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Making the Commercial Non-Commercial: Traditional Ad Effects on TV Billboards

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MAKING THE COMMERCIAL NON-COMMERCIAL: TRADITIONAL AD EFFECTS ON TV BILLBOARDS

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ABSTRACT

Using a 2x2 experimental design, this study evaluated the effectiveness of two ad factors on TV billboards. Four experimental conditions were created around a previously aired Olympic hockey game to measure how contextual fit and cross-promotion affect audience evaluations of a brand presented on a TV billboard. The hypotheses predicted measurable effects based on past advertisement and sponsorship literature. A total of 150 usable respondents returned significant main effect results, as well as supporting interaction effect results. Particularly, contextual fit encouraged participant purchase intention and the presence of cross-promotion encouraged more positive attitudes toward a brand. Limitations and future research are discussed.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Most have heard the message "This portion of the broadcast is brought to you by…" while watching TV. This announcement technique is known as a TV billboard, and it is present in most television shows or broadcasted events. They are, as suggested in their on-air announcement, usually situated in the short spots before or after a program, or before or after commercial breaks. As a revenue stream, the use of TV billboards predates the popularization of television. The American Telephone and Telegraph Company (AT&T) began encouraging the use of broadcast sponsorships in the 1920s and these sponsorships were the predominant form of finance for radio broadcasts by the 1930s (Meyers, 2011). In the early days it was not uncommon for an entire show to be sponsored by one brand. As television grew and diversified, however, so did the structure and use of TV billboards. Today one television broadcast commonly features TV billboards of ten or more brands.

TV billboards often run adjacent to traditional TV commercials, but there are many structural differences between the two commercial messages. TV commercials regularly run between 15 and 60 seconds, carrying a lengthy message about a brand and employing elements common to dramatic story telling (Quesenberry & Coolsen, 2014). There is often an opening, a rise, and a conclusion in TV commercials. TV billboards, on the other hand, typically last between three and six seconds. The message behind a TV billboard is simple, they are a sponsor for the broadcast. Sometimes a brand slogan is included – "Dilly, Dilly" for Bud Light's recent campaign – but TV billboards lack story elements found in TV commercials (Quesenberry & Coolsen, 2014).

Messaging in TV billboards is straightforward and relevant only to the brand, not to the audience. With fundamentally different structures, the goals and relation to program context of TV billboards and TV commercials are also different. TV commercials are broadcast with an explicit goal in mind – the spread of a branded message. In achieving this goal, a TV commercial separates from the context of the broadcast to present itself outside of this contextual framework. This clear distinction makes TV commercials an obvious and separate appeal to the audience. TV billboards, on the other hand, are present alongside the broadcast context. By showing at the beginning or end of a segment of the broadcast, they appear as part of – rather than separate from – the broadcast. Given the TV billboards role in supporting a TV broadcast, it is logical to understand TV billboards as a sponsorship rather than an advertisement.

Even though there are comparisons between TV billboards and sponsorships, there has been limited general scholarly attention paid to TV billboards. More specifically, the presentation of TV billboards at the beginning or end of the TV broadcast, as well as the relation of TV billboards to the broadcast context lead to the logical conclusion that the TV billboard may enjoy a hint of the emotional excitation induced by a TV broadcast. This transferal must have an impact on the performance of TV billboards. At the same time, the brands promoted through TV commercials also compete with brands featured in TV billboards for audiences' attention. In the past, extensive research has considered how context can affect how people react to information and how context can prime audience focus an advertisement (Tourangeau & Rasinski, 1988; Yi, 1990a, 1990b, 1993). However, although they are in a similar viewing condition, these same considerations have not been given to TV billboards.

The primary purpose of this study is to approach the impact of contextual factors on the effectiveness of TV billboards. To approach this topic, the still will begin with sponsorship

theory (Image Transfer) and proceed considering TV billboards as sponsorships. Treated as sponsorships, the effects of various contextual factors present in a TV viewing condition were considered for an effect on TV billboards, namely, the level of contextual fit and the presence of cross-promotion. The findings of this study contribute to a better understanding of TV billboards and the contextual effects on TV billboards. In addition, this study results in meaningful marketing and advertising implications.

I. TV Billboards as Sponsorship

The marketing tool referred to as a TV billboard got its start in radio. The American Telephone and Telegraph Company (AT&T), owner of the Bell Telephone System, started a trend when it decided to sell the services of a newly operational radio tower to companies for advertising and entertainment (National Radio Broadcast by Bell System, 1922). Shows broadcasting through the use of this tower identified companies as sponsors and as the shows grew in popularity, the company gained more recognition. In time, and as technology advanced, television broadcasters adopted the idea of outside funding for broadcast programs, thus the TV billboard. The use of this marketing tool continues to grow annually and grew by over 47% from 2008 to 2018 (TV Sponsorship is for the Long Term, 2018).

It is easy to consider TV billboards similarly to traditional TV commercials because of the close proximity of the two within a program and their comparable role in representing a brand. However, a TV billboard identifies a brand during a broadcast itself, not separated from it. The presentation is usually in the form of a static, on-screen logo accompanied by a voiceover. Advertisements separate from the broadcast to present a branded image. With these and similar

considerations of the structural and representative differences, TV billboards should not be considered the same as traditional TV advertisements.

TV billboards should be considered in the same way we view traditional sponsorships. It is common to see sponsoring brands on a running board in hockey, a foul pole in baseball, and, more recently, National Basketball Association team jerseys. TV billboards appear alongside a broadcast in a similar way a brand presents itself alongside a team in the previous examples. Also, the simplified messaging of TV billboards is much closer to the messaging in a traditional sponsorship. A sponsor is most often presented alongside the event with little or no explanation and it is not uncommon for the only presence of the sponsor to be the brand name or logo. It is rare that a sponsor puts forth the extra effort to establish a deep connection between itself and the event being sponsored. Similarly, a TV billboard simply announces an affiliation between the brand and the broadcast. The depth of connection between the two is a task left for the audience.

The money from sponsorships help the team fund day-to-day activities and it is distributed in the same way as general income by the team and/or event (Daellenbach, Davies, & Ashill, 2006). In return, sponsorships help the sponsor's brand gain media exposure to the team's fans and audiences. The economy behind TV billboards is similar. The money from TV billboards helps fund an event broadcast. In return the broadcast brandishes a message for the sponsor to the TV audience. This can be of great value to the sponsor. When sponsors can enjoy an evaluation alongside an event, there is the possibility for good things.

A halo effects take place when people allow their beliefs toward a dominant brand to influence their beliefs about another brand (Leuthesser, Kohli, & Harich, 1995). In a sports context, peoples' evaluation of and connection to the game varies. Regardless, feelings toward the game can affect feelings toward things around the game. This can also include the brands

presented in the context of the game (Hickman, & Lawrence, 2010). The investment into the team or event that an audience personally cares about can create a positive perceptional bias surrounding the representation. In the presence of this bias, the halo of goodwill effect begins to take effect (Leuthesser, et. al., 1995). The sponsorship, therefore, adopts much of the ideals and support the consumer originally attributes to the event. Ultimately, when a sponsor supports an activity, the consumer's goodwill toward the activity effects their evaluations of a sponsor.

By distancing from the inherently commercial interests of traditional TV commercials and aligning more with the broadcast itself, TV billboards can gain some of these benefits surrounding sponsorship. It may help audience's overall evaluation of the brand and increase the brand image or promote positive brand equity (Hensler, Wilson, Götz, & Hautvast, 2007; Tsordia, Papadimitriou, & Parganas, 2018). This can be understood in several ways, including through the presence of the previously described halo effect.

With a TV billboard's structural and representational similarities to traditional sponsorship, it can be thought that TV billboards will enjoy similar benefits to traditional sponsorships, rather than commercial advertisements. The non-commercial, altruistic characteristics of TV billboards cause consumers to regularly evaluate them more positively (Koronios, Psiloutsikou. Kriemadis, &Kolovos, 2018; Koronios, Psiloutsikou. Kriemadis, Zervoulakos, Leivaditi, Karapostolou, &Kothroulas, 2015). Therefore, with considerable similarity between traditional sponsorships and TV billboards, implications could be great for the use of TV billboards.

CHAPTER 2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

I. Image Transfer Theory

The perception of TV billboards can be understood using the Image Transfer Theory. Initially, the Image Transfer Theory grew from McCracken's (1989) Meaning Transfer Theory, which explains how the public, or community, decides the meaning of a sponsorship. In general, a celebrity, or athlete's worth is determined by the individuals paying the celebrity or athlete attention. These meanings aggregate to become the meaning the celebrity holds to the public in general, or, a person's cultural meaning; this meaning could range from positive to negative and weak to strong. When a brand uses a celebrity to market a product, the value and effectiveness of the endorsement relies heavily on what the celebrity means to audiences because the cultural meaning attributed to the celebrity transfers to the evaluation of the endorsed item. The endorsed item is then evaluated by audiences according to it inherited meaning adopted from the endorser. In short, the Meaning Transfer Theory shows a cyclical nature of sponsorship and audience evaluation.

Meaning Transfer Theory focuses on successful sponsorship in relation to people (e.g. celebrities, athletes, etc.), but the same concepts apply to brands and events. Brands and events, similar to celebrities remain in constant evaluation by the public. The value of a celebrity, event, or brand, therefore, can weaken or strengthen depending on recent activity surrounding the celebrity, event, or brand. These overall evaluations can be considered the "image" of the brand or celebrity.

Keller (1993) relates brand image to the associations people make with the brand drawn from memory. Many of these associations are made by people individually. An important

consideration, therefore, is who and what the brand associates with. A brand can benefit from the associations it makes with an event through sponsorship (Keller, 1993). The connection between brand and event influences the image of each. This mutual transfer of image between brand and endorser is in the follows similar logic to McCracken's (1989) Meaning Transfer Theory, but allows for the complexity of a mutual relationship.

Keller (1993) proposes the idea that an event can be characterized by the attributes and attitude associations people make through memory. Therefore, when a brand associates itself with an event, some of the emotions reserved for the event may become indirectly attributed to the brand. The meaning and importance of an event is largely a product of an individual's evaluation of the event. Aggregating these evaluations, the event begins to build a meaning within a relevant cultural framework. For instance, monster truck races are more common in certain parts of the country and almost unheard of abroad. A Southeastern Conference football game will put an entire town on hold in the southeastern United States, but it is college basketball that reigns supreme in other parts of the country. This just as easily applies to TV shows. Some TV shows enjoy international viewership while some serve niche markets. In a sports broadcast, people are watching with varying levels of fandom and familiarity with the sport. A TV billboard acting as a sponsor will enjoy evaluation around the TV show or sports broadcast. The cyclical nature of McCracken's (1989) theory remains, but the dual transfer of Keller's (1993) theory is an important consideration. The brands present in TV billboards and the television broadcast itself are regularly being evaluated in relation to one another.

Gwinner (1997) and Gwinner and Eaton (1999) supported Keller's ideas through a few different studies. Ultimately, their findings echoed meaning transfer theory. The meaning of an event transfers in part to the brand sponsoring the event. The association reflects positively on

the brand and enhances consumer evaluation of the brand. Ultimately, a brand can benefit greatly by aligning itself with an event. In line with the ideas of Image Transfer, however, the researchers find the transfer to be synchronous. The sponsored event absorbs some of the associations surrounding the sponsoring brand. The theory suggests that the ideas surrounding the brand and the event are in constant reevaluation. Emotions and associations are not concrete, they are always available for reconsideration and reinterpretation.

Gwinner (1997) and Gwinner and Eaton (1999) found this effect to be strong even among brands and events do not immediately make sense in the context of one another. People make meaningful associations even out of loose relationships. The implications can relate to both involved parties. The sponsor can effectively attribute some of the meaning behind an event. This effect gives the event a chance to diversify its image by adopting other sponsors not immediately relevant to the context. This suggests that a sponsor benefits by simply being a sponsor. The findings in this study expound upon the idea of image congruence to propose a nuanced and grand-scheme version of how brand images and event meanings transfer.

With TV billboards acting and being evaluated as sponsorships, they are apt to enjoy some of the same advantages of event sponsorships when being evaluated by audiences. Events being broadcast on television are often viewed by large crowds. Since the TV billboard is represented on a broadcast of an event, which is simply a representation, the TV billboard may not gain access to the evaluation of the event itself. However, the broadcast's role as an event representation should entice similar associations by spectators. In a study focusing on virtual brand communities, the findings of Dos Santos, Guardia, and Moreno (2018) suggest the possibility of an image transfer effect for representations as well.

