The reading task was followed by a series of questions designed to evaluate the stereo, the ad, and the subjects' knowledge and experience on stereos. The results of a surprise recall test showed

that knowledge level did not affect the amount of time required to read the information. However, high-knowledge subjects recalled significantly more idea units than did low-knowledge subjects. Perhaps more interesting, high-knowledge subjects recalled more complex information than did low-knowledge subjects. This difference accounted for the difference in total recall, despite a small amount of recall errors. Also, high-knowledge subjects not only recalled more information, but also found information related to their area of expertise to be more comprehensible than did low-expertise subjects.

Behavioral intention. In Marks and Olson's (1981) study, secretaries -- the product familiar subjects -- reported fewer counterarguments than their product unfamiliar counterparts. This difference in the number of counterarguments was said to have mediated the formation of attitudes and intention. Indeed, the secretaries had more favorable attitudes toward the chair, and higher likelihoods of recommending its purchase.

Product Familiarity and Decision Making

Information search. A number of studies have found a negative relationship between amount of product experience and amount of external search (Anderson, Engledow and Becker 1979; Katona and Mueller 1955; Moore and Lehmann 1980; Newman and Staelin 1971; Swan 1969). Brucks (1985) states that one explanation for these results claims that experienced consumers have prior knowledge about the attributes of various alternatives, and consequently do not need to acquire such information from external sources. However, a second explanation for these results holds that experienced consumers perform more efficient

information searches because they know which attributes are the most useful for discriminating between brands and can more quickly determine which alternatives are inferior.

Other studies have postulated that prior knowledge encourages information search by making it easier to process new information (Johnson and Russo 1984; Punj and Staelin 1983). Knowledge may help the individual evaluate responses to questions, thus reducing the cognitive cost of using information and increasing the benefit of obtaining it.

Concurrently, other studies have found an inverted-U shaped relationship between prior knowledge and information search (Bettman and Park 1980; Hempel 1969; Johnson and Russo 1984). For example, Bettman and Park (1980) posit that inexperienced consumers have difficulty understanding new information, and therefore search less. Consumers with moderate knowledge can both understand the new information and also benefit from its retention, so they search widely. Very experienced consumers, on the other hand, have little need for it. Therefore, they search less, although they can understand new product information.

This inverted-U relationship itself was not supported in Brucks' (1985) study. But the findings supported that knowledge facilitates the learning of new information, and that knowledge allows for more efficient searching.

Alternative evaluation. Tan and Dolich (1981) used a procedure similar to Kelly's (1955) and Bieri's (1955) to investigate how one's prior product familiarity may affect the efficiencies of multi-

attribute choice models in predicting brand preferences. Subjects were instructed to pick the ten most familiar brands from a list of twenty-two and to evaluate each brand on ten dimensions along a 10x10 matrix. Prior familiarity with the product class was found to be a moderating variable in choice model predictability. The high-familiarity group had consistently shown slightly higher mean scores than the low familiarity group. The authors proposed that evaluation of brands might be related more to cognitive structure than to product familiarity. Consequently, regardless of their levels of brand familiarity, subjects could still generate meaningful brand evaluation through unique cognitive capacities.

Operationalization of Product Familiarity

Earlier studies on product familiarity have definitely provided some insights to the problem, yet there remains one important barrier to the further investigation of this phenomenon. In consumer behavior research, operationalization of the general "familiarity" concept is rather inconsistent (Brucks 1985; Marks and Olson 1981). Although the different studies are theoretically measuring a concept similar to "familiarity," they employ considerably different measures. Marks and Olson (1981) sum up the confusion in their recent article:

For example, Berelson and Steiner (1964) found that "pre-existing information" was one of several predisposing factors in determining audience receptivity to "congenial and noncongenial messages." Park (1976) measured product familiarity in terms of subjects' agreement with statements designed to operationalize Howard and Sheth's (1969) concepts of extensive, limited and routinized problem solving. Based on the Bayesian concept of prior distribution, Woodruff (1972) used subjects' evaluations of a brand-attribute combination and their uncertainty about this rating to operationalize "prior information" about brand attributes. Lastovicka (1979) measured

"knowledge about the product class" by asking subjects if they could "talk about a general group of products for a long time." He also measured "remembered personal experience" by subjects' responses to "I can remember having purchased something in this general group of products." Raju and Reilly (1979) measured product familiarity in terms of subjects' self-reported "frequency of use, overall familiarity, and knowledge of how to select the best brand." These studies exemplify the diverse and occasionally vague approaches taken in much of the past research on "familiarity." (p.145)

Brucks (1985) attributes the inconsistency in operational definitions to two causes. First, each individual researcher, having no general accepted measure to use, must develop his or her own. Second, it is difficult for researchers to build upon previous work when developing theories, since it is uncertain whether all these measures are measuring the same construct.

A closer examination of the general concept of "familiarity" reveals two formative components -- product class knowledge, and usage experience. The usage experience component seems somewhat inconsistent with the information processing approach (Brucks 1985). It holds that experience affects behavior only when experience results in difference in memory. If different individuals learn different things from similar experiences, then their behaviors are likely to differ. Thus, experience-based knowledge is less directly linked to behavior than are product class knowledge. If experience-based knowledge does not have a direct impact on behavior, then prior product class knowledge becomes the most important formative component of familiarity. Indeed, product familiarity is defined as product knowledge in this dissertation.

Two approaches are available for operationalizing and measuring product familiarity or product knowledge (Park and Lessig 1981). The objective approach measures product familiarity in terms of how much a

person knows about the product. The subjective approach measures familiarity in terms of how much a person thinks he or she knows about the product. Differences between the subjective approach and the objective approach occur when people do not accurately perceive how much or how little they actually know, assuming that the measures are equally sensitive (Brucks 1985). Only one study (Rudell 1979) actually compared the effects of objective knowledge and subjective knowledge on information processing activities. Rudell (1979) concluded that objective knowledge facilitates deliberation and use of newly acquired information, while subjective knowledge increases reliance on previously stored information. Neither objective nor subjective knowledge was significantly related to amount of information acquired.

The Effects of Scripts and Product Familiarity
on Advertising Recall:
Hypothesis Generation

This section introduces the theoretical explanation and predictions which address the effects of scripts and product familiarity on advertising recall. Specifically, the discussion addresses how recall of stated script information, intruded script information and stated new information are influenced by the three campaign-composition strategies described earlier. These three categories of memory test are investigated because of their reflections on the existence of script formation or the lack of it attributable to the three campaign-composition strategies under study. As discussed in an earlier section, stated script information is interpreted as explicitly stated information in a commercial which reflects expected events or messages stereotypic to an underlying script. Intruded script information, on

the other hand, refers to information stereotypic to a script which is not mentioned in the immediate test commercial but has been conveyed in earlier exposures of its similar counterparts, yet is later recalled because such information has been implicitly aroused during the scripted processing. Stated new information is defined as obstacles encountered by a person in the scripted processing of a commercial because the information prevents the normal continuation of the script. Depending on the degree of newness, these obstacles may merely be treated as expected variations to the existing script or as major interruptions.

The impact of a mediating variable, product familiarity, will also be discussed.

The following discussion is divided along three main focal points. The first subsection traces through the rationale leading to predictions regarding the main effect expected of the campaign-composition factor. The second subsection contains the theoretical explanation of the product-familiarity main effect while the third subsection addresses the justification for predictions expected of these two independent factors' interactive effect on advertising recall. Each section begins with a problem statement followed by a discussion on the literature pertinent to that problem. Then based on the literature reviewed in that subsection, research hypotheses and specific predictions are raised.

Campaign-composition Strategies and Advertising Recall

Problem. Is a subject's recall of stated script information, intruded script information and stated new information affected by the

campaign-composition strategy after which these advertising messages are designed?

Recall of stated script information. Recall may be influenced indirectly by affecting subjects' ability to predict the structure of the ads, enjoyment of the ads, and perception of the amount of information in the ads. Differences in the ability to predict the structure of an ad can be traced to differences in the commercials' degree of communality, which distinguishes between the IS, SS and DS strategies. Bozinoff and Roth (1983) found that script-activity recognition scores were significantly different depending on the commonness of the activity to the script (centrality). Recognition memory was best for very common activities followed by moderately common activities and then uncommon activities.

In the context of advertising recall, recognition memory may be expected to be best for common or scripted information across a series of identical advertisements, such as that found in IS commercials, followed by moderately scripted information, such as that found in SS commercials, and then non-scripted information, such as that found in DS commercials. One may argue that SS commercials differ from DS commercials in that the former usually follow a common theme, similar sequence in presentation, and use similar characters and selling pitches. The degree of scripting -- the extent to which information presented in a series of commercials within a campaign follow a stereotypic presentation, is expected to be higher for SS commercials than for DS commercials. Correspondingly, since the identical-ad strategy uses repetitions of an identical ad, commercials in this

strategy should command the highest degree of scripting among all three campaign-composition strategies.

The significant difference in the degree of scripting is an important factor in influencing the ability to predict the structure of an ad, which affects recall. Gardner (1983) suggests that since individuals have limited resources, they must focus on some stimuli and specific aspects of each stimulus during exposure to a given message. It follows that those aspects of a stimulus which receive a lot of attention during exposure, such as the scripted information in IS or SS commercials, may be more readily recalled (Taylor and Fiske 1978). Although some theorists argue that depth of processing (Craik and Lockhart 1972) or the number of linkages to stored information (cf. Hastie 1980; Scrull 1981), and not the amount of attention, may be the major determinant of recall, it remains clear that attention toward the scripted information in IS or SS commercials is greater than non-scripted information in DS commercials. This may be so because the scripted information is perceived as more central (Bower, Black and Turner 1979). Also, if subjects direct attention away from other non-scripted events in the advertisements, this will in turn decrease recall of non-scripted events. Thus, IS or SS commercials should be more easily recalled than DS commercials should.

Another explanation for the differences in the ability to predict the structure of an ad between the IS, SS and DS strategies may be the differences in comprehension. Comprehension refers to the process by which we attach meaning to various stimuli. Assuming that the importance of recipient factors such as intelligence, self-esteem and

gender difference has been controlled for, the IS or SS strategy can conceivably lead to greater comprehension because the information contained in the commercials is stereotypic. In script theory terms, because the events or scenes are stored in appropriately scripted contexts, the priming of one script event from the theme or simply the mention of the theme name leads to especially fast recognition of another script event (den Uyl and van Oostendorp 1980). This effect can be characterized as the simultaneous activation of a set of conceived events, any of which may become involved in local inferences (Abelson 1981). It may be inferred that subjects can consciously draw upon their scripts when asked to describe familiar activities (Bower, Black and Turner 1979; Graesser, Gordon, and Sawyer 1979), such as common ideas or scenes from SS commercials. The ability to draw upon a script facilitates the ordering of incoming information, thereby reducing the cognitive strain and anxiety resulting from encoding and retrieval (Whitney and John 1983), which enhances comprehension.

Recall is also enhanced because of the presence of a high degree of repetition among ads in the IS and SS strategies due to script formation. Subjects exposed to repeated messages should be able to remember them better. According to the message-learning approach, repetition should enhance the total comprehension of the message, just as reading a passage in a text several times may help a person to understand and accept its points (Petty and Cacioppo 1981). Consistent with these suggestions, Wilson and Miller (1968) demonstrated that three presentations of jury trial excerpts led to better learning and retention of the arguments than did one presentation.

One may argue that scripted information in the IS or SS strategy may be viewed as reduction of the amount of information contained in the ads. This will lead to a negative effect since the total amount of information is positively related to ad recall. This fact notwithstanding, it is likely that the loss in terms of total amount of information contained in the ads due to similarity across commercials resulting from script formation, would actually be offset by gains in increased ability to predict the structure of an ad, and enjoyment of the ad. Consequently, IS and SS commercials are expected to lead to higher recall of stated scripted information than are DS commercials.

By the same token, one may argue that identical repetitions in the IS condition should lead to higher recall of stated script information than the SS condition should since the degree of scripting is expected to be higher for the former than it is for the latter. First, exposures in the IS strategy represent identical repetitions which may affect enjoyment of the ad in a positive manner. Holbrook (1978) suggested that repetition can be viewed as linked to expectation and identification. Repeated expectation and identification can lead to enjoyment, which may hold attention better. A higher level of attention benefits recall. Thus, identical repetitions in the IS strategy is expected to lead to higher recall of stated scripted information than the SS strategy.

Another supportive explanation for repetition's positive effect on enjoyment of an ad comes from research on response competition (Harrison and Zajonc 1970; Matlin 1970; Harrison 1969). Harrison (1969) utilized Berlyne's (1960) theories on novelty and argued that a novel

stimulus presents a problem for the subject. Because the subject has had little or no prior experience with the new stimulus, one does not know how to respond to it. Response competition is the tension state produced by antagonistic response tendencies during the initial appearance of a novel stimulus. These elicited tendencies are responses indirectly linked to the novel stimulus. As a tension state, response competition is associated with negative affect. Subsequent exposures strengthen some of the response tendencies while crowding out others. When one tendency becomes dominant, response competition is reduced. Response competition can explain research results that show how exposure effects are more likely to occur with homogeneous rather than heterogeneous exposure sequences. Homogeneous exposure sequences avoid any confusion with other stimuli and accelerate the reduction of response competition. Since only commercials in the IS strategy, not those in the SS strategy, employ identical repetitions, only they can be expected to lead to greater enjoyment of the ad.

On the other hand, identical repetitions may have their drawbacks. Evidence of inattention as a cause of wearout was found in a study by Craig, Sternthal and Leavitt (1976). They observed a significant decline in brand-name recall when exposure substantially exceeded the number needed to learn those brand names. This effect appears to be a threat to IS commercials because they represent identical presentations of the same message. But wearout should not influence the effectiveness of SS commercials because inattention due to repeated exposure to the same commercial is reduced with variation in executions (Grass and Wallace 1969). '

In sum, two competitive predictions on the IS and SS commercials' abilities to influence enjoyment of the ad are observed. IS commercials may reduce response competition, thus reduce the tension tendencies associated with information processing. IS commercials may also lead to greater likelihood of wearout. If, IS and SS subjects are expected to form stereotypic conceptions -- scripts -- of their respective series of commercials, then it is possible that the difference in response competition and wearout between the IS and SS strategies will be minimized. It follows that audiences exposed to IS or SS commercials should show a similar degree in enjoyment of the ads.

Since IS and SS subjects are expected to form scripts of their commercials, these people can also be expected to show a similar ability to predict the structure of the ads and a similar perception of the amount of information contained in the ads. Thus, subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials can be expected to show similar levels of recall of stated script information. This and subsequent predictions of no significant differences between the identical and similar strategies will present an interesting testing ground for the prudence of using similar but not identical commercials to counter the shortcomings of identical repetitions of the same ad.

Hypothesis one.

H1a: Subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of stated script information.

H1b: Subjects exposed to IS commercials will show significantly higher recall of stated script information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

H1c: Subjects exposed to SS commercials will show significantly higher recall of stated script information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

Recall of intruded script information. By definition, intruded script information refers to messages conveyed in earlier but not in the immediate communication, which are recalled by subjects to fill-in the gaps while relying on an established script to process the information. Hence, commercials which are expected to result in formation of scripts may also result in higher recall of intruded script information. This hypothesis is derived from findings reported by Whitney and John (1983), and Bower, Black and Turner (1979) that unmentioned script activities which are aroused during scripted processing score high on recognition. In the context of this study, this type of information reflects stereotypic messages contained in an established underlying script but not in the immediate stimulus commercial, which are expected to be invoked to assist scripted processing. Note that retrieval from memory is only facilitated if stereotypic expectations associated with an existing product knowledge base are present (Snyder and Uranowitz 1978; Markus 1977). Thus, the formation of scripts only affect subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials because only they are expected to develop stereotypic expectations. These subjects will show a higher recall of intruded script information than will subjects exposed to DS commercials. Since IS and SS subjects are expected to engage in scripted processing of their commercials, these people are not expected to differ in this category of recall.

Hypothesis two.

H2a: Subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of intruded script information.

H2b: Subjects exposed to IS commercials will show significantly higher recall of intruded script information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

H2c: Subjects exposed to SS commercials will show significantly higher recall of intruded script information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

Recall of stated new information. Although a positive relationship is predicted between scripting and the recall of stated and intruded script information, the reverse is expected between these strategies and recall of new information. In the advertising context, new information may be interpreted as information conveyed only in a newly created stimulus commercial, not mentioned in any previous commercials promoting the same product. In script theory terms, new information in a commercial may be viewed as obstacles to the continuation of a script. If subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials perceive the new information as anticipated variations, they may be assimilated and recalled without attracting special attention. But subjects may also perceive these variations as unexpected sources of variation, or errors (Abelson 1981) which might result in the wrongful completion of a given script event. Such errors might leave strong impressions on the viewers, hence are expected to be more readily recalled. Although subjects in this study may only have been exposed to a few similar commercials before new information is introduced, it is conceivable that these people have had enough opportunity to assimilate the systematic sources of such variation to have learned them

experientially or symbolically, and stored them along with the script. If prescriptions are formed, new information will not interrupt IS and SS subjects' scripted processing of a commercial containing new information. Hence, there is reason to believe that the new information -- interruptions -- will be less acute for subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials than for those exposed to DS commercials. Thus, IS and SS subjects are expected to show lower recall of new information than are DS subjects. Since IS and SS subjects are expected to engage in scripted processing of their assigned commercials, these people are not expected to differ in this category of recall.

Hypothesis three.

H3a: Subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of stated new information.

H3b: Subjects exposed to IS commercials will show significantly lower recall of stated new information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

H3c: Subjects exposed to SS commercials will show significantly lower recall of stated new information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

Product Familiarity and Advertising Recall

Problem. Is a subject's recall of stated script information, intruded script information and stated new information affected by one's degree of familiarity with the test product?

Recall of stated script information. Evidence indicates that the amount of product information recalled by both expert and novice consumers supports the "enrichment" hypothesis (Johnson and Russo 1981). Results from the study showed that the mean number of statements recalled by subjects increases with familiarity, although

the relation is only marginally significant. It seems logical to assume that subjects will recall more stated script information for a product with which they are familiar than for one with which they are unfamiliar.

Hypothesis four.

H4: Subjects will show significantly higher recall of stated script information for a product with which they are familiar than for one which with they are unfamiliar.

Recall of intruded script information. Intrusion of previously-learned information to fill-in gaps while processing commercials is a property characteristic of the effects of scripts. Since product familiarity is not expected to lead to the formation of scripts, subjects are not expected to show any significant difference in recall of intruded script information for a product with which they are familiar and for one with which they are unfamiliar.

Hypothesis five.

H5: Subjects will show no significant difference in recall of intruded script information between a product with which they are familiar and one with which they are unfamiliar.

Recall of stated new information. There are two views surrounding the relationship between product familiarity and stated new information recall. One view postulates a negative relation between these two variables. This notion is derived from the "inverted-U" shaped relationship between prior knowledge and information search (Bettman and Park 1980; Hempel 1969; Johnson and Russo 1981). Subjects familiar with a product are said to have prior knowledge about the attributes. Since these subjects do not need to acquire new information although they can understand it, the information may not be remembered as well.

Concurrently, other studies suggest a positive relationship between product familiarity and new information recall. Experts are thought to have knowledge which can identify important product attributes. When expert consumers make brand choices, they can selectively attend to the attributes that they consider relevant to decision making. Product-unfamiliar subjects do not have the necessary knowledge to distinguish among important product attributes. Instead, their attention will be captured by salient perceptual features. It seems likely that high-familiarity subjects would be more sensitive to new information than their counterparts. This notion is consistent with other findings (Fiske and Kinder 1980). Fiske and Kinder suggest different processing rules for experts and novices -- inexperienced people may proceed through information noticing schema-similar attributes and ignoring the rest. Experts seem to notice schema-similar and different attributes, collecting together different information. Using schemata understood by both experts and novices, the authors demonstrated that only experts were sensitive to the discrepancy of information from the schema. The evidence suggesting a positive relationship between product familiarity and new information recall seems to be more congenial than that which postulates a negative relationship.

Hypothesis six.

H6: Subjects will show significantly higher recall of stated new information for a product with which they are familiar than for one with which they are unfamiliar.

Interactive Effects

Problem. Is recall of stated script information, intruded script information and stated new information conveyed in a series of commercials affected by the campaign-composition strategy after which these messages are designed, and the audience's degree of familiarity with the test product?

Recall of stated script information. Based on the preceding discussion on the effects of scripts and product familiarity on advertising recall, it would seem logical to predict that high-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials would show the highest recall of scripted information, followed by either high-familiarity subjects exposed DS commercials or low-familiarity subjects exposed to either IS or SS commercials. Low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials would show the lowest recall in this category.

There is evidence, however, to suggest that low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials, rather than low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials, would show the lowest recall of scripted information. Beattie (1983) suggests that recall may be influenced by message interpretation at two levels: an information-based level, and an experience-based level. Experience-based information generally refers to knowledge obtained through the actual use of a particular product or any product in the product class. Information-based knowledge is made up of specific product attribute-performance information which relates to use experience. One general distinction between these two types of knowledge is to consider

experiential knowledge as episodic, and more specific verbal or conceptual knowledge as semantic (Tulving 1962). Krugman (1965) refers to episodic knowledge as "photo-like." Semantic knowledge is thought to contain factual information.

Consumers familiar with a product generally have more information about specific product class attributes or information-based knowledge than do consumers unfamiliar with a product. They possess less product attribute/performance knowledge; experiential knowledge is "over-represented." Common sequences in IS and SS commercials trigger the generalization of information into scripted central events, the total level of information-based or semantic knowledge is reduced. Yet subjects unfamiliar with a product rely on the semantic knowledge for message interpretation, and hence, it is predicted that they will be less able to recall stated script information in IS or SS commercials than in DS commercials.

Note that predictions have only been made on which treatment combinations will show the highest or the lowest recall of scripted information. This is so because there is little evidence to predict specifically which of the groups expected to show levels of recall between those of the highest and lowest groups will show a higher level of recall than the other moderate groups. Any prediction on these in-between groups is purely speculative and thus, none was made.

Hypothesis seven.

H7a: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of stated script information.

H7b: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show significantly higher recall of stated script information than subjects in any of the other treatment combinations.

H7c: Low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show significantly lower recall of stated script information than subjects in any of the other treatment combinations.

H7d: Low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of stated script information.

Recall of intruded script information. Subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials are expected to show the highest recall of intruded script information. Concurrently, subjects are not expected to show any significant difference towards a product with which they are familiar and one with which they are unfamiliar along this measure because product familiarity alone is not expected to lead to the development of and reliance on scripts. Since there are no reasons to suspect any unexpected mediation from other sources, it is predicted that:

Hypothesis eight.

H8a: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials and low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of intruded script information.

H8b: High-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials and low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of intruded script information.

H8c: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials and low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show significantly higher recall of intruded script information than subjects in the other treatment combinations.

Recall of stated new information. It has been argued previously that high-familiarity subjects are expected to be more sensitive to the

discrepancy of information contained in the stimulus commercials. It has also been argued that subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show lower recall of new information than will those exposed to DS commercials. Consistent with these arguments, it would be logical to predict that high-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials would show the highest recall of stated new information. Correspondingly, low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will be expected to show the lowest recall in this category.

Although predictions on which group would show the highest recall of stated new information are likely to hold, the interactive effect of the two independent variables predicts high-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials, rather than low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials, to show the lowest recall of new information. If subjects familiar with the product are expected to have more objective knowledge about the product class, this knowledge base may be viewed as experience in dealing with variations to scripted information. And prescriptions for such common interferences may result. These prescriptions will allow scripted processing of IS and SS commercials to proceed, which may reduce high-familiarity subjects' sensitivity to the new information contained in these stimulus commercials. Hence, high-familiarity, rather than low-familiarity exposed to IS or SS commercials may be expected to show the lowest recall of stated new information.

Hypothesis nine.

H9a: High-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials will show significantly higher recall of stated new information than subjects in any other treatment combination.

- H9b: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show significantly lower recall of stated new information than subjects in any other treatment combination.
- H9c: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of stated new information.

C H A P T E R I I I

M E T H O D O L O G Y

This chapter introduces the design of a laboratory experiment to evaluate the effectiveness of three advertising campaign-composition strategies -- the identical-ad strategy, the similar-ad strategy and the dissimilar-ad strategy, and product familiarity on advertising recall. The chapter opens with a description of the research design. It is followed by a discussion on the operationalization of the independent and dependent variables. Also included in this section is a discussion of a series of pretests carried out to formulate the stimuli for the final experiment. The last section presents the details of an experiment designed to collect the data needed for testing the hypotheses and specific predictions discussed in Chapter II, covering the effects of campaign-composition strategy and product familiarity on recall of stated script information, intruded script information and stated new information.

Research Design

This experiment, from the standpoint of analysis and assignment of treatment levels to experimental units, was a completely randomized within-subject factorial design. Figure 1 illustrates the design of this experiment. The two treatment variables were campaign-composition strategy and product familiarity. There were three levels of composition strategy and two levels of product familiarity. To provide a control for between-subject differences, subjects in each level of the campaign-composition strategy factor received only one level of

		Product Familiarity	
		High-Familiarity	Low-Familiarity
Advertising Campaign Composition Strategy	Identical Strategy	Treatment Combination no.1	Treatment Combination no.2
	Similar Strategy	Treatment Combination no.3	Treatment Combination no.4
	Dissimilar Strategy	Treatment Combination no.5	Treatment Combination no.6

Figure 1: Design of Experiment

this treatment but both the high-familiarity and low-familiarity treatments (Winer 1962, p.108). Three dependent variables were measured in this study -- recall of stated script information, recall of intruded script information and recall of stated new information.

Independent Variables

Product Familiarity

For reasons discussed in the review of the product familiarity concept in Chapter II, this study utilized both the objective and the subjective approaches (Park and Lessig 1981) to operationalize "product familiarity." First, two levels of product familiarity -- high, and low -- were created. Objective product familiarity was manipulated by providing the high-familiarity (HF) subjects with the description sheet of a stimulus product to study. Because of the large differences in experience and the potential contamination due to the presence or absence of a reading task, subjects' responses to the objective product familiarity manipulation may be highly variable. Thus, a within-subject design was chosen to provide some control for this difference between experimental subjects.

Subjects were randomly divided into two groups. Group 1 was asked to study description sheets of the first selected stimulus product, thus qualifying this group as the high-familiarity (HF) condition regarding this product. Subjects in Group 2 received no information sheets regarding the first stimulus product, thus this group served as the low-familiarity (LF) condition with respect to it. To create the within-subject design, subjects in Group 2 or the (LF) condition for the first stimulus product were assigned to the high-familiarity

condition for a second stimulus product. Each subject in Group 2 was asked to study a description sheet about a different product which qualified this group as the high-familiarity (HF) condition regarding this new stimulus. Group 1 which served as the (HF) condition for the first stimulus product subsequently became the (LF) condition regarding the second stimulus product, and hence received no information on it. In sum, each subject served in the (HF) condition for one stimulus product, and in the (LF) condition for a second one. The fact that each subject had received a reading task and served as its own control should reduce the experimental error due to these potential nuisance factors.

Product selection. To maximize the effect of the objective product description sheets, the two products selected for this experiment must be ones with which most of the subjects were unfamiliar, so they could be expected to exhibit a low degree of prior knowledge. Since student subjects would be used in the final experiment, a pretest was conducted among undergraduates to determine which product classes would reflect the lowest degrees of prior product-category knowledge. The objective of this pretest was to select two product classes with which student subjects were least familiar, so they could be used as the stimulus products in the final experiment. Twelve different lesser known product classes were subjectively chosen by this author for testing among student subjects. They were dictating machine, personal computer, computer modem, family solidarity movement, mineral water, wine, carbonated beverage, anti-perspirant, frozen dinner, breakfast cereal, cruise, and the Save The Whale organization.

Product-knowledge scale development survey. Before this pretest could actually take place, a question-generation survey was necessary to help select a handful of questions to be used in the product-knowledge scale. One of twelve products mentioned above, the dictating machine, was subjectively chosen as the focus product for this task. The initial scale consisted of eight questions reflecting degree of familiarity ranging from current ownership of a dictating machine to the mere experience with a product in the same category such as a tape recorder. Appendix A details the content of this question-generation survey.

Forty undergraduates from the California State University, Chico participated in this survey. Responses from this test were analyzed using the Guttman Scale subprogram available in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. The order of difficulty of the items in the scale was specified. Current ownership was entered as the most difficult variable, and experience with a tape recorder was entered as the least difficult. The other items were entered in the same order as they had appeared in the questionnaire. Although the scale's coefficient of reproducibility (0.9389) surpassed the general guideline of (0.90) used to indicate a valid scale by a comfortable margin, the coefficient of scalability (0.4500) was well below the 0.6 general guideline, suggesting that the scale might not be truly unidimensional and cumulative. After a careful examination of the inter-item correlation matrix, the question "Have you ever used a dictating machine before?" was deleted from the scale and a second analysis was conducted on this reduced set of items. The results positively

supported the validity, unidimensionality and cumulativeness of this 7-item Guttman scale. The new scale's coefficient of reproducibility was 0.9937 and its coefficient of scalability was 0.9286, both well above their respective acceptance guidelines. The scale was further reduced to contain only six items to ensure comparability in the analysis of the twelve selected test products which were clearly quite different in nature and usage occasion.

The actual product-selection pretest. Based on the findings of the question-generation survey, a six-item Guttman Scale was developed for each of these product classes. The twelve scales can be found in Appendix B. In each scale six Guttman items were used to ascertain subjects' degree of subjective familiarity by asking questions ranging from current ownership or membership of the product or organization surveyed, to general product-category experience. For example, the scale for familiarity with computer modems showed the following questions from ownership of the actual product to the mere experience with something in the same category such as an intercom:

1. Do you presently own a computer modem?
2. Have you ever owned a computer modem?
3. Have you ever purchased a computer modem for personal use?
4. Have you ever searched for information on a computer modem before?
5. Have you ever seen a computer modem before?
6. Have you ever used an office intercom before?

