

THE EFFECTS OF METAPHORS ON ATTITUDES TOWARD THE AD AND THE BRAND

by

YOUNGSHIM BAEK

(Under the Direction of Jooyoung Kim)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the persuasive effects of metaphors in print advertising on consumer attitudes toward advertisements and brands, under different product condition that vary in the level of involvement (high vs. low) and the basic consumption type of product (utilitarian vs. hedonic). The results suggest that, for low-involvement/hedonic product, metaphorical headlines produced a positive effect. For other types of products, however, no significant differences between metaphorical headlines and non-metaphorical headlines were observed. Theoretical explanation and managerial implications are further discussed.

INDEX WORDS: Advertising, Headline Strategy, Metaphor, Product Type, Involvement, Utilitarian, Hedonic

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YOUNGSHIM BAEK

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YOUNGSHIM BAEK

Major Professor: Jooyoung Kim

Committee: Spencer F. Tinkham
Wendy Macias

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
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DEDICATION

To God, my mother and my father
for their constant and unconditional love.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A rhetorical figure is defined as an artful deviation from the literal method of expression (Corbett, 1990; DeRosia, 2007). According to McQuarrie and Mick (1996), rhetorical figures take place when a method of expression deviates from expectation, but the recipients do not regard the expression as falseness. Also, they pointed out that the deviation is situated “at the level of form rather than content” (McQuarrie & Mick, 1996, p. 425). Since being discussed by ancient rhetoricians in a scholarly way, rhetorical figures have served as an effective tool in many fields of communication due to their persuasive impact (McGuire, 2000). Given the idea that advertising intends not only to inform but also to persuade its audience, it is no wonder that rhetorical figures have been widely adopted in advertising (Tom & Eves, 1999).

Several studies give evidence of an abundance of rhetorical devices in advertising. According to a content analysis of 154 print advertisements from three issues of *People Magazine*, a total of 132 ads (86%) used one or more rhetorical figures in their headlines or subheads (McQuarrie & Mick, 1993). Leigh (1994) reported the results of content analysis of 2,183 print ads that had a headline. He found that nearly 75% of ads used at least one rhetorical figure in their headline. Also, in their analyses of rhetorical figures in print advertisements of American magazines from 1954 to 1999, Phillips and McQuarrie (2002) found that the use of various rhetorical figures had been prevalent throughout the research period and had increased in incidence over time.

Especially, it is interesting to focus on the increasing incidence of complex destabilization tropes such as metaphor, puns, and irony in the headlines and pictures of ads (Phillips & McQuarrie, 2002). Among these destabilization tropes, metaphor is “the best known example of a rhetorical figure, and the only one widely recognized among consumer researchers” (McQuarrie & Mick, 1993, p. 309). Metaphor usually takes the form of an explicit or implicit statement in which one object is linked to another (Ward & Gaidis, 1990). It encourages audiences to find similarity between two objects and to identify the sender’s intentional meaning within the metaphor.

One example of the use of metaphor in advertising could be found in the famous copy for Skittles, “Taste the Rainbow.” Through the copy, audiences are invited to link Skittles metaphorically to a rainbow and to associate the various colors and flavors of Skittles candies with a rainbow. The cosmetic brand Clinique used the image of a furry chick with a broken egg in the print advertisement for their skin-renewing gel. Consumers exposed to the ad may initially try to resolve the inconsistency between the furry chick and the gel, and finally draw the inference that Clinique gel makes their skin renewed, just as a newborn chick, and appear younger.

Compared to other advertising media, such as television or billboards, metaphors in print advertising have been studied largely owing to metaphor’s pervasiveness in magazines. Even though metaphor originally took the form of verbal language, metaphor in advertising is not necessarily deployed verbally as long as the meaning is passed from one object to another. Taking into consideration that metaphor in advertising could be presented both verbally and visually, print advertising could be considered an ideal form for representing metaphors. This does not mean that metaphors cannot occur in TV commercials. However, compared to print ads,

the occurrence of metaphors in television ads seems to be more complex; metaphors in TV ads usually do not represent two incongruent objects of metaphor simultaneously due to the moving characteristics of the majority of these ads (Forceville, 1996). Compared to TV commercials, therefore, print ads can completely provide both verbal and visual cues in a very limited space (Pawlowski, Badzinski, & Mitchell, 1998).

In print advertising, especially, advertising practitioners have long regarded the most important element to be the headline (Pieters & Wedel, 2004); headlines are usually intended to convince consumers of key selling points by drawing the attention of the consumers and stimulating them to take into consideration the advertised brand or product (Wells, Burnett, & Moriarty, 1992; Leigh, 1994). Moreover, since a headline is one of the first elements to be processed in print ad processing by consumers, it could subsequently influence the amount of devotion consumers give to information processing of remaining ad elements, such as body text (Mothersbaugh, Huhmann, & Franke, 2002).

There are some studies that have examined the use of metaphors in advertising headlines. Hitchon (1997) tested the effectiveness of metaphors in print advertising headline. This study found that metaphorical headlines produced more favorable reactions to the brand than the literal claim. Also, it was revealed that those favorable reactions could not be accounted for by whether the metaphor was perceived as a positive metaphor or a negative metaphor. McQuarrie and Mick (2003) studied the positive impact of various kinds of rhetorical figures, including metaphors, presented in headlines, and pictures of print advertisements, on consumer response to advertising. In their study, specifically, subjects were exposed to advertisements under two different processing conditions, incidental exposure or directed processing, to control any possible effects from an experimental setting in which participants are explicitly led to process the

advertisements. The results of their study showed that (a) verbal rhetorical figures were more effective than a literal claim only in directed processing, while (b) visual rhetorical figures were consistently more effective without regard to processing condition.

However, there are still critical yet not extensively researched inquiries that marketers may often have in making their creative decisions. How would metaphors influence advertising processing if product conditions differ? Will consumers process the metaphorical advertising of auto insurance differently from that of a video game console? Will the metaphorical creative be more effective for a candy bar ad than an ad for toothpaste? Literature shows a few studies that indeed have investigated such inquiries. For example, Toncar and Munch (2001) investigated the effects of tropes, such as paradox, puns, and metaphors, in claims of print advertising, which were moderated by high- and low- involvement conditions. They found that using tropes can enhance the effectiveness of print ads only in low involvement conditions. Ang and Lim (2006)'s study on the other hand investigated whether metaphors in print advertising produce a synergistic or compensatory effect on brand personality perception of two different types of product, utilitarian and hedonic. Their finding suggested that brands that advertised with metaphorical claims were perceived to be more sophisticated and exciting, yet less sincere and competent, than brands advertised with non-metaphorical claims. Especially, utilitarian products, which originally were perceived as less sophisticated and exciting, gained advantage of metaphors by enhancing perception of sophistication and excitement.

However, some important questions are still unanswered as no research has investigated the simultaneous combinatory conditions of two product categorizations: high vs. low involvement and utilitarian vs. hedonic product types. It is agreed among most advertisers that advertising message strategy should be different for product types because different types of

products are consumed for different purposes. Since product involvement and utilitarian vs. hedonic are two major criteria for categorizing products (Mano & Oliver, 1993), determining how metaphor works in advertising varying among different product types should help advertisers to develop advertising claims. Therefore, it may be useful to investigate the effect of metaphors in print advertisements on consumer attitudes toward advertising and brands, under different product conditions that vary in the level of involvement (high vs. low) and the basic consumption type of product (utilitarian vs. hedonic).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Definition of metaphor

Metaphor is defined as “an implied comparison between two dissimilar objects, such that the comparison results in aspects that normally apply to one object being transferred or carried over to the second object” (Sopory & Dillard, 2002). A simile is an overt direct comparison, and takes the form of “A is like B,” in which two objects are linked together through the comparative terms “like” or “as”; a metaphor equates disparate objects in the form of “A is B,” a formulation that leaves out the comparative terms (Stern, 1990). In the form of metaphor, “is” would not imply “is identical to” but mean “is like in some way” (Stern, 1990). Therefore, metaphors are literally false but connotatively true (Hunt & Menon, 1995).

Our Word is Our Weapon (Marcos, 2001) is an example of metaphorical phrase. This statement, the title of a book, is divided into two parts, A (our words) and B (our weapon). A and B are dissimilar objects from separate conceptual domains, and a metaphor creates an association of A with B. Traditionally, A is called the “tenor” and B is called the “vehicle.” The tenor is the subject of discussion, in which the idea is carried by the vehicle (Hitchon, 1997; Merten & Schwartz, 1982; Richard, 1965). In more recent studies (Gentner & Bowdle, 2001; Sopory & Dillard, 2002), A is referred to as the target and B is referred to as the base. Although researchers adopt different terminologies indicating A and B, the basic idea of metaphor is that the meaning is carried from B to A. In the case of the phrase taken as an example above, the attributes of

weapons, which may include powerfulness and aggressiveness, is delivered to words, indicating that words have the power to have an impact and even be used in an aggressive way.