Dos Santos, Guardia, and Moreno (2018) focused on what are essentially fan websites for Spanish Premier League soccer teams. The findings show fans evaluate and develop positive attitudes towards brands sponsoring these websites. In fact, the evaluations of website sponsors were comparable to evaluations of brands sponsoring the actual team. The evidence in this study is restricted just to representations of sports teams, but these results suggest that people evaluate the sponsor as a team sponsor even when the sponsorship is represented on the team's digital space.

TV stations invest a great deal of money to purchase broadcast rights for a sporting event. TV broadcasts are legitimate representations of a team or sport broadcast at any given time. Through this representation, as exemplified in Dos Santos, Guardia, and Moreno's (2018) study on Internet page sponsors, TV billboards should enjoy the same beneficial evaluation.

II. Contextual Fit

Considering that TV billboard information is processed with other information embedded within the program, we can consider that the effect of contextual factors surrounding TV billboards. Researchers regularly consider contextual influence on traditional advertisements. Since traditional advertisements occur alongside TV billboards, this study will use similar considerations to measure TV billboard effectiveness; particularly contextual priming, and the presence of cross-promotion.

During a television broadcast, brand information does not occur in a vacuum. Instead, the presentation occurs within and around other contextual information. The context surrounding an item can have two distinct effects (Tourangeau & Rasinski, 1988). Context can provide an

interpretive framework which affects a consumer's ideas of what later information is supposed to be about. It can also encourage what consumers see as relevant versus redundant information (Tourangeau & Rasinski, 1988). People do not often remember information verbatim (Bartlett, 1920). Instead it is processed along some relevant framework (Bartlett, 1920; Bower, Black, & Turner, 1979). Context plays a crucial role in determining the relevant framework used for processing (Tourangeau & Rasinski, 1988). This is considered a context effect.

When people are exposed to information, that information is considered within the context in which it was presented (Srull & Wyer, 1980). Context is not reevaluated every time a person is asked to remember previous information. For instance, when people encounter a brand message within a sports broadcast, brand information is evaluated and internalized (e.g. sporting goods) based on the broadcast context. In this condition, people's evaluation of a sporting goods product is influenced by not only the commercial for the sporting goods brand, but also the sports broadcast context within which the brand was placed.

For ease of processing, people often attempt to associate information to categories developed in consideration of the context (Bettman & Sujan, 1987). Herr (1989) experimented on the presentation of categories. The research shows that when a category is introduced in a subtle and unobtrusive way, it can affect a consumer's evaluation of a product. In this way, the researchers are encouraging participants into a preferred categorization of a product. By priming price conditions, for instance, people focused most attention on the price of an advertised car (Herr, 1989). There is the possibility for a similar effect through the use of context. If the context surrounding the ad were to emphasize a consideration of the price, people are more likely to pay attention to the price of the cars in an advertisement. Context can act as that subtle and unobtrusive cue for evaluation and categorization of a product. The context, therefore, can prime

the evaluation of a brand or product. Yi (1990a, 1990b, 1993) repeatedly returned to the storage bin model to explain contextual priming. The storage bin model proposes that people use the most recently encountered information when confronting new information. Context sits at the top of the storage bin and acts as a cognitive processing aid directly affecting evaluations of information compared to other information (Yi, 1990a, 1990b, 1993).

When information cannot be directly compared, when the contextual prime does not immediately fit the following information, people will use prior knowledge as well as the context to determine a connection (Bettman & Sujan, 1987). People, for instance, will use their prior knowledge of sports to determine categories and assign value and relevance to a TV commercial or TV billboard. TV billboards are a particularly worthy of consideration due to their subtlety. The message is just a simple statement of affiliation and does not elaborate a brand's fit within a context. This is opposed to a TV commercial which takes time to articulate more clearly why a brand or product belongs within a context. Yi (1990a; 1990b), however, suggests that a brands in a situation similar to TV billboards may still enjoy a contextual priming effect.

Yi (1990a; 1990b) conducted experiments to compare consumer evaluations of print advertisements. The results show that certain features of an ad are evaluated differently depending on the contextual information surrounding the ad. Ad information was not the critical factor in peoples' evaluations. Instead, the information and content surrounding the ad proved to have the greatest effect on consumer considerations. This echoes the findings of Srull and Wyer (1980) who suggested that people encode information based on the information surrounding it, Yi (1990a; 1990b) shows a similar occurrence with advertisements. Therefore, within a sports broadcast, people will evaluate ad information and brand messaging within the consideration of the sports broadcast, which will be stored at the top of the storage bin.

According to Yi (1990b), the high degree of contextual similarity also influences a consumer's attitude toward the ad. People respond to the entire context positively, negatively, or neutrally. Therefore, if the overall feeling toward the context is positive, the evaluation of the brand information is likely to also be positive.

A similar experiment (Yi, 1993), evaluating print advertisements within context considered the consumer's level of prior knowledge. Prior knowledge is an important consideration within the concept of contextual priming. Within sports, for instance, people with a higher knowledge of the sport will have a deeper understanding of the context. A deeper, more nuanced understanding of the context will affect the evaluations of a brand within the context. Yi (1993) focused on print car advertisements to find similar effects of contextual priming on those with high prior knowledge and those with low prior knowledge. In both of these considerations, people were not very affected by the context surrounding the print advertisement. The low prior knowledge effect may be explained by an overall lack of knowledge about the context affecting the perceived relevance of a prime. An affect like this could be a consideration in sports broadcasts. In other words, if a person lacks knowledge about a certain sport, the association between the sport and an equipment manufacturer will be hard to make even with a high degree of contextual similarity. Yi (1993) found that people of moderate prior knowledge showed the greatest response to contextual priming. People of moderate knowledge are able to make the connections between the product and the context, but do not consider themselves overly knowledgeable about the product or context, like those with high prior knowledge.

Most contextual priming effects research focuses on advertisements, but the concepts can be applied to sponsorship research as well. Sponsorship research and theory, however, consider the concepts in how well a sponsor "fits" the event (context). Heckler and Childers (1992)

focused a study on message and event fit and found that people recall a message that fits at a higher rate than a message that does not fit. The fit of a brand deals directly with the context in which the sponsorship is presented. Thus, for example, an athletic sporting goods brand has a better fit within the context of a sporting event than a televised dog show. “Fit” is a consideration of the themes within a context. These themes are what ultimately dictate the categories people pull from the context. Therefore, themes are important when considering contextual priming because themes act as an easy to obtain comparison tool. For instance, if the theme is competition, a brand that represents that same theme *fits* the context.

General research on sponsorship congruence between a sponsor and event suggests an effect equal and opposite to Yi’s (1993) findings on prior knowledge effect. High-fit situations allow for an easy connection between brand and event (Pappu & Cornwell, 2014). The ease of connection allows people to align a brand within the context. This can lead to better and higher recall and recognition (Pappu & Cornwell, 2014). When people can make a quick association between the brand and the context, their mind can more easily connect the two. This connection is what helps with recall and recognition. In contrast, low-levels of contextual fit induce more systematic and more analytical information processing. Heckler and Childers (1992) found that in low-fit situations, people attempt to make associations between the brand and the event. Essentially, when there is not an easy connection to make, people still feel the desire to establish a connection; the need for association is powerful. As people attempt to make these associations the time spent and intensity toward evaluating the brand increases concurrently. The in-depth and prolonged consideration of the brand ultimately forces a fit within the consumer’s mind.

Gawronski and Bodenhausen (2006) suggest that an extremely low fit between brand and event can lead to high levels of processing, resulting in more favorable brand evaluations and

awareness. Ultimately, Chang and Ko (2016) suggest that when a sponsorship shows a low-level of fit in the context of the event, consumers evaluate the brand nearly as positively as they would a brand with a high contextual fit. Therefore, in contrast to Yi's (1993) model, an extreme lack of knowledge can lead to a more desirable effect of contextual priming.

III. Cross-Promotion

Message frequency is a communication effect common within television advertising. The understanding of message frequency begins as soon as a person is exposed to a message. Each and any subsequent message or brand iteration accounts for another repetition. However, research suggests that repetition effect is not determined by how many times the message is presented, but instead how much total time the message is presented to a consumer (Cacioppo & Petty, 1979, 1989). This effect, attributed to aggregated exposure time, can be referred to as the elaboration enhancement hypothesis (Cacioppo & Petty, 1989) and suggests the reason for greater recall among explicit and subtle messages alike. At moderate levels of interaction, consumers gain more time and opportunity to process the information presented. Consumer elaborations increase with more time and there are effectively more elements of the information noticed. Consumers process the information more completely. Ultimately, this enhanced processing also allows people to commit the information to memory. However, information commitment to verbatim memory is not likely what happens. Instead, people gain the opportunity to comprehend the information through various memory processes.

When people are first exposed to a message, the information is uncertain and unfamiliar (Campbell and Keller, 2003; Cox & Cox, 1988). The uncertainty surrounding the message

affects the storage of the message and analysis of its elements. With message repetition, however, people continue to process the message and with repeated processing people gain a deeper understanding of the message. The repeated exposure to, and subsequent processing of, the message results in a higher familiarity with the new information, message, or brand (Cacioppo & Petty, 1979). As people become more familiar, there is not as much thought required concerning the message itself or its connection. Resultingly, people can make more in depth judgements considering all the information (Cacioppo & Petty, 1979). Cacioppo and Petty, (1979, 1989) suggest these effects are possible for both familiar and novel messages.

Lane (2000) tested repetition effects on incongruent messages. Using print advertisements, Lane (2000) placed contextually congruent and contextually incongruent messages as stimuli. He found that congruent extensions were initially evaluated more positively. This finding nods back to Cox and Cox's (1988) findings on message uncertainty. People, then, are more skeptical of and negative toward a message the more uncertain they are about it. Incongruence likely adds to the unfamiliarity of the novel message. As ads in the experiment repeat, however, the difference between congruent and incongruent message evaluations disappears (Lane, 2000). Through repeated exposure, people's familiarity with a message improves.

Dardis (2009), tested repetition effect on perceived sponsorship fit, or, how well the brand relates to the context of the event. Dardis (2009) found that repeated brand sponsorship information leads to a better understanding of the fit between a sponsor and an event. Therefore, repeating the connection can lower the uncertainty people have of the sponsor's connection to the event and ultimately enhance peoples' evaluations of how well the sponsor and event fit together. Law, Hawkins, and Craik (1998) suggested that repetition can enhance a brand's

credibility. Dardis' (2009) also found that the sponsor's credibility within the context of the event grows with repetition.

Repetition effect, however, is not singular – it is a multivariate consideration. The variables surrounding the repeated information can affect how people evaluate the repeated brand messages and whether the repetition is noticed in the first place. D'Hooge, Hudders, and Cauberghe (2017) show that context and prominence of brand display affects people's evaluations of a brand. The researchers placed brands either prominently or subtly in positive and negative situations. They found that people remembered and felt better about brands that appeared in a happy or positive scene. Consumer evaluations grew increasingly positive as repetition of the brand increased. There was an opposite effect within negative scenes. People will begin to recognize the brands within a negative scene, but consumers also felt worse about the brand in the negative scene.

Subtly placed brands, however, did not experience a repetition effect in either context. This could have implications for TV billboards due to their comparatively subtle representation during a broadcast. TV billboards are often presented within a program context or on a neutral background of an audience or building and distinctively announced (Bressoud, Lehu, & Russell, 2010). Traditional TV advertisements, on the other hand, feature a lot of action and dialogue and are distinctly separate from the broadcast. Also, TV billboards are regularly presented alongside other brands with little distinction between the brands (Bressoud, Lehu, & Russell, 2010). Since there are multiple brands within a TV billboard spot, the placement of the TV billboard may be even more subtle, removing much of the repetition effects. This, however, should ultimately not affect TV billboard evaluations because of the TV billboard's positioning. Most of the research

considered in-scene representations and would likely take more effect on brands placed within the playing arena, not isolated in the broadcast.