After the twelve scales had been developed, they were randomly divided into three sets, each containing four scales. Set A contained questions on frozen dinner, cruise, anti-perspirant and wines. Set B

contained questions on computer modem, Save the Whale organization, carbonated beverage and breakfast cereal. Set C contained questions on mineral water, family solidarity organization, dictating machine and personal computer.

120 business students at California State University, Chico participated in this study as partial fulfillment of their class requirements. The questionnaires were administered as an in-class exercise. Each subject was randomly assigned to receive only one of the three sets of Guttman scales.

Responses from the product-selection pretest were assigned a value of "1" for "YES" and a "0" for "NO." Each subject's responses to each Guttman scale were summed to form a cumulative score for that particular product. These scores were then compared using the Least-Significant Difference (LSD) method offered through the ONEWAY subprogram in the SPSS. Table 1 and Table 2 present results of the LSD analysis. It can be seen from Table 1 that student subjects were not familiar at all with family solidarity organizations. Subjects' mean score on this social organization was a 0 in a possible range of 0 to 6, 6 being the most familiar. The second most unfamiliar product in the subjects' opinions was the dictating machine, showing a mean score of 0.6486. The pairwise comparisons presented in Table 1 illustrate that subjects were significantly unfamiliar with the family solidarity organization and the dictating machine. Each of the other ten items to which they had been compared had scored significantly higher in this regard. It can also be seen from Table 2 that not only were subjects unfamiliar with these two test products, they were also found to be

Table 1: Rankings and Comparisons of Subjects' Familiarity for Items Used in the Product-selection Pretest

		<u>Pairwise Comparison Matrix (* = Sig. Level)</u>										
		F	L		C				A			
		A	A	W	O	M	C	D	T	C		
		M	N	H	P	O	R	I	I	E	W	S
		I	I	A	U	D	U	N	P	R	E	I
		L	E	L	E	E	S	E	E	A	N	O
		Y	R	E	R	M	E	R	S	L	E	A
<u>1</u>	<u>Item</u>											
0.000	Family Solidarity											
0.6486	Dictating Machine	*										
1.5676	Save the Whale	*	*									
1.8108	Personal Computer	*	*									
2.4595	Computer Modem	*	*	*	*							
2.6757	Cruise	*	*	*	*							
3.7297	Frozen Dinner	*	*	*	*	*	*					
4.1892	Mineral Water	*	*	*	*	*	*	*				
4.6757	Anti-perspirant	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*			
5.0811	Breakfast Cereal	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*			
5.1081	Wine	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		
5.6757	Carbonated Beverage(Soda)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

Note (1): 6 = Very Familiar * = Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 2: Least-significant-difference Analysis of Homogeneity
Among Items Used in Product-selection Pretest

Homogeneous Subset No.	Items in Set
1.	Family Solidarity
2.	Dictating Machine
3.	Save the Whale, Personal Computer
4.	Computer Modem, Cruise
5.	Frozen Dinner
6.	Mineral Water
7.	Anti-perspirant, Breakfast Cereal
8.	Breakfast Cereal, Wine
9.	Carbonated Beverage

mutually distinguishable from each other as well as from the rest of the product classes tested.

There were concerns over the incompatibility of these two products, since one is electronic equipment and the other a social organization. Although subjects were unfamiliar with both products, it was uncertain if using them in the same experiment might lead to unexpected difference in results. On the other hand, there seemed to be a distinct advantages for employing these two products as stimuli. The maximum difference in their natures would ensure that there would be no confounding on the effectiveness of the product familiarity manipulation caused by a similarity between the high-familiarity and the low-familiarity products. After careful evaluation of these concerns, a subjective decision was made to follow the LSD results, and use the dictating machine and family solidarity organization as stimuli in the final experiment.

Description sheets. The Lanier Dictating Machine was the brand-level choice for the dictating machine stimulus. No organization whose sole mission was to promote family solidarity could be located. Thus, a fictitious organization, The Family Solidarity Alliance of America (FSAA), was created as the second stimulus.

Information for the description sheets was obtained from various secondary sources. Content on the Dictating Machine Industry sheet was derived from an Advertising Campaign Report Newsletter published by A.A.A.A. and Consumer Report magazines. Information on the Family Solidarity Movement sheet was composed based on materials discussed in several textbooks on family support systems, multiproblem families and

unhappy families. Great care was taken to include only industry or general product category knowledge in these objective familiarity manipulation instruments. Details of the description sheet is presented in Appendix C which contains the entire questionnaire used in the final experiment.

Subjective product familiarity. Subjects were expected to differ in their prior knowledge about these stimulus products. This difference in pre-experimental activities may lead to differences in their motivational involvement with the stimuli (Park and Lessig 1981, p.223). Thus, to ensure that pre-experimental familiarity with the product will not contaminate the study and to maximize the effect of the objective familiarity manipulation, the subjective method in assessing product familiarity was included at the very beginning of the experiment to collect information on subjects' pre-experimental knowledge about the products. Content of these questions on subjective familiarity are also presented in Appendix C. If subjects were found to differ significantly on their subjective familiarity with the stimulus products, this information would be used as a covariate in the final analysis.

Campaign-Composition Strategy

There were three conditions of campaign-composition strategy -- identical, similar and dissimilar. For each stimulus product, the conditions were set up as follows. Each strategy condition contained three recorded straight-announcement type (a billboard accompanied by an off-screen voice over) television commercials characterizing its treatment condition, and a fourth commercial. The set of advertisements

designated as the "identical-ad-strategy" (IS) condition consisted of three identical repetitions of a selected advertisements from the set of commercials which was used in the SS condition. The "similar-ad-strategy" (SS) condition consisted of three similar but not identical commercials. These commercials were similar in that they used similar character in their scripts, similar sequences of presentation, usual settings and selling pitches. The "dissimilar-ad-strategy" (DS) condition consisted of the three commercials reflecting maximally different characters in their scripts, sequences in presentation, settings but not selling pitches. All three levels in the campaign-composition strategy treatment included a common commercial as the fourth commercial which contained both stated script information and stated new information. This fourth commercial was the subject of the recall test in which measurements for the dependent variables were taken.

Copy idea-generation pretest. Next, copy ideas for the commercials to be used in the final experiment were generated. The purpose was to determine what student subjects would perceive to be similar or dissimilar between commercial copies through the use of perceptual maps. These features would be incorporated in the development of the final stimulus sets. The map was created by using a multi-dimensional scaling program (ALSCAL). This method was chosen because it is best suited for analyzing objects' similarity or dissimilarity without specifying any particular criteria (Schiffman, Reynolds and Young 1981).

A group of twelve written radio commercial copies promoting the Lanier Standard Tape Cassette Dictating Machine were created. Radio copies were used because they parallel the audio sound tracks found in the intended TV commercials used in the final experiment. Among the twelve radio commercial copies tested were five "Stiller and Meara" commercials, which were very similar in execution, phrasing of selling points, and order of points raised. The other seven copies were created by the author using different combinations of execution style, phrasing of selling points, and order of points raised. Great care was exercised to ensure that the twelve commercials were comparable in the degree of originality. A decision was made not to develop and test copy ideas for both the Lanier Dictating Machine and Family Solidarity Alliance of America organization. It appeared unnecessary to create and test two sets of copies because advertising execution styles are rather generic and are generally applicable across product classes. Secondly, given the large number of copies being tested and the analysis methods employed, it was impractical to collect data and process them for both stimulus products.

Forty five undergraduate business students at California State University, Chico participated in this pretest during class hours. They were asked to study each of the twelve commercials, then sort them into groups of like copies. The copies were arranged in an order determined by random assignment. They were marked A to L. Instructions to the students had incorporated suggestions from Schiffman, Reynolds, Young (1981), and read as follows:

Attached are 12 radio commercial copies. They are marked A to L. During this experiment you will be judging how similar or different these copies are. We ask you to study each copy carefully then sort them into groups of like copies. In the sorting process, you may apply any criteria you see fit, but be consistent. Please exercise caution to ensure that the copies within each group are most like and that the copies between the groups are most different. You must assign each copy to one and only one group. But you may allot as many copies to one group and divide the copies up into as many groups as you wish. You may not form more than 5 groups.

When the sort is completed, use the form in the back of this package to record how similar or different you see these copies to be. Record your allotment one group at a time. Locate the identification letter from the upper right-hand corner of each copy in the group and copy it onto the form provided. Repeat the same procedure for each copy in that group until all copies in it have been documented. Repeat the same procedure for the other groups until all groups have been recorded.

One thing we should like you to remember is that different people judge things in different ways. This means that there are no right or wrong answers. Two copies that are very similar to one person may be quite different to another. Both results are important to us. We are interested in finding out how you as an individual compare these radio commercial copies.

Thank you very much for your participation.

After the sorting was completed, subjects were instructed to self-report their groupings using a recording sheet. The exact content of the pretest is presented in Appendix D.

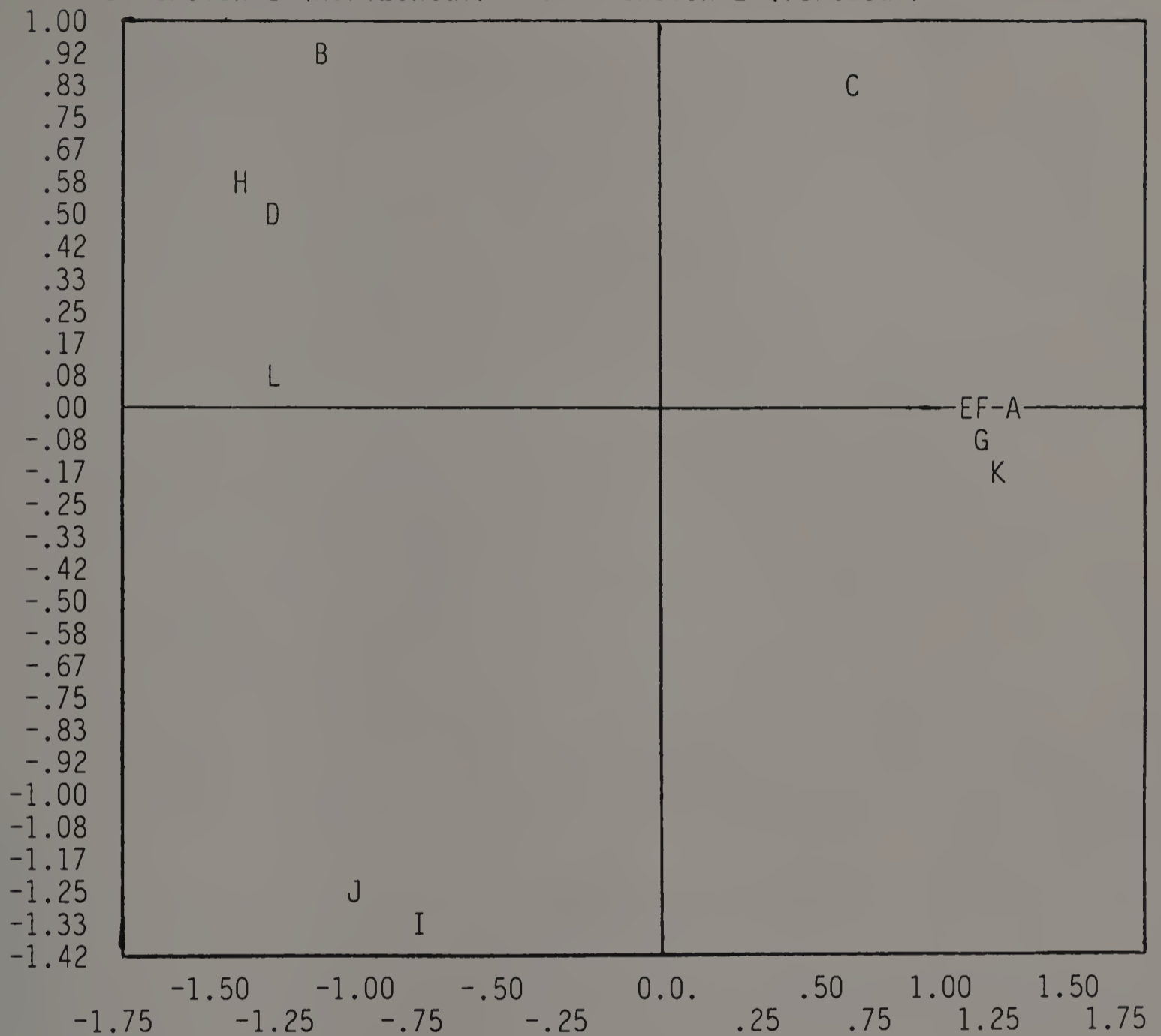
The sorting method is a commonly used method in collecting data for multidimensional scaling analysis (Schiffman, Reynolds and Young 1981). When tabulating the sorting results, each subject's groupings of the twelve stimuli were recorded in a 12x12 symmetric square matrix set up for that subject. The entries in the matrix were binary coded using 0 if a stimulus pair was allocated to the same group and 1 if to a different group. Since there were 45 subjects, 45 individual matrices were formed. They were then summed over subjects to give the

dissimilarity judgments which served as the data matrix for multidimensional scaling analysis. Incidentally, the scores in the final data matrix could range from 0 to 45, where a low score is "similar," and a high score is "dissimilar."

Using a minimum improvement requirement of 0.001, the ALSCAL program terminated the analysis after reaching a two-dimensional solution showing four groupings of commercials. The SSTRESS level at two dimensions was 0.14715, an improvement of 0.02812 over the one-dimensional solution. Further iteration, however, failed to bring any improvement above the required level in SSTRESS. Thus, no attempt was made to generate a three-dimensional solution. A visual presentation of these groupings, and a summary of these twelve commercials' titles and their respective identification codes are presented in Figure 2. The stimulus spaces reported two clear dimensions: dialogue-monologue and paid actor-real consumer. The vertical axis seems to have separated the dialogues from the monologues, showing the former on the right-hand side and the latter on the left-hand side. The horizontal axis divided commercials by types of presenter. More formal presentations by paid-spokesperson types had been grouped together in the upper half of the chart while less formal presentations by real-consumer types were grouped in the bottom half.

Commercials "B," "D," "H," "I," "J" and "L" had been grouped on the left side of the vertical axis. They are all monologues. Commercials "I" and "J" give the feeling that they might be testimonials given by actual users of the product, they had been grouped in the lower left-hand quadrant. Commercials "B," "D," "H" and

Dimension 1 (Horizontal) vs. Dimension 2 (Vertical)



"A" = Stiller and Meara-Closet Secretary
 "B" = Industry Leader
 "C" = Dictaphone City
 "D" = Talking is Faster
 "E" = Stiller and Meara-Applicant
 "F" = Stiller and Meara-Missing Person

"G" = Stiller and Meara-Anniversary
 "H" = Paperwork
 "I" = Louis Wigdor
 "J" = Yvonne Liander
 "K" = Stiller and Meara-Promotion
 "L" = Travel

Figure 2: Identification Codes, and Perceptual Map of Pretest Copies

"L" are apparently endorsements by paid spokespeople, so they were grouped on the same side as commercials "I" and "J" but on a different plane, in the upper left-hand quadrant. In the upper right quadrant is commercial "C" -- a dialogue format commercial delivered by a cast resembling paid actors. The five "Stiller and Meara" commercials, "A," "E," "F," "G" and "K," were seen by subjects as closely related. These commercials all used a dialogue format and employed the actors "Stiller and Meara" who were clearly identified in the commercials. Thus, they have been located on the right-hand side, same as commercial "C." Note that the five "Stiller and Meara" commercials have been grouped right around the horizontal axis. This could have resulted because the copies were seen as less formal than their counterpart "C," but were considered more formal than scripts "I" and "J."

An interesting separation appeared among the five "Stiller and Meara" commercials. While the five commercials were clustered relatively close together, one can see that commercials "G" and "F" were located in the center surrounded by commercials "A," "E" and "K." This means that while the subjects felt that the "Stiller and Meara" commercials were similar, they have also shown some minor differences within themselves. Indeed, there is dissimilarity among these commercials. Scripts "A," "E" and "K" were set in an office setting between two colleagues; the other two, "G" and "F" were dialogues between a married man and his wife.

Although this copy-idea generation pretest might have demonstrated the perception of similarity and dissimilarity between the twelve different styles of commercial copies, it did not confirm nor deny the

existence of a script across them. If subjects could not agree about the existence and essentials of an underlying script across a series of copies, there would be no ground to attribute the effects of campaign-composition strategy on recall to the presence of scripts. Thus, another pretest was conducted to investigate the existence of an underlying script across test copies among subjects.

Script-generation pretest. In this experiment, the objective was to establish whether subjects could agree on an underlying script across a series of commercial copies. The study was designed following the same script-generation procedure described in Bower, Black and Turner (1979) so as to maximize comparability in the interpretation of results. Based on insights obtained from the multidimensional scaling analysis in the previous pretest, three copies were generated for each of the two stimulus products that would be used in the final experiment. Each set of copies was written to reflect similarity in cast, information mentioned, and sequence of events. Specifically, three Lanier Dictating Machine copies of dramatized dialogues between a male and a female coworker were created. The Family Solidarity Alliance of America copies, on the other hand, were all monologue testimonials. This arrangement would also reveal any differences between the monologue and dialogue styles' abilities in affecting script formation.

Participants in this pretest were 30 consumer behavior students from the California State University, Chico. Each student received a packet containing all six test copies with the following instructions:

"Attached are 3 commercial scripts coded A (or B for the FSAA set). Please study each one carefully. Then write a list of events, ideas or product messages that you feel are common and typical across all 3 scripts. Include about 15 to 20 such

common, typical elements and put them in the order in which they would occur. Please use simple but complete sentences, and number each element, idea or product message. Start the list with '1. The commercial begins' and end the list with 'The commercial ends.'"

The exact content of the test materials used in this pretest is presented in Appendix E.

The issue was whether subjects perceived an underlying script across each set of commercial copies. Subject's responses were analyzed using the same procedure described in Bower, Black and Turner (1979). Each of the events cited by subjects as common and typical across the copies in set A and set B were content-analyzed, and tabulated according to its frequency of citation. The maximum uniqueness would be if all subjects mentioned once 20 or so completely unique events for each set of copies. This would have meant that subjects failed to share a similar perception on some underlying script across the commercial copies in each set. Not surprisingly, there was much agreement in the basic list of events or messages that subjects used to form their scripts. Each subject mentioned a sample of very common events along with only a small number of less common ones, and very few unique ones. Bower, Black and Turner's (1979) 25%-mention criterion for inclusion was adopted to determine what events would be included in the stimulus sets for the final experiment. Table 3 and Table 4 report for the two scripts events which had been cited by at least one-fourth the respondents, in the serial orders in which these events were usually cited. That is, each table may be interpreted as a description of a list of common events contained in an underlying script which permeated through the commercial copies in that set. The Citation Level figure

Table 3: Empirical Script Norms Cited by at Least 25% of Pretest Subjects for the Lanier Dictation Machine

Script Norms in Order of Appearance	Frequency of Citation (%)
1. Commercial Begins	100.0
2. Introduction: Larry and Stacey for Lanier	100.0
3. Conversation in Office	90.0
4. Question on promotion	90.0
5. Answer: "I know how to get things done"	76.7
6. Answer: "I use Lanier"	56.7
7. Delivery of product message	46.7
8. Specific message: Lanier use standard tape cassette	33.3
9. : Lanier is faster to load	30.0
10. : Lanier is easier to operate	36.7
11. : Lanier sounds better	30.0
12. Exclamation: "You are always faster"	80.0
13. Additional product messages	50.0
14. Specific message: Full 30-minute dictating time	36.7
15. : Capacity for other listening	26.7
16. Question: "Can a man still make it in business?"	93.3
17. A humorous punchline	90.0
18. End announcement	60.0
19. Specific announcement: Dictating is 6 times faster than writing	30.0
20. : Get more done with Lanier	30.0
21. : Lanier is the recognized leader	26.7
22. : In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machine	36.7
23. Commercial Ends	100.0

Table 4: Empirical Script Norms Cited by at Least 25% of Pretest Subjects for the Family Solidarity Alliance of America

Script Norms in Order of Appearance	Frequency of Citation (%)
1. Commercial Begins	100.0
2. Parent notice children seem older	93.3
3. Parent is often away from home	86.7
4. Children are growing up without parent	63.3
5. Parent desires to influence children's lives	80.0
6. Parent desires to begin immediately	56.7
7. Parent desires to spend more time with children	46.7
8. Specific plan: Set aside one day per week	63.3
9. : Take one child out to do whatever child wants	50.0
10. Recollection of one of those weekends	83.3
11. Child did something remarkable during event	73.3
12. Parent expresses pride in child's accomplishment	86.7
13. Specific exclamation: "I'll never forget it for as long as I live"	83.3
14. End announcement	33.7
15. Specific announcement: Time, we never have enough	70.0
16. : Give your children your time	76.7
17. : Message brought to you by your local chapter of FSAA	90.0
18. Commercial Ends	100.0

indicates the frequencies with which the events listed in Table 3 and Table 4 were cited. This figure might be viewed as an index of each event's popularity among subjects.

Table 5 is a comparison between results obtained for the two sets of commercial copies. In the Lanier Dictating Machine script, for example, of the 453 events cited in total by all 30 subjects, only 44 were given by only a single person. On the average, each subject had cited only 1.467 unique events in the Lanier series. Similarly, of the 458 events in total recorded in the FSAA series, only 47 were unique. On the average, each subject had cited only 1.567 unique events in the FSAA series. In each case, subjects cited in their scripts more than fifty percents of those typical events listed in Table 3 and Table 4. It is evident that there was uniformity in the perception of an underlying script across each of the two sets of commercial copies.

A different test was conducted to verify the reliability of the two underlying scripts. The sample of 30 responses were randomly divided into 2 groups, each representing 15 cases. For each script, the two subgroups were compared along three variables -- frequency with which 25%-mention events were cited, number of total events cited and number of unique events cited. Table 6 lists the results of these comparisons. No difference between subgroups within either script on any of the variables tested was found to be significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. There was high reliability in the conclusion that subjects perceived and agreed on the existence of some underlying sequence of events in each set of test commercial copies.

Table 5: Comparisons of Uniformity Between Empirically Generated Scripts for Two Test Products

Criterion	Test Product	
	Lanier Machine	FSAA
1. No. of subjects	30	30
2. Total number of events cited	453	458
3. Average number of events cited per subject	15.1	15.27
4. Average number of unique events cited per subject	1.47	1.57
5. Average frequency of 25%-mention events cited per subject	57.25%	75.0%

Table 6: Split-half Comparisons of Uniformity Within
Each of the Two Empirically Generated Scripts

Product/Criterion	Mean Value		t-Value(D.F.)	Sig. of t
	Group 1	Group 2		
<u>Lanier Dictating Machine</u>				
1. No. of subjects	15	15		
2. Average total no. of events cited	15.2	15.0	.16 (28)	.877
3. Average no. of unique events cited	2.0667	0.8667	1.91 (28)	.066
4. Average frequency of 25%-mention events cited	55.36%	59.13	.62 (28)	.54
<u>Family Solidarity Alliance of America</u>				
1. No. of subject	15	15		
2. Average total no. of events cited	15.0	15.533	.75 (28)	.459
3. Average no. of unique events cited	1.8667	1.2667	.98 (28)	.335
4. Average frequency of 25%-mention events cited	71.85%	78.15%	1.38 (28)	.179

Stimulus sets. Since the script-generation pretest has established the agreement on an underlying script for each of the two series of commercial copies, the final stimulus sets were developed. First, a quick reference to the copy-idea generation pretest revealed that two dimensions were identified in the multidimensional scaling analysis. They represented distinctions between dialogues and monologues, and between using real customers and paid spokespeople. Based on these results, it was decided that the three Lanier Dictation Machine ads in the similar strategy would follow the dialogue-paid spokespeople format, while the dissimilar ads for this product would reflect a mixture of combinations of dialogues and monologues featuring real customers and paid spokespeople. The identical-strategy condition would be made up using a randomly selected copy from the three available ads in the similar strategy. For the ads promoting the Family Solidarity Alliance of America, the three similar ads followed a monologue-real customer format, while ads in the dissimilar strategy reflected a mixture of different possible format combinations. Again, the identical-strategy for the FSAA was composed of a randomly selected copy among the similar FSAA ads.

A fourth similar copy was generated for each stimulus product. This commercial was designed to conform to the same format used in that product's similar strategy. Thus, it would appear as another similar ad to subjects in the similar-ad treatment condition, but would appear as a new variation to those in the dissimilar condition. This ad also contained the message units classified as new information.

Appendix F presents final copies of the fourteen commercials used in the final experiment. Later, professional voice talents were hired to make these copies into audio recordings. Then, for each stimulus product one illustrated billboard containing the product's brand name and some accompanying graphics was created. The same billboard was used in all stimulus commercials for that test product.

Dependent Variables

The principal dependent measure studied was advertising recall. Standard measurement techniques have been used wherever possible. Table 7 presents a summary of both the independent and dependent variables. Following is a discussion of these variables' operational definitions and empirical measures.

Recall

A number of measures are used in the marketing literature to operationalize recall. The approach adopted here was to measure recall in an unaided fashion. Subjects were not given any guidance. The unaided method was preferred because aided recall resembles recognition which tend to show higher level of retention than indicated by the recall method, and may not reflect memory impression (Lucas 1960). Moreover, Lucas has argued that if recognition scores can be obtained from subjects who had not been previously exposed to the stimuli (Lucas 1960), they are fallible memory measures.

To further enhance the external validity of the recall measures in this study, they were taken one day after exposure. This time frame should ensure that the results were not exaggerated, since there is evidence that most forgetting occurs within one or two hours after

Table 7: Summary of Independent and Dependent Variables

Independent Variables

Advertising campaign-composition strategy:

- Treatment level 1 -- Identical strategy
- Treatment level 2 -- Similar strategy
- Treatment level 3 -- Dissimilar strategy

Product familiarity:

- Treatment level 1 -- High familiarity
- Treatment level 2 -- Low familiarity

Dependent Variables

Recall of stated script information

Recall of intruded script information

Recall of stated new information

exposure to a stimulus (Lucas 1960; Bruner 1957) and recall seems to stabilize for the next one to two weeks after this initial period of forgetting.

In the day-after telephone interview, subjects were asked to think back to each stimulus product's last commercial which was presented in the last segment of the recorded program, and try to remember verbatim, one by one, everything that they could remember about them. As the copy for each of these two commercials had been developed to communicate a finite set of predetermined information units, the number of product information units reported would indicate the amount of recall. Table 8 and Table 9 present the messages that were conveyed to experimental subjects. For example, subjects should have received a total of 23 message units from the fourth commercial on the Family Solidarity Alliance of America. 11 of them were considered stated script information because they were mentioned in all four commercials in the series. 6 of them were intruded script information units because they were mentioned in the first three commercials but not the fourth one. The remaining 6 message units constituted new information -- information conveyed only in the last but not the early three commercials. Due to the fact that the similar ads promoting the Lanier Dictation Machine necessitated the inclusion of a few nonproduct-related events not found in the dissimilar ad sequence, a percentage of correct information reported for each of type of recall, rather than the actual number of messages recalled, was used as the unit of analysis.

Table 8: Summary of Pre-determined Information Units for Recall Assessment of the Final Lanier Commercial by Campaign-composition Strategy

Information Unit	Identical	Similar	Dissimilar
	Strategy	Strategy	Strategy
	1	1	1
1. Identification of spokespeople.	S	S	N
2. Conversation in an office.	S	S	N
3. Question regarding promotion.	S	S	N
4. Answer:"I know how to get things done."	S	S	N
5. :"I use Lanier."	S	S	N
6. Delivery of product messages.	S	S	N
7. Specific message:			
Lanier uses standard tape cassettes.	S	S	S
8. Std. tape cassettes're faster to load.	S	S	S
9. Std. tape cassettes are			
easier to operate.	I	I	I
10. Std. tape cassettes sound better.	S	S	S
11. Lanier also makes a Pocket Secretary.	N	N	N
12. You can bring work home			
with a Pocket Secretary.	N	N	N
13. Man comments that his colleague			
is always faster.	S	S	N
14. More product messages.	S	S	S
15. Specific message:			
You can get a full 30-minute			
dictating time on each side.	S	S	S
16. Std. tape cassettes give hi-fi sound.	N	N	N
17. Std. tape machine offers capacity to			
listen to other recordings.	I	I	I
18. "Can a man still make it in business?"	I	I	N
19. Humorous punchline.	S	S	N
20. End announcement.	S	S	S
21. Specific announcement:			
Dictating is 6 times faster.	S	S	S
22. Get more done with a Lanier.	S	S	S
23. Lanier Business Products.	I	I	I
24. Lanier -- the recognized leader.	I	I	I
25. Give Lanier a hearing.	N	N	N
26. Get a 5-day free trial.	N	N	N
27. Call you local distributor.	N	N	N
28. We are in the Yellow Pages.	S	S	S
29. Under Dictating Machine.	I	I	I

Note (1): S = unit considered as stated script information
I = unit considered as intruded script information
N = unit considered as stated new information

Table 9: Summary of Pre-determined Information Units for Recall Assessment of the Final FSAA Commercial by Campaign-composition Strategy

Information Unit	Identical Strategy	Similar Strategy	Dissimilar Strategy
	1	1	1
1. Parent has noticed children lately.	S	S	S
2. Children seem much older.	S	S	S
3. Parent admits spending a lot of time away from home.	S	S	S
4. Parent comments that children seemed to be growing up without him/her.	I	I	I
5. Parent expresses desire to have more influence on his/her children.	S	S	S
6. Parent decides to act immediately.	I	I	I
7. Parent decides to spend more time with his/her children.	N	N	N
8. Parent is a salesperson.	N	N	N
9. It's hard for him to take time off.	N	N	N
10. But the children are worth it.	N	N	N
11. Parent decides to set aside one day per week.	I	I	I
12. And take a different child out every week.	S	S	S
13. Parent recollects one of those weekends.	S	S	S
14. One of the children did something remarkable during that weekend.	S	S	S
15. Parent remembers expression of pride.	I	I	I
16. "I will not forget it for as long as I live."	S	S	S
17. End announcement.	S	S	S
18. Specific announcement: We never have enough time.	I	I	I
19. Give your children everything.	I	I	I
20. Give yourselves to your children.	N	N	N
21. Give them your time.	S	S	S
22. Message brought to you by a local chapter of FSAA.	S	S	S
23. FSAA reminds you to look for more information in the mail.	N	N	N

Note (1): S = unit considered as stated script information
 I = unit considered as intruded script information
 N = unit considered as stated new information

Recall of stated script information. Information units considered to be stated script recall included information presented in the fourth commercial which had also been conveyed in the previous three commercials in a given stimulus set. This included information such as brand recall, product category recall, and correct and specific recall of ad elements or sales elements or type of execution common to all four commercials in a given set. For each product, the symbol "S" in each column of Table 8 and Table 9 identifies the messages that were used to calculate the stated script information recall score for that strategy level. The percentage of such message units reported by a respondent in the day-after telephone interview constituted the level of recall of stated script information.