Metaphor as a kind of trope

McQuarrie and Mick (1996) developed taxonomy of rhetorical figures to provide a conceptually-integrated framework of rhetorical structure in advertising language. Their classification distinguishes between schemes and tropes in terms of the way they deviated from expectations. Schemes represent figures created by excessive regularity and meaning certainty, whereas tropes represent deviation through irregularity or meaning uncertainty (Mothersbaugh et al., 2002). Unlike schemes, which create incongruity on the surface structure of expression, tropes are undercoded at a semantic level and require audiences to resolve the inconsistencies within messages (Phillips & McQuarrie, 2002). Therefore, tropes are usually considered as more deviant (McQuarrie & Mick, 1996) and have more possibilities of miscomprehension (Phillips & McQuarrie, 2002).

Metaphor is one type of trope, which includes irony, pun, paradox, and other rhetorical devices. Metaphors can be distinguished from other tropes in that they juxtapose two objects coming from totally different domains by suggesting that one object is figuratively like another (Phillips, 2003).

Metaphor as a Persuasive Tool

Since proposed by Aristotle, metaphor has been regarded as an effective persuasive device (Hitchon, 1997; Sopory & Dillard, 2002). Metaphors are literally false, and they deviate from readers' expectations due to their inconsistency, or falseness (Hunt & Menon, 1995). In the

process of a metaphorical message, therefore, audiences may attempt to find a relationship between two different objects in order to resolve the inconsistency and maximize their comprehension of what the message means (Hitchon, 1997). Whereas literal or non-metaphorical messages are so factual and direct that readers do not need to deliberately consider the messages themselves, metaphors' literal falseness require readers to work on the messages additionally to interpret them well.

Through several different means, metaphor can function as an effective persuasive tool in communication. First of all, rhetorical messages, including metaphorical messages, elicit greater message elaboration or cognitive responses compared with non-figurative messages (McQuarrie & Mick, 1999; Mothersbough et al., 2002; Nelson & Hitchon, 1999). In cognitive psychology, elaboration indicates "the amount or complexity of cognitive activity elicited from a stimulus (McQuarrie & Mick, 1999). When the idea of elaboration is applied to language, elaboration refers to "the extent to which a reader engages a text or the amount of interpretation occasioned by a text or the number of inferences drawn" (McQuarrie & Mick, 1999, p. 39). Since the structure of the metaphorical message is based on artful deviation, cognitive elaboration is stimulated in the process of metaphor. In other words, audiences need to devote much thought and produce a greater degree of elaboration to comprehend the complexity and implicitness in the metaphorical phrases to attain inference (Mick, 1992). Petty, Cacioppo, and Heesacker (1981) stated that persuasion is associated with the amount of thought recipients devote to the message. Therefore, a higher cognitive elaboration, promoted from metaphorical messages, can result in the increased persuasive effect of the messages.

Moreover, as metaphors demand more cognitive effort than literal language to be processed, metaphorical messages can reduce counterargument (Sopory & Dillard, 2002).

Ancient rhetoricians indicated that rhetorical figures “steal their way into the minds of the judges” (DeRosia, 2008, p. 36). In the same vein, Guthrie (1972) said the process of comprehending a metaphor produces a richer set of associations which result in “an overload in the receiver’s mental circuitry” (p. 4). McQuarie and Mick (1992) observed that advertisements including rhetorical figures inhibit audiences from counterarguing an ad’s message and have a generally more favorable attitude toward advertisements. Also, Brennan and Bahn (2006) found that ad viewers, who were manipulated to be sufficiently motivated to enjoy cognitive activity to comprehend ad messages, are less likely to make counterarguments toward advertisements that included metaphors. Therefore, the processing of metaphorical messages demands more cognitive elaboration compared to non-metaphorical ones; this condition allows messages to have more persuasive power.

Metaphors can also arouse not only cognitive processes but affective responses (Sopory, 2005; Toncar & Munch, 2001). According to DeRosia (2007), pleasure is the most commonly proposed emotional response from rhetorical figures. The process of decoding texts, especially aesthetic texts such as metaphors, can prove rewarding for readers. In semiotics, this reward is referred to as “the pleasure of the text” (Barthes, 1985). During the seeking of metaphorical meaning in literal falseness and grasping for similarity between two separate concepts in a metaphorical statement, negative tension, which is derived by incongruity, is relieved and pleasure can occur (McQuarrie & Mick, 1992; Sopory & Dillard, 2002). In this regard, metaphor may induce favorable affective responses from readers.

Advertising Situation and the Use of Metaphor

The overall goal of advertising is to make a positive claim for products, leading consumers to have favorable attitudes toward them, and finally trigger sales. Since consumers

have different psychological processes depending on product types when they evaluate a product (Ryu, Park & Feick, 2006), advertising claims need to be varied depending on those product types. Therefore, advertisers need to construct advertising claims with due regard to the characteristic of the product type. This study particularly focuses on two major product distinctions: high vs. low involvement and utilitarian vs. hedonic product types.

High vs. Low Involvement Product

The effectiveness of metaphors on advertising response may vary according to product types. Specifically, product involvement has been widely used as a major determinant of advertising response. According to Mitchell (1979), involvement can be defined as “an individual level, internal state variable whose motivational properties are evoked by a particular stimulus or situation” (p.194). Individuals respond differently to advertisements depending on involvement levels with the product type which is advertised (McGrath & Mahood, 2004). In consumer psychology, it has been noted that personal relevance with messages is greater when involvement is high rather than low (Petty, Cacioppo & Schumann, 1983). In high-involvement cases, especially, individuals tend to more focus on the product-related information in the ads (Celsi & Olson, 1988).

One study argued that the effect of rhetoric on persuasion varied with the personal relevance of the issue (Petty et al., 1981). The researchers found that the use of rhetorical questions either increased or decreased the cognitive elaboration of a message depending on involvement conditions. Under low involvement conditions, in which subjects did not naturally process the message diligently, rhetorical questions enhanced thinking; on the other hand, under high involvement conditions, in which subjects were already highly motivated to process the message, rhetorical questions had no further effect on cognitive elaboration and even disrupted

their thought processes (Petty et al, 1981). Although their study did not examine the effect of metaphors directly, the finding of their study provided some insights in that it investigated the moderating role of the involvement condition in cognitive elaboration.

Moreover, as Toncar and Munch (2001) mentioned in their study, it can be assumed that the style of the ad claims are not likely to have an influence on audiences who closely pay attention to the ads, since audiences may make careful attempts to devote much thought to the content of the advocated message without regard to the structure of the claim.

When product involvement is high, metaphors may distract viewers from focusing on product-related information in advertising, making the ad claims become less effective for viewers (Toncar and Munch, 2001). In other words, metaphorical messages in an advertisement for a high involvement product would not gain an advantage over non-metaphorical messages. When product involvement is low, however, it is expected that metaphors may bring significant advantages over non-metaphorical ad claims. In this case, audiences are naturally not willing to actively learn about the product or to devote much effort seeking out product-related information, so explicit claims may be ignored and may be ineffective due to lack of elaboration (Dahlen, Rasch & Rosengren, 2003). However, metaphorical ad claims could lead audiences to conduct an additional process in order to understand implicit meanings of metaphors. In other words, metaphors elicit deeper cognitive processing from audiences (Toncar and Munch, 2001). Thus, metaphorical advertising messages for low involvement products, compared to non-metaphorical messages, may result in favorable effects and the enhancement of persuasion.

Utilitarian vs. Hedonic Product

In terms of perceived purpose of product usage, products can also be classified twofold: utilitarian products and hedonic products (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Utilitarian products

deliver more cognitively-oriented and instrumental benefits (Batra & Ahtola, 1991), whereas hedonic products are those consumed primarily for the affective and sensory experience of aesthetic pleasure, fantasy, and fun (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982).

As consumers pursue these two types of products for achieving different goals, the products should be advertised in different ways. According to Katz (1960), appeals for changing attitudes should be formulated with regard to the relevant motivational basis of the attitude. Thus, attitudes toward a utilitarian product are more likely to be changed by utilitarian arguments, while those toward a hedonic product are more likely to be altered by symbolic arguments (LeBeouf & Simmons, 2007).

On the one hand, the utilitarian value of a product indicates that the product enables consumers to solve a specific problem that they confront while also satisfying their practical needs (Park & Moon, 2003). In other words, consumers tend to focus on the objective attributes of the product when they evaluate the product (Ryu et al., 2006). In the same vein, when consumers are exposed to an ad for a utilitarian product, they would be more likely to concentrate on the utilitarian attributes of the product the advertisement delivers. While metaphorical messages in an advertisement deliver the attributes of the product in an implicit way, non-metaphorical, namely, literal messages in an advertisement deliver to an audience the attributes of the product by utilitarian arguments, emphasizing its utilitarian benefits. In this regard, it can be assumed that, in advertisements for utilitarian products, non-metaphorical ad messages that are considered more literal would be more effective than metaphorical ad messages.

On the other hand, the hedonic value of the product is evaluated in terms of the product's ability to provide feeling or hedonic benefits such as fun and enjoyment and ability to satisfy

their symbolic needs (Holbrook, Chestnut, Oliva & Greenleaf, 1984; Park & Moon, 2003). Since consumers seek sensual and sensitive experiences with a product through hedonic consumption (Hirschman, 1980), they consider experience with a product more valuable than the product itself (Park & Moon, 2003). From this perspective, a hedonic product could be regarded as a subjective symbol rather than a concrete, tangible object (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Metaphors are basically symbolic and have a hedonic value, so metaphorical messages in advertising could be considered more symbolic arguments than literal claim. Therefore, it can be assumed that, in advertisements for hedonic products, metaphorical ad messages would be more effective than non-metaphorical messages.