Solidifying this assumption is limited research considering TV commercials and TV billboards side by side. Olson and Thjømøe (2012) discovered a comparative effectiveness between TV billboards and TV commercials. Their findings suggest a workable one to three (1:3) ratio between the effectiveness of TV billboards and traditional TV commercials in terms of brand recall and brand evaluation. In other words, ten seconds of TV billboard exposure returns comparable effects (recall, brand evaluation, etc.) to thirty seconds of TV commercial exposure.

Using Super Bowl commercials, Jeong and Hester (2006) studied the interplay of TV commercials and TV billboards in a natural setting. Jeong and Hester (2006) noticed that when TV billboards and TV commercials appear in the same program, the recognition of a brand promoted in both increases. It is possible that the TV billboards have a repetition effect on brand representations in TV commercials. The brand message repetition in TV billboards allows the audience more time and opportunity to connect the brand to the broadcast.

Jeong and Hester (2006) also examined the impact of repetition on ad liking. The results suggested a lower ad liking (an affective evaluation measurement) score for brands represented in both TV commercials and TV billboards. The findings were not statistically significant, but it is an important point to consider for the possibility that repetition in this situation is working against the brand. It is important for people to not only notice and remember the brand, but also to like the brand being marketed and this is one of the greatest advantages to people understanding brands in TV billboards as sponsors. Repeating the brand using both TV billboard and traditional TV advertisement may have a negative effect on the brand.

Cacioppo and Petty (1989) and Anand and Sternthal (1990) suggest another possibility for a negative outcome. Brand repetition allows people more time and opportunity to process a given stimulus, but sometimes that time and opportunity exceed peoples' desire. After a certain point opportunity turns to tedium. People become tired of the message which can lead to lower attitudes toward the message. Lehnert, Till, and Carlson (2013) found that over-repetition can nullify the special consideration consumers give to creative ads. Creative ads, marked by originality or unusualness, are generally evaluated more positively. When the ad is repeated multiple times, however, the reactions to the ad become closer to the standard reaction given to a non-creative ad. There is less special consideration to the novel instances of creativity.

Balasubramanian (1994) explains that sponsorships can gain some distinct advantages attributable to their role in the mind of a consumer. Sponsorships are not immediately considered commercial by viewers. It is important to consider this possibility, that repetition of the TV billboard via TV commercial may remove the advantageous effects of consumers' special consideration of the brand. However, given that this study focuses on cross-promotion, or, different representations of the same brand, it seems that these disadvantages are unlikely to take effect. Most research displays that tedium establishes when consumers are repeatedly exposed to the same information. TV commercials and TV billboards occur within the same programs, and sometimes within the same commercial breaks. The diversity of messaging, however, should lead to more positive effects of cross-promotion, not allowing the brand to reach a negating level of over-repetition.

Considering the nature of the multiple studies addressed above, it is more accurate to consider the independent variable in this study as a cross-promotion condition. The information present in the TV billboard and TV commercial are not repetitions of the same information, but

they are repetitions of the same brand. Therefore, repetition research is still relevant to this study's inquiries – particularly that which involves exposure time. However, this study will not add to repetition research and instead consider the conditions as a cross-promotion condition (brand representation on TV billboard and TV commercial) or single-occurrence condition (brand representation on TV billboard only).

With a framework built on the above concepts, the researcher poses the following hypotheses and research questions:

H1: Brands that fit the broadcast context will be more effective on – (a) recall; (b) recognition; (c) attitude; (d) purchase intention – than brands with a lower fit to the broadcast.

H2: Brands in TV billboards that are cross-promoted using TV commercials will be more effective on – (a) recall; (b) recognition; (c) attitude; (d) purchase intention – than brands in TV billboards that are not supported by traditional TV commercials.

RQ1: How does contextual fit interact with cross promotion?

RQ2: How does cross-promotion interact with contextual fit?

CHAPTER 3. METHOD

To test these hypotheses and questions, this study conducted an experiment using a 2X2 factorial design. The experiment was set up and distributed in an online distributed survey platform. The independent variables were the frequency of brand presentation, considered as the presence or lack of cross-promotional material, and the contextual factors surrounding the TV billboard, considered as the level of brand fit within the video stimuli. Two cognitive dependent variables were recall and recognition to judge participant memory of a brand. There were two other dependent variables measuring an affective response (attitude) and a behavioral response (purchase intention).

I. Research Participants

This experiment gathered 162 complete responses. Participants were primarily undergraduate students at a large southeastern research university. To gather student responses, the researcher utilized pre-constructed research groups that incentivize students (with class credit) to participate in studies. There was, however, an option for every student to opt out of this study. The researcher also went into classrooms to solicit participation using an anonymous link to the survey. Again, the students had the option to participate in this study or to not. Other response came via online participants clicking the anonymous link posted and shared on social media.

II. Independent Variables

The degree of contextual fit in this situation was decided by the researcher and influenced by previous research in the area (Tsordia, Papadimitriou, & Parganas, 2018; Pappu& Cornwell, 2014; Hensler, Wilson, Götz, &Hautvast, 2007). Ultimately, the researcher considered and categorized this variable as high and low. To represent these two categories, the researcher settled on Adidas and Samsung, respectively. Adidas is highly relevant to hockey, even to the point that it is a major sponsor to the National Hockey League (NHL). Samsung, in contrast, has very little, if anything tying it to hockey. It is, however, still a relevant and present brand most people can recognize. Buy keeping the context surrounding the two IVs identical, the relevant prime surrounding the test brand was easily manipulated.

Cross-promotion was considered as to whether the TV billboard had a brand consistent commercial occurring in the same break. Brands present on TV billboards that had an accompanying commercial were considered cross-promotion conditions. Those that occurred solely on a TV billboard were considered single-occurrence conditions.

III. Dependent Variables

The dependent variables of this study concerned the overall effectiveness of the TV billboard promotion. This experiment measured participants' cognitive and attitudinal evaluations of brands promoted in TV billboards, as well as potential behavioral outcomes. Cognitive responses included recall and recognition of Adidas or Samsung considering the stimulus presented to a participant. Using open-ended questions, brand recall was measured by

asking participants to list the brand messages that they could remember. For brand recognition, participants were shown a list of ten different brands, some that were present in the stimulus, some that were not. Looking at this list, participants were asked to check the box beside every brand that they could be remember

To measure attitude, the researcher developed a scale based on the seven-item semantic differential scale developed by Till and Shimp (1998). The researcher pared the options down to five and had participants pick in between the extreme positive adjectives (appealing, favorable, likable, enjoyable, and good) and the extreme negative adjectives (unappealing, unfavorable, unlikable, unenjoyable, and bad). After considering the internal reliability of the scale ($\alpha > .98$), index scores were formed by averaging the values of the scale item responses.

An additional dependent variable was purchase intention. The importance of this measure, as well as the method for measuring, was borrowed from Spears and Singh (2004). This variable can help to understand peoples' future actions concerning the brand. To measure this variable, the researcher employed another semantic differential scale consisting of three extreme high-intention adjectives (likely, possible, and probable) and three extreme low-intention adjectives (unlikely, impossible, and improbable). After considering the internal reliability of the scale ($\alpha > .97$), index scores were formed by averaging the values of the scale item responses. A copy of the survey is available in Appendix A.

IV. Control Variables

This study controlled for the effects of prior knowledge of and familiarity with hockey in order to obtain the unique effect of contextual similarity and message repetition on TV billboard

effectiveness. Considering hockey, both of these measures are determined upon peoples' previously constructed understanding and opinion toward the sport. Prior knowledge helps to facilitate the use of existing knowledge as well as the evaluation and acquisition of new knowledge (Park & Lessig, 1981 as cited in Rao & Monroe, 1988). To construct this variable, the researcher considered previous work from Rao and Monroe (1988) and Yi (1993). These studies used a short quiz as well as self-reporting scales to determine participants' prior knowledge and familiarity. Checking reliability of their own scales, however, Yi (1993) determined near equal reliabilities between participant quiz scores and self-reported level of familiarity. With this in mind, the researcher decided to employ self-reporting scales to determine hockey prior knowledge and liking. By averaging the values of four questions concerning enjoyment, knowledge, fandom, and regularity of viewing, this variable was created ($\alpha > .68$).

V. Experimental Stimuli

This study chose a professional hockey match for this experiment due to its moderate popularity and lack of a local team where the study was conducted. This neutral aspect of the experimental stimuli is assumed to lead to more generalizable findings. This study developed 4 different videos of eight minutes and thirty-five seconds in length. These videos all featured a recorded broadcast of the 2014 Sochi Olympic Hockey game between the USA and Russia.

The experiment included one commercial break in between two sections of game play. The stimulus opens up in the middle of the hockey game, pauses for commercial at a natural stoppage within the game, and resumes after the commercial break. There entire stimulus takes

place within the first period of the game. There were no goals shown in the stimulus, the game began and ended with a score of zero to zero. There was one penalty during the stimulus, located in the last minute, after the commercial break.

Considering the current practice of TV billboards, TV billboards were placed between the game broadcast and commercial break. In each stimulus, there were four brands presented on TV billboard, the test brand and State Farm, Cotton, and Coca-Cola. The test brand always presented in the second spot in the TV billboard sequence. The surrounding brands were chosen for diversity of product to make the stimulus more natural.

After the TV billboard spot, there was a 5-30 second ad commercial break. Each commercial break consisted of a commercial for Vizio, Bounce, Coffee Mate, and Fresh Step. In a cross-promotion condition, the commercial break consisted of a test brand in the third spot of the sequence. In a single-occurrence condition, the commercial break had a Hyundai commercial in the third spot. The surrounding commercials, like the extra TV billboards, were not the focus of this study and are therefore were chosen for no particular reason besides diversity of category.

After voluntarily agreeing to participate in this study, participants were assigned to one of the four research conditions. First, participants were randomly assigned to one of the contextual similarity conditions (high-fit vs. low-fit). Then, the participants were randomly reassigned to one of the cross-promotion conditions (cross-promotion vs. single-occurrence). All groups consisted of at least 30 participants.

After submitting an informed consent sheet, participants were informed that they will be watching a video clip of an Olympic Hockey game. After viewing the video clip, participants were directed to a computer-based questionnaire that included questions pertaining to the various measures of independent (manipulation check), dependent (recall, recognition, attitude, and

purchase intention), and control (hockey liking) variables. After completing the questionnaire, participants were thanked.

CHAPTER 4. ANALYSIS

I. Data Screening and Assumption Check

Prior to conducting data analysis, a series of data screenings was performed. Data was exported directly into SPSS from Qualtrics, Internet-based survey platform. Once the data was in, a visual screening of the dataset was conducted to make sure if data were input correctly. The data were confirmed to have been properly input and the set consisted of 162 responses. During inspection, however, several missing values were noticed – particularly in the Samsung group with no cross-promotion. After considering whether each response with missing answers to important dependent variables could be used, the researcher decided to delete a total of nine incomplete answers, leaving the new total at 153. This decision was made considering the overall number of primary dependent variable responses, as well as the quality (i.e. someone who did not recall or recognize and answered very few attitude/purchase intention questions).

After cleaning the dataset, this study assessed the internal consistency of major variables. The results showed acceptable ranges of reliability for attitude toward brands ($\alpha > .98$), purchase intention ($\alpha > .97$) and hockey liking/familiarity ($\alpha > .68$).

Then, the data were analyzed to make sure that the assumptions required for an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) were met. The results showed that in almost every condition the range of the minimum and maximum values fell within the accepted range of ± 2~3 standard deviations from the mean. Next, using frequency analyses and charts such as histograms and box-and-whisker plots, the researcher examined the data for the presence of any extreme outliers. The researcher found three extreme outliers in the

attitude toward Samsung, contextually non-fit brand, measurement. After close consideration of the values and the overall size of the dataset, because these few outliers could greatly influence the analysis of the data, the three outliers were deleted from the dataset using the listwise deleting option, leaving the sample size at 150.

Then, the homogeneity of variance was checked. This was done using the *Levene* tests that inspect whether population variances among the dependent variables are the same across all variables. The results generally met this assumption, with the Leven's values of .01 (attitude toward a brand considering contextual fit), 3.16 (attitude toward a brand considering cross-promotion), and .26 (purchase intention of a brand considering cross-promotion). However, the result show that the Leven's value for purchase intention factored by cross-promotion [F (1, 148) = 5.477, $p < .05$] may violate the homogeneity assumption.