Recall of intruded script information. Recall of intruded script information was operationalized as the number of unstated script messages recalled by subjects. A piece of information was considered an intruded recall for any treatment condition if it was a previously mentioned information unit in the first three commercials not mentioned in the fourth and last stimulus commercial. Information considered acceptable intruded script messages are identified in Table 8 and Table 9 by the symbol "I". The percentage of such messages reported by subjects in the day-after interview constituted the level of recall of intruded script information.

Recall of stated new information. Recall of new information was operationalized as the number of new information units, presented only in the fourth and last commercial, recalled by subjects. These information units were ones which were conveyed only in the last

commercial and had not appeared in any of the first three commercials. They included a variety of sales elements and are identified in Table 8 and Table 9 by the symbol "N". The percentage of such messages reported by subjects in the day-after interview constituted the level of recall of stated new information.

Subjects

The subjects were 105 California State University undergraduate students who have agreed to participate in an advertising study for monetary compensation. At their recruiting, students were told they would have to complete two experimental sessions -- one in class, and a telephone interview on the following day. Although all subjects participated in the first part of the experiment, 6 of them could not be reached to complete the day-after interview. Thus, only 99 sets of responses were used in the later analysis. Table 10 is a comparison between the number of subjects who had received Lanier or FSAA as their high-familiarity stimuli. Table 11 presents a tabulation of the final Campaign-Composition Strategy by Product Familiarity cell counts. The cell counts reflected a two-fold increase over the actual number of participants in the experiment because each subject had served as its own control and had been observed under both levels of the product familiarity factor.

Procedure

Student subjects were exposed to their treatments during class hours, in three convenience groups. The second session was a telephone interview which took place one day after the initial experiment.

Table 10: Cell Counts by Campaign-composition Strategy and the Product Used to Create the High-familiarity Manipulation

Campaign-Composition Strategy	Product Used		
	Lanier	FSAA	Total
Identical-ad Strategy	15	15	30
Similar-ad Strategy	17	19	36
Dissimilar-ad Strategy	16	17	33
Total	48	51	99

Significance of Chi Square = 0.0975

Table 11: Total Cell Counts by Campaign-composition Strategy and Product Familiarity

Campaign-Composition Strategy	Product Familiarity		Total
	High	Low	
Identical-ad Strategy	30	30	60
Similar-ad Strategy	36	36	72
Dissimilar-ad Strategy	33	33	66
Total	99	99	198

After reporting to the classroom for the first session, subjects in each group were told that they would be watching a weekly television program being evaluated by a group of manufacturers for possible program sponsorship. These potential advertisers' objective was to ensure that the program's content would be appropriate for their products. Thus, mock commercials for each advertiser's product had been edited into an abbreviated version of the program for the students' evaluation. Half of the subjects were then randomly assigned to receive the Lanier Dictation Machine while the other half received the FSAA as their high-familiarity product. Subjects were then handed their assigned questionnaire booklets.

First, each subject was asked to fill out the first part of the questionnaire booklet which contained subjective product familiarity and product interest assessments for three products -- Lanier Dictating Machine, Marathon Oil Company and FSAA, the Family Solidarity Alliance of America. These questions are presented with the entire booklet in Appendix C. The instructions further explained to them that one of those three manufacturers would be the principle sponsor of the program, and had asked that the subjects study a description sheet to familiarize themselves with that institution's history before making any final decision regarding the program content's appropriateness. One group of subjects was given a description sheet about the Lanier Dictating Machine to study. These subjects would serve as the high-familiarity condition for this stimulus product. Subjects from the second group were asked to study a description sheet about the Family Solidarity Alliance of America, FSAA. This group then became the

high-familiarity condition for the stimulus product FSAA. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, subjects would serve as their own control regarding the product-familiarity treatment and, therefore, automatically became the low-familiarity condition for the product on which they did not receive description sheets before watching the videotape playback. These description sheets are also presented in Appendix C.

Once this exercise had been completed, the experimenter proceeded to play back the assigned treatment combination to the group. The assigned commercials were embedded in prescribed intermissions in an abbreviated version of the "This Week in Japan" program broadcasted weekly on CNN. Table 12 presents the titles and identification codes for the commercial copies that were used in the final experiment. The exact content of these copies can be found in Appendix F. Table 13 illustrates, for each stimulus product, the assigned commercial copies' exact order of appearance in each campaign-composition strategy. The first segment was the program's opening immediately followed by a commercial break. In this and subsequent intermissions, three commercials were played back: one for Lanier, one for Marathon Oil and one for FSAA. These commercials' order of appearance in each break remained constant across intermissions and treatment groups. During each break, subjects assigned to receive the IS treatment heard one repetition of the IS commercial for each stimulus product, subjects in the SS treatment group heard, in a predetermined order, one of the SS treatment's similar but not identical commercials for each stimulus product, and subjects in the DS treatment group heard, for each

Table 12: Identification Codes and Titles of Commercial Copies Used in Final Experiment

Product	Code	Title	
<u>Lanier</u> <u>Dictating Machine</u>	LS1	"Hero Sandwiches"	
	LS2	"Job Applicant"	
	LS3	"Closet Secretary"	
	LD1	"Louis Wigdor"	
	LD2	"Dictaphone City"	
	LD3	"Industry Leader"	
	LNEW	"Wedding Anniversary"	
	<u>Family Solidarity</u> <u>Alliance of</u> <u>America</u>	FS1	"Fishing"
		FS2	"Cross-Country Skiing"
FS3		"Sunrise"	
FD1		"Lullaby"	
FD2		"Diary"	
FD3		"Mr. Voice"	
FNEW		"Hiking"	

Table 13: Stimulus Commercials' Order of Appearance in Pre-recorded Television Program Used in Final Experiment

	Identical Strategy	Similar Strategy	Dissimilar Strategy
Station Identification			
Opening Credits			
Commercial:	Lanier-LS1	Lanier-LS1	Lanier-LD1
Commercial:	Marathon Oil-1	Marathon Oil-1	Marathon Oil-1
Commercial:	FSAA-FS1	FSAA-FS1	FSAA-FD1
Program Segment 1 Begins			
Commercial:	Lanier-LS1	Lanier-LS2	Lanier-LD2
Commercial:	Marathon Oil-2	Marathon Oil-2	Marathon Oil-2
Commercial:	FSAA-FS1	FSAA-FS2	FSAA-FD2
Program Segment 2 Begins			
Commercial:	Lanier-LS1	Lanier-LS3	Lanier-LD3
Commercial:	Marathon Oil-3	Marathon Oil-3	Marathon Oil-3
Commercial:	FSAA-FS1	FSAA-FS3	FSAA-FD3
End of Part One (students fill out questionnaire)			
Last Program Segment Begins			
Commercial:	Lanier-LNEW	Lanier-LNEW	Lanier-LNEW
Commercial:	Marathon Oil-3	Marathon Oil-3	Marathon Oil-3
Commercial:	FSAA-FNEW	FSAA-FNEW	FSAA-FNEW
Closing Credits (end of entire recording)			

stimulus product, one of the DS treatment's three dissimilar commercials, also in their prescribed order. At the end of the first segment, all groups had heard nine commercials -- three Lanier Dictating Machine commercials, three FSAA commercials and three Marathon Oil commercials.

When playback of the first program segment was completed, subjects were instructed to fill out the second part of the questionnaire, which asked for their opinions on the program materials' appropriateness for the sponsors' products. This was just a task to separate the first three stimulus commercials from the fourth and last one, which would be the subject of the later recall test and was embedded in the second program segment. The content of the questions can be found in Appendix C.

After subjects had completed this part of the questionnaire, the experimenter proceeded to play back the second half of the video recording.

Upon completion of the second segment, subjects were instructed to fill out the last part of the questionnaire. This part contained three sets of structured-response questions designed to check the objective product familiarity manipulation. This procedure was adopted from Brucks' (1985) study. Also contained in this section were three sets of measures to assess subjects' motivation to process the ads, and their perceptions on the comprehensibility, enjoyableness, informativeness and predictability of the three manufacturers' ads. This information was collected for future research purposes. These questions are presented in Appendix C.

On the next day, during the telephone session, subjects were interviewed individually by this researcher or a trained assistant according to a predetermined interview schedule, as illustrated in Appendix G. During this time, information on the various dependent measures was collected. The same procedure was employed for all three experimental groups. The only difference in procedure experienced by these groups was the difference in assignment of the campaign-composition strategy treatment.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The purpose of this research was to test the contextual effectiveness of using identical, similar or dissimilar commercials in an advertising campaign when communicating to subjects who might be familiar or unfamiliar with a test product. The experimental design was a 3 x 2 factorial design: 3 campaign-composition conditions and 2 levels of product familiarity. The analyses that follow explore the effectiveness of the objective product-familiarity manipulation, subjects' pre-experimental differences in subjective familiarity and interest towards the test products, the independent variables' main effects and interaction effect on advertising recall, and tests of the research hypotheses.

Preliminary Analyses

A total of 99 usable cases were included in the final analysis. A Bartlett Test of Sphericity was performed and reported a p level of .051 suggesting no deviating from the assumption of homogeneity of variance for the sample.

To establish the validity of the two Guttman scales designed to assess subjective familiarity with the two test products, each scale was analyzed using the Guttman subprogram in the SPSS package. The Subject-Familiarity Towards Lanier scale reported a coefficient of reproducibility and coefficient of scalability of .9717 and .6706 respectively, while the Subjective-Familiarity Towards FSAA scale's coefficient of reproducibility and coefficient of scalability were

.9899 and .7436. Using the acceptance criteria suggested in the SPSS manual (.9 for coefficient of reproducibility and .6 for coefficient of scalability), both scales might be considered valid, unidimensional, and cumulative measurements of subjective familiarity towards their respective test products.

Cronbach's alpha was subsequently employed to assess the reliability of the two multi-item scales used in measuring subjects' interests in the two test products. Each interest scale represents the sum of four items in which respondents indicated how interested they were in the specified test product as compared to four other products -- carbonated beverages, anti-perspirants, frozen dinners and wines. This procedure was abbreviated from Buchanan's Relative Measure of Product Interest (1964). As a general guideline, an alpha in the neighborhood of .5 or better is necessary to indicate a reliable scale (Nunnally 1967). An analysis of Cronbach's reliability for the two 4-item additive Product-Interest scales revealed alphas for the Lanier Dictating Machine interest scale and the FSAA interest scale of .83677 and .91674 respectively. Thus the results confirmed that both scales used to assess subjects' interest in the test products could be judged as reliable.

Finally, multiway crosstabulations were performed to verify the independence of subjective familiarity and product interest between subjects assigned to the different treatment combinations. Table 14 displays results of the crosstabulation analysis. The multiway chi square tests support the randomization of subjective familiarity and product interest across treatment combinations. Based on the above

Table 14: Multiway Chi-square Statistics for Subjective Familiarity and Product Interest Towards the Two Test Products by Campaign-composition Strategy While Controlling for Product Familiarity

Variable	Campaign-Composition Strategy by					
	PRODFAM=High 2			PRODFAM=Low 2		
	Chi	d.f.	Sig.	Chi	d.f.	Sig.
<u>Subjective Familiarity</u>						
PRODUCT=Lanier	10.163	6	(.1180)	2.423	6	(.8770)
PRODUCT=FSAA	2.533	2	(.2828)	3.781	4	(.4364)
<u>Product Interest</u>						
PRODUCT=Lanier	17.823	22	(.7164)	23.544	22	(.3716)
PRODUCT=FSAA	31.412	30	(.3954)	27.010	28	(.5177)

crosstabulation results, it was concluded that subjects from the different treatment combinations did not differ significantly along either of these dimensions.

Objective Familiarity Manipulation Check

As mentioned in Chapter III, objective familiarity scales were included in the last part of the questionnaire, at the end of the experimental session, to check on the success of the objective product familiarity manipulation. One set of questions addressed objective familiarity on the Lanier Dictating Machine, another on the FSAA organization. Each manipulation check set contained a total of fifteen questions regarding one test product. In each set, seven of the fifteen questions were taken from information in the product description sheet given to the subjects as the high product-familiarity manipulation, and these were considered correct answers. Six of the remaining questions were common statements disclosed to all subjects through that product's advertisements during the experimental session. They were included only to disguise the true purpose of this test. The last two questions were decoy terms not mentioned anywhere during the session; they constituted incorrect answers. Subjects were asked to answer "YES" or "NO" to each question to indicate if they believed they had heard or read that statement about the specified test product during the session. Then they were asked to choose a number between 1 and 4 to describe how certain they were with their answers: a "4" for "VERY CERTAIN" and a "1" for "NOT CERTAIN AT ALL". For example, a "YES" and "VERY CERTAIN" would yield a confidence score of "+4" while a "NO" and "SOMEWHAT UNCERTAIN" would score a "-2". The sum of confidence scores associated

with the correct answers minus the sum of confidence scores for the two decoy or incorrect answers constituted the objective familiarity score for that product.

Since subjects should be more familiar with one test product as a result of studying a description sheet and unfamiliar with a second test product about which they received no information, they should report higher objective familiarity scores on the former than on the latter. Indeed, subjects reported higher mean objective familiarity scores on products with which they should have been familiar than on those with which they should not have been familiar, irrespective of which product was used as the high-familiarity stimulus. On a range of +36 to -36, subjects scored a mean response of 14.44 for the product on which they had received description sheets, but only -9.46 for the product on which they received no information. The ONEWAY analysis of variance results presented in Table 15 clearly indicate that product familiarity was a statistically significant factor ($F = 256.271$; $p < .001$) in bringing about this difference in objective familiarity. This means that the objective familiarity manipulation used in increasing subjects' objective knowledge had successfully heightened subjects' objective knowledge regarding the test product assigned to their specific treatment combination.

The Covariates: Subjective Familiarity and Product Interest

Preliminary comparisons of experimental subjects' pre-exposure subjective familiarity and product interest are presented in Table 16. The t-tests and 2-tail probabilities displayed in Table 16 confirm that, although subjects were unfamiliar with both test products, they

Table 15: Oneway Analysis of Variance for Objective-Familiarity Manipulation Check

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	F Ratio	Significance of F
PRODFAM Main Effect	27116.992	1	256.271	.001
Residual	19892.95	188		

Table 15: Oneway Analysis of Variance for Objective-Familiarity Manipulation Check

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	F Ratio	Significance of F
PRODFAM Main Effect	27116.992	1	256.271	.001
Residual	19892.95	188		

Table 16: T-test Comparisons of Experimental Subjects' Subjective Familiarity and Product Interest Towards Test Products

Variable	Mean Value	t (Significance of t)
<u>Subjective Familiarity</u>	(Maximum=10)	
towards Lanier	2.8990	
FSAA	1.1212	111.11 (.0000)
<u>Product Interest</u>	(Maximum=16)	
towards Lanier	8.5859	
FSAA	12.8990	222.22 (.0000)

were in general more familiar with the Lanier Dictating Machine than with FSAA ($t = 111.11$; $p < 0.001$), but were more interested in the FSAA than in the Lanier Dictating Machine ($t = 222.22$; $p < 0.001$). Such pre-exposure inclinations towards the two test products necessitate adjustment of postexposure measurements. Thus it was decided to include subjective familiarity and product interest as covariates in all later analyses. Furthermore, it was decided that responses obtained from using the two test products should not be pooled, but should be separated under a third factor -- product category. The introduction of this variable should provide additional insights on any difference due to product category.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance

According to the original design of this experiment, subjects in each level of the campaign-composition strategy factor participated in both a high-familiarity and a low-familiarity treatment condition. Since subjects were high in familiarity for one product and low in familiarity for a second product, they responded to two sets of measures for recall of stated script information, recall of intruded script information, and recall of stated new information. Given the three dependent variables were all measuring recall, it is highly probable that they might be interrelated. It was decided that the Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) method would be the most appropriate one for analyzing these recall results.

A "univariate-multivariate" approach discussed in Winer (1962) and Barcikowski (1983) was used to analyze the data collected from a within-subject design experiment with multiple dependent measures such

as the one employed in this dissertation. Using this analysis format, each subject's three recall scores for an unfamiliar product were treated as repeated measures of their counterparts for a familiar product. These repeated measures with respect to the product familiarity factor were treated as 'occasions', with subjects (random) nested within the campaign-composition strategy factor (fixed) and both factor and subjects crossed with occasions (fixed). The two test products were treated as two blocks, each block crossed with three campaign-composition strategies while each strategy crossed with two levels of product familiarity. Hence, for analysis purpose, the data were analyzed assuming the parallel of a 2 x 3 x 2 split-plot design. Table 17 summarizes the description of symbols used throughout this discussion.

Unit of Analysis

Subjects' responses collected during the day-after telephone interview were recorded directly onto the recording sheet which accompanied each day-after interview schedule as shown in Appendix G. These responses were later coded as units of stated script information recall, intruded script information recall, or stated new information recall according to the schedules presented in Table 8 (page 87) and Table 9 (page 88). For each product, the number of message units reported for a recall category were summed and then divided by that category's total number of predetermined message units to form a score for that recall category. For example, if a subject had recalled 3 of the 6 designated new information units for the FSAA, the stated new information recall score for this product would have been 50%.

Table 17: Summary of Symbolic Representations

Factor	Symbol	Description
<u>Treatment</u>		
1.	STRAT = IS = SS = DS =	Campaign-composition strategy Identical-ad strategy Similar-ad strategy Dissimilar-ad strategy
2.	PRODFAM = HF = LF =	Product familiarity High-familiarity Low-familiarity
3.	PRODUCT = LANIER = FSAA =	Product factor Lanier dictating machine used to create high-familiarity condition Family Solidarity Alliance of America used to create high-familiarity condition
<u>Covariate</u>		
1.	SUBFAM =	Subjective familiarity with stimulus products
2.	INTEREST =	Pre-experimental interest in stimulus products
<u>Dependent Measure</u>		
1.	STATED =	Recall of stated script information
2.	INTRUDED =	Recall of intruded script information
3.	NEWINFO =	Recall of stated new information
<u>Nuisance Factor</u>		
1.	WITHIN-SUBJECT =	Within-subject error term

Covariates

Regression procedures were used within the MANOVA program to remove variations in the dependent variables due to the two covariates -- subjective familiarity and product interest. Table 18 presents these covariates' regression coefficients for the error term on each of the dependent recall measure. It is clear from the t-values and significance levels reported in Table 18 that Subjective Familiarity was nonsignificant in accounting for some of the unexplained variation in recall of stated script information (STATED) ($t = -.231$; $p < .81815$), recall of intruded script information (INTRUDED) ($t = .499$; $p < .62001$), or recall of stated new information (NEWINFO) ($t = .240$; $p < .81135$). Neither was Product Interest significant in explaining the error in STATED recall ($t = -.876$; $p < .38535$), INTRUDED recall ($t = .012$; $p < .99040$), or NEWINFO recall ($t = -.890$; $p < .37809$).

Results and Tests of Hypothesis

Discussed in this section are analyses of results leading to the support or rejection of each of the hypotheses set forth in Chapter II. Each subsection begins with a general discussion on the effects of a major treatment factor. A restatement of each of the hypotheses derived from that factor is then presented, which is followed by a conclusion and comments pertaining to the specific hypothesis in question.

Campaign-composition Strategy Main Effect, and Hypotheses One, Two and Three

Given the exploratory nature of this study where little is known about the data, Pillai's trace was selected as the multivariate test

Table 18: Regression Coefficients for Covariates on Error Term by Dependent Measures

Dependent Measure	Covariate	Beta	t-Value	Significance of t
STATED Recall	SUBFAM	-.03348	-.231	.81815
	INTEREST	-.12689	-.876	.38535
INTRUDED Recall	SUBFAM	.07270	.499	.62001
	INTEREST	.00176	.012	.99040
NEWINFO Recall	SUBFAM	.03473	.240	.81135
	INTEREST	-.12877	-.890	.37809

(Barcikowski 1983, p.694). A p value of .05 was considered significant, while a p value between .051 and .10 was considered marginally significant, and a p value greater .10 nonsignificant.

Table 19 and Table 20 present the multivariate and univariate tests of significance for all main and interactive effects. The MANOVA indicated that the mean levels of the three recall measures, when considered together, were statistically different among campaign-composition strategies ($F = 2.2329$; $p < .04823$). However, the campaign-composition strategy (STRAT) treatment factor was only marginally significant in affecting recall of stated script information (STATED) ($F = 2.9418$; $p < .06399$) and intruded script information (INTRUDED) ($F = 3.0122$; $p < .06018$), and was nonsignificant in affecting recall of stated new information (NEWINFO) ($F = .0619$; $p < .9400$). Figures 3, 4 and 5 present plots of cell means for the three dependent recall measures by campaign-composition strategies. A visual inspection of the cell-mean plots confirms results of the univariate tests of significance. Differences in mean recall scores are clearly observable for STATED recall and INTRUDED recall, but not pronounced at all for NEWINFO recall. The effect of campaign-composition strategy had achieved marginal significance only for the STATED and INTRUDED recall measures.

Before conclusions can be drawn regarding the significance of the STRAT factor's main effect, it should be pointed out that a 3-way campaign-composition strategy (STRAT) x product category (PRODUCT) x product familiarity (PRODFAM) interaction was also statistically significant ($F = 4.7344$; $p < .0003$), although neither of the 2-way

Table 19: Pillai's Multivariate Test of Significance (P Values) for Recall by Campaign-composition Strategy, Product Familiarity, and Product Type

Effect	Pillai's (d.f.)	F (Significance of F)
<u>Main Effects</u>		
STRAT	.28689 (6,80)	2.2329 (.04823)
PRODFAM	.09039 (3,39)	1.2918 (.29079)
PRODUCT	.12810 (3,45)	2.2037 (.10069)
<u>2-Way Interactions</u>		
STRAT x PRODFAM	.13291 (6,80)	.9491 (.46507)
STRAT x PRODUCT	.12975 (6,92)	1.0638 (.39008)
PRODUCT x PRODFAM	.15435 (3,45)	2.7378 (.05440)
<u>3-Way Interaction</u>		
STRAT x PRODUCT x PRODFAM	.47184 (6,92)	4.7344 (.00030)
<u>Nuisance Factor</u>		
WITHIN-SUBJECT	.10849 (6,80)	.7648 (.59975)

Table 20: Univariate Tests of Significance for Recall by Campaign-composition Strategy, Product Familiarity and Product Type

Effect	Univariate F (Significance of F)		
	STATED	INTRUDED	NEWINFO
<u>Main Effects</u>			
STRAT	2.9418(.0640)	3.0122(.0602)	.0619(.9401)
PRODFAM	2.0536(.1594)	.0057(.9401)	.5455(.4644)
PRODUCT	4.4062(.0412)	.1102(.7414)	.1436(.7065)
<u>2-Way Interactions</u>			
STRAT x PRODFAM	2.1866(.1252)	.3815(.6852)	.0799(.9233)
STRAT x PRODUCT	2.5335(.0902)	.9398(.3979)	.4914(.6149)
PRODUCT x PRODFAM	1.4662(.2320)	2.3797(.1296)	5.0675(.0291)
<u>3-Way Interaction</u>			
STRAT x PRODUCT x PRODFAM	1.0136(.3707)	.4894(.6161)	12.5511(.0000)
<u>Nuisance Factor</u>			
WITHIN-SUBJECT	.3091(.7358)	1.4134(.2549)	.5744(.5675)

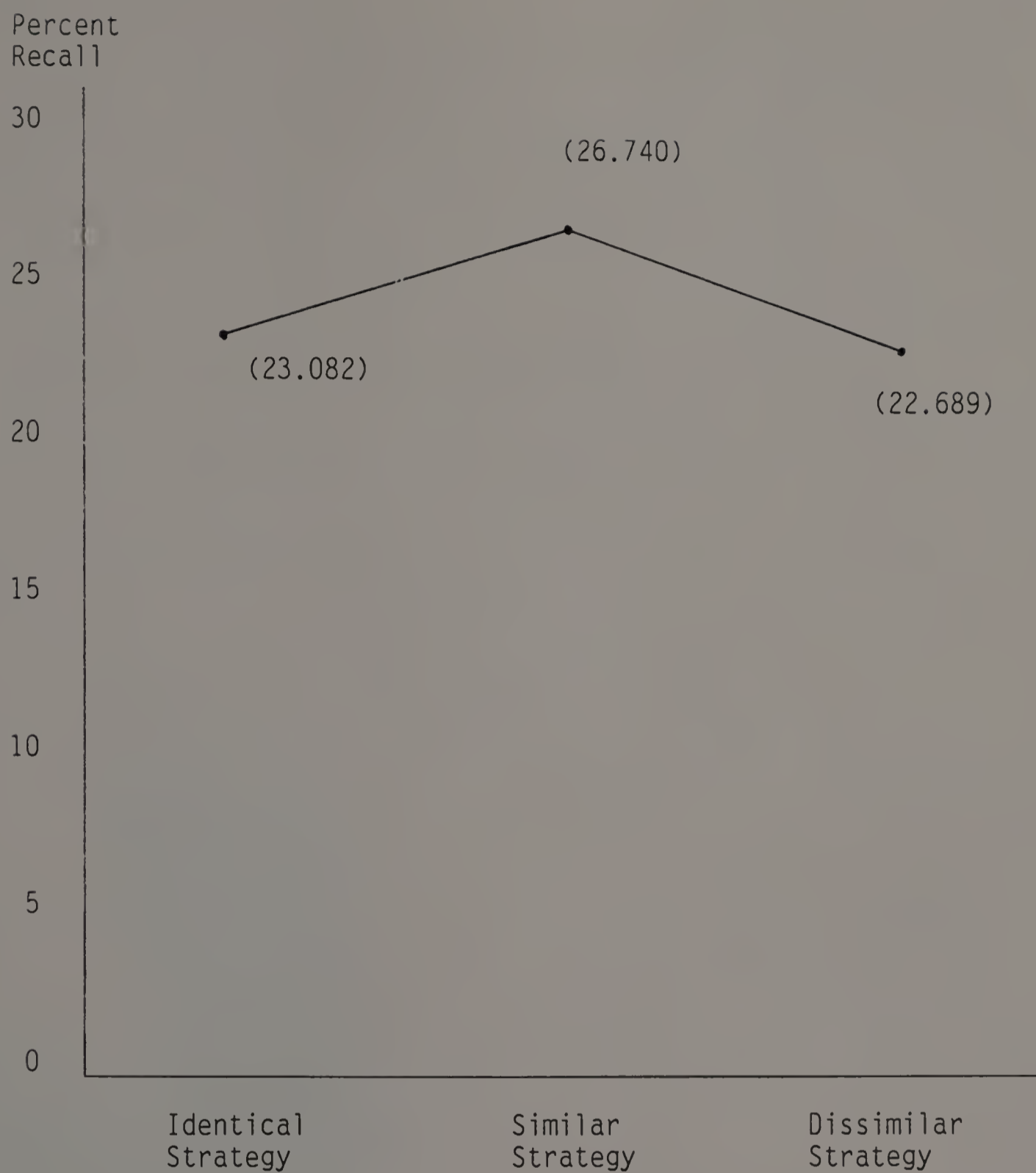


Figure 3: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Stated Script Information by Campaign-composition Strategy

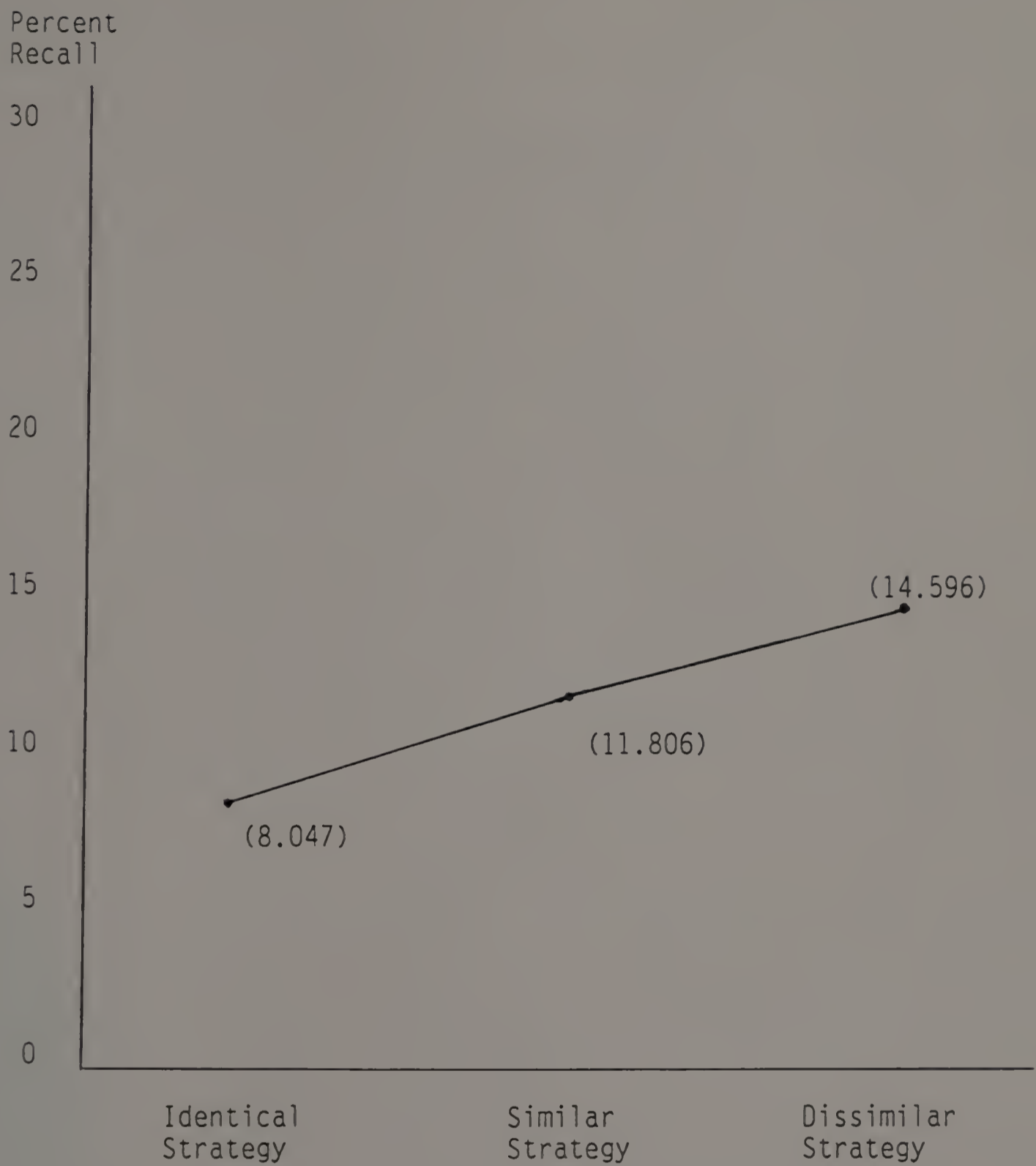


Figure 4: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Intruded Script Information by Campaign-composition Strategy