However, some situations still remain far from fully answered when a product is (a) high involvement and hedonic or (b) low involvement and utilitarian. Although these two cases are practical and common in advertising, direct evidence to answer these questions are nonexistent in previous literature. Toncar and Munch (2001) examined the effect of tropes in print advertising, but they addressed the question of the moderating effect of product involvement only. Ang and Lim (2006) investigated the moderating role of another product type (i.e., utilitarian versus hedonic), but they did not touch upon the moderating role of involvement. Besides, their concern was not with the direct effect of product type on ad attitudes but with metaphor's synergistic or compensatory effect on brand personality perceptions of those two product types. Therefore, this study intends to give better understanding of the effect of metaphorical headlines in those two unsolved situations.

Based on the preceding discussion, it is expected that the use of metaphor will be effective in low involvement and hedonic products. On the other hand, for high involvement and utilitarian products, it will be effective to create headlines containing non-metaphorical words

rather than metaphorical ones. In the situations of high involvement-hedonic and low-involvement-utilitarian, however, it could be cautiously deducted that there will be no difference to use metaphorical and non-metaphorical headlines. Because the expected results of the two product distinctions are in the opposite directions (e.g., metaphors would be effective for high involvement but non-metaphors would be effective for hedonic, and vice versa), it is anticipated to offset the influence of one product distinction against another. Therefore, four hypotheses are offered to suggest that the persuasive effect of metaphors on advertisements can vary, depending on the level of product involvement and the basic consumption types of product.

H1: For high involvement and utilitarian products, advertisements containing non-metaphorical headlines will enhance attitudes toward the ad (H1a) and the brand (H1b) compared to metaphorical headlines.

H2: For high involvement and hedonic products, there will be no difference in attitudes toward the ad (H2a) and the brand (H2b) between advertisements containing metaphorical headlines or non-metaphorical headlines.

H3: For low involvement and utilitarian products, there will be no difference in attitudes toward the ad (H3a) and the brand (H3b) between advertisements containing metaphorical headlines or non-metaphorical headlines.

H4: For low involvement and hedonic products, advertisements containing metaphorical headlines will enhance attitudes toward the ad (H4a) and the brand (H4b) compared to non-metaphorical headlines.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Experimental Design and Participants

The experiment used a 2 (metaphorical headline vs. non-metaphorical headline) \times 2 (high-involvement product vs. low-involvement product) \times 2 (utilitarian product vs. hedonic product) between-subject design. Two hundred and seventy-nine students from the University of Georgia were randomly assigned to one of the eight treatment conditions. The sample size of each cell was 30 to 34. Students participated in the experiment through a web survey site (www.surveymonkey.com). Participants were asked to read the consent form before they agreed to take part in the experiment. Each participant was exposed to two different experimental advertisements for two products within the same treatment condition. In order to provide compensation for their time, participants were given the option of either obtaining extra credit for their course or being entered into a drawing for cash prizes.

The Development of Stimulus Materials

Product Category Determination

Two different products were assigned to each of the four product types: dishwashers and auto insurance for high-involvement/utilitarian type; perfume and video game consoles for high-involvement/hedonic type; sunblock lotion and toothpaste for low-involvement/utilitarian type; and chewing gum and candy bars for low-involvement/hedonic type. The product categories

were selected from 60 common products in the FCB grid as proposed by Ratchford (1987). Further product selection was made through an in-class discussion, with the help of undergraduate students who were enrolled in a psychology of advertising class. Through a manipulation check for products' involvement and utilitarian/hedonic characteristic, it was ensured that the product category selection was successful.

Creation of Experimental Advertisements

For each of the eight products, two types of advertisements, one including a metaphorical headline and the other including a non-metaphorical headline, were created; therefore, there were a total of sixteen experimental advertisements (See Table 1). The sixteen experimental advertisements were identical in their layout, each consisting of a headline at the bottom center of the page and the brand name at the right bottom corner. Each fictitious brand name was capitalized and combined with a product category identifier (e.g., *CION* Dishwasher). Font types used for headlines and brand names were identical across all advertisements. To reduce any possible interaction between headline and visual, an empty box was located in each ad instead of pictures or illustrations. In the empty box it is indicated where a visual element of an ad would appear (Hitchon, 1997). In order to improve internal validity by controlling confounding caused by visual variation, ad layout remained constant across all advertisements (McQuarrie & Mick, 2003). Participants were informed that the ad was a mock-up and in very early stages of development. All stimulus ads are in Appendix B.

Brand Name Development

For valid experiments, fictitious brand names were developed in order to prevent any possibility of familiarity with brands and opinions about perceived brand image that participants may have had. It was important to ensure that each brand name had no metaphorical or literal

connotation of the product category with which it is advertised. Thus, brand names were not selected from a dictionary but devised originally. There was one brand name for each product category: *CION* for dishwashers, *BOSCO* for auto insurance, *BLISSE* for perfume, *EXR* for video game consoles, *FLOS* for sunblock lotion, *WISKOW* for toothpaste, *ZENTIX* for chewing gum, and *CARNS* for candy bars (see Table 1).

Table 1. Ad Headlines and Brand Names

Product Type		Product Category (Brand Name)	Metaphorical Headline	Non-metaphorical Headline
High Involvement	Utilitarian	Dishwasher (<i>CION</i>)	Let your dishes take a quiet bath	Get your dishes clean without noise
		Auto Insurance (<i>BOSCO</i>)	Excellent life jacket for your car	Excellent protection for your car
High Involvement	Hedonic	Perfume (<i>BLISSE</i>)	A spring flower garden in a bottle	Fresh, floral scent
		Video Game Console (<i>EXR</i>)	Enter an infinite world of fantasy!	Enter hundreds of fantasy games!
Low Involvement	Utilitarian	Sunblock Lotion (<i>FLOS</i>)	Let your skin wear a shield against the sun	Protect your skin against the sun
		Toothpaste (<i>WISKOW</i>)	Strong cavity warrior for your teeth	Strong cavity protection for your teeth
Low Involvement	Hedonic	Chewing Gum (<i>ZENTIX</i>)	A cool, polar glacier for your mouth	A cool, refreshed feeling for your mouth
		Candy Bar (<i>CARNS</i>)	Grab a bite of sweet delight	Grab a bite of sweet candy bar

Manipulation Check

Brand Name

To verify familiarity and neutrality of the brand names, participants were given two brand names which they did not see in the previous ads but were used in ads for other test ad and

asked to give their opinion on each of the two brand names by rating their agreements with the following statements: “I am familiar with this brand name,” “[Brand name] implies a product benefit literally,” “[Brand name] implies a product benefit metaphorically,” “[Brand name] implies high quality,” and “I like [Brand name] as a [product category] brand (e.g., dishwasher brand).” Responses to the last four items were averaged to form a single “neutrality” index (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .84$).

Metaphoricity

To make certain there was a difference in terms of the degree to which participants perceived the ad headlines literally or metaphorically, the participants were asked to rate their agreements on the following statements: “The headline of the ad I saw presented the claim literally,” “The headline of the ad I saw presented the claim directly,” and “The headline of the ad I saw required me to think deeper to understand the ad.” The first item was from Jeong (2008), and the third item was adapted from Ang and Lim (2006). The former two items were reversely coded; the higher the score, the more the headlines were rated as metaphorical (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .66$).

Equivalence of Headlines

Both metaphorical and non-metaphorical headlines were intended to convey the same product attribute for the same product. To verify that a pair of headlines was understood by participants as having the same meaning, except for metaphorical variation, the equivalence of each pair of headlines was tested. After responding to questionnaires on two experimental advertisements, participants viewed two pairs of headlines (in each pair, one headline was the one viewed by participants in the experimental ad, and the other was the other type of headline

for the same product they saw) and asked to select a statement that most reflected their opinion on those pairs.

The given statements were as follows: “A (metaphorical headline) and B (non-metaphorical headline) are saying exactly the same thing,” “A and B are saying almost the same thing,” “A and B are saying almost not the same thing,” and “A and B are not saying the same thing at all.”

Product Involvement

A product involvement check designed to measure the differences in subjects’ perceived product involvement with each category of product they saw in the advertisements was employed in the manipulation check. It was measured with Ratchford (1987)’s 3-item, 7-point scales of involvement. The semantic differential items were: “very important decision/very unimportant decision,” “decision requires a lot of thought/decision requires little thoughts,” and “a lot to lose if I choose the wrong brand/little to lose if I choose the wrong brand.” Three product involvement items were coded from 1 (low involvement) to 7 (high involvement). The involvement scale obtained an α of .87.

Utilitarian vs. Hedonic Products

To verify whether significant differences in participants’ perception of the products’ utilitarian versus hedonic characteristics existed, they were asked to rate products on a 7-point scale of utilitarianism and hedonism. The question for measuring utilitarian and hedonic dimensions was adapted from the study by Kim and Morris (2007). Participants were asked the following question: “Would you characterize the product category in the ad as primarily a functional product or an entertainment/enjoyable product?” Using a seven-point scale, 1 indicated “primary for functional use” and 7 indicated “primary for entertainment use”.