Finally, in terms of normality assumption, this study detected nonnormality of dada values, particularly for attitudinal and behavioral measures in the contextual fit and cross promotion conditions. However, with the random assignment of research participants and the sufficient numbers in each condition, this study expect that the minor violations in data normality and homogeneity of variance would not affect the analysis of robust MANCOVA tests.

After the data were considered sufficient to move forward, the researcher gathered overall descriptive statistics. Overall, participants recalled the target brand with a mean of M = .48 (SD = .50). Participants recognized the tested brand with slightly higher regularity (M = .74, SD = .44). Participant's overall attitudes were generally above the median value of 4 (M = 4.78, SD = 1.31). Overall participants reported an intention to purchase of M = 4.39 (SD = 2.01). The one control variable considered in this study was a participant's prior levels of ice hockey liking

and knowledge (AHockey). Participants self-reported AHockey levels were generally low with a mean of $M = 2.22$ ($SD = 1.11$). All figures available in Table 1.

Table 1. Overall Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Min	Max	*M*	*s*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Brand Recall	0	1	.48	.50	.081	-2.02
Brand Recognition	0	1	.74	.44	-1.11	-.79
Attitude Toward Brand	1.6	7	4.7783	1.31	.12	-.64
Purchase Intention	1	7	4.39	2.01	-.31	-1.2
AHockey	1	6	2.22	1.11	1.12	.94

Next, the researcher gathered descriptive statistics by experimental condition, starting with the contextually-fitting, single-occurrence group. Participants in this treatment recalled the brand with a mean of $M = .49$ ($SD = .51$). Participants recognized the brand at a slightly higher rate with a mean of, $M = .73$ ($SD = .45$). Attitudes toward the brand were slightly above the median value of 4 with a mean of $M = 4.48$ ($SD = 1.35$). Finally, participant purchase intention was generally positive with a mean of $M = 5.29$ ($SD = 1.65$). All figures available in Table 2.

The next test group was the contextually fitting brand with cross-promotion. Participants in this condition were able to recall the test brand at an above average rate ($M = .61$, $SD = .49$). Recognition statistics were slightly higher than recall with a mean of $M = .85$ ($SD = .36$). Participant attitudes were higher than in the single-occurrence conditions ($M = 5.29$, $SD = 1.22$). Finally, purchase intentions in this group were again generally high ($M = 5.41$, $SD = 1.57$). All figures available in Table 3.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for a Contextually Fitting Brand with Single-Occurrence

Variable	Min	Max	*M*	*s*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Brand Recall	0	1	.49	.51	.56	-2.11
Brand Recognition	0	1	.73	.45	-1.08	-.89
Attitude Toward Brand	1.6	7	4.48	1.35	.27	.30
Purchase Intention	1	7	5.29	1.65	-.81	-.08

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for a Contextually Fitting Brand with Cross-Promotion

Variable	Min	Max	*M*	*s*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Brand Recall	0	1	.61	.49	.-47	-1.88
Brand Recognition	0	1	.85	.36	-2.08	2.43
Attitude Toward Brand	3	7	5.29	1.22	-.05	1.14
Purchase Intention	1.67	7	5.41	1.57	-1.00	.06

The next group was the no contextual fit, single occurrence condition. Participants recalled the brand less than half of the time (M = .32, SD = .48). However, participants were able to recognize the brand with increased regularity (M = .61, SD = .50). Participant attitudes in this condition were slightly below the median value of 4 (M = 3.99, SD = .87). Participant purchase intention was also slightly below this median value of 4 (M = 3.43, SD = 2.00). All figures available in Table 4.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for Contextually Non-Fitting Brand with Single-Occurrence

Variable	Min	Max	*M*	*s*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Brand Recall	0	1	.32	.48	.80	-1.46
Brand Recognition	0	1	.61	.50	-.49	-1.9
Attitude Toward Brand	2	6	3.99	.87	.06	.47
Purchase Intention	1	7	3.43	2.00	-.04	-1.49

The final test group was the no contextual fit, cross-promotion group. In this condition, participants returned generally low recall scores (M = .46, SD = .51). However, participants were able to recognize the test brand with more regularity (M = .73, SD = .45). participant attitudes were generally positive with a mean of M = 5.14, (SD = 1.32). Finally, participant purchase intention registered slightly below the median value 4 (M = 3.29, SD = 1.85). All figures available in Table 5.

To ensure that statistical analyses should be run, the researcher conducted a manipulation check. Cross-promotion is easily manipulated as it considers whether an extra representation is present or not. Relying on contextual fit as a variable, however, makes it imperative that the manipulation be reliable. Running a simple t-test, the researcher could move on assuming that perceived level of contextual fit could be properly manipulated ($F(148) = 3.936$, $p < .05$).

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for a Contextually Non-Fitting Brand with Cross-Promotion

Variable	Min	Max	*M*	*s*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Brand Recall	0	1	.46	.51	.15	-2.08
Brand Recognition	0	1	.73	.45	-1.09	-.87
Attitude Toward Brand	2.6	7	5.14	1.32	-.30	-.93
Purchase Intention	1	7	3.29	1.85	.67	-.62

II. Analysis Procedure and Results

Using a 2 (contextual fit) X 2 (cross-promotion) factorial design, this study examines the effectiveness of brands promoted on TV billboards. To test effectiveness, means of the dependent variables were compared using a series of MANCOVA and follow up ANOVA tests. To obtain the unique impacts of the two factors (contextual fit and cross-promotion), the researcher controlled for participant's liking and prior knowledge of hockey.

Main Effect of Contextual Fit on the Effectiveness of Brands Promoted during a TV Billboard

To examine the impact of contextual fit on the effectiveness of a brand promoted on a TV billboard, this study conducted a MANCOVA test (See Table 6).

Recall of a brand promoted on a TV billboard

The results show that, although participants recalled the brand that fit the ice hockey context (M = .55, SE = .501) more than the brand that did not fit the ice hockey context (M = .40,

SE = .494), the difference was not statistically significant $F(1, 145) = 3.715$, $p > .05$. Thus, H1a was not supported.

Recognition of a brand promoted on a TV billboard

Similar to recall, participants recognized the contextually fitting brand (*M* = .79, *SE* = .406) more than the brand that did not fit the context (*M* = .68, *SE* = .470). The result, however, was once again statistically insignificant, $F(1, 145) = 2.796$, $p > .05$. Thus, the results failed to support H1b.

Attitude toward a brand promoted on a TV billboard

This study hypothesized that participants would show more favorable attitudes toward a brand in a TV billboard when the brand fit the context of the program. However, although participants did show a more positive attitude toward the contextually fitting brand (*M* = 4.91, *SE* = 1.34) than they did toward non-fitting brand (*M* = 4.64, *SE* = 1.27), the difference was not statistically significant $F(1, 145) = 2.504$, $p > .05$. Thus, H1c was not supported.

Purchase intention toward a brand promoted on a TV billboard

Regarding purchase intention, participants showed a significant difference in favor of the contextually fitting brand (*M* = 5.35, *SE* = 1.60) over the contextually non-fitting brand (*M* = 3.35, *SE* = 1.90), $F(1, 145) = 47.768$, $p < .001$. Thus, H1d was supported.

Table 6. Main Effect of Contextual Fit on brand promoted in a TV Billboard

Variable	Fit Mean (*SE*)	No-Fit Mean (*SE*)	Mean Square	*F*-value	Partial η^2
Brand Recall	.55 (.50)	.40 (.49)	.92	3.72	.03
Brand Recognition	.79 (.41)	.68 (.47)	.54	2.80	.02
Attitude Toward Brand	4.91 (1.34)	4.64 (1.27)	3.75	2.50	.02
Purchase Intention***	5.35 (1.60)	3.35 (1.90)	148.18	47.77	.25

***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$

Main Effects of Cross-Promotion on the Effectiveness of Brands Promoted on TV Billboards

To test the effectiveness of cross-promotion on brands promoted on TV billboards, this study conducted a MANCOVA test. See Table 7.

Recall of a brand promoted on a TV billboard

The results show that participants do recall cross-promoted brands ($M = .54$, $SE = .50$) at a higher rate than single-occurrence brands ($M = .41$, $SE = .50$), but these findings are statistically insignificant $F(1, 145) = 2.660$, $p > .05$. Thus, the results do not support H2a.

Recognition of a brand promoted on a TV billboard

Similar to the recall results, participants were able to recognize cross-promoted brands ($M = .79$, $SE = .41$) more than single-occurrence brands ($M = .68$, $SE = .47$). These results, however, were again statistically insignificant, $F(1, 145) = 2.869$, $p > .05$. Thus, H2b was not supported.

Attitude toward a brand promoted on a TV billboard

The researcher hypothesized that cross-promotion would return more positive attitudes over singles occurrence. In these conditions, participants did report more favorable attitudes toward cross-promoted ($M = 5.21$, $SE = 1.26$) over single-occurrence brands ($M = 4.25$, $SE = 1.74$), and the results were statistically significant, $F(1, 145) = 23.746$, $p < .001$. Thus, H2c was supported.

Purchase intention toward a brand promoted on a TV billboard

In the purchase intention measurement, brands that were cross-promoted had a slightly lower purchase intention score ($M = 4.35$, $SE = 2.01$) than single-occurrence brands ($M = 4.44$, $SE = 2.03$). These results, however, were not statistically significant, $F(1, 145) = .000$, $p > .05$. Thus, H2d was supported.

Table 7. Main Effect of Cross-Promotion on brand promoted in a TV Billboard

Variable	CP Mean (*SE*)	No-CP Mean (*SE*)	Mean Square	*F*-value	Partial η^2
Brand Recall	.54 (.50)	.41 (.50)	.66	2.66	.02
Brand Recognition	.79 (.41)	.68 (.47)	.55	2.87	.02
Attitude Toward Brand***	5.21 (1.26)	4.25 (1.17)	35.56	23.75	.14
Purchase Intention	4.35 (2.01)	4.44 (2.03)	.00	.00	.00

***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$

Interaction of Cross-Promotion and Contextual Fit on the Effectiveness of Brands Promoted on TV Billboards

RQ1 is concerned with the interaction effects of cross-promotion and contextual fit. To test these interactions, the researcher conducted a MANCOVA (Table 8).

Interaction of contextual fit and cross-promotion effect on recall

When the brand was cross-promoted, participants recalled the contextually fitting brand (M = .61, SE = .08) at a slightly higher rate than the non-fitting brand (M=.47, SE =.08), but the results was statistically insignificant, $F(1, 145) = 1.687$, $p > .05$. In single-occurrence conditions there was a slightly higher, but still insignificant result in the contextually fitting brand (M = .49, SE = .08) over the non-fitting brand (M = .32, SE = .09), $F(1, 145) = 1.990$, $p > .05$. See Chart 1.

Interaction of contextual fit and cross-promotion effect on recognition

Testing for recognition, fit brand conditions that were cross-promoted (M = .85, SE = .07) returned a slightly higher mean than non-fit brand conditions (M = .73, SE = .07). The results, however, were statistically insignificant, $F(1, 145) = 1.545$, $p > .05$. Single-occurrence conditions returned similar results as participants recognized the contextually fitting brand (M = .73, SE = .077) at a slightly higher, but statistically insignificant rate over the non-fitting brand (M = .61, SE = .08), $F(1, 145) = 1.254$, $p > .05$. See Chart 2.