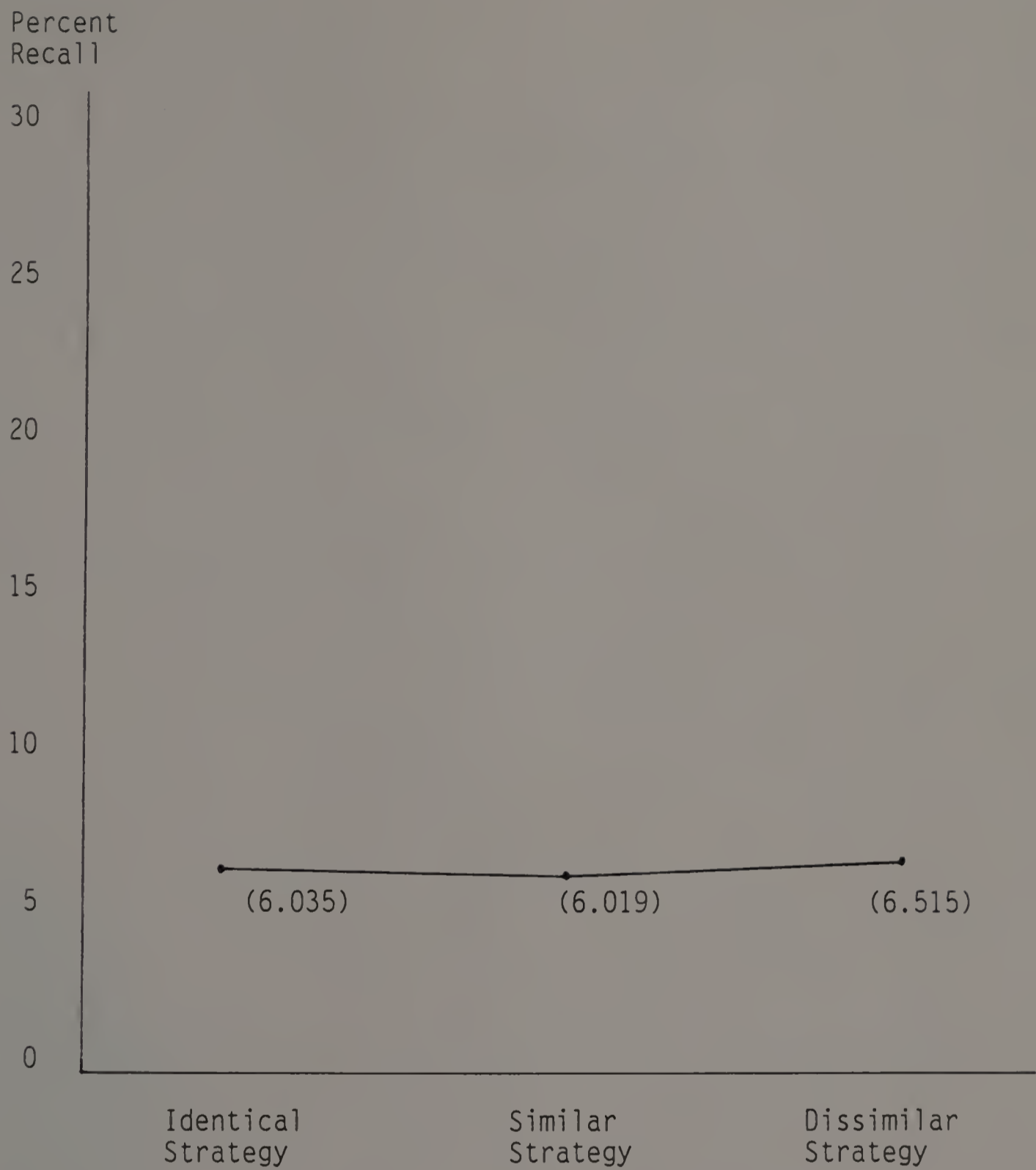


Figure 5: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Stated New Information by Campaign-composition Strategy

H1b: Subjects exposed to IS commercials will show significantly higher recall of stated script information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

H1c: Subjects exposed to SS commercials will show significantly higher recall of stated script information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

Table 21 presents the means and tests of significance for planned a priori contrasts for the advertising campaign-composition strategy (STRAT) factor on each of the three dependent recall measures. The unit of analysis for each category is the percent (%) of messages recalled. For stated script information recall (STATED), the similar strategy condition (SS) exhibited the highest mean level of recall in this category (26.74%) among all three STRAT treatment conditions. The identical strategy condition (IS) exhibited the second highest mean level of STATED recall (23.082%) followed by the dissimilar strategy condition (22.689%). There was no statistically significant differences in mean levels of STATED recall exhibited between the IS and SS conditions ($t = -1.35$; $p < .179$), between the IS and DS conditions ($t = .253$; $p < .801$) or between the SS and DS conditions ($t = 1.448$; $p < .150$). In light of the absence of a significant campaign-composition by product category (STRAT x PRODUCT) interaction, no further analysis was performed to compare these three campaign-composition strategies' effectiveness under each level of the PRODUCT factor.

Based on the results presented in Table 21, Hypothesis (1a) was supported. Subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials did not show any significant differences in recall of stated script information. Hypotheses (1b) and (1c) were, however, refuted. Subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials failed to show higher recall of stated script

Table 21: A Priori Planned Contrasts for the Campaign-composition Strategy Factor

Dependent Variable	Group Mean(in %)	Contrast	t-Value (Sig.)
STATED Recall	SS=26.740	IS vs. SS	-1.350; (.179)
	IS=23.082	IS vs. DS	.253; (.801)
	DS=22.689	SS vs. DS	1.448; (.150)
INTRUDED Recall	DS=14.596	IS vs. SS	-1.579; (.117)
	SS=11.806	IS vs. DS	-2.612; (.010)
	IS=8.047	SS vs. DS	-1.007; (.316)
NEWINFO Recall	DS=6.515	IS vs. SS	.079; (.937)
	IS=6.035	IS vs. DS	- .198; (.843)
	SS=6.019	SS vs. DS	- .293; (.770)

information than subjects exposed to DS commercials. There appears to be a trace of evidence on the presence of scripting in subjects' processing of the stimulus commercials. According to the script theory, there are explicit divisions of scripts into scenes. Within each scene there are main conceptualizations (Schank and Abelson 1977), and explicitly stated script information conveyed in the test commercials may be interpreted as such MAINCONs. Since subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials were expected to develop and rely on scripts for processing their stimulus commercials and they did report higher STATED recall than their DS counterparts, it may be inferred that IS and SS subjects were relying on some underlying scripts to assist in their processing of their assigned stimuli.

Although the results failed to support hypotheses (H1b) and (H1c), the outcomes were in the same direction and order as had been predicted. One explanation why IS and SS subjects did not show significantly higher STATED recall than DS subjects may be related to wearout. An important common factor among failures in most repetition studies is repetition of identical messages (McCullough and Ostrom 1974). The similar and dissimilar strategies are generally regarded as measures to counter wearout. It is plausible that subjects exposed to the identical-strategy and similar-strategy conditions only saw one commercial repeatedly or a series of highly similar commercials, thus wearout might have set in early on. On the other hand, expectation of different information in a series of commercials with much varied executions, as found in the dissimilar strategy, must have provided a satisfactory justification for subjects to attend closely to each

commercial. Hence, the information contained in these commercials was learned more thoroughly, enabling DS subjects to remember it better than had been anticipated.

Hypothesis two: restatement and conclusion.

H2a: Subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of intruded script information.

H2b: Subjects exposed to IS commercials will show significantly higher recall of intruded script information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

H2c: Subjects exposed to SS commercials will show significantly higher recall of intruded script information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

As can be seen from Table 21, subjects in the DS condition exhibited the highest mean recall of intruded script information (INTRUDED) (14.596%), those in the SS condition exhibited the second highest mean level (11.806%), and those in the IS condition the lowest (8.047%). Contrasts on mean levels of INTRUDED recall exhibited between subjects in the IS and SS conditions ($t = -1.579$; $p < .117$), and those between subjects in the SS and DS conditions ($t = -1.007$; $p < .316$) were statistically nonsignificant. Difference in INTRUDED recall between subjects in the IS and DS condition was, however, significant ($t = -2.612$; $p < .010$).

Based on these results, Hypothesis (H2a) was supported. As predicted, subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials did not show any significant difference in their recall of intruded script information. However, subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials failed to show significantly higher INTRUDED recall than subjects exposed to DS commercials. Hence, Hypothesis (H2b) and Hypothesis (H2c) were refuted.

In theory, when applying a script to understand a commercial or any communication, one may be expected to intrude some assertion into recall. These assertions are used to fill-in the gaps between the script information. In an advertising context, this very property of scripts may lead to information conveyed in earlier exposures to be intruded into recall of later commercials. Since subjects exposed to the IS or SS conditions were expected to develop scripts and rely on them to fill-in information when asked to recall product messages from a particular commercial, they exhibited the same levels of INTRUDED recall.

If subjects exposed to identical or similar commercials were expected to generate scripts about their assigned stimuli then they would be expected to show higher recall of intruded script information than those exposed to dissimilar commercials. Contrary to predictions, subjects in the dissimilar-strategy condition reported as high a level of INTRUDED recall as subjects in the similar-strategy condition, and a significantly higher level than subjects in the identical-strategy condition did. The relationships between the IS and DS, and the SS and DS conditions were not at all in the directions as had been hypothesized. It appears that wearout -- cited earlier as a leading cause of the nonsignificance in difference of STATED recall between the IS, SS and DS condition, might be accountable for these inverted relationships. The absence of executional variations could have contributed to diminishing IS and SS subjects' ability to assimilate early information well enough for it to be intruded into the recall of messages stated in later stimulus commercials.

Hypothesis three: restatement and conclusion.

H3a: Subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of stated new information.

H3b: Subjects exposed to IS commercials will show significantly lower recall of stated new information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

H3c: Subjects exposed to SS commercials will show significantly lower recall of stated new information than subjects exposed to DS commercials.

For recall of stated new information (NEWINFO), the dissimilar-strategy condition exhibited the highest mean recall (6.515%) among all three campaign-composition strategy conditions. The identical-strategy condition exhibited the second highest mean level of NEWINFO recall (6.035%) while the similar strategy condition exhibited the lowest mean score (6.019%) in this category of recall. Although the mean levels of NEWINFO recall were in the order and direction as had been predicted, there was no significant differences between any of the treatment conditions. The contrast between the IS and SS conditions reported a t-value of .079 ($p < .937$). The contrast between the IS and DS conditions, and the contrast between the SS and DS conditions showed a t-value of $-.198$ ($p < .843$) and t-value of $-.293$ ($p < .770$), respectively.

Based on these results, Hypothesis (H3a) was supported. Subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials did not show any statistically significant difference in their recall of stated new information. Contrary to predictions, although subjects exposed to IS or SS commercial did report lower recall of stated new information than subjects exposed to DS commercials, the differences were not

statistically significant. Hence, Hypothesis (H3b) and Hypothesis (H3c) were refuted.

New information in a commercial may be viewed as variation of a script. Minor variations need not necessarily cause detours in scripts. In learning a script, one presumably learns variations in addition to constancies. A few of these variations may actually occur in sufficient frequency that a person repeatedly exposed to the script will learn them along with the rest of the script. Thus, with repeated rehearsal, scripts may be slow to change in response to new evidence unless it is a significant interruption which may halt the normal scripted processing of the commercial. The absence of any significant difference between the IS and SS conditions once again suggested that subjects in these conditions shared a similar mode in processing their stimuli. Specifically, these subjects might have relied on scripts to process their assigned commercials.

If IS and SS subjects had perceived the new information as anticipated systematic variation, it might have been assimilated as scripted information. These subjects should later be unable to distinguish between the new information that was explicitly mentioned and information that was merely inferred from the generic script (Graesser, Woll, Kowalski and Smith 1980). It appeared that the novelty of the new information contained in the test commercials might have been treated as major interruptions by IS and SS subjects, and have taken them out of their scripted processing of these commercials because the new information was perceived as atypical rather than typical. Thus, although IS and SS subjects reported lower NEWINFO

recall than DS subjects, the differences were not statistically significant.

Another plausible explanation for the nonsignificant differences in recall of stated new information between IS, SS and DS subjects stems from the mere frequency of exposure. Although subjects received different commercials in the first half of their experiments, the information contained in these commercials had been designed to reflect a common body of message units. In other words, each subject had been exposed to the same set of messages three times before exposure to the final test commercial, though the messages were delivered in different executions. It is possible that the effects of scripting was not fully manifested because IS and SS subjects simply did not have enough of an opportunity to fully develop scripts based on these early exposures and consequently could not generate an intensity of scripting for the differences in NEWINFO recall to be statistically significant. Despite the disconfirmation of Hypotheses (H3b) and (H3c), it would still be logical to assume that since IS and SS subjects' recall of stated new information could only have been negatively affected if they had relied on scripts to assist their processing of the commercials, the findings nonetheless provided another piece of evidence to substantiate the presence and reliance of scripting among these subjects.

Product Familiarity Main Effect, and Hypotheses Four, Five and Six

As reported in Table 19, product familiarity (PRODFAM) was nonsignificant ($F = 1.2918$; $p < .29079$) in affecting all three dependent variables, when they were considered together. The univariate tests of significance reported in Table 20 also verified that the

PRODFAM factor was nonsignificant in affecting differences in mean recall of stated script information ($F = 2.0536$; $p < .15943$), intruded script information ($F = .0057$; $p < .94005$), or stated new information ($F = .5455$; $p < .46437$) between the high-familiarity and low-familiarity conditions. Figures 6, 7 and 8 present plots of cell means for each of the three dependent measures by the product-familiarity treatment. The visual illustrations clearly demonstrate the finding of nonsignificant differences along each of the dependent variables.

Recall that the PRODUCT factor was introduced as a possible mediating factor because there were reasons to believe that using two different stimulus products might differentially affect the manipulation of the treatment factors of interest. Indeed, the multivariate tests of significance in Table 19 revealed a marginally significant ($F = 2.7378$; $p < .0554$) PRODUCT x PRODFAM interaction effect. Furthermore, results reported in Table 20 revealed that although this PRODUCT x PRODFAM interaction was nonsignificant in affecting STATED recall ($F = 1.4662$; $p < .2320$) and INTRUDED recall ($F = 2.3797$; $p < .12963$), it was statistically significant in affecting differences in NEWINFO recall ($F = 2.0675$; $p < .02910$). Further analysis was performed to examine the product familiarity main effect on NEWINFO recall under each level of the PRODUCT factor. Table 22 presents the multivariate and univariate tests of significance for the PRODFAM main effect on recall at each level of the PRODUCT factor. The results revealed that when the Lanier Machine was used in creating the high-familiarity (PRODUCT=LANIER) condition, the PRODFAM factor was nonsignificant ($F = 2.1078$; $p < .11187$) in affecting differences in the

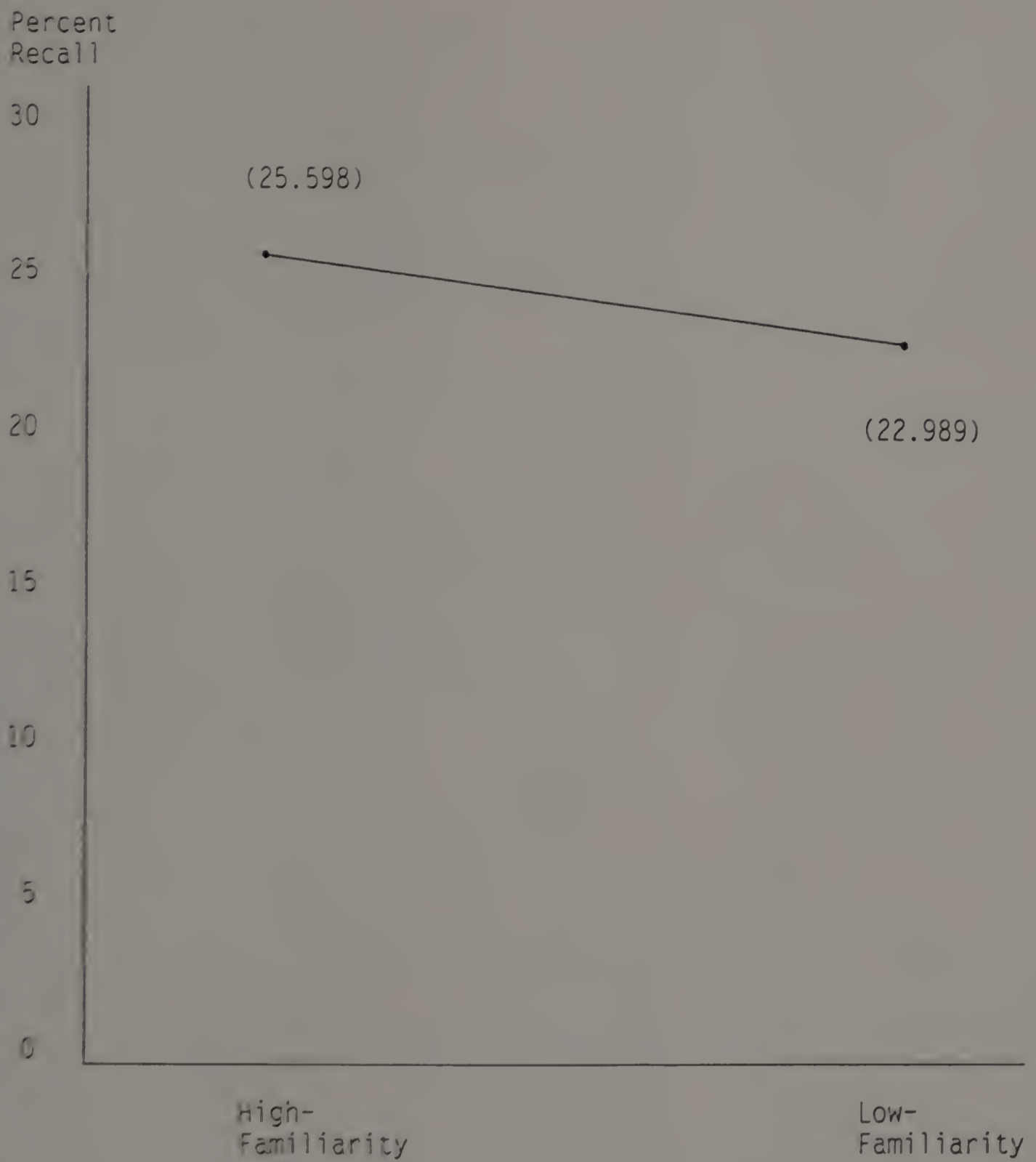


Figure 6: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Stated Script Information by Product Familiarity

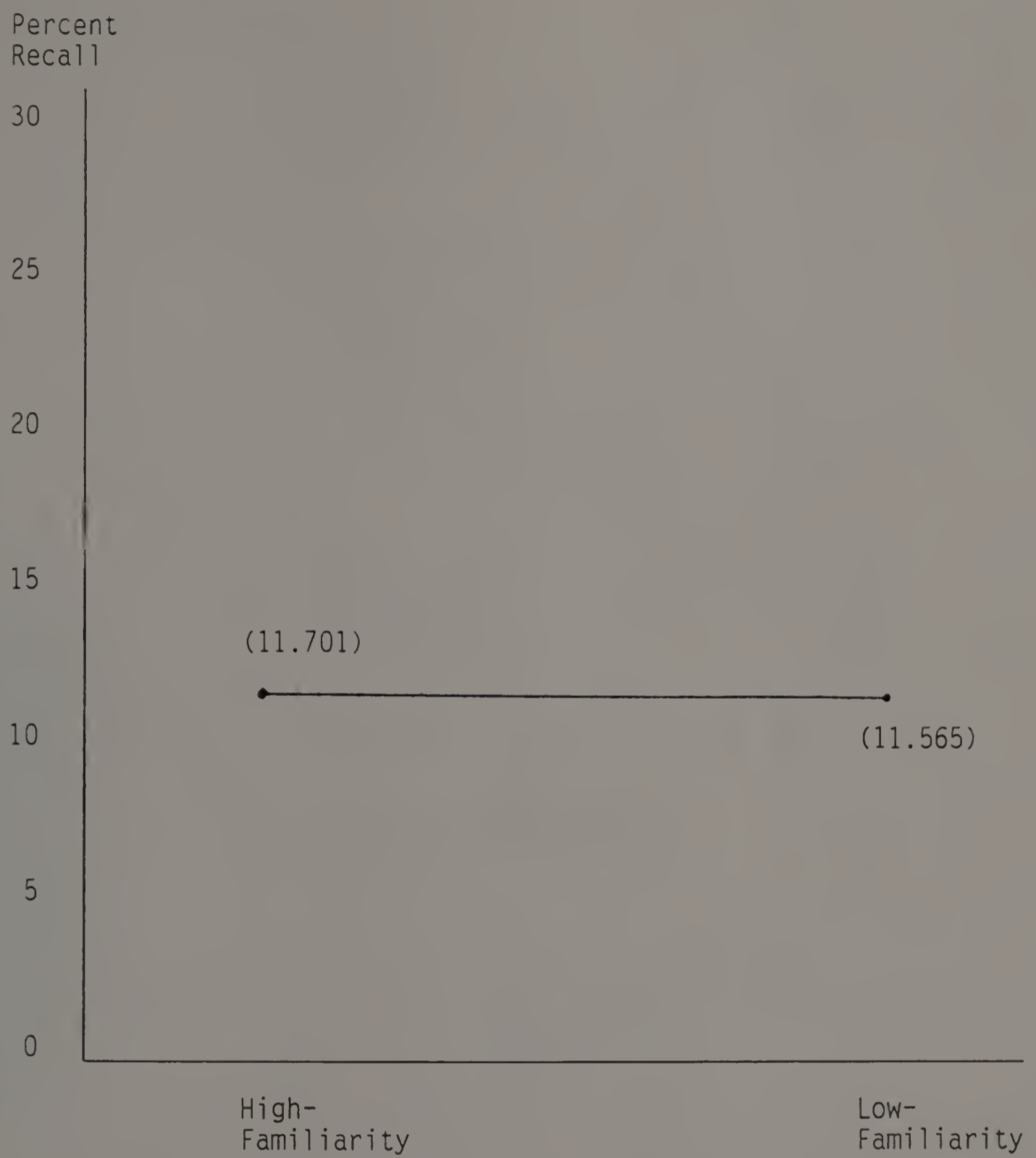


Figure 7: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Intruded Script Information by Product Familiarity

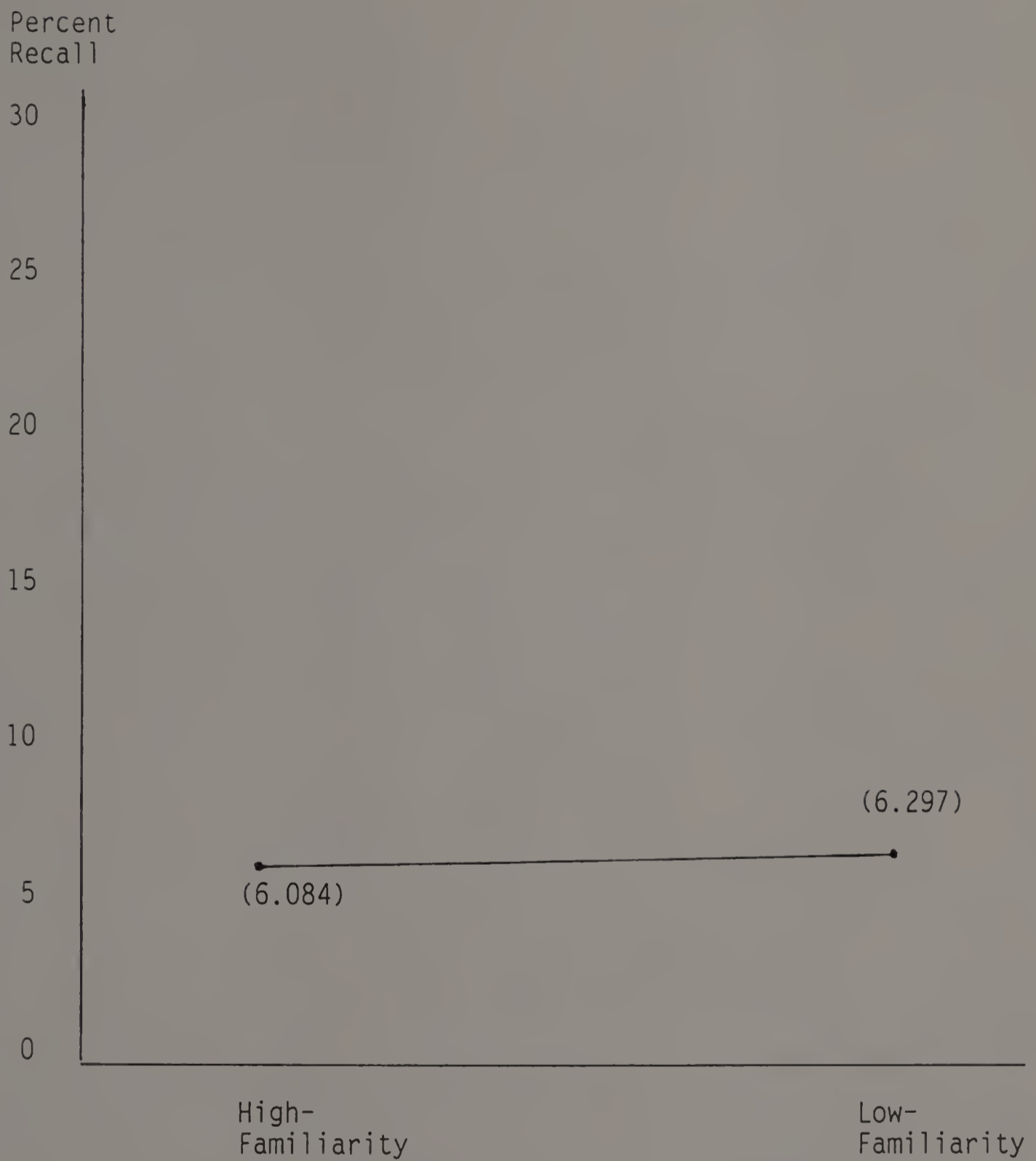


Figure 8: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Stated New Information by Product Familiarity

Table 22: Multivariate and Univariate Tests of Significance for Recall by Product Familiarity at Partitioned Levels of the Product Factor

Results	Partitioned Level	
	Product=Lanier	Product=FSAA
<u>Multivariate</u>		
Pillai's (d.f.)	.11859 (3,47)	.10961 (3,47)
F (Sig. of F)	2.10780 (.11187)	1.92853 (.13785)
<u>Univariate</u>		
STATED Recall		
F (Sig. of F)	.03826 (.84573)	2.02944 (.16062)
INTRUDED Recall		
F (Sig. of F)	2.54482 (.11709)	2.50790 (.11971)
NEWINFO Recall		
F (Sig. of F)	3.00343 (.08938)	2.46858 (.12258)

dependent recall measures, when they were considered together. Specifically, it was nonsignificant in affecting STATED recall ($F = .0383$; $p < .84573$) and INTRUDED recall ($F = 2.5448$; $p < .111709$), though it was marginally significant in affecting mean levels of NEWINFO recall ($F = 3.0034$; $p < .08939$). The PRODFAM main effect was also nonsignificant when the FSAA was used in creating the high-familiarity (PRODUCT=FSAA) condition ($F = 1.9285$; $p < .13785$). It was nonsignificant in affecting mean levels of STATED recall ($F = 2.0294$; $p < .16062$), INTRUDED recall ($F = 2.5079$; $p < .11971$), or NEWINFO recall ($F = 2.4686$; $p < .12258$).

Hypothesis four: restatement and conclusion.

H4: Subjects will show significantly higher recall of stated script information for a product with which they are familiar than for one with which they are unfamiliar.

