

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

**Determining the Structure and Effects of Message Sensation Value in
Threatening Anti-Smoking Adverts: A Young Adult Perspective**

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Abstract

There is no doubt that anti-smoking campaigns help with other anti-smoking policy to reduce the number of smokers in the UK and indeed globally, through their cumulative effects on their target audiences. However, the effectiveness and impact of such campaigns vary according to several elements, influenced by the design and delivery of such communications. Whilst the majority of anti-smoking adverts use visual-threat-based appeals, the effects of which have been validated in changing attitudes of smokers, the structural components of such campaigns and identifying their effects remain largely unexplored. The concept of Message Sensation Value (MSV) relates to the structural components of communication content and has found some traction in understanding social marketing campaigns. How MSV relates to anti-smoking attitude change, however, remains unresolved and therefore our knowledge on the structural components of anti-smoking MSV and their influence in attitude change is limited. This study seeks to address this key knowledge gap.

This research therefore aims to determine the structure and role of MSV features in anti-smoking adverts and specifically within threatening appeals, given their prevalence and validated utility. This study examines the experience of young adult smokers and their responses in terms of emotive reaction, perceived believability and perceived effectiveness using a qualitative interview-based study design. It integrates an interpretive phenomenological orientation embedded in a Dimensional Qualitative Research (DQR) approach. The DQR approach is used to enhance the systematic and comprehensive classification of themes arising from perceptions towards anti-smoking stimuli and in doing so enables the deconstruction of the MSV into its constituent components. DQR enables advertising scholars to decode stimuli on the basis of BASIC IDS, an acronym based on Behaviour, Affect, Sensation, Image, Cognition, Interpersonal relation, Drug and Sociocultural modalities or dimensions. Addressing such adverts which contain threat appeals and MSV features, it is the first research to address MSV features in anti-smoking advert, which include threat appeals by a qualitative approach with a phenomenological orientation. For the first time, two phases of data analysis thematic analysis and dimensional qualitative research are used together to get a holistic picture of smokers' experience with such content and their reaction according to such experience.

The findings reveal that the experiences of smokers (both past and present) with anti-smoking adverts contain some MSV features, and threat appeals vary in their type and level of threat. Young adult smokers found adverts with some high MSV features (i.e., intense scenes, unexpected format, surprise end and the action showed or described) when combined with high threat appeals (physical, social and death threat appeals). This negative and scary content in these adverts made them experience mainly fear and other negative emotions, which led them to rate anti-smoking adverts with high MSV features and high threat appeals as more believable and more effective. The results indicate that MSV features in threatening televised anti-smoking adverts work to enhance the role of threat appeals effect by intensifying the adverts arousal effect on smokers, influencing emotional response, and facilitating attention. This gives the adverts with such style and content have a positive impact on how young adults' smokers perceived their believability and some aspects of perceived effectiveness but with no firm intention to stop smoking. It may be that smokers found anti-smoking adverts not enough to make them stop smoking because of several reasons related to smokers or anti-smoking adverts, such as addiction, social relationships with friends and other students, and sociocultural aspects(i.e. age gap) since some adverts target other age groups like older people and parents, not young adults.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background

Contemporary societies encounter many worrying issues with health, social, economic and environmental impacts, like smoking (Venkatesh, 2013). Tobacco smoking or exposure to tobacco smoke causes heart, lung, and artery diseases, as well as several kinds of cancer (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2014). The World Health Organization reports state that one person dies every six seconds because of smoking, and this makes smoking the number one killer globally. Such is the extent of the problem, it killed 100 million people worldwide during the 20th century and of the more than 1 billion smokers alive today, around 500 million will be killed by tobacco. Moreover, there are estimates that by 2030, there will be more than 8 million deaths every year (WHO, 2008). Also, scientific evidence has long proven that there is no safe level of exposure to second-hand smoke and that exposure leads to severe and often fatal diseases, including cardiovascular and respiratory disease as well as lung and other cancers. Children, foetuses and new-borns may also suffer severe, long-term harm – or even die– due to second-hand smoke exposure (WHO, 2015).

Furthermore, the WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHO FCTC) recognises the substantial harm caused by tobacco use and the critical need to prevent it. Tobacco kills approximately 6 million people and causes more than half a trillion dollars of economic damage each year. Tobacco will kill as many as 1 billion people this century if the WHO FCTC is not implemented rapidly (WHO, 2013). Tobacco-related diseases claim more lives than HIV, AIDS, Malaria and Tuberculosis combined (WHO, 2015). Besides, a substantial loss of productivity is part of the total cost burden of premature mortality due to smoking (Menzin et al., 2012). However, efforts such as increasing awareness of the harms of tobacco use and hard-hitting anti-tobacco mass media campaigns may help to increase cessation attempts and reduce second-hand smoke exposure. Moreover, anti-smoking policies such as raising the price of tobacco through increased tobacco taxes are considered by WHO as the most effective and efficient way to reduce tobacco use (WHO, 2015).

Raising awareness of smoking hazards began with the first article published in Britain about the relationship of smoking with cancer in 1951. Similarly, the US Surgeon

General released an early report on "Smoking and Health" in 1964 (ASH, 2015). Since then, public awareness efforts have been made by linking smoking to certain serious diseases and restricting the means of promotion of smoking products, such as banning smoking-related advertisements in some public transport. Also, raising the price of tobacco through the imposition of high taxes has shown positive results since 1947 (ASH, 2015). In July 1967, the Federal Communication Commission required broadcasters in the USA to air one anti-smoking message for every three cigarette commercials (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1989). Likewise, in the UK in 1969, the Health Education Council (HEC) launched the first anti-smoking campaign using posters asking, "Why learn about lung cancer the hard way?" (ASH, 2015). So, for more than four decades, efforts to raise public awareness about the various negative effects of smoking through several communications and media tools have grown considerably, borrowing and using ideas and tools from commercial marketing, like targeting a specific audience or launching anti-smoking campaigns to help to combat this epidemic. This concept later came to be called social marketing.

1.2 Social marketing and social advertising

The term "social marketing" emerged more than forty years ago, in an article by Kotler and Zaltman (1971:5), who defined it as "the design, implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research". After three decades, Kotler and his colleagues redefined social marketing, which referred to the process of voluntary social change on the collective and individual level, rather than focusing on the techniques and commercial marketing tools used to achieve social goals. "Social marketing is the use of marketing principles and techniques to influence a target audience to accept voluntarily, reject, modify, or abandon a behaviour for the benefit of individuals, groups or society as a whole" (Kotler et al., 2002: 5).

The recent definition of Lee and Kotler (2011: 9) considers social marketing as "a process that applies marketing principles, tools and techniques to create, communicate and deliver value to influence target audience behaviours that benefit society in domains such as public health, environment". This definition provides an advanced perspective in terms of consideration of social marketing processes to deal with group

values for the community's welfare. Therefore, in line with the implications of these definitions, the practical side of social marketing is revealed. There are four major areas on which social marketing efforts have focused over about forty years: health promotion, injury prevention, environmental protection, and community mobilisation (Dahl, 2010; Cheng et al., 2010).

Social marketers interested in these areas use the same tools as commercial marketing to convey their messages and fulfil their purposes. For example, the National Social Marketing Centre in the UK reviewed the historical development of definitions and descriptions of social marketing. It produced an updated and more inclusive definition to recognise the different influences on social marketing. This centre considers social marketing as the systematic application of marketing, alongside other concepts and techniques, to achieve specific behavioural goals, for social good (Matei & Dinu, 2010: 91). Overall, social marketing plays a crucial role in solving social problems, helping in the 21st century to achieve widespread awareness and adoption as an innovative approach to social change (Andreasen, 2003). It uses the principles and processes of commercial marketing, but not to sell products and services. Instead, the goal is to design and implement programmes to promote socially beneficial behaviour change (Evans, 2008). One of the tools used is advertising, which is considered as a major tool for both commercial marketing and social marketing to reach their audience (Stead et al. 2007).

Nonetheless, there is a difference in the concept of advertising in the two areas, in terms of the objective, target audience, results and the beneficiary party (Lee & Kotler, 2011). For instance, Noguero (2008) suggests three perspectives for advertising:

- Commercial advertising: refers to products, brands or companies, or other economic promotion affairs.
- Propaganda: refers to ideas that affect a social or political group, with a certain partisan, argumentative and exclusive nature.
- Social advertising refers to ideas that affect a collective, with an educational intention or to simulate social awareness (Noguero, 2008).

Social advertising is defined as advertising designed to educate or motivate a target audience to undertake socially desirable actions (Koontz, 2001). Social advertising seeks to provide the correct information about social issues, to provide an in-depth

understanding of advertised issues, to educate the target audience. This kind of advertising may help to change their beliefs and attitudes and hence modify or change their behaviour patterns to the desired behaviour from the perspective of the advertiser.

1.3 Anti-smoking efforts in the UK

Anti-smoking efforts vary significantly around the globe. Around 82% of smokers reside in low and middle-income countries (ASH, 2009). However, countries like Libya, Algeria, Afghanistan and Angola suffer a lack of data on smoking rates (WHO, 2015). WHO reported in 2008 that 89 countries that provided estimated tobacco control budgets spent US\$ 343 million per year – with 95% of this amount spent by high-income countries and nearly 90% contributed by seven of these wealthy nations. In contrast, about 4% of global spending is spent in medium-income countries, and less than 1% is spent by low-income countries (WHO, 2008). For instance, in 2008, Egypt and Bangladesh had a high incidence of tobacco use, 30% and 36% of the population respectively, but government expenditure on tobacco control was just 15,500USD and 50,000USD respectively (WHO, 2008). Hence, anti-smoking efforts in these countries -and countries with similar circumstances- are unorganised, improvisational and usually interrupted due to the lack of data on smoking rates or the required funding for anti-tobacco efforts.

On the other side, in the developed countries - the UK as an example- tobacco fighting is handled by governmental and non-governmental organisations like NHS Smoke-free, Action on Smoking and Health (ASH), Quit and the British Heart Foundation. National bodies have supported these efforts with significant budgets. For instance, in 2008, government expenditure on tobacco control was £75 million (WHO, 2013). The budget for smoke-free marketing in 2011/12 was £15 million, and the budget for 2012/13 was £13.1m, including an allowance for running call centres and evaluation (NHS Smoke-free, 2011). In the 2012-13 financial year, government spending on smoking cessation services in England was £87.7 million, with an additional £58.1m on medicinal aids, like nicotine replacement therapy. Also, expenditure on mass media health campaigns on smoking in the same year was £8.21 million (ASH, 2015).

Also, high tax rates on tobacco have been set, of up to 77% of the retail price on a packet of 20 cigarettes. The Treasury received £9.5 billion in revenue from tobacco

duties in the financial year 2013-2014 (ASH, 2014). The UK is considered one of the highest achieving countries globally in anti-tobacco mass media campaigns, raising taxes on tobacco and tobacco dependence treatment (WHO, 2013). Moreover, since 2007, smoking in enclosed public places has been banned (ASH, 2015). All the above measures, which aim to limit the availability and affordability of tobacco, are accompanied by mass media campaigns, such as the campaign sponsored by the NHS called Smoke-free, launched in 1985. Those campaigns have been based mainly on TV adverts, besides radio, online, leaflets and press ads. For example, the results of the last campaign, from December 2013 to March 2014, showed that 30% of those who saw the campaign and the supporting online and radio advertising took some action, for example, requesting a Quit Kit, stopping smoking or talking about stopping with friends/family. Forty percent of those who saw the advert said they were more likely to quit; generally, the advertising achieved 87% awareness among the target audience (Smoke-free Resource Centre, 2015).

Nonetheless, in 2011, the number of smokers in England was still more than 8 million. As a result, by the end of 2015, the Department of Health set plans to reduce smoking rates to:

- 18.5% or less for adults (compared to 21.2% for April 2009 to March 2010).
- 12% or less for 15-year-olds (compared to 15% in 2009).
- 11% or less for pregnant women, measured at the time of giving birth (compared to 14% over 2009 to 2010) (Department of Health, 2013).

Based on this background, this research aims to study threatening anti-smoking efforts empirically, in terms of attitudes towards anti-smoking advertising for a certain target audience of smokers in the UK, as a mediator of the effectiveness of these campaigns, especially as they have experienced notable successes. Also, it is believed that anti-smoking advertising in mass media campaigns (McVey & Stapleton, 2000; Wakefield et al., 2003) has a significant role alongside other anti-smoking policies like raising taxes on tobacco (Leicester & Levell, 2013; Schmitt & Blass, 2008). It has caused the numbers of smokers to decline over the past four decades, as shown in the table below.

Table 1 Cigarette smoking by age – the percentage of the adult population UK

% \ Year	Age				
	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-59	60+
1974	44.3	50.9	52.0	50.4	33.3
1984	34.7	37.9	37.1	39.1	25.8
1994	34.2	31.8	29.5	26.7	17.3
2004	28.9	31.2	29.3	24.1	14.2
2014	23.1	24.2	21.0	18.9	11.4
2015	23.5	24.2	20.3	16.0	10.3

Source: Action on Smoking and Health (ASH), (2017)

Even with these promising figures, smoking causes more preventable deaths than anything else, with almost 80,000 deaths in 2011 in England. Also, UK hospitals see around 9,500 admissions of children with illnesses caused by second-hand smoke (Department of Health, 2015). Besides, research commissioned by ASH has shown that the total cost of smoking to society in England is approximately £12.9 billion a year. This loss includes the cost to the NHS of treating diseases caused by smoking in England, which is approximately £2 billion a year. Other costs include:

- The loss in productivity due to premature deaths (£3bn).
- The cost to businesses of smoking breaks (£5bn).
- Smoking-related sick days (£1bn).
- Social care costs of older smokers (£1.1bn).
- Costs of fires caused by smokers' materials (£391m) (ASH, 2014: 1).

The current data highlight the importance of undertaking more studies about anti-smoking efforts and policies and shedding more light on the aspects that might increase the effectiveness of these efforts. Therefore, the current research will address essential attributes of social advertising as part of the tools used by anti-smoking campaigns, that is, the believability and effectiveness of social advertising in the form of threatening anti-smoking televised adverts from the perspective of one of the important target audience groups, young adult smokers.

Anti-smoking advertising is selected as the field of this research due to the health, social, economic and environmental hazards of the tobacco epidemic, also, because, the ongoing anti-smoking campaigns since the 1980s in the UK, significant budgets have been spent and are still dedicated. The number of smokers in the UK has decreased significantly over the past four decades, and this is attributed to many policies, including intensive anti-smoking campaigns. Accordingly, addressing to what extent the target audience believe what they have seen and heard in these campaigns and how this may impact their attitudes towards smoking, which in turn may affect their behaviour, is worthy of investigation.

1.4 Anti-smoking campaigns

An anti-smoking campaign is any campaign intended to inform the audience about the dangers of smoking to prevent the initiation of tobacco use, reduce tobacco prevalence or encourage tobacco cessation, using channels of communication such as television, radio, the internet, newspapers, billboards, posters, leaflets, or booklets aiming to reach large numbers of people, which are not dependent on person-to-person contact (Bala et al., 2008). Combined with other tobacco control policies, mass media anti-smoking campaigns are helping to raise awareness about the hazards of smoking and to decrease the risk of smoking initiation. They can also reduce smoking prevalence, change smokers' thinking about quitting and increase quit attempts. Such campaigns have notable effects on smoking rates in countries like the UK, USA and Australia, in both the short and long term. (Vallone et al., 2011; Wilson et al., 2012; Devlin et al., 2007; Liu & Tan, 2009; Langley et al., 2013; Cohen et al., 2007; Richardson et al., 2014; Wakefield et al., 2008; Brennan et al., 2016; Duke et al., 2015; McVey & Stapleton, 2000; McAfee et al., 2013; Langley et al., 2012; Murphy-Hoefer et al., 2010; White et al., 2003; Netemeyer et al., 2005; Dunlop et al., 2013; Hyland et al., 2006; Farrelly et al., 2009; Davis et al., 2012). For example, from 2002 to 2010 in the UK, it was found that exposure to anti-smoking campaigns and, more specifically, anti-smoking televised ads were associated with reductions in smoking prevalence and smokers' cigarette consumption (Sims et al., 2014). Interestingly, when the UK government suspended funding of anti-smoking campaigns from April 2010 to September 2011, by 2012, it was reported that this "appeared to reduce the use of smoking cessation literature

markedly, quitline calls and hits on the national smoking cessation website” (Langley et al., 2014: 995).

By using anti-smoking campaigns and other anti-smoking policies, countries like the USA and the UK in recent decades have been able to halve adult’s cigarette consumption. Likewise, other anti-smoking efforts (bans on smoking in public places) reduce non-smokers’ exposure to tobacco smoke and can also help decrease the overall smoking prevalence and the total level of smoking, as can anti-smoking campaigns (Jha & Peto, 2014; Jones et al., 2015). What is noteworthy is that anti-smoking campaigns in the UK, -as in many other countries- are heavily dependent on TV advertising because this is generally considered the most powerful medium to reach and appeal to mass audiences. They thus represent significant expenditure on media channels used to convey anti-smoking messages (Sims et al., 2014; Langley et al., 2013; Johnston et al., 2005). For instance, in the UK, which launched the first TV anti-smoking ads in 1976, just from 2004 to 2010 a total of 24 507 tobacco control TVRs were broadcast (Langley et al., 2013). Results of several studies have confirmed that televised anti-smoking ads are associated with reductions in smoking prevalence and smokers’ cigarette consumption, through encouraging smokers to stop and helping prevent relapse in those who have already stopped (Sims, 2014; Haghpanahan et al., 2017; Richardson et al., 2014; Langley; 2012; McVey et al., 2000).

1.5 Anti-smoking adverts: design options

Anti-smoking campaigns are considered a type of persuasive communication, which is defined as “any message that is intended to shape, reinforce, or change the responses of another or others” (Miller, 1980: 11). These campaigns in the health promotion realm aim to encourage people to engage in safe, healthy behaviour, such as not starting to smoke or stopping smoking and they adopt a variety of approaches and contents. A popular approach in these campaigns is the use of information-based, rational messages, that present objective information and target the cognitive processes of the audience, or alternatively, they may be emotion-based, seeking to change behaviour through the use of emotive pictures or graphic footage (McKay- Nesbitt et al., 2011). These emotional appeals can be either positive (e.g. humour-based), or negative (e.g., threat-based), the latter being termed threat appeals. The early literature in this area argues that the use of threat appeals was primarily based on a “common-

sense” belief that the more fear the campaign evoked, the greater the chance the recommended behaviours would be adopted (Higbee, 1969). However, this thinking changed because some reviews found that high threat appeals could lead to maladaptive responses and may even provoke an increase in risky behaviour (Carey & Sarma, 2011; Jessop et al., 2008). Others found that threat appeals can be highly effective, provided several conditions are met related to the message itself. The medium that carries the message and some conditions and attributes related to the message audience (Witte & Allen, 2000).

A large number of anti-smoking campaigns adopt the second approach using threatening content to make the target audience feel fearful, to prompt them to process the message well and to make it more effective with recipients (Keller & Block, 1996; Smith & Stutts, 2003). These campaigns can be more effective if designed with specific content, as a systematic review revealed. For example, a study of the effectiveness of health warnings on tobacco products indicated that large, picture-based messages that evoke an emotional reaction are significantly more effective than small, text-based messages (Hammond, 2011). There are a large volume of long-established empirical evidence that identifies the information processing of visual images, or pictures, as superior to that of verbal information, or words (MacInnis & Price, 1987; Cautela & McCullough, 1978). Substantial evidence supports the idea that emotional content influences the cognitive responses of the audience, such as the amount of cognitive resources allocated for message processing (Lang et al., 2007; Leshner et al., 2011) and the level of scrutiny given to message argument (DeSteno et al., 2004; Wegener et al., 1995).

1.6 Anti-smoking sociopsychology in the research

Stewart (2014) indicates in his book in the chapter on social psychological foundations of social marketing that there are factors that can affect the persuasiveness of communication, i.e., social advertising. These factors are the source, the message, and the recipient (Stewart, 2014). Interaction between these factors will affect the attitudes towards the advertised issue, which will affect the actual behaviour. In this research, the source is real anti-smoking campaigns, and the message is real televised anti-smoking adverts with negative content that contain MSV features and threatening appeals. The recipients are British young adult smokers who are university students.

The perceived believability and perceived effectiveness indicate the attitudes in this research. The first is an antecedent of attitude toward the advert and affects the attitude toward the advertised issue. While the perceived effectiveness includes the ad believability and some indicators of the recipient's intention to comply or not with the advert's message.

Thus, anti-smoking sociopsychology in this study attempts to understand how each person's(smoker) individual behaviour (smoking) is influenced by the social environment(exposure to anti-smoking adverts) in which that behaviour takes place. Therefore, this research is concerned with young adult smokers (recipients) experience with televised anti-smoking adverts that contain three types of threat appeals (physical, social, and death appeals), which are accompanied by MSV features (message) and how these smokers experience this content in terms of perception, emotional response, and behavioural intention.

1.7 Visual-threat appeals and message sensation

The use of visual-threat appeals in anti-smoking adverts primarily focuses on displaying visuals that illustrate the negative consequences of smoking by manipulating the level of the fear factor present in visual images. Past studies found that persuasive visual-threat appeals contributed to an increase in smoking cessation intention and behaviour (Gallopel-Morvan et al.,2011; Hammond et al., 2004). Use of graphic images can be presented as imagery in anti-smoking adverts. It represents an essential component of visual threat appeals because it provides sensory input using colours and shapes; visual imagery is said to be a representation of reality (Scott, 1994). However, some studies also indicated that a powerful visual-fear appeal could also reduce the persuasiveness of the visual image by triggering smokers' defensive reactions to practise fear control (e.g. avoidance or denial) instead of danger control (e.g. smoking cessation) (Cameron & Williams, 2015; Hammond, 2009; Aktan & Chao, 2018; Hahn & Renner, 1998; Pechmann & Knight, 2002).

Much research has been done about the design of effective communication campaigns and what makes those campaigns effective in an attempt to understand message features that enhance the persuasiveness of these campaigns. Many studies explore the relationship between some message design attributes that evoke negative emotion (i.e.

fear), for example, perceived vividness, which aims to grab the audience attention, make the message more arousing and make the message induce an effective reaction in the target audience, and some outcomes such as effectiveness and persuasiveness of such messages. However, not much research has been done yet to explore those message features that generate the induced response (e.g., MSV) (O’Keefe, 2003).

Televised anti-smoking adverts contain visual, auditory and textual components, and those components use both threat appeals and MSV features, which have outcomes in the target audience related to persuasion (Lang, 2000; Morgan et al., 2003; Reeves et al., 1985). As both the threat appraisal mechanism and MSV are closely linked to message content and format features, their impact on message processing may have direct implications for message design (Kang & Cappella, 2008). MSV and threat appeals have some common elements, such as the presentation of a threat using vivid or personalised language and pictures (Witte, 1992) that depict “a personally relevant and significant threat” (Witte, 1994:114). Vivid (also referred to as graphic) images are often used to capture attention (Dahl et al., 2003). Indeed, vivid images are used not only to capture audience attention but also to present information concerning the severity of the threat in the threat appeal. Research results have shown that the inclusion of relevant visual vividness and graphic images in a threat appeal increased the perception of perceived threat (e.g. Cauberghe et al., 2009; Sabanne et al., 2009; Potter et al., 2006).

Moreover, Kees et al (2010) found that ‘highly’ graphic images strengthened smokers’ intention to stop smoking, which was mediated by a fear response. Also, Beiner et al. (2005) concluded that visual images that graphically depict death and disease caused by smoking increase emotional response to messages (e.g. fear). Andrews et al. (2014) found that graphic warnings influenced fear, which in turn generated negative health beliefs about smoking and increased intentions to stop smoking. All these studies demonstrate that a vivid or graphic picture (as a common element between threat appeals and MSV) plays a role in influencing the perception of a threat in a threat appeals context.

Therefore, MSV and threat appeals features in anti-smoking adverts have some similarities in their design and aim. Both focus mainly on visually describing the dangers of smoking, and both aim to grab the audience’s attention (Dahl et al., 2003;

O'Neill & Nicholson-Cole, 2009). This could affect recipients emotionally and cognitively, since the use of visuals in the design of adverts could make them more persuasive and influence the beliefs, desires, and actions of the target audience (Landau et al., 2009; Foucault et al., 2015; Farrelly et al., 2012; Davis et al., 2011; Beiner et al., 2000). Also, some studies have found anti-smoking adverts with high threat appeal are high in MSV features too (Witte & Allen, 2000); although others found televised anti-smoking adverts are moderate in MSV features. It seems that there is an intertwining between some threat appeals and MSV features in the design of anti-smoking campaigns, so this may mean that if one of these design features exists, the other one will exist as well (Peak et al., 2010).

Furthermore, threat appeals and MSV could be related to the concept of sensory marketing, that is, “marketing that engages the consumers' senses and affects their perception, judgment, and behaviour” (Krishna, 2012: 332). From the definition, it seems to include the ideas of sensation and perception, which are stages of sensory processing. Sensation is when the stimulus impinges upon the receptor cells of a sensory organ (in televised anti-smoking adverts, mainly senses of sight and hearing). At the same time, perception is the awareness or understanding of sensory information.

MSV and threat appeals are not investigated together in the context of social advertising, except for some studies like the work of Kang and Cappella (2008), which examines how cognitive appraisals of events lead to specific emotions. They tried to explore to what extent message sensation value may work as an elicitor of arousal to intensify the impact of discrete emotions on message effectiveness evaluation, in eight public service announcements (PSAs) (five AIDS and three anti-violence). Their study found a moderating role for MSV on the relationship between discrete emotions (sadness, joy, guilt, anger, and fear) and perceived message effectiveness. That is, MSV-elicited arousal is added to the content-elicited threat arousal, which then could increase one's reliance upon emotion during message evaluation and strength of the participants' emotional experience and the impact of these emotions on persuasion. The authors argue that MSV can intensify the impact of discrete emotions on perceived message effectiveness. Thus, in messages with threat appeals, a high MSV format may be considered as appropriate (Kang & Cappella, 2008). However, another study found that the physiological responses elicited by high-sensation value structural features

such as strong effects, cuts and edits and high-sensation value content features like arousing, negative, or threat appeals, are not the same (Lang et al.,2005).

Message sensation value and threat appeals, as features of anti-smoking adverts, could reveal conflicting effects on the target audience, based on their levels or using certain content attributes. For example, antismoking ad campaigns often manipulate visual-threat appeals to affect smokers' appraisal of threat associated with smoking consequences and cessation intent. Past studies found that strong visual-fear appeals contributed to an increase in smoking cessation intention and behaviour (Gallopel-Morvan et al., 2011; Hammond et al.,2004). However, these studies also indicated that a powerful visual-fear appeal could also reduce the persuasiveness of the visual image by triggering smokers' defensive reactions to practice fear control (e.g., avoidance or denial) instead of danger control (e.g., smoking cessation). Similarly, MSV features will show conflicting results according to some theories and studies, While the Activation Model of Information Exposure (AMIE) found MSV has an attention-getting effect, the Elaboration Likelihood Model ELM predicts a distracting effect of MSV interfering with message content (Kang et al., 2006). Also, when MSV research integrates appraisal theory and excitation-transfer theory, MSV may play the role of an arousal generator to amplify the influence of discrete emotions (e.g. fear) on perceived message effectiveness. So MSV here works as a facilitator of message persuasiveness. High sensation value messages have been found effective for increasing perceived ad effectiveness and advert liking (Harrington et al., 2006). However, according to other models, such as psychological reactance theory, there are challenges with implementing high sensation value (HSV) messages, in that they potentially could backfire among the target audiences. Messages with HSV may achieve greater effectiveness when they tone down the controlling language.

Attention is the mechanism where information is selected or rejected for further perceptual processing in other words, attention is a gatekeeper to further processing of messages (Anderson, 2006). Also, there is an attentional bias towards processing threat stimuli, so the use of threats in advertising appeals will direct attention toward that stimulus. As such, further processing, once attention has been paid to the stimulus, is a crucial component (Mayer et al., 2006; Ohman et al., 2001). However, if induced fear outweighs the perceived ability to manage the threat, visuals can distract attention

away from the focus of the message or trigger counter-productive responses (Niederdeppe et al., 2008), perhaps even overload.

Based on the above, the focus of this study is to understand how young adult smokers respond to MSV features in threatening anti-smoking adverts; specifically, how emotional and cognitive responses mediate the relationship between stimulus and response. In the researcher view how different combinations of threat appeal and MSV features in real televised anti-smoking adverts engage cognitive and emotional processing during exposure is worthy of study and will reveal vital results for research and application in this area. By studying anti-smoking adverts that combine MSV features in threatening anti-smoking adverts, the study will explore how this mixture affects smokers in terms of attention, arousal, and processing, how this could affect believability and effectiveness and how MSV features work with threat appeals as common content in anti-smoking campaigns. By doing this, the research aims to find out the role and structure of MSV in anti-smoking adverts which use images, text, and sound to evoke fear in smokers in order to grab smoker's attention and make them feel the severity of the threat and feel vulnerable to such a threat. This could result in favorable message processing and positive attitudes towards these adverts and the outcome of the adverts (e.g. perceived believability and effectiveness).

1.8 Research objectives:

Based on the above discussion, the aims of this research will be around three objectives:

1. To determine the structure and nature of MSV in threatening anti-smoking adverts.
2. To examine the role of MSV in facilitating efficacy of threatening anti-smoking adverts for attitude of smokers when they experience exposure to these adverts.
3. To provide guidelines for anti-smoking adverts design based on the role of MSV in threatening anti-smoking adverts.

1.9 Research method

This study was conducted through adopting an inductive qualitative approach with an interpretative phenomenological orientation. Enabling the researcher to explore the real

experience of smokers when they are exposed to anti-smoking ads, in addition to their past experience with anti-smoking ads. However, due to limitation of resources and time, the researcher could not rely on the smoker's memory of anti-smoking ads or could measure the effect of these ads after a certain period (weeks or months) of exposure relied on the immediate response of smokers after they watched anti-smoking ads which were chosen in this study.

In this qualitative research, semi-structured interviews were used, these were divided into three main parts, the first is about general information about participant, history with smoking, their smoking behaviour, and their opinion about anti-smoking materials. In the second part, the participants watched six TV ads and were asked about the believability and effectiveness of these ads. Finally, the third part (main part) required participants to related on their answers in the first and the second part of an interview, about believability and effectiveness and probed them to give justification for them. The last part was run more loosely, and participants were given freedom to talk, and their answers led to the discussion more than the researcher's questions.

Interviewees explanations of how they reacted to these materials in terms of their perceived believability and effectiveness, gave the researcher thick data and deep understanding of how believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking ads vary according to the type of MSV features and level of severity of threat appeals in in turn this importantly facilitated understanding the explanations and meanings behind smoker's perceptions and interpretations regarding believability and effectiveness. Thus ultimately provides insights into how this content may influence perceived believability, which may then impact perceived effectiveness of these ads, as key indicators for actual behavioural changes. On the practical side, preliminary data were collected from a convenience sample of young adult smokers from students of a UK university (University of Hull), since large numbers of university students are, in terms of age, within the two largest age groups of smokers in Britain (20-25, 25-34 years) (ASH, 2017 ; Health and Social Care Information Centre, 2014; Universities UK, 2014).

1.10 Research justification and contribution

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, when he conducted a literature review, no study has been conducted addressing message sensation value features in threatening anti-smoking campaigns adopting a qualitative approach with a phenomenological orientation. Research on MSV on anti-smoking adverts uses other approaches, but not that used in this study (Paek et al. 2010; Niederdeppe, 2005; Helme et al., 2007; Rhodes et al., 2009; Xu, 2015; Choi, 2004). Also, this is the first time DQR-thematic analysis has been used to study how young adult smokers experience and perceive threatening anti-smoking televised adverts that contain MSV features, regarding the perceived believability and effectiveness of such adverts. Two studies use DQR in similar areas but not in threatening anti-smoking adverts with MSV features. Also, those studies use DQR only or with grounded theory, but this study combines thematic analysis and DQR has not been done before in addressing anti-smoking adverts research (Shabbir et al., 2007; Shabbir & Thwaites (2007)). This will bridge a gap in the literature about MSV features in threatening anti-smoking televised adverts and perceived believability and effectiveness. For example, all of the previous studies on the believability of anti-smoking ads just indicate levels of the believability of social advertising and interpret these levels from the researcher's point of view. The informants were not given chance to express their opinions, reasons, and interpretation behind the believability levels that they expressed and how this may play a role in their whole reaction to such advertisements. Therefore, this study, according to researcher knowledge, is the first study interested in the believability of anti-smoking ads, giving a chance to a significant part of the target audience of anti-smoking campaigns (smokers) to show their perceptions of anti-smoking adverts regarding perceived believability and also, to give their justification for their believability variation with different threat appeal and to what extent this may have a role in influencing the behavioural reaction to these ads

Believability is one of the determinants of attitudes and intention to comply with messages of social advertising (e.g. anti-smoking ads) and it makes the social ad more acceptable to recipients and more persuasive. This makes those concepts the most important indicators and determinants of actual behavioural change for smokers when they are exposed to anti-smoking ads. (Beltramini, 1988; Atkin & Beltramini, 2007;

Beltramini, 2006; Beltramini & Sirsi, 1992; Beltramini & Stafford, 1993; Beltramini and Brown, 1994; Beltramini and Evans, 1985; Beltramini et al., 2000; O'Cass, 2002, 2005; Griffin and O'Cass, 2004; O'Cass and Griffin, 2006; Andrews et al., 1990, 1991; Hyman et al., 2014). Therefore, this qualitative study, if the perceived believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking ads with threat appeals which contain commonly utilised MSV features, will be the first to address how smokers perceived and interpreted their reaction to those ads regarding these concepts. Addressing the perceived believability and effectiveness of such anti-smoking ads may help those interested in such campaigns to understand the influence of threatening messages on the level of believability and effectiveness of these ads, which are considered among the critical determinants and indicators of actual behavioural change in the target audience.

Some studies in the field of the believability of anti-smoking ads have found that believability of these ads has an impact on attitudes towards the ads and intention of participants to comply with anti-smoking messages or themes (Griffin and O'Cass, 2004; O'Cass and Griffin, 2006; Andrews et al., 1990, 1991). Some studies (Griffin and O'Cass, 2004; O'Cass, 2005; O'Cass and Griffin, 2006; Atkin and Beltramini, 2007) have recommended further research in this realm to shed more light on variation in the believability of social ads with the content of anti-smoking messages, especially emotional content (threat appeal). Thus could provide better understanding of its importance and influence on attitudes and intention to comply with these messages in different appeals in particular study of the (Pathak et al., 2007) found a significant effect of the content of advertisements fighting the AIDS epidemic on perceived believability. Those studies indicate that this could be done by examining anti-smoking ads believability of different appeals and different health issues.

Therefore, the researcher addresses anti-smoking ads believability with two features not studied before. The first feature is related to message content (MSV features and threat appeals), which essentially aims to evoke fear emotion to grab the recipient's attention and help him or her to process the message thoroughly. To the knowledge of the researcher, this will be the study of the believability of anti-smoking ads that contain MSV features and threat appeals which are commonly used in anti-smoking campaigns. (Morales et al., 2012; Dillard and Anderson, 2004; Hastings et al., 2004; Schneider et al., 2001). For example, in a study by Paek and his colleagues (2010) when they

examined 943 anti-smoking video ads on YouTube, they found that threat appeals were the predominant message strategy in those ads, in addition to some moderate MSV features which are usually accompanied by threat appeals in threatening anti-smoking messages. The second feature is related to the participants; the research focuses only on current young adult smokers. Previous studies interested in the believability of ads that aim to persuade users of substances like tobacco, alcohol or drugs to stop using them included current users, ex-users, non-users and triers. However, this study will include just smokers, as the researcher thought that this group is a significant part of the anti-smoking campaigns audience, especially since, as mentioned before, young adult smokers represent the biggest group of smokers in the UK in recent years.

From the previous discussion, it can be noticed there is an evident lack of marketing literature with respect to the perceived believability and effectiveness of social advertising in anti-smoking campaigns with such content and style. Even though there is a large body of literature concerned about the effectiveness of anti-smoking campaigns, to date, the believability of anti-smoking ads has not yet been investigated with anti-smoking ads that vary in different MSV features, and threat appeals, and the impact of these on the effectiveness of these ads. Also, works by Beltramini and his colleagues and studies of O'Cass and Griffin about believability have contributed significantly to the development of the concept of believability and positioned it on the map of literature in the field of social marketing. However, some of these studies, as well as studies that followed, have suggested examining the impact of the message content (different appeals) on the believability of social advertising messages, but it has not been studied so far.

1.11 Thesis structure

This first chapter has given an overview of the research, including the research background, UK anti-smoking campaigns and televised anti-smoking adverts, which contain MSV and threat appeals. Also, it set out the research aims, method and contribution, with a focus on the relation between MSV features and threat appeals and its role in how smokers react to such content. The second chapter is a review of the literature on the key concepts of MSV, threat appeals, believability and effectiveness. It presented related theories and models that explain how the content and style of anti-smoking adverts impact how smokers experience, perceived and react to them.

In the third chapter, the researcher clarifies methodological issues, explains and justifies his epistemological and ontological positions. Also, he discusses how and why he conducted a pilot study and showed some of its results. Then he explains why qualitative research with a phenomenological orientation which utilises DQR and BASIC IDS framework was used. It is explored how participants were recruited, how anti-smoking adverts were chosen, and interviews conducted. Finally, the process of analysis of the interview data is explained research quality and ethical issues that were considered in the fieldwork are discussed.

The fourth chapter offers clear descriptions of the insights of young adult smokers into their past and present experience with anti-smoking adverts. Including what emotions and feelings such content evoked in smokers and how threatening visual content was perceived in terms of believability and effectiveness, focusing on the structure, effect, and role of MSV features in this type of anti-smoking adverts. These results which were extracted by thematic analysis, are integrated with the DQR and BASIC IDS framework and modalities to reach a comprehensive and clear picture about the young adults' experience, perceptions and reactions to the studied anti-smoking adverts.

The last chapter is the fifth chapter, which includes a discussion of the research results according to research aims and the implications of these results that could be utilised in designing and running future anti-smoking campaigns. The limitations of the research that could affect the results quality, are acknowledged. Finally, the research conclusion is drawn which summarises the research thoughts and results.

Chapter: 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to deliver a foundation for this research by presenting up-to-date the main thoughts, perspectives, and concepts. This research focuses on MSV role and structure in threatening anti-smoking adverts when smokers experience exposure to such adverts (e.g., their feeling and cognitive reaction, also, effectiveness indicators). Therefore, the main concepts in this chapter will be MSV and threat appeals as those represent the content of studied adverts. Believability and effectiveness express attitudes towards those anti-smoking adverts and indicators of behavioural outcomes after exposure to this content. The literature reviewed is that published in the English language, which the researcher obtained from electronic resources from the library of the University of Hull, and Google scholar. The search in those sources was about related topics such as anti-smoking adverts, threat and fear appeals in anti-smoking adverts, MSV in areas such as anti-drug, safe driving, and anti-smoking adverts, also the believability and effectiveness of adverts in anti-smoking campaigns and similar topics. The literature will be about these concepts, the relationships between them, and how this helps to achieve the research aims.

This research studies threatening anti-smoking adverts content and how smokers experience, perceive and react to this content (e.g. their feeling and cognitive reaction also, effectiveness indicators). In addition, the research clarifies for the first time the relationship between topics more or less closely related to each other, like MSV in anti-smoking adverts that use threat appeal as context and how smokers react to such content in terms of feelings, believability and effectiveness. To set these themes in context, this chapter will review related up-to-date literature that explains how threat appeals and MSV interact with each other in anti-smoking adverts and the behavioural outcomes, which are perceived believability and perceived effectiveness of these adverts. Moreover, some empirical work from critical studies in the study area that shows main thoughts, results and criticisms related to these concepts will be presented.

2.2 Threat Appeal

Advertising appeal refers to the approach used to grab the attention of the audience and influence their feelings toward a product, service, or cause (Belch & Belch 2004). Famously, advertising appeals are divided into a rational appeal, which focuses on information and logical argument in the advert message and emotional appeal, which is trying to evoke an emotional response in the target audience. Kotler and Zaltman (1971) divided the emotional appeal into positive appeal and negative appeal. Positive appeal arouses feelings of love, humour, pride and pleasure while negative appeal produces feelings of threat, guilt, and shame.

Social marketing campaigns often use negative emotional appeals in an attempt to encourage compliant behaviour from the public about issues like road safety, smoking cessation, early detection of cancer and AIDS (Brennan & Binney, 2010; Cohen et al., 2007). For more than sixty years, fear or threat appeals have been used commonly as a persuasion technique in health promotion campaigns, in order to grab attention, and to highlight the disadvantages of continuing in a particular behaviour (e.g. smoking) or costs of not adopting a particular behaviour (physical activity for example) in an attempt to convince the audience to change their attitudes in favour of recommended behaviour. This may, in turn, encourage them to make the desired behavioural changes (Morales et al., 2012; Dillard & Anderson, 2004; Hastings et al., 2004; Schneider et al., 2001; Biener et al., 2000).

The terms fear appeals and threat appeals in related literature are used interchangeably or as synonyms (Thompson et al., 2009; Kohn et al., 1982). However, some authors consider them as different concepts; for example, some argue that fear is an emotional response while the perception of threat is a cognitive response (Witte & Allen, 2000). Others consider the term fear expresses an emotion felt by an individual, a reaction from an audience member, whereas threat refers to a message attribute and may or may not result in fear (O'Keefe, 2003; Witte, 1992). Moreover, some define fear as an emotional response to a threat that explicitly or implicitly leads to some danger (Tanner et al., 1991). Also, Witte defined fear in the original Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) as "a negatively-valenced emotion, accompanied by a high level of arousal" and as something that is "elicited by a threat that is perceived to be significant and personally relevant" (Witte, 1992: 331). Fear is an emotional response

to a threat that expresses some danger (Laroche et al., 2001). However, some are still confused about the direction of the relationship between the two concepts because they do not know whether recipients perceive a threat which generates fear of negative consequences, or the recipient becomes fearful and consequently perceives a threat (Schmitt & Blass, 2008; Cummings, 2012). All of this makes some authors consider a threat and fear strongly related: the higher the perceived threat, the higher the amount of fear experienced (Witte, 1992; Witte & Allen, 2000). Moreover, this led them to believe that the more accurate term in the social advertising realm, especially in the anti-smoking context, is threat appeal rather than fear appeal, because threat appeal refers to certain message features, while fear is one of the possible emotional responses to threat in the advert (Donovan et al., 1995; Donovan & Henley, 1997; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997).

Based on this ground, when threat appeal is mentioned, this also means, what is known in the literature as a fear appeal. In this research, threat appeal is defined as “persuasive messages designed to scare people by describing the terrible things that will occur to them if they do not do what the message recommends” (Witte, 1992:329). It is also defined as messages designed to arouse fear by describing the negative consequences that individuals will experience unless they stop risky behaviours and/or enacts, preventive behaviours, or messages which cause fear, focusing on the severity and probability of occurrence of a threat, to induce adherence to a recommended action (Witte, 1992, 1994). From the definition of fear appeal, it can be seen why most of the related literature uses a definition of fear appeal and may mean threat appeal; fear appeal can be defined as ‘persuasive communication attempting to arouse fear in order to promote precautionary motivation and self-protective action’ (Ruiter et al., 2001, p. 614).

Thus, the point of view adopted in this research looking at threats in advertising that illustrate undesirable consequences from certain behaviours (e.g. smoking) is that fear is a potentially emotional response to threats. Therefore, threat appeal refers to a source of fear, the message content (message features), and fear refers to the audience reaction, more precisely the emotional response (feeling of fear) (Lewis et al., 2007; Cauberghe et al., 2009). Thus, although, as mentioned before, fear and threat appeal have been used interchangeably by some writers, the two are conceptually different, as fear is a

possible response to a threatening stimulus (Lewis et al., 2007). Fear is emotion, and the threat is cognition or the former is a response, the latter is a stimulus. The higher the perceived threat, the higher the amount of fear experienced (Witte & Allen, 2000) but at the same time, they are intricately and reciprocally related. Perhaps these definitions will clear any ambiguities between the two concepts. Fear is “a negatively valenced emotion, accompanied by a high level of arousal” (Witte & Allen, 2000: 591). Thus, it is an emotional response to threats; those threats are messages that “illustrate undesirable consequences of certain behaviours and fear is a potentially emotional response to threats” (Cauberghe et al., 2008: 277).