Dependent Measures

The scale for measuring attitude toward the headline (A_{headline}) was adopted from MacKenzie and Lutz (1989)'s 3-item, 7-point semantic differential scale of attitude toward the ad. In order to avoid any unexpected confounding factors from experimental advertisements and to focus solely on the advertising headline, participants were asked to indicate their attitude toward the headline instead of the advertisement. The bipolar items are: good/bad, pleasant/unpleasant, and favorable/unfavorable. The mean response to these items will be used to represent the overall A_{headline} (Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$). Attitude toward the brand (A_b) was assessed with the same scale as A_{headline} . An index for each attitude was produced by averaging the responses to the items (Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$).

Additional Explanatory Variables

Ad Credibility & Advertiser Credibility

Based on MacKenzie and Lutz (1989)'s measurement scale, ad credibility was assessed by asking the participants to report how convincing/unconvincing, believable/unbelievable, and biased/unbiased they felt the ad was. Advertiser credibility was assessed with the same scale as ad credibility. The response options were on 7-point scale.

Ad perceptions

The measurement procedure of MacKenzie and Lutz (1989)'s study was applied with some revision. Participants were asked the following two questions: "How many positive thoughts, reactions, and ideas went through your mind while you were looking at the ad?" and "How many negative thoughts, reactions, and ideas went through your mind while you were looking at the ad?" Using a 7-point scale, 1 was "not at all" and 7 was "extremely a lot." The

index, which was obtained by subtracting the numerical value of the first question from the numerical value of the second question, will represent ad perceptions.

Attitude toward the Advertiser

The scale for measuring attitude toward the advertiser was MacKenzie and Lutz (1989)'s 3-item, 7-point semantic differential scale. The bipolar items were: good/bad, pleasant/unpleasant, and favorable/unfavorable.

Confound Check

For a confound check, perceived diagnosticity was measured. In this study, perceived diagnosticity is defined as the extent to which the consumer believes the advertisement, and is therefore helpful in evaluating advertisements and brand attitudes. The purpose of this confound check was to ensure that the advertisements of the products are not different considerably in regard to the subjects' acquired information for creating attitudes toward advertisements and brands. As a confound check on perceived diagnosticity, participants were required to respond to the question, "How would you rate the helpfulness of the headline of the ad in shaping your attitude toward the brand in the ad?" on a 7-point scale anchored by "not helpful at all," and "extremely helpful".

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Manipulation Check

Brand Name

For each product category, a fictitious brand name was created. Participants were asked to rate the familiarity of a brand name and the connotations of metaphoricity; literality and high quality; and liking of a brand name. The connotations of the four factors were averaged to make a neutrality index.

In regard to *CION*, the familiarity score was $M = 1.18$ (.82) and the neutrality score was $M = 2.96$ (1.38). For *BOSCO*, the familiarity score was $M = 1.54$ (1.34) and the neutrality score was $M = 2.87$ (1.36). *BLISSE* had a familiarity score of $M = 1.15$ (.58) and a neutrality score of $M = 3.78$ (1.29). In regard to *EXR*, the familiarity score was $M = 1.14$ (.62) and the neutrality score was $M = 2.55$ (1.24). For *FLOS*, the familiarity score was $M = 1.42$ (1.00) and the neutrality score was $M = 2.98$ (1.29). *WISKOW* had a familiarity score of $M = 1.42$ (1.14) and a neutrality score of $M = 2.91$ (1.37). In regard to *ZENTIX*, the familiarity score was $M = 1.27$ (.85) and the neutrality score was $M = 2.78$ (1.14). Lastly, *CARNS* had a familiarity score of $M = 1.30$ (.85) and a neutrality score of $M = 2.71$ (1.19). Overall, the mean score of familiarity was 1.30 (.93) and the mean score of neutrality was 2.95 (1.33) across all eight brand names. Therefore, it may be said that all of the brand names were perceived to be unfamiliar and had little negative connotations toward metaphoricity, literality, and liking of names (See Table 2).

Table 2. The Familiarity and Neutrality of Brand Name

Fictitious Brand Names	Number of Responses	Familiarity		Neutrality	
		M	SD	M	SD
<i>CION</i>	67	1.18	.82	2.96	1.38
<i>BOSCO</i>	67	1.54	1.34	2.87	1.36
<i>BLISSE</i>	71	1.15	.58	3.78	1.29
<i>EXR</i>	71	1.14	.62	2.55	1.24
<i>FLOS</i>	65	1.42	1.00	2.98	1.29
<i>WISKOW</i>	65	1.42	1.14	2.91	1.37
<i>ZENTIX</i>	63	1.27	.85	2.78	1.14
<i>CARNS</i>	63	1.30	.85	2.71	1.19
Total	532	1.30	.93	2.95	1.33

Metaphoricity of Headlines

Two different kinds of headlines, metaphorical versus non-metaphorical, were created for each product category, and eight pairs of different kinds of headlines were compared separately. A one-way ANOVA was utilized to examine whether metaphorical headlines were rated as more metaphorical than non-metaphorical ones.

As Table 3 indicates, there were significant differences between the metaphorical headlines and the non-metaphorical headlines at $p = .05$ level. F values varied from 4.146 to 62.072. These results of the ANOVA tests indicated that metaphor manipulation was successful in this study.

Table 3. Metaphoricity of Headline

Product Category	Metaphorical Headline		Non-metaphorical Headline		Difference	
	M	SD	M	SD	F	Sig.
Dishwasher	3.76	1.12	2.83	1.02	12.496	P = .001**
Auto Insurance	4.52	1.05	3.10	1.17	26.234	P < .001***
Perfume	4.16	1.32	2.69	1.17	21.223	P < .001***
Video game Console	4.26	1.27	3.23	1.26	9.740	P = .003**
Sunblock Lotion	3.35	.73	1.98	.99	38.597	P < .001***
Toothpaste	4.11	1.13	2.04	1.06	62.072	P < .001***
Chewing Gum	3.89	.96	2.11	1.09	46.084	P < .001***
Candy Bar	3.83	1.36	3.16	1.21	4.146	P = .046*

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

Equivalence of Headlines

To assess the equivalence headlines, participants were asked whether a pair of headlines conveyed the same meaning. With a total of 554 responses, 125 (22.0%) indicated that the headlines were saying exactly the same thing and 294 (51.7%) responded that the headlines were saying almost the same thing. Eighteen responses (14.2%) indicated that the headlines were saying almost not the same thing. There were 54 (9.5%) participants who responded that the headlines were not saying the same thing at all. In order to produce valid results, those respondents were excluded from further data analyses. Table 3 shows the result of the manipulation check for equivalence of headlines for each product category in detail. Overall, it

was found that 64.3 to 83.1% of participants in each cell were in strong or moderate agreement with the equivalence of both metaphorical and non-metaphorical headlines (See Table 4).

Table 4. The Equivalence of Metaphorical and Non-metaphorical Headlines

Product Category	Response Choices			
	Both are saying exactly the same thing	Both are saying almost the same thing	Both are saying almost not the same thing	Both are not saying the same thing at all
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Dishwasher	22 (31.0%)	37 (52.1%)	8 (11.3%)	4 (5.6%)
Auto Insurance	15 (21.1%)	36 (50.7%)	14 (19.7%)	6 (8.5%)
Perfume	14 (20.0%)	40 (57.1%)	8 (11.4%)	8 (11.4%)
Video Game Console	14 (20.0%)	31 (44.3%)	12 (17.1%)	13 (18.6%)
Sunblock Lotion	17 (25.4%)	31 (46.3%)	13 (19.4%)	6 (9.0%)
Toothpaste	18 (26.9%)	37 (55.2%)	6 (9.0%)	6 (9.0%)
Chewing Gum	8 (11.6%)	42 (60.9%)	12 (17.4%)	7 (10.1%)
Candy Bar	12 (24.6%)	40 (58.0%)	8 (11.6%)	4 (5.8%)
Total	125 (22.0%)	294 (51.7%)	81 (14.2%)	54 (9.5)

Product Types: High- vs. Low- Involvement Products

The level of product involvement for each of the eight product categories was examined. The result of an independent samples t-test indicated that participants perceived significant differences in the product involvement between high-involvement products ($M = 5.27$, $SD = 1.22$) and low-involvement products ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.39$), $t(17.155) = 17.526$, $p < .001$.

For testing involvement for each product separately, a one-way ANOVA using planned pairwise comparison was performed to compare the means across eight products. The means and

standard deviations of the eight products are as follows: dishwashers, $M = 5.11$, $SD = 1.14$; auto insurance, $M = 5.66$, $SD = 1.13$; perfume, $M = 5.29$, $SD = 1.07$; video game consoles, $M = 5.00$, $SD = 1.44$; sunblock lotion, $M = 3.63$, $SD = 1.38$; toothpaste, $M = 3.54$, $SD = 1.33$; chewing gum, $M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.17$; and candy bars, $M = 2.84$, $SD = 1.53$. As the result of Levene's test indicated the group variances were not assumed to be equal ($p = .006$), Dunnett's C test was used for post hoc comparison. All of the mean differences between the pairs of products in the different involvement category (e.g., toothpaste—auto insurance) were significant at $p = .05$ level, and all of the mean differences between the pairs of products in the same involvement category (e.g., toothpaste—chewing gum) were nonsignificant at $p = .05$ level. These results indicated that product involvement manipulation was successful in this study (see Table 5).