Table 23 presents the combined as well as partitioned mean recall scores for the high-familiarity condition and low-familiarity condition on each of the dependent measures. At the combined level, subjects recalled 25.6% of the stated script information contained in the commercials promoting a product with which they were familiar; while they only recalled 23% of stated script information on a product with which they were unfamiliar. The univariate results reported in Table 20 indicate that although the directionality of the difference was as predicted in the hypothesis, the difference was not statistically significant ($F = 2.0536$; $p < .15943$). Furthermore, since the marginally significant PRODUCT x PRODFAM interaction was not significant in affecting STATED recall ($F = 1.4662$; $p < .2320$), no further analysis was necessary to examine the effect of product familiarity on this

UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS/AMHERST
UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

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<u>Category</u>	<u>Requirement</u>
Students, staff, and faculty of the five area colleges.....	valid college ID card
Students of other Massachusetts colleges.....	valid institutional ID card
Adult residents of the Commonwealth.....	photo ID and proof of residence
Students (Mass. residents) under 18.....	recommendation letter from school administration describing need

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Fines are collected by the University Bursar's Office and do not benefit the Library directly, but go to the general fund as revenue to the Commonwealth. Replacement funds go directly to a Library Trust Fund and are used to purchase replacement copies.

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Loan Policy recommended, 1/5/76:

Gordon Fretwell, Associate Director for Public Services

George Wright, Deputy Associate Director for Public Services

Betty Brace, Head, Circulation Department

Reviewed by the Faculty Senate Committee: 3/1/76

First Revision: 12/76

Second Revision: 7/79

Third Revision: 11/81

Fourth Revision recommended, 1/12/81

Gordon Fretwell, Associate Director for Public Services

George Wright, Deputy Associate Director for Public Services

Sandra Bernson, Acting Head, Circulation, Goodell

Reviewed by the Faculty Senate Library Committee: 2/5/82

Reviewed by the Faculty Senate Library Committee: 4/4/84

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4/84

Table 23: Mean Recall Scores Reported by Subjects in the High-familiarity and Low-familiarity Conditions at the Combined, and Partitioned Levels of the Product Factor

Level of Analysis	<u>Recall Scores (in %)</u>		
	STATED	INTRUDED	NEWINFO
<u>Combined</u>			
PRODFAM = High	25.5983	11.7012	6.0843
PRODFAM = Low	22.7889	11.5652	6.2968
<u>Partitioned</u>			
PRODUCT = LANIER			
PRODFAM = High	21.8857	8.7951	3.3247
PRODFAM = Low	23.4043	15.2489	9.3617
PRODUCT = FSAA			
PRODFAM = High	29.0196	14.3794	8.6275
PRODFAM = Low	22.6061	8.1704	3.4724

dependent measure under each partitioned level of the PRODUCT factor. Hypothesis (H4) was refuted.

The findings pertaining to this hypothesis were in the same direction as would have been predicted by the "enrichment hypothesis". As a matter of fact, even Johnson and Russo's (1981) findings of a positive relationship between mean statements recalled and product familiarity was only marginally significant. One plausible explanation for why subjects had not recalled significantly more stated script information for a product with which they were familiar than for one with which they were unfamiliar could be that subjects assigned to receive descriptions sheets on the Lanier machine were not as interested in the product, and did not learn enough of the necessary knowledge to distinguish among important product attributes. Concurrently, these same subjects' relatively higher interest in the FSAA might have led them to learn more about their assigned low-familiarity product, the FSAA, instead of simply paying attention to salient perceptual features as had been predicted. Hence the effect of the product-familiarity treatment factor was unable to manifest itself.

Hypothesis five: restatement and conclusion.

H5: Subjects will show no significant difference in recall of intruded script information between a product with which they are familiar and one with which they are unfamiliar.

Hypothesis (5) was supported. As reported in Table 23, subjects reported at the combined level 11.7% recall of intruded script information on a product with which they were familiar, and 11.57% on one with which they were unfamiliar. The nonsignificant univariate results ($F = .0057$; $p < .9400$) confirmed that this difference was not

statistically significant. Again, no further partitioned analysis was performed, because the PRODUCT x PRODFAM interaction was nonsignificant in affecting INTRUDED recall ($F = 2.3797$; $p < .12963$).

This conclusion substantiated the prediction that product familiarity alone was not expected to lead to script development. The concept of intrusion into recall is characteristic only when one has developed a script to which to refer when processing stereotypic information. Thus, there should not have been any difference between subjects' recall of intruded script information between a product with which they were familiar and one with which they were unfamiliar.

Hypothesis six: restatement and conclusion.

H6: Subjects will show significantly higher recall of stated new information for a product with which they are familiar than for one with which they are unfamiliar.

Figure 9 is a plot of cell means for NEWINFO recall by product type and product familiarity. Under the PRODUCT=LANIER condition, it is clear that no positive relationship between product familiarity and stated new information recall was present. At this level, subjects actually reported lower rather than higher recall of stated new information on their designated high-familiarity product, the Lanier Dictating Machine (mean=3.32%), than on their designated low-familiarity product -- the FSAA (mean=9.36%). And this difference was marginally significant ($F = 3.0034$; $p < .08939$).

When the high-familiarity condition was created by giving subjects description sheets on the Family Solidarity Alliance of America to heighten their objective knowledge for this product, they did exhibit higher mean levels of stated new information towards the FSAA

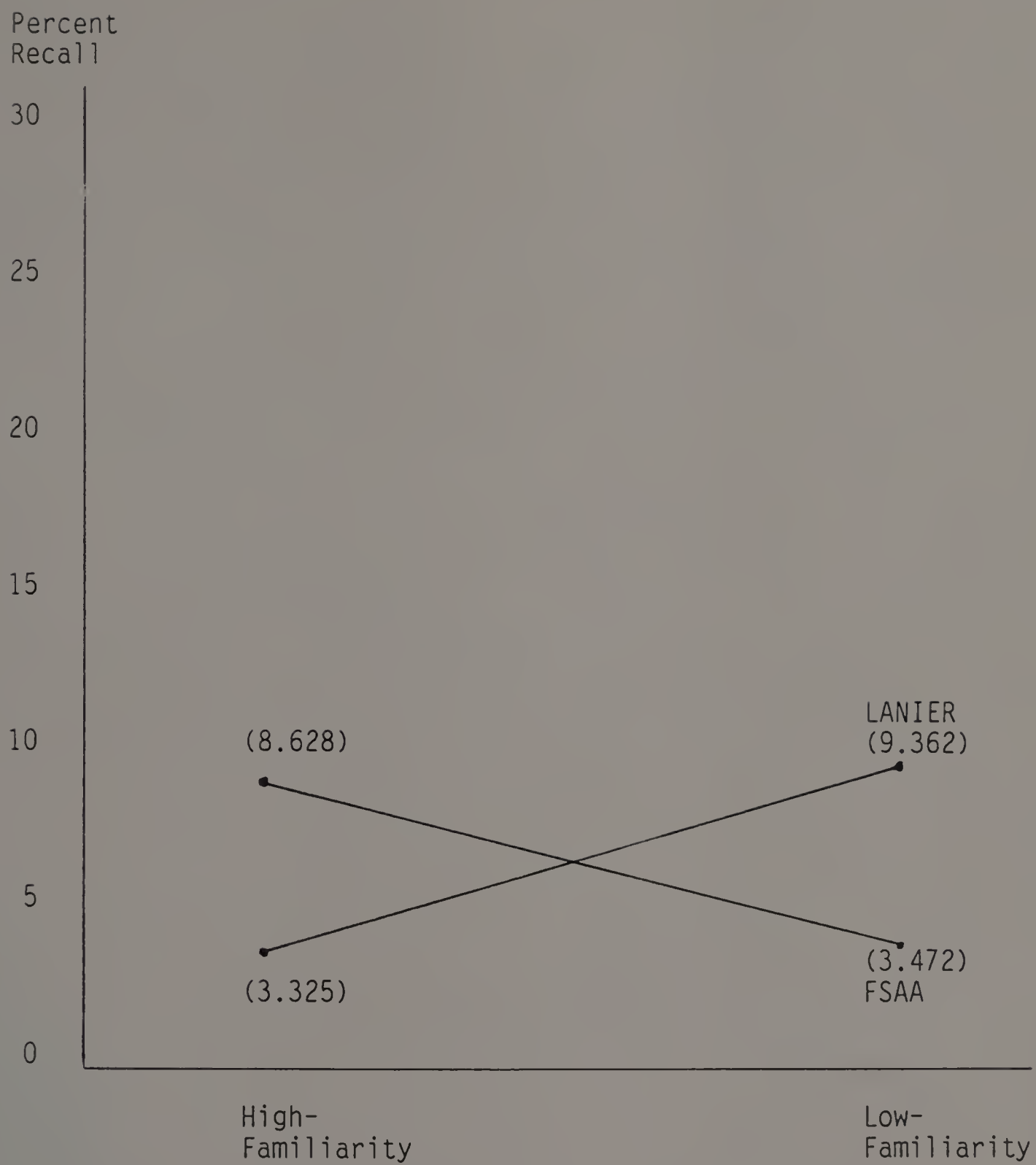


Figure 9: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Stated New Information by Product Familiarity and Product Type

(mean=8.63%) than the designated low-familiarity product -- the Lanier Dictating Machine (mean=3.47%). However, the difference was nonsignificant ($F = 2.4686$; $p < .12258$). Hence, it was concluded that Hypothesis (H6) was refuted at all levels of analysis.

Based on these results, it appears that the subjects' relatively higher interest in the FSAA had undoubtedly contributed to this interesting finding. As had been discussed earlier, subjects had indicated a higher interest in the Family Solidarity Alliance of America than in the other stimulus product, the Lanier Dictating Machine. This favorable predisposition towards the FSAA commercials and the possibility that they might have been processed with heightened awareness must have led subjects to pay much closer attention to all elements relating to the FSAA commercials than to those promoting the Lanier machine. Consequently, subjects might have learned all messages about the FSAA, including the new information, more thoroughly, regardless of whether they had received description sheets on the Lanier Machine or FSAA. The outcome is clearly reflected in the inverted relationship and nonsignificant positive findings.

Campaign-composition Strategy by Product Familiarity Interactive Effect and Hypotheses Seven, Eight and Nine

It can be seen from Table 19 that there was no statistically significant campaign-composition strategy by product familiarity interaction (STRAT x PRODFAM) ($F = .9491$; $p < .46507$). Table 20 reports that this 2-way interaction was not significant in affecting differences in recall of stated script information ($F = 2.1866$; $p < .12522$), intruded script information ($F = .3815$; $p < .68522$) or stated new information ($F = .0799$; $p < .92332$). These findings of no

difference are illustrated in plots of cell means presented in Figures 10, 11 and 12.

Earlier, a significant campaign-composition strategy by product category by product familiarity interaction (STRAT x PRODUCT x PRODFAM) was reported. This 3-way interaction was significant for stated new information recall (NEWINFO), though it was nonsignificant for stated script information recall (STATED) and intruded script information recall (INTRUDED), Table 24 presents multivariate and univariate tests of significance for the STRAT x PRODFAM interaction on the three dependent recall measures at each partitioned level of the PRODUCT factor. It should be clear from these results that the STRAT x PRODFAM interaction was nonsignificant in explaining the differences across treatment combinations on NEWINFO recall at the PRODUCT=LANIER level ($F = 1.2514$; $p < .30209$). This means that when the Lanier machine served as the stimulus, recall of stated new information was not affected by the campaign-composition strategy used and the audience's degree of familiarity with the test product. The STRAT x PRODFAM interaction was, however, significant in affecting NEWINFO recall ($F = 3.3555$; $p < .01681$) at the PRODUCT=FSAA level. When the Family Solidarity Alliance of America was used as the stimulus product in the high-familiarity condition, the STRAT x PRODFAM interaction was statistically significant in affecting recall of stated new information.

Hypothesis seven: restatement and conclusion.

H7a: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of stated script information.

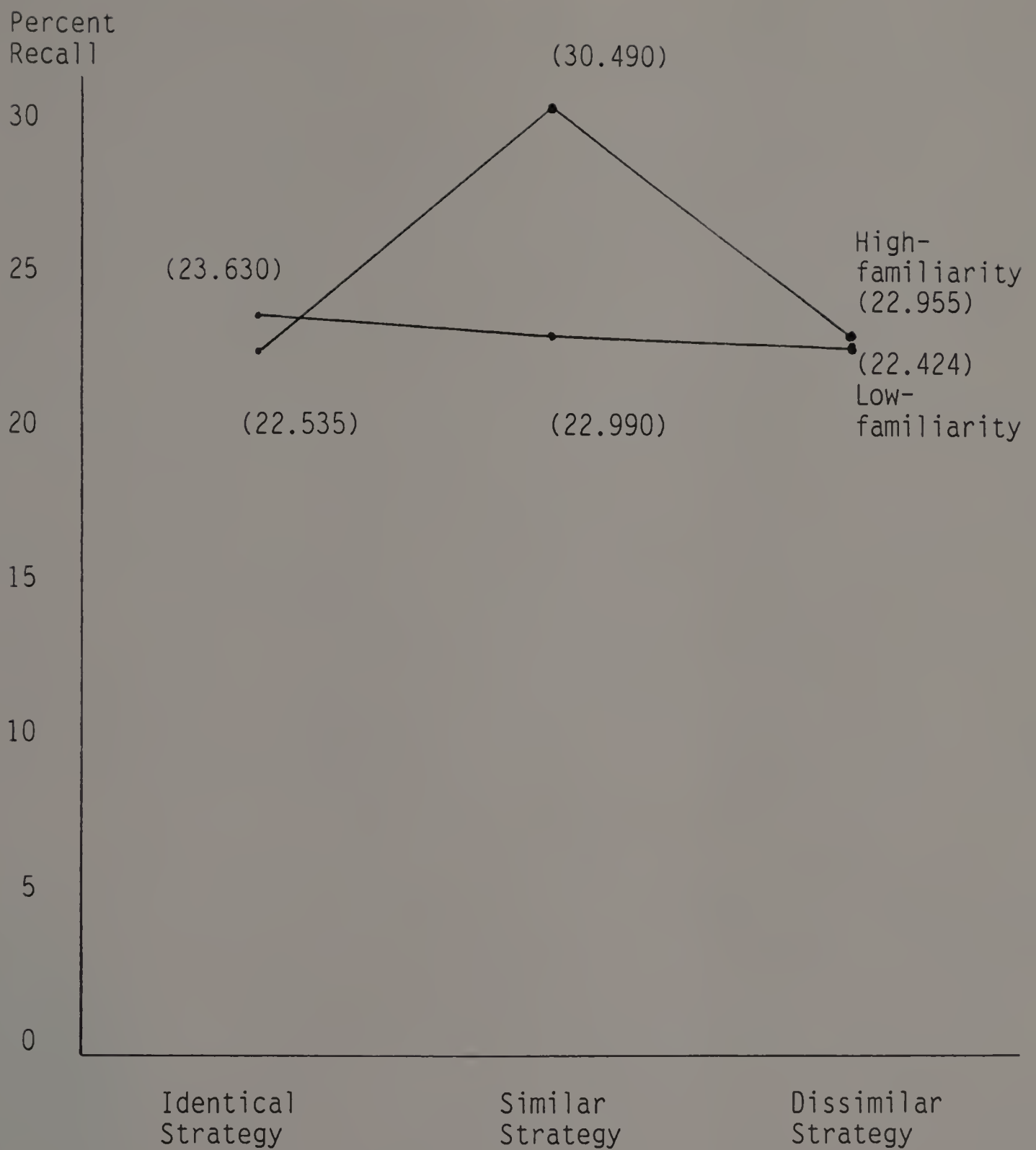


Figure 10: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Stated Script Information by Campaign-composition Strategy and Product Familiarity

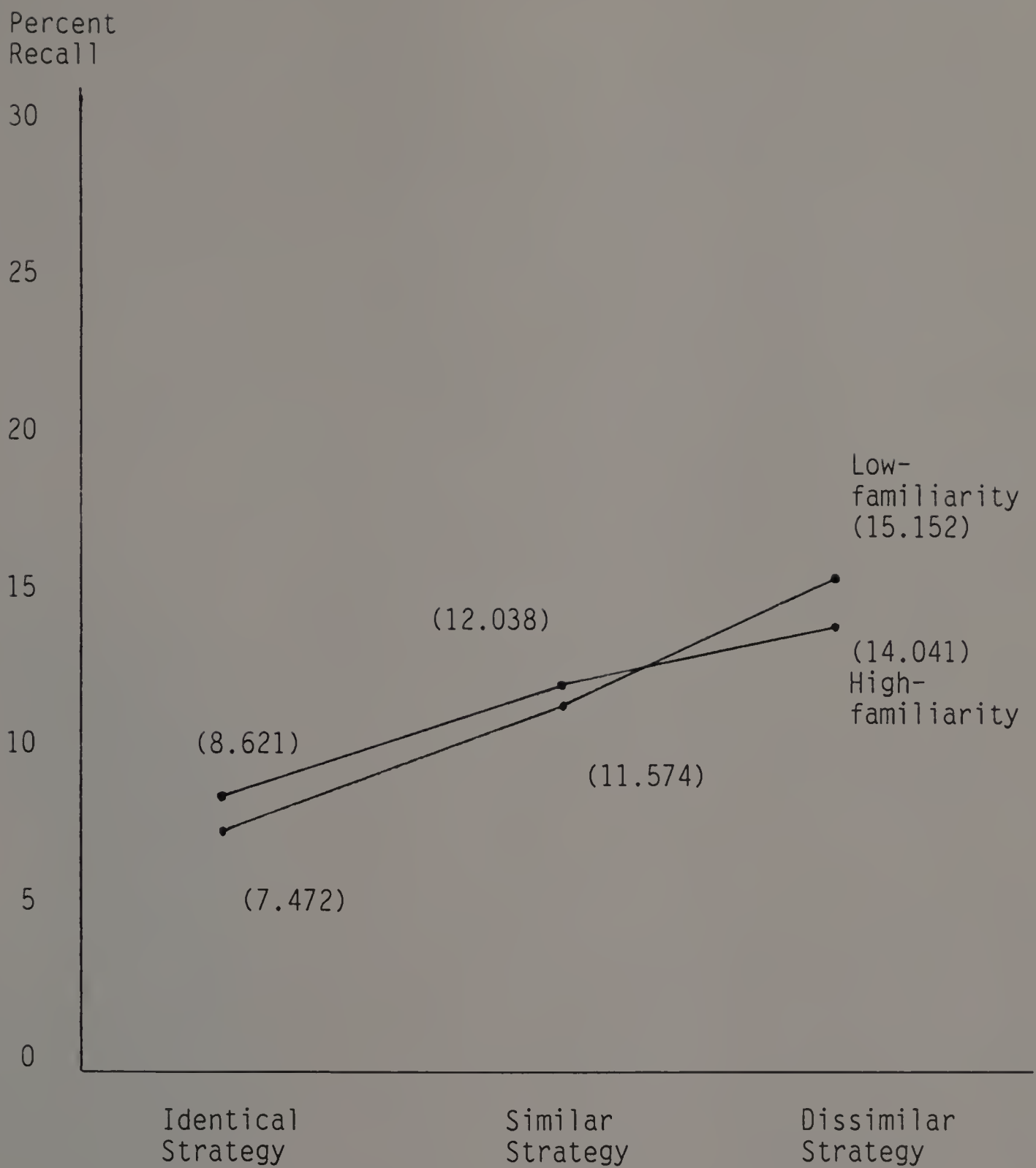


Figure 11: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Intruded Script Information by Campaign-composition Strategy and Product Familiarity

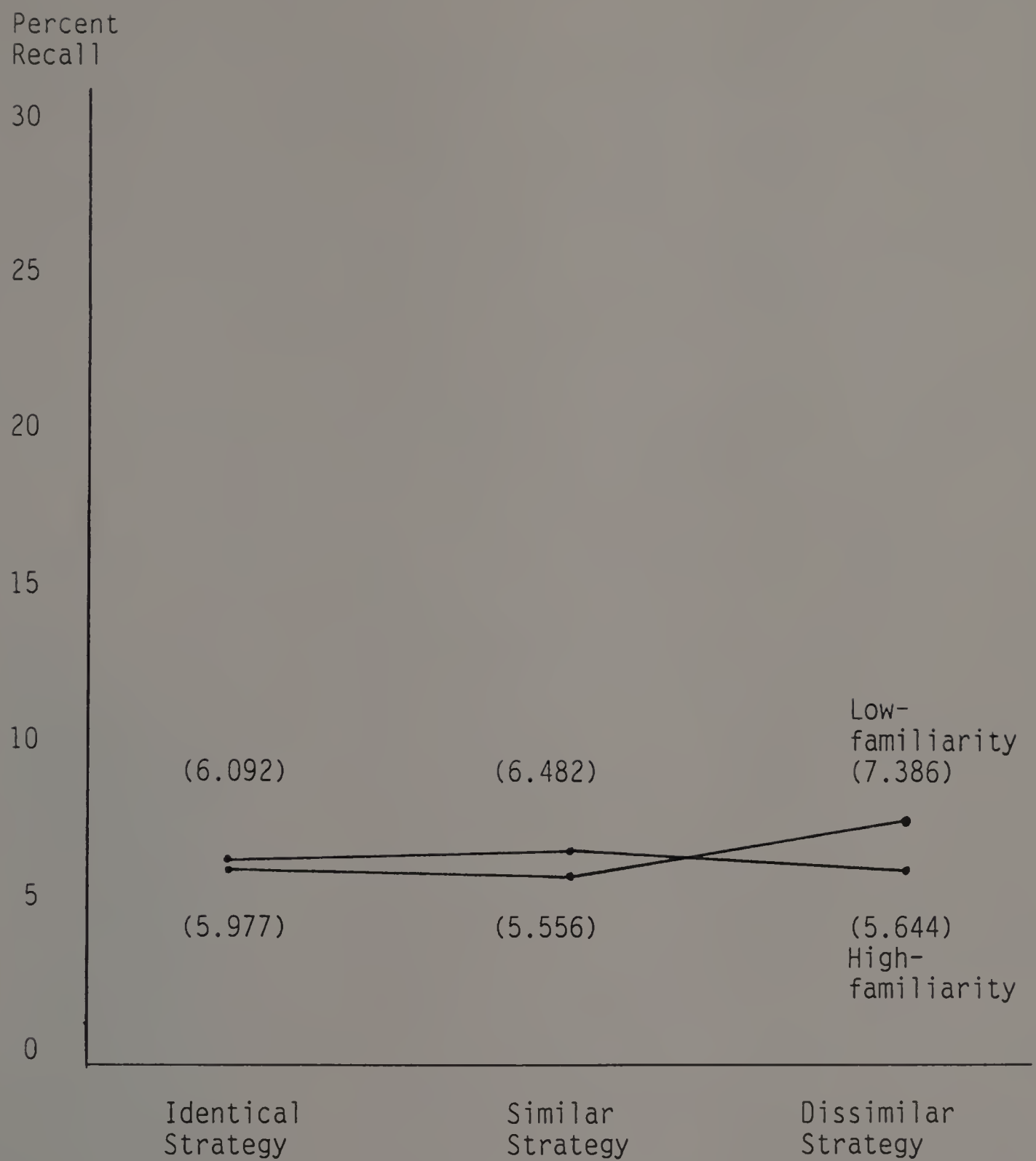


Figure 12: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Stated New Information by Campaign-composition Strategy and Product Familiarity

Table 24: Multivariate and Univariate Tests of Significance for Recall by Campaign-composition Strategy and Product Familiarity at Partitioned Levels of the Product Factor

Results	<u>Partitioned Level</u>	
	Product=Lanier	Product=FSAA
<u>Multivariate</u>		
Pillai's (d.f.)	.52783 (12,144)	.34014 (12,144)
F (Sig. of F)	2.56210 (.00420)	1.53454 (.11815)
<u>Univariate</u>		
STATED Recall		
F (Sig. of F)	4.30831 (.00466)	.53973 (.70725)
INTRUDED Recall		
F (Sig. of F)	2.05835 (.10104)	.63737 (.63837)
NEWINFO Recall		
F (Sig. of F)	1.25142 (.30209)	3.35552 (.01681)

H7b: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show significantly higher recall of stated script information than subjects in any of the other treatment combinations.

H7c: Low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show significantly lower recall of stated script information than subjects in any of the other treatment combinations.

H7d: Low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show no significant differences in recall of stated script information.

Since there was no significant STRAT x PRODUCT x PRODFAM 3-way interaction effect on recall of stated script information, the following discussion will address only the overall combined results of the STRAT x PRODFAM interactive effect on this dependent variable. Table 25 presents the STATED recall cell means and t-test results for comparisons between all 15 possible pairings of treatment combinations for this dependent measure. The pairings are cross-referenced against the specific hypotheses they address.

The results in Table 25 indicate that high-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials (Cell 3) exhibited the highest mean level of STATED recall (30.4897%). This was followed in descending order by (Cell 2) low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials (23.6303%), (Cell 4) low-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials (22.9897%), (Cell 5) high-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials (22.9545%), (Cell 1) high-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials (22.5354%), and (Cell 6) low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials (22.4242%). The t-test results clearly showed that high-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials (Cell 3) reported higher recall of stated script information than subjects in any other

Table 25: T-test Comparisons of Recall of Stated Script Information Between All Pairings of Treatment Combinations at the Combined Level of the Product Factor

Cell Mean (%)	Product Familiarity		
	High	Low	
Campaign- Compositio Strategy	IS	Cell no. 1	Cell no. 2
		Combined mean = 22.5345	Combined mean = 23.6303
	SS	Cell no. 3	Cell no. 4
		Combined mean = 30.4897	Combined mean = 22.9897
	DS	Cell no. 5	Cell no. 6
		Combined mean = 22.9545	Combined mean = 22.4242

<u>Treatments</u>	<u>Hypotheses</u>	<u>t-Value</u>	<u>Probability</u>
1 and 2	7b/7c	-.34	.733
1 and 3	7a	-2.07	.042
1 and 4	7b/7c	-.13	.894
1 and 5	7b	-.11	.913
1 and 6	7b	.03	.976
2 and 3	7b/7c	-1.89	.063
2 and 4	7d	.20	.839
2 and 5	7c	.19	.853
2 and 6	7c	.35	.731
3 and 4	7b/7c	1.98	.052
3 and 5	7b	1.80	.077
3 and 6	7b/7c	1.98	.052
4 and 5	7c	.01	.993
4 and 6	7c	.15	.878
5 and 6	NA	.13	.897

treatment combination. In fact, the differences were at least marginally significant at the $p < .077$ level.

Based on these results, Hypothesis (H7a) was refuted. Contrary to the expectation of no difference, high-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials reported significantly lower recall of stated script information than high-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials. Hypothesis (H7b) was also refuted. Although high-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials did show marginally higher recall than subjects in the other treatment combinations did, the findings were not repeated for their counterparts in the IS condition. They failed to show significantly higher recall of stated script information than subjects in the other treatment combinations. Also refuted was Hypothesis (H7c). Low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials failed to show significantly lower recall of stated script information than subjects in the other treatment combinations. However, Hypothesis (H7d) was supported. Low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials and low-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials showed no significant difference in STATED recall.

Although three of the four predictions set forth in this hypothesis were refuted, there were some interesting findings worth noting. First, despite the fact that IS and SS subjects did not show any significant difference in their recall of stated script information when the campaign-composition strategy factor was considered alone, this relationship was not sustained among high-familiarity subjects. Second, high-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials did recall significantly more stated script information than subjects in the other

treatment combinations, though their IS counterparts did not. From these results, it appears once again that the IS strategy and its identical repetitions of a single ad might have been more susceptible to the problem of wearout (Calder and Sternthal 1980), particularly when subjects were familiar with a product. Since high-familiarity subjects were expected to have more general information about specific product class attributes, those who were exposed to IS commercials might have had fewer reasons to want to pay attention to the repeated exposures of the same ad. Hence, they did not remember the messages as well as those high-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials did. This notion might have also contributed to the significant differences in recall of stated script information found between high-familiarity subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials.

From a different perspective, generalization of information into scripted central events expected of IS and SS commercials was presumed to hinder low-familiarity subjects' ability to learn and recall stated script information because they tend to rely more on semantic knowledge for message interpretation (Beattie 1983). It appears that common sequences expected in IS and SS commercials might not have reduced the total level of information-based or semantic knowledge in these commercials by the same degree as expected. Thus, low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials did not report the lowest recall in recall of stated script information. Rather, as the simple main effects of campaign-composition strategy and product familiarity would have jointly predicted, it was the low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials who actually exhibited the lowest recall of

stated script information, though the differences were not statistically significant.

Hypothesis eight: restatement and conclusion.

H8a: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials and low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of intruded script information.

H8b: High-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials and low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of intruded script information.

H8c: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials and low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show significantly higher recall of intruded script information than subjects in either of the other two treatment combinations.

Once again, due to the absence of a significant 3-way interaction effect on recall of intruded script information, Table 26 presents only the overall combined cell means for recall of intruded script information (INTRUDED) and t-test results for all 15 possible pairings of treatment combinations along this dependent measure. The highest mean level of INTRUDED recall was reported by (Cell 6) low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials (15.1518%). This was followed in descending order by (Cell 5) high-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials (14.0406%), (Cell 3) high-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials (12.037%), (Cell 4) low-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials (11.5744%), (Cell 1) high-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials (8.6214%), and (Cell 2) low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials with the lowest mean level (7.4724%).

The comparison between low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials (Cell 2) and low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS

Table 26: T-test Comparisons of Recall of Intruded Script Information Between All Pairings of Treatment Combinations at the Combined Level of the Product Factor

Cell Mean (%)	Product Familiarity	
	High	Low
IS	Cell no. 1	Cell no. 2
	Combined mean = 8.6214	Combined mean = 7.4724
Campaign-Composition Strategy	Cell no. 3	Cell no. 4
	Combined mean = 12.0378	Combined mean = 11.5744
DS	Cell no. 5	Cell no. 6
	Combined mean = 14.0406	Combined mean = 15.1518

<u>Treatment</u>	<u>Hypotheses</u>	<u>t-Value</u>	<u>Probability</u>
1 and 2	8a	.38	.704
1 and 3	8b	-.94	.350
1 and 4	8a	-.93	.358
1 and 5	8a	-1.44	.154
1 and 6	8a/8c	-1.90	.063
2 and 3	8a	-1.26	.213
2 and 4	NA	-1.29	.203
2 and 5	NA	-1.75	.085
2 and 6	8c	-2.23	.029
3 and 4	8a	.12	.903
3 and 5	8a	-.47	.640
3 and 6	8a/8c	-.78	.438
4 and 5	NA	-.63	.529
4 and 6	8c	-.99	.324
5 and 6	8c	-.27	.788

commercials (Cell 6) was statistically significant ($t = -2.33$; $p < .029$). Two other comparisons were marginally significant. They were those between Cell 1 and Cell 6 ($t = -1.90$; $p < .063$), and between Cell 2 and Cell 5 ($t = -1.75$; $p < .085$). All other comparisons were nonsignificant.