Fear emotion is just one of many expected emotions that may be evoked when the audience member experiences exposure to threatening messages that illustrate negative results and consequences of engaging in undesirable behaviour, in the hope that they will try to avoid it and adjust or change their attitudes and behaviours towards the behaviour recommended in the message (Lewis et al., 2007; Dickinson-Delaporte and Holmes, 2011; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997). Accordingly, in this research, the term threat appeal will be used even though in many places, a fear appeal is the term commonly used in most related literature. However, in this research, threat appeal represents the message content features and fear is an emotion that may be evoked when the recipient is exposed to such messages. Over more than sixty years, research on threat (fear) appeals has identified three major independent variables in this field: fear, perceived threat and perceived efficacy (Witte & Allen, 2000). Fear is an unpleasant emotional state triggered by the perception of threatening adverts (Lennon & Rentfro, 2010). The threat is an external stimulus that creates a perception in message receivers that they are susceptible to some negative situation or outcome (Stiff & Mongeau, 2003:148). Perceived efficacy is a person’s belief that a message recommendation can be implemented by the recipient and will effectively reduce the threat depicted in the message (Gore et al., 1998). Some have argued that threat appeals will be more effective when they contain both high levels of threat and high levels of efficacy. Therefore, a persuasive message needs to contain significant threat and efficacy information, which gives specific directions that inform the recipient about adaptive behavioural responses, which the recipient could make to reduce the threat (Williams, 2012; Nabi et al., 2008).

2.2.1 Processing threat appeals

Since the 1950s, it has been believed that the more fear a campaign evokes, the higher the chance the recommended behaviours will be adopted (Williams, 2012). Empirical studies support a direct positive relationship between fear and persuasion. Fear is a consequence of perceived threat and probability of occurrence, and the more threat/fear is produced, greater the persuasion (Dillard and Huang, 2016; Strong et al., 1993). However, in the conceptual framework of marketing, threat stimuli lead to the following mediating variables, listed in order of occurrence: (1) perceived threat; (2) objective-cognitive and subjective-emotional processing; (3) beliefs and feelings; (4) attitudes toward the threat, the recommendation, and alternative coping options; and (5) intentions. The outcome variable is behaviours (Strong et al., 1993).

The two most popular conceptual frameworks widely used for explaining the effect of fear appeals on behaviour are the extended parallel process model (EPPM) (Witte, 1994) and Protection Motivation Theory (Rogers, 1975). These models presume that when individuals are exposed to a threat appeals message, two simultaneous message appraisal processes occur: threat appraisal and coping appraisal. Threat appraisal is done in two steps. The first is an evaluation of the severity of the threat, which reflects the recipient's belief about the seriousness of the threat. The second is an evaluation of the recipient's susceptibility to the threat, which expresses the individual's belief of the likelihood that he will experience the threat (severity and susceptibility represent the level of threat perceived by the audience) (Cauberghe et al., 2009; Wong & Cappella, 2009). The coping appraisal consists of both efficacy and self-efficacy. Efficacy is the individual's expectancy that following recommendations can avoid the threat. Self-efficacy is the belief in one's ability to perform the recommended behaviour successfully (efficacy and self-efficacy represent the perceived level of efficacy of the message) (Rogers, 1983; Williams, 2012).

According to the EPPM, the evaluation of a threat appeal initiates two appraisals of the message, which result in one of three outcomes. First, individuals appraise the threat of an issue from a message. The more individuals believe they are susceptible to a severe threat, the more motivated they are to begin the second appraisal, which is an evaluation of the efficacy of the recommended response. If the threat is perceived as

irrelevant or insignificant (i.e., low perceived threat), then there is no motivation to process the message further, and people ignore the fear appeal (Witte & Allen, 2000: 594).

It is commonly assumed that threat appeals work only when both efficacy and threat are sufficiently high. Threat and efficacy levels vary among audiences for any given behaviour, which will result in different reactions. If the threat and efficacy are low, individuals could be indifferent. If the threat is high, but the efficacy is low, individuals can be avoidant. If the threat is low, but efficacy is high, individuals can be proactive. If threat and efficacy are high, individuals can be responsive (Peters et al., 2013). Two meta-analyses of studies about using threat in social campaigns reported a significant interaction between threat and efficacy, meaning that both threat and efficacy have effect only when they are both high. Such a condition may lead to positive changes in attitudes, intention, and behaviour. However, some have found that a high threat message resulted in fear reactions, regardless of whether efficacy was high or low. (Peters et al., 2013; Carey et al., 2013; Witte & Allen, 2000).

Further, a high threat message influenced the accessibility of participants' attitudes toward the threat, regardless of the level of efficacy (Roskos-Ewoldsen et al., 2004; Arthur & and Quester, 2004; Cauberghe et al., 2009; de Hoog et al., 2005; de Hoog et al., 2007; de Hoog et al., 2008; Wolburg, 2009). Furthermore, some studies have found that threat appeals are successful means to induce an individual to accept a message and follow an action recommendation (Crano & Prison, 2006; Das et al., 2003; de Hoog et al., 2008; Gerend & Maner, 2011; Perloff, 1993; Umeh, 2012). Results of many meta-analyses of studies about threat appeal (Witte & Allen, 2000; Ruiter et al., 2014; Tannenbaum et al., 2015) have confirmed that strong threat appeals resulted in persuasive effects and high possibilities of behaviour change, as long as threat was accompanied by an elevated feeling of severity of threat and personal susceptibility to it. This is especially so with message content that creates high perceptions of efficacy among the audience, specifically, when the audience is presented with a recommended response that they believe they are capable of performing (Carey & Sarma, 2016; McCloud et al., 2017; Ruiter et al., 2014; Thompson et al., 2009; Bécheur et al., 2007). Also, those studies found that effects of threat appeal in such messages seem to follow two patterns: (1) outcomes related to acceptance of the message's recommendations

(i.e., attitudes, intentions, behaviours in line with the recommendations) and (2) outcomes related to rejection of the message (i.e., defensive avoidance, reactance, denial).

According to the EPPM, threat appeal persuades recipients to act towards the threat source (smoking for example). At the same time, efficacy appraisal determines the direction of that action, i.e., whether it is danger control or fear control. Moreover, threat appeal motivates the target audience to process the message. Results of empirical studies have confirmed that high-threat messages produce greater effects on persuasion than low-threat messages, even when those messages lack efficacy. Besides, threat appeal seems to be effective when evoking fear emotion and increases the perception of severity and susceptibility (Witte & Allen, 2000; Cauberghe et al., 2009). In an anti-smoking context, it has been found that the proper appeal of advertisements in anti-smoking campaigns is the threat appeal (Cohen et al., 2007; Wong & Cappella, 2009; Smith & Stutts, 2003). According to the EPPM, an adequate amount of threat is an important condition for motivating further action toward the source of the threat, which may ultimately lead to smoking cessation intention (Ordonana et al., 2009). Specifically, regarding appeals related to smoking cessation, previous research has demonstrated that anti-smoking ads describing the severe health consequences of smoking in an emotionally arousing way (e.g. arousing fear) are perceived as effective by smokers.

Some have found that threatening anti-smoking messages attract attention and persuade the target audience to process such messages further, then they may subsequently change their behaviour when their fears are activated, especially when they feel vulnerable to the depicted threats and perceive effective coping strategies which those ads told them about (Ferguson & Phau, 2013; Schneider et al., 2012; Lewis et al., 2007). Fear emotion seems to play a vital role in accepting the theme of the message and reacting favourably to threatening anti-smoking ads. Recent studies reveal that the more fearsome anti-smoking messages were, the more messages were accepted by young adults. The stronger the fear provoked, the more effective the message is in reducing behavioural intention to smoke (Chung et al., 2016; Karpinsky, 2014). Also, meta-analytical evidence found that both severity and susceptibility are positively related with message acceptance (Lewis et al., 2007) which means that

adaptive coping response considers that the health message is accepted as a result of cognitive processes (Dickinson & Holmes, 2008; Manyiwa & Brennan, 2012).

2.2.2 The threat, fear, and effectiveness (persuasion)

As mentioned before, the feeling of fear may be considered as a potential emotional response to the threat which illustrates the undesirable consequences of certain behaviours such as smoking (Cauberghe et al., 2009: 277). It has been found that anti-smoking messages which contain visual images that graphically depict death and disease caused by smoking increase emotional response to messages. In particular, fear, anger and sadness emotions (Biener et al., 2005). Based on the fact that threat appeals may evoke fear, the audience could use this evoked emotion to scrutinise a message because they believe it may contain valuable and relevant information, leading to more systematic processing of message information (Cauberghe et al., 2009).

Fear is a basic emotion, elicited as a defensive response to a specific, immediate threat (Quinn & Fanselow, 2006; Woody & Teachman, 2000). Within the context of threat appeal studies, researchers suggest that fear arousal is prompted by a threatening stimulus, creating a negative emotional state (Ruiter, 2009; Abraham and Kok, 2001). It is crucial to clearly distinguish between the threat-based stimulus that aims to generate an emotional response and the psychological fear response itself. Authors recommend that this be addressed by clearly differentiating between emotional tone (a feature of the stimulus) and emotional experience (a feature of the response). So, perceptions of threat are a cognitive response to a threat appeal, and fear is one possible emotional response to a threat appeal, as outlined in EPPM (Witte, 1992). The threat is an appeal to fear, “a communication message that attempts to evoke a fear response by showing the consequences of a particular behaviour that the audience should avoid” (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997: 46). Therefore, the threat is a message variable, such as the possibility of getting cancer from cigarette smoking, and fear is an emotional response variable to the threat (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997; Witte, 1992). Therefore, it can be said that threat appeals are messages that contain horrific content and elicit a negative emotion, including fear, and fear is a negative valence emotion accompanied by a high physiological or self-reported arousal. The role of threat in adverts is to help the recipient perceive a threat, and then begin to think about the severity of the threat and the susceptibility of himself or herself to the threat.

Some studies revealed that threat and fear are strongly associated; the higher the perceived threat, the higher the amount of fear experienced (Witte, 1992; Witte & Allen, 2000). Accordingly, previous research on fear and threat appeals has linked fear intensity with persuasion; if the fear is too low, it may not be recognised, but if it reaches a threshold that is too high, the individual may have denial and avoidance reaction (Williams, 2012; Dillard & Anderson, 2004). A robust graphic threat appeal in anti-smoking ads, with perceived severity of the threat, the perceived probability of occurrence, evoked fear and perceived coping efficacy has a significant effect on the intention to adopt the recommended behaviour (De Pelsmacker et al., 2011:171). Such a result indicates that antismoking advertisements containing threat appeals affect smoking cessation intentions, whereby a high level of message threat leads to a higher smoking cessation intention than a low level of message threat. (Tannenbaum et al., 2015; de Hoog et al., 2008; Witte et al. 1996; Witte & Allen, 2000). However, some studies indicate that shocking or high levels of threat appeal may backfire on the audience perception, while realistic threat appeals or informative threat appeals might have greater effect than strong threat appeals (Ferguson & Phau, 2013; Manyiwa & Brennan, 2012; Arora, 2000; Peters et al., 2013). Alternatively, some studies even found no effect of threat appeal on behaviour outcomes (de Hoog et al., 2007).

Threat appeal messages in an anti-smoking context, are mainly seeking to evoke fear emotion in the target audience by firstly describing the severity of undesirable effects of harmful behaviour (i.e. smoking) by intense graphics, which show the effects of smoking in the short and long term, the smoker, and people around him or her (family, friends and children etc.). Such illustration may make the target audience feel vulnerable to the negative effects of continuing with harmful behaviour and think that the negative effects of risky behaviour will occur to her or him personally. Emotional tension – according to some models - is a significant condition for threat appeal to induce persuasion (Das et al., 2003). In some studies, vulnerability was the main predictor of processing the messages, which in turn, resulted in stronger intentions to adopt the recommended behaviour. Also, meta-analysis has shown that messages that state the negative consequences of a certain behaviour are effective (De Hoog et al., 2007). The Health Belief Model (HBM), Stage Model, Parallel Process Model (PPM), and Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) suggest that when a message audience is exposed to a threat (i.e., depicted fear), resulting feelings of vulnerability lead them

to evaluate whether or not to adopt the message's recommendations, which may protect them from the threat-related negative consequences (Witte & Allen, 2000; Tannenbaum et al., 2015). Hence, threat appeals seem to be more effective when they depict a significant and relevant threat (e.g. when they increase perceptions of severity and vulnerability) which results in fear perception and, consequently, lead the recipient to react in the way which reduces the threat.

2.2.3 Threat appeal in anti-smoking ads

Most anti-smoking advertisements in the UK that try to persuade the target audience (smokers and non-smokers) to not initiate or to stop smoking rely on fear and negative emotions through threatening the audience by illustrating smoking consequences, called threat (fear) appeal. It was believed that social ads with strong and believable negative emotional appeal might evoke fear emotion, which may lead to more attention and recall, and enhance the effectiveness of the ads (Schar et al., 2006). The most common difference between types of smoking threat appeals is between physical threat appeal and social threat appeal (Dickenson et al., 2011; Witte, 1994; Sternthal and Craig, 1974). Some assert that physical threats are used more regularly than social threats because injuries that may threaten the life or quality of life were assumed to be more persuasive than social threats (e.g. social rejection) (Reid & King, 1986).

Threat appeals literature defines it according to four components that should exist in any advert:

1. The threats are presented by using vivid language or graphics which portray significant personal threat.
2. There is a focus on negative physical, psychological, or social consequences of a threat if individuals engage in harmful behaviour.
3. These threat appeals should make people experience fear emotion as they aim to scare people.
4. There are recommendations on how to reduce or eliminate the negative consequences, which means that these consequences are avoidable (Witte, 1992, 1994; Algie & Rossiter, 2010; Spence & Moinpour, 1972).

A. Physical threat appeals

In this type, the ads have content and themes which focus on damage to individual body organs or the health harm of smoking by presenting vivid or graphic images. The threats in these ads vary from low threat appeals such as cosmetic effects (e.g. yellow teeth) or short-term effects like effects making the person feel less fit, to terrible types of deadly and painful cancer, which lead eventually to death. This type of threat appeal is a dominant theme in anti-smoking ads (Smith & Stutts, 2003). Many studies have found that anti-smoking ads use physical threat appeal, which can capture attention, evoke fear emotion, and help the audience to perceive the threat, and these had the strongest and most consistent effect on appraisal, recall, and effectiveness. Also, a message with a strong graphic threat message leads to increased perception of the threat and its severity and strengthens smokers' intention to stop smoking when a fear response mediates it (Dahl et al., 2003; Terry-McElrath et al., 2005; Lennon & Rentfro, 2010; Leshner et al., 2010; Sabanne et al., 2009; De Pelsmacker et al., 2011; Kees et al., 2010; Jónsdóttir et al., 2013).

B. Social threat appeals

Messages with social threat appeals, especially in the content of anti-smoking ads, will include themes such as social rejection or children coping with their parent or the threat to their health by second-hand smoking, which are low social threat and loss of father or mother which is a high social threat appeal. This kind of threat help adolescents and adults, more than physical threat appeal, to adopt the coping response to anti-smoking ads and is more believable (Strong et al., 1993; Ferguson & Phau, 2013; Dickinson & Holmes, 2008).

C. Death threat appeals

This kind of threat appeal usually falls within physical threat appeals. However, studies of Johnson and LaTour (1991); Taubman-Ben-Ari, (2000) and Henley and Donovan, (2003) have explicitly acknowledged the use of death threats. Those messages indicate smoking consequences related to death itself, such as the subject's death, slow, painful death, premature death, dying a painful death, missing out on a full life, opportunities, and events in the future, which will affect loved ones left behind (Henley and Donovan, 2003). Some studies revealed that when the advert focuses on deadly consequences of

harmful behaviour, this will generate tension and elicit fear, both of which generate persuasion (LaTour and Pitts, 1989). Also, some have found that death threat appeals are effective with young people, too, in contrast to the common idea that young people feel immortal (Henley and Donovan, 2003).

2.2.4 Models and theories of threat appeal

Many fear and threat appeal models and theories have been suggested to explain how threat appeals work and how they affect the behaviour outcomes of recipients. Witte and Allen (2000) classified them into three main groups: drive response models, parallel response models and protection motivation theory. The first group suggest that the relationship between fear and attitude change takes an inverted U-shape, where a moderate amount of fear can have the most significant impact on attitudes, beyond which level it becomes counterproductive (Janis 1967; McGuire 1968). As for parallel response models, they distinguish between emotional and cognitive processes, arguing that these factors act independently to mediate behaviour. These models posit that emotional factors cope with the threat being presented, while cognitive factors determine any behavioural changes (Leventhal 1970). Finally, Protection motivation theories have a cognitive focus and suggest a four-way interaction between dimensions of the threat (severity and susceptibility) and efficacy (response efficacy – belief that the recommended behaviour can prevent the threat – and self-efficacy – confidence in one’s ability to accomplish the recommended behaviour) (Rogers 1985). Some contemporary and widely adopted and accepted theories in relation to threatening social advertising messages which are relevant to the current research are reviewed below and are ordered according to the three groups of models mentioned above except for Terror Management Theory.

A famous ancestor of many fear and threat models is the fear-as-acquired drive model (Hovland et al., 1953). According to this model, a sufficient level of fear is required to motivate action. This amount should be enough that fear can be eliminated by adopting the recommended responses. Also, this model suggests a curvilinear relationship between fear and behaviour change. Thus, a moderate amount of fear will lead to the most considerable behaviour change. In contrast, too little fear will not provide enough motivation to adopt the desired response and too much fear will lead to rejection of the message (Hovland et al., 1953; Witte et al., 2001).

The role of fear in this model is to make the recipient learn to reduce the fear because of threat and be motivated to reduce the state of fear by taking a specific action. If this action results in a reduction of the unpleasant state (feeling fear), then this action becomes a usual response to confront the threat. Therefore, at any time in the future the individual is faced with a similar threat, they would resort to the usual response, because of the rewards it offers in the form of reduced fear (Hovland et al.1953). In this research regarding the relationship between threat and fear and the results of their interaction on behaviour outcomes, just three models will be adopted. Which could give explanations for such relationships and interactions. The first is the parallel response model, the second is the protection motivation theory and the third is terror management theory.

2.2.4.1 Parallel response model

This model is the first model developed to test people's perceptions and responses to threat appeal. Evaluation of threat will work here as a mediator between threat appeal and behaviour outcomes. This cognitive assessment of risk leads to two parallel processes, danger control and fear control. The first process focuses on reducing or preventing the threat, and the second focuses on reducing the negative emotion (i.e. fear) by avoiding the message or denial of the threat, to produce a feeling of comfort. Therefore, the first process deals with the source of threat by complying with the behaviour recommended in the message, but the second is to try to generate reassuring feelings, although the source of the threat still exists. Both processes happen in parallel. However, fear control is related directly to reducing the negative emotion (fear) via cognitive appraisal, whereas the danger control process might occur whether the fear emotion is felt or not. Even though this model provided an essential theoretical foundation of other similar models, yet, it was subject to criticism, for example, how to determine which conditions will lead to danger or fear control. Such criticisms led other scholars in this realm to revise this model and use its constructs to produce others to address its shortcomings (de Hoog et al., 2007; Leventhal, 1970).

The most popular and dominant model nowadays for explaining how people react when exposed to threat appeals messages and the effect of that on behaviour results is the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) Witte (1992). This model explains when and why threat appeals are effective and when and why they are not. This model

derives many of its constructs from three previous fear models: the fear as-acquired drive model (Hovland et al., 1953), the parallel process model (Leventhal, 1970), and protection motivation theory (PMT; Rogers, 1975, 1983). It is about how cognitive and emotional processing occurs when the target audience faces threat appeals.

According to the EPPM, threat appeals work most effectively when feelings of the severity of the threat (one's perception that if the potential negative outcome occurs, it will be serious) are combined with susceptibility (feelings of being vulnerable to this threat) and this will motivate to an action (response or not). Self-efficacy is one's ability to perform the recommended behaviour, and response efficacy is the ability of that behaviour to deter risk. Therefore, efficacy perception will determine the direction of that action. To be more precise, according to the two appraisals, the audience will follow one of two separate pathways: danger control processes or fear control processes, respectively (Witte et al., 2001). When perceived threat and efficacy are high, individuals will use adaptive coping mechanisms and respond in the way of danger control; that is; they will look for possible solutions to avert the threat. In contrast of their perceived threat is high, but self-efficacy or response efficacy is low, individuals will adopt a fear control response. In this case, they will let their emotions take over and try to ease their fears by other psychological strategies such as denial, reactance, or avoidance (Gore & Bracken, 2005). EPPM suggests that the more a recipient believes that he or she is susceptible to a severe threat, the more motivated he/she is to begin the next appraisal, which is an evaluation of the efficacy of the recommended response. If the threat is perceived as irrelevant or low, then there is no motivation to process the message further, and people ignore the threat appeal (Witte & Allen, 2000: 594). Based on this, EPPM considers that enough threat is necessary to persuade the audience to process the message content and act, which may lead to adopting the behaviour recommended in the messages (i.e. message acceptance) (Gore & Bracken, 2005; Witte, 1992).

2.2.4.2 The health belief model

Similar to Parallel response models models, this model posits that the possibility of individuals adopting healthy behaviour (i.e. stopping smoking) depends on to what extent they perceive the severity of negative consequences (threats) of harm behaviour and believe that they are vulnerable to such threat personally (Becker, 1974). Therefore,

individuals will engage in behaviour that will reduce the threat if they believe that they are susceptible to threat, the threat could lead to severe consequences, and the individual is able to take an action (desire behaviour) that could be of benefit in reducing their susceptibility to or the severity of the threat, and at the same time perceived costs are outweighed by benefits and are not strong enough to prevent such action i.e. stop smoking (Glanz et al., 2008: 77). The HBM posits that six constructs predict health behaviour: risk susceptibility, risk severity, benefits to action, barriers to action, self-efficacy, and cues to action (Becker, 1974; Champion & Skinner, 2008; Rosenstock, 1974).

Accordingly the model suggests that smokers will take action to prevent bad consequences of smoking if they regard themselves as susceptible to a condition (perceived susceptibility), if they believe it would have potentially serious consequences (perceived severity), if they believe that a particular course of action available to them (stopping smoking) would reduce the susceptibility or severity or lead to other positive outcomes (perceived benefits) such as saving money, prevent health damage, and if they perceive few negative attributes related to the health action (perceived barriers) like addiction, peer pressure and enjoying smoking (Jones et al., 2015). But there are cues to action, which are tools to activate the readiness such as anti-smoking campaigns and, more precisely a certain type of anti-smoking advert (Champion and Skinner, 2008).

2.2.4.3 Protection motivation theories

The Protection Motivation Theory (Rogers, 1975) is similar to EPPM in many respects. It suggests that two perceptions arouse an individual's motivations to protect themselves from threat: threat appraisal severity of threat and vulnerability to threat, and coping appraisal (self-efficacy to adopt the recommended behaviour, and response efficacy to prevent the threat). Besides the cost of harmful behaviour and benefits of choosing the recommended behaviour, the EPPM adds threat appraisal, and PMT adds coping appraisal. Those two processes will affect the recipients' intention to comply with threatening messages. This model posits that people are motivated to engage in the desired behaviour to reduce the health and social threats that could happen if they continue harmful behaviour (Pechmann et al., 2003; Rogers, 1975). Tanner et al (1991)

proposed an ordered approach based on motivation extending the account of the protection motivation yet further.

This model states that fear plays a role in the threat appraisal process. When the level of fear increases, the attention to a threat will increase too. Besides, it also considers coping appraisal when threat and a coping appraisal are both high, will lead to greater adaptive behaviour intention (Eppright et al., 1994). Tanner and his colleagues (1991) sought to improve PMT in their ordered protection motivation model (OPM) by emphasising the emotions involved in the process and suggesting that appraisal mechanisms are more likely to occur sequentially. Also, they clarify maladaptive coping behaviours and include the social context of danger into the model because adaptive behaviours are influenced by norms (Ritland & Rodriguez, 2014). They assume a linear relationship between fear and appraisal, whereby threat appeals would trigger emotional responses and encourage cognitive processes that eventually affect behaviour (Tanner et al., 1991). Therefore, even though in some cases, fear fails to make any changes in the behaviour of the target audience, nevertheless, recipients are still able to process threat appeals and adopt desirable behaviour. Still, threat appraisals must make the audience experience fear emotion in order to allow coping appraisals to occur (Ritland & Rodriguez, 2014).

2.2.4.4 Terror Management Theory (TMT)

TMT is based on the idea that human beings understand that their mortality is inevitable but have an innate desire to live and survive at the same time. When they are reminded of these ideas and facts, it will generate conflict and potential terror or anxiety. To manage and ease those feelings, human beings usually adopt a defence mechanism to understand their mortality. Two primary constructs of this theory are the anxiety buffer and the mortality salience. The first states that an individual's awareness of their mortality is managed by dual mechanisms of cultural worldviews

and self-esteem. The second suggests that, when reminded of their death, people will dynamically defend their cultural worldviews.

Cultural worldviews are an effective way of protecting people from the idea of death. They may include religious and social values etc. These values are "humanly created and transmitted beliefs about the nature of reality shared by groups of individuals" (Greenberg et al., 1997: 65). The role of cultural worldviews is to act as buffers against death anxiety and the cultural belief system will provide people with a sense of the significance (self-esteem) of individuals who share and meet the absolute values of society. Individuals then will engage in behaviours that give them a sense of significance, make meaning of their lives, and reduce the effect of death-related thoughts and anxiety (Hunt & Shehryar, 2011).

The other strategy is the easy way, which is a defensive reaction to a death threat by denying susceptibility to risks and threats that may lead to death. Moreover, people may think danger and risk will not happen now, but in the distant future. This model expects that people might tend to increase their self-esteem when they are faced with mortality thoughts in campaigns that emphasise mortality-related risks which result from risky health behaviour. Such campaigns can make mortality salient, and this in turn, will encourage them to engage in healthy behaviours if they are beneficial for self-esteem (Greenberg et al., 1997).

2.2.4.5 Summary

In simple words, these models all try to explain when and why threat appeals in social advertising and health promotion campaigns are effective and when and why they are not. From the theories above, it will be noticed that the Protection Motivation Theory (Rogers 1975, 1983) and the OPM (Tanner et al. 1991) share most of their constructs with EPPM. They assume that when the audience faces a threat in social advertising, it will evoke a range of discrete emotions. However, in those models, the target emotion to be elicited is fear emotion. When the recipient perceives the severity of threats and feels vulnerable to such threats, this feeling leads them to consider whether to comply with the ad's messages, which will save them from the negative consequences of threats. In this case, the threat appeal will be effective (de Hoog et al., 2007; Witte & Allen, 2000). However, high levels of fear emotion may lead to fear

control and reactance, defensive avoidance, and maladaptive behaviour (De Pelsmacker et al., 2011). Results of many studies have revealed that both threat appraisal and emotional fear responses could determine adaptive behaviours separately. Based on this, identifying the effect of threat appeal on perceiving a threat, evoking fear and the effect of this on the believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking ads is important and worthy of study (Arthur & Quester, 2004; Cauberghe et al., 2009; de Hoog et al., 2005; Wolburg, 2009).

Empirical evidence from EPPM and PMT revealed that threat appeals produce both danger and fear control responses. The stronger the threat in a message, the more motivated individuals appear to be to process the message (Witte & Allen, 2000). In other words, those models, especially PMT, the EPPM and the OPM model, describe how cognitive appraisal factors impact the processing of threat appeals. (In this research we will focus on the type of threat and level of threat “severity and susceptibility” and believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking ad represent the message efficacy). This raises questions about whether this process will result in danger and fear control responses.

Moreover, how might threat appeal motivate changing audience attitudes, intention and behaviour as aspects of the message acceptance? (Panic et al., 2014). As for the TMT model, some researchers have suggested that some threatening messages (in anti-smoking and road safety campaigns) with death-related content could play a key role in determining the audience response. Therefore, TMT will consider a particular type of threat appeal which is death appeal, because most of the threat appeals in anti-smoking are about physical and social consequences of smoking, even though they might mention death (Carey, 2014; Biener et al., 2005).

2.3 Message sensation value (MSV)

2.3.1 Background and definition

The advertisers in the areas of health promotion and combatting substances abuse, like anti-smoking, anti-drinking and driving, or safe sex, use several tactics to grab the target audiences' attention, which could help them to process those messages and comply with them. As aforementioned, many studies indicate that using fear/threat appeal in such messages by showing many of the negative consequences which could happen if they engage in harmful behaviour is an effective way to convey anti-smoking messages and make the target audience respond in a favourable manner. However, questions arise like, to what level should the fear be evoked to make those messages more effective? What fear tactics should be adopted when anti-smoking campaigns focus on a specific audience? What levels of fear and threat make the target audience avoid the message and have a counter-effect? According to some models (e.g. the Activation Model of Information Exposure), the message sensation value (MSV) technique may represent the attention-getting and arousal-enhancing mechanism of such messages, which helps the target audience to make deep processing of these adverts and enhance the effectiveness of such messages, for example anti-smoking and anti-marijuana messages (Niederdeppe, 2005; Rhodes.et.al, 2009; Kang et al., 2006). MSV has a relation with attention and arousal, which results in greater message processing and more favourable evaluations (Xu, 2015).

Message sensation value was first examined in anti-drug campaigns that targeted adolescents (Donohew et al., 1991), and used as a group of features that could independently or in combination serve as an attention-catching mechanism in such adverts (Zuckerman & Kuhlman, 2000; Kang, 2006). This concept is also examined in similar areas of health issues and risky behaviours, like anti-smoking, anti-drinking driving and safe sex (Noar, et al. 2010; Rhodes.et.al, 2009; Rhodes, 2015). It has been defined as “the degree to which formal and content audio-visual features of a televised message elicit sensory, effective, and arousal responses” (Palmgreen et al., 1991: 219). Practically, MSV has been defined as a set of message structural features supposed to elicit higher arousal (Kang & Capella, 2006). The variation in message features, in terms of presence or absence of some of them, divides messages into high sensation messages and low sensation messages. Usually, high sensation messages are novel,

creative, unpredictable, exciting, dramatic, fast-paced, intense, and arousing (Donohew et al., 1999; Lorch et al., 1994; Palmgreen et al., 2001; Stephenson et al., 1999). In general, MSV provides a reasonable base to know how health promotion messages, features could affect message processing and expected behaviour outcomes when audiences are exposed to such messages.

2.3.2 Message features and recipient traits

The idea of congruence between the message attributes (structure and content features) and recipient traits (level of sensation seeking) emerges from the Activation Model of Information Exposure (AMIE). This model posits that exposure is a function of the interaction between an individual's level of sensation seeking and perceived message sensation value (PMSV) of the message attributes (Donohew et al., 1998). Sensation seeking is 'an individual trait characterised by a desire for stimuli with high levels of novelty, ambiguity, complexity, and intensity' (Van Stee et al., 2012:1569). Individuals have biologically-based optimal levels of activation or arousal that they most desire and expect information exposure to achieve or maintain this optimal state. If a message does not elicit this optimal state, audiences are likely to turn away and seek another source of stimulation to help them achieve their desired state. The match between the individual's ideal arousal level and sensation value of the messages determines in part the resulting attention and other persuasive outcomes to the stimulus (Xu, 2017).

Consistency of message features with the sensation-seeking capability of the recipient will result in favourable processing of the message and effective response to it. MSV features have been shown to interact with sensation seeking in the target audience (adolescents and young adults), which could predict the persuasiveness of campaign adverts to combat substance abuse. Some studies have found that individuals who are high sensation seekers need such complex, novel, emotionally intense stimuli. Messages high in sensation value are usually (a) novel, creative, or unusual; (b) complex; (c) intense stimuli that are emotionally powerful or physically arousing; (d) graphic or explicit; (e) somewhat ambiguous; (f) unconventional; (g) fast-paced; and (h) suspenseful (Everett & Palmgreen, 1995; Palmgreen & Donohew, 2003; Palmgreen et al., 2001; Stephenson et al., 1999). Such messages usually attract the attention of young age groups such as youth, adolescents, and young adults

(Niederdeppe, 2005, Doran et al., 2011, Stephenson & Palmgreen, 2001; Kang et al., 2006; Rhodes et.al, 2009; Schweitzer, 2011). Sensation-seeking in most people reaches a peak in the late teens and early 20s and then declines with age (Zuckerman, 1994; Rhodes et al., 2009; Lang et al., 2005). Such an audience enjoys more novelty and wants intense sensations and experiences, and has a stronger willingness to take risks for these experiences, compared to low sensation-seeking (LSS) individuals (Bardo & Mueller, 1991; Zuckerman, 1994).

2.3.3 MSV characteristic

MSV has two dimensions. First, it involves an ‘attribute’ of a message related to its structural and content features. The second dimension is the ‘response’ to message features which includes the sensory, affective and arousal. To be more precise, in the first dimension, message structural features include video format features refers to how the argument, theme, topic, or story is presented (which consists of the number of cuts and edits, visual special effects, and use of unusual colours, graphic images, and slow-motion or fast motion). Audio format features including, the use of auditory special effects, a saturation of sound throughout the ad, and the use of unusual music. Other features are content format features such as the topic, theme, story, or argument the message presents. They include the use of narrative, whether the action is shown or simply described and the use of a surprise twist at the end, where the true message of the ad is revealed in the final seconds of the ad in a way that dramatically reframes the content of the message (Morgan et al., 2003, pp 515,516). Table number 2 shows most of the MSV features which have been studied so far.

Table 2: Some MSV features

Dimension/feature		Scoring	Description
Visual	Cuts	Count of cuts	The number of times the camera converted to low (0–6 cuts from one visual scene to the cuts), moderate (7–14 next. Includes the final cut to cuts), and high (more agency sponsor at the end of than 15 cuts)
	Special visual effect	absent/present	Anything beyond the range of human ability involving special visual effects, including morphing, paint or blood “sliding” down the screen, or computer manipulation of images.
	Slow-motion	absent/present	The slowing of real-life action through technical intervention.
	Unusual colours	absent/present	Unusual <u>colours</u> outside the range of <u>colours</u> normally perceived in real life.
	Intense images	absent/present	Intense or horrifying images including needles going into arms, guns pointed at heads or death.
Audio	Sound saturation	absent/present	Background sound throughout the PSA, including street noise or other sounds, rather than simply having a person talking throughout the PSA.
	Music	absent/present	Background music in the PSA.
	Sound effects	absent/present	Unusual sounds (those that could not have occurred in “real life,” in that situation) heard in PSA, including gongs and other noises.
	Background music	absent/present	music to accompany the dialogue or action of the video clip.
	Loud/fast music	absent/present	the use of loud (relative to other sounds in the video clip) and fast (more than 120 beats per minute) music throughout the video clip.
Content	Acted out	absent/present	Instead of being told about the (vs. talking head) dangers of drugs (or benefits of being drug-free), viewers see actions corresponding to the point of PSA.
	Unexpected format	absent/present	If images and messages are interchangeable with other anti-drug PSAs, they are “expected.”
	Surprise/Twist ending	absent/present	The presence of a climactic, shocking end to the PSA. If the end cannot be predicted, it has a “second-half punch.”

Morgan, S. E., Palmgreen, P., Stephenson, M. T., Hoyle, R. H., & Lorch, E. P. (2003). 512-526. (p519) Associations between message features and subjective evaluations of the sensation value of antidrug public service announcements. *Journal of Communication*, 53(3).

Therefore, generally, the presence or absence of some of these features or the number of certain present ones (e.g. count of cuts) will determine to what extent these messages are high, moderate or high in message sensation value. Manipulating these features will result in rising emotional arousal (Detenber et al., 2000), more attention being paid to the stimulus(Lang et al., 1993; Lang et al., 2000) and enhance the persuasiveness of the message (Hitchon & Thorson, 1995; Yoon et al., 1999).

2.3.4 MSV and PMSV

The definition of MSV means message sensation value could be interpreted in two aspects, either as an attribute of a message related to its structure and content features or as the sensory, affective and arousal responses to such message attributes. Accordingly, some authors (Palmgreen et al., 2002) in MSV literature interpret MSV in two ways; thereby, this concept will have two dimensions. The first is looking at it as features of a message that lead to sensory, affective, and arousal responses. These features refer to the messages structural and content features, which concern about how the message is introduced in images and sound, and how the message provides its argument. The second is about an individual's sensory, affective, and arousal responses to a message's features (Stephenson, in press; Stephenson & Palmgreen, 2001). Therefore, to separate the two interpretations, there is instead an agreement that the term message sensation value (MSV) is used to refer to the attributes of a message.

In contrast, the perceived message sensation value (PMSV) is used to refer to a recipient's response to the features of a message. Message sensation value per se relates to the features of a message that lead to PMSV. This distinction will help researchers to decide which dimension they will focus on when they study MSV, that is, either on how the messages are constructed and designed, or which features will work, including in studied adverts or how the receiver responds to those features regarding attention, processing and persuasiveness.

Related literature defines PMSV as the extent to which individuals perceive a message as having high-sensation-value attributes (Palmgreen et al., 1991; Palmgreen et al., 2002). Moreover, it is confirmed that when messages are novel, intense, fast-paced, and suspenseful, they are considered high in perceived message sensation value

(PMSV), which enhances attention, recall, and comprehension among high sensation seekers such as teens and young adults (see Donohew et al., 1998). PMSV means how the recipient reacts to MSV features (both structural and content features). Some studies found that PMSV is linked with high levels of positive message processing in both high sensation seekers and low sensation seekers. This, in turn, is associated with increasing persuasion, and emotional responses partially mediate the relationship between PMSV and message processing (Stephenson, 2002, 2003; Stephenson and Palmgreen, 2001).

2.3.5 MSV in some theories and models

Several models and theories provide a view of how MSV works, the conditions that should be presented in the message and recipient for the MSV features to have a significant impact how MSV affects the recipient, what are the potential behavioural outcomes and when these outcomes are desirable or not.

2.3.5.1 The Activation Model of Information Exposure

In this primary model which guided the research on MSV, Donohew et al (1998) seek to explain the functional mechanism of MSV and PMSV. They hold that attention to the advert is a function of an individual's level of need for stimulation. Recipients have an optimum level of arousal, related to their sensation-seeking tendency and what individuals expect from stimuli information to maintain this optimal level (Zuckerman, 1994 Morgan et al., 2003). Therefore, if the sensation/activation level of a message exceeds or fails to meet an individual's optimal level, the individuals are likely to avoid the message and seek another source of arousal to help to achieve their optimal level. Thus, the focus should be on the match between the recipient's optimal arousal level (audience characteristics), and MSV features (novelty, intense, fast-paced, and suspense) to achieve attention and effective outcomes to the advert (Harrington et al., 2003). This model, in general, emphasises the idea that messages which have high sensation value can produce higher levels of arousal and attention.

Moreover, the model gives prevention campaigns a useful approach called the sensation-seeking targeting approach (SENTAR) which was the result of laboratory and field experiments. It employs high sensation value messages to target high sensation seekers (usually adolescents and young adults). This is based on the idea that

the attention to stimuli is a function of (1) individuals sensation needs; (2) the level of stimulation that is delivered by the advert. This matching makes adolescents reveal behavioural changes such as reducing drug use (Palmgreen et al., 2007) and enhances attention, recall, and comprehension among high sensation-seeking teens and young adults (Palmgreen & Donohew, 2003; Stephenson, 2003; Stephenson & Palmgreen, 2001).

2.3.5.2 Limited Capacity Model of Motivated Mediated Message Processing

From the point of view of this theory, humans are information processors and have a limited capacity for cognitive processing of information (cognitive resources) (Lang, 2006). Information processing of messages is the result of the work of two mechanism: an orienting response which is elicited by MSV features, and mental resource allocation, with three further basic sub-processes, which are: encoding, storage and retrieval (Xu, 2017). Allocated resources can be used to encode information into working memory, store it into long-term memory, and then retrieve -activate it from long-term memory (Lang, 2006). Therefore, the attention to televised campaigns is a function of recipients' aims and how the message features evoke the automatic process. Hence, a message with high sensation features will elicit orienting responses in the audience, which consequently result in the automatic allocation of processing resources, while a message with low message sensation features would not do that. Thus, the model posits that messages using intensely emotional materials or physiological arousal (high MSV features) will generate more orienting and attention, which were linked to message effectiveness (Morgan et al., 2003).

The model has been used to examine the influence of various message variables, in particular, cuts, edits, and arousing content of television messages on emotional response, attention allocation, and message processing. Although viewers are seen to have limited cognitive capacity, the allocation of this limited capacity to process information is attributed not only to the viewer but also to the message. When a viewer processes a message to accomplish his or her goal, the viewer intentionally controls resource allocation for processing the information - a controlled process. However, when a message has information relevant to a viewer or is novel and intense, the viewer's resource allocation is governed by the message - an automatic process. Messages with negative emotions also elicit automatic resource allocation (Lang et al..

1999; Ncwhagen & Reeves, 1992). People tend to assign more attention to emotion-eliciting messages, approach those messages and process the information (Shoemaker, 1996; Lang, 2000).

If there are insufficient resources available to carry out information processing, all the sub-processes cannot be completed because the sub-processes rely on a single pool of capacity. During the encoding process, information relevant to a viewer's goal and novel information is most likely to be encoded, because it evokes the orienting response. Elicitation of the orienting response increases automatic resource allocation to encoding. The orienting response is an index of physiological and behavioural response to novel stimuli in the environment. "The orienting response is a psychophysiological strategy aimed at maximising and clarifying information input by a shifting of attentional resources to the newest stimulus on the scene" (Zuckerman, 1994a: 352). However, the effect of increased resource allocation to encoding will vary as a function of the overall amount of cognitive resources required for performing the other processes: storage and retrieval.

2.3.5.3 Competing models (AMIE and ELM)

The Activation Model of Information Exposure (AMIE) (Donohew et al., 1988, 1998; Zuckerman, 1979) postulates that individuals' need for sensation is an essential component determining the possibility that particular messages will attract and hold their attention. Messages with a sensation value that matches the level of the need for sensation will result in a positive effect and motivate continued exposure to the message. AMIE suggests that when messages' sensation value is higher or lower than the optimal level, this will lead the audience to seek less or more arousing messages to meet their need for sensation. The model claims an attention-catching effect for MSV features. Accordingly, high MSV ads can attract more attention to the advertisements and lead to more in-depth processing of the message of the ads, which finally leads viewers to pay more attention to the arguments embedded in the message (Kang et al., 2006).

On the contrary, the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) suggests that people may take two alternative routes to message processing: central and peripheral. When an individual's ability and motivation to process the message are both strong, he or she

will take a central route to processing. During this process, argument quality is essential in determining the outcome of persuasion. However, when they are less capable or willing to conduct elaborative processing or are distracted (Petty et al., 1976), they will look for cognitive shortcuts or peripheral cues, which allow them to make rapid judgments based on superficial aspects of the message. During this process, peripheral cues such as source credibility and message formatting feature, rather than argument quality, become more influential on message reception (Kang et al., 2006). Thus, ELM suggests that MSV may attract an audience's attention toward the format features of the adverts and reduce the audience's ability to process the central argument of the ads.

Since the attention may represent the first step after message exposure, which may lead to more profound message processing and effective behavioural outcome, MSV is considered as a set of message features which can function independently and in combination to draw attention (Kang et al., 2006). In this respect, it is evident that AMIE and ELM offer competing predictions in terms of the role of MSV in persuasion. This competing is reflected in the results of empirical studies. For example, Kang and his colleagues (2006) supported the claims of ELM. They found that MSV could distract attention to reduce advert persuasiveness when the argument quality was high and could enhance ad persuasiveness when the argument quality was low. However, other studies have indicated that MSV was not a distraction but a facilitator of message persuasiveness. High sensation value messages were effective for increasing perceived ad effectiveness and advert liking (Harrington et al., 2006). Also, some have suggested that the relationship between MSV and attention is similar to that between arousal and attention. So, high sensation-related components of messages are likely to generate higher levels of arousal and attention (Anderson et al., 1989; Kang, 2007; Xu, 2017). MSV features like visual graphics and emotionally arousing aspects work to elicit arousal to intensify the impact of discrete emotions (such as fear and sadness etc.) on message effectiveness evaluation (Sanders-Jackson et al., 2011; Lang & Yegiyan, 2011; Kang et al., 2006). Therefore, the results of this research may well contribute to this discussion about the role of MSV features (whether they are distractors or facilitators to attention) in threatening anti-smoking messages, on the believability and effectiveness of these adverts.

2.3.5.4 MSV and Emotions: Appraisal Theory and Excitation Transfer Theory

Kang and Cappella (2008) studied the effect of MSV features on other message attributes (discrete motions) in an attempt to link MSV with appraisal theory. The results of this study found that high MSV could work as an elicitor of arousal to intensify the effect of discrete emotions (anger and sadness) on perceived message effectiveness. These results mean that, while appraisal theory explains how the cognitive interpretation of message content activates discrete emotions, which could use certain message attributes that evoke specific discrete emotions (Kang & Cappella, 2008), similarly, MSV features as a trigger of arousal and effective responses and should have a similar impact, of arousal and grabbing attention.

Also, through excitation-transfer theory, Zillmann (1971) explores the combination of MSV and discrete emotions on message processing. This theory suggests that residual excitation from one message amplifies the excitation to another following message if these two sources are present close enough to each other in time (Zillmann, 1971). That is, arousal elicited by high MSV features, as the first source of arousal, may be combined with arousal produced by the emotional appeals of the message, as the second source of arousal. Therefore, the MSV-elicited arousal will add to the content-elicited emotional arousal, which then increases an individual's reliance upon emotion during message evaluation. In this case, both the strength of an individual's emotional experience and the impact of these emotions on persuasion will be reinforced (Kang & Cappella, 2008).