Product Types: Utilitarian vs. Hedonic Products

The basic consumption type of products for each of the eight product categories was examined. The independent sample t-test found the significant difference between participants' perception of utilitarian products ($M = 1.57$, $SD = 1.05$) versus hedonic products ($M = 6.02$, $SD = 1.35$), $t(458.486) = -40.872$, $p < .001$.

In order to reveal each products' utilitarian or hedonic characteristic separately, a one-way ANOVA using planned pairwise comparison was performed to compare the means across eight products. The means and standard deviations of the eight products are as follows: dishwashers, $M = 1.38$, $SD = .74$; auto insurance, $M = 1.38$, $SD = .91$; perfume, $M = 5.68$, $SD = 1.38$; video game consoles, $M = 6.45$, $SD = 1.16$; sunblock lotion, $M = 1.84$, $SD = 1.32$; toothpaste, $M = 1.70$, $SD = 1.13$; chewing gum, $M = 5.82$, $SD = 1.41$; and candy bars, $M = 6.13$, $SD = 1.31$. Since the Levene's test result found that equal variance assumption was not retained

Table 5. Multiple Comparisons for Product Involvement

	Dish- washer (5.11)	Auto Insurance (5.66)	Perfume (5.28)	Video Game Console (5.00)	Sun- block Lotion (3.63)	Tooth- paste (3.54)	Chewing Gum (3.06)	Candy Bar (2.84)
Dish- washer	—	-.55	-.18	.11	1.48***	1.57***	2.05***	2.27***
Auto Insurance	.55	—	.37	.66	2.03***	2.12***	2.60***	2.82***
Perfume	.18	-.37	—	.290	1.66***	1.75***	2.23***	2.45***
Video Game Console	-.11	-.66	.29	—	1.37***	1.46***	1.94***	2.16***
Sunblock Lotion	-1.48***	-2.03***	-1.66***	-1.37***	—	.09	.56	.75
Tooth- paste	-1.57***	-2.12***	-1.75***	-1.46***	-.09	—	.48	.70
Chewing Gum	-2.05***	-2.60***	-2.23***	-1.94***	-.56	-.48	—	.22
Candy Bar	-2.27***	-2.82***	-2.45***	-2.16***	-.78	-.70	-.22	—

Notes: The value in the parentheses below each product category indicates the mean value; The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$

($p = .001$), Dunnett's C test was conducted for multiple comparison. All of the mean differences between the pairs of products in different product types (e.g., dishwashers—perfume) were significant at $p = .05$ level, and all of the mean differences between the pairs of products in the same category (e.g., dishwashers—auto insurance) were not significant at $p = .05$ level, except the difference between perfume and video game consoles; their mean difference was not significant at $p = .01$ level. These results indicated that manipulation of utilitarian versus hedonic products was reasonably successful in this study (See Table 6).

Table 6. Multiple Comparisons for Utilitarian/Hedonic Characteristic

	Dish- washer (1.38)	Auto Insurance (1.38)	Perfume (5.68)	Video Game Console (6.45)	Sun- block Lotion (1.84)	Tooth- paste (1.70)	Chewing Gum (5.82)	Candy Bar (6.13)
Dish- washer	—	-.01	-4.31	-5.07***	-.46	-.33	-4.44***	-4.75***
Auto Insurance	.01	—	-4.30***	-5.06***	-.45	-.32	-4.44***	-4.74***
Perfume	4.31***	4.30***	—	-.77**	3.85***	3.98***	-.14	-.44
Video Game Console	5.07***	5.06***	.77**	—	4.61***	4.74***	.63	.32
Sunblock Lotion	.46	.45	-3.85***	-4.61***	—	.13	-3.98***	-4.29***
Tooth- paste	.33	.32	-3.98***	-4.74***	-.13	—	4.12***	-4.42***
Chewing Gum	4.44***	4.44***	.14	.63	3.98***	4.12***	—	-.31
Candy Bar	4.75***	4.74***	.44	-.32	4.29***	4.42***	.31	—

Notes: The value in the parentheses below each product category indicates the mean value; The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

Confound Check

Participants were required to rate the diagnosticity toward each ad headline to which they were exposed. The mean differences of perceived diagnosticity levels for the metaphorical versus non-metaphorical headlines in the same product category were examined using a one-way ANOVA.

As seen in Table 7, there were no pairs of headlines whose significance values were smaller than .05; that is, the perceived diagnosticity of each pair of headlines was not

significantly different. This result ensured that participants' acquired information from the ad headlines was not considerably different in terms of shaping their attitudes toward the brands.

Table 7. Perceived Diagnosticity

Product Category	Metaphorical Headline		Non-metaphorical Headline		Mean Difference	
	M	SD	M	SD	F	Sig.
Dishwasher	4.21	1.39	3.94	1.25	.705	P = .404
Auto Insurance	3.27	1.28	3.16	1.35	.128	P = .722
Perfume	3.67	1.52	3.45	1.29	.358	P = .552
Video game Console	3.93	1.46	3.66	1.45	.522	P = .473
Sunblock Lotion	3.81	1.33	3.60	1.40	.348	P = .557
Toothpaste	3.45	1.34	3.60	1.33	.189	P = .665
Chewing Gum	3.77	1.38	3.22	1.35	2.691	P = .106
Candy Bar	3.68	1.47	3.16	1.42	2.054	P = .157

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses examined the effect of metaphorical headlines among four different product types. For each dependent variable (i.e., A_{headline} and A_b), the responses to advertisements for two products in each product condition (e.g., the dishwasher ads and the auto insurance ads in the high-involvement/utilitarian product condition) were averaged, in order to compare responses for

metaphorical and non-metaphorical headlines. Next, each of two products was analyzed separately. The data were analyzed by independent-samples t-test for each product condition.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that for high involvement and utilitarian products, advertisements containing non-metaphorical headlines will have more positive attitudes toward the headline (H1a) and the brand (H1b) compared to those containing metaphorical headlines. The t-test results showed that there was no significant difference in A_{headline} ($t[64] = 1.610, p > .05$) between ads with metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.54, SD = .83$) and those with non-metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.18, SD = .99$). Also, there was no significant difference in A_b ($t[64] = .772, p > .05$) between ads with metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.55, SD = .78$) and those with non-metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.39, SD = .93$). Therefore, both H1a and H1b were not supported (See Table 8-1).

Table 8-1. T-test for High-Involvement/Utilitarian Products

	Metaphorical Headline (n=34)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=32)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.54	.83	4.18	.99	1.610	.112
A_b	4.55	.78	4.39	.93	.772	.443

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

When ads for two product types in the same product condition (high-involvement /utilitarian) were analyzed separately, however, the results were partially different from that of former analysis. With regard to the dishwasher ads, the t-test result revealed that there was a marginally significant difference in A_{headline} ($t[57] = 1.991, p < .10$) between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.86, SD = .92$) and the ad with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.32, SD = 1.15$) But no significant difference was seen for A_b ($t[57] = 1.271, p > .05$) between

ads with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.80$, $SD = .68$) and those with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.50$, $SD = 1.08$). The results are presented in Table 8-2.

Table 8-2. T-test for Dishwasher (High-Involvement/Utilitarian Product)

	Metaphorical Headline (n=31)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=28)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.86	.92	4.32	1.15	1.991	.051
A_b	4.80	.68	4.50	1.08	1.271	.209

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

With respect to the auto insurance ads, the t-test result showed that there was no significant difference in A_{headline} ($t[50] = .311$, $p > .05$) between ads with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 1.06$) and those with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 1.11$). It was also found that there was no significant difference in A_b ($t[50] = -.424$, $p > .05$) between ads with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .97$) and those with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.25$, $SD = .96$). The results appear in Table 8-3.

Table 8-3. T-test for Auto Insurance (High-Involvement/Utilitarian Product)

	Metaphorical Headline (n=25)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=27)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.09	1.06	4.00	1.11	.311	.757
A_b	4.13	.97	4.25	.96	-.424	.673

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 2 postulated that for high involvement and hedonic products, there would be no difference in attitudes toward the headline (H2a) and the brand (H2b) between advertisements

containing metaphorical headlines or non-metaphorical headlines. According to the results of the t-test, no significant difference was found for A_{headline} ($t[58] = 1.717, p > .05$) between ads with metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.42, SD = .93$) and those with non-metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.11, SD = 1.08$). The results also indicated that there was no significant difference in A_b , ($t[58] = .548, p > .05$) between ads with metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.39, SD = .64$) and those with non-metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.28, SD = .88$). Thus, both H2a and H2b were supported (See Table 9-1).

Table 9-1. Independent-samples t-test for High-Involvement/Hedonic Products

	Metaphorical Headline (n=30)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=30)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.42	.93	4.11	1.08	1.717	.247
A_b	4.39	.64	4.28	.88	.548	.586

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

Although responses to ads for each product in high-involvement/hedonic condition were analyzed separately, the results were not altered. The t-test result for the perfume advertisements revealed that there was no significant difference in A_{headline} ($t[52] = .734, p > .05$) between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.41, SD = 1.14$) and the ad with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.17, SD = 1.21$). Also, there was no significant difference in A_b , ($t[52] = .065, p > .05$) between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.41, SD = .74$) and the ad with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.40, SD = 1.01$). The results are presented in Table 9-2.