Hypothesis (H8a) was supported. Subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials were not expected to differ in recall of intruded script information. Neither were high-familiarity and low-familiarity subjects. Indeed, high-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials and low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials did not report any significant differences along this dependent measure. Hypothesis (H8b) was also supported. High-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials and low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials did not show any significant difference in recall of intruded script information either.

Contrary to expectation, however, low-familiarity and high-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials showed the highest and second highest, rather than the lowest, INTRUDED recall than subjects in any of the other treatment combinations. Thus, Hypothesis (H8c) was refuted.

Based on these results, it might be surmised that wearout seemed to have once again mediated the subjects' responses to the stimuli. As have been stated earlier, inattention to messages contained in IS and SS commercials might have contributed to the low recall scores in these conditions as compared to those reported by subjects in the DS condition. Perhaps, the novelty of the dissimilarity in the DS

commercials had heightened subjects' attention level enough for them to have learned all messages more thoroughly.

Hypothesis nine: restatement and conclusion.

H9a: High-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials will show significantly higher recall of stated new information than subjects in any other treatment combinations.

H9b: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show significantly lower recall of stated new information than subjects in any other treatment combinations.

H9c: High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials will show no significant difference in recall of stated new information.

Since recall of stated new information (NEWINFO) had been found to be affected by a significant STRAT x PRODUCT x PRODFAM interaction, Table 27 presents the NEWINFO recall cell means and t-test results for comparisons between all 15 possible pairings of treatment combinations on this recall measure at the combined and each of the PRODUCT factor's partitioned levels. At the combined level, low-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials (Cell 6) scored the highest mean level of NEWINFO recall (7.3864%) among subjects in all treatment combinations. The other combinations' mean levels were, in descending order, 6.4817% for high-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials (Cell 3), 6.0925% for high-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials (Cell 1), 5.9772% for low-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials (Cell 2), 5.6439% for high-familiarity exposed to DS commercials (Cell 5), and 5.5556% for low-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials (Cell 4). The t-tests results indicated that none of the differences in NEWINFO recall reported between any pair of treatment combinations was statistically significant at the $p < .10$ level.

Table 27: T-test Comparisons of Recall of Stated New Information Between All Pairings of treatment Combinations at the Combined and Partitioned Levels of the Product Factor

Cell Mean (%)	Product Familiarity		
	High	Low	
Campaign- Composition Strategy	IS	Cell no. 1 Combined= 6.0921 Lanier = 1.1907 FSAA =10.6667	Cell no. 2 Combined= 5.9772 Lanier =10.0000 FSAA = 2.2227
	SS	Cell no. 3 Combined= 6.4817 Lanier = 1.9612 FSAA =10.5263	Cell no. 4 Combined= 5.5556 Lanier =11.7647 FSAA = 0.0000
	DS	Cell no. 5 Combined= 5.6439 Lanier = 6.6406 FSAA = 4.7059	Cell no. 6 Combined= 7.3864 Lanier = 6.2500 FSAA = 8.4559

Treatment	Hypotheses	Combined Level		Product=Lanier		Product=FSAA	
		t-Value	Prob.	t-Value	Prob.	t-Value	Prob.
1 and 2	9b	.04	.967	-2.40	.029	2.32	.031
1 and 3	9c	-.15	.883	-.43	.671	.03	.974
1 and 4	9b	.20	.845	-2.89	.009	3.23	.006
1 and 5	9b	.18	.859	-2.09	.048	1.52	.142
1 and 6	9a/9b	-.51	.615	-1.89	.072	.56	.583
2 and 3	9b	-.19	.845	2.16	.046	-2.60	.015
2 and 4	NA	.15	.877	-.36	.721	1.47	.165
2 and 5	NA	.13	.894	.80	.430	-.95	.349
2 and 6	9a	-.56	.581	.89	.383	-2.33	.027
3 and 4	9b	.36	.720	-2.64	.015	3.75	.001
3 and 5	9b	.36	.720	-1.75	.093	1.65	.108
3 and 6	9a/9b	-.38	.705	-1.56	.131	.58	.566
4 and 5	NA	-.04	.971	1.23	.228	-2.22	.041
4 and 6	9a	-.74	.463	1.31	.200	-3.83	.001
5 and 6	9a	-.78	.439	.12	.907	-1.23	.229

Figure 13 presents a plot of cell mean for the STRAT x PRODFAM interaction on recall of stated new information at both the PRODUCT=LANIER and PRODUCT=FSAA levels. At the PRODUCT=LANIER level, the results were quite different. The highest mean NEWINFO recall level was exhibited by subjects in Cell 4 -- the LF-SS combination (11.7647%). The other combinations' scores in descending order were 10.00% for subjects in the LF-IS condition (Cell 2), 6.6406% for those in the HF-DS condition (Cell 5), 6.250% for those in the LF-DS condition (Cell 6), and 1.9612% for those in the HF-SS condition (Cell 3). The lowest NEWINFO recall (1.1907%) was reported by subjects in the HF-IS condition (Cell 1), and it was also significantly lower ($p < .05$) than values reported by all other treatment combinations except the HF-SS combination ($p < .671$).

At the PRODUCT=FSAA partitioned level, the highest mean NEWINFO recall was exhibited by subjects in Cell 1 -- the high-familiarity/IS condition (10.6667%). The other combinations's mean scores were 10.5253% for the HF-SS combination (Cell 3), 8.4559% for the LF-DS combination (Cell 6), 4.7059% for the HF-DS combination (Cell 5), 2.2227% for the LF-IS combination (Cell 2), and 0.0% for the LF-SS combination (Cell 4). The 0.0% reported by the low-familiarity exposed to SS commercials was significantly lower than scores reported by subjects in any other combination ($p < .05$), with the exception of that reported by those in the LF-SS combination. The only other significant differences shown were in comparisons between the HF-IS and LF-IS combinations ($t = 2.23$; $p < .031$), the HF-SS and LF-IS ($t = -2.60$; $p < .015$), the LF-IS and LF-DS combinations ($t = -2.33$; $p < .027$).

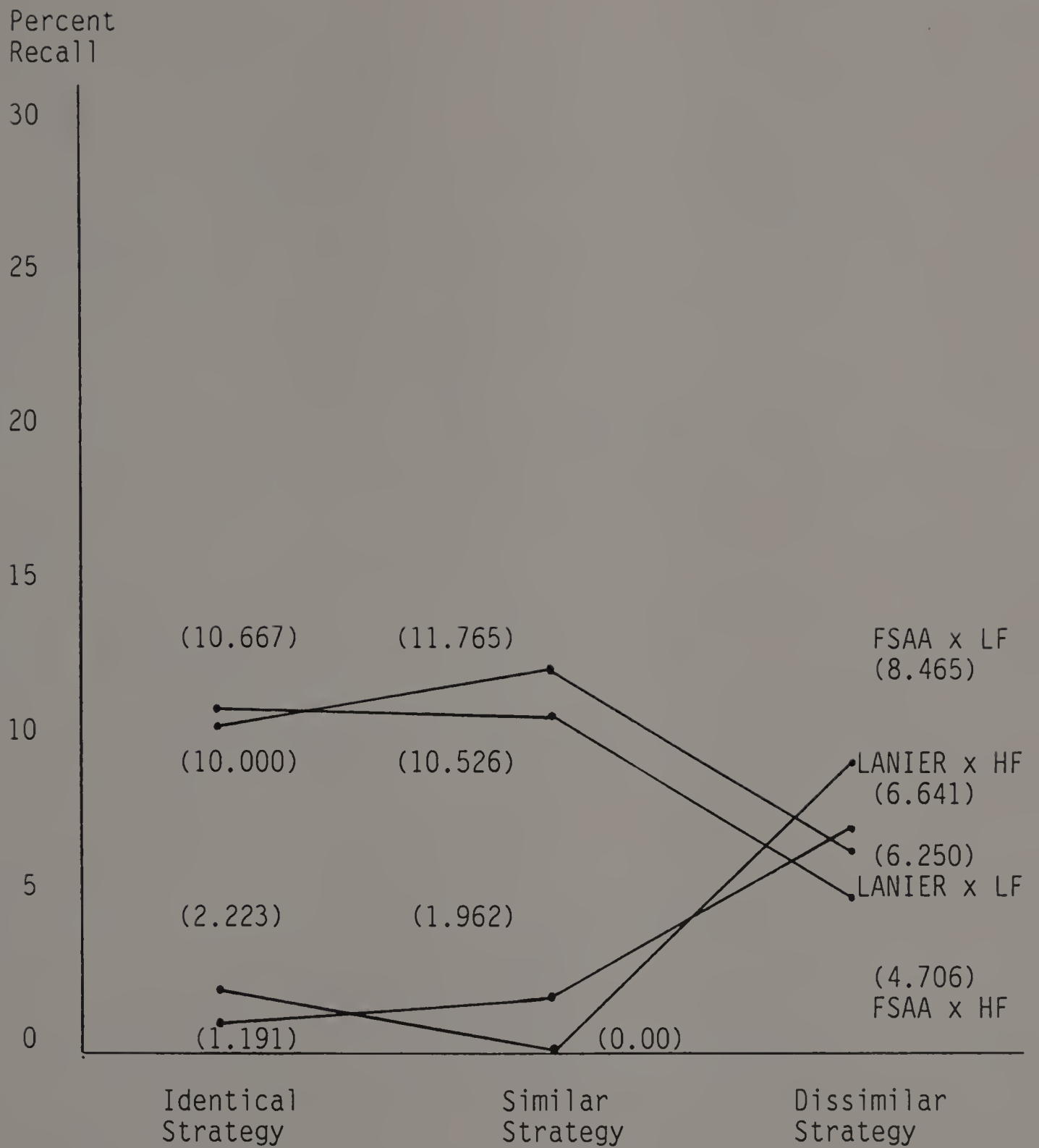


Figure 13: Plot of Cell Means for Recall of Stated New Information by Campaign-composition Strategy, Product Familiarity and Product Type

Since high-familiarity subjects exposed to DS commercials did not show significantly higher recall of stated new information than subjects in the other treatment combinations at the combined or partitioned levels of analysis, Hypothesis (H9a) was refuted. Hypothesis (H9b) was also refuted at the combined level and at the PRODUCT=FSAA level. High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials did not report significantly lower NEWINFO recall than subjects in the other treatment combinations at either of these levels. However, Hypothesis (H9b) was supported at the PRODUCT=LANIER level. High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials did show significantly lower NEWINFO recall than subjects in all other treatment combinations, and the differences were statistically significant. And Hypothesis (H9c) was supported at all three levels of analysis. High-familiarity subjects exposed to IS commercials and high-familiarity subjects exposed to SS commercials did not show any significant difference in recall of stated new information at the combined or any of the partitioned levels.

In the discussion following Hypothesis 3 it was explained that IS and SS subjects might have treated the new information in their commercials as major interruptions rather than minor variations. This notion was believed to have contributed to their recalling as much stated new information presented as DS subjects did. It appears that the same logic might apply in explaining the findings pertaining to Hypothesis 9. IS and SS subjects might have been taken out of scripted processing of their stimuli, and had noticed the new information was noted with as much attention as scripted information.

Concurrently, it might be argued that high-familiarity subjects' objective familiarity might not be treated as experience in dealing with variations to scripted information as had been earlier presumed. The objective product familiarity expected of high-familiarity exposed to IS or SS commercials might not have contributed sufficiently as experience in variations to have helped these subjects develop "prescriptions" for the new information or interferences. Hence, although these subjects did develop and rely on scripts for processing later commercials, they noticed the stated new information as readily as other subjects did. The data showed that this was particularly true when they were less interested in the stimulus product.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Summary

Past research examining the impact of the identical and similar advertising campaign-composition strategies have characterized these strategies' differential effects on recall primarily in terms of repetition and wearout. To this researcher's knowledge, no study, especially not in the advertising context, has examined whether the difference between these strategies is attributable to the presence or absence of scripting during the processing of marketer-controlled advertising communications. Hence, a thesis was advanced in this dissertation postulating that scripting was a major explanatory factor accountable for the identical-ad and similar-ad strategies' varying effectiveness. Furthermore, subjects exposed to them would report different recall of stated script information, intruded script information, and stated new information than subjects exposed to a strategy such as the dissimilar strategy, which is not expected to lend itself to script development.

Multivariate and univariate analyses showed that campaign-composition strategy did have an overall effect on recall of stated script information, intruded script information and stated new information, when they were considered jointly. Although not all of the results were as the hypotheses had predicted, they suggested that the differential effects may be related to the presence or absence of scripts developed after viewing a series of similar or identical commercials. Specifically, subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials

exhibited higher recall of stated script information and lower recall of stated new information than subjects exposed to DS commercials did, although the differences were not statistically significant.

Concurrently, IS and SS subjects reported lower rather than higher recall of intruded script information than their DS counterparts did.

The second thesis of this dissertation postulated that a subject's degree of familiarity with a product would differentially affect information processing, and that in any given setting this difference may moderate the effects of scripts on recall. The effect of product familiarity and its interaction with the campaign-composition strategy factor was analyzed by creating a high-familiarity and a low-familiarity conditions within experimental subjects. The empirical findings led to the conclusion that product familiarity was capable of facilitating recall of stated new information, but not recall of stated script information or intruded script information.

This study was able to substantiate some but not all of the interactions hypothesized between the campaign-composition strategy and the product familiarity factors. The significance of an unexpected mediating factor -- product type, was noted. Based on the demonstrated effect of this factor, the importance of the product factor must not be ignored when the campaign-composition or product familiarity independent factor is employed. This signifies that whether the identical, similar or dissimilar campaign-composition strategy is more appropriate for a product may be dependent on the nature of the advertised product.

Discussion

Advertising Campaign-composition Strategy and Scripts

Evidence to support that the three advertising campaign-composition strategies have varying degree of scripting can be attained under three conditions. First, this author postulated that if repeated viewing of an identical commercial or a series of similar though not identical commercials would lead viewers to establish stereotypic presentations-scripts as a means to avoid mindful processing of subsequent exposures to that product's commercials, then subjects exposed to IS or SS commercials would report higher recall of stated information than subjects exposed to DS commercials would. Except for the designated differences in experimental manipulations, subjects in all three conditions of the campaign-composition strategy treatment received the same stimuli. Yet, those exposed to IS or SS commercials reported higher recall of stated script information than those exposed to dissimilar commercials did. Though the differences were not statistically significant, these findings are consistent with Abelson's (1981) suggestion that events in scripts differ in their centrality; and that if a sequence of actions calls up an underlying script from memory to assist in the processing of a stimulus, a subject will tend to recall explicitly stated script information with high frequency (Bower, Black and Turner 1979; Abelson 1977).

Second, it is important to know that the identification of new information as obstacles often depend upon having scripts available as point of reference. According to the script theory, new information contained in a subsequent commercial may be interpreted as obstacles

for the scripted processing of that commercial. Given that these variations had occurred with sufficient frequency, they might be learned along with the other constancies of the script. If subjects were relying on scripts to assist in their processing of their stimuli, they would be expected to exhibit less sensitivity to any minor, "reparable" variations in information presented in subsequent stimuli. If a commercial were not processed according to an underlying script, one might not recognize the new information as expected variation or minor interferences, but rather as simply novel messages and tend to learn them better (Sears and Freedman 1965; Grass and Wallace 1969). The fact that IS and SS subjects, who were expected to develop scripts and rely on them for processing, reported lower recall of stated new information than DS subjects may suggest that IS and SS subjects were relying on some underlying script and had viewed the new information as expected variation.

What could have provided a third form of support for the presence of scripting would be higher recall of intruded script information reported by IS and SS subjects. Bower, Black and Turner (1979) suggested that high-frequency stated script information which are not mentioned in a commercial may later attract false-positive recall because such information is implicitly aroused during the act of scripted processing. Unfortunately, not only did IS and SS subjects fail to meet this third condition by reporting higher recall of intruded script information, they actually reported lower INTRUDED recall than DS subjects. One reason for this disappointing finding can be traced to the fact that wearout might have set in earlier on for

subjects in the IS and SS conditions, inhibiting them to learn the products' messages well enough to be intruded into later recall. Although this explanation is contrary to predictions set forth in the hypotheses, it is consistent with prior findings on wearout. Grass and Wallace (1969) had demonstrated that wearout in attention due to identical repetition of the same commercial was significantly reduced when different commercial executions were used. Furthermore, Sears and Freedman (1965) had also found subjects to be more willing to change their attitudes when they expected a message to contain new information than when they expected a message to repeat previously received information. Hence, it is not surprising to find commercials in the dissimilar-ad strategy to be better able to withstand the negative effect of wearout.

Findings on the campaign-composition strategy factor also hint that with repetition, an audience may develop scripts and rely on them in the processing of subsequent commercials, be they identical repetitions of a single ad or a series of similar but not identical ads. In actuality, most product commercials will be communicated to their target audience more than just a few time. Consequently, subjects exposed to repetitions of a single commercial or a series of similar though not identical commercials are expected to be equally likely to develop and rely on scripts for processing their commercials. It is logical to predict that all ads, identical or similar, will eventually suffer the same fate of inattention. This means that details in these stimuli may no longer be attend to, and stand no chance of being yielded to.

Subjects exposed to IS and SS commercials did not report significantly different recall of stated script information, intruded script information or stated new information. These reports of no difference have brought forth the vulnerability of using similar but not identical ads as a means for preventing inattention. Perhaps, the similar-ad strategy should really be viewed as a delaying mechanism rather than a cure for inattention. Given the ever increasing high cost of producing a television commercial, advertisers might want to reconsider using just one ad rather than employing a series of similar ads.

An intriguing follow-up research idea would be to investigate whether wearout will set in sooner in similar commercials than in dissimilar commercials. The advertising industry seems to be cognizant of this particular problem. For example, the Miller Lite campaign cited earlier has been replaced by one featuring similar ads but with dramatically different variation across executions. The campaign employs comedian Joe Piscapo in a variety of roles, impersonating a Rap band member to a Bruce Lee look-alike Kung Fu master. The actor in this case remains the same, the barroom context remains the same, the selling pitches are the same, but the executions are vastly dissimilar.

Another innovative approach to prevent wearout from setting in too early on, as exemplified by the advertising campaign for Bud Light, is to create a large number of varied execution while staying within the guidelines of the similar-ad strategy. The ads in this campaign follow the same setting, the same sequence of events showing a customer asking for something other than a Bud Light and is given a lit object instead.

The selling pitches are the same across all variations. But there are literally tens of these varied executions. Hence, the possibility of wearout due to inattention is minimized. Interestingly, one might wonder when this method may begin to resemble less of the similar-ad strategy and more of the "album approach" Larry Light (Danzig 1987) had talked about, which is more comparable to the dissimilar-ad strategy presented in this dissertation.

Product Familiarity

Considerable evidence indicates that familiarity with a product can indeed enhance consumers' attention towards product messages (Marks and Olson 1981), comprehension and recall of product messages (Johnson and Russo 1981), ability to make better decisions (Alba 1983) and search efficiency (Bucks 1985). Results from the multivariate analysis of variance have failed to confirm these earlier findings (Russo 1981) that subjects' mean number of statements recalled increased with familiarity. Specifically, although results in this empirical study seemed to have supported the "enrichment hypothesis," and subjects did report higher recall of stated script information for a product with which they were familiar than for one with which they were unfamiliar, the differences were not significant.

Furthermore, this experiment has generated results which exemplify both views on the relationship between product familiarity and recall of new information. On the one hand, some of the subjects reported lower stated new information on a product with which they were familiar than on one with which they were unfamiliar. It would appear that their responses had followed the "inverted U shape" relationship (Bettman and

Park 1980; Hempel 1969; and Johnson and Russo 1981). These subjects did not need to acquire new information on a product with which they were familiar although they could understand the information just as readily. Thus, the information was not remembered as well as the new information for an unfamiliar product was.

On the other hand, some of the subjects reported higher recall of new information for a product with which they were familiar than for one with which they were unfamiliar. It appears that these subjects were better able to identify important attributes of a product with which they were familiar. Hence they could selectively attend to those attributes, including the new product information which they considered relevant to the processing of the commercials. Those subjects who were unfamiliar with a product did not have the necessary knowledge to distinguish among product attributes, their attention was captured by salient perceptual features instead.

Finally, the fact that high-familiarity and low-familiarity subjects did not exhibit any significant differences in their recall of intruded script information further reflects that intrusion of previously-learned information to fill-gaps while processing commercials is a property characteristic of the effects of scripting. And product familiarity alone is not expected to lead to the formation of scripts.

Limitations

One of this study's limitations stems from the fact that the stimulus commercials used in this research are not representative of conventional advertising communications. The video portion of each

stimulus commercials consisted of only one still billboard for that test product. And the same billboard was used for all of the product's commercials. In retrospect, it may be argued that the overall appearances of the stimuli were closer to that of a radio rather than a television commercial. Given the fact that radio is well-known for its passive nature, it is possible that subjects' attention levels might have been artificially dampened. In other words, the primarily audio-only nature of the stimuli might have inhibited them from imparting maximum differences across treatment condition, thus contributed to the large number of nonsignificant findings.

Another limitation involves the way students were exposed to the treatment conditions. All commercials sequences were shown to students in one sitting, separated only by short program materials. There might not have been enough time allowed for the scripts to be completely formed. As an afterthought, it seems more desirable to expose subjects to the stimulus commercials over an extended number of sittings which may or may not be consecutive. This change should allow a better opportunity for scripts to develop. The number of exposures may also be varied and incorporated into the study as a factor.

The nature of the dependent measures might have also affected the results of this research. Although day-after recall has been and will remain the most widely proof of advertising effectiveness (Honomichl 1981), the drawbacks of using this stringent form of unaided recall should not be overlooked. Recent work by Singh and Rothschild (1983) suggests that recall may be too difficult a test for low-involvement products. Given the low product interest scores, it is suspected that

the two stimulus products might have been prime examples of when recall test should not be used.

Implications for Future Research

On a general note, this research has demonstrated the need to devote more empirical attention to the application of scripting to advertising campaign-composition planning. Though scripts have been recognized as an important information-processing issue, it remains the case that much of what we know regarding consumer decision making is based on research in a psychological or learning-theory context. As is evident from the present results, existing literature on scripts may not be directly extended to the field of advertising. In particular, the present study demonstrated that in addition to the issue of whether consumers develop scripts on stereotypic commercials and rely on them to assist in later processing of these ads, certain germane questions remain unanswered. Following is a list of salient issues which must be addressed before mindful inclusion of scripting should become part of a creative strategy.

1. How effective is scripting for commercials with different advertising appeals?
2. How effective is scripting for commercials appearing in different types of media?
3. Does scripting differ in effectiveness for commercials of different lengths?

On Advertising Appeals

Zielske (1982) has argued that recall tests are biased against emotional messages in favor of informational ones; that it may be easier to recall information than a feeling. Under these assumptions,

one area for future research would be to examine whether the effects of scripting is compromised by the nature of the information contained in an ad. According to the script theory, scripts are conceptual representations of stereotyped "events," and that scripts are activated when one can expect these "events" to occur in an anticipated sequence (Schank and Abelson 1977). A script merely allows a person to process stereotyped information in a less rigorous, less anxious manner. The script theory has also provided that people may often respond emotionally by expressing frustration, sadness or disapproval with the events or outcome of the events in a script. Nevertheless, unless and until such emotions have been encountered often enough that they constitute anticipated reaction in the script, this author argues that they will remain as emotional reactions on the surface memory and will fade away rather rapidly after exposure. Except for experiences such as the pain associated with the "needle insertion" during a blood test or the sadness associated with "attending a friend's funeral," most instantaneous emotional reactions will not become salient events in a script. Commercials which strive mostly on their emotional appeals like those romantic life-style ads favored by bottlers of carbonated beverages and manufacturers of perfumes may be poor candidates for the similar-ad strategy. Obviously, there is no hard data to support or refute this hypothesis. Yet, it certainly presents a fertile area for future research.

On Media Types

This dissertation has reported that consumers have been found to be capable of developing and relying on scripts to assist in their

processing of television commercial messages. Since television is viewed as a passive medium, it may be argued that scripting can even lead to more fruitful results when applied in a more active media type such as print. This author would argue against this proposition based on two premises. First, it must be recognized that television is unique in its ability for both audio and visual messages. This capability may be vital for the articulation of stereotypic events, particularly in slice-of-life type commercials. Imagine the script which may be developed after repeated exposure to the task of "washing dishes after dinner." The routine can be vividly captured in a television commercial with each salient event clearly and separately presented. Yet the same ad can only be portrayed in a picture or at best a series of pictures accompanied by a body copy if it appears in print. The development of a script from such a picture is less certain because it will depend largely on the audience's ability to think in abstract.

Second, although print ads are more active, they do have the drawback of requiring a greater degree of involvement from its readers. Few print ads can claim to be powerful enough that they can sell solely on their illustrations. Hence, even the more abstract thinkers may need to read at least some part of the body copy before they can generate a complete representation of the script hinted in the ad. This was actually one of this study's limitations for the final experiment had employed a still picture rather than a motion one to accompany the audio presentations in the stimulus commercials. It is doubtful that the entire list of events salient to a product's usage can be

adequately conveyed in a print ad, unless it involves a mundane task that leaves little to imagination. Perhaps, only then shall we consider applying the similar-ad strategy when planning print advertising.

On Commercial Length

In view of the ever-increasing cost of television advertising, advertisers have long since reduced their commercials' lengths from 60-seconds to 30-seconds. There is a movement for an extension of that decision towards using more 15-seconds and 20-seconds commercials (Berkman and Gilson 1987). At this time, these are mostly "split-15s" and "split-20s": 30-seconds or 60-seconds slots sold to one corporation that uses each to advertise two or more different products. But more stations are beginning to offer free-standing 15-seconds and 20-seconds slot. Intuitively, the similar-ad strategy would seem to lend itself very appropriately to these shorter ads. If viewers could, for a moment, be expected to develop scripts towards the ads they process, the presence of a script will allow the advertiser to enjoy the same desired effects by relying on the viewers to "fill-in" the gap on nonsalient events without actually taking the precious time to explain them in the commercial. The question is one of whether viewers can initially develop scripts on these reduced-length commercials which may not carry every detail necessary for the development of a complete script upon which they are expected to refer at a later point.

One interesting approach would be to initially employ repeated exposure of full-length 30-seconds or 60-seconds commercials to induce the development of scripts upon which consumers would draw to assist

them in processing the product's reduced-length 15-seconds or 20-seconds commercials. In fact, a casual survey of television commercials seem to confirm the feasibility of this approach. Recent television advertising campaigns for Pepsi Cola featuring Michael J. Fox seem to be following this "60-seconds then 15-seconds or 20-seconds" modified similar-ad strategy by first showing full-length versions of these ads before switching to the reduced-length ones. If viewers can be motivated to develop and rely on some script regarding these Pepsi campaigns, any non-product messages and events may be expected to find their way into the complete mental picture as "intruded script information." Perhaps more scientific research would legitimize and improve the acceptance of this modified similar-ad strategy.