2.3.6 MSV and Threat appeal (attention, message processing and persuasion)

Some studies found that most of the televised anti-smoking ads on YouTube (more than 900 ads) are moderate in sensation value (Peak. et al., 2010). Also, some consider that adverts' messages with fear appeals are high in MSV features by definition (Witte & Allen, 2000) as they use vivid language and scenes that illustrate negative health effects. Thus, MSV features and threat appeals are usually combined in threatening adverts. Therefore, MSV could give researchers guidance to understand audience reactions to adverts that use intense and high threat appeals. Moreover, some MSV features could help to make those threats seem to be high or low, since some have

found that high sensation value features increased arousal in the audience who watched such messages (Lang, 2006; Lang et al., 2005).

As mentioned in the theories and models above, threat appeal and MSV might share the same role in health campaign adverts to grab attention, and to enhance the processing and effectiveness of these adverts. Some consider attention to the advert is the first step after exposure and a necessary condition for the persuasion process to occur and its outcomes translate into intention, decisions and choices (Van Stee et al., 2012; Kang, 2006). Thus, MSV has been described as a set of message features that can function independently or in combination to attract attention (Morgan et al., 2003). Also, models claim that the processing of emotion-eliciting adverts will engage the automatic attentional system through both the allocation of resources to encoding through the elicitation of orienting response and the automatic allocation of resources to storage (Lang et al., 1999; Lang et al., 1996). However, some are convinced that a message with some MSV features is not guaranteed to achieve the desired processing and results because of limited evidence about the effect of a mixture of MSV features on attention and processing (Kang, 2006).

In the context of anti-smoking campaigns, a content analysis study of a total of 487 anti-smoking ads in the USA found a majority of ads rated as having moderate sensation value, and ads targeted at teens and children were, on the average, higher in sensation value than those targeting general audiences (Rhodes et al., 2009). Niederdeppe (2005) from a content analysis of the 'truth' of anti-smoking ads in the USA, found that ads with high MSV levels increased message processing, particularly among older adolescents. For example, he found that several unrelated cuts and the use of suspenseful features (intense imagery and a second-half punch) increased message processing among older teens. Also, the findings of another study show that MSV in anti-smoking messages was not a distraction but a facilitator of message persuasiveness in young adults' view (Xu, 2015).

Study of threat appeal and features of MSV in anti-smoking ads is basically to identify to what extent those message attributes grab more attention, evoke a desirable response from the target audience and lead to these messages being perceived as effective. The threat appeal goal is to show the severity of smoking threats and make smokers feel they are vulnerable to smoking threats, whether social, physical or death threats. The

focus of this study is the content of the message where the main theme of anti-smoking messages is threatening smokers with the negative consequences of smoking behaviour. Those threats could be physical threats (severe diseases), social threats (affecting the family and loved ones) or death threats (dying because of smoking related illness). In all three categories, threat appeal will be studied with several MSV message features (in real anti-smoking adverts) with several features and levels. Most empirical studies suggest that high MSV levels may be more productive, especially when a message is delivered in broadcast and video formats and targeted toward youths and young adults, specifically anti-smoking campaigns that focus on smoking prevention not smoking cessation, which usually targets adults or older audiences (Paek et al., 2010).

The main point of this research is how smokers react to televised anti-smoking adverts, which contain attributes of MSV and threat appeal which may enhance the impact of threat appeal and format features regarding believability and effectiveness of these adverts, via a qualitative approach. The research is not involved in measuring the sensation-seeking of research participants; it is just concerned about how the content and format of anti-smoking messages (threat appeal and MSV features) affect the believability and effectiveness of these ads from smokers' perspective. This research explores whether MSV is an elicitor of arousal or not since MSV has been defined as message traits that can elicit sensory, effective, and arousal responses (Kang & Cappella, 2008). Also, as aforementioned, the aim is to clarify whether MSV is a distraction or facilitator to attention and acceptance of the message. MSV here is similar to threat/fear appeal, and many studies confirm that a high level of threat appeals attracts more attention and deep processing and could lead to persuasion (Janssens and Pelsmacker, 2007; Brennan and Binney 2010; Hastings et al. 2004).

Although MSV message features in different levels (high v. low) will affect particular audiences (high sensation seekers for example) differently or may make some threatening messages more effective than others, this research will not study individuals' sensation-seeking orientation. Therefore, the difference between recipients' sensation-seeking is not a study focus. Instead, the focus when choosing the anti-smoking adverts for use in this research was firstly on the type of threat and the level of threat (as the context of MSV features). Such criteria were determined by the

researcher, based on the idea that threatening anti-smoking adverts are high in MSV by definition. Similarly, the definition of MSV is considered as an attention-getting and arousal-enhancing mechanism. This was tested in early stage of research with a group of students, including smokers and non-smokers, to make sure that many individuals share the same classification of these ads regarding the type of threat and the level of threat. Thus, MSV traits in choosing anti-smoking ads are the second interest of importance, after threat appeal types and levels. It is also easy to choose anti-smoking ads according to threat appeal types and levels. Still, for MSV traits, it is very difficult to divide every threat appeal type (physical, social, and death) into two levels (high v. low) with MSV features and their levels. Especially, the anti-smoking ads used in this study was pre-designed and real televised anti-smoking that have aired in recent years. Therefore, this study tries to identify how threat appeal might impact the believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking ads when those threat appeals combine with the features of MSV.

2.4 Concept of the believability of social advertising

The allusion to the importance of “determining the precise relationship between the believability of an advertising claim and its sales effectiveness emerged in the early 1940s” (Oehler, 1944, p 127). However, Maloney (1963) may be one of the first to consider the believability of advertising, ‘the net effect of advertising upon the mind of the reader, listener, or viewer. Maloney contended that it is the outcome of the interaction of advertising with the attitudes, beliefs, and prior experience of the consumer. Therefore, the message will have a good chance of being accepted if it seeks to strengthen the attitudes and beliefs and memories that already exist, and vice versa (Maloney, 1963). However, believability developed conceptually from 1982, when Richard Beltramini clarified the believability concept by defining the believability of advertising, which he defined as “the extent to which an ad evokes sufficient confidence in its truthfulness, making it acceptable to consumers” (Beltramini, 1982:2). Also, he developed a scale to measure believability, which has been used in most studies about the believability of advertising after that, whether in the field of commercial marketing or social marketing. Believability is applied and examined in a social marketing context, specifically in the area of health promotion (Beltramini, 1988; Atkin & Beltramini, 2007; Beltramini, 2006; Beltramini & Sirsi, 1992;

Beltramini & Stafford, 1993; Beltramini & Evans, 1985; Beltramini et al., 2000; O’Cass, 2002,2005; Beltramini & Brown, 1994; Griffin & O’Cass, 2004; O’Cass & Griffin, 2006; Andrews et al., 1990, 1991; Hyman et al., 2014).

Table 3 contains a summary of a systematic literature review of research papers, that addressed the concept of ad believability, in particular, in the social advertising context since 1982, when Beltramini clarified this concept through the provision of a definition and scale. The review was conducted in 2019, using Google Scholar, Emerald, and ProQuest and the Summon search engine in the library of the University of Hull, in order to search for terms such as ad believability, social advertising and advertisement believability, under the marketing and advertising sections. It is restricted to the first 100 search results for each term when the concept appears in the title or abstract of the article. Only papers addressing believability of ads or any way to convey information about health or social issues are included; studies about goods and services are not selected. The results of this search are illustrated in the table below in chronological order.

Table 3 Summary of believability literature in social advertising

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
1. Beltramini, 1988	Five warning labels information about smoking, which put in cigarette packets. the manufacturers were obliged by the US government	N 727 large sections of a class of business students at a major American University	Believability. The firmness of attitude using a mushiness index (volatile, moderate, and firm). Smoking status.	Respondents' level of mushiness had a significant effect upon their perceived believability of the warning label information. First, the firm group, then the moderate group, and then the volatile group perceived the warning label information as most believable. Smoking behaviour had no significant effect on the believability of information on the warning label.	—

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
2. Atkin and Beltramini, 2007	Six prescription drug adverts based on six types of media.	N 101 adults chosen from a market in South-eastern, Michigan, US Questionnaire.	Demographic data Type of ad./media Factors that affect the believability of DTC ads.	The TV was the best informative advertising medium, then newspapers and magazines. Respondents find DTC advertising neutral. TV advertisements are the most believable, and Internet websites are the least believable. Demographic factors do not affect DTC ads believability. A physician's recommendation and credibility of drug corporation were factors which increase DTC ad believability.	Study the amount and type of information presented in ads and types of appeal used such as emotional, rational, fear appeal and to what extent they affect the believability of DTC advertising
2. Andrews et al., 1990	Five alcohol warning labels put on an alcohol bottle, by the manufacturers required by the US government	N 273 undergraduate students from two universities in the USA Questionnaire	Believability Attitudes toward drinking alcohol Attitudes toward alcohol warning labels	All warnings rated as believable. The ones regarding birth defects and driving impairment perceived as more believable than the others. Prior attitudes and beliefs toward alcohol consumption influence label believability and attitudes.	Research is needed varying warning label legibility with, for instance, exposure repetition, threat degree, warning content, format and source effects

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
3. Andrews et al.,1991	Five alcohol warning labels put on alcohol bottles, the manufacturers as required by the US government	N 273 undergraduate students in USA Questionnaire	Believability Attitudes toward alcohol warning labels Attitude confidence	Frequent alcohol users perceived the labels to be significantly less believable and less favourable than occasional/nonusers of alcohol. Occasional/non-users of alcohol had more confident attitudes toward the labels than frequent alcohol users.	—
4. Cecil et al., 1996	Four Health Warning Labels about smoking put on cigarette packets.as required the US government	N 691 students in grade 5 in two private schools USA Questionnaire	Current smoking status, gender The believability of the health warning labels on cigarette packs (Extension of Beltramini'1988 study)	Smokers reported significantly less belief in Labels 1 and 2 than ex-smokers and non-smokers. Smokers rated Label 3 as significantly less believable than Non-smokers. Ratings of the believability of the health warning labels varied as a function of current smoking status. Gender did not interact with either belief in the health warning label or current smoking status.	The development of different labels that are shorter in length, more visible, and include pictorial designs may be more effective than the current warning labels

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
5. O’Cass, 2002	The data were gathered in the two days following the election by a drop-off and pick-up approach	The first survey N 189 The second survey N 159 Two self-completed questionnaires	Voter involvement Advertising Believability. Voter satisfaction. Voter emotion.	The negative campaign run by the opposition and positive campaign run by the incumbent government are perceived believable. The believability of the positive campaign is affected by voter involvement, satisfaction, and emotion.	—
6. O’Cass, 2005	Data about campaigns of the Conservative party and Labour Party were gathered immediately following the election	N 190 voters in a state election in Queensland, Australia Self-completed questionnaire	Voter involvement Perceived control Voter satisfaction Advertising believability	Believability is influenced by voters’ involvement, perceived control and satisfaction. Party preference plays a central role in the believability of competing campaigns.	—

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
7. Griffin and O'Cass, 2004	Two TV anti-drinking advertisements about young adults' binge drinking, from a National Alcohol Campaign. Australia	N 156 undergraduate students at an Australian university Questionnaire	Intention to Comply Believability of ads Attitude to Issue Involvement in issue	Involvement in a social issue influences the attitude towards the issue. The believability of social advertisements was found significant because of its positive effect on attitude towards the issue for people who are engaged in drinking excessively. A social advertisement that increases believability may have the ability to strengthen or change an attitude against social issue related behaviour. Ad believability influences attitude and attitude; in turn, influence the intention to comply.	—

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
<p>8. O'Cass and Griffin, 2006</p>	<p>Two TV ads from national alcohol and tobacco campaigns. Australia</p>	<p>N 300 Undergraduate Students Questionnaire. Australia</p>	<p>Social issue involvement. The believability of social advertising. Attitude towards the Social Issue. Attention paid to ads. Intention to comply with message.</p>	<p>Involvement in a social issue influences both attitude towards the issue and the believability of the social advertisement in a positive manner. The believability of social advertisements has a positive effect on attitude towards the issue. The more attention is paid to social ads, the more believable they are. The effectiveness of the ads is determined to some extent, by the degree to which individuals to pay attention to the ad and believe the theme or message.</p>	<p>Examine the relation between ad believability and attention. Examining the believability with different appeals and attitudes through different issues.</p>

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
9. Jones and Rossiter, 2001	15, 12, 15, message “statements” about marijuana, cocaine, and heroin, respectively. Adapted from American Council for Drug Education	N 76 Australian undergraduate university students	The believability of messages and user status (current users, never-users, and ex-users)	The experience with marijuana is associated with reduced believability of anti-marijuana messages. Ex-users of marijuana found messages about the adverse effects of marijuana more believable than current users or never-users.	<p style="text-align: center;">—</p>
10. Breen and Jones, 2003	Eight safe –drinking messages created by researchers	N 196 second-year university students. Questionnaire Australia	Physical Threat High Low Social Threat High Low Self, Other Believability and Effectiveness of ad	Messages about their peers are perceived as more believable and effective than the corresponding appeals used to students themselves. Physical threats were more believable and effective than social threats, and low levels of threat were more believable than high-level threats.	Measuring the severity and susceptibility of the high and low threats for both physical and social messages

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
11. Jones and Rossiter, 2004	16, 12, 14, messages “statement” about cannabis, cocaine and heroin, respectively. Had been amended from American Council for Drug Education	N 76 senior undergraduate university students in Australia Questionnaire.	The believability of messages and user status (current users, non-triers and trier-rejecters)	Extreme warnings about cannabis are perceived as believable by never-users and trier-rejecters and may act as a deterrent. Extreme warnings about cannabis are not perceived as believable by current users.	—
12. Polonec et al., 2006	“party smart” messages from social norms campaign	N 277 undergraduate students USA Questionnaire.	Drinking behaviour of a student and his friends. Accuracy and bias in respondents’ social comparisons of the binge-drinking problem. Student beliefs in the campaign message.	The majority of students did not believe the norms message. Respondents’ experiences with their drinking behaviour and that of their friends contributed to their disbelief in the campaign message.	—

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
13. Glazer et al., 2010	Three different social norms messages for four groups of students	N 891 university students the USA Web-based survey	Perception of self and others' drinking. Sensation Seeking. The believability of Social Norms Messages	Sensation seeking, perceived norms, and message believability had direct effects on alcohol consumption. The interaction of sensation seeking and message believability impacted alcohol consumption.	—
14. Park et al., 2011	Two advertisements from the norms campaign placed in the student-run newspaper 542 students shown descriptive norm ad and 527 shown injunctive norm ad	N 1069 university students the USA Web-based survey	Estimation and accuracy of normative perceptions of students during everyday drinking occasions. Believability	Ad believability did not have a main effect on estimation, but it did have a main effect on accuracy. The students who believed the ads, compared to those who did not believe the ads, were more accurate in their estimated to the percentage of other students who had the same drinking behaviours as theirs. The relation between individuals' reported drinking behaviours and accuracy was not moderated by ad believability.	—

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
15. Berry et al., 2011	Eight print exercise-related advertisements: four advertisements that promoted health and four that promoted appearance	N 306 Undergraduate Students. Questionnaire. Australia	Involvement, attention paid to the advertisements, explicit believability, implicit believability exercise attitudes and intentions to exercise The social issue advertising believability model (O’Cass & Griffin, 2006) and an implicit measure of beliefs (Huang & Hutchinson, 2008).	Implicit believability predicted attitudes and intentions, but explicit believability did not. In the appearance condition, just implicit believability was negatively related to intentions. The paths from implicit believability to attitudes and attitudes to intentions were positive and significant in the health model.	—
16. Hyman et al., 2014	“Open Your	N 242 postgraduate students.	ad believability self-esteem	Ad believability is negatively related to self-esteem and self-esteem, in turn, relates	

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
	Eyes” ad from the NSPCC’s FULL STOP campaign	a structured questionnaire posted online the UK	belief in child sexual abuse myths willingness to act against child abuse Dual-process theories. a model with emotional (self-esteem) and cognitive (belief in child sexual abuse myths) factors.	positively to a willingness to act against child abuse. Ad believability does not relate negatively to belief in child sexual abuse myths which are related negatively to a willingness to act against child abuse. The emotional pathway to a willingness to act against child abuse was significant, whereas the cognitive pathway, which assessed attempts to weaken belief in CSA myths, did not directly encourage a willingness to act.	—
17. Kollath-Cattano et al., 2016	pregnancy-related health warning labels on cigarettes packs	Canada (n = 1861) Australia (n = 1761) United States (n = 2683) Mexico (n = 1812)	Pregnancy-related labels, worry, believability, and motivation to quit.	In most countries where the study took place, women of reproductive age reported stronger believability, worry, and quit motivation than all other groups (men 40 and under; women over 40; men over 40.)	—

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
		<p>Adult smokers aged 18–64 in Australia, Canada, Mexico, and the US.</p> <p>Online longitudinal survey in four countries Australia, Canada, Mexico, and the US.</p>			
<p>18. Francis et al., 2017</p>	<p>Information from the 2014 Surgeon general's Report about new diseases linked to smoking, including liver and colon cancer, diabetes and tuberculosis.</p>	<p>N=5014</p> <p>Phone survey of US adults</p>	<p>The believability of two messages (cancer message and chronic disease) from four sources' (CDC, FDA, Surgeon General, and none)</p>	<p>Cancer messages (liver and colon cancer) were significantly more believable than messages about chronic disease (tuberculosis and diabetes), Believability did not differ by message source</p>	<p>—</p>

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
19. Kowitt et al.,2017	Cigar Warning Labels	N =1,125 Adolescents (aged 13e17 years phone survey	The believability of different proposed cigar warning messages with different sources	Most of the youth found the cigar warnings very believable. Messages about mouth and throat cancer (regardless of inhalation) and the safety of cigars in comparison to cigarettes rated as significantly less believable than messages about lung cancer and heart disease related to cigars	Examine how believability of text and text combined with pictorial cigar warning labels may be associated with tobacco-related outcomes, such as experimentation and quit intentions.
20. Maynard,,2017	Tobacco health warning labels (text-only, or a moderately severe or highly severe image of the disease outcome).	non-smokers (N = 437) and smokers (N = 436) online survey	effectiveness and believability of tobacco health warning labels	Most dangerous (cancer) and severe tobacco health warning labels were the most believable and effective. Smokers considered themselves at greater risk of all diseases in these labels, and the perceived risk positively correlated with effectiveness and believability ratings of tobacco health warning labels	Further experimental work should be conducted to determine whether these self-report responses reflect participants' actual behavioural responses to these tobacco health warning labels
21. Leos-Toro et al., 2019	text-only and pictorial cannabis health warnings	870 recruited from a national consumer panel. Questionnaire and	cannabis health warnings on consumer perceptions believability and effectiveness.	Pictorial health warnings for cannabis products were perceived as more effective and believable	—

Authors and date	Kind of stimuli	Participants, data gathering tool	Studied variables	Results	Recommendation and further research
		message recall task.			—
22. Lazard et al., 2017	three cigarette warnings	6239 adolescents national phone surveys	believability of three addiction focused Cigarette warnings. Influence of message source.	Warning that cigarettes are addictive more believable than that nicotine was an addictive chemical, compared to a warning that differentiated the addictive risks of menthol versus traditional cigarettes	—
23. Maynard et al., 2018	(text-only, a moderately severe image or highly severe image) and focussed on three disease outcomes (lung cancer, blindness or tooth and gum disease).	Smokers and ono-smokers. online study	the effectiveness and believability of each health warning labels	The most severe pictorial HWLs received the highest believability and effectiveness ratings and the text-only HWLs received the lowest	—
24. Jarman et al., 2017	cigar warnings	5014 among adults in the U.S. phone survey	the believability of cigar warnings	The message “Cigar smoking can cause lung cancer and heart disease” was associated with higher odds of being very believable	—

2.4.1 Summary of believability studies

It can be noticed that Beltramini and O’Cass made significant contributions to believability research their studies, either working alone or with colleagues. Most of Beltramini’s studies concerned health promotion (studies 2, 3, 6, 7, and 8). However, study 1 examined the ways research results are presented in advertisements; study 4 was concerned with the impact of seals of approval in ads on the believability of ads. In study 5, Beltramini studied miscomprehension and believability of print ads, when audience exposure to them was under naturalistic conditions, in contrast to forced exposure studies.

Overall, the results of Beltramini’s studies show that believability is a crucial attribute for the most effective advertising, since “consumers are not likely to respond to advertising in the desired manner if they do not believe what it says” (Beltramini & Brown, 1994:219). Advertising believability was seen focusing on an individual’s beliefs towards identified social issue ads and the correctness or truth of the information; mainly that the message/theme is correct and believable (Beltramini, 1982). Therefore, it has been claimed that an advertisement will be believed (and then may be accepted) when it has a positive impact on attitudes, beliefs, and intention toward a product or notion which “the advertiser intended that the recipient should have after exposure to a certain advertisement” (Atkin & Beltramini, 2007:171). Also, it is pointed out that the believability of advertising depends on the firmness of attitudes towards the issue advertised (Beltramini, 1988). Hence, an advertisement is most likely to be believed when advertisement claims support pre-existing consumer attitudes toward a social issue. The measuring of the believability of advertising may help marketers to know how or whether the recipients could extract any meaning from information in ads and accordingly, could believe it and perhaps be induced to adopt the desired behaviour conveyed by those messages (Atkin & Beltramini, 2007). Besides, further research has been suggested to study the amount and type of information existing in ad messages, the kind of appeal (i.e., the message content) and to what extent it may affect the believability of an advertisement from the perspective of the target audience (Atkin & Beltramini, 2007:178).

Beltramini (1988) addressed how university students perceive the believability of warning label information existing in cigarette ads. Then Cecil et al. (1996) extended study 2 (Beltramini, 1988) to include the new warning labels on cigarette packets among adolescents in schools. Similarly, the studies of Andrews and Netemeyer (1990) and Andrews et al. (1991) examined warning labels, but on alcohol bottles. The results of these studies generally indicated that the

believability of these warning labels is a function of smoking or drinking behaviour. Heavy and frequent users were less believing than ex-users or non-users. Also, prior attitudes toward the substance (smoking or alcohol) have a significant influence on the believability of these warning messages and attitudes towards these warning labels. (Beltramini, 1988; Andrews and Netemeyer, 1990; Cecil et al., 1996; Andrews et al., 1991)

The issue of warning messages being disbelieved by heavy users of narcotic substances was also studied by Jones and Rossiter (2001, 2004). The authors explored the believability of anti-drug advertising in Australia as a function of marijuana usage experience. The results pointed out that the believability of anti-marijuana messages varied by experience with marijuana. It was found that current users of marijuana found the information in messages about marijuana and other drugs (cocaine and heroin) less believable than non-users. However, ex-users of marijuana were more likely to believe messages about adverse effects than current or never-users; likewise, for cocaine and heroin users (Jones & Rossiter, 2001). A similar study by the same authors in 2004 showed similar findings; extreme warnings about cannabis were perceived as believable by never-users and trier-rejecters, suggesting they may act as a deterrent, but they were generally not perceived as believable by current users (Jones and Rossiter, 2001, 2004). In 2003, Breen and Jones investigated the believability and effectiveness of young adult safe-drinking messages in an Australian university. Findings of this study indicate that messages containing high threat appeals were more believable to university students when the safe-drinking advertisers used indirect appeals, by referring to the individual's referent groups (their colleagues in university), than directly by appealing to students themselves. Also, high threat physical appeals were more believable and effective than high threat social appeals in young adult safe-drinking messages. Also, the study showed that social marketers who produce those messages should consider carefully the type and level of threat appeals contained in such messages, in order to give these messages a chance to be believed by the target audience (Breen & Jones, 2003). Other studies aimed to address the problem of excessive drinking on campus at some American universities. Health educators have launched social norms campaigns, based on the implications of social comparison theory. The results of three studies demonstrated that there is a significant positive correlation between accuracy in students' estimations of levels of daily alcohol consumption for themselves and their peers and the believability of social norms messages. Such correlation, in turn, positively affected the response to such campaigns leading to a decrease in actual consumption levels for

students after exposure to these campaigns (Park et al., 2011; Glazer et al., 2010; Polonec et al., 2006).

The works of O’Cass on political advertising believability during an election in Australia (O’Cass, 2002, 2005) pointed out that voter involvement in politics, satisfaction with politics and party performance affected the believability of the campaign that included positive appeals. Furthermore, it concluded that an incumbent’s campaign advertising is more believable when the voter is more involved in politics and more satisfied with politics and party performance. Additionally, the political advertising believability was seen as a necessary but disregarded issue in the context of election campaigns; understanding of major reasons that determine voters’ perception of the believability of messages may help those interested in such campaigns (parties and candidates), to understand the impact of political advertising appeals on how voters view such advertising as believable, which would persuade them to vote for a particular party or candidate and no other (O’Cass, 2005). The studies of O’Cass and Griffin addressed some of these issues but in the realm of anti-smoking and anti-binge drinking advertisements (Griffin & O’Cass, 2004; O’Cass & Griffin, 2006). The outcomes of both revealed that social issue involvement determines to a great extent the degree to which an individual may believe the ad or its theme. Also, the more attention the recipient gives to social advertisements, the more believable they are (O’Cass & Griffin, 2006). It was also emphasized that social marketers who are interested in combating epidemics like smoking or excessive drinking (governmental or non-governmental agencies) need to be aware of the importance of whether the target audience perceive the advertisement’s theme or message as believable or not, since attitude toward the advertised issue is determined to some extent by the believability of advertising about that issue. As a result, both attitudes and believability influence an individual’s intention to comply with the social issue message. Hence, the believability of an advertisement should be taken into consideration carefully from the early stages of designing effective social advertisements. It was suggested that further research is needed to examine the believability of social advertising messages with different appeals in a message, involvement in a social issue, and attitudes towards issue an advert for another, different social issues. This may well reveal the impact of attributes related to the content of the message or attributes related to the recipient, on advertising believability levels, and accordingly, chances of acceptance of what is alleged in those messages (Griffin & O’Cass, 2004; O’Cass & Griffin, 2006).

The study of O’Cass and Griffin in 2006, was utilized by Berry and her colleagues (2011) who investigated whether implicit believability or explicit believability (i.e., believability according to the definition of Beltramini) of exercise advertising is a strong predictor of attitudes and intentions toward exercise when the audience target is exposed to health promotion or appearance-based exercise-related advertisements (Berry et al., 2011). Many outcomes were parallel to those reported by O’Cass and Griffin (2006). The results illustrated that the paths from implicit believability to attitudes toward the advertised issue and from attitudes to intention were positive and significant in health promotion advertisements (which focus on the health benefits of exercise) although explicit believability did not predict attitudes and intention. However, implicit believability of advertisements related to appearance (which focus on aspects of appearance about exercise) was not related to attitudes and negatively related to intentions to do exercise.

Believability has also been examined across another severe social problem, child abuse, by identifying the audience reaction toward ads of the FULL STOP campaign sponsored by the National Society for the Prevention of Child Cruelty in the UK (Hyman et al., 2014). Study 23 examined whether anti-child-abuse advertisements’ believability is associated with emotional or cognitive response and which of those responses is the most potent mediator of willingness to act against child abuse in the UK, from the perspective of university students (Hyman et al., 2014). The outcomes of this study illustrated that ad believability is related negatively to an emotional response, and this, in turn, positively affects the willingness to act against child abuse. In contrast, ad believability does not have a significant negative relation with the cognitive response, which made its impact on willingness to act against child abuse unfavorable (Hyman et al., 2014).

The study of Kollath-Cattano et al (2016) addressed pregnancy-related health warning labels on cigarette packets in four countries from the perspectives of men and women under and over 40 years old. In this study, women under 40 years old (e.g. of reproductive age) reveal high believability, worry and motivation to quit more than the other three groups and all of the groups found these labels believable in general. This means that warning labels have a significant effect on a particular group of the target audience (women of reproductive age) which makes them believe the information in these labels and feel worried about that and then they are more persuaded to quit smoking.

The last six studies considered believability of warning labels and new information about the health effects of smoking (cigarettes and cigars) from different information sources. From these studies' results, it could be concluded that the more warning labels and new information were about dangerous and severe smoking-related consequences and illnesses, the more that information was perceived as believable and effective, regardless of the sources of this information. Also, pictorial health warning labels that showed severe images, of the addiction and dangerous diseases were more believable than those warnings with text only, for example (Francis et al., 2017; Kowitt et al., 2017; Maynard, 2017; Leos-Toro et al., 2019; Lazard et al., 2017; Maynard et al., 2018).

There are other studies concerned with the believability of information sources that provided information about some health issues from the viewpoint of university students. However, they did not use the Beltramini scale of believability, which was used in different ways, in all the mentioned studies. Moreover, they were interested only in which were the more believable sources of information, from the viewpoint of the respondents. For instance, in order to educate students about the AIDS pandemic, it was found that TV shows and doctors were more believable sources of health information than other sources such as leaflets or health educators. Also, information from governmental sources (like the American AIDS Foundation) was more believable than that from private sources and these were the most often used information sources for health issues. Furthermore, it was indicated that advertisers need to be careful when using fear appeals in messages as these might backfire with young people. It might make them less believing of those messages (Raymond et al., 1998).

According to three studies on the same domain (Kwan et al., 2010; Vader et al., 2011; Zullig et al., 2012), the Internet was the most used source of health information for university students. However, it was perceived as the least believable source. Health centre medical staff and university health educators were perceived to be the most believable sources, and this positively influenced students' self-rated health for students who relied on those sources. Moreover, knowing which health information sources are more believable than others was helpful for universities to design more effective health information campaigns.

According to this basic review of the available literature about the believability, it can be noticed that:

- The primary domain in which believability has been tested is in the area of health promotion.
- Most of the studies were conducted under conditions of forced exposure, apart from the study of Beltramini (1994), which employed ads under naturalistic conditions.
- Most of the studies were conducted on university students.

Also, the following conclusions can be drawn about the believability of social advertising:

- It focuses on one's beliefs about a particular social advertised issue and the correctness or truth of the information in the messages in the advertisement.
- It can be considered one of the critical attributes of effective advertising.
- It may help to make social advertising messages more acceptable to the recipient.
- It should be considered from the initial stages of the design of social advertising.
- Advertising will be more believable if the ad supports pre-existing favourable beliefs and attitudes towards the advertised issue.
- Believability has several antecedents such as level of involvement of recipient in social issues, attitudes towards advert and attention to the advert.
- The more the advertisement is seen as believable by the recipient, the more it will influence the recipient's attitudes towards the relevant issue in a favourable manner, which in turn will affect the intention to comply with the messages of social advertising.
- In an investigation of the believability of social ads that combat excessive or abusive consumption of some substances such as alcohol, tobacco and some types of drugs, heavy users or addicts of such substances, in most cases, found the ads less believable than non-users, triers and ex-users.

Results of many studies have raised questions about the extent of variation in believability according to some of the features of the target audience and content and format of social advertising messages, like emotional appeal (e.g. threat appeals). Such content may help to draw more attention or develop an effective response by some groups of the target audience (like addicts or heavy users, e.g. smokers) to those advertisements. This possibility has not yet been explored.

2.4.2 Believability and credibility

The term credibility has been used in several fields, such as psychology, mass communication and marketing (Hilligoss & Rieh, 2008). In communication and marketing, credibility has been

considered occasionally as synonymous with believability (Self, 1996; Flannigan & Metzger, 2008). Some studies have looked at believability as one of several dimensions to measuring source credibility (Eisend, 2006; Hilligoss and Rieh, 2008; Simpson & Kahler, 1981; Wynn, 1987; Cotte et al., 2005; Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989). Also, some have measured the credibility of advertisements by using Beltramini's scale of believability (Greer, 2003).

Credibility has been defined in terms of characteristics of persuasive sources, characteristics of the structure and content of the message, and perceptions of media (Metzger et al., 2003). In marketing literature, credibility has been studied from several aspects, but one common aspect of credibility is a credibility of the source of communication (source credibility), which has been defined as "those positive characteristics of the communicator that influence the receiver's acceptance of the message" (Ohanian, 1990: 41). It is also defined as 'the judgments made by a receiver concerning the believability of a communicator' (Ishaverma, 2014: 194). In most literature related to source credibility, it has two components: trustworthiness and expertise. Trustworthiness refers to the consumer's confidence or belief in the communicator's carrying messages in an unbiased and honest manner without motivation for manipulation or deception (Hovland et al., 1953; Ohanian, 1990). Expertise is related to the recipient's perception of the ability of a source to provide information that is both accurate and valid (Hilligoss & Rieh, 2008). Mackenzie and Lutz in 1989, and also Bae with his colleagues in 2001, deemed that source credibility is one of four dimensions of advertisement credibility, which are advertising credibility, ad claim credibility, media credibility and source credibility. Mackenzie and Lutz defined advertisement credibility as "the extent to which the consumer perceives claims made about the brand to be truthful and believable" (Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989:51). Advertising credibility "reflects consumers' perceptions of the truthfulness and believability of advertising in general" (Bae et al., 2001:76). From the previous definitions, it will be noticed that all of them have implications that believability might be one result of perceiving an advertisement as credible.

Also, believability means to what "extent an advertisement may evoke sufficient confidence in its truthfulness, making it acceptable to consumers" (Beltramini, 1982: 2). According to the definitions of credibility and believability mentioned earlier, both are implicitly linked (Atkin & Beltramini, 2007). Both are interested in the extent to which the recipient perceives the advertisement as delivered by a credible source, truthful, or believable, and consequently, it is more likely to be accepted by the recipient. Despite this implicit relation, some have argued

that there are differences between believability and credibility in the context of social marketing, namely, that “believability focuses on the message and its content, while credibility, in general, focuses on attributes of the source of communication (the advertiser)” (O’Cass & Griffin, 2006:89), which make it a credible source of information from the recipient’s perspective (O’Cass & Griffin, 2006; Griffin & O’Cass, 2004). Most of the studies that studied the credibility of a message measured the credibility of the source and not the credibility of the message (Metzger et al., 2003).

Many studies showings that an advertisement is perceived as credible or believable by the recipient have similar consequences in terms of the effect on attitudes towards the advertisement and then, purchase intention (in commercial marketing) or intention to comply with intended behaviour (in social marketing) in advertisements (O’Cass, 2002, 2005; Griffin & O’Cass, 2004; O’Cass & Griffin, 2006; Berry et al., 2011; Freeman & Spyridakis, 2004, 2009; Sertoglu et al., 2013; Hussein et al., 2014; Melbye et al., 2015; Arora, 2000; Goldsmith, 2000). One of the reasons for the similarity of the ultimate impact of the two concepts might be because many of these studies were grounded on the assumptions of the Elaboration Likelihood Model of persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). Both assert that persuasive communication (the advertisement) seeks to make the target audience adopt intended behaviour (purchase or desired behaviour). It has several antecedents like source credibility or involvement in social issues, which affect the recipient’s attitudes towards the ad; this, in turn, is considered a major determinant of intentions to act and then adopt the desired behaviour.

Based on the preceding review, it will be noticed that some have suggested that believability is a synonym of credibility in general or advertising credibility in particular (Self, 1996; Flannigan & Metzger, 2008). Also, some have considered ad believability as one of the dimensions or measures of credibility (Eisend, 2006; Hilligoss & Rieh, 2008; Simpson & Kahler, 1981; Wynn, 1987). However, ad believability may be one of the crucial outcomes of credibility; because it has been pointed out that any problems in marketing communications that undermine the credibility of messages will subsequently affect the believability of these messages. Thus, assertions made by a less-credible advertiser in an advertisement will be perceived as less believable by the target audience (Arora, 2000; Varey, 2002). Therefore, credibility may be one of the believability antecedents that should exist for an advertisement to be perceived as believable (Weiner, 2012). However, in this research, the believability of

social advertising is examined, not advert credibility. Hence, any similarity that may appear to some parts of the research is because of the parallels between both concepts in the available literature. So, when referring to believability in the entire research, it means believability as defined by Beltramini in the context of social marketing, since “it would seem that ad believability is relevant to the theme of social issues, their advertising and ultimate effectiveness” (O’Cass & Griffin, 2006: 89).

2.4.3 Models and theories of message believability

2.4.3.1 Elaboration likelihood model

John Cacioppo and Richard Petty, in the mid-seventies, developed this model; they were seeking to explain how individuals process stimuli in different ways and the results of these processes on forming and changing attitudes, and, accordingly, to what extent this change will last and could predict the actual behaviour. The main idea of this model is that when an information message is sent to a particular audience, they will react to it according to their elaboration level. Elaboration here means the amount of effort a recipient has to use to process and evaluate a message, remember it, and then accept or reject it. Therefore, individuals may make a high effort (high elaboration) or low effort (low elaboration) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Accordingly, they will use one of two processing routes: the central or peripheral route. In the central route, the recipient should have both the motivation and the ability to think about the message and its topic to analyse the message (ideas, content) scrutinise the perceived and engage in careful, thoughtful processing of message information. He or she knows what is vital to him and needs to examine the components of the message and wants to know what the message is telling him and focus on the message’s strength. Moreover, he or she will ignore anything that distracts the focusing. The recipient here will be persuaded by the quality of argument (information and evidence) rather than by peripheral cues. Any attitude changes made favourably by this route tend to be more lasting (Bhattacharjee & Sanford, 2006).

In the peripheral route, because people cannot give enough attention to the messages they receive, they will rely on simple peripheral cues. So, the recipient here does not analyse the argument of the message. Still, other things except for the core of the message will impact him including distractions (attractive or credible source, likability and trust heuristics, for example, more than the message’s argument). Hence, because he or she lacks the motivation or ability to analyse the message components thoughtfully, he or she tends to be motivated by peripheral

cues rather than the message itself (Petty & Hinsenkamp, 2017). Based on this, factors including interest and knowledge about the message theme or content, the time limitation for a recipient and the type of communication channel may determine whether the message will be processed via the central or peripheral route. As for attitudes, if they are changed by the central route, they are likely to be stronger, lasting and more predictive of future behaviour than those reached by the peripheral route.

2.4.3.2 Theory of Planned Behaviour

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is an extended version of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). It is considered as one of the most influential and simplified models for the study of human action (Ajzen 2002). It has been used successfully to predict and explain a broad range of health behaviours, especially addiction, such as smoking and drinking. It has received substantial empirical support since its publication and is still relevant for the explanation of consumer behaviour. The key component to this model is the intention of voluntary human behaviour; which is influenced by the attitude about the issue, whether the behaviour will have an expected outcome and the personal evaluation of the pros and cons of these outcomes. In general, this model states that the stronger the intention to perform the behaviour, the more likely it is that the behaviour will be performed. According to this model, the intention is determined by three key determinants, which serve as direct determinants of the extent of the intention to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991):

- Attitude towards behaviour (AB): meaning the full evaluation of individuals of certain behaviour and whether their evaluation was favourable or unfavourable.
- Subjective norm (SN): it refers to a significant group of people who approve or disapprove of the behaviour and to what extent this behaviour is considered normative, or acceptable in this group of people. Hence this kind of social pressure influences whether the individual will perform the behaviour or not.
- Perceived behavioural control (PBC): in addition to the attitudes and social approval, a person's perception of the ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour and whether they can perform the behaviour, influence intention. Therefore, TPB presumes that adopting a certain behaviour depends on motivation to perform the behaviour (intention) and ability to perform the behaviour (perceived behavioural control).

2.5 Summary

It has been found in the believability of social advertising related literature, that attitudes towards the advertised issue impact how individuals react to the ad regarding believability. Also, the ad believability, in turn, affects the audience's attitudes towards the ad, which will affect the audience's intention to comply or not with what the message has said. Messages which have believable content from the audience's point of view will have a positive impact on attitudes towards the issue and intention to comply favourably with the message and then whether the individual engages in the actual behaviour (O'Cass & Griffin, 2006). However, some may view believability as a peripheral process that may affect just the attitudes and intention of the audience who are not involved in processing the message argument and details (Hastak & Park, 1990). Some studies found that when individuals centrally process messages, peripheral cues (such as message believability) are also perceived. Hence, believability may vary according to how people react to different message content, which may influence message compliance. Therefore, some message content (such as negative and frightening content) may enhance message belief through the process, which leads to raising issue awareness or reinforcing attitudes toward the issue (e.g., smoking and anti-smoking messages) (Cornacchione & Smith, 2012).

Since the relationship of attitudes and ad believability is interchangeable, attitudes toward the advertised issue affect the ad believability and believability affects the attitudes toward the ad. Hence, ad believability might be one of the critical determinants of favourable intention to comply with the message. This research is interested in the study of the believability of threatening anti-smoking ads (which contain threat appeals) using fear, shock and graphic scenes, including injuries or death. However, at the same time, they may be accompanied by correct facts and numbers, which make this message theme correct and believable and make it capable of being arousing and persuasive, to help the recipient to form enough awareness of smoking consequences. "This is very important, as believability is critical in establishing within the consumer perception of a heightened threat from maintaining the negative behaviour being targeted" (O'Cass & Griffin, 2006: 132).

Therefore, believability will be considered via those two models' perspective, with previous models that try to explain how threat appeal works, focusing on the effect of the differences of the message content (different types and levels of threat appeals) on the believability and effectiveness of these ads. Moreover, it tries to find out the effect of pre-existing attitudes (if

any) of smokers towards smoking on the believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking advertisements, taking into consideration the interchangeable interaction between attitudes and ad believability and how deeply the smokers process anti-smoking ads which contain threat appeal. Notably, some components of these models are similar. For example, attitude towards the issue and perceived behavioural control in TPB are equal to self-efficacy in most models of fear and threat appeal used in this research (Ajzen 1991). Therefore, the study aims to identify the effect of anti-smoking ads, content on believability (processing and attitudes) and effectiveness (intention to stop smoking).

2.6 MSV and believability

Attention is the mechanism where information is selected or rejected for further perceptual processing; in other words, attention is a gatekeeper to further processing of messages (Anderson, 2006). Also, as mentioned before, MSV is a mechanism that helps the target audience to make deep processing of the adverts and enhances the effectiveness of messages like anti-smoking and anti-marijuana messages (Niederdeppe, 2005; Rhodes et.al, 2009; Kang et al., 2006). MSV has a relation with attention and arousal, which results in greater message processing and more favourable evaluations (Xu, 2015). The study of O’Cass and Griffin, 2006 revealed that the more attention the recipient gives to social advertisements, the more believable they are. Therefore, attention is one of the factors that make participants rate an advert as believable (i.e. accepted). Since the attention may represent the first step after message exposure, which may lead to more profound message processing and effective behavioural outcome, MSV is considered as a set of message features which can function independently and in combination to draw attention (Kang et al., 2006).

MSV features are essentially about the imagery side of anti-smoking campaigns, which could be in televised or printed style. Such as pictorial health warning labels which showed severe images of the addiction and dangerous diseases were more believable than those warnings with text only (Francis et al., 2017; Kowitt et al., 2017; Maynard, 2017; Leos-Toro et al., 2019; Lazard et al., 2017; Maynard et al., 2018). Findings of some studies indicate that messages containing high threat appeals were more believable to university students. Also, high threat physical appeals were more believable and effective than high threat social appeals in young adult safe-drinking messages. (Breen & Jones, 2003).

As revealed in the reviewed literature, believability has several antecedents, such as the involvement of recipients in social issues, attitudes towards advert, and attention to the advert.

MSV features, according to some models, are basically about making the campaign audience pay more attention to the adverts (attention facilitator). This may help them to process the advert messages more deeply and give it a chance to be accepted by them. MSV has been described as a set of message features that can function independently or in combination to attract attention (Morgan et al., 2003). Therefore, the relationship between the two concepts is that the role of MSV features is to provide one of the most important antecedents of advert believability, which is attention. This means more believability of adverts, and this could lead to more effectiveness. MSV here is similar to threat/fear appeal; many studies confirm that a high level of threat appeals attracts more attention, and deep processing could lead to persuasion (Janssens and Pelsmacker, 2007; Brennan and Binney 2010; Hastings et al. 2004).

2.7 Perceived effectiveness of anti-smoking messages

Davis and his colleagues assessed the perceived effectiveness of four categories of smoking cessation adverts in New York in 2011. They measured perceived ad effectiveness with a four-item scale, assessing firstly the degree to which participants thought the adverts made them stop and think, to what extent the campaign's messages grabbed their attention, whether those messages were believable and to what extent the messages made them want to quit smoking.