Table 9-2. T-test for Perfume (High-Involvement/Hedonic Product)

	Metaphorical Headline (n=27)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=27)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.41	1.14	4.17	1.21	.734	.466
A_b	4.41	.74	4.40	.1.01	.065	.949

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

As far as the video game console advertisements were concerned, the t-test result observed there was no significant difference in A_{headline} ($t[43] = .1.735$, $p > .05$) between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.62$, $SD = .78$) and the ad with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.04$, $SD = 1.40$). Also, the results showed that the difference between the ad with metaphorical headline ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .62$) and that with non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.02$) was not significant for A_b ($t[43] = 1.402$, $p > .05$). The results are reported in Table 9-3.

Table 9-3. T-test for Video Game Console (High-Involvement/ Hedonic Product)

	Metaphorical Headline (n=21)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=24)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.62	.78	4.04	1.40	1.735	.091
A_b	4.43	.62	4.07	1.02	1.402	.168

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 3 indicated that for low-involvement and utilitarian products, there would be no difference in attitudes toward the headline (H3a) and the brand (H3b) between advertisements containing metaphorical headlines or non-metaphorical headlines. The results of the independent-samples t-test indicated that there was no significant difference in A_{headline} ($t[57] = -.340$, $p > .05$) between the ads with metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.36$) and those with non-metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.43$, $SD = 1.01$). In addition, no significant difference was

observed for A_b ($t[57] = .540, p > .05$) between the ads with metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.41, SD = 1.08$) and those with non-metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.31, SD = 1.15$). Both H3a and H3b were therefore supported (See Table 10-1).

Table 10-1. T-test for Low-Involvement/Utilitarian Products

	Metaphorical Headline (n=32)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=27)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.32	1.36	4.43	1.01	-.340	.735
A_b	4.41	1.08	4.31	1.15	.540	.754

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

When responses to advertisements for each of two low-involvement/utilitarian products were analyzed separately, the results were consistent with previous finding. For the sunblock lotion ads, the t-test result revealed that there was no significant difference in A_{headline} , ($t[46] = 1.157, p > .05$) between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.81, SD = 1.14$) and the ad with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.43, SD = 1.21$). Also, no significant difference was found for A_b ($t[46] = .985, p > .05$) between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.58, SD = .92$) and that with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.24, SD = 1.40$). The results were reported in Table 10-2.

Table 10-2. T-test for Sunblock Lotion (Low-Involvement/Utilitarian Product)

	Metaphorical Headline (n=23)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=25)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.81	1.14	4.43	1.21	1.157	.253
A_b	4.58	.92	4.24	1.40	.985	.330

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

With respect to the toothpaste ads, the t-test result revealed that there was no significant difference in A_{headline} ($t[53] = -1.497, p > .05$) between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 3.90, SD = 1.50$) and the ad of a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.43, SD = 1.07$). As well As A_{headline} , no significant difference was observed for A_b ($t[53] = -.424, p > .05$) between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.23, SD = 1.15$) and that with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.36, SD = 1.16$) (Table 10-3).

Table 10-3. T-test for Toothpaste (Low-Involvement/Utilitarian Product)

	Metaphorical Headline (n=28)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=27)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	3.90	1.50	4.43	1.07	-1.497	.140
A_b	4.23	1.15	4.36	1.16	-.424	.673

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 4 postulated that for low-involvement and hedonic products, advertisements containing metaphorical headlines would have more positive attitudes toward the headline (H4a) and the brand (H4b) compared to those containing non-metaphorical headlines. According the the t-test results, the ads with metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.98, SD = .81$) led to significantly more positive A_{headline} than those with non-metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.13, SD = .91$), $t(61) = 4.135, p < .001$. Ads with metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.55, SD = .95$) yielded marginally significantly greater A_b than those with non-metaphorical headlines ($M = 4.13, SD = .86$), $t(61) = 1.849, p < .10$ (See Table 11-1).

Table 11-1. T-test for Low Involvement/Hedonic Products

	Metaphorical Headline (n=31)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=32)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.98	.81	4.08	.91	4.135	.000***
A_b	4.55	.95	4.13	.86	1.849	.069

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

When two advertisements for the same product types were analyzed separately, however, the results were partially different from the previous finding. With regard to the chewing gum ads, the t-test result revealed that there was no difference in A_{headline} ($t[47] = 1.513, p > .05$) between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.52, SD = 1.36$) and that with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 3.99, SD = 1.08$). As well as A_{headline} , no significant difference in A_b ($t[47] = 1.341, p > .05$) was observed between ads with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.45, SD = 1.24$) and those with a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.03, SD = .95$). The results are provided in Table 11-2.

Table 11-2. T-test for Chewing Gum (Low-Involvement/Hedonic Product)

	Metaphorical Headline (n=25)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=24)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	4.52	1.36	3.99	1.08	1.513	.137
A_b	4.45	1.24	4.03	.95	1.341	.186

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

However, the t-test result for the candy bar ads revealed that metaphorical headline ($M = 5.38, SD = .98$) resulted in significantly more positive responses compared to non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.10, SD = .95$) for A_{headline} , $t(54) = 4.917, p < .05$. Also, it is observed that the

difference between the ad with a metaphorical headline ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.10$) and a non-metaphorical headline ($M = 4.14$, $SD = .97$) regarding A_b was significant, $t(1,61) = 2.146$, $p < .05$ (See Table 11-3).

Table 11-3. T-test for Candy Bar (Low-Involvement/Hedonic Product)

	Metaphorical Headline (n=28)		Non-metaphorical Headline (n=28)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
A_{headline}	5.38	.98	4.10	.95	4.917	.000***
A_b	4.74	1.10	4.14	.97	2.146	.036*

Note: The mean difference is significant at the levels of * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, and *** $p < .001$.

Taken together, it was revealed that metaphorical headline produced more positive effects in attitude toward the headlines and the brands for low-involvement/hedonic products only. In other three product conditions, no significant differences between metaphorical headlines and non-metaphorical headlines were observed. Table 12 summarizes the results obtained from analyses.

Table 12. Summary of Findings

Product Types ^a	Hypotheses ^b	Results (combined)		Result (by product)		
		A _{headline}	A _b	Product Category	A _{headline}	A _b
HI / UTL	M < NM	NS	NS	Dishwasher	M > NM (p = .051)	NS
				Auto Insurance	NS	NS
HI / HED	NS	NS	NS	Perfume	NS	NS
				Video Game Console	NS	NS
LO / UTL	NS	NS	NS	Sunblock Lotion	NS	NS
				Toothpaste	NS	NS
LO / HED	M > NM	M > NM (P < .001)	M > NM (p = .069)	Chewing Gum	NS	NS
				Candy Bar	M > NM (p < .001)	M > NM (p < .05)

^a Product type: HI/UTIL (High-involvement/Utilitarian), HI/HED (High-involvement/Hedonic), LO/UTIL (Low-involvement/Utilitarian), LO/HED (Low-involvement/Hedonic),

^b Hypotheses: M (Headline with metaphor), NM (Headline with non-metaphor), NS (Not significant).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Advertising practitioners have widely used metaphors, whose persuasive effect can be beneficial to various ad campaigns (Toncar & Munch, 2001). There are some studies that explain how metaphor can achieve this persuasive effect in communication fields, including advertising (Huhmann, Mothersbaugh, & Franke, 2002; McQuarrie & Mick, 1992; Petty, Cacioppo, & Heesacker, 1981; Sopory & Dilliard, 2003). To date, however, little research has attempted to explain the suitable product condition in which metaphor has a distinct persuasive effect over a literal claim. The purpose of this study was to figure out in which situation metaphors could elicit audiences' favorable responses toward advertisements. More specifically, this study aimed to explore the effectiveness of metaphors in print advertising for various product types, divided by high- vs. low-involvement and utilitarian vs. hedonic components of product together.

The results indicate that, for low-involvement/hedonic products, metaphorical headlines produced a positive effect: participants who were exposed to the ads with metaphorical headlines had more favorable attitudes toward ad headlines and brands. For other types of products, there were no statistically significant differences between metaphorical headlines and non-metaphorical headlines.

In the case of the chewing gum ads, the positive effect of metaphorical headline was not observed contrary to the expectation. It is possible to assume that this result may be ascribed to chewing gum's utilitarian characteristics. Park and Moon (2003) stated that a product's hedonic

and utilitarian characteristics are not mutually exclusive. Even though the results of the manipulation check ensured that chewing gum was perceived to be a hedonic product, it may be reasonable to suggest that chewing gum might also possess utilitarian components in that it has some functional attributes such as making breath smell fresh. Therefore, the utilitarian aspect of chewing gum might reduce the fit between metaphor and the product.

For the high involvement/utilitarian product condition, the result did not support the hypothesis as the effect of metaphorical headlines and non-metaphorical headlines did not differ significantly with an exception of the dishwasher. This overall unexpected result might be explained by the notion of “mismatching effect” (Millar & Millar, 1990). While most previous literature advocated a match between product type and message appeal (Johar & Sirgy, 1991; Mandler, 1982; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989; Shavitt, 1989), there are some researchers who argued that a mismatch enhances the effect of advertising.