Whether the results found in this research will be applicable for advertising practitioners is undeterminable until more is learnt about the questions raised in this section. But the evidence is clear that development of scripts, and reliance on scripts during information processing will change the outlook for advertising research.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN PRODUCT-KNOWLEDGE
SCALE DEVELOPMENT SURVEY

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER TO EACH QUESTION

- | | | | |
|----|---|-----|----|
| 1. | Do you presently own a dictating machine? | YES | NO |
| 2. | Have you ever owned a dictating machine? | YES | NO |
| 3. | Have you ever purchased a dictating machine for personal use? | YES | NO |
| 4. | Have you ever purchased a dictating machine for a gift? | YES | NO |
| 5. | Have you ever used a dictating machine before? | YES | NO |
| 6. | Have you ever searched for information on a dictating machine before? | YES | NO |
| 7. | Have you ever seen a dictating machine before? | YES | NO |
| 8. | Have you ever used a cassette tape recorder before? | YES | NO |

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN THE ACTUAL
PRODUCT-SELECTION PRETEST

SET A

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER TO EACH QUESTION

- | | | | |
|----|---|-----|----|
| 1. | Do you use frozen dinners regularly? | YES | NO |
| 2. | Have you ever purchased frozen dinners for others? | YES | NO |
| 3. | Have you ever searched for information on frozen dinners? | YES | NO |
| 4. | Have you ever purchased frozen dinners for personal use? | YES | NO |
| 5. | Have you ever used frozen food before? | YES | NO |
| 6. | Have you ever seen a frozen dinner before? | YES | NO |
-

- | | | | |
|----|---|-----|----|
| 1. | Are you presently signed up for a cruise? | YES | NO |
| 2. | Have you ever received a cruise as a gift? | YES | NO |
| 3. | Have you even been on a cruise before? | YES | NO |
| 4. | Have you ever searched for information for a cruise before? | YES | NO |
| 5. | Have you ever seen a boat before? | YES | NO |
| 6. | Have you ever heard of a cruise before? | YES | NO |

(continued)

1.	Have you ever searched for information on anti-perspirants?	YES	NO
2.	Have you ever purchased anti-perspirants for others?	YES	NO
3.	Do you use anti-perspirants regularly?	YES	NO
4.	Have you ever purchased anti-perspirants for personal use?	YES	NO
5.	Have you ever used anti-perspirants before?	YES	NO
6.	Have you ever seen anti-perspirants before?	YES	NO

1.	Do you drink wines regularly?	YES	NO
2.	Have you ever searched for information on wines before?	YES	NO
3.	Have you ever purchased wines for personal use?	YES	NO
4.	Have you ever used wines before?	YES	NO
5.	Have you ever seen a bottle of wine before?	YES	NO
6.	Have you ever drunk beer before?	YES	NO

SET B

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER TO EACH QUESTION

- | | | | |
|----|--|-----|----|
| 1. | Do you presently own a computer modem? | YES | NO |
| 2. | Have you ever owned a computer modem before? | YES | NO |
| 3. | Have you ever purchased a computer modem for personal use? | YES | NO |
| 4. | Have you ever searched for information on a computer modem before? | YES | NO |
| 5. | Have you ever seen a computer modem before? | YES | NO |
| 6. | Have you ever used an office intercom before? | YES | NO |
-

- | | | | |
|----|--|-----|----|
| 1. | Are you currently a member of any Save The Whale organization? | YES | NO |
| 2. | Have you ever been a member of any Save The Whale organization? | YES | NO |
| 3. | Have you ever searched for information on Save The Whale membership? | YES | NO |
| 4. | Have you ever received information for Save The Whale membership? | YES | NO |
| 5. | Have you ever heard of the Save The Whale movement before today? | YES | NO |
| 6. | Are you associated with any environmental group? | YES | NO |

(continued)

1.	Do you use carbonated beverages regularly?	YES	NO
2.	Have you ever purchased any carbonated beverages for personal use?	YES	NO
3.	Have you ever purchased any carbonated beverages for others?	YES	NO
4.	Have you ever used carbonated beverages before?	YES	NO
5.	Have you ever seen carbonated beverages before?	YES	NO
6.	Have you ever used canned drinks before?	YES	NO

1.	Do you use cold breakfast cereals regularly?	YES	NO
2.	Have you ever purchased cold breakfast cereals for others?	YES	NO
3.	Have you ever purchased cold breakfast cereals before?	YES	NO
4.	Have you ever used cold breakfast cereals before?	YES	NO
5.	Have you ever seen cold breakfast cereals before?	YES	NO
6.	Have you ever used prepared-foods before?	YES	NO

SET C

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER TO EACH QUESTION

- | | | | |
|----|--|-----|----|
| 1. | Do you use mineral waters regularly? | YES | NO |
| 2. | Have you ever purchased mineral waters for others? | YES | NO |
| 3. | Have you ever purchased mineral waters for personal use? | YES | NO |
| 4. | Have you ever used mineral waters before? | YES | NO |
| 5. | Have you ever seen a bottle of mineral water before? | YES | NO |
| 6. | Have you ever used bottled waters before? | YES | NO |
-

- | | | | |
|----|--|-----|----|
| 1. | Are you currently a member of any family solidarity organization? | YES | NO |
| 2. | Have you been a member of any family solidarity organization? | YES | NO |
| 3. | Have you ever attended a family solidarity organization meeting? | YES | NO |
| 4. | Have you ever received any information for family solidarity membership? | YES | NO |
| 5. | Have you ever heard of the family solidarity movement before today? | YES | NO |
| 6. | Are you associated with any social movement organization? | YES | NO |

(continued)

- | | | | |
|----|---|-----|----|
| 1. | Do you presently own a dictating machine? | YES | NO |
| 2. | Have you ever owned a dictating machine before? | YES | NO |
| 3. | Have you ever purchased a dictating machine for personal use? | YES | NO |
| 4. | Have you ever purchased a dictating machine for a gift? | YES | NO |
| 5. | Have you ever searched for information on a dictating machine before? | YES | NO |
| 6. | Have you ever used a cassette tape recorder before? | YES | NO |
-

- | | | | |
|----|--|-----|----|
| 1. | Do you presently own a personal computer? | YES | NO |
| 2. | Have you ever owned a personal computer before? | YES | NO |
| 3. | Have you ever purchased a personal computer for personal use? | YES | NO |
| 4. | Have you ever purchased a personal computer for a gift? | YES | NO |
| 5. | Have you ever searched for information on personal computers before? | YES | NO |
| 6. | Have you ever seen a personal computer before? | YES | NO |

APPENDIX C
QUESTIONNAIRE BOOKLET USED IN FINAL EXPERIMENT

When an advertiser undertakes to present a radio or television program alone or with other advertisers, it is called sponsorship. The key issue in program sponsorship hinges on selecting the program whose content creates an appropriate environment for the company's messages and best reflects the product's personality. This two-part study is designed to obtain your views concerning your perception of a specific program's appropriateness for three advertisers' products.

On this part of the study, you will be listening to a two-segment pre-recorded television program which also contains the three advertisers' commercials in each commercial break. Please pay close attention to the content of the program and the advertisers' commercials. Later, you will have a chance to evaluate how appropriate the program is for each advertiser's product, and provide us with your opinions on some specific questions.

One thing we should like you to remember is that different people judge things in different ways. This means that there are no right or wrong answers. Two people may hold different opinions on how appropriate the program is for the products under study. We are interested in finding out how you as an individual would evaluate the program's appropriateness.

Tomorrow, we will telephone you to ask some questions about the program and the commercials you have heard today. That will complete the second part to this study. Please write down your name, phone number and best time to call in the space provided.

Your Name _____

Phone No. _____

Best Time to Call _____

You may proceed to the next page.

On this page and Page 3 you will find questions expressing different degrees of interest about the three advertisers' products.

Please ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS. The completeness of each section is vital to the study. We are interested in YOUR OPINIONS. Since we are interested in your opinions, there are NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS.

Please indicate for each statement HOW MUCH YOU AGREE with it by using the "AGREE," "DISAGREE" scale provided. Circle your answer.

Regarding
GASOLINE

	<u>Agree</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Agree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Neither</u> <u>Agree nor</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>Strongly</u>
1. My interest in gasoline, compared to that in carbonated beverages, is high.	5	4	3	2	1
2. My interest in gasoline, compared to that in anti-perspirants, is high.	5	4	3	2	1
3. My interest in gasoline, compared to that in frozen dinners, is high.	5	4	3	2	1
4. My interest in gasoline, compared to that in wines, is high.	5	4	3	2	1

Regarding the FAMILY
SOLIDARITY MOVEMENT

1. My interest in the family solidarity movement, compared to that in carbonated beverages, is high.	5	4	3	2	1
2. My interest in the family solidarity movement, compared to that in anti-perspirants, is high.	5	4	3	2	1

(continued)

Regarding the Family
Solidarity Movement

	<u>Agree Strongly</u>	<u>Agree But Not Strongly</u>	<u>Neither Agree nor Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree But Not Strongly</u>	<u>Disagree Strongly</u>
3. My interest in the family solidarity movement, compared to that in frozen dinners, is high.	5	4	3	2	1
4. My interest in the family solidarity movement, compared to that in wines, is high.	5	4	3	2	1

Regarding
DICTATING MACHINES

1. My interest in dictating machines, compared to that in carbonated beverages, is high.	5	4	3	2	1
2. My interest in dictating machines, compared to that in anti-perspirants, is high.	5	4	3	2	1
3. My interest in dictating machines, compared to that in frozen dinners, is high.	5	4	3	2	1
4. My interest in dictating machines, compared to that in wines, is high.	5	4	3	2	1

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

On this page and Page 5 you will find questions expressing different degrees of prior knowledge about the three advertisers' products.

Please circle YES if you agree with the statement or NO if you do not agree with the statement.

- | | | |
|---|-----|----|
| 1. Do you regularly purchase gasoline from MARATHON OIL stations? | YES | NO |
| 2. Have you ever purchased gasoline from a Marathon Oil station for your own car? | YES | NO |
| 3. Have you ever purchased gasoline from a Marathon Oil station for others' cars? | YES | NO |
| 4. Have you ever seen a Marathon Oil gas station? | YES | NO |
| 5. Have you ever heard of the brand Marathon Oil before today? | YES | NO |
| If YES, where? _____ | | |
| 6. Do you purchase gasoline regularly? | YES | NO |

- | | | |
|---|-----|----|
| 1. Are you currently a member of the FAMILY SOLIDARITY ALLIANCE OF AMERICA (FSAA) organization? | YES | NO |
| 2. Have you ever been a member of the FSAA? | YES | NO |
| 3. Have you ever attended a FSAA meeting? | YES | NO |
| 4. Have you ever searched for information on FSAA membership before? | YES | NO |
| 5. Have you ever received information for FSAA membership? | YES | NO |
| 6. Are you acquainted with any FSAA members? | YES | NO |
| 7. Have you ever heard of the FAMILY SOLIDARITY ALLIANCE OF AMERICA organization before today? | YES | NO |
| If YES, where? _____ | | |

(continued)

- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| 8. Have you heard of the family solidarity movement before today? | YES | NO |
| 9. Have you ever been a member of a family solidarity organization? | YES | NO |
| 10. Have you ever attended any family solidarity movement meetings before? | YES | NO |
-

- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| 1. Do you presently own a Lanier Dictating Machine? | YES | NO |
| 2. Have you owned a Lanier Dictating Machine before? | YES | NO |
| 3. Have you ever heard of Lanier Business Products before today? | YES | NO |

If YES, where? _____

- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| 4. Have you ever purchased a dictating machine for personal use? | YES | NO |
| 5. Have you ever purchased a dictating machine for a gift? | YES | NO |
| 6. Have you ever searched for information on dictating machines? | YES | NO |
| 7. Have you ever used a dictating machine? | YES | NO |
| 8. Have you ever seen a dictating machine? | YES | NO |
| 9. Have you used a regular cassette tape recorder before? | YES | NO |

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

It is our belief that program-content appropriateness is especially important in cases when substantial financial commitments are involved. Lanier Business Products is the principal sponsor of the television program you are about to see. The other advertisers are co-sponsors. Thus, we feel that some background information about the dictating machine industry will help you in your evaluation. Please study the following background description carefully.

BACKGROUND

Dictating equipment is usually classified according to functional categories depending on where dictation is done, and the volume of work. Portables are lightweight and small, convenient to carry and easy to use, and cost from \$200 to \$490. Desktop machines are stationary, and are usually arranged in a one-to-one, dictator-to-secretary set-up. Prices on desktop models vary from \$250 to \$790. Both types of machines use mini or micro cassettes. The industry's marketing philosophy has been to lock customers into a particular recording medium. That is, Brand A equipment would only be compatible with other Brand A equipment and accessories.

In early 1982, the industry was turned upside down by the introduction of the first non-proprietary dictating medium which uses a standard tape cassette. Because standard tape cassettes are used, the machine is able to give out clearer, hi-fidelity reproduction than machines that use mini or micro cassettes. The sound quality matches that of music tapes. And that's very important to dictators. The distortion in mini or micro cassettes causes secretaries to make mistakes.

Standard tape cassettes are also faster to load and longer-lasting. Studies have shown that a person can load a standard tape cassette with only one hand in just three seconds. And they offer three times more dictating time on each side than mini or micro cassettes.

While dictating machines which use mini or micro cassettes are convenient, they are restricted to a dictator-to-secretary set-up. Yet standard tape cassette dictating machines are ideal for any volume dictation, from a one-to-one situation to a shared transcription center set-up. That is because standard tape cassettes offer better compatibility with transcriber machines. One-hour turnaround time is typical of this new dictating medium. And the dictating machine can be used to listen to other recordings, such as music or conference recordings.

(continued)

Standard tape cassette dictating machines are also more durable. Research was conducted among 100 business executives, 100 professionals such as attorneys, doctors and hospital administrators, and 100 secretaries to find out their opinions on this new medium's durability. When asked, "How durable do you think your standard tape cassette dictating machine is as compared to the mini or micro ones you owned before?" 85% of the respondents answered that their standard tape cassette dictating machines were more durable.

Right now, portables and desktop models using mini or micro cassettes are still more popular than standard tape cassette models. With mini or micro cassette ones averaging \$470, while standard cassette ones priced from \$190 to \$350 depending on the features, the trend will be toward this innovative recording medium. Experts predict that eventually all major dictating equipment manufacturers will switch to the standard tape cassette format.

STOP. PLEASE WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS.

It is our belief that program-content appropriateness is especially important in cases when substantial financial commitments are involved. The Family Solidarity Alliance of America organization is the principal sponsor of the television program you are about to hear. The other advertisers are co-sponsors. Thus, we feel that some background information about the history and mission of the FSAA will help you in your evaluation. Please study the following background description carefully.

BACKGROUND

In 1982, a team of education researchers published a paper in a leading journal noting a disturbing trend -- the rising number of high school students with absenteeism and substandard scholastic performance problems who also seemed ill-prepared for adulthood. The affected students also reflected characteristically family background of parents who were concerned wholly about their own times and affairs, and have relegated the responsibility of socialization after childhood to the school system. The publication also noted that this breakdown in the family structure cut across racial line, social class and geographic location. It was a nationwide epidemic.

The major contributing factor cited was the significant reduction in the amount of time parents spend with their children, a change directly attributable to major shifts in two values. First, it was noted that Americans have been more reluctant to delay personal gratifications. Traditionally, members of our society have been encouraged to sacrifice for a later reward. Yet, this value has undergone a profound change during the 1960s and 70s, and is most clearly reflected in the enormous growth of credit purchases for nonnecessities since the 1950s. Second, the focus of our society had shifted back towards adults. Traditionally, children have always played an important role in our society. But that had changed as evidenced in the results of a series of surveys on Americans' personal hopes. "Aspirations for children" was the second most frequent response in 1964. However, by 1981 it had dropped to a three-way tie for the seventh and was only mentioned by 8 percent of the respondents compared to 35 percent in 1964. The survey further concluded that: "Today's parents expect to make fewer sacrifices for their children than in the past, but they also demand less from their offspring in the form of future obligations."

In 1983, frustrated by the government's inability to provide assistance in dealing with this family problem, and prompted by the success of privately initiated social movements such as Mothers Against Drunk Driving (MADD), the family solidarity movement was born. Many local and regional organizations began to mushroom. They were organized by people from all walks of life, professions, and religions to advocate the importance of family solidarity.

(continued)

To date, there are at least 1,000 such organizations. These groups all share one common goal -- to heighten the public's awareness of the importance of parental involvement in socialization after childhood. Their message is very simple: "The socialization that children receive in childhood cannot be fully adequate as preparation for the tasks demanded of them in the different stages in the life cycle. Smooth transition between these stages can only be facilitated with the continuous support over time from the significant others with whom one is involved. Parents are the earliest groups of significant persons and remain on the scene through much of one's life. They may live on through one's middle years, and friendships may persist through much of the life span. Thus, it is vital that parents spend more time with their children."

STOP. PLEASE WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS.

This part of the questionnaire is designed to enable you to evaluate the appropriateness of the program's content and format for each advertiser's product. Please ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS on this page and Page 9. The completeness of each section is vital to the study.

Please indicate for each statement HOW MUCH YOU AGREE with it by using the "AGREE," "DISAGREE" scale provided. Circle your answer.

Regarding
LANIER DICTATING MACHINE

	<u>Agree</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Agree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Neither</u> <u>Agree nor</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>Strongly</u>
1. The subject of the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1
2. The format of the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1
3. The length (duration) of the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Overall, the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1

Regarding
MARATHON OIL COMPANY

1. The subject of the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1
2. The format of the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1

(continued)

Regarding
MARATHON OIL COMPANY

	<u>Agree</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Agree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Neither</u> <u>Agree nor</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>Strongly</u>
3. The length (duration) of the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Overall, the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1

Regarding FSAA -- THE FAMILY
SOLIDARITY ALLIANCE OF AMERICA

1. The subject of the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1
2. The format of the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1
3. The length (duration) of the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Overall, the program was very appropriate for this product.	5	4	3	2	1

STOP. PLEASE WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS.

On this part of the questionnaire you will find questions expressing different degrees of interest about the three advertisers' commercials. Please ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS. The completeness of each section is vital to the study.

Please indicate for each statement HOW MUCH YOU AGREE with it by using the "AGREE," "DISAGREE" scale provided. Circle your answer.

Regarding
LANIER DICTATING MACHINES

	<u>Agree</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Agree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Neither</u> <u>Agree nor</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>Strongly</u>
1. During the commercial breaks, I paid close attention to those Lanier Dictating Machine commercials.	5	4	3	2	1
2. During the commercial breaks, I was very motivated to listen to those Lanier Dictating Machine commercials.	5	4	3	2	1
3. There was a lot of information contained in those Lanier Dictating Machine commercials.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I enjoyed those Lanier Dictating Machine commercials very much.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Those Lanier Dictating Machine commercials were very easy to comprehend.	5	4	3	2	1
6. The contents of those Lanier Dictating Machine commercials were very predictable.	5	4	3	2	1
7. The formats of those Lanier Dictating Machine commercials were very predictable.	5	4	3	2	1

(continued)

Regarding
MARATHON OIL

	<u>Agree</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Agree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Neither</u> <u>Agree nor</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>But Not</u> <u>Strongly</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>Strongly</u>
1. During the commercial breaks, I paid close attention to those Marathon Oil commercials.	5	4	3	2	1
2. During the commercial breaks, I was very motivated to listen to those Lanier Marathon Oil commercials.	5	4	3	2	1
3. There was a lot of information contained in those Lanier Marathon Oil commercials.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I enjoyed those Marathon Oil commercials very much.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Those Marathon Oil commercials were very easy to comprehend.	5	4	3	2	1
6. The contents of those Marathon Oil commercials were very predictable.	5	4	3	2	1
7. The formats of those Marathon Oil commercials were very predictable.	5	4	3	2	1

(continued)

Regarding FSAA -- THE FAMILY
SOLIDARITY ALLIANCE OF AMERICA

	<u>Agree Strongly</u>	<u>Agree But Not Strongly</u>	<u>Neither Agree nor Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree But Not Strongly</u>	<u>Disagree Strongly</u>
1. During the commercial breaks, I paid close attention to those FSAA commercials.	5	4	3	2	1
2. During the commercial breaks, I was very motivated to listen to those FSAA commercials.	5	4	3	2	1
3. There was a lot of information contained in those FSAA commercials.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I enjoyed those FSAA commercials very much.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Those FSAA commercials were very easy to comprehend.	5	4	3	2	1
6. The contents of those FSAA commercials were very predictable.	5	4	3	2	1
7. The formats of those FSAA commercials were very predictable.	5	4	3	2	1

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.

The following statements are designed to enable us identify the specific product messages that have been most effective in capturing your attention. Please study each one carefully.

Circle YES if YOU BELIEVE YOU HAVE HEARD OR READ the information contained in that statement during this session. Circle NO if YOU DO NOT BELIEVE that the information has been mentioned anywhere during this session.

Please indicate to us HOW CERTAIN YOU ARE of your answer -- very certain, quite certain, somewhat certain or not certain, by circling a number on the corresponding scale.

Regarding
LANIER DICTATING MACHINE

				<u>Very</u> <u>Certain</u>	<u>Quite</u> <u>Certain</u>	<u>Somewhat</u> <u>Certain</u>	<u>Not</u> <u>Certain</u>
1. Dictating equipment is usually classified according to functional categories.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
2. Most dictating machines use liquid-crystal displays.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
3. Mini or micro cassette dictating machines are restricted to a dictator-to-secretary set-up.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
4. Dictating is 6 times faster than writing something down.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
5. Standard tape cassettes offer a full 30-minute dictating time on each side.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
6. Standard tape cassettes are faster to load.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
7. A person can load a standard tape cassette with only one hand in just 3 seconds.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	

(continued)

Regarding
LANIER DICTATING MACHINE

				<u>Very Certain</u>	<u>Quite Certain</u>	<u>Somewhat Certain</u>	<u>Not Certain</u>
8.	Standard tape cassette dictating machines use a two-track recording format.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
9.	Standard tape cassettes sound better.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
10.	Standard tape cassette dictating machines can be used to listen to other recordings.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
11.	Standard tape cassettes offer better compatibility with transcribing machines.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
12.	One-hour transcribing turnaround time is typical of the standard tape cassette medium.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
13.	Standard tape cassette dictating machines are easier to operate.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
14.	Executives and secretaries agree that standard tape cassette dictating machines are more durable.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
15.	Experts predict that all major dictating machine manufacturers will switch to this new format.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1

(continued)

Regarding
MARATHON OIL COMPANY

				<u>Very Certain</u>	<u>Quite Certain</u>	<u>Somewhat Certain</u>	<u>Not Certain</u>
1. Marathon oil dealers are just like you and me.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
2. We should use Marathon Oil gasoline regularly.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
3. Your next door neighbor may be a Marathon Oil dealer.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
4. Your Marathon Oil dealer probably have the same problems as yours and mine.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
5. Marathon Oil gasoline has high octane.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
6. Marathon Oil stations will be coming to northern California.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
7. Your Marathon Oil dealers' kids probably go to the same schools that your children go.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
8. In a small town, if people don't do things like volunteering to fight fire, these things don't get done.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
9. Marathon Oil Company urges us to volunteer as firefighters.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
10. Marathon Oil Company urges us to volunteer our services to the elderly.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	

(continued)

Regarding
MARATHON OIL COMPANY

				<u>Very</u> <u>Certain</u>	<u>Quite</u> <u>Certain</u>	<u>Somewhat</u> <u>Certain</u>	<u>Not</u> <u>Certain</u>
11. Marathon Oil company are people who believe in people.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	
12. We are urged to get to know our Marathon Oil dealers.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1	

Regarding FSAA -- THE FAMILY
SOLIDARITY ALLIANCE OF AMERICA

1. FSAA stands for Family Solidarity Alliance of America.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
2. FSAA is a government- sponsored organization.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
3. The family solidarity movement was born in 1981.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
4. The family solidarity movement was inspired by movements such as MADD - Mothers Against Drunk Driving.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
5. Some of us spend a lot of time away from home.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
6. Some parents have relegated the responsi- bility of socialization after childhood to the school system.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
7. Some of our children may be growing up without us.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1

(continued)

Regarding FSAA -- THE FAMILY
SOLIDARITY ALLIANCE OF AMERICA

				<u>Very</u> <u>Certain</u>	<u>Quite</u> <u>Certain</u>	<u>Somewhat</u> <u>Certain</u>	<u>Not</u> <u>Certain</u>
8.	Many high school students have become ill-prepared for adulthood.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
9.	One reason parents are spending less time with their children is because they expect to make fewer sacrifices for them.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
10.	If we want to have any influence in our children's lives, we'd better start now.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
11.	As children mature, they go through a sequence of stages in the life cycle.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
12.	Parents are the earliest group of significant persons with whom a child is involved and may remain on the scene through much of the child's life.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
13.	The FSAA urges us to spend more time with our children.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
14.	The commercials were sponsored by a local chapter of FSAA.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1
15.	FSAA will be sponsoring a regional fund-raising function.	YES	NO	4	3	2	1

THE END. THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN COPY IDEA-GENERATION PRETEST

Attached are twelve radio commercial scripts. They are marked "A" to "L." During this experiment you will be judging how similar or different these scripts are. We ask you to study each script carefully, then sort them into groups of like scripts. In the sorting process, you may apply any criteria you see fit, but be consistent. Please exercise caution to ensure that the scripts within each group are most like and that the scripts between the groups are most different. You must assign each script to one and only one group. But you may allot as many scripts to one group and divide the scripts into as many groups as you wish. You may not form more than five groups.

When the sort is completed, use the form in the back of this packet to record how similar or different you see these scripts to be. Record your allotment one group at a time. Copy the identification letter from the upper lefthand corner of each script in the group and copy it onto the form provided. Repeat the same procedure for each script in that group until all scripts in it have been documented. Repeat the same procedure for the other groups until all groups have been recorded.

One thing we would like you to remember is that different people judge things in different ways. This means that there are no right or wrong answers. Two stimuli that appear very similar to one person may appear to be quite different to another. Both results are important to us. We are interested in finding out how you as an individual compare these radio commercial scripts.

Thank you very much for your participation.

Stiller: Miss Sharkman. Sheilar, step into my office.

Meara: Not again, boss. I have my pride.

Stiller: It's part of your job.

Meara: Don't shove. I am tired of being a closet secretary.

Stiller: It's kind of cozy in here, if you don't mind the coats and hangers.

Meara: It's too dark to take shorthand. Why can't I take dictation in the office?

Stiller: Because I want you to take my dictation, not Herman Orlock's. Every time I need you, he's dictating the agenda for his coffee break.

Meara: Do you think it's easy being a secretary for two people. I'm torn. Everywhere I go, it's Sheila Sharkman, Sheila Sharkman.

Stiller: Hurry, your flashlight is getting dim. We need new batteries.

Meara: Lanier.

Stiller: Lanier. Can she see in the dark.

Meara: Lanier is dictating equipment. With a Lanier standard cassette dictating machine, you and Mr. Orlock can dictate whenever you want. Even when I'm busy. The Lanier standard cassette dictating machine is very simple to operate, and you get a full 30-minute of dictating time on each side. We'd all get more done.

Stiller: I'll call Lanier. Are you happy now?

Meara: I'm Happy. But I don't know about Orlock. He's been waiting for me under his desk since 10 o'clock.

Stiller: Weird guy.

ANNCR: Get more done with a Lanier dictating machine. In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

MAN: In 1945, Lanier entered the office equipment business as a representative of the Gray Manufacturing Company, and its then revolutionary Gray Audiograph.

Since then, our company has offered a broad line of office equipment, and is now the recognized leader in the industry.

This year we are proud to introduce the Lanier standard-cassette desk dictating machine. Lanier dictating machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why Lanier machines always give out quality reproduction. Your voice has exactly the same sound quality you hear on music tapes.

Find out why Lanier dictating machines have received such wide acceptance among business executives, professional people, and secretaries.

Experience the Lanier machine, the first standard-cassette dictating machine that has turned the industry upside down.

Or you can wait until other major manufacturers switch to standard cassettes.

Call us to arrange for a five-day free trial. One listen will be worth more than anything we can tell you.

Clerk: Welcome to Carl's dictaphone city, where the machines are state-of-the-art, and the tapes are...

Man: On the floor.

Clerk: They go right back in.

Man: I want to buy a dictating machine for a gift. Do you have Lanier standard-cassette dictating machines?

Clerk: No, we make our own machines.

Man: Well, I want to buy a Lanier Dictating Machine that uses standard cassettes.

Clerk: This is the best selling dictating machine we make. This machine records and doubles as an AM/FM radio.

Man: No. No. No. Lanier Dictating Machines use standard tape cassettes. And they are very simple to operate. All you do is push one button.

Clerk: No dictating machine has got this microdot tape. You just put one of these teeny-weenie cassettes in.

... (playback... some muffled recording)..

Clerk: It needs a new microdot cassette tape.

Man: But what about the sound quality? Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why Lanier machines always give out clear, hi-fidelity reproduction.

Clerk: Here's one you don't have to worry about sound quality. It's an electronic memo pad. You type in your dictation. It works just like an electric typewriter.

Man: Are those licorice-flavored dental floss?

Clerk: No. Replacement ribbons.

Man: Oh, I see.

ANNCR: For easy operation and quality reproduction, give Lanier a hearing. One listen will be worth more than anything we can tell you.

MAN: Talking is so much faster than writing.

So, when you dictate, you cut way down on the time you spend on paperwork. And that leaves you more time for the things that are really important to your career. You can get more accomplished both at the office and on the road.

Try a Lanier Dictating Machine, the best selling dictating machine in the world. It couldn't be easier. Just push one button, and you're ready to go.

Lanier dictating machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they always give out clear, quality reproduction. And Lanier cassettes are good for life. We guarantee that. One listen will be worth more than anything we can tell you.

Get a lot more done in a lot less time with a Lanier Dictating Machine. Find out why more executives are using Lanier.

In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines. Call us to arrange for a free trial.

ANNCR: Stiller and Meara for Lanier Dictating Equipment.

Meara: I have your secretarial application right here, Mr. Piltown.

Stiller: Call me Craig.

Meara: Well, sit down Craig.

Stiller: I am sitting.

Meara: Oh, of course you are. My, you're hugh.

Stiller: I played fullback for the Pennsylvania Anthracities.

Meara: How did you get into secretarial work?

Stiller: Well, I was a receptionist. Then one of the girls got pregnant so they moved me up.

Meara: Uhh.

Stiller: It's not easy being a secretary. I was the only one around that could handle those old-fashioned belted dictating machines. Boy, are they hard to load! You see, that's my specialty.

Meara: You won't be needing that Craig. We use Lanier Cassettes. You've heard of Lanier Cassettes?

Stiller: He played with the Texas Cowboys?

Meara: (Laughter)... No, Lanier makes cassette dictating equipment. Cassettes are easier to load and they sound better.

Stiller: No belts? Then you don't me.

Meara: Oh, yes, I need you. I need you, Craig.

Stiller: Hey, lady. You blew in my ear.

Meara: (Sigh)... It's lonely at the top.

Stiller: I'm not that kind of guy.

Meara: (Chuckle)... You'll learn... (laughter)

ANNCR: Put standard cassettes' speed and efficiency in your dictation. Give Lanier a hearing. We're in the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

ANNCR: Here's Stiller and Meara for Lanier Dictating Equipment.

Stiller: May I come in?

Meara: Who are you?

Stiller: I'm your husband.

Meara: Oh yeah, George. The guy who works late every night. I'm married to a missing person.

Stiller: I finally got caught up.

Meara: Say "Hi" to your son, Ronnie.

Stiller: How's my little cub scout?

Meara: He's in law school. He grew up.

Stiller: (Chuckle)... Stiller wearing that funny little hat, huh?

Meara: Listen, if you don't start coming home earlier, I'm gonna put us all up for adoption.

Stiller: I can't help it. I work as fast as I can.

Meara: We need Lanier.

Stiller: Who's Lanier? A marriage counselor?

Meara: Lanier is dictating equipment.

Stiller: I've never used dictating equipment.

Meara: Dictating is six times faster than writing. With Lanier's Action Line you'd be home at five instead of ten. And with a Pocket Secretary Portable, you could bring work home.

Stiller: I think Lanier can bring us back together.

Meara: Oh, terrific! Now you'll be more to Ronnie than just that strange little man in our wedding picture. I'm so happy.

Stiller: I'm happy too, Donna.

Meara: Donna? Who's Donna?