Chart 1. Interaction of Contextual Fit and Cross-Promotion Effect on Recall

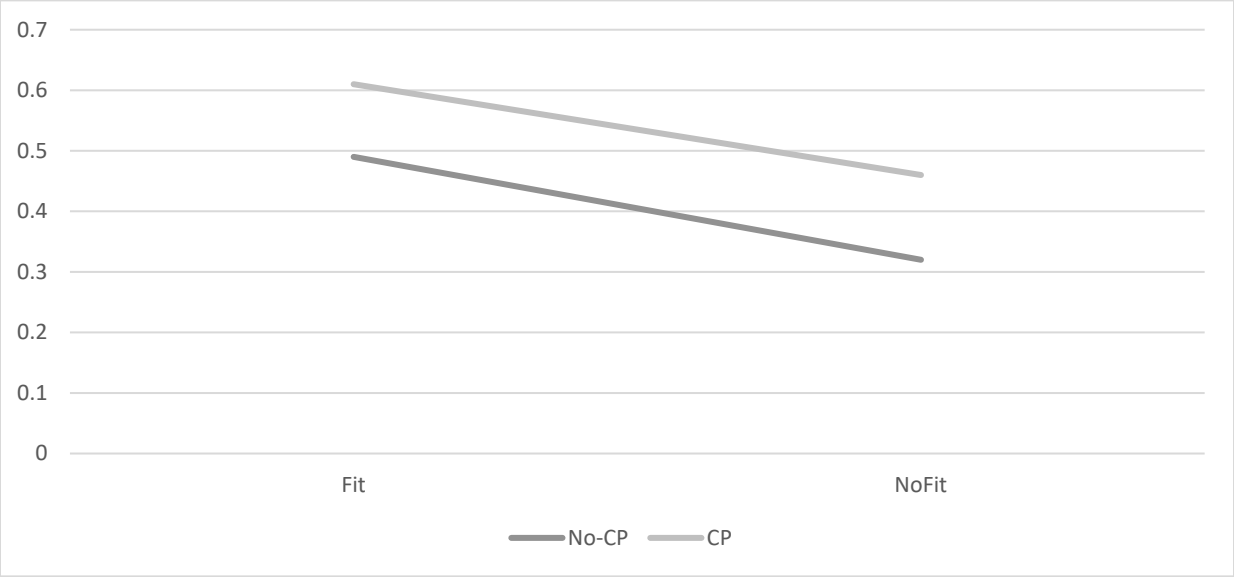
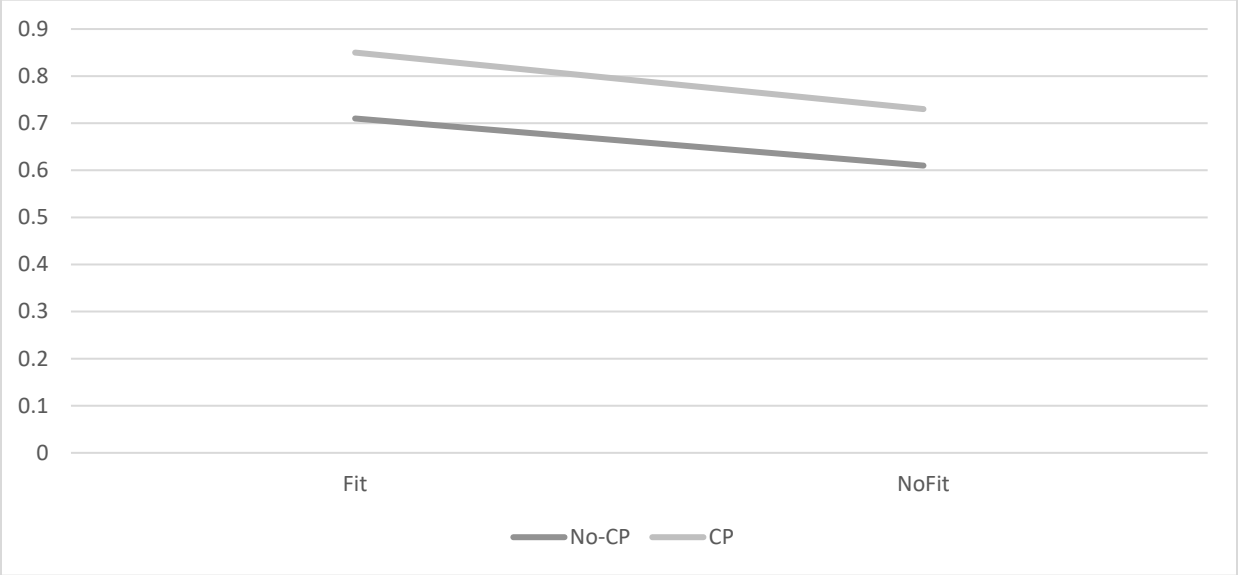


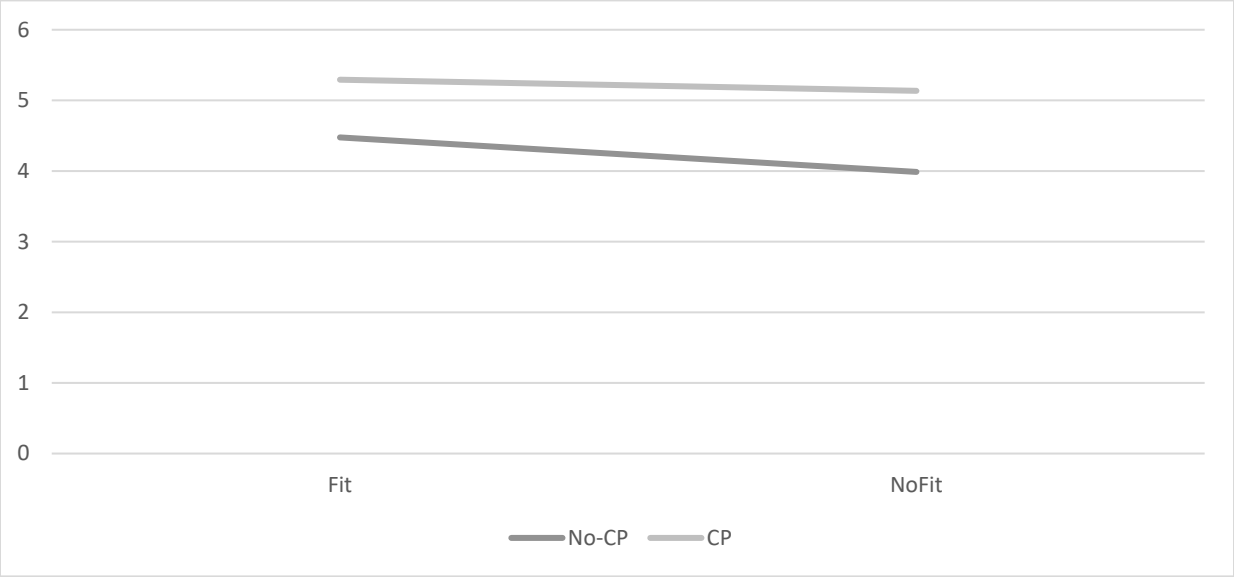
Chart 2. Interaction of Contextual Fit and Cross-Promotion Effect on Recognition



Interaction of contextual fit and cross-promotion effect on attitude

Testing for cross promotion effects on attitude, attitudes toward the fitting brand (M = 5.29, SE = .19) were slightly more positive than toward the non-fitting brand (M = 5.13, SE = .19). These results, however, were statistically insignificant, $F(1, 145) = .355$, $p > .05$. In single-occurrence conditions, attitudes toward the fit brand (M = 4.47, SE = .20) were once again slightly higher, but statistically insignificant than they were to the non-fit brand (M = 3.99, SE = .22), $F(1, 145) = 2.497$, $p > .05$. See Chart 3.

Chart 3. Interaction of Contextual Fit and Cross-Promotion Effect on Attitude



Interaction of contextual fit and cross-promotion effect on purchase intention

The interaction of cross-promotion with contextual fit returned encouraging results on customer purchase intention. In cross-promotion conditions, customers reported a statistically significant higher purchase intention toward the contextually fitting brand (M = 5.40, SE = .28) over the non-fitting brand (M = 3.39, SE = .32), $F(1, 145) = 28.776$, $p < .001$. Similarly, in single-occurrence conditions, customers reported a higher purchase intention for the fit brand (M

= 5.31, *SE* = .29) over the non-fitting brand (*M* = 3.39, *SE* = .32), *F*(1, 145) = 19.583, p < .001. See Chart 4.

Chart 4. Interaction of Contextual Fit and Cross-Promotion Effect on Purchase Intention

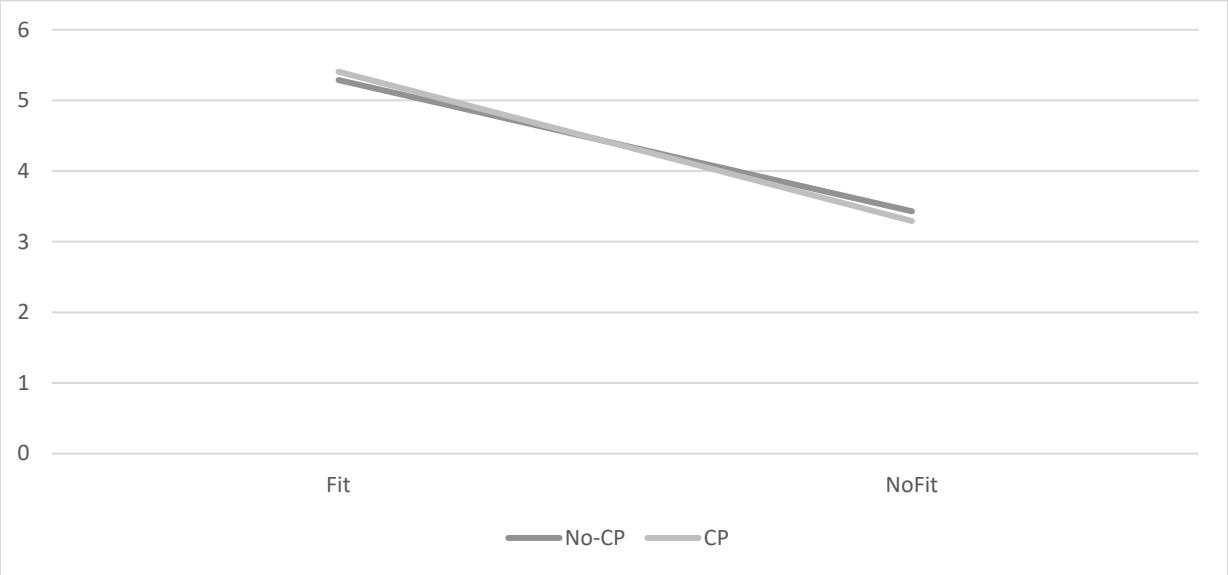


Table 8. Interaction Effect of Contextual Fit and Cross-Promotion on TV Billboards

Variable	Cross-Promotion	Adidas Mean (*SE*)	Samsung Mean (*SE*)	Mean Square	*F*-value	Partial η^2
Brand Recall	Yes	.61 (.08)	.47 (.08)	.42	1.69	.01
	No	.49 (.08)	.32 (.09)	.49	1.99	.01
Brand Recognition	Yes	.85 (.07)	.73 (.07)	.30	1.55	.01
	No	.73 (.07)	.61 (.08)	.24	1.25	.01
Attitude Toward Brand	Yes	5.23 (.19)	5.13 (.19)	.53	.36	.00
	No	4.47 (.20)	4.00 (.22)	3.74	2.50	.02
Purchase Intention	Yes***	5.40 (.28)	3.31 (.28)	89.27	28.78	.17
	No***	5.31 (.29)	3.40 (.32)	60.75	19.58	.12

***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

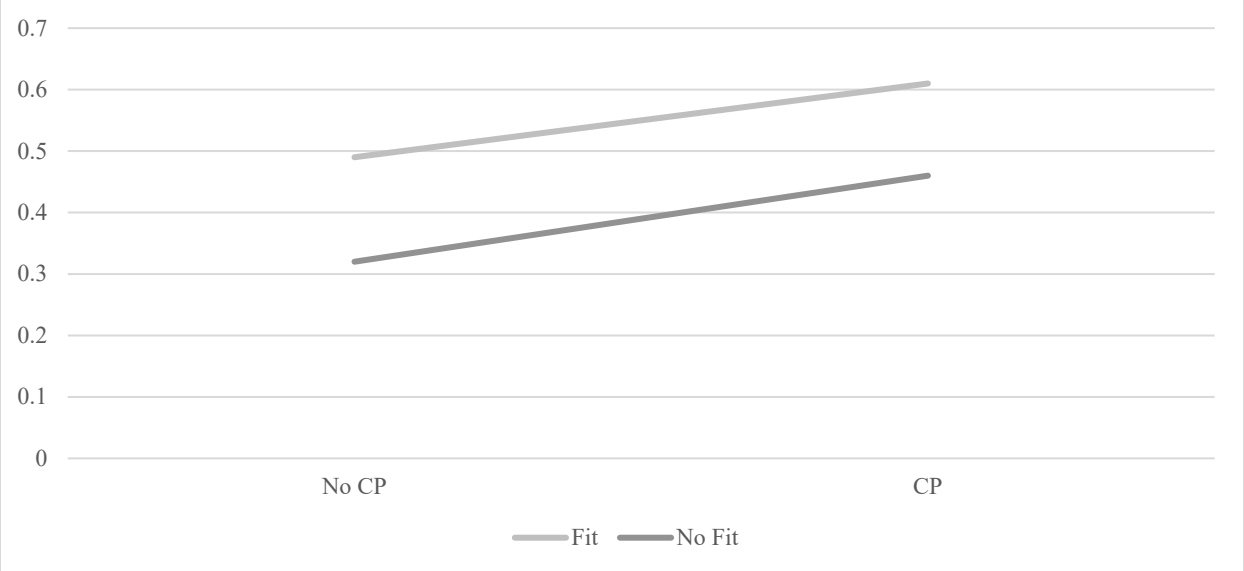
Interaction of Contextual Fit and Cross-Promotion on the Effectiveness of Brands Promoted on TV Billboards

RQ2 addresses the effect of contextual fit on cross-promotion. To test these interactions, the researcher conducted a MANCOVA test. See Table 9.