According to Millar and Millar (1990), a mismatching strategy between the basis of attitude and message type can be more effective than a matching strategy. They proposed that if the type (affective-based or cognitive based) of product characteristics is matched with the argument strategy (hedonic or rational), consumers are more likely motivated to counterargue the advertising message. Thus the matching strategy might not be effective. As a dishwasher was regarded and confirmed as a utilitarian product in this study, dishwasher ads might normally elicit audiences' cognition-based attitudes due to the utilitarian characteristics of this specific product. That is, viewers who are exposed to a dishwasher ad would form their attitude toward the dishwasher based on the attributes and benefits that are more cognitively-oriented such as its energy efficiency, water usage, level of noise, etc. Most consumers who are familiar with the product category would therefore anticipate what general dishwasher ads would be like (i.e.,

focusing on rational benefit-based ads) and know, though in varying degrees, how to judge the credibility and effectiveness of such ads. In this regard, when they are exposed to a non-metaphorical headline for a dishwasher brand, such as “Get your dishes clean without noise,” consumers would easily focus on the “without noise” claim in the message as it is within a range of anticipatable claims (i.e., rational benefits). This attention to the claim would easily generate either agreement or disagreement on the message based on their message analysis done as usual. Therefore, the matching between the message (i.e., non-metaphorical and rational) and the product (i.e., utilitarian) may not be very effective. The credibility of non-metaphorical headline for dishwasher product, which was lower ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 1.21$) than that of metaphorical headline ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 1.21$) suggests that the counterargument might have occurred for the non-metaphorical headline. The relationship between counterargument and message credibility can be found in the literature (Zhang & Buda, 1999).

On the other hand, when the product and argument type are not matched, Millar and Millar (1990) suggest that a so-called “mismatching effect” may occur and viewers may be less likely to counterargue the ad message compared to the matching condition. That is, as the ad message type is not within a range of anticipatable claims, it would not be easy for the viewers to analyze the message as usual. In this perspective, this study’s participants who viewed the metaphorical headline, “Let your dishes take a quiet bath” might be less likely to counterargue the claim “quiet bath”. This might be because less cognitive and relatively emotional claims using a metaphor such as “quiet bath” would not directly interfere with participants’ general perceptions of dishwasher ads.

Implications

Headlines are an important facet of all print advertisements (Caples, 1974; Ogilvy, 1964, 1983; Leigh, 1994). They play a central role in convincing consumers to pay attention to ads, to read the remaining body text, and ultimately, to have a favorable attitude toward advertised products and brands (Smith, 2006). It is not by chance that much scholarly work in the advertising field has been done on the objects or topic of advertising headlines.

Metaphors in headlines have been frequently used by advertisers as an effective means of persuading the audience (Pawlowski, Badzinsky, & Mitchell, 1998). However, it should be noted that advertising practitioners need to take into consideration the nature of metaphors when they intend to use metaphors. Due to their artful deviation and complexity, metaphors can allow an audience to think deeper; but, at the same time, they may distract viewers from processing advertising claims. Also, metaphors' figurative characteristics may be fit for some types of products but unsuitable for other types of products. Therefore, it is important to investigate when it is more or less appropriate to use metaphors.

This study shows that metaphoric headlines can produce more favorable persuasive effect for hedonic products in low-involvement conditions. Also, in order to make an advertising claim for hedonic products, it is important to deliver products' symbolic value and sensitive experience to consumers effectively, in contrast to utilitarian products, which are evaluated through products' tangible features (Ryu et al., 2006). That is, it is necessary to heighten audiences' emotional responses when it comes to advertising hedonic products. Since metaphors basically have a symbolic nature and arouse viewers' affective elaboration, they can be fit for hedonic products.

This might be why the Skittles ad said “Taste the rainbow” instead of “Taste the colorful candies.” Through the process of comprehending metaphor, in which viewers try to link Skittles to a rainbow, their message elaboration, which was not naturally promoted due to the product’s low involvement, is aroused and the product’s hedonic value is maximized. After taking these reasons into consideration, the findings of this study, indicating the persuasive effects of metaphorical headlines are maximized in advertising for low-involvement and hedonic products compared to other product types, are plausible.

For the high-involvement/utilitarian product condition, there was no such advantage of literal message over metaphor. In contrast to the hypothesis, which postulated non-metaphorical claim would yield more favorable effect compared to a metaphorical one, no significant difference was observed between metaphorical and non-metaphorical headlines. Advertisers who promote this type of product are likely to convey to audiences the tangible attributes of a product in a rational way. In this study, the non-metaphorical claim, “Excellent protection for your car,” was created for the auto insurance ad. Since the message is based on cognitive appeal, the message strategy used is based on Millar and Millar (1990)’s matching strategy (i.e. utilitarian product — rational claim). As discussed earlier, Millar and Millar (1990) view that a matching strategy would be ineffective because of its high likelihood of being counterargued by message recipients. However, the core of the claim “protection” could be considered general and thus easily accepted by audiences, making counterargument toward this claim unnecessary. On the contrary, in the case of the metaphorical headline, “Excellent life jacket for your car,” there would be a mismatching effect between a utilitarian product and an emotional claim, “life jacket.” This metaphoric claim is in the opposite direction to its product type, so the probability

of being counterargued is low. Therefore, it appears probable that both metaphorical and non-metaphorical headlines would generate a similar persuasive effect.

As hypothesized, there was no difference between the metaphorical headline and non-metaphorical headline in the persuasive effect in the preference of headline. In this study, the headline “Let your skin wear a shield against the sun” was exposed as a metaphorical claim for sunblock lotion. However, the metaphorical headline did not show significant difference in persuasiveness compared to the explicit claim “Protect your skin against the sun.” As discussed above, this result may be ascribed to the offset between the influence of involvement and utilitarian/hedonic distinction. As in the previous case, no significant difference between two types of headlines for high-involvement/hedonic products was observed as well, which was predicted in the hypothesis. That is, for the perfume ads in this study, the metaphorical headline “A spring flower garden in a bottle” was not perceived to be favorable compared to the explicit headline “Fresh, floral scent”. These findings suggested that the moderating effect of two product distinctions (high vs. low involvement and utilitarian vs. hedonic) might be on a par. Advertising practitioners need to consider metaphors would have similar persuasive effects to literal claim for high-involvement/hedonic and low-involvement/utilitarian products

Limitations and Future Research

Some limitations should be noted. First of all, since this study utilized college student sample, the results need to be cautiously generalized to the consumers as a whole. The use of the college student sample, which is relatively homogenous, may bring about a bias to higher effect than that yield from the general population (Brown & Stayman, 1992). In addition, the participants’ level of education is likely to be higher than that of the general population. Taking

into account the fact that the comprehension of metaphors requires more cognitive efforts, the general population has more chance to misunderstand or fail to understand metaphors in ads compared to college students. Therefore, the generalizability of results from student samples may be limited.

Second, like other experimental studies in advertising, the artificiality of an experiment could not be avoided. There will be a difference between the survey results from exposure to mock-up print advertisements through the web site and actual exposure of advertisements through real magazines in natural settings. Also, since consumers usually have an attitude toward a brand after they receive a number of cues and experiences concerning the brand, measuring brand attitudes toward a fictitious brand after showing a single and information-limited advertisement could be questionable in terms of the validity of the study.

Finally, even though this study divided headline types into two categories, metaphorical headlines and non-metaphorical headlines, it should be considered that metaphors can be classified in terms of their complexity, individual differences, and age differences, by which the audiences' comprehension of metaphors could be varied (Morgan & Reichert, 1999; Pawlowski et al; 1998). Perhaps these cues should be included in research on metaphors.

In addition, visual elements of metaphors would need to be studied as visual metaphors have been commonly used in advertising communication (Boozer et al, 1991). According to the content analysis of rhetorical figures in print advertisements in the US from 1954 to 1999 by Phillips and McQuarrie (2002), visual metaphors have increased in incidence over time. The researchers found that visual metaphors are more implicit and complex than verbal metaphors (McQuarrie & Mick, 1996). Thus, it is recommended for future research to investigate whether the persuasive effect of such types of metaphors as verbal metaphors anchoring visual metaphor,

verbal metaphors with explicit visuals, or literal claim with visual metaphors could be varied in product types.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES

Below is a set of questions about your general opinions on advertising. Please answer the following questions.

I consider advertising is generally:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Bad	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__	Good
Unpleasant	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__	Pleasant
Unfavorable	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__	Favorable
Unconvincing	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__	Convincing
Unbelievable	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__	Believable
Biased	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__	Unbiased

We are interested in your opinion about the following mock-up ad. The ad is in its very early stage, currently only with headline and brand name. The company wants to know your opinion on the **headline** of the ad before developing the visual elements. Therefore, we ask you to answer the following questions ONLY based on the headline of the ad.

The first stimulus advertisement
is placed in this page
(See APPENDIX B)

Place a check mark (✓) in the space that best describes your opinion on the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
I had many <u>thoughts</u> in responses to the headline of the ad I saw.	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw elicited lots of <u>thinking</u> .	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
I had many <u>feelings</u> in response to the headline of the ad I saw.	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw elicited lots of <u>feeling</u> .	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw presented the claim <u>literally</u> .	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw presented the claim <u>directly</u> .	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw required me to <u>think deeper</u> to understand the ad.	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								

How many positive thoughts, reactions, and ideas went through your mind while you were looking at the headline of the ad?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not at all	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___							Very many

How many negative thoughts, reactions, and ideas went through your mind while you were looking the headline of the ad?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not at all	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___							Very many

How would you rate the helpfulness of the headline of the CION ad in shaping your attitude toward the brand CION?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not helpful at all	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___							Extremely helpful

On the rating scales below, place a check mark (✓) in the space that best describes your opinion on the **product category** as a whole.