Also, the study of Stewart et al (2011) used similar items to examine the effectiveness, with extra ones to measure the effectiveness of anti-smoking adverts, such as to what extent the adverts evoke emotion and how the adverts make the smoker feel in terms of emotional arousal. This is because emotions represent a different dimension of attitudes toward an advert, and some studies found that emotions elicited by adverts can influence advertising effectiveness. Especially, adverts containing hard-hitting graphic images, emotional content and personal testimonials were perceived as more effective than other types (Davis et al., 2011; Davis et al., 2017). Perceived effectiveness has been shown to predict the actual effectiveness of the adverts (e.g. attitudes toward the issue featured in the ad and other behaviour outcomes) Also, an intention to quit smoking following exposure to anti-smoking adverts was predicted by perceived effectiveness (Brennan et al., 2010). The studies of Dillard and his colleagues found a positive and substantial causal relationship between perceived effectiveness (which involves cognitive and emotional responses) and actual effectiveness (Dillard et al., 2007a; 2007b).

2.8 Summary of chapter

This chapter revealed the concepts and models that are related to the purpose of the research. The first part was MSV, which includes all of MSV features, whether structured features or content features, and the models that show the role of MSV in health promotion campaigns, especially those about attention and arousal, and the relation of MSV and threat appeals. Then the researcher introduced threat appeals, which serve the research aims as fear and threat appeals have been extensively studied in vast numbers of researches since 1950. In the section on threat appeal, emphasis was on distinguishing threat appeal and fear appeal, then discussion moved to models of threat appeals that concern perceived threat, severity and evoke the intended emotion which is fear. Also, this section included three types of studied threats physical, social, and death threat appeals. Finally, the role of threat appeals, when combined with MSV features in arousal, evokes fear emotion, perceived believability, and effectiveness of these adverts.

The believability of adverts is an attitude indicator that affects the attitude towards the ad and the advertised issue. A systematic review was conducted to clarify the role of this concept in social adverts to be made them accepted and effective. This concept, when studied before in health promotion was just only studied in quantitative studies and participants were asked only to as believable or not. Still, no study has investigated this concept by a qualitative approach in adverts merging threat appeals and MSV and asking what ads most believable and why specific adverts are more believable than others. Finally, the literature review provided a brief section about the effectiveness of adverts.

From the literature review, the researcher managed to find the gap that this study contributes to fill. MSV has never been studied before in threatening anti-smoking televised ads, which contain three types of threats (physical, social, and death threat appeal), and the role of this combination on smokers when they experience exposure to such adverts. Nor has explored the impact of this on attention, arousal, fear evoking perceived believability, and effectiveness. Accordingly, this study uses qualitative research with a phenomenological orientation to collect data via semi-structured interviews. Thus, utilising DQR-thematic analysis to analyse these data, for the first time in the anti-smoking adverts realm.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The main aim of the study is to gain understanding, reach the meaning and interpret how smokers perceive threatening anti-smoking ads regarding their emotional reaction, the believability level and effectiveness of these ads. Therefore, the researcher believes that the qualitative approach is the right choice to address these research questions. Understanding of the phenomenon is a result of participants' interaction and perception of the commonly used types of anti-smoking ads. Moreover, there is a need for description, interpretation, and understanding of the processes that portray the phenomenon. Therefore, qualitative methodology is suitable to provide insights into how smokers perceive, understand and interpret their reaction to such ads and the meanings lying behind their experiences. In general, research methodology refers to the process, principles and procedures by which a researcher approaches problem, finds answers and seeks to portray a world in which reality is socially constructed, complex and ever-changing (Bogdan & Taylor 1975; Glesne 1999). Qualitative methodologies view the world as containing multiple realities since the social world is seen as a function of personal interaction and perception and the emphasis is on understanding the world from the perspective of its participants. Researchers from this perspective should view social life as being the results of interaction and interpretation (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004). Therefore, the qualitative methodologies are based on recognition of the subjective, experiential lifeworld of human beings and description of their experience in depth (Patton, 2002). The qualitative methodologies are mainly about how and why questions. They provide an in-depth understanding of how, why, and in what context certain phenomena occur, also, where the explanation and understanding of behaviour or activities are needed. In all of these situations, qualitative research is required as the qualitative data provides detailed and holistic descriptions, which have strong potential for revealing the complexities of ordinary events in their natural settings and understanding of action, problems and process in their social context (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Phillimore & Goodson, 2004).

In qualitative research, it is essential to begin from the assumption that researchers are interested in how people make sense of their experience and the structures of their worlds. In most cases, it will adopt an inductive and descriptive approach concerned with the process, meaning and understanding gained from participant's words and stories. So, in this kind of research, the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection, and he or she mediates the

data. Additionally, the researcher needs to engage in the field; he goes physically to the data sources (people) to observe or record them in natural settings, where possible. (Merriam, 1988; Creswell, 1994). However, before I explain the chosen methodology and data collection method, it is necessary to define some important terms in the research literature, which appear in many places in this chapter. Therefore, terms like research paradigm, ontology, epistemological position and research methodology and research method need to be precise. Then the chapter will discuss to the pilot study and its results, the type of phenomenology the researcher needed to adopt, the data collection tool, how the data were collected, how the adverts used in interviews were selected and how the young smokers were recruited. Finally, this chapter will show how the data were analysed via Thematic Analysis and then Dimension Qualitative Research.

3.2 Research paradigm

The research paradigm can be defined as the set of common beliefs and agreements shared between scientists about how problems should be understood and addressed (Kuhn, 1962). It is about the way researchers describe their world view and social reality and how they should conduct scientific research, achieve their objectives, and ensure the consistency of their study. The ontological position adopts a view about how the world is and then epistemological assumptions determine how knowledge will be gained. This, then leads to asking questions about what are proper ways to obtain knowledge and what tools should be used in this methodology and data collection method (Kuhn, 1970). Those terms (ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods) all together represent and determine the research paradigm, and so each one needs to be explored, and the relations between those terms need to be explained (Scotland, 2012; Guba, 1990). This step should be done to any research to make sure that the research approach adopted to address a certain issue and the data collection tool/s fit well with the research aims and questions. The research paradigm can be identified by answering three related questions: (i) What is the form and nature of reality, and what can we know about reality? (Ontology) (ii) What is the nature of the relationship between the researcher and what can be known? (Epistemology) and (iii) How can the researcher find out what she or he believes can be known? (Methodology) (Guba & Lincoln, 1998:201)

Before answering those three questions about my research, there is a necessity to clarify and define all of these terms, which are components of the research paradigm.

3.2.1 Ontology

Ontology is the study of being, it is concerned with what is, with the nature of existence (Crotty, 1998). It asks questions like whether there is one verifiable reality or whether there exist multiple, socially constructed realities (Patton, 2002). The answer will lead to a question about whether social objects should be perceived as objective or subjective. Accordingly, objectivism (or positivism) and subjectivism (also known as constructionism or interpretivism) can be considered as two important aspects of ontology (Bryman, 2012). Objectivism is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors, whereas subjectivism, which is also known as constructionism or interpretivism, perceives that social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors. Constructionism can be defined as an ontological position, which asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors (Saunders et al., 2012; Bryman, 2012). The meaning of phenomena is not discovered but constructed in people's minds, so they construct the meaning in different ways (Crotty, 1998).

3.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology clarifies the relationship between the researcher and reality and how this reality could be known (Carson et al., 2001). It is a theory of knowledge concerned with the nature and the scope of knowledge, whether it is a solid, real, and intangible form or whether it is softer, subjective, and relies on personal experience (Cohen et al., 2006). It is concerned with questions such as: How do we know what we know? What is the truth? What is legitimate knowledge? What is the nature of the relationship between the investigator and what can be known? (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Epistemology is a theoretical and philosophical system that structures how research is conducted (Guba, 1990). Each methodology" is based on a particular system of theories, which specify (1) assumptions about reality, human nature, and society; (2) beliefs about what it is important to study; and (3) assumptions about what constitutes legitimate knowledge and meaningful data" (Slevitch, 2011:75).

The epistemological position of this research is that the smoker is the source of knowledge (i.e. reality) which needs to be known and interpreted, thus reality is multiple and subjected to every smoker's subjective experience with threatening televised anti-smoking adverts. The role

of the researcher then is to extract this reality from smokers' experience when they are exposed to anti-smoking televised adverts.

3.2.3 The theoretical perspective of the research

Crotty (1998, p 3) has defined it as “the philosophical stance informing the methodology”. There are several theoretical research perspectives as an outcome of adopting epistemological and ontological positions. For instance, constructivism, as an ontological and epistemological position, will lead to interpretivism as a theoretical research perspective. This, in turn, will lead to a group of methodologies, including Phenomenological research, Grounded theory and Heuristic inquiry. Interpretive studies, in general, postulate that people create and associate their own subjective and intersubjective meanings as they interact with the world around them. Interpretive researchers thus “attempt to understand phenomena by accessing the meanings that participants assign to them” (Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991:5). By adopting this approach, the researcher considers the reality as a function of the individual’s subjective experiences of the external world; hence, the researcher needs to understand the world as it is from this kind of experience.

3.2.4 Methodology and methods

The research methodology is “the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes” (Crotty, 1998:3). This methodology will be informed, as Crotty 1998 claims, by the researcher’s theoretical perspective. This means the philosophical stance informs the methodology. Positivism, pragmatism and interpretivism are the most well-known theoretical perspectives. These theoretical perspectives will lead research to adopt a certain methodology and, in turn, specific methods. For example, methodologies that fit with interpretivism are grounded theory, phenomenology and discourse analysis. These methodologies usually require a qualitative approach depending on data collection tools like observation, interviews and case study. The methods are ways of data collection which are established in the methodology; they can be defined as a set of tools, procedures, techniques, or strategies to be used in a scientific inquiry (Smith & Heshusius, 1986). Therefore, method and methodology are not the same concepts. Whereas the methodology is an approach to the research design as a whole for finding answers to the research questions, methods are techniques used to collect and analyse

research data to provide evidence for the posited knowledge that the research constructs (Jackson, 2013).

In summary, the relationship between those terms that represent the research paradigm is as follows. The researcher's ontological position (definition of reality and existence) will define his or her epistemological position (processing of knowing and what constitutes sound knowledge). Moreover, epistemological assumptions will, in turn, define the methodology (how to gain knowledge about the world), which then will determine the research methods that will fit with the chosen methodology (data collection tools which will answer the study questions and achieve its aims) (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, 1994; Sale et al., 2000).

3.3 Implications for this research

As stated in the research aims and question, the researcher is interested in young adult smokers' perceptions of threatening anti-smoking adverts, their reactions and their interpretations of such reactions to anti-smoking ads' studied content (threat appeals and some MSV features). Thus, the researcher is seeking to understand smokers' experience of such ads, how they feel when they are exposed to them (fear emotion) and how they perceive those ads in terms of their believability and effectiveness from smokers' point of view. What are the meanings and interpretations of their experience? The researcher is trying to answer the questions "how and why" smokers react in the way they do and seeks to understand all of this through the participants' views and words.

Therefore, the source of data of this research is smokers' perceptions of threatening anti-smoking ads (their previous experience and immediate experience), also, smokers' explanation of their emotional reaction, and the believability and effectiveness of such ads in their words and their reasons for their reaction. It is all about what could be known about reality, which is shaped by individuals' experiences. It supposes that each participant in the study understood his/her world through their own experiences, and their understanding of this reality is through their perceptions. Thus, the researcher eventually aims to reach the essence of these experiences, to achieve fundamental meaning, understanding and interpretation of how and why young adult smokers react in such a way to threatening anti-smoking adverts. Some authors in research literature assume that ontological issues and epistemological issues are often merged together (Crotty, 1998; King & Horrocks, 2010). Accordingly, the researcher's ontological and epistemological position is constructionist (reality and knowledge are created in objects, minds;

they are socially and contextually constructed). Thus, the research adopts an interpretivist theoretical perspective (reality and knowledge need to be interpreted to come to understand a person's unique worldview).

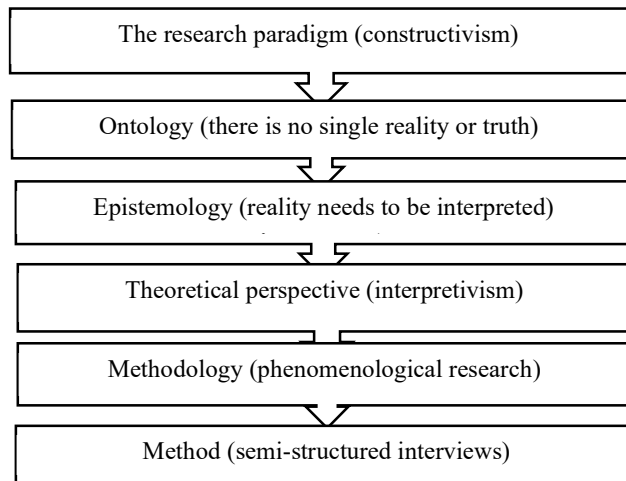
It is believed that there are many views (realities) that are constructed in individuals' minds. Thus, the research is interested in these realities and knowledge (young adult smokers' experience), how they perceive, understand and react to threatening anti-smoking ads (emotional reaction, believability and effectiveness). It seeks to extract meanings and interpretations of their worlds from their voices and words. The researcher aims to get a deep understanding of their reaction to such ads; the research seeks to reveal the hidden meaning of their responses via deep reflection which could result from the interaction between the researcher and young adult smokers (Ponterotto, 2005; Beck et al., 1993).

Based on the above, from the ontological position, this research paradigm considers that reality is socially constructed and mind-dependent. So, there are multiple realities, and the reality is created in individuals' minds (Creswell, 2003; Mertens, 2009). Reality is, in this sense, limited to context, and individuals or a group put together in a specific context (young adult smokers). Therefore, it cannot be generalised into one universal reality (Chiliasm & Kawulich, 2012). Such a situation will lead to adopting an important epistemological assumption that knowledge is subjective. If reality is mind-dependent and socially constructed, this reality needs to be interpreted. From this perspective, human experience in a certain context will reveal the truth and will draw on and reflect the reality to an extent. Hence, this reality needs to be interpreted; it is used to discover the underlying meaning of smokers' interaction with anti-smoking ads when they are exposed to them.

Grounded on this, the researcher adopted interpretivism as a theoretical perspective, which allows interpreting the reality of the issue under the study. It is therefore required to choose a methodology that enables the researcher to get access to and understand smokers' experience, which represents their multi-realities - conducting research that seeks to catch their immediate experience with adverts. Advert elicitation sessions and asking participants to recall their previous experience when exposed to similar anti-smoking materials may help to discover how they experienced them in their lives previously. This will allow the researcher eventually to come to the essence of their experience, to extract meanings and give his interpretation of smokers' reaction to threatening anti-smoking ads. Therefore, the researcher believes that inductive qualitative research, mainly with a phenomenological orientation, is the proper

methodology to conduct this research, and using semi-structured interviews depending mainly on advert elicitation are the most approach data collection tool for this research. The chart below represents the research selected to answer the research questions.

Figure 1 The research elements



Source: Adapted from Crotty, M. (1998). The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process. Sage.

3.4 Pilot study

In the early stages of this research, after I decided to adopt a qualitative methodology to answer the research questions, -as a novice researcher- found it useful to conduct a pilot study. To make sure that this research was possible to practise in the field to collect the data (doing interviews) and to find out the challenges which could be faced in the main study. The researcher conducted seven interviews with postgraduate students who smoke from the same university as the researcher. In those interviews, the smokers were shown three anti-smoking ads. These were real ads from anti-smoking campaigns in the UK, USA, Australia, and New Zealand downloaded from YouTube website, but every smoker watched different ads. This enabled the researcher to use more advertisements, to have clues about the ads to be used in the main study. Three types of the real death threat appeal, social threat appeal, and physical threat appeal were examined in two kinds of ads: TV and print ads. Each interview consisted of three parts. The first part contained general questions about smoking history and smoking habits. Then an interviewee watched three ads. After each ad, he or she filled in two scales (fear and believability scales- see appendices). The third part was about reactions to these ads

and additional questions about the believability, persuasiveness, and effectiveness of the three ads participants had watched.

Table 4 Characteristics of participants

Participants	Gender	Age	Years of smoking	Cigarettes per day	Attempts to quit in past
Inter 1	Male	40	22	5 to 10	Many times,
Inter 2	Male	33	11	Twice a week (shisha)	Tries to quit when he exercises
Inter 3	Female	31	15	10 to 15	Tries to decrease
Inter 4	Male	28	7	25 or two packets	Twice
Inter 5	Male	35	15	20 or more	No
Inter 6	Male	34	17	40	Many times,
Inter 7	Male	32	10	20	No

3.4.1 Pilot study results

Most smokers were heavy smokers. Their age, on average, was 33 years old (Table 4). The results (Table 5) of this study revealed that TV anti-smoking ads were more believable and were more fear-arousing. Half of the participants chose emotions and feelings from the fear scale which showed that they experienced fear emotion when they watched those ads, especially with physical and death threat appeal adverts in both high and low threat level. Furthermore, the results of this study showed that a high level of believability did not produce a firm intention to comply with the message of the ad (thinking to stop, looking for help to quit smoking). When smokers watched the ads and were asked whether they made any difference to them, they said they did not add anything new. The results showed a high level of believability but at the same time no impact on intention to comply with the message of the ads at all. Therefore, it was decided the main study with a large number of interviewees to consider this tension carefully and try to find out the effect of behaviour (smoking), how smokers view smoking and how this affects their perceptions of the anti-smoking materials studied.

Table 5 Threat appeals and behavioural outcomes of smokers

	Kind of threat on ads	Fear emotion	Believability	Intention to quit
Inter 1	Printed ad (high death threat)	(worried, uncomfortable, scared)	10	All of the ads made him think of quality to quit in future. Already has the intention to quit
	TV ad about chemical (low physical threat)	(nothing)	9.8	
	TV ad (high social threat)	(nothing)	7	
Inter 2	Printed ad (high death appeal).	(normal)	1.8	No
	Printed ad (low social threat).	(normal)	1.7	
	TV ad (high physical threat).	(uncomfortable)	7.4	
Inter 3	TV ad (high death threat)	(felt nothing)	0.1	Has intention and the ads did not make any difference or add anything new
	TV ad (low physical threat)	(uncomfortable)	7.8	
	TV ad (low social threat)	(felt nothing)	5.5	
Inter 4	Printed ad (low social threat)	(nothing)	0.1	May reduce smoking
	TV ad (high physical threat)	(frighten)	8	
	Printed ad (low death threat)	(nothing)	7.7	
Inter 5	TV ad (high social threat)	(uncomfortable)	6.5	The first ad made him think about being healthier
	TV ad (high death threat)	(scared)	6.6	
	TV ad (low physical threat)	(nothing)	3.1	
Inter 6	TV ad (high death threat)	(anxious)	8	Did not make any difference. Just to reduce smoking and not smoke in front of his daughter
	TV ad (low physical threat)	(nervous)	5.9	
	TV ad (low social threat)	(tense)	7.6	
Inter 7	TV ad (high social threat)	(nervous)	6.4	Did not make any difference to his future plans.
	TV ad (low physical threat)	(worried)	9.1	
	TV ad (high death threat)	(worried)	8.3	

3.5 Phenomenology

Phenomenology is a philosophy and research methodology too. It emerged as a reaction to the positivist research paradigm, which assumes that researchers could study reality, because it is ordered, rational, and logical. Positivists assumed objectively measured knowledge, which is independent of human interaction (Reiners, 2012). Phenomenology as a philosophy was established by Husserl (1859-1938) who posited that the existence of people in a unique lifeworld determines their actions because every individual has a subjective experience of his or her everyday life which will decide on their social reality and the meaning of their actions. Therefore, reality and people's reactions could be explained from the perspective of those who experience the phenomenon (Creswell, 2007). Phenomenology, as a research methodology, is defined as the study of phenomena as people experience them (von Eckartsberg, 1998). Also, it studied things as they appear in our experience of the ways we experience things; thus, the meanings things have in our experience (Stanford Encyclopaedia, 2008).

Phenomenology, according to Husserl, is the understanding of the "essence" or true nature of the experience as perceived and explained by the participants. Others describe phenomenological research as an interpretive, qualitative form of research that seeks to study phenomena that are perceived or experienced. Moreover, it tries to explain the lived experience as it occurs for the participants and, therefore, attempts to uncover the meanings within this everyday experience (Flood, 2010; Giorgi, 1997). Thus, "The main trait of phenomenology is the study of how people describe things and experienced them through their senses based on the assumption that what we can only know, what we experience" (Patton, 2002: 105). Knowledge in phenomenological research is produced, and understanding is achieved, by the interaction between the researcher and participants. This makes this type of research inductive, subjective and dynamic (Reiners, 2012). Phenomenological research has developed from merely producing a pure description of the phenomenon, as Husserl did, to Heidegger's point of view, which emphasises the interpretation of experience (Lopez & Willis, 2004; van Manen, 2011). This evaluation led to two approaches to phenomenology: descriptive and interpretive approaches, which share the same epistemological roots, but with significant differences in methodological implications (Matua & Van Der Wal, 2015).

3.5.1 Descriptive phenomenology

This is usually connected to Edmund Husserl. The main concern of this kind of phenomenological research is to explore, analyse and describe the studied issue in rich details which enables the researcher to gain a nearly real picture of the issue reality — provided that he brackets himself from existing knowledge about the phenomenon. This allows the researcher to grasp essential elements of reality and achieve more direct contact with the phenomenon as it is ‘lived’ rather than as it is ‘conceptualised’ (Merleau-Ponty, 1962; van Manen, 2011). Descriptive phenomenology would be the right approach when the researcher wants to describe the issue in question, and he must bracket his biases and previous knowledge about the phenomenology.

3.5.2 Interpretive phenomenology

This is also called ‘hermeneutic’; it developed as a reaction from Martin Heidegger to the Descriptive phenomenological approach associated with Husserl. In this type of phenomenology, the researcher focuses on gaining a deeper understanding of participants’ experiences. It investigates the meaning of experience, which helps to reach the participants’ interpretation of the meaning of the phenomenon to reproduce a clearer understanding of what the researcher needs to identify. Therefore, interpretive phenomenology allows the participants to interpret their perceptions and actions, revealing in their words how their experience affects them and their choices as they live it, feel it and think of it. The researcher could achieve this through phenomenological reflection and writing, developing a description of the phenomenon that leads to an understanding of the meaning of the experience (Flood, 2010; Matua & Van Der Wal, 2015; Osborne 1994). This type of phenomenology should be adopted when the aim of the researcher is to grasp the meaning of the phenomenon, and he does not need to bracket his pre-existing knowledge about the issue. Table 6 summarises the main differences between the two approaches of phenomenology:

Table 6 Differentiating between descriptive and interpretive phenomenology

The area of difference	Descriptive phenomenology	Interpretive phenomenology
The focus of the research	Knowledge is generated from direct exploration, analysis and description of the phenomenon, as free as possible from unexamined presuppositions,	Achieving a deeper understanding of the experience, concentrating on unveiling the hidden meanings in the accounts of the experience
Role of previous knowledge	Bracketing: shed and keep in abeyance researchers should all their knowledge related to the phenomenon	Pre-understanding and previous knowledge are not bracketed but integrated with research findings
The outcome of the research	“Pure” descriptions and “universal essences” of experience	Identification of meanings and interpretations to understand the phenomenon
Value of context	Describes essential features of phenomena, without paying attention to the socio-cultural context of people.	People’ subjective experiences are influenced by the social-cultural contexts in which they find themselves
Application of the knowledge generated within the disciplines	Generating new knowledge about a poorly understood phenomenon to know essential features	to describe a poorly understood phenomenon, generate knowledge about how particular experiences affect people, their relations and their perception(context)

Source: Adapted from Matua & Van Der Wal. (2015) 22-27.

3.5.3 The implications for the research

The phenomenological study that the researcher conducted was trying to portray the smokers’ subjective experience for several individuals without any intention to construct a theoretical model or explain the experience in terms of functional relations of variables outside immediate experience. Because epistemologically phenomenology focuses on revealing meaning rather than on arguing a point or developing abstract theory (Van Manen, 1997), the researcher did not aim to test theories about the persuasiveness and effectiveness of social advertising with different content (threatening anti-smoking ads) against each other. Instead the aim was to shed light on how smokers perceive, understand and react to threatening anti-smoking ads and the meaning of those ads and try to extract an interpretation of this based on their experience and words. Thus, understanding phenomena, rather than a generalisation of findings, is a crucial feature of qualitative research. It therefore instead reflects on this experience, which is considered meaningfully organised and therefore, intrinsically intelligible (Wertz et al., 2011). The ultimate aim of a phenomenological study is to reduce individual experiences of a

phenomenon to a description of the universal essence, which contain what they experience and how they experience it (Creswell & Poth, 2017), that is, how they perceive the phenomenon, describe it, experience it, feel it and make sense of it.

Therefore, phenomenology is suited to studying research problems that try to understand several individuals' experiences shared through their narratives in order to gain a deep understanding of a phenomenon, which may lead to developing practices that may help to indicate possible ways to deal with a certain problem (Creswell & Poth, 2017). The goal of phenomenology by the study of people's subjective and everyday experiences is to enlarge and deepen understanding of the range of immediate experiences (Crotty, 1998; Spiegelberg, 1982). Phenomenology with an interpretive orientation was adopted in this research; it is a systematic attempt by the researcher to come into direct contact with the world of the participants, to discover and describe the meaning and structures of their experiences with anti-smoking ads. Phenomenology views the smokers as people who can interpret the world and their experiences and who construct personal understandings of these experiences. This approach enabled the gathering of rich data from such a group of the anti-smoking campaign's audience (Pring, 2004, as cited in Hopwood, 2004). Here experience is essentially present experience, the immediate experience of smokers when they are exposed to threatening anti-smoking adverts under study conditions. It also refers to their past experience with such messages, which means what they perceived, felt, or thought of when they faced those materials in everyday life. Then smokers were asked to give their reasons, explanations, interpretations and reflections on the way they reacted and may tend to behave if they saw similar adverts in the future.

Those meanings and interpretations are formed by a mix of the interactions of smokers with anti-smoking ads (their past experience) and their reactions to the anti-smoking ads used in the study when they watch them under study conditions (present experience or immediate experience). Both these kinds of experiences would shape the young adult smokers' experience, which could be revealed in their words, and their reactions could be interpreted by their words too. Therefore, data analysis was built on the smokers' portrayal of their experience, in simple words, what smokers did when they faced such an advert in terms of feelings and the believability and effectiveness they perceived in those ads with specific content. Therefore, participants were asked to reflect on this experience and give the meaning of their reaction, their evaluation of the effectiveness of these ads and their interpretation of why they reacted in a certain way.

In a qualitative study with a phenomenological orientation, the only legitimate source of data is the views and experiences of participants (young adult smokers in this study) through their words about what they have experienced. This is achieved by using a phenomenological reflection and writing a description of the phenomenon, which leads to a deeper understanding of the meaning of the experience (Osborne 1994; Racher 2003; Flood 2010). Each smoker has his unique experience with anti-smoking ads, which may be affected by age, smoking habit, how he perceives smoking in his life and media consumption etc. Therefore, the methodology was built on the smokers' subjective experiences of their daily life when they faced anti-smoking content, made meaning and formed views of phenomena. This approach is usually used to explore meaning and interpretations of a certain phenomenon (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006).

The meaning, reasons and interpretation of smokers of their feelings, believability evaluation and to what extent they found such ads effective or not, from smokers' point of view thus a have not been uncovered. This is because previous research in this area just asked smokers, ex-smokers and non-smokers whether they believed the ads or not and then which ads were more believable than others, without going beyond this point. For example, these studies did not ask why some ads were more believable than others, or what made some more believable than others.

3.5.4 Rationale for adopting phenomenology

In phenomenological research, it is the participant's perceptions, feelings and conscious experiences that are paramount and that are the object of study. This kind of research approach was chosen to investigate the direct experience of the informants at face value (Guest et al., 2006; Kenyon, 2006). This is why a qualitative approach with phenomenological orientation was chosen in this study. The researcher was interested in how smokers defined their experience when exposed to threatening anti-smoking ads (about smokers' lived experience when exposed to them in their everyday life and also, to examine the experience as it occurred to smokers) (Creswell, 2007). Therefore, their immediate experience when they watched six ads were explored in research interviews under research conditions. However, the researcher should note here that his research was not mainly about the past experience of looking at what may happen to participants in the future. Instead, it was about what was happening to smokers immediately when exposed to anti-smoking ads so that previous experience would be combined with immediate experience. With such messages, the content used in the study was

intended to help interviewees to give real answers about what they felt at the time, which might help them to recall and remember what they felt in the past (previous experience) when exposed to similar content, how they perceived it, how they reacted to it in terms of feelings, believability and effectiveness and their explanation of their reaction to it. So from smokers' narratives and stories, the researcher sought to reveal the essence of how young adult smokers reacted to such anti-smoking ads, to try to identify the potential effects and perceptions of both kinds of experience (the whole experience) when listening to different stories and narration (the participants' perception and words), in order to interpret these experiences.

Based on this rationale, the researcher expected to get rich data via this approach since the young adult smokers would find themselves interpreting their experience and their world, which would help them to extract understanding of it. This was precisely what this study was looking for to understand deeply the phenomena of how young adult smokers perceive, understand, and react to threatening anti-smoking messages, to what extent they find certain ads evoke fear in them, and consequently, to what extent this will make them find some anti-smoking ads more believable and effective. The aim was to answer the question why in each case and finally obtain their opinions and views about what a believable and effective anti-smoking ad should look like. To acquire the phenomenon's essence, the research aimed to answer the question of what smokers' experience of exposure to such ads tells us about the believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking ads and their views about those anti-smoking ads they find believable and effective which may lead them to stop smoking. The researcher considered it important to hear the voice of young adults as the biggest age group of smokers in the UK (ASH, 2017) and to learn their stories, as they are the primary audience group targeted by anti-smoking campaigns, especially by smoking cessation campaigns.

3.3.5 Type of phenomenological research conducted

Phenomenology involves the study of lived experience, including perceptions, thoughts, memory, imagination, emotion, and desire (Smith, 2003). In this research, the experience of interest was studied via two paths. The first was the past experience of smokers with anti-smoking ads in general, and the second path was direct (present time) experience with anti-smoking ads shown to smokers during the interview. This could make smokers go back and forth between both kinds of experience, which could help to the researcher to catch the smokers' whole experience with that content and how they reacted to it in terms of feelings and evaluation of the believability and effectiveness of the anti-smoking ads. The approach that the

researcher adopted, it was not unprecedented, and fitted qualitative research with a phenomenological orientation. Moreover, it had been used in some similar qualitative studies in marketing, which adopted phenomenology as a research approach. For example, the study of Mick and Buhl (1992) aimed to assess the meaning-based model of advertising through a phenomenological inquiry into the life stories of three individuals and their own experiences of contemporary magazine advertisements, to address critical factors that motivate and shape actualised advertising meanings. In phenomenological type interviewing they showed in the first phase of their study five magazine ads about alcohol and asked interviewees a question like, “tell me about your experience of this ad?” And then all the following questions were based on interviewees’ answers and comments during the rest of the interview. The study emphasised human experience with the advertisement, as described from a first-person account.

Also, Parker (1998) was concerned about how life experiences influence consumers' experiences of advertisements and how the powerful alcohol-related "myths" identified in previous content analyses were also identified by the targets of the ads using the meaning-based model of advertising experiences. In this research, the researchers depended on advert elicitation interviews, where they showed participants ads and asked them to describe the ads, their feeling, and what the advertiser was trying to communicate and tell them about alcohol. This method was used as a trigger to get access to their life and experience with such adverts. Kenyon (2006) explored the use of intertextuality in advertising texts, using the phenomenological study of interpretive practices to form meaning from an alcohol advertisement. In this research, the researcher conducted eight discussion groups with six in depth interviews to investigate the direct experience of the informant at face value interviewees. Informants were shown three printed advertisements about alcohol and discussion followed concerning frames from each ad. Moreover, Waiters et al. (2001) addressed how youths interpret, understand, and respond to the themes and images portrayed in television alcohol advertisements. In this research, six alcohol advertisements were shown to focus-group participants from schools: elementary, middle, and high school students, who were then asked what they liked and disliked, their thoughts about the meaning of ads and finally what was their favourite ad and why.

Wilson et al. (2006) were aimed to apply a conceptual framework articulated from ideas such as “identification”, “distanciation,” and “projection” as interpreted in hermeneutic phenomenology to analyse the cognitive-expressive process of consumers reacting to television

advertising. Participants' narratives were collected from focus in groups, which they watched two TV ads and then were asked questions like: What do you see and hear on screen? How is this related to what you understand to be the "message" of the advertisement? Do you identify with any of the people shown, and if so, why? If you do identify, does it increase your intention to consume the product, and if so, why? Kempen et al. (2011) explored consumers' reasons for reading labels and the influence of food labels on their purchasing behaviour. The study was conducted within a qualitative paradigm using the transcendental phenomenological research approach to discover underlying, essential aspects or features of the experience. In this study, participants were just asked two questions: Why do you read food labels? How do food labels influence your purchasing behaviour? Focus groups were held to answer these questions, with visual aids, such as samples of food labels presented to stimulate discussions when needed.

Likewise, Wilson (2012) considered the audience response to political advertising and tried to provide a conceptual route through phenomenology application to marketing communication research practice. He argued that hermeneutic phenomenology is a philosophical resource offering appropriate Spatio-temporal images for people responding to media marketing's branded lifestyles. In this study, the researcher showed the participants an ad (about ethnic harmony in Malaysia), then the discussion started to explore fore-structured consumer responses to mediated product branding. Morosi (2014) explored how pre-adolescent girls interacted with representations of femininity in advertising messages. In the main stage of data collection in this study, phenomenological interviews prompted by advert elicitation were used to gain insight into girls' responses and interactions with adverts. The phenomenological interviewing in this research provide insights into girls' reception of adverts in their terms and their own words.

All of these studies showed participants adverts to investigate their direct (present time) experience with adverts. This kind of experience was used as a trigger to prompt the participants to tell their life stories or to evoke and recall their memories, thoughts, emotions, feelings, and past experiences. This was exactly the aim of this research. Smokers were asked about their smoking behaviour and past experience with anti-smoking materials (including anti-smoking ads and health warnings on cigarettes packets etc.) in the first section of the interview, and then they watched six anti-smoking ads. Immediately after watching the ads, they were asked about their immediate experience with the six ads, in terms of the emotions (fear), believability, effectiveness and then the design of anti-smoking ads that they thought would be

more believable and effective. Therefore, after showing the ads, most of the remarks and questions from the researcher depended on smokers' answers, since those ads would evoke and help them to recall their memories, thoughts, and experiences with anti-smoking ads, and help them to describe their feelings and emotions when exposed to those ads and the influence of such content of these ads-if any- on their believability and effectiveness.

3.6 Data collection

Among the data collection methods in qualitative research methodologies, the interview is considered the most common tool which is conducted in a dialogical, open and profound manner. (Akerlind 2005; Booth 1997) Qualitative research interviews are widely used to access people's experiences and their inner perceptions, attitudes, and feelings of reality. They seek to describe the meanings of central themes in the life world of the subjects. The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what the interviewees say (Kvale, 1996; Denzin, & Lincoln, 1994). The interview is a conversation the art of asking questions and listening (Denzin & Norman, 1998) or more broadly, it is just a conversation with a purpose (Webb & Webb, 1932). Most qualitative research interviews are either semi-structured, lightly structured or in-depth (Mason, 2002).

The research aim was to gain a sense of how participants talked about their situation and their experience with the issue in question, which would enable the researcher to have access to the interviewee world. It also sought to answer the research questions in a way that combined structuring and flexibility via interaction with participants. The researcher, therefore, deemed that the most appropriate type of interview, in this case, would be the semi-structured interview. Semi-structured interviews are qualitative data-gathering techniques, which are designed as conversations, to allow the researcher to collect information about the participant's ideas, experiences, opinions and views and are loosely arranged around an interview guide which covers certain areas, topics and issues (Arksey & Knight, 1999). This kind of interview, it gives the interviewee a good deal of leeway. Still, at the same time, the interviewer also directs the conversation to be sure that the interviewee gives the relevant information. Moreover, it covers the topics, themes, and areas that the researcher considers necessary (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Morris, 2015). Therefore, in semi-structured interviews, the researcher has certain questions, or topics to be covered, which represent the interview guide, but at the same time, those interviews are flexible in how and when the questions are asked. The order question can be altered depending on the conversation, or upon the interviewer's perception of what seems

most appropriate. Also, it allows the researcher to probe and reflect on interviewees' answers and allows the interviewee to lead the interview by some of his answers. This is so that the interview can be shaped by the interviewee's understandings as well as the researcher's interests, and unexpected themes can emerge (Lewis-Beck et al., 2003). Therefore, respondents can expand their ideas and speak in great detail about diverse subjects, rather than relying only on concepts and questions defined in advance of the interview (Darmer, 1995). It is possible to emphasise some questions and include new ones. Additionally, question-wording can be changed, and explanations provided; questions inappropriate for a particular interviewee can be omitted, or additional ones included (Guerrero-Castañeda et al., 2017; Edwin van Teijlingen, 2014).

Semi-structured interviews have standard features such as the interactional exchange of dialogue and the adoption of a thematic, topic-centred or narrative approach, where the researcher has topics, themes or issues to cover, but with a fluid and flexible structure. Finally, qualitative research operates from the perspective that knowledge is situated and contextual, and therefore, the role of the interview is to ensure that the relevant contexts are brought into focus so that situated knowledge can be produced. (Mason, 2002). For all of these reasons, semi-structured interviews were deemed to be an appropriate method for this research.

3.6.1 Advert-elicitation, phenomenological orientation in interviews

It was important for the researcher to attend to the natural interaction and comment of smokers on adverts by giving them the freedom to talk without confusing them by too many questions. The first and second parts (see interview guide in appendix 3) of the interview were about the smoking habit and the past experience of smokers with smoking and anti-smoking materials in general. However, the third-party adverts' elicitation was the most important part. This allowed the interviewee to lead the interview and all of the questions after watching those ads were just reactions, probing, clarification or asking for details or examples depending on the participant's answers. Finally, the participants were also asked to suggest suitable anti-smoking ads in terms of design that would work for them as smokers and for their age group in terms of the believability and effectiveness of those ads. Those phenomenological interviews mainly relied on adverts elicitation via showing six ads to each interviewee in order to ask about their believability and effectiveness to smokers during the actual watching of such ads. They were focused on understanding as fully as possible smokers' own experience of the adverts shown to them. Those phenomenological qualitative interviews were open-ended, with the main

purpose of eliciting the experiences, feelings and perceptions of interviewees, consistent with research based on an interpretivist paradigmatic approach (Thompson et al., 1989).

Interviews in this research utilised some ideas of the Elicitation Interview technique, which is grounded in phenomenology, and generally described as the study of experience and consciousness in the way it occurs and appears to us. The Elicitation Interview technique can help to gain in-depth insights into people's approaches, processes, and subjective experiences of data analysis and interpretation of information. This technique allows us to investigate how visualisations (anti-smoking ads) shape the way people feel and think as they interpret them. Experience, in this context, means personal responses to a visualisation system (anti-smoking ads) that go beyond interaction aspects but focus on capturing emotional and sensory reactions to the visualisation, as well as personal interpretations, meaning, and opinions that it may trigger (Hogan et al., 2016). The study was guided mainly by qualitative research and broadly phenomenological in its orientation. The aim was not to build theory but to understand deeply how smokers experienced exposure to a special kind of anti-smoking ads, how they reacted to it in terms of perceived ad believability and effectiveness, then the researcher wanted to interpret their reaction to such ads, which may help in designing anti-smoking ads.

The researcher, via advert elicitation interviews, wanted to observe and extract as many details as possible regarding smokers' direct experience (perceptions, feelings and thoughts and reaction) of the anti-smoking adverts used in the study, and to use that to dig into their past experience with similar content to allow their ideas to come out and reach a better understanding of the whole context of smokers' reaction to anti-smoking ads in this study. That may help to know what background and experience led smokers to such a reaction and judgment of anti-smoking ads — taking the participant to the stage where he started reflecting on his past experience since phenomenological research is about the subjective experience of informants. So, it was not enough to know the immediate reaction of smokers when they watched (experienced) anti-smoking ads. The important issue was what past experiences led them to react in such way. Therefore, the researcher tried to encourage smokers to talk and reflect on their past experiences, based on their immediate experience about their feelings, thoughts, reactions and expectations about their smoking habit when exposed to threatening anti-smoking ads.

3.6.2 Participants

From 2000 to 2016, statistics revealed that the most significant age groups of smokers in Britain were 20-25 and 25-34 years old (ASH, 2017; Health and Social Care Information Centre, 2014; Universities UK, 2014). Many researchers know these groups as young adults (Hammond, 2005; Lennon & Rentfro, 2010; Fergusonm & Phau, 2013). Therefore, because of the lack of resources and time for the researcher to complete his study, he decided to focus on those two age groups among university students, as he could easily find people of this age at university to recruit and it was more convenient to have access to the target participants in the university environment. Therefore, the researcher chose a homogeneous purposive sample, which involved selecting the participants based on the study objectives and characteristics that the population shared. This technique "is the deliberate choice of an informant due to the qualities the informant possesses. The researcher decides what needs to be known and sets out to find people who can and are willing to provide the information by knowledge or experience" (Tongco, 2007:147).

In this research, the participants had to be British smokers (because the studied anti-smoking ads were from UK anti-smoking campaigns), young adults, males and females, which could be found in a university context. Since the research had a phenomenological orientation, the researcher was looking for people who had experienced the phenomenon (threatening anti-smoking ads), who were current smokers. As for participant numbers in qualitative phenomenological studies, some have recommended that a researcher should interview between 5 and 25 interviewees (Polkinghorne, 1989), even though the answer to how many interviews is enough, in qualitative research, is: it depends (Baker et al., 2012). However, the researcher needs to interview smokers to the point of data saturation when nothing significant or new is revealed by interview data. This point means the interviewees are not telling them anything that they have not heard before or no additional data are being found, so the researcher cannot develop the properties of the category anymore (Guest et al., 2006; Edwards & Holland, 2013).

3.6.3 Conducting the interviews

The first part of the interview was about the participants' smoking habits when they started smoking, what they smoked, whether they had tried to stop smoking before, and if yes, how many times. Also, in those interviews, the researcher asked smokers about their media

consumption and what type they were most exposed to, what were the reasons behind their decision to stop smoking, their experience with anti-smoking materials and anti-smoking ads and whether they remembered any particular ads. If yes, they were encouraged to describe them, how they felt when watching them, and what those ads did to them. Did they watch or read them in detail or ignore them? Then they watched six anti-smoking ads on three types of threats and two levels of threat (high and low) and were asked about their feeling and emotions and then they were asked about how they considered those ads in terms of believability and effectiveness. The interviews focused on extracting as many details as possible regarding smokers' direct experience (present experience) of threatening anti-smoking adverts. However, they also dig into their previous experiences and how they consumed anti-smoking materials and encouraged them to give as many concrete details as possible about that, in order to gain a better understanding of the context which led them to respond to such anti-smoking adverts in specific ways. The interview questions were refined, and additional questions were added based on participant responses within the same interview and from one interview to another. Initial ideas and notes were typed as soon as each interview was completed.

This type of phenomenological research using ad elicitation interviews has been used in some studies to enable the researcher to understand and extract the meaning of participants' interpretation of their interaction with ads. (Mick & Buhl, 1992; Wilson et al., 2006; Rowa-Dewar & Amos, 2016; Kenyon, 2006; Oberholzer et al., 2008; Parry et al., 2013; Lewis et al., 2007; Elliott & Elliott, 2005). Therefore, in this research, semi-structured interviews with adverts elicitation were used in order to get insight into smokers' responses and reactions to those ads in terms of their believability and effectiveness. The ads were used here as a trigger and reminder of their experience with anti-smoking materials in general and what the smokers had seen before, and as a stimulus, for them to talk and reflect on their opinions about such types of anti-smoking ads when they experienced them immediately.

3.6.4 Material selection

The researcher used six anti-smoking TV adverts, two for each of three threat appeals types (physical threat appeal, social threat appeal and death threat appeal) and two levels of threat severity (high threat vs low threat). There were real anti-smoking ads which were aired and uploaded to the internet in the UK from 2000 to 2016. Those six adverts were chosen from 41 ads: 18 with physical threat appeal, ten with social threat appeal and 13 with death threat appeal. The ads were downloaded from the YouTube website and produced by organisations such as

NHS Smoke-free, British Heart Foundation, Quit, Fresh and Cancer Research UK. The researcher believed that they represented the three types of threat appeals.

However, after careful evaluation according to type and level of threat and MSV features, the total number of ads were reduced to 12 ads, four ads of each type and level of threat. The evaluation criteria were that the ads should be aired after 2007 because, before 2007, some ads illustrated smoking indoors; they should be as short as possible, the main theme of the ad should be recognizable and represent one of three themes (physical, social and death threat appeal), because in many anti-smoking ads the three themes could emerge in some parts of the ad (for example the impact of secondhand smoking on children could be recognized as social and physical or death threat appeal at the same time).