Interaction of cross-promotion and contextual fit effect on recall

Considering recall, in conditions where the brand fit the context, participants recalled the cross-promoted condition (M = .61, SE = .08) at a slightly higher, but statistically insignificant rate than single-occurrence conditions (M = .49, SE = .08), $F(1,145) = 1.092$, $p > .05$. In conditions where the brand did not fit the context, cross-promotion caused a slightly higher recall (M = .47, SE = .08), than single-occurrence conditions (M = .32, SE = .08), but the results were also statistically insignificant, $F(1, 145) = 1.544$, $p > .05$. See Chart 5.

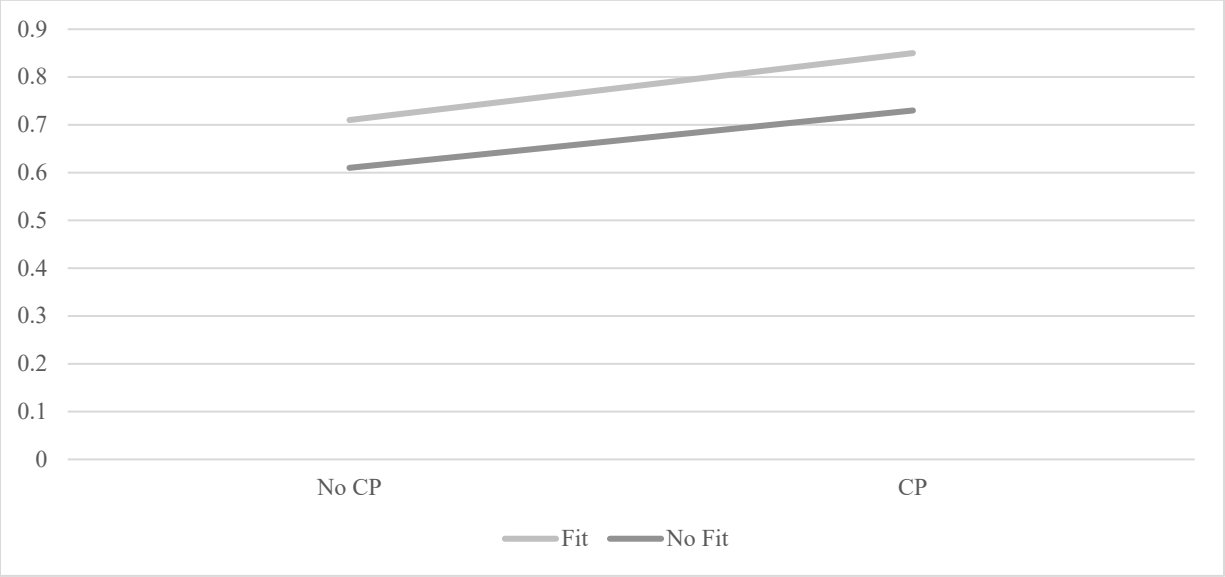
Chart 5. Interaction of Cross-Promotion and Contextual Fit Effect on Recall



Interaction of cross-promotion and contextual fit effect on recognition

Analyzing brand recognition, cross-promoting a contextually fit brand (M = .853, SE = .07) resulted in slightly higher recognition rates of singularly-occurring contextually fit brands (M = .73, SE = .07), but the result was statistically insignificant, $F(1, 145) = 1.491$, $p > .05$. Cross promoting a non-fitting brand also resulted in slightly higher recognition (M = .73, SE = .07) than not cross-promoting a non-fitting brand (M = .61, SE = .08). The results, however, were statistically insignificant. $F(1, 145) = 1.35$, $p > .05$. See Chart 6.

Chart 6. Interaction of Cross-Promotion and Contextual Fit Effect on Recognition

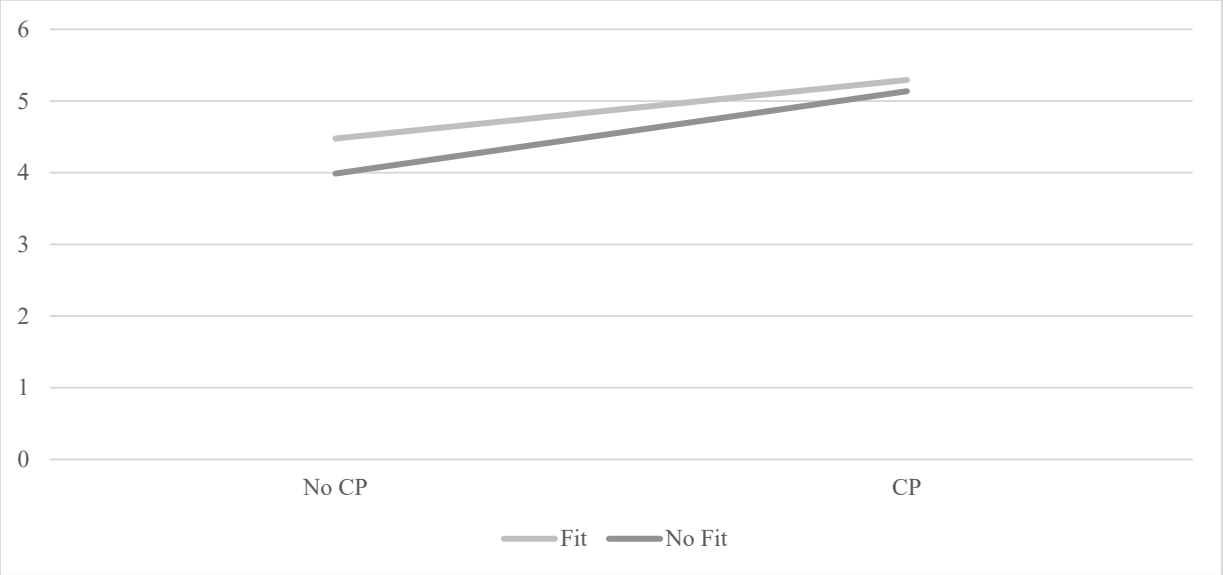


Interaction of cross-promotion and contextual fit effect on attitude

Considering attitude toward a brand, cross promotion had statistically significant effects on both fitting and non-fitting brands. In conditions where the brand fit the context, cross-promotion (M = 5.29, SE = .19) resulted in significantly higher means than single-occurrence (M = 4.47, SE = .20), $F(1, 145) = 8.725$, $p < .001$. Similarly, in conditions where the brand did not

fit the context, cross promotion (M = 5.13, SE = .19) returned significantly higher results over single-occurrence (M = 3.99, SE = .22), $F(1, 145) = 14.994$, $p < .001$. See Chart 7.

Chart 7. Interaction of Cross-Promotion and Contextual Fit Effect on Attitude



Interaction of cross-promotion and contextual fit effect on purchase intention

Cross-promotion had interesting effects on contextual fit considering purchase intention. For the contextually fit brand, participants exposed to cross-promotion conditions (M = 5.40, SE = .28) had slightly higher, but statistically insignificant purchase intentions to those in single-occurrence conditions (M = 5.31, SE = .29), $F(1, 145) = .833$, $p > .05$. Interestingly, purchase intention of the non-fitting brand was slightly lower when the brand was cross-promoted (M = 3.31, SE = .28) than when the brand appeared only in a TV billboard (M = 3.39, SE = .32). The result, however, was statistically insignificant, $F(1, 145) = .844$, $p > .05$. See Chart 8.

Chart 8. Interaction of Cross-Promotion and Contextual Fit Effect on Purchase Intention

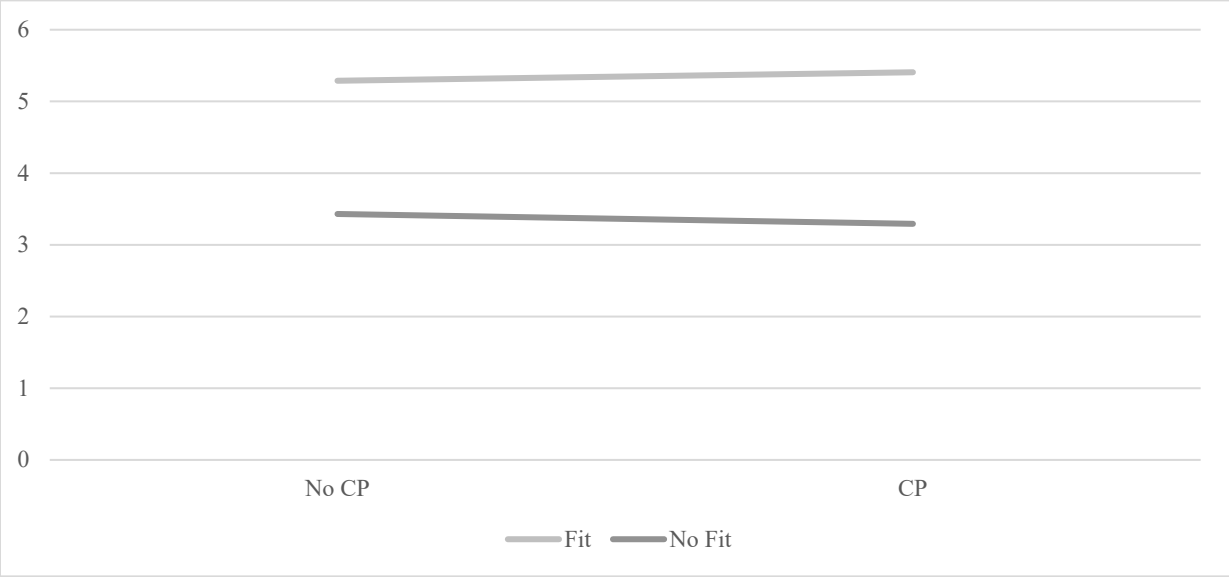


Table 9. Interaction of Cross-Promotion and Contextual Fit Effect on TV Billboards

Variable	Context Fit	CP Mean (*SE*)	No-CP Mean (*SE*)	Mean Square	*F*-value	Partial η^2
Brand Recall	Adidas	.61 (.08)	.49 (.08)	.27	1.09	.01
	Samsung	.47 (.08)	.32 (.08)	.38	1.54	.01
Brand Recognition	Adidas	.85 (.07)	.73 (.07)	.29	1.49	.01
	Samsung	.73 (.07)	.61 (.08)	.26	1.35	.01
Attitude Toward Brand	Adidas**	5.29 (.19)	4.47 (.20)	13.06	8.73	.06
	Samsung***	5.13 (.19)	3.99 (.22)	22.45	14.99	.09
Purchase Intention	Adidas	5.40 (.28)	5.31 (.29)	.14	.04	.00
	Samsung	3.31 (.28)	3.39 (.32)	.12	.04	.00

***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION

This study examined the role of ad factors on the effectiveness of brands promoted in TV billboards. What was found is that neither contextual fit, nor cross-promotion had any substantial effect on two cognitive measures, brand recall and brand recognition. There was, however, a main effect of contextual fit between the brand promoted and an ice hockey broadcast on purchase intention as well as a main effect of cross-promotion on attitude toward the brand promoted. All findings were reinforced or reaffirmed in interaction tests. When the brand (Adidas)'s in a TV billboard fits the context (ice hockey TV program), purchase intention was significantly higher than when the perception of the brand (Samsung) does not fit the context. This was the case regardless of whether the brand was promoted once or cross-promoted. When the brand was cross-promoted, the attitude toward the brand was more positive than when the brand displayed only on a TV billboard. This effect took place whether the brand fit the context of the ice hockey program, or it did not.