(continued)

SCRIPT F (continued)

Stiller: I don't know. I made it up.

Meara: Oh, George!

Stiller: Elaine? Phyllis? Give me a hint.

ANNCR: Get more done with Lanier Business Products.
In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

Stiller: Happy anniversary, Leona... (kiss... kiss)

Meara: I wish you were here, Leonard. Kissing over the phone is messy.

Stiller: Just because I am working late again doesn't mean we can't have a romantic evening together. You should see the office by candle light.

Meara: Can I open my present?

Stiller: Sure.

Meara: A second honeymoon in Rome. We can watch them build a pipeline. But it's only for one.

Stiller: I won't be able to get away. Too much paperwork but I'll write.

Meara: Leonard, if you had Lanier Dictating Equipment we could be more than penpals.

Stiller: Me, dictate?

Meara: It's six times faster than writing. With the Lanier Dictating Machine, you would be home a lot more.

Stiller: With Lanier we can answer the call of the Yukon together.

Meara: I'll make that second honeymoon for two.

Stiller: A toast to our new life.

Meara: ... (Clink) ... What's that?

Stiller: My champagne glass broke when I hit the telephone.

Meara: I know. You chipped my tooth.

ANNCR: Get more done with a Lanier dictating machine.
In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

MAN: Are you spending time just keeping up with the paperwork, when you could be thinking about getting ahead? Try dictating. Dictating is six times faster than writing. You can cut way down on the time you spend on paperwork.

With a Lanier Dictating Machine, you can be more productive. And you can bring work home.

Try a Lanier Dictating Machine, the best selling standard-cassette desk dictating machine in the world.

Lanier uses standard tape cassettes. That's why Lanier machines always give out clear, quality sound. Besides, cassettes are faster and they last longer. You can load a cassette with only one hand in just three seconds. And you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side.

Lanier cassettes are also good for life. We guarantee that.

But don't take our word for it. Give Lanier a hearing.

Try the best selling standard cassette dictating machine in the world.

To arrange for a five-day free trial, call (404) 321-0911 collect.

MAN: Hi, this is Louis Wigdor. I am an editor and owner of a publishing company. And the reason I use a Lanier Dictating Machine is a simple one.

You see, dictating is much faster than writing something down. It couldn't be easier. Just push one button like I did fifty words ago.

... (Tape rewinding ... repeat) ...

Hi, this is Louis Wigdor. I am an editor and owner of a publishing company. And the reason I use a Lanier Dictating Machine ...

Get a lot more done in a lot less time. Try a Lanier dictating Machine, the best selling standard-cassette desk dictating machine in the world.

Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they always give out clear, hi-fidelity reproduction. And Lanier cassettes are guaranteed for life.

ANNCR: Get a lot more done in a lot less time. Give Lanier a hearing.
In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

WOMAN: Hi, this is Yvonne Liander. You know me as a professional photographer. But I am a business woman too -- head of a photo equipment company. And when I am in the office, I stay ahead of my paperwork with a Lanier Dictating Machine.

I use Lanier because it offers one-button operation, and gives out hi-fidelity reproduction. Besides, Lanier uses standard tape cassettes.

You see, cassettes are faster and they last longer. You can load a cassette with only one hand in just three seconds. And you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side.

Lanier cassette dictating machines are also small enough to fit into a briefcase. You can get letters, memos, reports and instructions for your secretary done in the plane, in the car, or in a hotel room. So work doesn't stop when you're on the go.

ANNCR: Try the best selling standard-cassette desk dictating machine in the world.
To arrange for a five-day free trial, call Mark Hall collect at (404) 321-0911.

Stiller: Oh, Miss Boggasy, do you have a minute?

Meara: Frankie Booback. I haven't seen you since I got that promotion.

Stiller: Can I have a word with you?

Meara: Remember the old days? Do you still eat those hero sandwiches during your coffee break? You sure ate fast.

Stiller: Well, I ah ...

Meara: How about the morning you threw the paper clips into the fan and they had to close down the office?

Stiller: There's something I have to know. Why were you promoted over me?

Meara: I know how to get things done, Frankie. I use Lanier Dictating Equipment. While you talked into your hero sandwich, I talked into a Lanier standard-cassette dictating machine. I got letters out and you got heartburn.

Stiller: You always were faster.

Meara: Cassettes are faster and easier to load. My work was done before you could find a pen.

Stiller: Miss Boggasy, can a man still make it in business?

Meara: Yeah. If he has nice legs.

Stiller: I love your vest. How do you like smoking a pipe?

Meara: (Choking) ...

ANNCR: Get more done with a Lanier Dictating Machine.
In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines

WOMAN: Does work pile up at the office when you're travelling?

Do you forget good ideas from one day to the next?

It's hard enough for a woman to make it in the corporate world these days. So stop playing catch-up and start getting ahead with a Lanier Dictating Machine.

You can get letters, memos, reports and instructions for your secretary done in the plane, in the car, or in a hotel room. So work doesn't stop when you're on the go.

Lanier dictating machines are perfect. They are small enough to fit into a briefcase, and all you need to do is push one button. You can get ideas down as fast as you can get them.

Dictating is faster than writing things down, and clearer too. You don't have to figure out what your notes mean. And your secretary doesn't have to read your handwriting.

ANNCR: Start getting ahead of paperwork right now. Find out why more corporate women are ordering Lanier dictating machines. Call us collect to arrange for a five-day free trial.

Please use this form to record your script groupings. Locate the identification codes from the upper lefthand corner of the scripts in a group and copy the letters onto one of the columns below. Repeat the same procedure until all groups have been documented.

Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
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APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN GENERATION OF
EMPIRICAL SCRIPT NORMS

SET "A"

ANNCR: Larry and Stacy for Lanier Dictating Equipment.

Larry: Oh, Miss Boggasy, do you have a minute?

Stacy: Frankie Booback. I haven't seen you since I got that promotion.

Larry: Can I have a word with you?

Stacy: Remember the old days? Do you still eat those Hero sandwiches during your coffee break?

Larry: Well, I ah...

Stacy: You sure ate fast.

Larry: There's something I have to know. Why were you promoted over me?

Stacy: I know how to get things done, Frankie. I use Lanier Dictating Equipment. While you talked into your Hero sandwich, I talked into a Lanier Dictating Machine. Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they are faster to load, easier to operate, and they sound better.

Larry: You are always faster.

Stacy: With standard tape cassettes, you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side. And you can use the Lanier machine to listen to other conference recordings.

Larry: Miss Boggasy, can a man still make it in business?

Stacy: Yeah, if he has nice legs.

Larry: (choking)

ANNCR: Dictating is six times faster than writing.

Get more done with Lanier Business Products, the recognized leader.

In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

SET "A"

ANNCR: Larry and Stacy for Lanier Dictating Equipment.

Stacy: I have your promotion application right here, Tom.

Larry: I haven't seen you since you became vice president, Janice.

Stacy: Well, sit down, Tom.

Larry: I am sitting. My, you look great, Janice.

Stacy: Oh, I do aerobics everyday.

Larry: Can I have a word with you? Off the record, of course.

Stacy: Are you still carrying that legal pad everywhere?

Larry: There's something I have to know. Why were you promoted over me?

Stacy: I know how to get things done, Tom. I use Lanier Dictating Equipment. While you're scribbling between the lines, I talked into a Lanier Dictating Machine.

Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they are faster to load, easier to operate, and they sound better.

Larry: You are always faster.

Stacy: With standard tape cassettes, you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side. And you can use the Lanier machine to listen to other conference recordings.

Larry: Can a man still make it in business?

Stacy: Maybe.

Larry: Hey Janice, you blew in my ear.

Stacy: It's lonely at the top.

ANNCR: Dictating is six times faster than writing.

Get more done with Lanier Business Products, the recognized leader.

In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

SET "A"

ANNCR: Larry and Stacy for Lanier Dictating Equipment.

Stacy: Not again, Mr. Pitton. I have my pride.

Larry: You were my secretary once, weren't you Helen?

Stacy: Don't shove. I am tired of meeting in the closet.

Larry: It's kind of cozy in here, if you don't mind the coats and hangers.

Stacy: If I don't get back soon, Mrs. Orlock may get suspicious.

Larry: There's something I have to know. Why was she promoted over me?

Stacy: She knows how to get things done. While you were dictating to me, she talked into a Lanier Dictating Machine. Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they are faster to load, easier to operate, and they sound better.

Larry: Orlock is always faster.

Stacy: With standard tape cassettes, you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side. And you can use the Lanier machine to listen to other conference recordings.

Larry: Helen, can a man still make it in business?

Stacy: If his wife owns the business.

ANNCR: Dictating is six times faster than writing.

Get more done with Lanier Business Products, the recognized leader.

In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

SET "B"

MAN: Last month I noticed my oldest boy.
He seemed so much older.

I spend a lot of time away from home and boy, that was a shock. He's growing up without me.
I figured that if I were to have any influence in his life at all, I had better start now.

So I decided to set aside one day a week.
Each week I would take a different child and we would go do whatever they want to do.

Last Saturday Tommy and I went fishing.
I'm sure I must have been with him before.
But I remember that trip when he waited downstream with me in an extra big pair of waiting boots.
We found a spot when Tommy lifted his finger and said, "Shh, we don't want to scare the fish away."

Then I remember that fish, a five-pound rainbow trout.
And it was on the end of Tommy's line.
Boy, was I proud. I'll never forget that for as long as I live.

ANNCR: Time. Seems like we never have enough.
But we have all there is.
Give your children everything.
Give them your time.

A thought from your local chapter of FSAA - the Family Solidarity Alliance of America.

SET "B"

MAN: Last winter I noticed my oldest daughter.
She seemed so much older.

I spend a lot of time away from home and boy, that was a shock. She's growing up without me.
I figured that if I were to have any influence in her life at all, I had better start now.

So I decided to set aside one day a week.
Each week I would take a different child and we would go do whatever they want to do.

Last Sunday Sheila and I went cross-country skiing.
I am sure I must have been with her before.
But I remember that trip when she led me through a three-mile course. As she skied her way very surely along the trail, I had to work hard just to keep up with her.

Seeing her negotiate those turns and cut between those trees, boy, was I proud. I'll never forget that for as long as I live.

ANNCR: Time. Seems like we never have enough.
But we have all there is.
Give your children everything.
Give them your time.

A thought from your local chapter of FSAA -- the Family Solidarity Alliance of America.

SET "B"

MAN: Last summer I noticed my children.
They seemed so much older.

I spend a lot of time away from home and boy, that was a shock. They're growing up without me. I figured that if I were to have any influence in their lives at all, I had better start now.

So I decided to set aside one day a week. Each week I would take a different child and we would go do whatever they want to do.

Last weekend I took my family camping. When Jimmy, my youngest son, rushed into the tent around five and woke us up, everyone thought he was crazy, getting us up and outside that early.

Finally, I noticed why. Wow, what a sunrise. It was beautiful. And Jimmy came over and said, "I want to share that with all of you." Boy, was I proud. I'll never forget that for as long as I live.

ANNCR: Time. Seems like we never have enough.
But we have all there is.
Give your children everything.
Give them your time.

A thought from your local chapter of FSAA -- the Family Solidarity Alliance of America.

APPENDIX F
STIMULUS COPIES USED IN THE FINAL EXPERIMENT

LANIER -- "Hero Sandwiches" (LS1)

ANNCR: Larry and Stacy for Lanier Dictating Equipment.

Larry: Oh, Miss Boggasy, do you have a minute?

Stacy: Frankie Booback. I haven't seen you since I got that promotion.

Larry: Can I have a word with you?

Stacy: Remember the old days? Do you still eat those Hero sandwiches during your coffee break?

Larry: Well, I ah...

Stacy: You sure ate fast.

Larry: There's something I have to know. Why were you promoted over me?

Stacy: I know how to get things done, Frankie. I use Lanier Dictating Equipment. While you talked into your Hero sandwich, I talked into a Lanier Dictating Machine. Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they are faster to load, easier to operate, and they sound better.

Larry: You are always faster.

Stacy: With standard tape cassettes, you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side. And you can use the Lanier machine to listen to other conference recordings.

Larry: Miss Boggasy, can a man still make it in business?

Stacy: Yeah, if he has nice legs.

Larry: (choking)

ANNCR: Dictating is six times faster than writing.

Get more done with Lanier Business Products, the recognized leader.

In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

LANIER -- "Job Applicant" (LS2)

ANNCR: Larry and Stacy for Lanier Dictating Equipment.

Stacy: I have your promotion application right here, Tom.

Larry: I haven't seen you since you became vice president, Janice.

Stacy: Well, sit down, Tom.

Larry: I am sitting. My, you look great, Janice.

Stacy: Oh, I do aerobics everyday.

Larry: Can I have a word with you? Off the record, of course.

Stacy: Are you still carrying that legal pad everywhere?

Larry: There's something I have to know. Why were you promoted over me?

Stacy: I know how to get things done, Tom. I use Lanier Dictating Equipment. While you're scribbling between the lines, I talked into a Lanier Dictating Machine.

Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they are faster to load, easier to operate, and they sound better.

Larry: You are always faster.

Stacy: With standard tape cassettes, you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side. And you can use the Lanier machine to listen to other conference recordings.

Larry: Can a man still make it in business?

Stacy: Maybe.

Larry: Hey Janice, you blew in my ear.

Stacy: It's lonely at the top.

ANNCR: Dictating is six times faster than writing.

Get more done with Lanier Business Products, the recognized leader.

In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

LANIER -- "Closet Secretary" (LS3)

ANNCR: Larry and Stacy for Lanier Dictating Equipment.

Stacy: Not again, Mr. Pitton. I have my pride.

Larry: You were my secretary once, weren't you Helen?

Stacy: Don't shove. I am tired of meeting in the closet.

Larry: It's kind of cozy in here, if you don't mind the coats and hangers.

Stacy: If I don't get back soon, Mrs. Orlock may get suspicious.

Larry: There's something I have to know. Why was she promoted over me?

Stacy: She knows how to get things done. While you were dictating to me, she talked into a Lanier Dictating Machine. Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they are faster to load, easier to operate, and they sound better.

Larry: Orlock is always faster.

Stacy: With standard tape cassettes, you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side. And you can use the Lanier machine to listen to other conference recordings.

Larry: Helen, can a man still make it in business?

Stacy: If his wife owns the business.

ANNCR: Dictating is six times faster than writing.

Get more done with Lanier Business Products, the recognized leader.

In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

LANIER -- "Louis Wigdor" (LD1)

MAN: Hi, this is Louis Wigdor. I am an editor and owner of a publishing company. And the reason I use a Lanier Dictating Machine is a simple one.

You see, dictating is six times faster than writing something down. It couldn't be easier. Just push one button like I did 50 words ago.

(SFX: Tape rewinding... repeat)

Hi, this is Louis Wigdor. I am an editor and owner of a publishing company. And the reason I use a Lanier dictating machine...

Get more done with Lanier Business Products, the recognized leader.

Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they are faster to load, easier to operate and they sound better. And with standard tape cassettes, you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side. You can also use the Lanier machine to listen to other conference recordings.

ANNCR: Put standard cassettes' speed and efficiency in your dictation. Find out why more executives are ordering Lanier.

We are in the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

LANIER -- "Dictaphone City" (LD2)

Clerk: Good morning, welcome to Carl's Dictaphone City, where the machines are state-of-the-art, and the tapes are

Man: on the floor.

Clerk: Don't worry. They go right back in.

Man: I want to buy a dictating machine for a gift. Do you have Lanier standard tape cassette dictating machines?

Clerk: No, we manufacture our own machines.

Man: Well, I want a Lanier Dictating Machine that uses standard tape cassettes.

Clerk: This is the best selling dictating machine we make. This machine records and doubles as an AM/FM radio.

Man: No. No. No. You don't understand. Lanier machines use standard tape cassettes. That's why they are faster to load, easier to operate and they sound better.

Clerk: No dictating machine has got this microdot tape. You just put one of these micro cassettes in, and...

... (playback...some muffled recording)

It just needs a new microdot tape.

Man: But with standard tape cassettes, you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side. And you can use the Lanier machine to listen to other conference recordings.

Clerk: Here's one you don't have to worry about all that sound quality with. It's an electronic memo pad. You type in your dictation. It works just like a typewriter.

Man: Is that dental floss?

Clerk: No. Correction ribbons.

Man: Oh, I see.

ANNCR: Dictating is six times faster than writing. Get more done with Lanier Business Products, the recognized leader. Talk to a salesman today.

We are in the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

LANIER --"Industry Leader" (LD3)

MAN: In 1945, Lanier entered the office equipment business. Since then, our company has offered a broad line of office equipment.

This year we are proud to introduce the Lanier standard tape cassette dictating machines. They use standard cassette tapes, that's why they always sound better. Your voice has exactly the same sound quality you hear on music tapes. And with standard tape cassettes, you get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side. You can also use the Lanier machine to listen to other conference recordings.

Experience the first standard tape cassette dictating machine that turned the industry upside down. Get more done with Lanier Business Products. In the Yellow Pages under Dictating Machines.

Remember, dictating is six times faster than writing. And standard tape cassettes are faster to load and easier to operate.

Of course you can wait for someone else to come out with a standard tape cassette dictating machine. But who knows how long that might take.

LANIER -- "Wedding Anniversary" (LNEW)

ANNCR: Larry and Stacy for Lanier Dictating Equipment.

Stacy: Happy anniversary, Mike. Shouldn't you be home with Leona?

Larry: I know. I just called to tell her that I would be late. Kissing over the phone is messy.

Stacy: Remember last year? You planned a second honeymoon in Rome, but you couldn't get away. At least you wrote to Leona though.

Larry: By the way, Maggie. Can I have a word with you. There's something I have to know. Why were you promoted over me?

Stacy: I know how to get things done, Mike. I use Lanier Dictating Equipment. You see, Lanier uses standard tape cassettes. That's why they are faster to load and they sound better.

And with a Lanier Pocket Secretary, I can bring work home while you work late in the office.

Larry: You are always faster. But me dictate?

Stacy: It's six times faster than writing. With standard tape cassettes, you can get a full 30-minute dictating time on each side and hi-fidelity reproduction. And with a Lanier, you would be home a lot more.

Larry: May be together Leona and I can answer the call of the Yukon. Thanks Maggie. I may have a second honeymoon after all.

Stacy: What happened to your tooth?

Larry: My champagne glass broke when I toasted Leona over the phone.

ANNCR: Dictating is six times faster than writing.

Get more done with a Lanier dictating machine.

Give Lanier a hearing. Write us to arrange for a five-day free trial. Or call your local distributor.

We are in the Yellow Pages.

FSAA -- "Fishing" (FS1)

MAN: Last month I noticed my oldest boy.
He seemed so much older.

I spend a lot of time away from home and boy, that was a shock. He's growing up without me.
I figured that if I were to have any influence in his life at all, I had better start now.

So I decided to set aside one day a week.
Each week I would take a different child and we would go do whatever they want to do.

Last Saturday Tommy and I went fishing.
I'm sure I must have been with him before.
But I remember that trip when he waited downstream with me in an extra big pair of waiting boots.
We found a spot when Tommy lifted his finger and said, "Shh, we don't want to scare the fish away."

Then I remember that fish, a five-pound rainbow trout.
And it was on the end of Tommy's line.
Boy, was I proud. I'll never forget that for as long as I live.

ANNCR: Time. Seems like we never have enough.
But we have all there is.
Give your children everything.
Give them your time.

A thought from your local chapter of FSAA - the Family Solidarity Alliance of America.

FSAA -- "Cross-country Skiing" (FS2)

MAN: Last winter I noticed my oldest daughter.
She seemed so much older.

I spend a lot of time away from home and boy, that was a shock. She's growing up without me.
I figured that if I were to have any influence in her life at all, I had better start now.

So I decided to set aside one day a week.
Each week I would take a different child and we would go do whatever they want to do.

Last Sunday Sheila and I went cross-country skiing.
I am sure I must have been with her before.
But I remember that trip when she led me through a three-mile course. As she skied her way very surely along the trail, I had to work hard just to keep up with her.

Seeing her negotiate those turns and cut between those trees, boy, was I proud. I'll never forget that for as long as I live.

ANNCR: Time. Seems like we never have enough.
But we have all there is.
Give your children everything.
Give them your time.

A thought from your local chapter of FSAA -- the Family Solidarity Alliance of America.

FSAA -- "Sunrise" (FS3)

MAN: Last summer I noticed my children.
They seemed so much older.

I spend a lot of time away from home and boy, that was a shock. They're growing up without me. I figured that if I were to have any influence in their lives at all, I had better start now.

So I decided to set aside one day a week. Each week I would take a different child and we would go do whatever they want to do.

Last weekend I took my family camping. When Jimmy, my youngest son, rushed into the tent around five and woke us up, everyone thought he was crazy, getting us up and outside that early.

Finally, I noticed why. Wow, what a sunrise. It was beautiful. And Jimmy came over and said, "I want to share that with all of you." Boy, was I proud. I'll never forget that for as long as I live.

ANNOR: Time. Seems like we never have enough.
But we have all there is.
Give your children everything.
Give them your time.

A thought from your local chapter of FSAA -- the Family Solidarity Alliance of America.

FSAA -- "Lullaby" (FD1)

WOMAN: Lullaby for my son. His name is Michael.
His eyes are brown and his hair is black.
And he is twelve today.

... (A 20-second lullaby)...

Beautiful song isn't it.
But you know, I didn't write it. Michael and I did,
together.

When it was finished yesterday, I was so proud.
I'll never forget it for as long as I live.

I spend a lot of time away from home.
A few months ago, I noticed my children.
They seemed so much older. They are growing up without me,
and that was a shock.

I figured that if I were to have any influence in their lives
I had better start now.

So I decided to set aside one day a week.
Each week I would take a different child and we would do
whatever they want to do.

Why don't you do the same.
Give your children everything. Most important of all, give
them your time.

... (A 5-second lullaby)..

ANNCR: Time. Seems like we never have enough.
But we have all there is.

A message brought to you by your local chapter of FSAA - the
Family Solidarity Alliance of America.

FSAA -- "Diary" (FD2)

... (SFX: Echo)

MAN: "Dear Diary:

I took Sheila, my youngest, cross-country skiing today.
I am sure I must have been with her before.
But she really made me proud in that three-mile course.

As she skied her way very surely along the trail,
I had to work hard just to keep up with her.
Seeing her negotiate those turns and cut between those trees.
Boy, I'll never forget that for as long as I live.

I do spend a lot of time away from home.
And last month, when I noticed how much older my children
were, was I shocked.
They are growing up without me.

I do want to have some influence in their lives and I don't
regret deciding then to start right away.

Time. Seems like we never have enough.
But we have all there is.

I am glad I decided to set aside one day a week, and take a
different child out each week to do whatever they want to do.

Today was wonderful. Talk to you again soon."

ANNCR: Give your children everything.
Give them your time.

A thought from local chapter of FSAA -- the Family Solidarity
Alliance of America.

FSAA -- "Mr. Voice" (FD3)

... (SFX: Car going down the road) ...

VOICE: So, you are driving downtown all alone again, huh?

MAN: Huh...

VOICE: Kind of lonely, isn't it? Have you noticed your children lately? Do they seem much older to you?

MAN: Huh... What's that?

VOICE: That's it. Say something, even if it's to yourself. You do spend a lot of time away from home, don't you?

MAN: So?

VOICE: Are you aware that your children may be growing up without you? If you want to have any influence in their lives at all, you had better start now.

MAN: I guess you're right.

VOICE: Why don't you set aside one day a week? Each week you'll take a different child out to do whatever they want to do.

MAN: That's not a bad idea. But I have been with them before?

VOICE: You never know. They may surprise you.

MAN: That's true. I remember going fishing with David last summer. He waited downstream with me in an extra big pair of waiting boots.

We found a spot when David lifted his finger and said, "Shh, we don't want to scare the fish away." And that fish, a five-pound rainbow trout, on the end of David's line.

Boy, was I proud. I'll never forget that for as long as I live.

VOICE: Hey, hey, hey, who are you talking to?

MAN: Nobody.

VOICE: If people in the other cars see your lips move and you're alone, they are going to think you're some kind of a ...

(continued)

FSAA -- "Mr. Voice" (continued)

MAN: What should I do?

VOICE: I think you've gotten the idea.
Remember. Seems like we never have enough time.
But we have all there is.

Just a thought from your local chapter of FSAA - the Family
Solidarity Alliance of America.

MAN: Mister voice, can you stay with me a little longer? I am
lonely.

VOICE: Give your children everything. Give them your time.

MAN: I like you.

FSAA -- "Hiking" (FNEW)

MAN: Last month I noticed my youngest boy.
He seemed so much older.

I am a salesman and I spend a lot of time away from home.
And boy, that was a shock.
I want to have some influence in his life, so I decided to
spend more time with my children.

It's not easy to take time off in my line of work, but I know
my children are worth it.

Each week I would take a different child and we would go do
whatever they want to do.

Last Thursday David and I went hiking.
I'm sure I must have been with him before. But I remember
that trip because we were lost in the woods for three hours
and it was dark. I thought we would never find our way out.

David finally got us safely out of there.
I'll never forget that for as long as I live.

ANNCR: Time. We have all there is.
Give yourselves to your children.
Give them your time.

Look for more information in the mail.

A thought from your local chapter of FSAA -- the Family
Solidarity Alliance of America.

APPENDIX G

QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN DAY-AFTER
TELEPHONE INTERVIEW

Hi, my name is _____. I am calling for Professor Chan to follow-up on the advertising study you did yesterday. There were two segments in the TV program you saw in class. Think back to the very last segment which talked about how much you could buy with five dollars in Japan. There was a commercial break right after that segment, just before the host came out to say goodbye.

I. What were the names of the products or services advertised during that very last commercial break?
CIRCLE RESPONDENT'S ANSWERS.

LANIER DICTATING MACHINE	YES	NO
MARATHON OIL COMPANY	YES	NO
FSAA -- THE FAMILY SOLIDARITY ALLIANCE OF AMERICA	YES	NO

(If Lanier and FSAA are identified, skip to question IV)

II. Do you recall a commercial for:

A DICTATING MACHINE	YES	NO
A SOCIAL ORGANIZATION	YES	NO

(If answer is YES to all of the above, skip to question IV)

III. Do you recall watching a commercial for:

LANIER DICTATING MACHINE	YES	NO
FSAA -- THE FAMILY SOLIDARITY ALLIANCE OF AMERICA	YES	NO

(If answer is NO on either name, TERMINATE interview)

IV. You said you remember watching a commercial for Lanier Dictating Machine during the very last commercial break. Please describe, to the best of your knowledge, everything that was said in that last commercial for Lanier. Please be specific.

	<u>Initial Answer</u>	<u>First Prompt</u>	<u>Second Prompt</u>
1. Larry and Stacy for Lanier Dictating Equipment.	1	2	3
2. Dialogue between a man and a woman in an office.	1	2	3
3. Man asked woman why she was promoted over him.	1	2	3
4. Answer: "I know how to get things done."	1	2	3
5. "I use Lanier Dictating Equipment."	1	2	3
6. Woman spoke of some attributes about Lanier.	1	2	3
7. Those specific attributes were: Lanier uses standard tape cassettes.	1	2	3
8. Standard tape cassettes are faster to load.	1	2	3
9. They are easier to operate.	1	2	3
10. They sound better.	1	2	3
11. Lanier also makes a Pocket Secretary.	1	2	3
12. You can bring work home with a Pocket Secretary.	1	2	3
13. Man commented that the woman was always faster.	1	2	3
14. Woman spoke of more attributes about Lanier.	1	2	3
15. Those specific attributes were: Standard tape cassettes give you a full 30-minute dictating time on each side.	1	2	3
16. Standard tape cassettes give you high-fidelity sound.	1	2	3
17. You can use the Lanier machine to listen to other recordings.	1	2	3
18. Man asked: "Can a man still make it in business?"	1	2	3
19. Woman gave a humorous response.	1	2	3
20. There was an announcement at the end.	1	2	3
21. Specific product messages announced were: Dictating is six times faster than writing.	1	2	3
22. Get more done with a Lanier.	1	2	3
23. Lanier Business Products (company name).	1	2	3
24. Lanier is the recognized leader.	1	2	3
25. Lanier wants us to give it a hearing.	1	2	3
26. Lanier wants us to write them to arrange for a five-day free trial.	1	2	3
27. Or call its distributor.	1	2	3
28. Lanier is listed in the Yellow Pages.	1	2	3
29. Lanier is listed under Dictating Machines.	1	2	3

V. You said you remember watching a commercial for FSAA -- the Family Solidarity Alliance of America during the very last commercial break. Please describe, to the best of your knowledge, everything that was said in that last commercial for FSAA. Please be specific.

	<u>Initial Answer</u>	<u>First Prompt</u>	<u>Second Prompt</u>
1. A man said he noticed his children lately.	1	2	3
2. His children seemed much older.	1	2	3
3. Man said he spend a lot of time away from home.	1	2	3
4. That was a shock to him.	1	2	3
5. His children were growing up without him.	1	2	3
6. Man said he wanted to have more influence on his children's lives.	1	2	3
7. He decided to do something at once.	1	2	3
8. He decided to spend more time with his children.	1	2	3
9. The man is a salesman.	1	2	3
10. It's hard for him to take time off in his line of work.	1	2	3
11. But he felt that his children were worth it.	1	2	3
12. He decided to set aside one day a week.	1	2	3
13. Each week he would take a different child out, and they would go do whatever the child wanted to do.	1	2	3
14. There was a recollection of an outdoor event.	1	2	3
15. Child did something remarkable in the event.	1	2	3
16. Man expressed pride in child : "Boy, was I proud."	1	2	3
17. "I will never forget it for as long as I live."	1	2	3
18. There was an announcement at the end.	1	2	3
19. The specific messages were: Time. Seems like we never have enough.	1	2	3
20. But we have all there is.	1	2	3
21. We should give our children everything.	1	2	3
22. We should give ourselves to our children.	1	2	3
23. We should give them our time.	1	2	3
24. Message brought to us by a local chapter of FSAA.	1	2	3
25. FSAA reminded us to look for more information in the mail.	1	2	3

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