Then the 12 ads were tested among a group of 29 students including smokers, ex-smokers and non-smokers, aged between 19 to 29 years old. This was to make sure that the choices of the researcher were correct and that the test group shared similar classification and interpretations of the themes and appeals in those ads in order to reduce them to just six ads to be used in the study. This group of students was asked to watch the 12 ads one by one, and after watching each advert, they were asked to answer a short survey (four questions- appendix1) asking them about their smoking habit, their feeling and to which theme he or she thought that the ad fitted well. From the results of this survey, the researcher finally chose six ads to be used in the interviews (Appendices).

Thus, the six televised adverts used in this research were divided into three types of threats (physical, social and death threat appeals) and two levels of threat (high and low) according to the sample answers and researcher's choice, since the researcher was concerned about MSV features in each advert, then the length of the adverts which need to be short where possible. However, this was difficult to achieve, as all the adverts were pre-prepared adverts (real adverts) which made them in some aspects not fit with what the researcher wanted to exist in those adverts.

3.6.5 Challenges of recruiting smokers

To connect with potential participants (young adult smokers), the researcher used mainly the university email system. However, he only had access to postgraduate students' emails to which he sent an invitation email (appendix). This enabled the researcher to do about half of the interviews. However, many students sent emails expressing agreement to take part in the

study and then withdrew from taking part, even though the researcher offered £6 for taking part in each interview as compensation for their time in the interview. Then, when the email did not recruit any new participants, the researcher, with permission from the library posted an invitation, including his email and phone number, in the designated area for smokers in front of the main library in the university campus. The interviews were done in a media room in the library, which has a computer with a 32 screen and a good sound system. These rooms needed to be booked in advance for the interviews; it was a difficult to match the times when participants were free to be interviewed and the times these rooms were available. In three months, the researcher interviewed 22 smokers. These interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. However, two interviews were disregarded, the researcher found out after the interviewees that they are not British (Romanian and Turkish) and they did not know much about anti-smoking ads in the UK, because, anti-smoking campaigns using TV adverts were not used as much as in the UK. Therefore, 20 interviews were recorded, transcript verbatim and analysed. According to Mason (2010) for all kinds of qualitative studies, that fifteen interviewees is considered the smallest acceptable sample and more specifically for phenomenology, an adequate number is from five to 25 participants or at least 6 participants is enough. The participants in this research are illustrated in table7.

3.6.6 Summary

In this section, the researcher has explained how he chose and recruited the participants, who were young adults' smokers' studying in the university, how the adverts that used in the interviews were chosen and explained how the researcher arrived just six adverts that fitted the research aims. It was explored, how the interviews were conducted based on watching six adverts which stimulated participants present experience and elicited ideas and memories about their past experience which they were asked about it in the beginning of the interviews. Moreover, the section referred to the hurdles and challenges that faced the researcher in choosing the adverts, recruiting the participants, and conducting the interviews.

Table 7: Participants' characteristics

Features Interviewees	Age	Gender	marital status	Years of smoking	Average of cigarettes per day	Past attempts to quit
Olivia	30	Female	Single	13	6	Never
James	28	Male	Single	10	20	A few times
Diane	29	Female	Single + two kids	14	5 to 8	Several times
Maria	21	Female	Single	9	10	Several times
Stewart	21	Male	Single	4	6	Never
Alexa	21	Female	Single	3	15	Several times
Anna	21	Female	Single	7	20	About 10
Lucy	23	Female	Single	5	10 to 20	Once
Andrew	20	Male	Single	5	6	Once
Steve	30	Male	Single	19	20	Number of occasions
Claire	29	Female	Single	6	10	Never
Mark	20	Male	Single	5	15	Once
Joseph	20	Male	Single	2	5 to 10	Twice
Emily	21	Female	Single	4	6 to 7	Never
Grace	21	Female	Single	3	10 to 15	Once
Sally	20	Female	Single	9	10 to 20	Never
Emma	27	Female	Single + a daughter	15	10 to 20	Never
Chris	20	Male	Single	4	10	Once
Lily	20	Female	Single	3	5	Once
lizzy	26	Female	Single	8	10	Never

3.7 Data analysis

The research utilised coding and thematic analysis followed by Dimensional Qualitative Research (DQR) to analyse the research data. Thematic analysis focused on themes emerging from the data, whether about the research questions or themes developed from the smokers' answers, which are worth mentioning and discussing. DQR analysis, which uses the eight modalities of the BASIC IDS framework, helped to identify other multiple themes to identify potential causal relations between framework dimensions, to give a clear vision of the research results when integrated with thematic analysis results. The analysis from investigating the three main relationship constituents (i.e. emotion, cognition and behaviour), in the thematic analysis was expanded to explore additional dimensions (eight modalities) to improve the analysis and discover multidimensional aspects of the phenomenon. This made the process of coding and extracting the themes (thematic analysis) more objective and linking the themes to the DQR dimensions gave the researcher a way of gaining a much more holistic and integrated vision of smokers' experience with threatening anti-smoking adverts.

3.7.1 Reflection on researcher's position

As a novice researcher doing qualitative research for the first time, conducting interviews with participants from other cultures, using another language, the work and results of this work would be affected by these factors. However, when I conducted interviews, asked questions, transcribed interviews and analysed the data, which involved thematic analysis and using DQR and the BASIC IDS framework, always read enough books and articles about what I intended to do and took the advice and remarks of my supervisor seriously. Also, every interview I did gave me insights which helped me to enhance my ability and skills for the next interview. This means that I did my best to do the research and its results are consistent with the basic requirements of academic research and the reader and other parties interested in the subject of the research could get something from this study.

3.7.2 Thematic Analysis

As this research is qualitative, adopting a phenomenological orientation and using semi-structured interviews as the only means of collecting data mean, once the research data had been collected, interviews were transcribed, then analysis of the data started (Creswell, 2003). There are two popular approaches used to analyse qualitative data, especially of interviews with open-ended questions. The first one is a content analysis which aims to classify and to

quantify data systematically. The second is thematic analysis, which uses a reflective and flexible process to capture insights out of qualitative data, to gain rich knowledge about the real experience of the phenomenon (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Boyatzis, 1998). Thematic analysis is defined as the search for “a pattern in the information that at minimum describes and organises the possible observation and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon” (Boyatzis, 1998). A theme is an implicit topic that organises a group of repeated ideas and enables researchers to answer the research question (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). It is an extended-phrase or sentence that identifies what a unit of data is about and what it means, which could capture and unify the nature or basis of the experience into a meaningful whole (DeSantis & Ugarriza, 2000).

Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data, in order to organise and describe data in rich detail. Then it goes further to interpret various aspects of the research area (Boyatzis, 1998). It makes links between underlying meaning implicitly discovered at the interpretative level and elements of subjective understandings of participants (Ryan & Bernard, 2003; Buetow, 2010). Thematic analysis, when applied inductively, enables researchers to reduce the enormous descriptions of the experiences of phenomena under inquiry, and then capture concluded insights out of the real experience of the phenomenon. This approach starts from observations and ends up with theories, i.e. insights, views or conclusions. Because this approach is a simple, flexible approach and less time consuming, it is usually used in qualitative data analysis. Thematic analysis suits many types of qualitative data such as interviewing, ethnography, case studies and phenomenology. It aims to provide a description and understanding of answers and allows the researcher to upgrade the data analysis from just an initial broad reading of the data to discovering patterns and developing themes. (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Boyatzis, 1998).

Although thematic analysis can be done deductively or inductively, because of the nature of the research, which is qualitative with a phenomenological orientation, looking to understand participants' experiences and interpretations, inductive thematic analysis was an appropriate method of analysing qualitative data of semi-structured interviews. Therefore, the researcher adopted this approach, where the data itself (views of participants) drive the structure of analysis, with little or no use of predetermined theories, structures or frameworks to analyse the data. In an inductive thematic analysis, themes emerge out of the data and are firmly linked to it. It helps in identifying shared views and understandings across the data without being tied

to prior models and theories. This approach allowed the researcher to explore a range of experiences and views to describe the individual experience and construct the meaning of the phenomenon of the study. This approach enables new elements, topics and ideas to emerge based on the participants' answers, including their contextual characteristics. The research results arise directly from the raw data, not from a priori models, conceptualisations or explanations (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Thomas, 2006). However, when the researcher is doing inductive thematic analysis, he is mindful of the research questions and aims, which have already been reflected in the interview questions. Even though some authors demarcate thematic analysis as a phenomenological method (Guest et al., 2012; Joffe, 2011), it is just a theoretically flexible analytic approach rather than a methodology (Clarke & Braun, 2013). Theming data suits phenomenology, especially when research aims to explore participants' world of beliefs and emotional experiences (Saldaña, 2015).

According to Braun and Clarke (2006), inductive thematic analysis is usually done in six phases. These phases are like the steps of analysing qualitative data, but for phenomenological research (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007; Clarke & Braun, 2013; Colaizzi, 1978)

1. The researcher familiarises himself with the data, by reading and re-reading the data to acquire a feeling for participants' ideas, to understand them fully. In research using interviews, the researcher will obtain an initial idea about data, paying attention to patterns during, immediately after the interview and when the transcription of the interviews starts.
2. Initial codes are generated, from the initial reading. Codes identify where and how patterns occur in data. A code could refer to a certain theme, category or indicator. Extracting themes (significant statements) requires the researcher to identify keywords and sentences relating to the phenomenon under study. Themes could be explicitly or implicitly found in interview transcriptions when participants talk about their experiences of the phenomenon of study — the result of this stage is a set of comprehensive codes of shown how data answers the research question(s).
3. The researcher searches for themes by assembling similar codes (statements and sentences) into potential themes which still usually need further analysis. In this phase, the researcher should try to formulate meanings for each of these themes and decide what it includes and excludes.

4. Themes are reviewed by checking the names of the themes and trying to make sense of all codes displaying themes in different classifications such as categories or subthemes, with each theme or subtheme supported by quotations from the transcriptions of the experience of the phenomenon. Here the researcher may need to go back to his data or participants if his analysis seems incomplete or themes are not telling authentic stories about the raw data, as well as to validate his chosen themes.
5. The next step is defining and naming categories. In this phase, the researcher tries to generate clear definitions and names for each theme, developing categories/clusters of meanings, including related themes. The researcher should be able to integrate the resulting themes into a detailed description of the studied issue and make sure that the relationship among those themes should be as transparent as possible.
6. The next step is to reduce these themes to an essential structure that explains the behaviour.
7. The final report is produced, which contains a description and conclusion about the studied phenomenon based on themes, categories and clusters. Then the researcher has to decide which themes make meaningful contributions to understanding what is going on within the data. Also, the researcher might return to the participants to elicit their opinions on the analysis in order to cross-check his interpretation (Braun & Clarke 2006, Colaizzi, 1978).

3.7.3 Dimensional Qualitative Research (DQR)

To improve the quality of qualitative research, Cohen (1999) suggested applying a psychological model of Lazarus (1973), which is used in psychology in a marketing context and consumer behaviour research in particular. This model may allow qualitative research in marketing to be more systematic, professional and innovate (Cohen, 1999; Lazarus 1989a, 1989b;1973; Lazarus & Abramovitz, 2004). Cohen (1999) considers DQR represents a comprehensive and systematic model for approaching and ultimately realising the objectives typically set in a qualitative research study. DQR originally had seven modalities: behaviour, affect, sensation, imagery, cognition, interpersonal relations, and drugs. An eighth modality, sociocultural aspects, was added by Cohen (1999) (BASIC IDS). DQR could be applied in a marketing context, to explore, evaluate, and intervene systematically in consumer research issues. Since the complexity of consumer behaviour research requires a systematic, multifaceted, and psychologically sophisticated evaluation of consumer perception and

reaction to stimulus used in advertising, this framework enables data and information to be gathered and analysed systematically around the dimensions of the BASIC IDS. This allowed the researcher to address how young adult smokers perceive and react (in their past and present experience) to anti-smoking adverts which contain a certain content.

This multidimensional approach -which is nearly always non-exclusive and overlapping- gives researchers ways of gaining a much more holistic and integrated assessment of the experiences of participants (young adult smokers). Smokers could experience complex emotions, feelings and desires when it comes to decisions about smoking. Moreover, it is hard to understand a smoker's reaction to anti-smoking ads and the meaning of it, as many factors affect their behaviour and choices, such as addiction, age, past experience, personal, social and cultural reasons. All of this contributes to making them start, continue or stop smoking. The main idea of the research is the effect of stimuli (anti-smoking ads with visual threatening content and the feelings, emotions and reaction they could evoke), on young smokers' cognition (how young adult smokers experience and perceive such anti-smoking ads) and behaviour (smokers' reaction towards such content and their behaviour outcomes).

Therefore, the dimensions of BASIC IDS as a consumer psychology paradigm were applied to study smokers' perceptions of anti-smoking ads which contain threat appeal and some MSV features (visual effects) and the impact of this on the believability and effectiveness of such ads, reflecting smokers' thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes regarding anti-smoking adverts. Those modalities allowed the researcher to deduce dimensions from the data -from smokers' past and present experience- without having to define theory-derived attributes or predetermined categories as phenomenology requires (Shabbir et al., 2007; Shabbir & Thwaites (2007). The BASIC IDS dimensions, according to this research perspective, are as shown below:

Table 8 The BASIC IDS dimensions

Behaviour	Refers to a person’s action, not so much to what people think or believe but to what they do. So, regarding the study, the behaviour is about: What are anti-smoking ads doing in the eyes of smokers? What kind of behaviour do these ads call for and encourage smokers to do? What do smokers do after watching anti-smoking adverts?
Affect	The feelings or emotions elicited and expressed by anti-smoking adverts. Moreover, to what extent the smokers experience the results of these feelings on their perception of the adverts in terms of believability, effectiveness and intention to comply with the messages of anti-smoking adverts.
Sensation	Refers to the perception of visual, auditory, olfactory, gustatory, tactile, and related sensory input—consumers experience sensations in contexts and not in a vacuum (Cohen, 2014). What senses are activated by the adverts or engaged in smokers? What effect do intense scenes and sound effects have on smokers’ perceptions of adverts and their reaction to them?
Imagery	Refers both to stimuli depicted in the real world (as in the pictures depicted in advertising) and to those more elusive and unique representations perceived only in the smoker’s eye.
Cognition	Refers to thoughts, beliefs, attributions, rationales, values, and all that comes to be known or believed through (unconscious and conscious) perception.
Interpersonal Relations	It is about the fact that all people are social beings. People have needs for friendship, companionship and social contacts and acceptance.
Drugs	This dimension considers the health-related concerns/benefits that might result because of having used a particular product or service (smoking), which could change a person’s physical and mental well-being (stress relief, make friends, social situations, enjoy, in the morning and with coffee or risks, consequences, cancer, run out of breath, death).
Sociocultural Aspects	According to Cohen through sociocultural mechanisms we learn not only the language we speak, but how to communicate and interact nonverbally, how to think of ourselves in relationship to others, and how to think of others in relation to ourselves (Cohen, 1999:364). Sociocultural aspects are about culture and the social transition of behaviour, beliefs, and ideas. Sociocultural aspects are a contextual dimension that informs on how the smoker belongs to particular cultural groups, and the advert interacts with the dominant cultural mindset of the campaign audience.

3.7.4 Thematic analysis implementation

The researcher ordered the findings according to the cognitive, affective and behavioural pathway. Themes started from past experience with anti-smoking materials of all types, then present experience, with the anti-smoking adverts that smokers watched during the interviews. In this present experience, themes included emotions and feelings, reaction to the emotional and visual content of anti-smoking adverts, perceived believability and perceived effectiveness of anti-smoking adverts and then how believable and effective adverts should be designed.

After smokers introduced themselves, they answered some questions about their smoking history and smoking habit and talked about their past experience with anti-smoking materials they had been exposed to before the study. Then, the researcher asked them to watch six televised anti-smoking ads in a row, unless the participants asked to stop or repeat one of them to remind themselves of adverts or some scenes or ideas in a particular advert. When they had finished watching those adverts, the researcher asked them about their first impressions, their thoughts about smoking, how they felt during and after watching the adverts and then which of these adverts were more believable and effective than others and why they chose those specific ads. Finally, if the smokers found most adverts did not work for them (they found them less believable or less effective) the researcher asked them to imagine an advert design that could work for them personally and with their age group. The six adverts were shown to smokers in random order, with two adverts representing each type of threat: physical threats, social threats and death threats. Every kind of threat was represented at two levels (high and low) as determined by a group of smokers, non-smokers and ex-smokers before the interviews started. These adverts and the abbreviations used to characterise them are shown below:

- 1- High physical threat (HPT)
- 2- Low social threat (LST)
- 3- High death threat (HDT)
- 4- High social threat (HST)
- 5- Low death threat (LDT)
- 6- Low physical threat (LPT)

Therefore, the adverts will be mentioned in the rest of the research either by their numbers or their abbreviations.

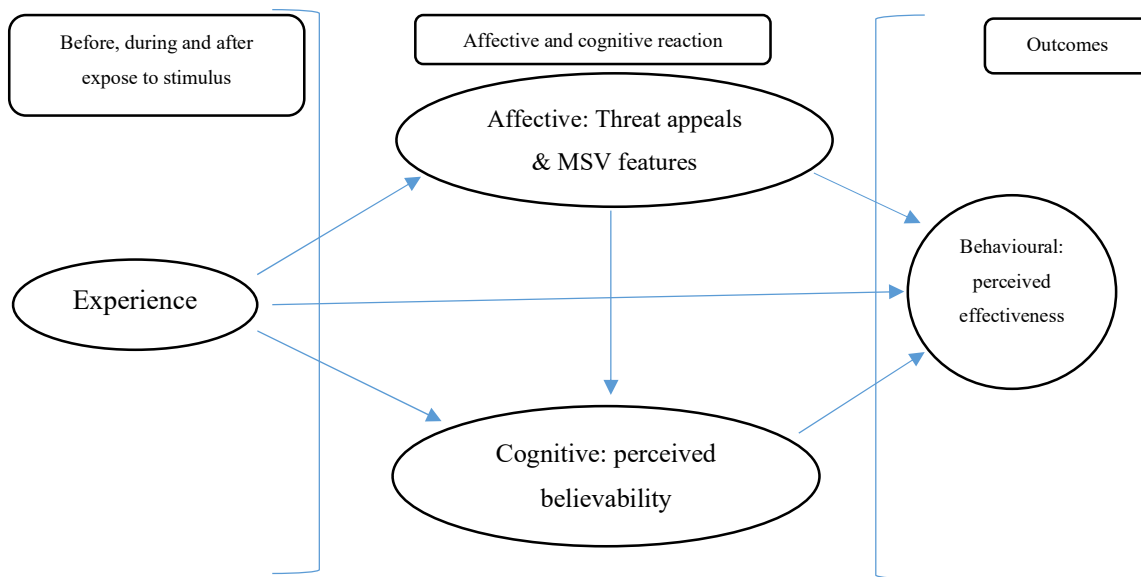
3.7.5 DQR implementation

Based on the work of Cohen (2014), the researcher extracted the DQR dimensions BASIC IDS to analyse how smokers experienced anti-smoking adverts and the impact of this experience in terms of their emotional reaction, perceived believability and perceived effectiveness of such adverts. This was done to improve the quality of the qualitative research results and help in interpreting and understanding the smokers' response to anti-smoking adverts, to give the results another aspect and dimension and have more details and to find out the factors which led to this reaction to anti-smoking ads and to see MSV features from a new angle. Thus, the researcher moved to analyse the participants' answers and data extracted from interviews again

according to the BASIC IDS framework, where all the modalities were expressed in smokers' answers.

All modalities were represented, except sensation and imagery were combined because they described mainly MSV features in this research and smokers' answers overlapped on these modalities. In this analysis, the researcher defined each modality according to the research, provided a quotation of how smokers expressed their views about it and the interrelationships between modalities and how they impacted each other. Finally, the section about the MSV on attempt is made to address what is new about it according to study results. Cohen (2014) defined each modality and what questions this modality is seeking to answer from participants' answers according to the research and its assumptions, aims and issues. In this research, the researcher chose a question about each modality which was consistent with the research and found out how the smokers answered it from their narratives in the interviews. According to the research aims and questions, it was assumed that the past and present experience of smokers led smokers to follow the affect-cognition- behaviour pathway, as illustrated below. This pathway contains some of the BASIC IDS modalities and could help with smokers' answers to know the nature of relationships between these modalities, to understand why smokers reacted in the way they did.

Figure 2: Affect-cognition- behaviour pathway



3.7.6 Linking of thematic analysis with DQR dimensions results

The BASIC IDS framework and other qualitative approaches (such as content analysis and ground theory) have been applied in several studies which showed that it is a valuable method to study consumer behaviour in commercial and social marketing (Shabbir et al.,2007; Shabbir & Thwaites, 2007). The DQR framework, when combined with other approaches and methods in qualitative research, makes these studies more systematic, professional and innovative, helps in developing exciting new insights and enables researchers to draw meaningful conclusions and implications from research results.

A considerable effort has been dedicated to research about anti-smoking adverts, which contain threat and fear appeals in televised anti-smoking adverts by quantitative and qualitative approaches. However, this is the first time smokers’ experience with a televised anti-smoking advert which contains threat appeals in visual style (some MSV features) has been studied by adopting a phenomenological qualitative approach, to explore the perceived believability and effectiveness of such content. It combines thematic analysis and the DQR framework in data analysis to identify how smokers perceived and reacted to such content, understand the reasons behind their reactions and answer the questions of how and why smokers responded in the way they did. How smokers perceive the believability and effectiveness of televised anti-smoking adverts which contain threat appeals, and visual features could be ascribed to MSV features. Understanding how they experienced it in terms of emotional effect and why they reacted in

this way could help to provide potential explanations of smokers' reactions. Combination of the two analysis opportunity offers the researcher the approaching to gain a much more holistic and integrated understanding of young adult smokers' experiences with threatening anti-smoking adverts.

3.8 Research Quality

Each research has its limits because of the type of research and how the researcher conducts the research. The qualitative research, the researcher will use a range of tools, such as Reflexivity which concerns the role and effect of the researcher on collect, on analysis and interpretation of the research data and results. Along, with other tools, like thick description (Transferability) Disconfirming evidence and Negative cases (Credibility).

3.8.2.1 Trustworthiness

In quantitative research, researchers can make sure that their results are keep corrected and their inquiry findings are trustworthy by considering reliability, objectivity, generalizability and internal validity. However, in qualitative research, those tools cannot be used to judge the quality of the research. The tests and measures that establish validity and reliability in quantitative research cannot be applied, because of the different epistemological and ontological assumptions between those two approaches. (Noble & Smith, 2015). Also, in qualitative research, the researcher is a data collection and analysis tool, so in many ways, he or she can affect the research results or interpretations by researcher bias (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researcher is a key figure who collects data and shapes its sorting and interpretation (Ben-Ari & Enosh, 2011; Hertz, 1997). For these reasons, some scholars use tools that are equivalent to the above-mentioned measures and, but which can be used in qualitative research.

Trustworthiness refers to the quality, authenticity, and truthfulness of findings of qualitative research. It addressed methods that can ensure that one has carried out the research process correctly. It is linked with the extent of trust, or confidence, readers can have in the results (Cypress, 2017). Qualitative researchers use several techniques to judge and increase the trustworthiness of the research process and the credibility of the study. They will do everything possible to ensure that research data was ethically and adequately collected, analysed, and reported. The will-known measures of research trustworthiness are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, which are defined by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

3.8.2.2 Credibility

Credibility is the confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research results and it involves establishing that the results of the research are authentic information drawn from the participants' original data and a correct interpretation of the participants' original views. It depends more on the richness of the information gathered rather than the amount of data collected. There are many techniques that researchers could use to gauge the accuracy of the findings, such as triangulation, prolonged engagement, and member checks. In reality, the participants/readers are the only ones who can reasonably judge the credibility of the results. (Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Holloway & Wheeler, 2002; Macnee & McCabe, 2008). Member checking took place where the researcher, at the end of each interview, summarised what he understood from the interviewee's answers about the main points in the interview about the study aims and questions to verify whether his whole or general interpretation was correct.

3.8.2.3 Thick description (Transferability)

Based on a constructivist perspective, which requires the researcher to contextualise the studied people or settings, thick description aims to provide readers with a feeling as if they have experienced what happened and is described in the study. By providing as much detail as possible, not just about the behaviour and experiences, but the setting, the participants, and the themes of qualitative research in rich details as well, the behaviour and experiences become meaningful to an outsider (Korstjens & Albine Moser). In this way, trustworthiness is established in the research through the lens of readers who read a narrative account that conveys the studied setting or situation (Creswell & Miller, 2000). By describing every tiny feeling, action or interaction and experience from participants under the study setting, the vivid interaction between researcher and respondents and providing a detailed rendering of how people feel and react, not just reporting facts (Denzin, 1989), the researcher helps the readers to be sure that the account is credible. A thick description enables the researcher to assess the applicability of the findings to other settings or similar contexts, so they could replicate the study under similar conditions (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Guba, 1981). Therefore, the researcher who seeks to show transferability should play his role by collecting and reporting thick descriptive data, which enables other researchers to make a comparison between the study context and another context, to know to what extent it fits in that possible context (Guba, 1981).

3.8.2.4 Transferability

Transferability is the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be transferred to other contexts or settings with other respondents. The researcher facilitates a potential user's transferability judgment through thick description. Readers of the research evaluate this section. The reader notes the specific details of the research situation and methods and compares them to a similar situation that they are more familiar with. If the specifics are comparable, the conditions of the original study would be deemed more transferable. It is essential that the original researcher supplies a highly detailed description of their situation and methods.

3.8.2.5 Dependability

This is about the stability of the research findings over time, so it could be repeated by another researcher. Dependability involves participants' evaluation of how the study was conducted and analysed, and how findings are presented, and its interpretation and recommendations. For that, purpose, every stage of the research should be reported in detail to enable an external researcher to repeat the inquiry and achieve similar outcomes.

3.8.2.6 Confirmability

This is concerned with establishing that the data and interpretations of the findings are not figments of the inquirer's imagination but derived from the data. Confirmability answers questions about how the research findings are supported by the data collected. It establishes whether the researcher has been biased during the study; this is due to the assumption that qualitative research allows the researcher to bring a unique perspective to the study. An external researcher can judge whether this is the case by studying the data collected during the original inquiry. To enhance the confirmability of initial conclusion, an audit trail can be accomplished throughout the study, to demonstrate how each decision was made.

3.8.2.7 Disconfirming evidence and Negative cases (Credibility)

Usually, disconfirming evidence and negative cases are presented at the end of study or during the investigation, when primary themes emerge from the data when the researcher starts the analysis. The investigator, in negative case analysis searches through participants accounts for evidence that is consistent with or disconfirms these themes (Creswell and Miller, 2000). This method, which is related to triangulation (Miles and Huberman, 1994) is considered as a

valuable strategy for assessing qualitative research credibility (Booth et al. 2013; Denzin & Lincoln 2011; Miles and Huberman 1994; Patton 1990; Strauss and Corbin 1998). This is because it helps the researcher to control his natural enthusiasm for the study topic (Wallendorf & Belk, 1989) and acknowledge data are emerging from the inquiry that contradicts the researcher's expectations (Bitsch, 2005). Such practice enables the researcher to identify conflicting data in an attempt to refine themes to represent better the theoretical ideas that result from the study (Booth et al. 2013). This improves the rigour and credibility of the study by refining the primary themes, which may lead to reformulating study questions or providing alternative explanations of study data (Anney, 2014). This method is challenging to carry out in practice because of researchers' tendency to seek to confirm their expectations. However, it fits with a constructivist approach that considers that reality is constructed in participants' minds when they interact with social life, so it is multiple and complex, and it is necessary to examine various perspectives on a theme or category (Creswell & Miller, 2000). This will improve the credibility, provided that disconfirming evidence should not outweigh the confirming evidence. Disconfirming evidence that shows the contradiction of a participant's answers with some studied areas needs to be acknowledged and admitted rather than seen as a threat to the research validity (Antin et al. 2015).

3.8.2.8 Reflexivity (role of the researcher) (Confirmability)

When a novice researcher chooses to conduct qualitative research with a hermeneutic orientation and to take an interpretive position, he needs to be reflexive (Holloway, 1997; Charmaz, 2006). This position assumes that knowledge is socially constructed so the researcher should take into consideration that his assumptions and views will affect the whole research process, results and interpretation. Therefore, in this kind of research, the researcher should be aware that he is not a neutral observer but is involved in producing knowledge. He or she is one of the critical tools in the study, and an integral element of the research process, so his background and thoughts will influence to how the research is conducted its result, and how he or she interprets the results, based on the idea that "all research is contaminated to some extent by the value of the researcher" (Silverman 2001:270)

When the researcher selects the constructivist approach, answers and responses of interviewees will be formed by the interviewer's questions, affected by the relationship of the interviewer with the interviewee and the context of the interview. Therefore, the rapport between both parties, the questions asked, the level and kind of probing and the interruptions will all

contribute to shaping the final product (the interview transcript). Interviewees may consciously and unconsciously make decisions to omit some experiences, perceptions and insights and focus on others, to give varying degrees of detail and perhaps exaggerate some aspects and downplay others. Here the interviewer can only try their professional best to elicit material that reflects the interviewee's reality (Morris, 2015).

Reflexivity is the term used to describe the relationship between the researcher and research, admitting the involvement of the researcher in studying an issue and constructing knowledge about it. Reflexivity in this context is the process of continually reflecting upon our interpretations of both our experience and the phenomena being studied to move beyond the partiality of our previous understandings, own biases, preferences, preconceptions, perceptions and interests and personal history on the qualitative research process and our investment in particular research outcomes. It involves examining one's conceptual lens, explicit and implicit assumptions, preconceptions and values, and how these affect research decisions in all phases of qualitative studies. It is the process of critical self-reflection about oneself as a researcher and the research relationship to the respondent, and how the relationship affects participant's answers to questions (Finlay, 2003a; Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Krefting, 1991).

Reflexivity is a dynamic process of interaction within and between the investigator and participants, the data that informs decisions, actions and interpretations at all stages of the enquiry (Etherington, 2013). Therefore, reflexivity contributes to the integrity of the research, enhances and evaluates the quality and rigour of the research process, methods, and outcomes, and examines the impact the researcher has on the study and acknowledges that the researcher is an essential component in the research process (Finlay, 2002). The meaning of being reflexive in doing research is part of being "honest and ethically mature in research practice" (Ruby, 1980:154) That is, reflexivity as methodology or method, as a process, is a practical step to ensuring quality in qualitative research (Pillow, 2003). In phenomenological research which uses interviews as the primary tool of data collection, the researcher should be aware and reflexive about the way his questions and methods could affect the data and the knowledge that results from the study. Since the researcher could be the most dangerous threat to qualitative research, credibility depends on the researcher. The researcher should be aware of his effect on interviewees and consciously reflect on the experience, which might help to interpret the meaning to emerge from that experience, which in turn will add to the value of his interpretations (Langdrige, 2007).

Qualitative research design should be a reflexive process operating through every stage of a project (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995) from the interaction with data sources and documentation of interview accounts and then to the stage of interpretation and extract of underlying meanings. Eventually, the researcher should critique this interpretation and to reflect on the selected themes to what extent they represent the voices of the interviewees in the text (interview transcripts) (Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2009). Among researchers' options for including reflexivity in a narrative account in phenomenological methods, they may create a separate section on the "role of the researcher," make a conclusion, use interpretive commentary throughout the discussion of the results, or bracket themselves out by describing personal experiences (Moustakas, 1994).

3.8.2.9 Implementation of reflexivity in this research

Reflexivity challenges the researcher to explore how his involvement with a particular study influences, acts upon and informs such research (Cromby, 1999). The researcher has stated his thoughts, background and assumptions that led him then to conduct this research in specific ways. He kept writing memos about his observations, ideas and challenges before, during and after each interview in an informal way, which may help in extracting the themes and meanings of the final text produced. This procedure helped to show how the data collecting and coding process was done through documentation of any ideas that emerged when the researcher worked on data analysis, selected themes and their meanings (Charmaz, 2006)

3.8.2.10 Implementation for this research

The researcher used in his research three tools of research trustworthiness and credibility in qualitative inquiry: discomfoting evidence, thick description and reflexivity, to ensure the study results are correct and accurate. The first and second fit with the constructivist paradigm (Creswell & Miller, 2000), while the third is usually used in qualitative research with a phenomenological orientation. The main concern for the researcher was whether the participant experienced any feeling and emotion, which ads were believable and why? Which ads were effective, and why? Finally, which kind of ad design can make smokers think of stopping smoking, and try to stop smoking? So, during the interviewing the researcher noted those points, and he summarised all of that at the end of the interview, to make sure that his first impression about the data and his first interpretation of smokers' answers were correct. A few times, the participants made comments about the researcher's conclusion, or they confirmed what he had

understood. However, member-checking as such was difficult because it was challenging to make participants-especially busy students-read the full transcription. This is why the researcher, at the end of each interview, summarised what he understood from the interview.

Due to time, the gap between asking about previous experience and direct (present time) experience and asking participants about their answers after a while would not be the right choice because they would forget about the ads and their feelings when they watched them. The long period that elapsed between the interview and doing the transcription and returning it to participants and then their finding time to read it and respond to the researcher would make this way not appropriate for this specific kind of research

3.9 Ethical issues and fieldwork

Since smoking is a personal choice and for some smokers is a sensitive issue to talk about, this situation required careful consideration about how to speak with smokers and to ask questions about it. Therefore, the researcher, in conducting the interviews did his best to assure interviewees that the information about them, their behaviour, and what smoking meant to them, would be handled with a high degree of confidentiality and privacy. Moreover, the researcher explained to smokers the aims and questions of research before the interview. Then, for smokers who agreed to take part, consent forms were given to participants before the interview began. They were given full information about the study, and they were assured of freedom to withdraw from the interview at any time. They were informed that when interviews were transcribed and quoted, participants' data would be protected by maintaining anonymity and confidentiality of data. Thus, their names would be changed to other names. Finally, codes and all transcripts and recordings would be saved in digital files in safe and locked drives.

Application for ethical approval was also made to the Business School research committee at the University of Hull, where the researcher explained the research procedures and what kind of information he needed from participants and how he would get this information. The application was approved by the committee before the data collection began. The approval code number is Ethics application HUBSERC2015/51 (Appendix). Smokers were recruited via the email system of the University of Hull, and email invitations were sent to students, which allowed the researcher to recruit about half of the participants. The rest of the smokers were recruited via a poster (an adjusted copy of the invitation letter) (Appendix) with all the contact

details of the researcher, situated in the area designated for smoking in front of the university library. Every smoker who agreed to take part was given £6 as compensation for his time.

The researcher did his best to explain the purpose of the study clearly for smokers and what their participation involved. He insisted that the interview was a conversation rather than a formal interview. So, the researcher, when he asked questions and smokers when they played their role as respondents, were both equal parties in the interview. Also, there were no right or wrong answers, and they should feel free to express their own opinions and views.

Also, when the participants turned up to do the interview, they were reminded of the information in the invitation letter and asked to read the consent form carefully and sign it if they were satisfied. The researcher emphasised the freedom of the smoker to withdraw his or her consent at any time during the interview, in which event his or her participation in the research study would immediately cease and any information obtained would not be used. Also, if the interviewee felt uncomfortable in any way during the interview session, he or she had the right to decline to answer any question or to end the interview. Also, they were reminded that during the interview, they would watch some real anti-smoking ads which contained social, physical and death appeals, and if smokers felt uncomfortable with these materials, they had the right to withdraw and discontinue participation in this research.

The researcher assured participants that he would not identify names or any personal details in any reports using information obtained from the interviews and that their confidentiality as participants in the research would remain secure. Also, participation in this study was voluntary so they could decide to withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences by advising the researcher. Smokers were made aware that the interview would be audio recorded to facilitate the collection of information and later transcribed for analysis. The original recordings and interview transcripts would be handled only by the researcher. All the information they provided would be considered strictly confidential. Their name and age and other personal details would not appear in any thesis or report resulting from this study; however, with their permission, anonymous quotations may be used.

Chapter 4: Finding

4.1 Introduction

This chapter represents the main research results, using a combination of two analytical approaches: thematic analysis combined with the DQR approach, already discussed in the methodology chapter. The past and present experiences of respondents form the main structural breakdown, based on the series of questions asked. The thematic analysis provides an initial overview of the key themes, while the DQR offers a more comprehensive and systematic identification and classification of the emergent themes. The advantage of using this DQR based thematic analysis approach, therefore, is to provide for a more integrated approach to understanding the multi-dimensionality of MSV within threat-based anti-smoking adverts. Verbatim quotes are used throughout as evidence to support any inferences and the identification of themes. The chapter leads to a conceptualisation of the multi-dimensional nature of MSV features in threatening anti-smoking adverts. The findings begin with past experience since the initial set of questions related to understanding the initial perceptions of respondents related to anti-smoking campaigns and their effectiveness. Then presented experience is reported about emotional reaction, perceived believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking adverts that vary in MSV features and type and level of threat appeals. For confidentiality purposes, pseudonyms are used throughout for respondents.

4.2 Past experience

Past experience relates to the underlying responses of young adult smokers to anti-smoking stimuli based on their prior experience towards them, i.e. without presenting the interview stimuli at this stage. Several issues arose from the respondents. Still, these can primarily be classified under two broad categories of emotions and cognitive aspects, which are discussed in depth subsequently. Within each of these broad themes, several additional sub-themes emerge, demonstrating the complexity of how respondents think and feel towards anti-smoking stimuli.

4.2.1 what do they remember?(cognition)

Recall, as expected from advertising studies, emerged strongly as a common theme when respondents were asked about their responses to anti-smoking stimuli, noting here again without actually presenting the stimuli at this stage. This is especially the case when anti-

smoking material that contains threatening information, vivid images and scenes is recalled. This finding is consistent with previous studies that also report stronger recall for such anti-smoking appeals (see, e.g. Drovandi et al., 2019; Guillaumier et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2018).

Respondents, for instance, commonly recalled previous examples of health warning stimuli they had been exposed to. Several sub-themes emerged under recall with previous experience. An exploration of these issues is essential as it provides an initial indication of what content from anti-smoking stimuli is remembered more than others. Foremost amongst these aspects of a recall are the visual elements of anti-smoking stimuli.

Visceral visual components of anti-smoking stimuli in particular ‘stick in mind’ more than others, adding some credence to the use of visceral elements by numerous governments, including the United Kingdom, to persuade smokers and aspiring smokers to avoid smoking. Most smokers remember very well the nature of visual health warnings on cigarette packets placed by the UK government since 2008.

James, for instance, recalled that:

“They are quite nasty... I do not like the one with throat with big tumour growth on it I do not like that one.”

Similarly, Anna stated that:

“The images are memorable, one of them had a picture of guy with very swollen throat I think it is the type of cancer.”

Joseph, also in similarly claimed that:

“I have seen a picture, it remains in my mind it shows the throat of the person it was bloody and damaged and so many scars about the throat of the person it has affected me I feel scared, but I quickly ignore it.”

Interestingly, and corroborating the selection of the threat-based appeals for this study and indeed previous ones, the vast majority of visual images recalled related to health-based physical threats to the self. Images recalled often centred around visceral or bodily images of the damage caused by smoking.

The second most frequent type of anti-smoking content which smokers remembered is related to social threats from televised anti-smoking adverts. In this case, smokers remembered the social aspects more linked to a perceived threat, for instance, from passive smoking effects shown in such ads. This is not to say these respondents did not recall physical self-threat visual images, but rather those social threats were also recalled and in particular linked to mass televised campaigns.

Jolie, for instance, remembered two televised anti-smoking adverts which are about the impact of smoking on the people around the smokers:

“I have seen two I remember vividly. I have seen one with a toddler in the room, and she is at the balcony door, but like my door, his mum smoking and it shows you the smoke you see and the smoke you do not see and how all the second-hand smoking it is on the room, but you can see it, so he is breathing second hands. There is one with the car with the dad picking his daughter up and then the car full of smoke.”

And Steve said:

“it was from NHS England, and it was they waiting outside the community centre father in the car with a girl on the passenger seats on the back. and when you smoke the only smoke on a window but w when it went on the car it just still fills with all invisible smoke I remember that one that is one always stuck with me.”

Two other smokers remembered anti-smoking televised adverts showing the physical threats of smoking:

James “I remember an advert where they squeeze the fat out of artery of the real person that was effective for me” and Olivia “One showed cigarette, and it had a tumour at the end of the cigarette.”

Some smokers also, remembered that they watched other anti-smoking materials on different communication channels, such as social media:

Anna “I have seen pictures of people lungs who do smoke on Facebook.”

Similar themes to the above were recalled when mentioning anti-smoking from other media channels, in particular when the recall was related to social media channels, outdoor ads or leaflets from the NHS.

Lucy “I think the one I did remember most was a poster when I was walking to school. I did not smoke then, but it was a poster of a cigarette and half of it was made with like these glumly like disgusting cells, it is as part of a liver it looked like”

Also, they remember printed materials which educated smokers about the risks of smoking and appealed for them to stop smoking:

Claire “The leaflets say how much smoke a day how much you could save.”

Clearly, this visceral content is closely tied to evoking disgust and threat. Respondents, even before they were shown anti-smoking stimuli, felt disgust due to the recall of powerful disgust and threat evoking stimuli, which respondents were freely able to recall, without any prompting. This indicates the salience of such visceral visual appeals. The channel source of this recall did not seem to matter, hence whether ads were recalled from social media, televised or outdoor ads. The visceral disgust and threat evoking content appeared to be shared in any channel they had experienced the anti-smoking stimuli from.

A second theme, however, which emerged was the link of this content to concerns of the future. It would seem that the visceral content evokes a feeling of disgust and threat, and this, in turn, leads to cognitive processing of concerns for the future of the self.

Grace, for instance, explained:

“I already know it is dangerous to the health from all the anti-smoking danger to health labelling. I know from the pics that cancer is more likely, and it could be one day. It is in my mind and helps me to realise the reality that it is not good for me.”

Anna, for instance, also similarly said:

“This is pretty bad this is not ideal; this is not how to end your life you do not need to and your life die at 50 because of a bad habit you have...I feel bad like I should not be smoking, I should try to quit but as soon as the video end.”

Chris, similarly, claimed:

“The heart or something on the cigarette and teeth and they really help me to smoke less than.”

A sub-theme which emerged however, reflects cognitive processing concerns for inter-personal relationships. It would seem that some respondents were concerned not only about the health effect on themselves but also on close others, especially the parents in our sample:

James, for instance, said:

“it is not healthy, and I notice I am more out of breath when I play on the park with my children, and it does make me think could I...I am really up to it I really should quit smoking.”

Diane, also a mother of two, said:

“I know I have to stop because I have children and like the ads claim they will be left without their mother; I just need to figure out how to stop. Knowing I need to stop is not the issue, that I already know and the anti-smoking health warnings and the TV ads which show mums and dads dying on a bed from cancer clearly tell the reality.”

4.2.2 How do they feel? (affect)

Smokers described their emotional experience when they came across anti-smoking materials in the past, such as health warnings on cigarette packets. Two primary negative emotional responses smokers experienced were fear and disgust. As expected and approved in many studies (Andrews et al., 2016; Hardcastle et al., 2016; Jung, 2016; Wang et al., 2018; Ratih and Susanna, 2018; Sutton et al., 2018), health warnings on cigarettes which contain intense images that help to arouse emotions would make smokers experience those two emotions.

As Diane said:

“Cigarette packets, the ones with the throat like big growth... that just freaks me out.”

Also, Sally reported that:

“When I buy cigarettes, there is really gross stuff on it ... It grosses me up; I usually cover it with some stuff, so I do not see it... Because I know it's bad ...make I feel worse.”

And Joseph explained that

“It shows the throat of the person it was bloody and damaged and so many scars about the throat of the person it has affected me I feel scared.”

4.2.3 Smokers’ reaction (behaviour)

A second core theme that emerged is related to those respondents who were oblivious to the dangers of smoking despite the prevalence of anti-smoking campaigns nowadays. These types of respondents commonly stated views which can fall under four sub-themes, inter-related but distinct cognitive reactions: denial, ignorance and avoidance, desensitisation and lack of faith in the efficacy of anti-smoking messages. Thus, most smokers-obviously they were still smoking- adopted the fear control bath in respect of anti-smoking materials, not danger control, which leading to maladaptive responses such as the reactions below.

4.2.3.1 Denial

One coping strategy against the threats in health warnings and way reducing the negative emotions (i.e. fear) of some smokers is to deny that the health effects of smoking in those materials would happen to them. Such a reaction maybe because some of them were still young, and they had not experienced any effects of smoking on their health and everyday life activities. Also, some of them considered themselves not heavy smokers (more than twenties cigarettes a day), so they thought smoking risks did not apply, to them as they were young and had smoked a few cigarettes for a few years.

Thus, Emily said:

“It is gross, but at the same time, it does not make me feel bad for smoking or feel like guilty or thing; it does not make me feel bad.”

Moreover, other smokers thought what was seen in these materials would not happen soon:

“Like-kind of objectively go over that much nasty but do not think that cannot happen soon.”