I. The Impacts of Contextual Fit on the Effectiveness of Brands Promoted in TV Billboards

Context is unavoidable, it is a common and often unconscious consideration when encountering any information. It plays a crucial role in developing a relevant framework for information processing (Tourangeau & Rasinski, 1988). In terms of brand recall and recognition, MANCOVA results showed differences between brands in contextually fitting and non-fitting situations were present, but not statistically significant. These results did not support the researcher's hypotheses but can be explained using a similar theoretical foundation the

researcher used to develop the hypotheses. When audiences evaluate a stimulus related to context, context helps to develop categories so that information can be easily distinguished and distributed among the various categories (Herr, 1989). Accordingly, there is a categorical distinction between a sports relevant brand, Adidas, and an electronics brand, Samsung. How people make the connection between the sports relevant brand and the ice hockey broadcast is easy to understand. In such cases, people use the top of the *storage bin* (Yi, 1990a, 1990b, 1993) to make a logical connection between a brand and an event. This storage bin, however, is also a consideration in understanding how audiences categorize brands that do not immediately fit the context.

Concerning a non-fitting brand, it is important to consider the role of prior knowledge. More particularly, it is important to consider the concept of brand familiarity. When audiences are exposed to an ad for a familiar brand, they carry into the evaluation prior knowledge associated with the brand (Snyder & Stukas, 1999). Therefore, when audiences evaluate brands under these circumstances, the processing of the information tends to take on a less extensive, more confirmation-based approach (Keller, 1991; MacKenzie & Spreng, 1992). Thus, personal brand familiarity or brand loyalty helps to develop a special and traceable connection between a non-fitting brand and an ice hockey game (Bettman & Sujan, 1987). Hence, people's familiarity with the two brands likely encouraged more confirmation-based processing for the two resulting in small differences that were not statistically significant.

This subtle play of context still has resounding effects on the non-fitting brand. Thus, there are similar pathways established between the context and fitting information (Adidas) as well as the context and non-fitting information (Samsung) (Bettman & Sujan, 1987; Herr, 1989).

In terms of attitude toward a brand promoted in a TV billboard, this study hypothesized that contextual fit between a TV program and a brand would have a positive effect on consumer attitude toward a brand. However, the analysis shows that participant's attitudes were not significantly different between the a fit brand and a non-fit, suggesting there are similar processes taking place when participants are forming attitudes toward a brand whether it fits or does not fit the context. Context provides the relevant framework for information processing (Tourangeau & Rasinski, 1988), but there is still the consideration of prior knowledge and brand familiarity. People bring relevant prior knowledge and personal levels of familiarity when considering the two brands. Familiarity encourages confirmation-based processing of the brands alongside the context (Keller, 1991; MacKenzie & Spreng, 1992). Engaging in a confirmation-based processing results in a low effect of context on attitude.

Herr (1989) explains a similar concept in the consideration of prior knowledge and *expert groups*. In expert groups, Herr (1989) noticed that the context had a less drastic effect on participant evaluations of an ad. The expert does not readily engage in a deep evaluation of a product. Instead, there is a more superficial evaluation of the brand that results in a lower effect of context. Therefore, as *experts* with high brand familiarity, it is likely that people were not quick to prime the sports brand in the context of hockey because the context was not a deep consideration. Similarly, it is likely that people were not quick to consider the disconnect of fit between a non-fitting brand and an ice hockey broadcast.

Another explanation could be the regularity of viewership by the participants. It is possible that the research participants' generally low rate of hockey viewership lead to a non-hypothesized evaluation for a fitting and non-fitting brand. The other end of the expert consideration (Herr, 1989) is a group with low prior knowledge. In these groups, audiences

struggle to make connections between a context and the brand. Therefore, a lack of prior knowledge and familiarity with hockey leaves the direct connection between hockey and Adidas to be desired. If people lack relevant prior knowledge and familiarity to make the strong connection between the ice hockey game and the fitting brand, then both the fitting and the non-fitting brand are evaluated without this distinction.

Interestingly, this study found a significant difference between a contextually fitting brand and a contextually non-fitting brand in the purchase intention measure. Yang and Unnava (2016) suggest the possibility that, considering contextual effects on purchase intention, it is not necessary to have consumer attitude as a correlate. The study approaches the concern as a matter of consumer ambivalence, or, indecisiveness. When people have low-levels of ambivalence toward a brand, they feel either overwhelmingly positive or negative toward a brand. In these cases, feelings are set and can be a good indicator of whether the person would consider purchasing a product in the future. When people are indecisive about their feelings toward a brand, namely not overly negative or positive, the context can act as a necessary prime to spark a purchase intention (Yang & Unnava, 2016).

These findings are particularly interesting to this study considering the attitude means toward the contextually fitting and non-fitting brand; 4.90 and 4.64, respectively. With four denoting a neutral attitude, the mean scores rank right around this level of neutrality. Therefore, in general, participants did not feel particularly negatively or positively toward either brand. In cases such as these, the salience of the context comes through to affect peoples' behavioral likelihoods without necessarily influencing an emotional response. Particularly, even when prior knowledge of ice hockey is low, there is still an effect of a sport being played and the fit brand's connection to sports.

Another way to understand this difference is that the context surrounding something can affect the mapping of peoples' *decision rules* (Herr, 1989). A main consideration in Herr's (1989) conclusion is that, when considering purchase intention, the concept of the item or brand must be relevant to the task associated with the context. In the contextually fitting condition, the concept of Adidas is more relevant to the ice hockey context. This conceptual linearity becomes present in peoples' heads and can affect the purchase intention surrounding a product. The effects on the non-fitting brand discussed previously place it on similar ground to the contextually fitting brand in the categories of cognitive recall and recognition, as well as attitude toward the brand. However, when considering purchase intention, the lack of contextual fit between the brand and the ice hockey broadcast finally causes a difference in consideration.

II. The Impacts of Cross-Promotion on the Effectiveness of Brands Promoted in TV Billboards

This study hypothesized that a brand promoted in a TV billboard that is also cross-promoted in a TV commercial would be more regularly recalled and recognized than single-occurrence brands presented only on a TV billboard. In a cross-promotion instance, an consumers are given more time to evaluate and familiarize themselves with a brand (Cacioppo & Petty, 1979, 1989). For this reason, it seems logical that a consumer would have a better memory for brands in a cross-promotion setting. Every time a brand displays, it grants and audience an extra chance to store the brand information more concretely. The results did show very slight differences between single-occurrence and cross-promotion treatments in favor of cross-promotion, however, the differences were not statistically significant.

Something to consider in a cross-promotional situation is that sometimes the space between the brand representations can alter the theorized effect on recall and recognition. Space between the repetitions may serve as redundant (cognitive) noise (Clark, & Shiffrin, 1987; Murnane, & Shiffrin, 1991). The redundant noise can have the effect of a cognitive reset, causing the brands to be evaluated separately rather than as part of the same group. Basically, the initial interaction with the brand in the TV billboard and subsequent storage of brand information occurs on its own logical pathway. Then, after exposure to the redundant noise caused by the promotion of other brands, the consumer encounters the brand again. The result is that this second encounter encourages a similar process to the first encounter. The brand information is again situated by a cognitive mapping. It is, however, a remapping to the same category rather than a reinforcement of the previous map. Therefore, rather than strengthening a cognitive pathway which could lead to better recall and recognition, participants reconstruct a similar pathway, leading to negligibly better results (Clark, & Shiffrin, 1987; Murnane, & Shiffrin, 1991).

The presence of this cognitive noise (e.g. commercial and other TV billboards) can cause what was considered a cross-promotion occurrence to function more like two single-occurrence representations. In terms of recall and recognition, this can have damaging effects, but this understanding is not to say that this noise has the same effect on attitude. People are in fact interacting more – as theory on repetition effects suggests – but the cognitive effect is negligible because it is basically the same cognitive input done again. This is an important distinction considering the attitude effect of cross-promotion.

Interestingly, in fact, attitudes toward the brand were significantly higher when the brand experienced cross-promotion via a TV billboard and TV commercial than in single-occurrence

conditions. In cross-promotion conditions, consumers are allotted the valuable extra time to familiarize themselves with the brand (Campbell & Keller, 2003; Cox & Cox, 1988). The extra time to interact encourages consumers to make more in-depth judgements concerning the brand (Cacioppo & Petty, 1979, 1989), which leads to more positive attitudes toward the brand. Considering the cognitive noise effect on cognitive recall and recognition, this deeper consideration is happening as people are remapping the information. Therefore, though people make a similar cognitive map and it did not significantly affect things like recall, this extra time spent remapping the information serves as valuable, intimate time spent with the brand message.

Another consideration of cross-promotion on attitude is the overexposure effect (Anand & Sternthal, 1990; Cacioppo & Petty, 1989; Lehnert, Till, & Carlson, 2013). It seems likely that the nature of the cross-promotion condition tested in this experiment avoided the problems present in this concern. People were not over-exposed and instead were given ample, desirable time to consider the brands more deeply. This could also be a product of the redundant noise consideration. It would be interesting to consider whether it is more difficult to reach a level of tedium (Anand & Sternthal, 1990; Cacioppo & Petty, 1989; Lehnert, Till, & Carlson, 2013) when each evaluation seems new.

What is more interesting in the cross-promotion conditions, however, is that the more positive attitude evaluations did not translate to a purchase intention. Petersen and Dutton (1975) suggest subtle reasons for the disconnect between attitude and purchase intention that were not considered in the stimulus for this experiment. According to Peterson and Dutton (1975) attitude cannot be considered equal when trying to predict behavioral patterns based on attitude reports. These considerations are attitude extremity (or, the favorableness or unfavorableness of an attitude), attitude intensity (or, the strength of conviction in which attitudes are held), and

attitude centrality. This last consideration is the most important to the findings of this study. Considered regularly as a defining property of the relationship between a person and the object of interest to, centrality addresses how much reported attitudes relate to other attitudes, beliefs, or values held by the participant. The centrality of a brand to people can affect the extremity and intensity of an attitude. It is likely that there was a lack of centrality of these brands which allowed for a fluctuation in attitudes based on cross-promotion.

Accordingly, it is also this lack of centrality that leaves attitudes never physically realized. Considering repetition as the main effect, the contextual prime that resulted in purchase intention does not shine through. Instead, repetition simply allows for a slightly more positive disposition toward a brand. Essentially, while people are evaluating a cross-promoted brand more positively, these positive evaluations lack centrality to the participants and therefore the attitudes are likely low in extremity and intensity.

III. Interaction Impacts Between Contextual Fit and Cross-Promotion on the Effectiveness of Brands Promoted in TV Billboards

It seems important to consider the lack of a repetition effect alongside the consideration of context. This is particularly stronger when considering the lack of significant findings influencing recall or recognition in this study's interaction tests. Considering the impact of brand familiarity and the tendency for confirmation-based processing discussed concerning contextual fit, the cognitive noise considerations in cross-promotion conditions do not seem likely to significantly affect this process.

What is arguably the greatest benefit of repetition – the opportunity for prolonged interaction with a message or brand – therefore becomes just another round to confirm ideas

already surrounding a brand. If people already have internalized ideas regarding a brand based on familiarity, this extra time and opportunity becomes an unnecessary variable considering an ability to recall or recognize a brand.

In this understanding it is important to note that, for reasons explained in the discussion on cross-promotion, the context and relevant fit of a brand to that context are the main consideration in the interaction's effect on recall and recognition. People are exposed numerous times, but with cognitive noise in between, the context and brand are used to make the connection the second time separate from the first. If participants receive both promotions independently, the single representation will be nearly just as effective as the double representation. Compounding reasons considered for both contextual fit and cross-promotion, it is logical that no statistically significant effect was noticed for recall or recognition when the two interacted.

Contextual fit affected purchase intention whether the TV billboard presented alone, or it was cross-promoted with an accompanying commercial. There was, however, no significant effect on attitude. Interactions flowing the other way show that cross promotion vs. single-occurrence is an important determining factor influencing consumer attitudes toward a brand. Regardless of whether a brand fit the context or it did not, if it was cross-promoted, people had generally more positive attitudes toward the brand. Cross-promotion, however, did not have any significant effect on purchase intention.