Chris

The reaction of smoker Lily was:

“I just see it, and it will happen for long term smokers a long-time smoker I am not really bothered by it.”

another smoker went further and said:

“I do not know the thing is I think most people look at it and generally thinking it wouldn't either they want to really happen to them” Joseph.

4.2.3.2 Ignorance or avoidance

As mentioned in the related literature, some of the defensive reactions to frightening graphics are to avoid or ignore them when the recipient cannot adopt the behaviour which could reduce the danger or the message was not capable enough to make them comply with it (Sutton et al., 2018; Ratih and Susanna, 2018; Guillaumier et al., 2014). Some smokers followed ways of avoidance, such as covering up the ad and keeping it out of sight like Alexa:

“I just trying to turn the packet over when it was upside so ok let me just get rid of my cig ... Because it is like it just ruins the enjoyment and just a bit down.”

Also, Joseph said:

“Just kind of things thinking it is not going to happen to you... just kind of more ignorance that what it is... I think just ignore it because I just look pretty horrible obviously the teeth and lungs to most horrible.”

Some studies found that avoidance increases when health warnings contain disturbing images (Hardcastle et al., 2016; Borland et al., 2009). It seems that is precisely what happened with Emma and Olivia and made them stated:

“They are not very nice pictures they do sort of they affect me but when I put my packet away I am forgetting about it is not really in the front of my mind all the time.” (Emma)

“Just trying to not look at look at them or put something on them.” (Olivia)

Some smokers ignore those warnings because the increased prominence of the warnings evokes negative emotions. Thus, some of them are familiar with it for a long time (Hardcastle et al., 2016). As Lucy confirmed:

“It does not really bother me because, after a while, you just throw them out.”

4.2.3.3 Desensitise or getting used to it

Some smokers revealed a message wear-out effect by getting used to such messages and content or found themselves desensitised to it, (Hammond et al., 2003; White et al., 2014) This feeling could happen because of wear out of the message, especially in a country like the UK where health warning on cigarette packets were the same (12 health warnings) for nearly eight years (from 2008 to 2016). Using these warnings for extended periods could make smokers not feel anything when they see health warnings on cigarette packets; they know it is there and part of the cigarette packet design. Also, they have smoked for a while and seen the same content when they buy or smoke cigarettes for many years. So, the messages and their effects may wear out. For example, James and Grace expressed their opinions about this by saying respectively:

“It does not fear me... I am completely desensitized ... You got quite desensitized ... so over time you tend to lose their potency.”

“Because I think smokers desensitized because they see them quite often... I am getting used to it ... just trying to not look at them or put something on them.”

Other smokers (Lucy and Steve) considered warnings as a part of the cigarette’s packets design:

“It just so common you tuned out... With me, after while I just oh this nasty it turns it out for a while I do not really notice them anymore like I used to ... sort of rebel I do not know I just I do not like scare tactics ... Because I have been smoking for a while, I do not notice them anymore” Lucy

“I think people come to see it as standard and not really pay attention to it you have got sort of young millenniums now; they do not know the cigarette packets looking any difference.” Steve

4.2.3.4 It's not working

With all the maladaptive responses above, not surprisingly, some smokers doubted the effectiveness of these materials and find found they did not work for smokers like them, especially when they have threatening content.

Steve said about his experience:

“I do not think it is working I feel like initially, it has a shock value.”

However, some reported that it could work with people who never not started smoking yet. Hence, it could play a preventive role with them and help them not to initiate smoking. As Mark stated :

“I think it works more possibly with people they have not to start smoking ...It is more preventative than to make you actually stop.”

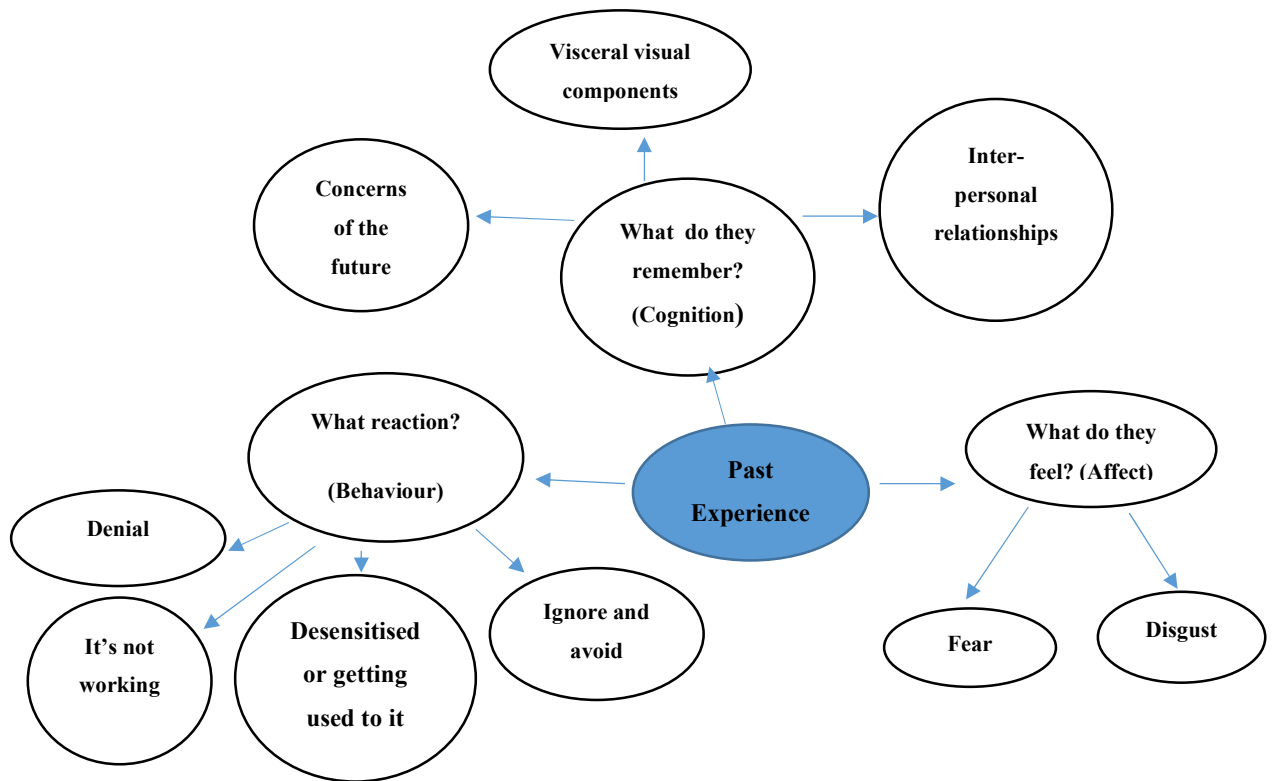
Other smokers doubted and were sceptical about all the warnings and messages, and found none of them working with smokers, which made Emily insist that:

“Definitely no I do not think it works at all.”

4.3 Summary

Smokers past experience with anti-smoking materials reveals that smokers remembered very well health warnings on cigarettes packets in details and also, televised anti-smoking adverts and some other media channels, especially those with vivid images that describe the health effects of smoking on smokers' bodies. They experienced negative emotions like fear, disgust, sadness, guilt and bad. The smokers' response was in general maladaptive to such materials, as they sometimes denied these effects, avoided or ignored some disturbing materials and found anti-smoking campaigns did not work at all with them as smokers. Figure 3 shows a summary of the themes past experience:

Figure 3: Past experience themes



4.4 Present experience: with televised adverts

This part represents the central part of the results and the study, since it aims to determine the critical elements in the content of the anti-smoking stimuli the respondents are exposed to, i.e. the structure and role of the MSV features. Present experience is about smokers' reaction to six anti-smoking adverts containing MSV features and three types of threats: physical, social and death threat appeal at two levels of threat high and low threat appeal. Interviewees, here, answered questions about the emotions they experienced when they watched those adverts, the most prominent MSV features they perceived in these adverts and which of these adverts were more believable and effective from smokers' perspective.

4.4.1 First impression

The first impression could determine whether the recipient will complete watching and processing the advert or not when he or she takes an idea from the first scenes about that content and the message of the advert and what this advert is about. Therefore, this initial idea could

affect the smoker's reaction to the advert and how believable and effective the advert is (Tuch et al., 2012). The first impression of some participants reveals their emotions and initial judgment about the advert and how they reacted to it, which could apply in smoker's everyday life, where the first impression could determine whether they will keep watching the ad or not.

Some smokers were shocked by the content of some adverts with physical and social threats, such as Alexa, Stewart and Diane respectively said immediately after complete watch all of six adverts:

“Pretty convincing.”

“It is very disturbing stuff.”

“God it is quite intense, especially the one with kid ... it is awful.”

Another smoker (Maria) got emotional, felt sad and nearly cried because she was concerned about her health when watching the health consequences of smokers in some adverts.

“Now I start to think about my health ... Sad cos maybe I want to quit because of this I will try it more to quit after seeing these clips Just the scary just for a couple of minutes.”

However, using the emotions in the advert made James feel the advert did not work because it was designed to do that, as the smoker explained:

“There is a lot of playing about family life... some of them do hit home ...you see this child making his bed the mother there was who is obviously very ill as an emotional effect on you it is designed to understand that ... It is obviously ineffective.”

4.4.2 What did smoker feel? (Emotions, severity and vulnerability) (Affect)

All the adverts used in the study were negative and contained different threats and used the visual format that showed unpleasant scenes and images of the consequences of smoking. For instance, they displayed smokers who were suffering from life-changing physical, health and, social problems because of smoking and real people who died because of smoking-related illness. The related marketing literature suggests that this format and content of adverts will elicit negative emotions and feelings (i.e. fear, disgust) (Wong and Cappella, 2009; Lennon and Rentfro, 2010). These emotions were noted from some smoker's first impressions, and also, from smokers' answers to questions about how those adverts made them feel and which emotions they experienced after being exposed to such anti-smoking adverts.

After watching the adverts used in the study, some smokers, when they started talking about their feelings and emotions evoked by adverts on them, were seen to get emotional, their eyes were filled with tears and they nearly cried. For instance, Diane and Emma as single mums with children explained that they feel shocked by the new information they got from advert No.1 about smoking's impact on them. Moreover, they were worried about their families and concerned that they could suffer from the same problems in an advert that illustrated how a mum who was a cancer patient could not do anything to help her little boy:

“That just freaks me out...it's very sad ... in fact I thought I am going to cry in two of them... Yeah terrified me... Yeah, number three and that one is quite shocking.”

“just sort it brought tears in my eyes...I think the first one and the fourth one with a little boy when getting dressed they sort of affecting me a little bit; I did not realise there is 16 type of cancer that you could get from smoking, that has shocked me.”

Also, a young female Claire got emotional and nearly cried because of what she saw in the adverts, which showed how smoking affects the lives of other people who are around the smoker.

“The 4th made me want to cry, and the first video made me feel ill. Those two made me feel the most emotions, and I will be just because of what it shows.”

“Yeah worried and frightened yeah frightened the good one” Sally

Other smokers were shocked by what they saw in some adverts and found them hard-hitting, especially those adverts which showed affected parts of smokers' bodies, whether they were in hospital, in the operating theatre or in their homes doing their regular activities.

Here Anna talks about what made her shocked:

“Yeah shock is the right word I personally do not like seeing people insides... like operations, show the bowel cancer, that was very shocking very disturbing ... it disturbs me a quite bit... I can say it is for me, it's disturbing.”

Also, James was shocked but not by threatening visual content, but because of new information he heard about for the first time. This piece of information stated that one in every two smokers die because of smoking-related illness, so he commented about this:

“These are quite shocking” adverts 1, 4...Those two it is sort of they open my eyes a little bit it is a quite shocking definitely... I think it is more shock factor for me...I think the first bit shock me was one in every two smokers.”

Two other smokers were shocked when they found out that the man in the adverts who had lung cancer from smoking had died shortly after appearing in the advert:

“Number 3 about the man dying was like a bit also sad and shocking at the same time.” Lucy

“Three was sad especially at the end when they said he died shortly afterwards he was so aware when he had cancer that was the reason; he was dying just from a cigarette that was really hard-hitting.” Andrew

Some smokers expressed the emotions they experienced when they watched those adverts, using several words; one of them was worry. Thus, a few smokers felt worried about their health when they saw how smoking damages smokers’ bodies, as Lucy said :

“Number one and three make me worry, the other ones like I cannot really relate to, do not make me worry.”

Also, they answered about when they were getting old and had children, or when they saw smoking’s impact, but could do nothing:

“Feel worried... I do not just do not find the right time to stop at minute...6 just make me slightly uncomfortable.” James

“Number four made me worry about when I am older and have children.” Stewart

Scared and frightened is how some smokers reported feeling about their smoking habit, after watching the adverts, because they were thinking about how seriously smoking could affect their health and everyday activities, and they regretted taking such a wrong choice when they started and kept smoking.

In this respect, Joseph stated:

“I think the cancer ones and the one with little kid with the mum the ad cancer and one with the first is the highest impact one cancer which is make me like really scared ... the first thing to make it scared.”

Olivia was afraid that smoking could prevent her from one of her everyday pleasures:

“Because I love food, so I am afraid not being able to taste any other food, that one was scary...Scared, sad for all people do get cancer from smoking but not much really.”

Similarly, Mark commented on one scene in advert one where a mum was with her family eating dinner. But she could not eat like them because of stomach cancer, which forced her to feed herself by using an outer tube attached to her abdomen:

“how it difficult it is to her to watch them eat she has got a drink that weird meaty milkshake it was rising my fear sort of being overlooked.”

Other smokers found the health and social threats portrayed in adverts made them imagine how painful and hard it would be to like those people in the adverts:

“The first one especially, when I see the lady feeding herself... it probably breaks my heart throat cancer as well it is not very nice I heard that bowel cancer is especially painful so is a bit scary and the fourth one as well because that little boy and the eyes of his mum is quite emotional” Alexa

Several smokers found some adverts were upsetting and made them afraid, especially those adverts which showed the social effects of smoking.

Lucy and Steve respectively, talked about their feelings when they watched advert number 4, which was about how a mum who has cancer because of smoking could not help her child to get ready for school:

“Four did not upset me, but it did not make me happy or make me feel any way like that sad I cannot relate to that.”

“The worst one with the kid with mum that upsets me a little bit just because when I have kids that could be me ...number four upset me ...just upset me to think about smoking and they around me inhaling smoke.”

Emily found the advert with second-hand smoking effects on children upsetting and said:

“You can see all of the smoke just coming out you are still having a health impact on people; it is quite upsetting”.

Several smokers experienced negative emotions such as feeling bad, sad and frustrated, about the people suffering and stories in the adverts who were unable to do simple things in their everyday life. Because they regretted starting and continuing how they start and keep smoking and the impact of this on their health and lives.

For example, Joseph experienced negative emotion when he watched the advert about a smoker who was suffering from cancer:

“The lady she got cancer she was hugging her child she was feeling emotional maybe she was crying and her husband as well it affected me and negative it was an emotional and bad feeling.”

Emily felt the same as Joseph:

“Four is really sad ... just that one draws a few emotions.”

Three other smokers, talked about how they felt because of specific adverts or their experience with all these threatening adverts

” My emotions sadness a bit of anxiety, sympathy for people on them.” Emma

“The last one ages you that is bad.” James

“The second one did make me quite sad, especially in the first and the last segment on it that was a child and on the baby at the end.” Grace

Moreover, some smokers (such as James) felt frustrated about being trapped in the smoking habit and having exposed themselves to such dangerous consequences or affecting other people who did not smoke with smoking problems:

“The only one I get to from them is much the one like family and friends... He is like I am grateful for having these people... that sad because like is the right to smoking it is his own decision to smoke... but then affect someone else...that make you think of it...that make feel a bit worse...That touch me a bit... hat last one just a bit frustrating.”

However, a few smokers did not feel anything when they watched these adverts, as some of them knew the advertised tactics to scare people, as Steve confirmed:

“Most of them seem like scare tactics... using scare tactics in adverts, I do not think it works.”

The same smoker explained her reaction by having got used to anti-smoking adverts content:

“Three and two do not really make me feel anything just like watching another advert...Number one it did not really bother me to be honest ...I used this sort of adverts and seeing them.”

Another smoker found an advert was from the low threat category, so the problems which the advert showed were not life-threatening problems or did not bother him at all, such as aging because of smoking. James said about this:

“It just about appearance ... you just look older ... some people do not mind looking older ... I do not care if I look older ... that would not fear me ... It does not affect me like you are going to look a bit older.”

To summarise, from smokers' answers, and based on the fear scale used in several studies, it is apparent that smokers felt mainly fear emotion when they watched the six adverts used in the research and expressed that in several terms: worried, uncomfortable, scared and frightened, along with other negative emotions like sadness, feeling bad and frustrated. The main reasons for that-according to smoker's answers- were the adverts which showed high physical threat appeals and used threatening scenes and images. Then social and death threat appeals, which displayed how the social life of smokers could be ruined by smoking and how a smoker could look well but would die relatively young because of smoking-related illness. Most participants perceived the severity of anti-smoking adverts, which evoked fear and other negative emotions in them. Many of them felt vulnerable to the threats in these adverts, such as smoking-related illness, social situations such as affecting loved one's health or life if they have diseases because of smoking, which made them unable to play their roles towards their families and children.

4.5 Effect of adverts visual content (identifying MSV features)

This section concerns reaction of smokers to visual and sound content in the televised anti-smoking adverts used in this study, that illustrated health, social and death threats in video format. As mentioned in the literature review, MSV has two dimensions. The first one is structural features that include formal video features and formal audio features, and the second one is content format features. Participants only mentioned some formal video features and some content format features none of the participants referred to formal audio features, even though all of the adverts included different sound levels and effects. Therefore, in this section,

the researcher will show how smokers found the MSV features in studied anti-smoking adverts in terms of which of them affected them emotionally and helped to grab their attention or not. From analysis of smokers' answers, six MSV features emerged. Two were from formal video features, visual special effects and vivid images, and four were content format features unexpected form, surprise end, acted-out and the action shown or described. Some features made smokers perceive the adverts as believable and effective and some not as will be revealed later.

4.5.1 Structural features identified by smokers

Structural features such as cuts, edits, visual special effects pacing, camera movement, scene changes, and narrative structure as vivid images well as video graphics. However, from the smoker's answers researcher identified just two features under formal video features group, which are visual special effects and video graphics from six ads the interviewees watched.

4.5.1.1 Visual special effects not working

Visual special effects in anti-smoking adverts context are anything involved in the advert that is beyond the range of human ability (Peak et al., 2010), such as morphing, paint or blood "sliding" down the screen, or computer manipulation of images and scenes. Smokers found these effects did not help them to process the messages which could result in high believability and effectiveness. In contrast, some smokers found adverts which showed real people with real problems because of smoking were more believable and effective, than those showing and using these effects.

Here Andrew compares three types of adverts regarding their design and content and how he perceived those adverts:

"Five it seems fake I just did not seem quite real and I could not take it seriously, and two is good, but again it did not seem it seemed a bit strange I did not seem as real-life if it was real life but the way they see at the smoke it did not feel quite true to life."

Similarly, Sally here talks about how showing something real and surprising is better than using effects that do not happen in real life:

“They show it, but it does not affect as much as show the hole in your throat or showing cancer patient something more hardcore or upsetting ...I think that more believable than show people and kids but imaginary smoke in the air those are less, it is a bit fictional.”

Also, James found the same problem in advert number two, which displayed things he found strange:

“I think it is a bit weird they are showing the smoke like some sort of poisonous snake.”

Moreover, a group of smokers described some adverts, content as science fiction, CGI or green-screen effects, which made those adverts have no impact on those smokers.

Claire explained why she turned away from such adverts:

“Yeah we do not need all of these computer effects as much as you need them to see the car full in Smoke, but you do not need to see it circling to neck... without all of these science fictions no I would I mean a green screen computerised comics because when I saw that I thought what is going on here, then it is going to around her neck circling I thought oh it is one of these ads.”

Another smoker found using visual effects to scare the audience not a proper way to make them motivated to attend the advert and leave them with the desired impact:

“6 I do not know how to explain it did not seem very hard-hitting just seem that they were doing a bit of fantasy CGI not really trying to scare you with or anything.” Andrew

Also, mixing real scenes with visual effects giving an idea about death (heart monitor flat-lining scene and sound in advert five) did not working because that could happen not from smoking only but from other illnesses as James said:

“I do not think the one with cigarettes with heart foundation adverts I did not think it really does anything to me... that was the just sort of the heartbeat and then it went flat and things, but I think I could relate that to a lot of other illnesses as well.”

4.5.1.2 Intense images (scenes)

The idea of using threat appeal is that if the audience is scared, they will pay more attention to the message, and so they could adopt a danger control reaction and comply with the advert

message. Some smokers found the threatening content in these adverts, which used vivid or horrifying images, including damaged body parts or people suffering from chronic diseases situations to show the risks and consequences of smoking helped them attend to the advert and find it more effective.

For example, Lucy talks here about scaring people with computer effects versus scenes in standard settings that could happen in everyday life:

“Scare people with just show people in hospital with the conditions they have from smoking that really like ok that will be eye-opening instead of being creative.”

Sally argued that showing how smoking could ruin people lives when they get life-threatening illness will be better than giving just the result of smoking, which does not illustrate how smokers suffer when they get smoking-related diseases:

“had impacted the mum with cancer because she did not have hair, she looks like cancer patient you know the visual effect rather than the guy that was ooh I am going to die, but he looks fine ... I think the fact they had some information that I learn, that was made with visual that stay in my mind” ...and the visual of the guy with a hole in and different diseases, the visual stay in your mind, so they are definitely helpful.”

Also, Claire talked about the same idea as the former smoker, but for advert number one:

“Because it is confirming everything you know in a visual form just having someone say it causes cancer. But when you see the image, the lady stood opposite the mirror with a colostomy bag it was and fed herself with Tube. It confirms what you are knowing made me feel...I think that was one was most effective to me I think it made more images more advert like that then yes I probably would stop.”

4.6 Format features identified by smokers

Those MSV features are about the content of the messages and how they are designed, whether the story will be narrated or acted out, whether a surprising end will be used or not. Whether problems will be described by someone in the advert or just shown to the audience and to what extent edits and cuts are used in the advert. Most smokers found content format features had a positive impact on them, in terms of attention and how they perceived the believability and effectiveness of these adverts.

4.6.1 Unexpected format

Morgan et al (2003) suggest that “If the images and the message could be interchangeable with several other anti-drug PSAs, it is ‘expected,’” (p. 519). This feature is about designing the advert in such a way that the recipient cannot predict what happens in the advert until he or she finishes watching it which means that the recipient attends the advert until the end. Smokers stated that two adverts grabbed their attention until the end because they wanted to know what was going on or what would happen next (like how advert number six was designed). Thus, they confirmed that this type of advert would make them pay attention to those adverts and finish watching them also in their everyday life.

Here, Stewart describes how advert number six made him focus while he was watching it:

“I think the last one because you focus on her movement, it is not like everyone ... so many and different places ... it just one person smoking in front of you, it is like what she is doing what this ad about, trying to figure out.”

In the same way, Mark talked about advert number six:

“You sit there and watching the next one going to be worse is that just her face crunching up a bit does not make a feel while number one stuck with me and most people in number six will stick with me the longest. And because of it is long and it is style it is taking style and rather than various bits of information just very simple image.”

An unexpected design also made other smokers figure out what would happen in the advert and focus on it until the last second. Here Steve talks about advert number 4:

“It is a bit happen when beginning with a little kid is a bit cheeky ... and you wondering what is going on ... definitely watching number four.”

Other smokers found some adverts useful because instead of design and visual content. they contained new shocking information for them, which made them say this was the first time they knew about it.

As Anna confirmed when talking about information in advert number one:

“I did not know there are 16 different kinds of cancer. I was happy to learn that smoking cause that.”

Also, Andrew was talked about how the advert delivers and shows these different kinds of cancer, which was the first time he had come across it:

“Because it just shows you the many different ways rather than just one ...I mean I know they just focus on cancer, but it is like not just lung cancer its bowel cancer ... it just so many ways you can affect your health rather than just one... it really makes you realise ... Does that make sense? It is uneasy different between knowing it and seeing it.”

Not only did advert number one contain new information, but advert number five made James realise further details too:

“I do not realise that 1 of 2 smokers will die from smoking-related diseases... just surprise me it has I thought it might be the biggest number ... I did not realise there is 16 type of cancer that you could get from smoking, that has actually, really shocked me.”

4.6.2 Surprise end

Some adverts, in the beginning, show images and scenes that make the recipient unable to expect what would happen at the end of the advert, or lead the recipient to expect a traditional scenario (based on his or her experience with anti-smoking adverts), then twist to another scenario which is different. This sort of advert contains the MSV feature called surprise end (some call it second half punch). Among the six adverts in study, numbers three and five had this feature, for example, it was said at the end of the advert that the man who was talking about his illness because of smoking (lung cancer) had died shortly after doing this advert.

Diane commented on advert three:

“I think because he looks so normal...he is looking ooh I enjoy this I enjoy that, but I am going to die soon ... is like what?!! and then in the next clip he did die ... yeah ... it is definitely is thought to provoke.”

Also, Claire said:

“He was going to die shortly after filming, but that was the most hard-hitting.”

Similarly, advert number five showed a man smoking and walking, which made the viewer want to know what would happen to him and wait for something bad to happen to this man but it did not happen in this advert:

“It takes me a while to understand what was happening until nearly the end. So it was intriguing to watch what was about until the end. Still had even though it was not showing people dying or being diagnosed with cancer, still showing heart rate than flat lighting afterward and he just walking down the street like everyone who smokes does. Yeah, that one I think.”

4.6.3 Acted-out

Peak et al (2010:1090) define this feature as “instead of being told about the dangers of smoking, viewers see actions corresponding to the point of the antismoking video clip”. That is, the advert uses an actor/actors to represent smokers affected by smoking risks. Smokers in this study found the acting could be better, or that was not the proper way to design anti-smoking adverts or to convey the messages to the audience.

Mark said about this feature in the advert he saw:

“I feel like a lot of them relying on the area of melodrama like smoking forming a hose around the child nick...they are actors they created the situation. not necessarily that woman has cancer she is just emulating someone who does it is sorry I just was thinking for casting do I believe these two are married do I believe they made this child.”

James had the same idea as the previous smoker:

“I think hiring an actor and getting them just set and talk about the fact of smoking that i do not think will interest many people... just sitting and watching an actor I think actors for advertisements like this it does not hit home as much.”

Another smoker compared two adverts based on how the message was conveyed, whether it showed the reality or used actors to do that:

“The first one is just could almost be a real appointment with a doctor, and just someone filming by the camera does nothing... it just documentary style, rather than the others, which were theatrical.” Emma.

4.6.4 The action showed or described

The last feature the smokers identified is whether the message of the advert uses ways to describe smoking dangers (illness and problems) and why a smoker should stop smoking or shows these risks (illness and problems) and makes the recipient getting the message and draw the conclusion by himself. Some smokers in this study preferred the adverts that showed real body parts and the diseases caused by smoking, such as what are shown on cigarette packets. The smokers found this demonstrated the reality of smoking consequences and was more effective for them.

For instance, Andrew found adverts, which illustrated how smoking affects smokers better than other ways, like using computer effects:

“Because one was showing you the impact very true to life, how the people lived the life when they got this type of cancer, it was not CGI or special effects on that. I am assuming the real-life stories that did feel very true to life which is I think really important because even when I was watching them the ones which I saw CGI, I did feel hard-hitting.”

Emily also mentioned this feature when she talked about advert number one and advert number five:

“If you think about the visible changed would have to happen on outside it is a result of things inside and that would stop you are dying then it definitely reduces the quality of life after having your surgery it is like a colostomy bag. I think definitely having people just to be able to see instead of you passed on the street and you clearly smoke and you made the decision that then you are not normal anymore on the outside. You do not look like everybody else you are not fit as well you cannot do the things you have to do as a result of smoking it definitely would shock people and having an impact on them and decide to quit.”

The same comparison between advert five and other adverts which show how smoking could affect smokers live was made by. Diane:

“But I think the more real-life ones like with man going to die where the mother at home in bid ... is nothing to elaborate is real is real life ... a scenario like could relate to...not someone walking with cigarettes pretending to be heart bib or heart rate.”

4.7 Adverts Believability

4.7.1 Believable adverts

Smokers were asked about which advert of the six they watched was more believable than the others. Questions used terms representing the believability scale used to measure believability of social adverts in previous studies(appendices). Such as believable, credible, acceptable, convincing, etc. The aim was not to order the adverts according to their believability but to know which features make adverts more believable and why from smokers' perspective. Hence, on many occasions, the participants talked about the believable adverts, which means that the adverts they did not mention were less or not believable. From smokers' answers about the emotional effect, MSV features, believable adverts and, later, effective adverts, the researcher could conclude why these adverts were less or not believable. From smokers' answers, the researcher concludes three features in the adverts that made smokers judge them as believable. These reasons are when the advert is realistic and shows facts, using numbers and facts about the risks and consequences of smoking and when the adverts show smoking-related illness (physical threats) and the social problems caused by smoking (social threats).

4.7.1.1 Realistic adverts

Adverts like number one, which stated that smoking causes 16 types of cancer and show how these types of cancer ruin the smokers' lives, make them suffer and make them not normal anymore, and advert number four, which said that one in every two long-term smokers would die because of smoking-related illness, some of them in their forties, were found believable. so, were adverts showing real people or scenes depicting the reality, the truth of smoking and facts, as what happened in the advert number four when the man who was the main character in the advert died shortly after doing the advert. Such adverts containing scenarios that could happen in real life, from smokers' view, were more believable.

Andrew stated:

“When it is real people when you more likely to believe it when you know it is true when you know they have real effects on smokers rather than what someone is telling you.”

Moreover, Claire explained why she found adverts four and one more believable:

“Number 4 and number one definitely are the most realistic because people go to surgery for cancer every day probably every hour someone has this surgery with cancer. And that very realistic and the factors that causes are true a number four is very believable scenario child getting ready to school and his mother there dying of cancer is very believable; it is a story”.

Another smoker who has the same idea pointed out that:

“It draws me to number one most there are not people who are on the death bed it is people whom they had cancer or in therapy cancer but still very much in the element they still at home they still very much suffering” Mark

Also, Olivia found some adverts believable for those reasons:

“The first one and the fourth one...that one is definitely more real ... definitely happens, the fourth one where it was in a home a kid getting ready for school without her because she is ill and had therapy would believe that could happen in real life...I think one of two smokers will die from the related disease, that one has the most impact, very convincing”.

4.7.1.2 Adverts visualise smoking problems (physical and social threats)

Other smokers found the adverts containing intense images and horrific scenes about how smoking could affect the smoker’s body and life are more believable. This means they found adverts with physical threats and social threats were more believable. As advert number one talked about 16 types of cancer and how those types change and affect smokers’ lives, Stewart found it more believable:

“Definitely, the one with so many types of cancer.”

Also, an advert that showed how smoking affects people around the smoker make Anna rate it as believable advert:

“I am thinking when you affect your children or your friends that would be the most credible for me and then maybe number one next.”

Alexa found it believable showing that the effects of smoking on smokers’ health would affect both their bodies and social lives as well:

“The first one when you see someone on operation table it feels very real...you see grandpa with throat cancer it is believable when you see the lady feeding herself. Again, it is like very believable for the fourth one I can easily picture family being broken by lung cancer yeah there was more credible ones.”

Here, another two smokers consider adverts which show the physical effect of smoking, whether it was life-threatening or effected smokers' appearance, were believable:

“Yeah that is one looks credible but was sad as well because he really looks really healthy to me, number six is like the fact as well.” Lucy

“The last one with skin and wrinkles.” Maria

4.8 Effective adverts

The perceived effectiveness was evaluated and measured in this research by asking questions about specific reactions during the interviews at different interview parts. According to Davis et al 2011 the first indicator of perceived effectiveness is how believable the advert; is the result on this is already known. Then how much the advert grabs the viewers' attention, makes the smoker stop and think (processing the message) and finally want to quit smoking (intention to quit).

As shown above, the researcher has analysed smokers' answers to find out which adverts were more believable. So that means the researcher already knew those believable adverts or their features, which determined the first feature of effective adverts as well. Then the other advert effectiveness features (grabbing the attention, message processing and intention to quit) will determine which adverts are perceiving more effective than others. The researcher, therefore, extracts four themes from smokers' answers:

4.8.1 Adverts that show physical threats

The same features that make some adverts more believable, made smokers consider adverts which present physical threats of smoking more effective than other adverts. Such a reaction might be because those smokers felt afraid because of what they saw on the advert.

Emma found the two adverts from the physical threat appeals category effective and explained why:

“Effective ads 1 and 6 because when I see it I was quite scared and it tracks your tummy, I really do not like them, they make me sort of cringe a bit.”

Andrew was already aware of some consequences of smoking, but the difference now was to see what he already knew visually. This made it different for him and helped him to process the message of the advert:

“Because it goes through different types of suffering, I think it makes you realise the seriousness of it...Hard-hitting that really make you stop and think and really makes you really question it.”

Anna found advert number one effective because it displayed how smokers suffer from smoking-related illnesses:

“I would say number well number one definitely... because it seems like something, I would be afraid to myself...like a fear factor involved with what they are trying to say about ruining your body and make reversible damage and stuff you cannot do anything about it...Number 1 because I do not want to go through the pain and suffering.”

Also, two other two smokers commented on advert number six and how this advert grabbed their attention:

“I feel the longer one (6) may be most effective because of the feeling what going on...I had seen number one I feel like that would stay me towards a decision to quit to be honest even now even having simply the dialogue about it made me leave from here and quit immediately.”
Mark

“Number 6 and number two grab my attention.” Grace

4.8.2 Adverts that visualise social threats

The second group of effective adverts according to smoker’s opinions, were the adverts that showed threats of smoking, which caused social problems. For example, second-hand smoking that affect children, family members and friends, or those threats that make the smoker unable to perform his or her social role because of problems as a result of smoking.

Here James explains in detail why he found social appeals appealing to him:

“Second-hand smoking bad but the details and learning all that statistics and information and visual effects I think that what make them more strong and effective At least for me...number two and number four stands out because they introduce the children...I could see how to affect other people you can see straight away in the eyes of a child despondent it is probably more hard-hitting than the other adverts...to bring the children to the equation change everything the bringing other people in the equation change everything... Because you introduce other people to smoke people who do not have a choice, I do not have a choice as it can walk away they do not have to be smoke children did not have a choice that's why was effective you poisoning somebody else.”

Also, Steve was concerned about affecting people around the smoker, so he found this theme effective too:

“I felt profoundly affected...because number four made me think about a little bit ... made me think about you know...people around me or affecting my kids ... It made me think about it but not made me want to quit...the only ones really are number two and four two for people around me and four for my children in future.”

Likewise, Emily found that engaging children in the advert and showing how they could suffer from passive smoking make the second advert effective from her perspective:

“I think the second one it is quite the first and the last scene obviously not from very first second as soon as smoke interacting with a child and at the end of it interacting with a child again that particularly evocative.” Grace

4.8.3 Adverts with high Social and physical threats

The content of some adverts that show both physical threats and social threats make the adverts effective in many participants' view. It is worth mentioning that some smokers found the adverts of high threat appeals level more effective. It seems that adverts that evoke more fear and other negative emotions are considered more effective than the rest of the adverts which had other kinds of threats or the adverts with a low level of threat.

Smokers like Maria and Olivia (respectively) considered the adverts with high threats, whether were physical and social threats, effective:

“I think because of family element because they have children in them ... and I think as well number one with 16 types of cancer and so, was just like the lady it could change your appearance, could change your face, leave you almost speechless. It shows raw physical effects of smoking...it just reminds me of my little boy. More convincing for me to stop smoking.”

“The one with the child (4) and with stomach cancer (1) one that one was the most impactful...I think the third one: he did say in the advert if you do smoke stop now and the number one still the one gives me the most feeling of being scared.”

4.8.4 Adverts evoked fear

From smokers' answers, the researcher noticed that any type of adverts succeeded in making smokers shocked or evoked fear emotion, regardless of the kind of threat it contained. The smokers classified these as effective adverts when asked which adverts made them pay more attention.

This was the answer Alexa gave when asked about the advert to which she gave most attention and that made her process the advert:

"The first one... when I see people lying on Operation table when scared death and doctors so and again that girl is feeding herself this is making me a bit scared ... when you see something like that it just feels more real where it scary it just stick with you in the back of your head even if you do not really think about it, but sometimes you just stop and thinking and remember this it is like all of that horrible, so I think scary makes it more real."

Likewise, James described the adverts that made him think about stopping smoking:

"Probably number 4 if I set to watch it a few time every day it will probably shock me until I want to stop smoking... that would probably scare me to think ... the first one because they are graphic they do actually show you they do not just sort of explaining these types of cancer that you can get from smoking, they actually show you what could happen when you do get those cancers, that was threatening me a quite a lot."

4.9 The ideal anti-smoking advert

Although some smokers found some adverts believable and effective, still, most of the smokers did not have a firm intention to comply with the messages of the anti-smoking adverts in the

study and anti-smoking ads in general. Many of them found anti-smoking adverts not working and not enough to make them stop smoking, as these adverts are designed and broadcast to do so. For that reason, the researcher tried to clarify this ambiguous situation by asking smokers to think of or imagine the design of anti-smoking ads or the features of believable and effective advert, which make them might consider stopping smoking. By doing this, the researcher discovered some problems with anti-smoking adverts, whether those used in the study or anti-smoking adverts in the UK in general. An example of these problems is the generation gap that young adults found when they watched those adverts. Most adverts they thought to apply to middle-aged and older people, or parents who have children. Also, many of them saw that the adverts showed smoking problems but did not give them enough support or show how they could stop smoking (solution). Then they are talked about some features that could help them to find anti-smoking adverts effective so they could comply with their messages. Several of these features, they had already talked about when they talked about ads believability and effectiveness. For the smokers, what made the adverts perceived as believable and effective was containing MSV features and high physical, social and death threat respectively and, that show the smokers' risks and consequences of smoking in realistic scenarios and a format that made them imagine it could happen to them in everyday life.

4.9.1 Identity gap (interpersonal)

Some smokers explained their maladaptive reaction to anti-smoking adverts, as they found some adverts believable but not effective enough to make them want to stop smoking because of the generation gap. That is, they thought the adverts were speaking to another generation or age group, not to young adult smokers, but for middle-aged and older people or parents.

The lack of messages which target this age group made Alexa argued:

"I think it does not touch any young person like me I cannot really face it 20 years old girl they quite older like 40 50. I just thinking about being a parent all of these people I mean for a little boy or a baby so I don't see the danger right now, but until I face it I guess that's why not as shocked as car crash for example...I think there is an age gap between people pictured there they are very young people or very old and you don't see yourself as dynamic youth in something like that."

Also, Lucy talked about the impact of the adverts if they involved young adults:

“Like people in my age, I do not think five and four will...ad Three I think it is not related to... and two... Probably one would be more convincing one would be better if they had a young person on it.”

Likewise, another smoker did not find a person for her his age when she commented on an advert felt it did not apply for her:

“What really affects me, would be seeing like number three with jerry (man in the ad), seeing someone in my age... if it someone in my age seem to be cautious it would definitely affect me... I have got them like oof that is in future I will worry about that later; I am not able to apply this TV ad if I was not something apply to me now ... If I see in my age.” Emma

Olivia and James added respectively, their views about their age group being ignored by the adverts they watched:

“I guess involving younger people because a lot of those adverts are sort of for middle-aged people who are smoking...they definitely focus on middle-age people completely ignore all the young people who are smoking.”

“I feel they do not target my age; they target people older.”

Adverts about young adults' interests (interpersonal, health-related)

As a reaction to the generation gap that smokers found in some anti-smoking adverts, the smokers mentioned that if the adverts addressed some smoking problems which could happen in the short-term, not long-term effects which affect older people, they would be more effective. For example, smokers thought that if adverts talked about how smoking affects doing sport and exercise it would make many young adults attend and maybe comply with anti-smoking messages.

For example, Anna, who played a sport, did not find anti-smoking adverts talking about how smoking could affect young smokers' ability to play sport, which would be effective for people like her:

"If you make one of diseases or cancers in number one with the fact that you never be able to play sport again ... then for me ... it would I probably will stop smoking the next day. If I find out if I have my stomach removed, I cannot run or making any competitive sport move on or

cannot do anything ... something like that ... Yeah, a result of disease pretty much could ruin a life."

Similarly, Joseph mentioned using sport in anti-smoking adverts by doing them in gym settings because he experienced some difficulty when he went to the gym recently:

"They could give examples from daily life... from gym... for example, I go to the gym regularly and sometimes I am feeling tired early than others. I am just thinking oh come on it is because of smoking and you know that if I stop that maybe I will be more efficient at the gym...they can say are you feeling tired at the gym than others or do not think you are becoming tired early than others do not smell very bad."

Also, Emily added the idea of how smoking affects everyday activities of smokers that need physical effort:

"So, mention the thing is about to reduce your ability to live taken the opportunity that thing is can affect your sport your everyday life if you are running to the bus you cannot make it that kind of things."

4.9.3 More support and solutions (interpersonal – support – emotion)

Smokers had a problem with negative anti-smoking adverts, which refer to the problems caused by smoking, threaten smokers and ask smokers to stop without offering more help. The adverts messages focus on telling smokers to stop, but from the point of view of smoking in this study, they do not offer enough support or mention to ways that are available to help smokers who intend to quit. For example, to showed smokers telephone helplines, places or websites in the adverts, but the time on the screen was too short of catching them. Also, the adverts told them they should quit, but they did not tell them about the possible ways how to quit smoking.

Here, Alexa explains how the adverts usually talking about the problem but do not offer solutions:

"The thing is... you see the problems, but you do not see solutions as well you see that you are going to get cancer if you are keeping smoking you do not see like you could avoid this by doing this it is not rationalized It just bit is going to happen that is all."

Other smokers mentioned anti-smoking adverts are just an end product of smoking campaigns, without telling the story about what happened before the smoker in the ad got these problems:

"you do not see that what they started if you know what I mean, you do not see that they did start smoking at 19 or 20 s and they have been smoking for 30 years... To show not just the end product but the progression so how you start and then how that changed how you are changing how are your lungs changing how your body is changing to get to the endpoint rather than just you got cancer."

Similarly, Steve wanted to see how he could stop smoking and the available support, not just be told that smoking kills:

"None of them gives any indication to how to quit smoking it just said stop smoking... Because it at the end of because I do not have time to get the information about where to go or how to quit ... when they here is the video this is why you should quit smoking ... and here is a little bit with the information... Do not say you going to die ... a bit more informing educating instead of scare tactics ... and just be like these are some of the risks you know if you want to quit smoking you can do it by doing this so here some of the things you can do."

However, Mark found anti-smoking adverts did not give much time and position to way of contacting sources from ways for places which smokers could seek help it to quit smoking:

"I am not being given the information is to how like telephone numbers and websites and things like that I always find this very fast it a lot of attention toward here is a person doing this here is the person doing this of the advert... for instance for websites could be cross the screen at all time during the of the thing then the people they do not have the excuse to say I do not see the information because it was there for that long it could do it sort of being contrast from the rest of image... I feel like information for me had to seek and seek the help has been very limited perhaps that the key." Mark

4.9.4 Dissent mainstream design themes of anti-smoking adverts

In terms of anti-smoking adverts design, smokers suggested that anti-smoking campaigns should consider changes in the way they design these adverts. For instance, as some of the smokers smoked a few cigarettes per day or only on certain occasions (such as social smokers), they suggested some ideas for designing anti-smoking adverts. For example, they suggested

ads target people who are smoke a few cigarettes showing how even these few cigarettes could cause damage and could lead to dangerous illness. Also, some of them would prefer adverts that show the rewards from of stopping smoking, which would give those adverts some positive content, such as saving money or improving of health. Other smokers thought posters on streets that fight smoking could be more effective than televised adverts because smokers cannot avoid they do with televised anti-smoking adverts.

Some smokers in the study reported that they smoked a few cigarettes and consider themselves social smokers because they smoked more when they went out with friends, so one of them suggested anti-smoking adverts that target such smokers:

“Four it would have been more hard-hitting if it said, for example, she will only smoke few cigarettes a day, and then you realise how a small amount of cigarettes...it is hard-hitting because you realise it is just a small amount can cause such the damage...four cigarettes would cause a mutation and that hard-hitting because you realise four cigarettes.” Claire

Olivia imagined that anti-smoking adverts could show what happens to people who quit smoking instead of making people scared:

“I think getting opinions of people who are starting smoking in that way and then quit and their life much better now feel better when they quit, showing people how much better life could be if you stop smoking while you younger instead... I do not think scared people is a very effective way.”

Likewise, James called for anti-smoking adverts to be positive rather than focus on a negative tone:

“Focus on the positives... If they said like after this time, this would improve...after this lungs will improve... if you stop today then in weeks you will be happy because of this, and in three weeks this will happen which is good, and after the year this will happen, and after some years you will fully be recovered.. save money.”

Interestingly, two smokers considered posters more effective than televised anti-smoking adverts:

“Like a poster you cannot avoid the posters on the street in these instances, it has been dominating by imagery and this all staff and the information of where you might seek help.”
Mark

“The only thing I can think is I do not know if you see them do not know road signs in Hull they use children's they do ads by children to make you slow down I think stuff like that would be paying attention to it when it is just normal one. Does not pay attention really to it is not unusual where is I always pay attention to them because children draw them; it makes you stop and look and thank ahh what is that.” Andrew

4.10 Summary

From the smokers' first impression and how they felt when they had finished watching six adverts in interviews(present experience), the researcher found that negative and scary content in these adverts made smokers experience mainly fear and other negative emotions. As for MSV structure format features, smokers found adverts with intense scenes that depict smoking problems believable but not those modified with computer effects. Content features like unexpected format, surprise end and showing the action of smoking threats made smokers see adverts with such features as believable and effective. However, acting out was not effective and the smokers preferred the realistic scenes and scenarios instead.

Regarding the believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking adverts, smokers found the adverts which contained high threats, primarily physical and social threat, and which were more realistic and depicted everyday scenarios more believable and effective. However, when the smokers were asked to imagine the ideal anti-smoking advert that could make them have a firm intention to stop smoking they mentioned that anti-smoking adverts should target their age group, not only older adults or parents, and they wanted instead to design anti-smoking adverts that target them and their interests and concerns.

Moreover, they insisted that anti-smoking adverts should focus more on the solutions and how smokers could have access to sources of help not just scare smokers or show them the problems of smoking without providing then needed help. Also, smokers suggested that anti-smoking adverts should be more positive, and target social smokers who do not smoke much unless they are in a social situation. They suggested trying to use other channels like posters instead of relying on televised anti-smoking adverts. Themes of present experience are shown in the next chart:

Figure 4: Present experience themes



The following table summarises the themes of smokers past and present experience:

Table 9: Themes of smokers past and present experience

Past experience	Main themes	Sub-themes				
	What remember? (Cognition)	Visceral visual components	Inter-personal relationships		Concerns of the future	
	What feel? (Affect)	Fear		Disgust		
	What reaction? (Behaviour)	Denial	Ignore and avoid	Desensitised	It is not working	
Present experience	First impression					
	Feeling	Fear	Shocked	Sad and bad	Frustrated	
	MSV					
		structural features	Intense scenes		visual special effects	
		Content features	Unexpected format	Surprise end	Acting-out	The action showed or described
	Believability	physical and social threats		Realistic adverts		
	effectiveness	physical threats	high Social and physical threats	social threats	Adverts make smokers scared	
	Design	Identity gap	Dissent mainstream design themes	More support and solutions	young adults' interests	

4.11 Research results according to BASIC IDS

To recognize the whole picture about smokers' experience, perception, emotion and reaction, the researcher categorized the research results according to DQR and BASIC IDS. The researcher chose some questions from Cohen (2014) guide about each modality which are consistent with the nature of the study aims, questions and data. From the answers to these questions, the researcher extract results for all modalities, but without supporting quotations, because they were already mentioned in the section of thematic analysis. The results of examining these modalities are below, and a summary of these results and the relationships between the modalities are in Table (10):

4.11.1 Behaviour

Results about this modality can be extracted via two questions; the first one is: What are anti-smoking ads doing in the eyes of smokers? The answer is: All studied anti-smoking ads were designed with negative content and show the risks of smoking and physical (which could lead to death) and social effects, using visual-threat appeals to encourage smokers to stop, focusing on smoking cessation. The adverts show that smoking consequences could affect the smokers body, social life with family and friends and threaten the smokers life. The adverts target older people and parents. The second question is: What are smokers doing? The answer to this question is already given in the two sections on past experience and present experience of smokers with anti-smoking materials and the studied adverts revealed in previous parts of the findings chapter.

In their past experience, when they saw anti-smoking materials before the study, they avoided and ignored them got used to them, denied what they saw and found it did not work with them. As for the present experience, after watching six anti-smoking ads during the study interview they experienced, short-term effect, thought about stopping in future “e.g. after getting a degree”, or that they may reduce their smoking but had no firm intention to stop.

4.11.2 Affect

Anti-smoking adverts with negative content (visual-threat appeals) made smokers shocked and elicited negative emotions in them, mainly fear and feeling bad, sad and frustrated. These emotions were aroused according to how severe the threats were in these adverts. Consequently, smokers felt vulnerable to physical threats and illnesses, social problems from smoking and death because of smoking-related illness sicknesses shown in anti-smoking adverts.

4.11.3 Sensation and imagery(threat)

Visual-threat appeals in anti-smoking ads activated and engaged just the sense of sight in smokers, by showing how smoking could damage smokers' bodies and affect them physically and socially and could threaten their lives (death threat). This made them perceive the severity of smoking risks and consequences. Showing sickness and illness in these ads evoked the sensation of vulnerability to such threats and reminded them of some experiences in their families or how smoking was affecting them now. Also, it made them imagine how dangerous it could be and how their lives would be if these threats happened to them. Even though the adverts contained sound effects (e.g. loud music and threatening sounds), however, none of the smokers mentioned them have suggested it made any difference for them when they rated the believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking adverts.

4.11.4 Cognition

Smokers when asked about past experience, they recalled and remembered how they perceived and reacted to anti-smoking materials. As for the present experience, even though smokers showed perceived high believability of anti-smoking ads with high physical threat appeals, high social threat appeals, and then high death threat appeals, this did not translate into high perceived effectiveness of ads with that content. Similarly with some MSV features (such as unexpected format, surprise end and the action has shown or described) resulted in high perceived believability but not high perceived effectiveness. Low threat appeals in the three themes (physical, social and death) and some MSV features (visual special effects and video graphics and acted-out) made the ads with such threat appeals and MSV features have low perceived believability and perceived effectiveness as well. Therefore, the impact of this reaction resulted in most smokers not complying with anti-smoking messages, and they had no intention to stop smoking.

4.11.5 Interpersonal relations

Smokers in this study were British, university students, young adult smokers. All of them were single except two were single mums with children. Friendship, companionship and peer pressure kept many of them smoking or unable to stop. Many of them liked and enjoyed smoking and it helped them to make friends and relationships, eased some social situations and relieved the stress of study and deadlines in university.

4.11.6 Drug

Smokers were aware of the risks and consequences of smoking and felt vulnerable to smoking risks. They perceived the physical effects of tobacco and the possibility of dying because of smoking-related illness in anti-smoking ads as highly believable. However, many of them did not want to stop smoking because of addiction to cigarettes and enjoying smoking. Health and physical threats depicted in adverts and made perceive adverts with high physical, social and death threat appeals as more believable. Some smokers were already experienced some effects of smoking on their bodies and health, and others were worried because of new information about how dangerous smoking is (e.g. 16 types of cancer).

4.11.7 Socio-cultural aspects

All of the anti-smoking ads used the English language. Although some of them were from anti-smoking campaigns in South Africa, Australia and the USA some of them were used in UK anti-smoking campaigns and were consistent with smokers' culture as British, young adult smokers. The issue that made those ads not speak to those smokers was an age gap. Smokers found those ads were talking to older people, people with children or parents and did not apply to their generation as young adult smokers.

A summary of these results and the relationships between the modalities are in Table (10)

Table 10: Results according to modalities

BASIC IDS	Results summary	modalities affecting it
Behaviour	<p>What do anti-smoking ads do?</p> <p>-Show smoking risks and consequences (physical, social and threatening life)-focus on smoking cessation-use visual-threat appeals -negative tone-target parents and old people</p> <p>What do smokers do?</p> <p>Past experience: Avoid- ignore-deny</p> <p>Present experience: Short-term effect-think of reducing smoking-future plans to stop- not firm intention to stop</p>	<p>Drug</p> <p>Cognition</p> <p>Interpersonal relations</p> <p>Socio-cultural factors</p>
Affect	<p>Visual-threat appeals elicit fear emotion and other negative emotions (feel bad, sad and frustrated)</p> <p>-feel vulnerable to threats</p>	Cognition
Sensation and Imagery	<p>Seeing visual-threat appeals- Show the severity of threats and evoke the feeling of vulnerability to smoking effects on body, family and life.</p>	Cognition
Cognition	<p>Past experience: recall and remember anti-smoking materials with threat appeals and negative content.</p> <p>Present experience: high visual-threat appeals have high perceived believability and effectiveness but without intention to comply with messages of anti-smoking ads</p>	<p>Affect</p> <p>Sensation and imagery</p> <p>Interpersonal relations</p> <p>Drug</p> <p>Socio-cultural factors</p>
Interpersonal relations	<p>Demographics: Young adults-students. Friendship, companionship and peer pressure the smoking decision</p>	<p>Behaviour</p> <p>Cognition</p>
Drug	<p>Awareness of smoking risks – enjoy smoking -effect of addiction-physical, social and life-threatening effects – experience some smoking effects</p>	<p>Behaviour</p> <p>Cognition</p>
Socio-cultural factors	<p>Adverts for the UK and other similar countries –smokers are young adults and British- find age gap in ads</p>	<p>Behaviour</p> <p>Cognition</p>

These relations and interactions between the modalities of the BASIC IDS framework were mentioned implicitly in several places in the thematic analysis. However, the explanation of these relationships by answers from young adults' smokers will be constructive to understand it from smokers' narratives. As mentioned before, smokers found adverts high in MSV features and containing threatening scenes and information more believable and effective. As some smokers stated:

"I did not realise there is 16 type of cancer that you could get from smoking, that has shocked me." James

"It is the children to bring the children to the equation change everything the bringing other people in the equation change everything." Mark

"The one with the man when they said he actually died after making this because I would like to presume, they would not lie about him actually dying... I felt profoundly affected." Diane

Those adverts were substantial and affected the smoker emotionally, which made them perceive them as effective, because of the information in them the design or because of horrific scenes that showed how smoking could damage the smoker's body. For example, Claire found one of the MSV feature hard-hitting:

"Number three was probably most effective one of those three, but it was not hard-hitting as the first... he was going to die shortly after filming, but that was the most hard-hitting one."

Similarly, Emily and Sally explain why they found specific adverts more believable and effective:

"While in the 3 and 4 just telling you factual recount that things happen and change people life to worse for me at least make them for me more believable."

"They show it, but it does not affect as much as show the hole in your throat or showing cancer patient something more hardcore or upsetting."

However, this type of advert impacts the smokers when they watch it immediately but only for a short time, as James said:

"It has made me not want cigarettes when I leave here."

Also, as Anna maintained:

“I feel bad like I should not be smoking I should try to quit, but as soon as the video ends, I pick up another cigarette... Very brief impact.”

As smokers, they did not have a firm intention to quit smoking after seeing these adverts. They explained why they found these adverts did not help them to decide to quit, because of several reasons related to the adverts and their personal and situational reasons which made them not ready to quit:

For example, some smokers found these adverts not appealing to young adult smokers because they did not target their age group and were not about their interests. As Anna said:

“So, the other one’s appeal to people with children or people who want to look good women those really do not do so much for me...well as I say most of them did really not apply to me.”

Also, Andrew and Mark added, respectively:

“Showing in smoking adverts it is all quite middle-age parents or stuff like that you do not see the young generation much.”

“So, with four, I felt like that would probably be one of the more effective ones with parents.”

Other smokers justified why they would keep smoking for several reasons, such as addiction to cigarettes, as Claire stated:

“I would say I am addicted to smoke because obviously, I keep smoking.”

Also, as Emily added:

“I have like a bad addiction, so I do not know I cannot stop.”

Other smokers found cigarettes eased some situations like when they were stressed because of study or being in certain social situations. Here Andrew explains how he considers smoking calming for him:

“It is like 5 minutes out the world for 5 minutes you have got to escape go do something just take yourself out of situations. and obviously the physiological release as well you get from

smoking it's very social as well, a lot of my friends smoke its quite social thing to do just go outside have a chat I have a bit of break.”

Likewise, Lucy said:

“It is usually during social occasions like parties or gathering with other people it is really easy to ask for cigarettes or share one so 6 It is for like a stressful situation. I just find it easier to cope; it's like have a break sometimes is like boring but and stressful situations I find it easier to cope if I smoke.”

Some smokers found no effect of these anti-smoking materials because they enjoyed smoking. As Steve said:

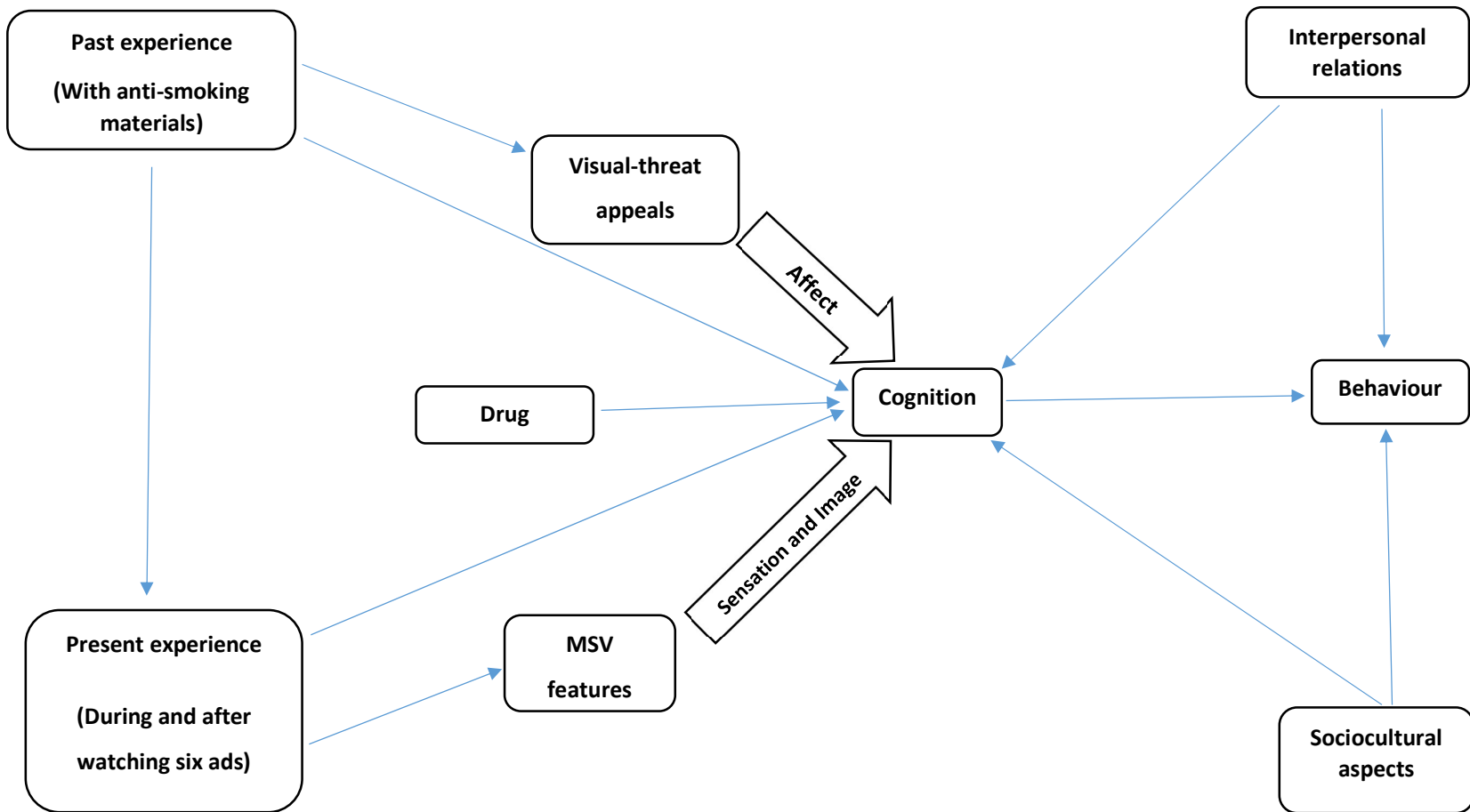
“I do genuine I enjoy smoking, and they have a consult quit and stuff to quit recently, but it is one of those things I probably like to do, but I am not ready to because I enjoy it too much at the minute.”

Moreover, James stated:

“Like more when I have a coffee and cigarette, I just like really enjoy that in the morning probably I like the cig with my coffee.”

Figure 5 summarises the relationships between those modalities and how they impact each other according to smokers' answers and the researcher's analysis:

Figure 5: the relationships between those modalities



4.12 Integrating results of thematic analysis and DQR dimensions

By integrating the results of the two sections of data analysis, it will be noticed that advert features which are threat appeals (physical, social and death threats) and the format and visual content of the advert (MSV features), which show intense scenes and threatening information, in addition to smokers' attributes and situation (role of addiction, peer, friendship and companion pressure-ease study stress- socialising) and cultural factors (age gap). All shape smokers' experience with anti-smoking adverts and how they perceive and react to them. Such perceptions and reactions resulted in the intention to not comply with the messages of anti-smoking adverts that encourage smokers to stop smoking.

From the results of thematic analysis, the researcher found that smokers in their past experience remembered and recalled a number of anti-smoking adverts and many negative health warnings on cigarette packets. Those materials evoked negative emotions like fear and feeling bad. However, smokers' reactions to those materials were in undesirable ways, such as, avoidance ignoring them, denying the problems they talked about and finding those materials did not work with them. They spoke about several reasons for such reactions like they getting used to "message decoration" as part of cigarette packets and desensitised to it. As for the present experience, when smokers watched six adverts, those adverts made some smokers shocked. They elicited mainly fear emotion and other negative feelings like sadness, feeling bad and frustrated. The adverts that evoked those emotions are contained MSV features and high threat appeals. In particular, high physical threat, high social threats and high death threats, with some MSV features, made adverts more arousing. This type of advert was perceived as more believable adverts than others, grabbed smokers' attention and enhanced processing of the adverts messages. However, they did not achieve an important indicator of these adverts' effectiveness, which is the intention to stop smoking.

Some smokers had a short-term intention to stop immediately after watching or thought about reducing smoking and possibly quitting in future, especially after completing their study. Nevertheless, none of the smokers had a firm intention to stop smoking, so they found anti-smoking adverts did not work for them. From smokers' answers and the data analysis, the reasons behind this reaction could be divided into two groups: personal reasons (such as addiction and study) and reasons related to the advert (how the advert was designed).

From the BASIC IDS dimensions results, the researcher could identify, explain and understand some factors that make smokers experience, perceive and react to the studied anti-smoking adverts in such way, the that is why smokers revealed high perceived believability and some aspects of perceived effectiveness with some anti-smoking adverts but most had no intention to stop smoking as those adverts tried to make them do. Therefore, the BASIC IDS dimensions results could be used to make sense of thematic analysis results and explain why the research revealed these results, and know some of the reasons behind these outcomes.

14.12.1 Impact of past experience (affect and behaviour)

From the results of the past experience section, it was noticed that smokers already had prior opinions about anti-smoking materials, and they may well have had an immediate emotional and cognitive reaction. Such a background could make them anticipate the content of any anti-smoking adverts because most of the remembered anti-smoking materials were threatening materials using a negative tone, visual arousal and threat appeals. Also, smokers might be prepared to react to these adverts in a similar way to their reaction to anti-smoking materials they had experienced before the study, such as the health warnings on cigarette packets, some anti-smoking adverts in several communication channels like televised adverts, social media, posters and leaflets. Smokers may react to similarly these adverts, by trying to avoid them, ignoring them, denying the risks. Also, they would show an undesirable reaction to these adverts (not comply with adverts messages) for several reasons, such as enjoying smoking, being an addict, or getting used to anti-smoking materials content, and they may have the same reaction to it.

Thus, in the present experience, they found the adverts did what anti-smoking materials in their past experience did (show horrific scenes and threat appeals). When exposed to such content, they experienced negative emotions (mainly fear). However, they showed an unfavourable reaction to it in terms of compliance with the adverts, messages and they did not have the intention to stop smoking, even though they experienced a short-term impact, paid more attention and planned to reduce or stop smoking in future. Such a reaction might be because the smokers in the past felt flooded by these materials, or get used to them. All of this had an impact on their reaction to present experience when they watched six anti-smoking adverts with similar content and format.

4.12.2 Addiction role (drug)

Studies about the effect of anti-smoking campaigns should take into consideration the addiction side of smoking, as nicotine in cigarettes is highly addictive and makes most smokers enjoy smoking, which is surely why many anti-smoking campaigns fail. This idea should be reflected in the campaign's design and other smoking combat efforts, to address how to help smokers to overcome addiction and to fight against the idea that smoking could relieve stress, make smokers relaxed and have some health impacts like losing weight. Accordingly, addiction is a vital aspect and the main reason why some smokers continue to smoke. Many smokers in this study had tried for several times to quit smoking, but they failed to do so. When the researcher was asked them if did they felt trapped in this bad habit, most of them agreed. For that reason some smokers, when they criticised anti-smoking adverts or imagined how believable and effective anti-smoking adverts should be designed, said the adverts show the problems, but not the solution. Some mentioned that phone lines or websites offering help to quit smoking or were shown very quickly in the last seconds of the advert, so they could not get the information. Those problems made them wish that anti-smoking adverts would offer help for smoking whenever possible, and make phone lines and websites clear in the advert for a reasonable time, or the whole advert time. Also, they wanted information about how to overcome addiction symptoms when trying to stop smoking and a focus on the positive results of quitting smoking. Therefore, addiction had a role in keeping smokers smoking, and anti-smoking adverts had little effect on them, as they showed opposite reactions, with high perceived believability and some perceived effectiveness, but with no intention to quit smoking.

4.12.3 Generation gap (identifying) effect (interpersonal and socio-cultural aspects)

Another aspect of the adverts that smokers watched in a present experience that made them criticise the anti-smoking adverts and justify their undesirable reaction to them, is that they found many adverts did not apply to them as a group of young adult smokers, but applied to older adults or parents. They found these not just with the studied adverts but with general anti-smoking adverts. They found the adverts addressed either youth or older adults and rarely did they find adverts about their generation as young adult smokers. Also they thought that if the adverts addressed aspects of young adults interests, such as sport, they could be believable and effective. If messages were about how smoking could affect young adult ability to exercise and do sport, this might make those adverts relevant to the young adult generation and more effective with them.

4.12.4 Believable but not effective adverts.(Affect, Some MSV features, behaviour, drug, interpersonal relations, socio-cultural aspects)

The most noticeable result from the thematic analysis was, smokers found high threat adverts more believable but not quite effective enough to leave them with a firm intention to stop smoking. From smokers' answers, the researcher could interpret this by using the results of some DOR dimensions. Many studies have found that high threat appeal and the emotion evoked because of it has a threshold. It also depends on the sensation seeking of the recipient. If this level were exceeded, those threats would produce counterproductive results, such as fear control which makes the smokers ignore these messages as shown in the results for past experience or perceive the adverts as not quite effective like what happened in present experience. Moreover, some MSV features like an unexpected format, surprising end visual, which contribute to raising arousal, grabbing the attention and making those adverts more believable but for the same reasons as threat appeals, the smokers found them not effective to an extent that made them want to stop smoking.

Also it should not be forgotten that addiction to cigarettes is a crucial factor- as mentioned above- making anti-smoking campaigns not affect many smokers, because they enjoy smoking or are trapped in this bad habit because of the highly addictive chemical ingredients in cigarettes. Also, several smokers found anti-smoking adverts in present experience did not apply to them, as young adults, and some of them smoked more much when they found themselves under the stress of study or in a social situation where smoking could make it more comfortable to get on with other people, such as when they went out, or they had friends who smoked too (social smokers).

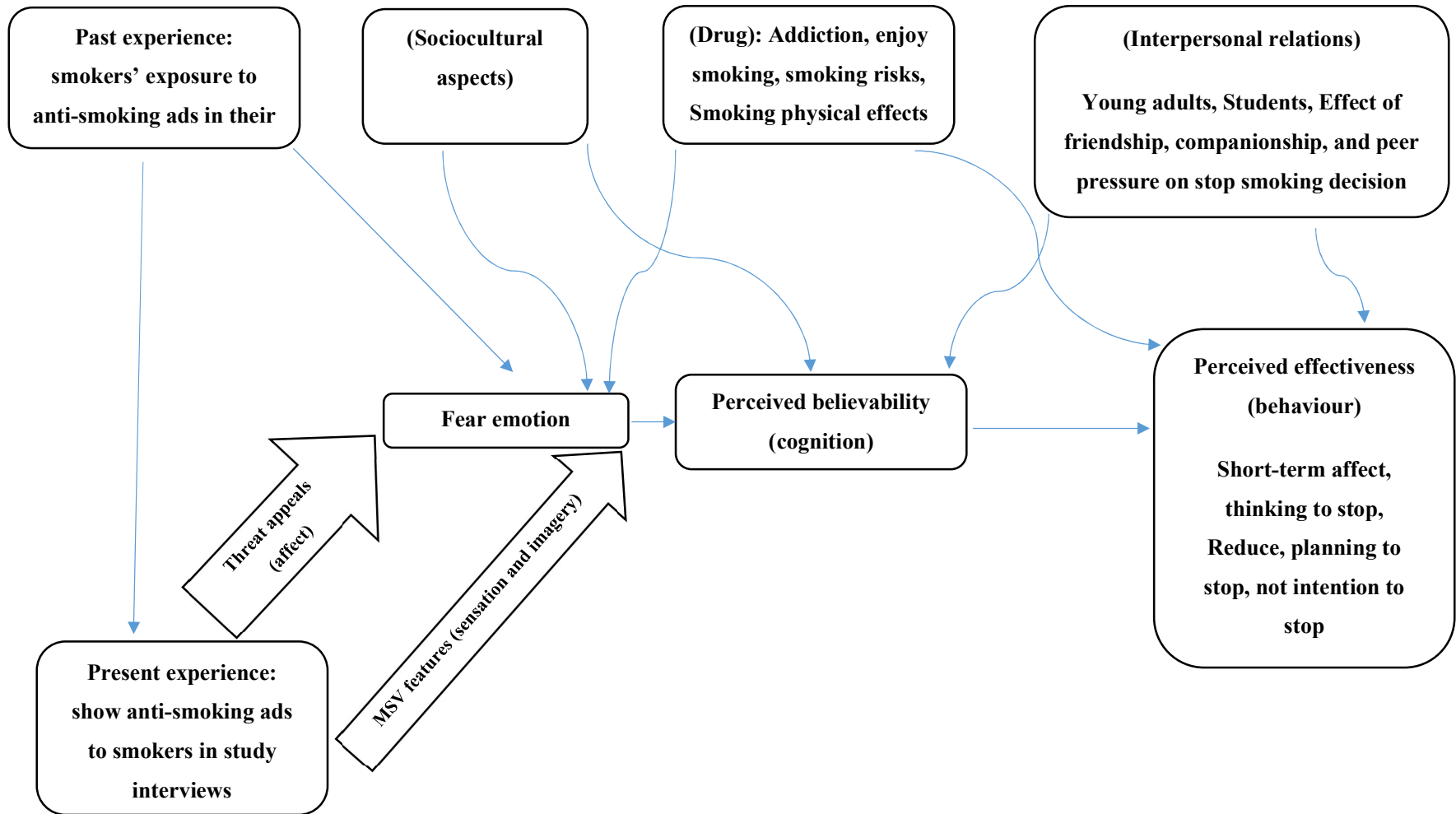
4.12.5 Summary

From the research results, it is evident that when some high MSV features are merged with high threat appeals in the design of anti-smoking adverts, it will evoke fear emotion and make the adverts more arousing. This compound will result in high levels of believability and to some extent, the effectiveness of these adverts, but not necessarily a firm intention to quit smoking. Also, MSV Content features had more impact than structural format, to make MSV features more arousing and attention, especially when they showed smoking hazards in realistic settings and an unusual or unexpected form.

However, it seems that both MSV and threat appeals have a threshold and when the arousal falls below it or exceeds it, using such features in anti-smoking adverts design produces contradictory results regarding compliance with the message. Also, high MSV features and high threat appeals are not guaranteed to be more effective to anti-smoking adverts, even if they evoke negative emotion or make the recipients pay more attention to the advert message. This failure could happen for reasons related to the message itself, such as not considering the target audience attributes like age and interests, or for audience-related reasons such as addiction to the potent substance in cigarettes or social and personal needs. If such points are not taken seriously into consideration in the designing stage of anti-smoking adverts, the campaign's sponsors will find themselves in the situation that the research results have pinoted out where the audience reacts emotionally and reveals high levels of advert believability, but with no firm intention to quit smoking.

The results and the relationships between the study factors from both steps of analysis are demonstrated in the following figure (6).

Figure 6: research model



Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The last chapter showed and summarised the main results of the research, which are extracted via DQR-based thematic analysis to further the understanding of how young adult smokers experience threatening anti-smoking televised adverts which contain MSV features and how this will affect the believability and effectiveness of those adverts, as well as why the smokers reacted in the way they did. This chapter returns to the related literature to discuss these results in order to identify similarities and differences compared to previous work and whether the research reveals new insights in this realm. It also addressed out to what extent the researcher has achieved the research aims and found proper answers to the research questions. Then this chapter moves to show potential implications the researcher could extract from smokers' experience with the studied threatening anti-smoking adverts and their believability and effectiveness. Therefore, this chapter will demonstrate the theoretical and empirical implications of the research results. Although the research results were produced from smokers' experience which represents subjective experience, nevertheless, a conclusion can be drawn that establishes common ground between smokers' experiences. This conclusion characterises the research contribution, although several limitations are identified which affect the research results, implications, and conclusion.

5.2 General overview

In relation to their past experience with anti-smoking materials, young adult smokers show that they remembered and recalled very well health warnings on cigarette packets in detail, as well as some televised anti-smoking adverts. Mainly those adverts had negative content and style; they contained vivid images describing the health effects of smoking on smokers' bodies. Participants stated that they experience negative emotions like fear, disgust, sad and feeling bad. The smokers' response to such materials were generally maladaptive sometimes, they denied the negative effects of smoking that these adverts showed, avoided, or ignored some disturbing materials and found anti-smoking campaign efforts did not work at all with them as smokers. Thus, most of them kept smoking, even though several of them had tried to stop smoking several times in the past.

Under the research conditions of data collection (interviews), the negative and scary content in televised anti-smoking adverts evoked fear emotion and some other negative emotions in young adult smokers. Some structural format MSV features intensified the effect of threat appeals and made smokers perceive these adverts as believable, but not those modified with computer effects. Content features like unexpected format, surprise end and showing the action of smoking threats made smokers find adverts with such features more believable and effective. However, the advert that used acting out which was not effective and the smokers preferred adverts with the realistic scenes to those who use images and scenes generated by computers.

Regarding the believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking adverts, smokers found the adverts which contained high MSV features mentioned above and high threat appeals, primarily physical and social threat, especially those that were more realistic and depicted everyday scenarios, more believable and effective. However, when the smokers were asked to imagine the ideal anti-smoking advert that could make them have a firm intention to stop smoking. They mentioned that anti-smoking adverts should target their age group, not older adults or parents, and they wanted instead to have anti-smoking adverts designed to target them and their interests and concerns. Also, such adverts should focus more on the solutions and how smokers could access help phone lines and sources, instead of just scaring smokers or showing them the smoking problems. Moreover, smokers suggested that anti-smoking adverts should be more positive and target social smokers who do not smoke much unless they are in some social situation. They recommended trying to use other channels like posters, instead of relying on televised anti-smoking adverts.

From the research results, it is evident that when some high MSV features are combined with high threat appeals in the design of anti-smoking adverts, it will evoke fear emotion and make the adverts more arousing. This will result in high levels of believability and to some extent, the effectiveness of this advert, except firm intention to quit smoking. Also, MSV content features were more effective than format structural features in making adverts arousing and grabbing attention, especially when they showed smoking hazards in realistic settings and unusual or unexpected format.

However, it seems that both MSV and threat appeals have a threshold when the arousal falls below it or exceed it; using such features in anti-smoking adverts design produces contradictory results regarding message compliance. Also, high MSV features and high

threat appeals are not guaranteed to be more effective in anti-smoking adverts (make smokers stop smoking), even if they evoke negative emotion or make the recipients pay more attention to the advert message. This failure to translate into the intention to stop smoking can occur for reasons related to the message itself, such as failure to consider the target audience attributes like age and interests, or for audience related reasons such as addiction to the potent substances in cigarettes and social and personal needs. If such points are not taken seriously into consideration in the design stage of anti-smoking adverts, the campaign's sponsors will find themselves in the situation that the research results have pointed out, where the audience reacts emotionally and reveals high levels of advert believability, but with a firm intention to quit smoking.

5.3 Research objectives

As was stated in the first chapter, the research aims to find out how young adult smokers experience televised anti-smoking adverts which have contained message sensation value features with three types of threat appeals. This is to identify how they respond in terms of emotive reaction, perceived believability, and perceived effectiveness of these anti-smoking adverts, then, to determine the structure and role of MSV features in threatening anti-smoking adverts. Finally, it addressed the interpretation, meanings and reasons for young adult smokers' reaction and behaviour to such anti-smoking adverts. Here the researcher shows to what extent these aims have been achieved, based on the research findings.

5.3.1 Objective 1:

To determine the structural nature of MSV in threatening anti-smoking adverts.

The results indicate clearly that past experience (the pre-exposure experiment) of young adult smokers with anti-smoking materials had a significant effect on their present experience with studied anti-smoking adverts. Therefore, smokers showed the same behaviour patterns in their present experience. For example, studies of Lang et al (1995) Biener et al (2004) and Sims et al (2013) have found that arousing adverts with intense images and negative emotions had the highest recall rates and perceived effectiveness of such campaigns (Richardson et al., 2014). In line with related literature, smokers in this study showed a similar reaction to the same content in their present experience. Similar content (i.e. high MSV features with high threat appeals), which showed negative

consequences of smoking in a threatening visual way, grabbed the smokers' attention (Janssens and Pelsmacker, 2007; Brennan and Binney 2010; Hastings et al. 2004). They also evoked fear in them and made them stop and think about their behaviour (smoking) ((Niederdeppe, 2005; Wong& Cappella, 2009). Even though they recalled this type of anti-smoking adverts (which is an aspect of their effectiveness) (Andreeva & Krasovsky, 2011) this did not make them have a firm intention to stop smoking, which will be explained it later in this chapter.

In line with previous literature, the results of this study reveal that televised anti-smoking adverts with high MSV features especially content features like unexpected format, surprise end and showing the action of smoking threats and also structural format features too(i.e. intense images), in adverts containing high physical, social and death threat appeals respectively, evoked fear emotion in smokers (Kang and Cappella, 2008; Lang, 2006; Lang et al., 2005) and other negative emotions such disgust, sadness, frustration and bad feeling. This made these adverts grab more attention (Zuckerman and Kuhlman, 2000; Kang, 2006; Morgan et al., 2003), and they were perceived as highly believable adverts (Wei and Zhou, 2008) but as mentioned before this did not translate into firm intention to stop smoking, in contrast with some authors (Wong & Cappella, 2009). For, instance, smokers showed a high level of believability of anti-smoking ads which contain high MSV feature and high physical threat, but this was in contrast with O'Cass and Griffin (2006) Griffin and O'cass (2004). The results show that a high level of believability is not guaranteed to produce a high level of intention to comply with messages of social advertising or favourable attitudes towards the ads and messages included in these ads.

The anti-smoking adverts measure of Davis et al (2011) addresses effectiveness from four aspects, which are the degree to which participants thought the adverts made them stop and think, grabbed their attention, were believable and made them want to quit smoking. This measure was used implicitly in this study interview questions, but it was about perceived effectiveness, which predicted the actual effectiveness (Dillard et al., 2007). Based on the findings, the content and the style of studied anti-smoking adverts in this research succeeded in the first three of the four measurement criteria but failed in the important one, which is how these adverts made smokers want to stop smoking, meaning that this type of message did not make young adult smokers have a firm intention to stop smoking.

To summarise, according to the framework used in the research, the negative and threatening content of anti-smoking adverts (affect), have a positive impact on the cognitive resources of smokers, which resulted in same behaviour, change either in their past and present experience. However, this impact was not sufficiently effective to make those young adult smokers show a firm intention to stop smoking.

5.3.2 Objective 2:

To examine the role of MSV in threatening anti-smoking adverts in attitude change (perceived believability and effectiveness) of smokers when they experience exposure to these adverts.

This is the first time the structure and role of MSV in televised anti-smoking adverts has been studied using the DQR based-thematic analysis approach, which allowed the BASIC IDS framework elements to be used to develop a richer and comprehensive understanding of how these elements interact together and lead to some results. It provided a broader perspective of how MSV features work in threatening anti-smoking adverts and could give some explanations of how and why young adult smokers respond to studied anti-smoking content and style. Cohen's (1999) BASIC IDS framework promised to enable the researcher to "systematically explore, evaluate, diagnose, strategise and intervene in market-related contexts" (p. 359). Indeed, from this perspective, the researcher was able to identify how young adult smokers experienced and react to threatening anti-smoking adverts that contained some MSV features.

This research is one of the studies that aim to understand the impact of health campaigns on the target audience and used an innovative methodology to explore the link between young adult smokers' experiences with the content and style of threatening messages, and their reaction, processing of these adverts and intentions and behaviour as a result. In brief, BASIC IDS allowed the researcher to know how and why smokers experience, perceive and react to such content and style. It revealed relations and provided a useful ground for understanding the complexity of the investigated issue (young adult smokers and anti-smoking campaigns).

DQR based thematic analysis, using the BASIC IDS modalities led to considering the MSV features represented by two modalities: sensation and imagery as both MSV features and threat appeals are used mainly to grab the recipient's attention, which is the

gateway to processing the message of the advert. The findings of this research show that, high sensation value messages, when presented with high threat appeals in anti-smoking adverts do not distract attention from the message content, as some studies and models state (Kang et al., 2006a). In such research, it was found that consistent with the Elaboration Likelihood Model, MSV might be a distractor of attention to reduce ad persuasiveness of public health campaigns (Kang et al., 2006; Stephenson and Southwell, 2006). Instead, the results were consistent with the prediction of AMIE which suggests that high MSV messages are facilitator of attention (Xu, J, 2015; Stephenson, 1999; Harrington et al., 2006). There was a clear attention-catching effect for some MSV features especially content features such as unexpected format, surprise end and showing the action of smoking threats and just one of the structural format features (i.e., intense images). It seems that the peripheral route of message processing which concerns the message believability and message formatting features(i.e., MSV features and threat appeals) influences message reception and perception more than the central route, which focuses on argument quality (Kang et al., 2006). The findings of this study show that some MSV features are not a distraction, but facilitators of a message to grab more attention, evoke emotions, make the smokers perceive these messages more believable and have some aspects of perceived effectiveness. However, concerns it remain, particularly around the fact that visual-threatening content of messages can indeed draw the audience's attention to the message content (Stephenson, 1999; Harrington et al., 2006) but may also distract receivers from important or central arguments (Kang et al., 2006a), such as how and where smokers could find support. This was in most of the studied adverts, but many young adult smokers did not recognise it, which seemed to happen for many smokers who did not give attention to how to find help to stop smoking. Also, the findings are in line with the activation model. High MSV adverts were effective for increasing perceived advert believability and some aspect of effectiveness, especially when paired with high threat appeals (physical, social and death, respectively).

Secondly, adverts with high MSV features elicited greater arousal among participants; it seems the visual content (images and scenes) had a significant impact on smokers to produce a feeling of fear. The content (threat appeals) was intensified by some MSV features such as adverts using images that depicted smoking consequences (graphs, diseased body parts and death ideas) to evoke negative feelings (mainly fear). This desired effect of MSV features on arousal is similar to the impact of threat appeal on arousal and

both types of effects have a relationship with attention (Witte, 1992; Lane et al., 2006). This result is similar to studies that examined the interaction between stylistic and production features of anti-smoking adverts that promote smoking cessation, which found that MSV can intensify smokers' appraisals of such adverts especially those that utilise death appeals (Stewart et al., 2011). It is also consistent with a study which found that number of edits and other features (i.e. MSV), using graphic images to depict the physical consequences of smoking are perceived as most effective among smokers (Davis et al., 2011). This type of anti-smoking adverts relied on the portrayal of physical harm in targeting young adult smokers (Lewis et al., 2007) and some studies suggest that adverts that use graphic images to depict the physical consequences of smoking are perceived as most effective among smokers. (Davis et al., 2011; Wakefield et al., 2003). Also, the negative consequences of smoking and feature testimonials from real-life smokers with emotional content are found to be the most effective strategies to design tobacco control advertisements (Langley et al., 2013).

It seems that MSV features have an essential role with threat appeal, to make the recipient perceive the danger (severity of threat) and that the threat is imminent to him or her (vulnerability to threat) which leads them to pay more attention to stimuli and intensifies the emotions and arousal. This in total will affect the believability of these adverts and to some extent, their effectiveness, as some studies found that MSV and presentation of smoking scenes could elicit positive ad evaluations (i.e. believability) but was not effective in inducing desirable attitudinal or real action (Kim & Hunter, 1993). In this research, negative emotions the most prominent of which is fear, were evoked because young adult smokers were exposed to some MSV features, especially content features and high threat appeals (physical, social and death threat appeals). This combination and feeling made these adverts more believable and to some extent, more effective for them. Perceived effectiveness in this research was addressed from four aspects, which are the degree to which participants thought the adverts made them stop and think, grabbed their attention, were believable and made them want to quit smoking (Davis et al., 2011). However, the findings show that none of the young adult smokers wanted to stop smoking after watching the adverts.

Thirdly, the features which grab more attention, evoke fear emotion, make the adverts more believable and to some extent were effective, are some of the content features like unexpected format, surprise end and showing the action of smoking threats and one of

the structural format features (i.e., intense images), especially those that show real people or scenarios from everyday life, these are preferred to those using computer programmes or visual special effects to create unreal images or change real scenes, such as CGI and green screen effects or acted-out adverts. Young adult smokers found such anti-smoking adverts were less believable, did not evoke emotions and did not work for the participants. Recent research in England found that more than half of anti-smoking ads warned of the negative consequences of smoking (61%) most advertisements featured acted scenes, and only a small proportion were testimonial advertisements (Langley et al., 2013). Thus, young adult smokers in this research would find them not effective at all. However, participants ignored the formal audio features such as the use of auditory special effects, a saturation of sound throughout the ad, and the use of unusual music, and focused more on the visual side of adverts, which seemed to dominate young adult smokers' sensations and attention. For that reason the only structural feature that young adult smokers found believable and effective was intense images, as long as they used realistic scenes or images.

In brief, the results indicate that MSV features in threatening televised anti-smoking worked to enhance the role of threat appeals effect. By intensifying the adverts arousal, they work as a facilitator for attention which makes adverts with such a style and content have a positive impact on how young adults' smokers perceived their believability and some aspects of perceived effectiveness.

5.3.3 Objective 3:

To provide guidelines for anti-smoking adverts design based on role of MSV in threatening anti-smoking adverts.(drug, interpersonal relations, and sociocultural aspect)

The methodology used in this research combined thematic analysis with DQR to deeply understand the role of MSV in threatening anti-smoking adverts, utilising the BASIC IDS framework and how its elements interact each other to understand smoker experience, perception and behaviour. This approach allowed the researcher to find the answer to the question of why young adult smokers reacted in the way they did. For example, adverts with some high MSV features and high threat appeal grabbed smoker attention, evoked fear in them, and were found more believable, but all of this positive effect did not translate into firm intention to stop smoking, in contrast with mainstream literature (Cauberghe et al., 2009; Dillard and Li, 2020; Niederdeppe, 2005). Here the importance

of DQR and BASIC IDS framework will be revealed to provide possible explanations for this contradiction.

For example, sometimes some studies which address the effectiveness of anti-smoking adverts did not refer to the addictive aspect of the tobacco products. So, while tobacco has been argued to be very addictive, it is not treated in the same way as an addiction to other substances, like alcohol (O'Cass and Griffin, 2006; Thompson et al., 2009). Ignoring the addictive side of smoking, which could prevent these campaigns from working with addicted smokers or smokers who have smoked for a long time, will be addressed by the drug modality in the BASIC IDS framework. This modality sheds light on the addictive side of smoking, which most studies in the realm of anti-smoking campaigns do not take into consideration when they report and discuss their results. When a smoker has smoked for a long time, he or she will become dependent on the smoking and addictive ingredients, it hard for him or her to stop smoking. This was the case for the participants in this study were university students who used cigarettes to relieve of study stress, have a good break between lectures and to socialise more easily in the university community. Finally, the addiction to smoking makes smokers process these messages positively but several of them knew that they could not stop smoking just because of anti-smoking campaigns, rather, they needed support to help them to overcome the addiction. However, many of them they stated that they did not recognise the support in anti-smoking adverts or found it not enough to help them to quit smoking. This could be because of the high MSV and high threat appeals made the adverts arousing and caused fear emotion because of the threatening information and terrifying images and scenes which distracted them from continuing to follow the rest of the messages, especially as most of them offered the support in the last seconds of the advert in a quick way so viewers did not catch the sources and types of support they could get to overcome and stop an addictive habit like smoking. For that reasons smokers wanted anti-smoking campaigns to provide supporting advice for smokers' efforts to quit and not relapse, show an understanding of the difficulties of stopping and build smokers' confidence in their ability to stop, not just make them shocked and scared (McVey & Stapleton, 2000; Raymond, 2016). Smoking status and the addiction side of smoking certainly play a central role in young adults' cognitive and emotional responses to anti-smoking messages, and it seems reasonable to speculate that, among smokers, smoking susceptibility also has a critical impact on how anti-smoking messages are processed (Zhao & Cai, 2007). However, these factors seem

not to be taken into consideration, as just forty-eight percent of anti-smoking adverts in England contained information about how to obtain smoking cessation support (Langley et al., 2013).