These findings can be explained using main effect logic as well. Context influences purchase intention. When participants' attitudes were not particularly positive or negative, the context pushed through the ambivalent attitudes to cause affect purchase intention (Yang & Unnava, 2016). It is likely that the context allowed for a tangible connection between the sport

being played and the sports-relevant brand promoted. Similar to the main effect consideration, there was not an easily connectible consideration in the non-fitting condition. It is also likely that as connection are made, a cross-promotion condition allows more time to make the necessary connection or confirm that there is no connection. Essentially, cross-promotion does not affect the processing undergone by participants, it simply allows more time for people to arrive at their purchase intention decision.

However, the interaction of cross-promotion on contextual fit did allow for more positive attitudes. There is likely a similar explanation to the main effect of cross-promotion. There is more time allotted for brand interaction in a cross-promotional settings. However, when interacting with other things, like brand familiarity – which encourages confirmation-based processing – the extended exposure leads to the predictable effects considering cross-promotion. Cross-promotion allows people more time to confirm attitudes toward brands. Brand familiarity considerations posit that people come in with prior knowledge and experience, which have previously established attitudes toward a brand. With this in mind, people are simply given more time to confirm these attitudes when the brand is promoted more than once.

Considering the way main effects take place in this experiment, it is understandable that the independent variables interacted in the way they did. The contextual effect on ambivalent attitudes resulted in a higher purchase intention for a contextually fitting brand whether the brand was promoted once or twice. Similarly, brand familiarity and redundant noise caused attitudes to be affected in cross-promotion conditions whether the brand fit the ice hockey context, or it did not.

IV. Implications

The findings of this study carry several theoretical implications. First, the study found a direct connection between contextual fit and purchase intention. This finding suggests that context can act as a behavioral cue in audience evaluation of a brand. This is important because most literature considers context as a cognitive evaluation tool, manipulating context to prime attention and affect attitudes. The findings in this study, however, suggest that simple contextual congruence may affect peoples' willingness to make a purchase. There can, perhaps, be more effort put into understanding how much of an effect simple context can have on encouraging behavior.

There is also the consideration of attitude change depending on if a brand is cross-promoted or not. These findings fit well in the understanding of information repetition. Consumers were allowed more time to evaluate and returned more positive attitude evaluations toward brands. The theoretical implication here is that there is a similar effect of repetition even when the message is not singular. Multiple brand exposures, therefore, can affect evaluations by varying representations.

An important methodological implication from this study is the use of an Olympic hockey game. Most participants did not return highly positive attitudes or familiarity toward hockey. This is something to consider because there were still significant results on both purchase intention and attitude depending on the treatment. It may be beneficial for future research to use stimuli that are not incredibly exciting as it may elicit more genuine reactions and produce genuine results. Also, especially with sports, it is not uncommon for people to be exposed to something they do not immediately like or understand – it is important to know how people are evaluating brands and commercials in contexts they do not appreciate.

Practical implications of this study include where and how companies should consider placing their brands. It may be futile to promote a brand in a context that the brand does not fit if trying to promote purchase intention. However, if a brand is new and is trying to grow an affinity for the brand, it may be beneficial to place multiple and varied brand promotions. Particularly interesting is the ability to positively affect attitudes even when the brand does not fit the context. The overall takeaway, practically, is that cross-promotion can build positive attitudes toward a brand. But practitioners should be wary as there is the possibility, though insignificant, that repeated exposure using cross-promotional techniques lowers purchase intention.

V. Limitations and Future Research

There are a couple of limitations inherent to the study that are worth noting. First, the video was short. At just over 8 minutes and 20 seconds in length, it is possible that theorized effects on variables like recall and recognition were not given a chance to take an effect. This is a consideration again concerning the amount of brands presented in the stimulus. Depending on the condition, participants were exposed to at least 8 and at most 9 brands. Therefore, the most a participant could have been exposed to does not exceed the magical number for cognitive capacity – 7 items plus or minus 2 (Miller, 1956). This capacity concerns how many things people can process cognitively at one time. The researcher does not assume that participants are only reserving cognitive space for brands in the stimulus, but future study could benefit from longer stimulus with more brands present.

Another limitation to the study is the sampling method. The researcher used a convenience sampling method consisting mostly of undergraduate students. This fact greatly

brings into question the potential generalizability of the findings. Further reducing the generalizability is that most of these students came from a single school of study (Mass Communication). It could be interesting in future study to use a more general population, even with the confounds of a university. It is possible that diversifying the study sample, even among academic disciplines, could yield considerably different results.

Another limitation to consider is the sport chosen for the stimuli. While hockey may be a valuable sport to use for this study, it could also restrict the findings. Hockey is not an immediately liked or understood game, especially in the southern United States where this research was conducted. The use of such a sport could have led participants to evaluate brands unnaturally. Future research could consider this and present a similar study in the context of a different sport.

One more thing to consider along the same lines as the broadcast choice, the brands chosen may act as a limitation. Adidas and Samsung were chosen strategically for their easy recognizability and contrasting production lines. Ultimately, however, their recognizability may cause other issues, issues noticed in a lack of recall and recognition effects. Perhaps it would be good for future research to use out of the ordinary brands. This could pose its own challenges, however, if considering brand fit. If people do not immediately know a brand, it would be hard for them to determine how well it fits. There are ways to address this issue. Ultimately it may come down to perception.

Outside of the limitations, future research should re-test the unsupported hypotheses in this study. Even a simple replication of this study could help to confirm the interplay of context and cross-promotion on brand evaluation. This would be particularly true in a sports context as

not much research places treatments in such contexts. This context should be addressed considering the potential for advertising in sports.

It would be beneficial to see these effects tested in other contexts (i.e. sitcoms, dramatic, and news programming). Along these same lines, it would be beneficial to test the effects of TV billboards in other broadcast types (TV, streaming, live, etc.). An increase in repetition could further the understanding of these findings as well. This study only looked at the effects of a single cross-promotion in a single commercial break. It is possible that these effects are entirely different when things spread out across the course of an entire program when there are many more commercial breaks.

Also, it could help to test effects in a more natural setting. This study had people watch a video in an online survey. It would be interesting to test these same variables on participants in a more natural area and using a television. A test such as this could return significantly different results as the environment surrounding a viewing experience can greatly affect people's interaction with the program and surrounding information.

An interesting finding in this study, that should be further examined, is the interaction effect of cross-promotion and purchase intention. Overall, cross-promotion's effect on purchase intention (M = 4.35, SE = 2.01) was slightly lower than when a brand was not cross-promoted (M = 4.44, SE = 2.03). There was a similar, but contextually dependent effect of cross-promotion in the interaction groups. Intuitively, cross-promotion led to a slightly higher intention to purchase in contextually fitting conditions. There was, however, an opposite effect in low-fit conditions. Although neither conditions (fit and non-fit) were statistically significant, the mean for single-occurrence conditions (M = 3.39, SE = .32) was slightly higher than the mean for cross-promoted material (M = 3.31, SE = .28). Maybe the contextual dissimilarity causes the

consumer to realize the inherent commercial nature of the TV billboard. This effect may be strengthened when the brand is cross-promoted, and consumers are allowed more time to identify the commercial interest of the brand.

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APPENDIX A. SURVEY QUESTIONS

How much did you enjoy the game broadcast?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Not at all	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	A great deal

Have you watched this game before?

○ Yes (1)

○ No (2)

Page Break

How knowledgeable are you about hockey?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Not familiar	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Very familiar

How much of a fan of hockey are you?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Not at all	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Very much

Regularity of viewing.

	Never (1)	1-3 times a month (2)	4-6 times a month (3)	7-9 times a month (4)	10+ time a month (5)
How often do you watch hockey during the National Hockey League season (October - April)? (1)	○	○	○	○	○

Page Break

Please list all of the brands you remember seeing during the broadcast.

_____

Page Break

Please do not return to previous questions to fix your answers.

Please check all of the brands you remember seeing during the broadcast.

- [ ] Adidas (1)
- [ ] State Farm (2)
- [ ] Cotton Brand (3)
- [ ] Samsung (4)
- [ ] Aflac (5)
- [ ] Nike (6)
- [ ] Bounce (7)
- [ ] Coca-Cola (8)
- [ ] Lysol (9)
- [ ] Apple (10)

Page Break

After watching the video clip, how would you evaluate Adidas?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Appealing	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unappealing
Favorable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unfavorable
Likable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unlikable
Enjoyable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unenjoyable
Good	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Bad

After watching the video clip, how would you evaluate Samsung?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Appealing	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unappealing
Favorable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unfavorable
Likable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unlikeable
Enjoyable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unenjoyable
Good	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Bad

Page Break

How well do you think the Adidas brand fits hockey?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Well	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Not well

How well do you think the Samsung brand fits hockey?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Well	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Not well

Page Break

If you were looking for athletic goods, how likely would it be for you to purchase Adidas?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Likely	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unlikely
Possible	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Impossible
Probable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Improbable

If you were looking for new technology, how likely would it be for you to purchase Samsung?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Likely	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Unlikely
Possible	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Impossible
Probable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Improbable

Page Break

By placing the Adidas brand alongside hockey, Adidas becomes more valuable.

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Agree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Disagree

By placing the Adidas brand alongside hockey, hockey becomes more favorable.

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Agree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Disagree

By placing the Samsung brand alongside hockey, Samsung becomes more valuable.

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Agree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Disagree

By placing the Samsung brand alongside hockey, hockey becomes more favorable.

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Agree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Disagree

APPENDIX B. IRB APPROVAL

ACTION ON EXEMPTION APPROVAL REQUEST

Institutional Review Board
Dr. Dennis Landin, Chair
130 David Boyd Hall
Baton Rouge, LA 70803
P: 225.578.8692
F: 225.578.5983
irb@lsu.edu
lsu.edu/research

TO: Yongick Jeong
Mass Communication

FROM: Dennis Landin
Chair, Institutional Review Board

DATE: January 28, 2019

RE: **IRB#** E11451

TITLE: Making the Commercial Non-Commercial: Traditional Ad-Effects on TV Billboards

New Protocol/Modification/Continuation: New Protocol

Review Date: 1/25/2019

Approved X **Disapproved**

Approval Date: 1/28/2019 **Approval Expiration Date:** 1/27/2022

Exemption Category/Paragraph: 2a

Signed Consent Waived?: Yes

Re-review frequency: (three years unless otherwise stated)

LSU Proposal Number (if applicable):

By: Dennis Landin, Chairman Dlandin

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING –
Continuing approval is CONDITIONAL on:

1. Adherence to the approved protocol, familiarity with, and adherence to the ethical standards of the Belmont Report, and LSU's Assurance of Compliance with DHHS regulations for the protection of human subjects*
2. Prior approval of a change in protocol, including revision of the consent documents or an increase in the number of subjects over that approved.
3. Obtaining renewed approval (or submittal of a termination report), prior to the approval expiration date, upon request by the IRB office (irrespective of when the project actually begins); notification of project termination.
4. Retention of documentation of informed consent and study records for at least 3 years after the study ends.
5. Continuing attention to the physical and psychological well-being and informed consent of the individual participants, including notification of new information that might affect consent.
6. A prompt report to the IRB of any adverse event affecting a participant potentially arising from the study.
7. Notification of the IRB of a serious compliance failure.
8. **SPECIAL NOTE: When emailing more than one recipient, make sure you use bcc. Approvals will automatically be closed by the IRB on the expiration date unless the PI requests a continuation.**

* *All investigators and support staff have access to copies of the Belmont Report, LSU's Assurance with DHHS, DHHS (45 CFR 46) and FDA regulations governing use of human subjects, and other relevant documents in print in this office or on our World Wide Web site at http://www.lsu.edu/irb*

VITA

Ian Matthew Skupski was born in 1990 in Yokosuka, Japan, to parents Jim Skupski and Nancy Skupski. Upon graduating from Stafford Senior High School, in Fredericksburg, Virginia, in 2008, he moved to Norfolk, Virginia to attend Old Dominion University. Ian quit his academic pursuits at Old Dominion University to take them back up at Germanna Community College. Upon completion of an Associate's Degree, Ian enrolled at the University of Mary Washington in Fredericksburg, Virginia where he earned a Bachelor's Degree in English.