Also, several young adult smokers stated that they just enjoyed smoking and found it was still too early to think of stopping because as they were still young and they would not experience smoking consequences yet, or they wanted to wait until finishing their study, for reasons that provided by DQR analysis such as personal reasons, such enjoy smoking and use it as stress relief because of study. This case may be explained by the reaction of denial of threats or third-person perception, so smokers will feel that they would not experience the danger now or this will happen to others who are heavy smokers or smoke for a long time (Davison, 1983; Henriksen & Flora, 1999; Hunt and Shehryar, 2011; Williams, 2012; Dillard and Anderson, 2004).

The modality of interpersonal relations represented in this research how some young adult smokers who are studying in university start or return to cigarettes or keep smoking because they are surrounded by smokers, friends and study or roommates. Or they smoke more when they go out, which makes them socialise more with other smokers because social group interactions, especially in a community like a university, could play an essential role in denying, or neutralising potential effects of anti-smoking advertising (Wakefield et al., 2003). Here, the impacts the peer pressure are revealed. It has been shown that peer smoking significantly increased young adults' likelihood of smoking more cigarettes and could prevent the smokers from reacting positively to anti-smoking adverts (Harakeh and Vollebergh, 2012; Borsari and Carey 2001; Singh et al., 2003).

Finally, the young adult smokers found the anti-smoking adverts used in this study were not appealing to them and their interests, as they found they appealed to olds adults or people with children and did not mention things or topics important for young adults, such as how smoking could affect their everyday life, such as smoker ability to play hard sports or how they perform in the gym. This problem has been mentioned in some studies that found public health efforts directed towards young adults were actually less effective (Ling & Glantz, 2002). In contrast, other studies find youth could found adult focused anti-smoking campaigns relevant to them, too (White et al., 2003).

Since, televised anti-smoking are expensive to develop, they must be broadcast with sufficient reach, intensity, and duration to promote quitting and reduce smoking

prevalence (Durkin et al., 2012). Moreover, no doubt televised anti-smoking campaigns are effective in reducing smoking in broadcasting or on the internet (Langley et al., 2012; Sims et al., 2014; Hong et al., 2013). The doubts are about the content, style and the way in which these campaigns are delivered. Mediums such as TV and radio have considerable reach into the general population. Also, televised adverts are suitable for those smokers who do not have access to the internet as one of the mediums of anti-smoking materials nowadays. Thus, these anti-smoking adverts should be designed in a way that gives them high chances to reach and affect the target audience and achieve their aim, which is to prevent or make smokers stop smoking. All of this was shown in the model in result chapter, which reveals how the BASIC IDS could help to understand how anti-smoking adverts work and their impact on smokers. Especially in televised anti-smoking adverts where visual content is predominant in making these ads affect more attention, produce more arousal, and evoke fear emotion, which makes these adverts more believable and more effective. All of these elements together offer the bodies that design televised anti-smoking adverts great chance to understand why such a popular anti-smoking style and design (i.e. threatening adverts) does not work as it should, with the biggest group of smoker in the UK (young adult smokers)

DQR analysis provides a clear explanation of why smokers may find high threatening adverts believable but they do not make them stop smoking, via checking all BASIC IDS elements, which make the reasons behind this reaction clear. Some reasons are associated with cigarettes as an addictive substance and other social, personal and behavioural reasons also lie behind how young adult smokers experience, perceive and react to threatening anti-smoking adverts. Therefore, DQR enables the researcher to know these motives all together giving a clear idea about why anti-smoking adverts with such content evoke these feelings which make them more believable but not effective to the extent that they make smokers consider quitting smoking. This certainly would help in the design of televised anti-smoking adverts and understanding how these campaigns could work and why when they could not.

It is good not only to consider anti-smoking adverts' content and style as affecting how successful these campaigns are but also to take into consideration how these adverts are influenced by elements related to adverts, the substance and the takers and their personal and social situations as a whole in such modalities. This enables the researcher to know how and why this content and style worked with smokers and did not at the same time.

Chapter 6: Research Implications and Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses potential implications of young adult smokers' experience and reaction to threatening televised anti-smoking adverts that contain MSV features. This could help in designing anti-smoking adverts, especially with managerial implications. However, this chapter also does not ignore the research limitations that could affect the research result's credibility and research implications. Then the researcher will come to the research conclusion, which summarises the research problem, aims and results, and indicates the research contribution in the anti-smoking adverts context.

6.2 Research implications

To begin with, this research contributes to research concerned with how the content and style of anti-smoking televised adverts affect a certain group of smokers, that is, the results of interaction between adverts attributes and audience features and its role in the effectiveness of anti-smoking campaigns. The role of MSV in threatening televised anti-smoking adverts was to make these adverts more arousing, evoke fear emotion in smokers, grab more attention and make such adverts perceived as more believable and effective. So, MSV features were an attention facilitator, not a distractor, as some models state in literature.

Using DQR for the first time to study MSV with threat appeals in televised anti-smoking adverts made an analysis of the results after conducting thematic analysis more systematic and more professional, it revealed the actual reasons behind smoker reactions and choices in this research and gave ideas about the logical interpretation of these reactions. The BASIC IDS modalities provide a clear picture along with thematic analysis, about how young adult smokers experience, perceive and react to the studied anti-smoking adverts, and helped to identify other multiple themes to identify why smokers found those anti-smoking adverts believable and to some extent effective but still had no intention to stop smoking. Those causes include addiction to smoking which was revealed via the drug modality and personal reasons such as peer pressure of from friends and study mates who smoke and make some smokers keep smoking. Also, there are cultural aspects, as they found the studied adverts applied to other age groups, not young adult smokers and their interests and concerns.

Advert believability- as an attitude antecedent and indicator of attitudes toward the advertised issue- was addressed qualitatively for the first time. This makes this research unique as all the literature about social advertising believability on antismoking context was done quantitatively and just concerned about ranking the adverts according to believability from most believable to less believable. This research went beyond than simple ranking to ask the question of why smokers consider some adverts believable and some not, knowledge of the actual reasons behind that and could be reflected in the process of developing anti-smoking adverts from the early design stage to make them more acceptable to the target audience of these adverts.

The study examined a common style of anti-smoking adverts that use threat appeals to evoke fear and depend on it to make anti-smoking adverts more persuasive, with MSV features. It captured fresh reactions from smokers when exposed to such style and content, to learn how they experienced these adverts in terms of perception, emotional reaction and to what extent they found this content believable and effective. This was done by following a qualitative approach with a phenomenological orientation which integrated thematic analysis with DQR to analyse the interview data. This gave the data analysis two dimensions, which enabled the researcher to get more thematic analysis themes, as extra themes emerged from DQR analysis, which explained and interpreted these themes and the causal relationships among them. All of this enabled the research to show the whole picture of young adult smokers' experience with MSV features in threatening anti-smoking televised adverts, their perceptions, feelings, processing and reaction.

6.3 Managerial implications of the research results

Based on the research findings, the researcher suggests some implications that could help the designers of anti-smoking campaigns in the UK who aim to reach this smokers group, which represents the biggest group of smokers in the UK nowadays (i.e. young adult smokers). First one, the research results reveal that anti-smoking adverts which talk about death because of related anti-smoking diseases, long-term health problems or how family and children could be affected by smoking did not work with young adult smokers, as many of smokers in this research found that the adverts in this study and the anti-smoking materials, they came across in the past were either for youth or adults who are parents with children or older people. The solution to this problem is to design anti-smoking adverts about young adults' interests, such as sport and gym, showing how smoking could

affect or limit these activities and make them hard to do, also, about short-term effects of smoking which several smokers were experiencing clearly such as shortness of breath or effect on their appearance. By using such ideas in anti-smoking adverts design, young adults could find anti-smoking adverts more acceptable as they are show this group concerns and interests. Even though television is still the first communication channel that could reach many of the target audience of these campaigns, they should focus more on channels like YouTube and Facebook, as many young adult smokers in this study did not watch television and the anti-smoking materials they remembered were social media channels. Therefore, social media platforms should be the main channel targeting this group. Third, in designing anti-smoking adverts that combine MSV features and threat appeals, it is better to avoid very intense images and scenes which present very high threat appeals and use MSV features, such as intense scenes. Such content could enhance success to in grabbing the attention of the first but make the recipient try to avoid any similar adverts or not finish watching the adverts which would prevent him or her attending the message of the advert. Finally, the results of this research point out the importance of negative emotions (i.e., fear) for processing the advert's message and enhancing its effectiveness, so a mixture of threat appeals and MSV features should be used in an informative and realistic way in designing anti-smoking televised adverts, which will give them more chance to be believable and effective.

6.4 Research limitations

There is no research without problems and limitations, even though the researcher tries as hard as he can to reduce the effect of design issues and bias. Hence, the results of this research must be seen in light of some limitations. One of the limitations of this research is that the smokers were university students from East Yorkshire, so they did not represent all the young adults in the UK. As a result, the research results cannot be generalised beyond this particular group of smokers; also, the research results only apply to televised anti-smoking adverts, not other anti-smoking materials. The adverts used in this research were pre-existing anti-smoking adverts from real anti-smoking campaigns in the UK and other countries. Due to the fact that anti-smoking adverts are multidimensional stimuli, this means that a specific advert may not fit totally with type and level of threat by which the researcher categories and adverts may contain more MSV features then the researcher thinks that a particular advert contains. This means – despite the extensive efforts the researcher made to select and make the adverts in different threat appeals and MSV

features as equivalent as possible- that one advert could contain more than threat appeal and mixed structural and content MSV features. Thus, it might cause the effects of some threat appeal, and MSV features could attribute to other appeals and features, which would affect the analysis and research results as a result. Moreover, the adverts used in this research were chosen by a group of smokers, ex-smokers, and non-smokers, before conducting the interviews and adverts were real adverts that included many threats and manipulated many factors according to the aim of campaign designers. Therefore, this could cause some doubts about how exactly each advert represents one type and level of threat appeals, and which MSV features make this advert more believable or more effective for smokers.

As smokers watched six adverts once under research interview conditions in the laboratory setting, where smokers forced underwent exposure to anti-smoking adverts, this is undoubtedly different from their everyday experience when they watch television or surf the internet. This may make their reaction not real when they asked to watch six adverts once, as their attention would be at a high level, which is not normal, and they focused on the advert details which would not happen in their everyday life. Therefore, attention capture which is the main role of MSV features may not be realistic in the study setting. As a novice researcher did not have experience in qualitative research and conducting interviews, this will be reflected in the quality of the research. However, the researcher made extensive efforts to let the interviewees lead of the interview making the interview like a dialogue. Nevertheless, the role of the researcher was in several cases to lead the interview and affect some of the smokers' responses. Finally, although the qualitative research does not have firm rules about sample size, and some have just state "it depends" however because of the restrictions of time of the PhD study and difficulty recruiting smokers, as they were university students with lectures and exams, some might find that just twenty interviewees- of twenty-two interviews conducted- are not enough for research at doctoral level. Thus, this could lead to some doubts about the study dependability and transferability. There is another issue related to the research sample which was dominated by female smokers(14) with just six male smokers. Also, of the twenty interviewees, just two smokers were single mums with children. Hence, as the sample was mainly from single female smokers (14) this would be reflected in the research results which will represent this group's point of view not all young adult smokers.

These limitations may suggest some areas for further research in the realm of anti-smoking advertising and its style or content. For example, in this research the qualitative approach used phenomenology as a methodology concerned about smoker's experience (mainly present experience). The researcher did twenty-two interviews and then analysed the interviews once without returning to the literature after doing a few interviews. This would be done if research adopted a grounded theory approach with DQR, which could establish a strong relationship between the field results and the latest related literature, which could enhance the data collection after every phase of the interview and enhance the research results as a result.

Also, with more resources, time, and access, research could be expanded to include young adult smokers outside the university which would be expected to lead to more knowledge about this important group of smokers' experience and reaction to such advertising in the UK in recent years. Moreover, it could be beneficial if MSV features were addressed in televised anti-smoking adverts with positive appeals, as a number of smokers turned away from certain adverts because they find them disturbing and make them scary which made them not finish watching the advert. They mentioned that anti-smoking adverts that focus on the positive results of quitting smoking might make them think more about stopping smoking as they would see convincing facts to lead them to take this decision.

6.5 Conclusion

This research sought to explore the experience of young adult smokers with threatening anti-smoking materials (mainly televised anti-smoking adverts) and how this experience affects to what extent the smokers found those adverts believable and effective. It is the first research to address MSV features in anti-smoking adverts which include threat appeals by a qualitative approach with a phenomenological orientation. It used for the first time two phases of analysing the research data, by thematic analysis then dimensional qualitative research together, to get a holistic picture about smokers' experience with such content and their reaction according to such experience.

In their past experience, smokers remembered vivid images (e.g. health warnings on cigarette packets and anti-smoking adverts) that described the health effects of smoking on smokers' bodies, which made them experience negative emotions like fear, disgust, sadness and feeling bad. However, smokers' response was in general maladaptive to such materials, as they sometimes denied these effects, avoided, or ignored some disturbing

materials and found anti-smoking campaign efforts did not work at all for them as smokers. In present experience under the study conditions in interviews, young adult smokers after watching six adverts found that negative and scary content in these adverts made them experience mainly fear and other negative emotions. This led them to rate anti-smoking adverts with high threat appeals and certain MSV features as more believable and more effective, but with no firm intention to stop smoking, because of several reasons that were revealed by DQR analysis.

Many smokers found anti-smoking adverts not enough to make them stop smoking because of several reasons related to smokers or anti-smoking adverts such as addiction, social relationships with friends and other students, and sociocultural aspects(i.e. age gap), as some adverts applied to other age groups like older people and parents, not young adults. Therefore, the research recommends that televised anti-smoking adverts should be designed carefully using a combination of MSV features and threat appeals, using that using intense scenes and choosing a type and level of threat that does not make smokers avoid or ignore the adverts but makes them more interested and involved with anti-smoking messages, it is a necessity to take into consideration the addictive side of cigarettes and offer more support in these adverts for smokers to stop and show where they could find support. Finally, as smokers past experience shapes a significant part of how they experience and react to anti-smoking adverts, the design of these adverts should not repeat and stick with the same themes and messages for a long time, whether in health warning labels or anti-smoking adverts. Such action makes the smokers anticipate the content of the message and react mostly in the same way as they reacted to previous content by getting used to it, ignoring, avoiding or denying what the message tries to convey.

Nevertheless, this research has several limitations, which the researcher tries to avoid it by the way he designed and conducted the research and applied quality tools such as reflectivity. The research results point out that the combination of MSV features and threat appeals, specifically high threat appeals (i.e. high physical threat appeals, high social threat appeals and high death threat appeals) accompanied with some content MSV features (i.e. intense scenes, unexpected format, surprise end and the action showed or described). Make adverts more arousing, influence emotional response, grab the smokers attention, make them consider those adverts as more believable and have some effectiveness aspects. Recall, evoking fear and other negative emotions and making them

stop and think about quitting smoking but without intention to stop smoking after watching the adverts. However, as many previous studies found both MSV and threat appeals have a threshold such that when arousal falls below it or exceeds it, using such features in anti-smoking adverts design counterproductive regarding message compliance. Many smokers found anti-smoking adverts not enough to make them stop smoking because of several reasons related to smokers or anti-smoking adverts. Such as addiction, social relationships with friends and other students, and sociocultural aspects (i.e. age gap), as some adverts were applicable to other age groups like older people and parents not young adults. Therefore, the research recommends that televised anti-smoking adverts should be designed carefully using a combination of MSV features and threat appeals, using intense scenes and choosing a type and level of threat that do not make smokers avoid or ignore or them but make young adults more interested and involved. It is a necessity to take into consideration the addictive side of cigarettes and offer more support in these adverts for smokers how to stop and show where they could find support. Finally, as smokers past experience shapes a significant part of how they experience and react to anti-smoking adverts, the design of these adverts should not be repeated and stick with the same themes and messages. Such action makes the smokers anticipate the content of the message and react mostly in the same way as they reacted to previous content by getting used to it, ignoring, avoiding or denying what the message tries to convey.

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Appendixes

Invitation email

Hull University Business School
The University of Hull
Hull HU6 7RX
United Kingdom

Date:

Dear student

This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a study I am conducting at Hull University Business School. I would like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you decide to take part. The research aims to identify the effect of threat appeals (social - physical - death) in anti-smoking ads on the believability of anti-smoking campaigns ads and the effectiveness of these campaigns from the perspective of the adult smokers (university students). I would like to invite to be involved in my study. I believe that because the smokers are best suited to speak to the various issues related to anti-smoking ads. Participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an interview of approximately 1 hour in length to take place in a mutually agreed upon location. In the interview you will see three anti-smoking ads then you will be asked some questions about those ads. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences by advising the researcher. With your permission, the interview will be audio recorded to facilitate the collection of information and later transcribed for analysis. All information you provide is considered strictly confidential. Your name and age and other personal details will not appear in any thesis or report resulting from this study, however, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. Data collected during this study will be retained for 1 year in a locked office at the University of Hull. The only researcher associated with this project will have access. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study. Should you have any concerns about the conduct of this research project, please contact the Secretary, HUBS Research Ethics Committee, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX; Tel No (+44) (0)1482 463536.

Your kind participation will be highly appreciated and will give the researcher deep insight into the topic of the research. As small Compensation for your valuable time, you will receive 6 £ for your participation in this study. **(The payment will be in the main study only)**

I very much look forward to speaking with you and thank you in advance for your assistance in this research.

Yours sincerely,

Hamd Mahmoud, PhD candidate, H.M.Mahmoud@2014.hull.ac.uk Dr Haseeb Shabbier, Supervisor

Study advert

Dear All

I am H Mahmoud PhD student in Business School, Hull University, I am doing study about anti-smoking ads, I am looking to interview smokers from Hull university students those between 20 to 30 years old. The interview will be held in BJL Group Learning Rooms or any place convenient for participants and will last from 30 to 60 minutes. The participants will be paid **6 pound** on completion of interview as compensation for their time.

During this interview every participant will watch anti-smoking ads and discussion about it. The consent form will be signed, and the participants have right to withdraw at any time in an interview.

All information you provide is considered strictly confidential, name and age and other personal details will not appear in any part resulting from this study

If you interested in taking part in my study. This my contact details

H.M.Mahmoud@2014.hull.ac.uk

07459676956

H Mahmoud

PhD students

Consent Form

I, _____ of _____

Hereby agree to participate in this study to be undertaken

By PhD candidate Hamd Mahmoud

I understand that I volunteer to participate in research conducted by **Hamd Mahmoud** PhD candidate from business school in University of Hull. I know that the project is designed to gather information about the believability and effectiveness of anti-smoking ads which contain several types of threat appeals from the perspective of the adult smokers (university students).

- I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the interview in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.
- I understand that, when I feel uncomfortable in any way during the interview session, I have the right to decline to answer any question or to end the interview.
- The interview will last approximately 50-60 minutes. Notes may be written during the interview. An audio tape of the interview and subsequent dialogue will be made. If I don't want to be taped, I will not be able to participate in the study.
- I will see some real anti-smoking ads that contain social, physical and death appeals, if I feel uncomfortable with these materials, I may withdraw and discontinue participation in this research.
- I understand that the researcher will not identify me by name in any reports using information obtained from this interview and that my confidentiality as a participant in this study will remain secure. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals.
- I have read and understood the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.
- I have been given a copy of this consent form.

Signature:

Date:

Hamd Mahmoud,

PhD candidate

H.M.Mahmoud@2014.hull.ac.uk

Dr Haseeb shabbier,

Supervisor

Interview Guide

1. Questions about smoker himself: personal details, some question about their smoking habit just to warm up discussion make good rapport and put them in context of an interview.

How long have you been smoke?

On average, how many cigarettes you consume per day?

Have you ever attempted to quit smoking?

How many times have you quit and return to smoke?

If yes, how long you quit smoking and how many times you try to quit?

Which reasons are the anti-smoking ads effect this, or what make thinking to quit smoking? What makes you return to smoking again?

Do you enjoy smoking?

How does smoking make you feel?

What are the advantages of smoking if any?

Are you aware of the hazard of smoking at your health?

How concerned are you about possibly acquiring any disease because of smoking?

Do you know the consequences of smoking and do you think that smoking could lead to those consequences personally?

Did you think you will suffer from similar problems that showed in the ad if you continue smoking?

2. Questions about anti-smoking materials in generals (Their experience with anti-smoking materials in general and their opinions about these materials.)

Do you remember any particular anti-smoking advertisement? If so, describe it to me, please?

If yes, why do you remember it?

Did you remember similar anti-smoking efforts (warning labels in cigarettes packets, for example)?

What is your opinion about these?

What do you think is their primary objective?

Do you think they are necessary and useful?

What you feel after seen or heard this ad?

What your opinion in general in anti-smoking campaigns?

What was the main theme of ads? What can you remember about it?

Do you think smoking is harmful? If so, in what way is smoking harmful

Then show them choosing ads.

Questions about ads that he or she was watching. Like

What is your first impression?

What do those ads make you feel?

What sense does it make to you?

What are thoughts and ideas about smoking get in your mind when you see these ads?

What do you think about the message of these ads?

If they mentioned to threat appeal, MSV or believability of these ads, this will discuss and probing when that idea mention, but if not, I will be asking them about those subjects during the interview.

Which ad are you confident it has truth in its information?

Which ad more accepted (believable) by you? Why?

Which of them more believable than others? Why?

Which of them less believable than others? Why?

Do you think that you have seen and heard in this ad is true?

Which ad from those ads is more convincing for you?

Which ad make you want to quit smoking? Which less? Why?

Which ad makes you think seriously about quitting smoking? Which less?

Which of these ads grab your attention more than others? Why?

Which of them do you consider it more persuasive than others? Which less? Why?

Which ads make are you thinking seriously about quitting smoking (about your smoking behaviour)?

3. **Then** reflection on their answers in the second phase of questions.

They were asking the interviewees about the reasons, the meaning of their opinions about those ads.

Their ideas and thoughts about those ads in general, in terms of making them think about quit smoking.

What are those ads meaning to you? (In terms of threat appeal, MSV, believability, the effectiveness of these ads?)

What does the ad which makes you believe it and may thinking about quit smoking look like?

In your opinion, how believable anti-smoking ad should be (design)? Which does it feature? How should it be design instead of these ads you have seen?

Concluding

Further comments, anything the respondent would like to add.

Is there anything else that you would like to add?

Thank you note for participating.

The questionnaire used in choosing study adverts

Ad

• **Are you:**

Non-Smoker ()

Smoker ()

ex-smoker ()

• **1. while you are watching this ad what you feel:**

Uncomfortable ()

Worried ()

Anxious ()

Tense ()

Scared ()

Frightened ()

felt nothing ()

other feelings:

• **2. This ad is mainly about:**

how health can be affected by smoking ()

how social life can be affected by smoking ()

how smoking could lead to death ()

• **4. Anything need to add about this ad?**

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Questionnaire of pilot study

1: did this ad make you feel:

Tense

Worried

Nervous

Jittery

Anxious

Uncomfortable

Scared

Frightened

Another feeling, could you describe it for me please:

2: this ad is:

unbelievable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 believable

untrustworthy 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 trustworthy

not convincing 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 convincing

not credible 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 credible

unreasonable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 reasonable

dishonest 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 honest

questionable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 unquestionable

inconclusive 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 conclusive

not authentic 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 authentic

unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 likely

Anti-smoking adverts of study

Advert 1. High physical threat appeals

Advert name : (16 cancers)

Year of aired: 2016

Length: (40 seconds)

Source: Cancer Council of Western Australia and using backing by cancer research UK and fresh which one of smokefree action in England

The text of advert: (smoking causes 16 different types of cancer, ones that can kill you fast, ones that can kill you slowly, ones change how do you see yourself, ones can leave you almost speechless, ones can take away life most basic pleasures. there are 16 types of cancer caused by smoking, quitting the one clear way to reduce your risk, visit quit16.co.uk for support and advice)

Advert Discription: The ad starts in the clinic with couple hearing form doctor that the husband has lung cancer (appear in screen) with the sound of doctor and wife weep, then move scene where a group of doctors doing an operation to someone has bowel cancer (appear on screen) where the patient die under the operation. Then move to the scene where young woman get ready to go out and voice of her partner asking her (baby are you ready) and she looks to mirror and find difficult to hid the colostomy bag under her dress. Then move to the scene where a young man with his child get out of house door and say good-bye to a grandfather who has a hole in his throat (throat cancer appear on screen), and he is saying (see you son) in a hard way and wired voice. Then move to the scene where a family is set on the dinner table and have a meal, but the mother who has stomach cancer (appear on screen) cannot eat so she pouring liquid on tube attach to her Tommy and looking sadly at her family while they are eating normally. Then website and organisations which sponsor this anti-smoking ad appear on the screen, and then the ad ends.

To watch the advert, go to <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qouQyIzL4vM>

[Accessed date: 03/2019]

Advert 2. Low social threat appeals

Advert name: (Smoke Snakes) Passive Smoking

Year of aired: 2007

Length: (40 seconds)

Source: NHS Health Scotland

Advert Description: The advert starts with music and car on the road then the camera move inside the car where two women and a little girl on the back seat. One of the women start smoking cigarettes, the car fills with smoke, and the smoke was shaped in the form of a rope and wrapped around the girl's neck. Then move to the scene where for young men setting on sofas in the room they seem to watch football game three of them smoke, and one is not, the smoke fills the room and shaping on the ceiling as if monitors and attack the only non-smoker young man. And then move to the scene where mum is sitting on sofa watch tv and leave her cigarettes on the ashtray and the smoke of cigarette going to her child in the shape of a snake and attack the child going inside his mouth. Then the advert ends with the statement (passive smoking kills), and smoke line number and the campaign sponsor slogan appear on the screen.

To watch the advert go to <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=T22M8COzh8c> [accessed date: 3/2019]

Advert 3. High death threat appeals

Advert name: (Gerry Collins, gratitude)

Year of aired: 2014

Length: (31 seconds)

Source: Northern Ireland by their Public Health Agency. The campaign was copied or emulated by two different health authorities in the U.K.” Northern Ireland by their Public Health Agency

The text of advert: (I am grateful for loads, I am trying to find gratitude every day. , I am grateful for my kids, I have good family and friends around me I am grateful for that I am grateful for lots I am going to die soon from smoking I am not dying from other than cigarettes .. Don't smoke, don't start, and for those who have, stop)

Advert Description: Gerry has done three anti-smoking adverts, In Gerry's third and final ad, he talks about what he is grateful for in his life, his family and friends. The advert starts with the shot was Gerry sitting and talk about that he grateful for many things. Scene move to shot where he lay guitar and playing billiard with his friends and the scene move to where he was sitting with his family eat and drink and talk with a happy atmosphere and the scene move to shot where he played music with a group of his friends. And then he walked with an older woman it meant to his mother around a harbour and said I am going to die soon then statement appears on the screen said(1 in every two smokers will die of tobacco-related disease). Then Gerry return sitting, and bias (Don't smoke, don't start, and for those who have, stop) and then another statement appears on the screen said that (Gerry died from lung cancer shortly after making this film he was 57) and then the website of campaign sponsor and phone number for help appear on screen)

To watch the advert go to <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EGViq3AfXw0> [accessed date: 3/2019]

Advert 4. High social threat appeals

Advert name: (DontBbThe1)

Year of aired: 2014

Length: (59 seconds)

Source: Fresh which is the UK's regional tobacco control programme North East of England

The text of advert: (One in every two long term smokers will die from a smoking-related illness. Some of them in their 40s, how will your family cope, if you are one of them, it's never too late for you to quit smoking, get help and advice at DontBbThe1.tv).

Advert Description: the advert starts with a shot of a house where a little boy opens the curtains and then the camera move inside the house in front of the door, then move to the boy room. He was getting ready to school putting his books in the school bag and sometimes looking to the camera and then put on his shoes and his jumper taking a toy and smile and looking to the camera again and then tied up his bed and then walk close to the camera until his face take all of the shot. At this time the audience finds out that he was looking at his mother in the bed who seem to be cancer patient beside her a man he should be his father, the mother hopelessly smile to the boy, and the boy standing there. Then the scene shows the mother give the boy hug and nearly cry. The camera moves to the father who looks sadly at both of them, and then the mother looks at the camera, and then the camera moves a little bit to the sad boy face, and then the slogan of Fresh comes on screen with a website to help and advice.

To watch the advert go to <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nXloClpBXHc>

[Accessed date 3/ 2019]

Advert 5. Low death threat appeals

Advert name: (Beat)

Year of aired: 2006

Length: (31 seconds)

Source: Heart Foundation -South Africa

Advert Description: The advert start in a dark place with a man get out of which seem club door with unpleasant music. Someone. This man finds a couple outside, and the girl is smoke he ask her a cigarette she give him her cigarette. Then he walks away and the front of cigarette doing red line and the music getting tense and loud and the audience could hear heartbeat sound and sound of inhaling the smoking with loud and violent sound effects. While the man walks and waving to friends the redline getting flat and the sound of buzz is continued which mean to death and then the redline be completely flat, and the statement comes on the screen said (smoking kills) with the slogan of campaign sponsor.

To watch the advert go to <http://www.adeevee.com/2006/04/heart-foundation-of-south-africa-anti-smoking-message-beat-film/>

[Accessed date: 03/2019]

Advert 6. Low physical threat appeals

Advert name: (The quit)

Year of aired: 2011

Length: (115 seconds)

Source: Quit (<http://www.quit.org.uk>)

Advert Description: The advert designed to make teenagers think twice about smoking by dramatizing its physical effects, highlighting that smoking can age smokers by up to 19 years. The advert in black and white style, start with a young woman sitting and drag cigarette with night sound effects and the audience could hear her breath and how to drag the cigarette and with every drag in and breathing out, her face getting older and wrinkles start to emerge on her face. And then tense music getting a bit loud and her face getting older in an awful way to the point her face looks like an older woman and her breath getting hard. Then statement comes on the screen said (smoking ageing you by up to 19 years) and then (LOOK YOUNGER LONGER) then the slogan and number of Quit organisation

To watch the advert go to <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4wcCDYmBtUY>

<https://bigdataenthusiast.wordpress.com/2016/03/27/text-analysis-facebook-post-comments/>

[Accessed date: 03/2019]

Table excerpts from anonymised transcript (past experience section)

Extracts from smokers' answers	Original Transcript	Emerging Themes (Smokers' reaction)
<p>“It is gross, but at the same time, it does not make me feel bad for smoking or feel like guilty or thing; it does not make me feel bad.” Emily</p>	<p>Res: So you are remember all of these ads very well now when you see this at or watching it on TV as smoker how you feel or thinking about smoking?</p> <p>Emily: <i><u>I just think it's gross but at the same time it doesn't make me feel bad for smoking or feel like guilty or thing it doesn't make me feel bad</u></i></p>	<p>Denial</p>
<p>“Like-kind of objectively go over that much nasty but do not think that cannot happen soon.” Chris</p>	<p>Res:When you're looking at this photos what you think or feel about something?</p> <p>Chris: It sounds stupid it doesn't fear me that much like it should but almost like I just purpose to put thing together just like that looks bad almost <i><u>like kind of objectively go over that much nasty but don't think that cannot happen soon</u></i></p>	
<p>“I just see it, and it will happen for long term smokers a long-time smoker I am not really bothered by it” Lily</p>	<p>Res: When you saw this material is you talking about now what your feeling when you see it?</p>	

<p>“I do not know the thing is I think most people look at it and generally thinking it wouldn't either they want to really happen to them” Joseph</p>	<p>Lily: <u>I am just see it, it will happen for long term smokers a long time smoker I'm not really bothered by it</u></p> <p>Res: in general if you might be remember when you watch those anti-smoking materials what are thinking about smoking when you watch this?</p> <p>Joseph: <u>I don't know this thing is I think most people look at it and generally thinking it wouldn't either they want to really happen to them</u></p> <p>normally when I think of myself five or six or whatever right now to 10 I don't think my lungs can looks like that particularly I think it doesn't really look like that bad but I don't know it might differ if someone smoke 20 and 40 a day they just might be more accepting rather than something entirely certain I don't know I just don't remember I think about it.</p>	
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<p>“I just trying to turn the packet over when it was upside so ok let me just get rid of my cig ... Because it is like it just ruins the enjoyment and just a bit down.” Alexa</p> <p>“Just kind of things thinking it is not going to happen to you... just kind of more ignorance that what it is... I think just ignore it because I just look pretty horrible obviously the teeth and lungs to most horrible.” Joseph</p>	<p>Alexa: On cigarette packet there is one I can't remember one it's like a man on the cigarette packets he just looked very very ill it's like disgusting ill and <u>I just trying to turn the packet over when it was upside so ok let me just get rid of my cig.</u></p> <p>Res: Why you just ignore it or hide it?</p> <p>Alexa: <u>Because it's like it just ruins the enjoyment and just a bit down.</u></p> <p>Res: So, when you saw those pictures add cigarette packets just look at it or ignore it?</p> <p>Joseph: <u>Yeah just like yeah just classic just kind of more ignorance that what it is.</u></p> <p><u>I think just ignore it because I just look pretty horrible obviously the teeth and lungs to most horrible</u> because probably why I remember them I just think try to not look at them because it is pretty horrible just trying to not look at them.</p>	<p>Ignorance or avoidance</p>

“They are not very nice pictures they do sort of they affect me but when I put my ticket away I am forgetting about it is not really in the front of my mind all the time.” Emma

“Just trying to not look at look at them or put something on them.”
Olivia

“It does not really bother me because, after a while, you just throw them out.” Lucy

Res: What you have seen in cigarette packets can describe for me in details?

Emma: I know there is my recent cigarette packets he was a man he called up in a ball and he was naked and underneath\there is big capitals and it said smoking cause impotence in Men and they are not very nice pictures they do sort of they affect me but when I put my packet away I forgetting about it's not really in the front of my mind all the time

Res: even with these very maybe shocking images on cigarettes packets?

Olivia: yeah, I do not know, it's because, I has getting used to it, I do not focus long for so long maybe they not shocking or just gross you up for a bit but I do not least I do not think about it that much, just trying to not look at look at them or put something on them.

Res: But even this is a message this is anti-smoking material message for smokers to be careful or maybe quit smoking but when you saw these at or maybe these materials on

	<p>buckets what you feel what they make you feel?</p> <p>Lucy: <u><i>I don't know it doesn't really bothered me because after a while you just throw them out if</i></u> you know what I mean when you first start smoking and the first like oh that nasty taste I don't need that to happen but then after a few packets or cigs or backs and see them a few times on TV it's like ahh adjust another advert you just block it out..?</p>	
<p>“It does not fear me... I am completely desensitized ...You got quite desensitized ... so over time you tend to lose their potency.” James</p>	<p>Res: but you don't remember any specific anti-smoking ads in details?</p> <p>Inter2: I know about old posters when they have a physical picture of the body parts e those probably have most impact because you because you see natural human body parts <u><i>It</i></u></p>	<p>Desensitise or getting used to it</p>

<p>“Because I think smokers desensitized because they see them quite often... I am getting used to it ... just trying to not look at them or put something on them.” Grace</p> <p>“It just so common you tuned out...With me, after while I just oh</p>	<p><u>doesn't fears me... I'm completely desensitized. ...</u> Those are not say would quite grow task in the beginning of the campaign. What happens? <u>You got quite desensitized. So over time you tend to lose their potency.</u></p> <p>Res: On TV sometimes or social media even on cigarette packets there is anti-smoking material fighting the smoking try to prevent or stop smoking for a new potential smokers or smokers do you c came across with any of these?</p> <p>Grace: They quite nasty.. me and my friends who smoke too when we get a new packet what you got, and I like I have got throat,, <u>I am getting used to it ... just trying to not look at them or put something on them</u> I have got child we laugh about they are quite grump but the only the one I don't like the one with throat with big tumour growth on it I don't like that one I don't think twice about it <u>because I think smokers desensitized because they see them quite often</u></p> <p>Res: So do you think these material is not working with the smokers?</p> <p>Lucy: It probably does work because just because it always there because <u>it just so common you just</u></p>	
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this nasty it turns it out for a while I do not really notice them anymore like I used to ... sort of rebel I do not know I just I do not like scare tactics ... Because I have been smoking for a while, I do not notice them anymore” Lucy

“I think people come to see it as standard and not really pay attention to it you have got sort of young millenniums now; they do not know the cigarette packets looking any difference.” Steve

tuned out but it may work with some people and might not for others. ... sort of rebel I don't know I just I don't like scare tactics.. because I've been smoking for a while I don't notice them anymore

Res: Now you're talking about just when you saw these like lungs taking off from smokers or body of smokers in these materials it is anti-smoking materials like posters leaflets and anti-smoking ads and this graphics on cigarette packets you remember any one of these?

Steve: There is always the standard like smoking kills I mean you see some I mean I have a packet with me not one of the things I start doing I am just trying to not see this so many substances cause cancer and smoking kills quit now this is one of things they done and over the past couple of months start actually completely changing the packets to make them completely indistinguishable of another packet and just put the name and logo of the brand generally speaking these modifications to the packet there is no pictures and so on... they don't sinking I don't spend a lot of time looking on the bucket I am just open the packet one out and put it away I mean most noticeably things I have seen them doing it lately that caused a bit of nuisance when you going to the shop because with these backstay all design the same way with all sort of and the individuality

	<p>of the brand taking away from the bucket but clothes more difficult for the person behind counter to find cigarettes outside of that I notice a mind nonsense I think it got to the point I mean it because how long they're starting to put pictures on packets now it will be at least a decade <u>so I think people come to see it as standard and not really pay attention to it you've got sort of young millenniums now they don't have knowledge of the cigarette packets looking any difference</u> like back in the day there is was none but now 20 years old as far as 20 years old is concerned that they have cigarette packets was looked with these pictures and stuff like that yeah I mean I understand</p>	
<p>"I do not think it is working I feel like initially, it has a shock value." Steve</p>	<p>Res: When you're talking about this graphics on cigarette packets I understand from your speech that this graphics not working with the smokers?</p> <p>Steve: I could only voices my educated opinion based on people <u>I don't know I don't think it is working ...I feel like initially it has a shock value</u> but at least point I don't feel like this working I obviously take the subject onto consideration and I try to think of solution something really would hit home then I couldn't find one I don't know how supposed to get it on the heads of smokers I think the problem is at least of myself the problem is I know it ...I know there is no positive aspects of this but at the same time I don't know you can't</p>	<p>Its not working</p>

<p>“I think it works more possibly with people they have not to start smoking ...It is more preventative than to make you actually stop.” Mark</p> <p>“Definitely no I do not think it works at all.” Emily</p>	<p>say that's good out weight the bad because there is no good it's expensive I mean I am already many times I calculated how much I could save if I just stopped in those desperate end of the month time where is no money there are only just enough for cigarette facts and I am a chop between I want food I want fag I want food I want fag but now I don't think I don't know how it go</p> <p>Res: When you came cross with these materials do you think it's not working with all of smokers or just maybe remind you by hazards of smoking?</p> <p>Mark: <u><i>I think it works more possibly with people they haven't start smoking ... it is more preventative than to make you actually stop</i></u> it less likely to stop smoking if you know I don't do this things I don't know how it may be feel but I know it has long term risks to my health if you're already started smoking you know what smoke is like and you know the risks so it is not really it giving you any more incentive to stop</p> <p>Res: Those materials you are remember how do you think it is maybe working with a smoker to prevent them?</p> <p>Emily: <u><i>Definitely no I don't think it works at all</i></u> I think people they have started smoking and have friends</p>	
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	<p>today asking them they want cigarette but start from there or whether they just decided in one day they're going to start smoking I don't think it deters people in any way definitely not me anyway.</p>	
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Example of coding and extract the themes

(Emily and Josephe interviews-past experience)

Yellow: adverts channels

Green: smoker reaction(feelings)

Grey: recall

Purpoe: reaction (denial)

Emily

Res: On TV sometimes or and social media or in cigarette packets there is anti-smoking materials like leaflets and those wearing labels even there is anti-smoking ads on TV do you came across with anyone of this before?

Emily : Yeah I see some of them on TV I see him I have seen them like billboard around town and stuff and on cigarette packets.

Res: For anti-smoking TV ads can you remember any one of them?

Emily: There is one were who is like have a cigarette and it was like a tumor at the end of the cigarette while he's smoking even though it looks really gross I can like Imagine that happening inside my body I just ignore it and just five minutes later I'll go for a cigarette.

Res: those on cigarette packets do you remember anything?

Emily Yeah there is always second-hand smoke being around the children no not smoking around children and someone having surgery heart surgery there is needle for being addicted which I think it's really weird

Res: So you are remember all of these ads very well now when you see this at or watching it on TV as smoker how you feel or thinking about smoking?

Emily: I just think it's gross but at the same time it doesn't make me feel bad for smoking or feel like guilty or thing it doesn't make me feel bad

Res: Until now you don't experience illnesses or diseases from smoking?

Emily: No if I have a cold there is a cough will take long to go away then **smoke and that really does not bother me.**

Res: Are you going to gym more or exercise?

Emily: I don't do any exercise very rarely I have latest I used to go swimming I'm going underwater and holding my breath long I haven't going to swim for long time since I starting to making so me and my friend went to go to some exercise I find it I can't hold breath not nearly as long as it used to be or be able to so I think it is part of it

Res: Those materials you are remember how do you think it is maybe working with a smoker to prevent them?

Emily: **Definitely no I don't think it works at all I think** people they have started smoking and have friends today asking them they want cigarette but start from there or whether they just decided in one day they're going to start smoking **I don't think it deters people in any way definitely not me anyway.**

Res: But you know those anti-smoking ads especially in the UK government and another organizations they spend money to produce those anti-smoking materials because you have said now it is not working so it is just wasting of money?

Emily: I think for s some people may make them realize there is not good and make them want to quit but **I think for especially when you have been smoking for a while I don't think it makes any difference**

Josephe

Res: On TV sometimes maybe your generation not watching TV for long hours you just may be lying on social media or internet but on TV or social media like YouTube or even on cigarette packets there is anti-smoking materials but lips or videos or leaflets on posters do you came across with any of these antismoking materials before?

Josephe: Sorry can you repeat that question?

Res: Do you remember any of these on YouTube for TV..?

Josephe: Yeah I remember them those I supposed to be a lot more then lately around I'm not really thinking that been as much these days might be because I am watching more YouTube or watch less TV but I used to think of it a bit that been a lot more when I was like set around 5 7 to 15 I'm not sure whatever but it was more.

Res: Do you remember anyone from this period any certain anti-smoking ads?

Joseph: Not specific one I can't think for a specific one I only think about the ones on the packet of cigarette I remember a lot there is one with the teeth nasty teeth and the other I remember is there two pictures when was picture of healthy lungs and the other is picture of smoker lungs just look horrible yeah I think those main two.

Res: in general if you might be remember when you watch those anti-smoking materials what are thinking about smoking when you watch this?

Joseph: *I don't know this thing is I think most people look at it and generally thinking it wouldn't either they want to really happen to them* normally when I think of myself five or six or whatever right now to 10 I don't think my lungs can looks like that particularly I think it doesn't really look like that bad but I don't know it might differ if someone smoke 20 and 40 a day they just might be more accepting rather than something entirely certain I don't know I just don't remember I think about it.

Res: So do you think not have big effect on the smokers anymore?

Joseph: I don't know I think just kind of trash it aside just kind of things thinking it is not going to happen to you in general like that's how I look at it more I probably think that everybody look at it

Res: Maybe just because you are young in your 20s?

Joseph: That's the other thing just young people are think or tend to think they would have stopped at some point they think they will do it just for short period of time then they will think that wouldn't happen to them then they just want to stop and then they wouldn't.

Res: So you just because you are young adults you will think I'm not maybe what effect by smoking as it is still early maybe I wouldn't late 20s or 30s I will stop smoking?

Joseph: *Yeah just like yeah just classic just kind of more ignorance that what it is.*

Res: So when you saw those pictures add cigarette packets just look at it or ignore it?

Joseph: *I think just ignore it because I just look pretty horrible obviously the teeth and lungs to most horrible* because probably why I remember them I just think try to not look at them because it is pretty horrible just trying to not look at them.

Res: Because it's very horrible and terrifying you just ignore it?

Joseph: *You trying to look at them* at the same time because those two I remember so obviously *the more horrible it is the more you can remember it*