When purchasing a dishwasher,

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
The decision is <u>important</u> .	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:
The decision requires <u>a lot of thought</u> .	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:
There is <u>a lot to lose</u> if I choose the wrong brand.	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:

When you characterize a dishwasher as primarily a functional product or as an entertainment /enjoyable product?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Primarily for functional use	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	____:	Primarily for entertainment use

We are interested in your opinion about the following mock-up ad. The ad is in its very early stage, currently only with headline and brand name. The company wants to know your opinion on the **headline** of the ad before developing the visual elements. Therefore, we ask you to answer the following questions ONLY based on the headline of the ad.

The second stimulus advertisement
is placed in this page
(See APPENDIX B)

Place a check mark (✓) in the space that best describes your opinion on the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
I had many <u>thoughts</u> in responses to the headline of the ad I saw.	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw elicited lots of <u>thinking</u> .	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
I had many <u>feelings</u> in response to the headline of the ad I saw.	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw elicited lots of <u>feeling</u> .	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw presented the claim <u>literally</u> .	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw presented the claim <u>directly</u> .	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								
The headline of the ad I saw required me to <u>think deeper</u> to understand the ad.	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___								

How many positive thoughts, reactions, and ideas went through your mind while you were looking at the headline of the ad?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not at all	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___							Very many

How many negative thoughts, reactions, and ideas went through your mind while you were looking the headline of the ad?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not at all	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___							Very many

How would you rate the helpfulness of the headline of the BOSCO ad in shaping your attitude toward the brand BOSCO?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not helpful at all	___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___							Extremely helpful

On the rating scales below, place a check mark (✓) in the space that best describes your opinion on the **product category** as a whole.

When purchasing auto insurance,

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
The decision is <u>important</u> .	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	
The decision requires <u>a lot of thought</u> .	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	
There is <u>a lot to lose</u> if I choose the wrong brand.	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	

When you characterize a chewing gum as primarily a functional product or as an entertainment /enjoyable product?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Primarily for functional use	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	___: ___:	Primarily for entertainment use

Please choose the statement that most reflects your opinion on two pairs of headlines for product categories indicated.

Dishwasher

A: Let your dishes take a quiet bath.

B: Get your dishes clean without noise.

- ___ A and B are saying exactly the same thing.
- ___ A and B are saying almost the same thing.
- ___ A and B are saying almost not the same thing.
- ___ A and B are not saying the same thing at all.

Auto Insurance

A: Excellent life jacket for your car

B: Excellent life protection for your car

- ___ A and B are saying exactly the same thing.
- ___ A and B are saying almost the same thing.
- ___ A and B are saying almost not the same thing.
- ___ A and B are not saying the same thing at all.

The following section is to identify your participation in the survey and will not be used for any other purpose.

1. Name

First name _____

Last name _____

2. E-mail address (Your e-mail will be used ONLY for the survey related communications, if necessary. Your e-mail address will be kept confidential. Once the survey is over, your e-mail will be deleted from data.)

This concludes the survey.

Your participation will be reported to your instructor.

Please click the "done" button; it will lead you to the survey homepage.

Thank you for your participation!

APPENDIX B
EXPERIMENTAL ADVERTISEMENTS



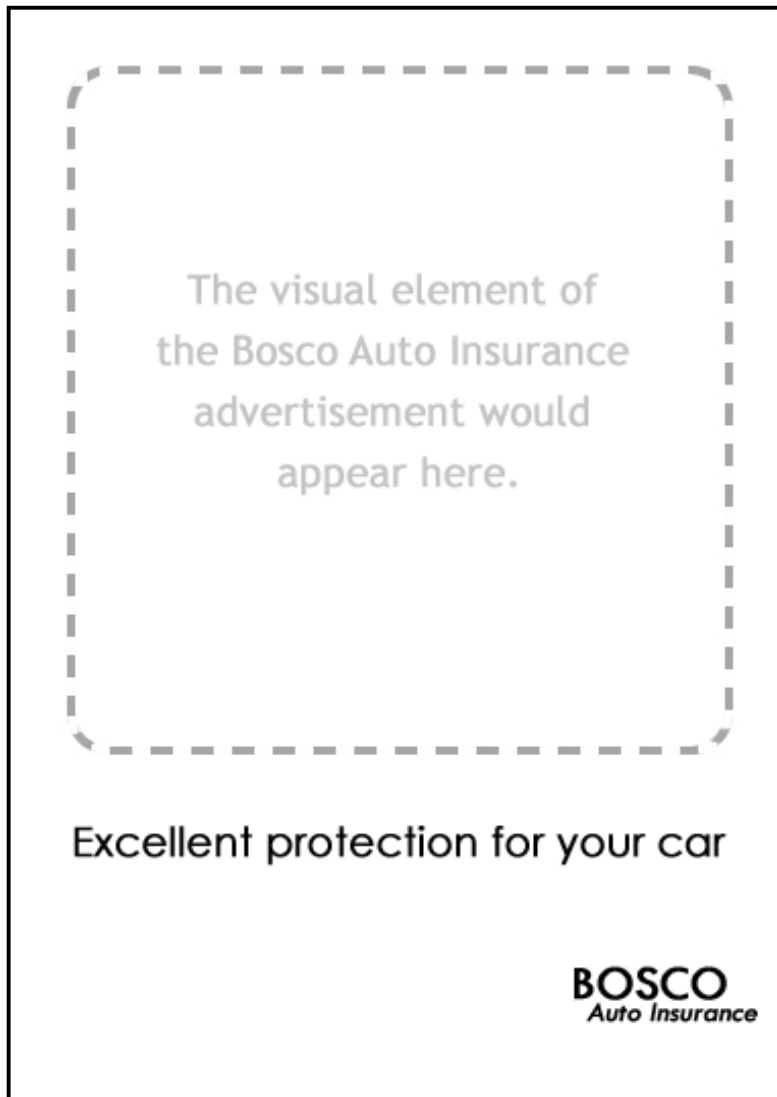
Advertisement # 1



Advertisement # 2



Advertisement # 3



Advertisement # 4



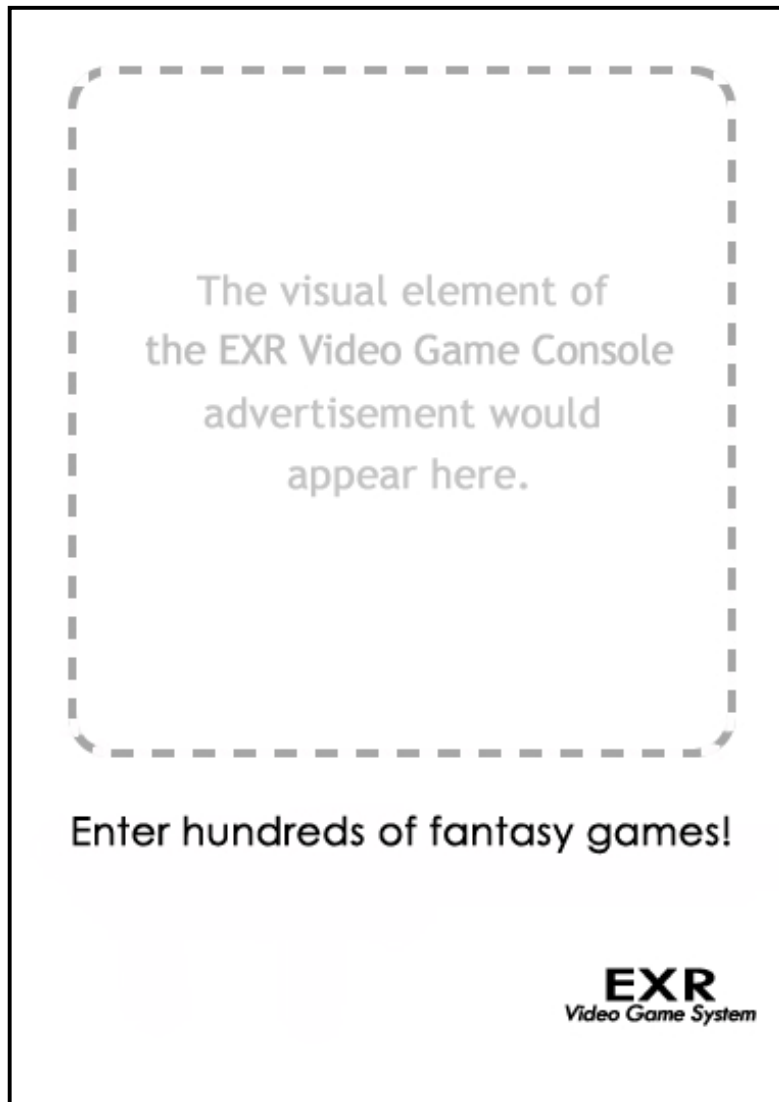
Advertisement #5



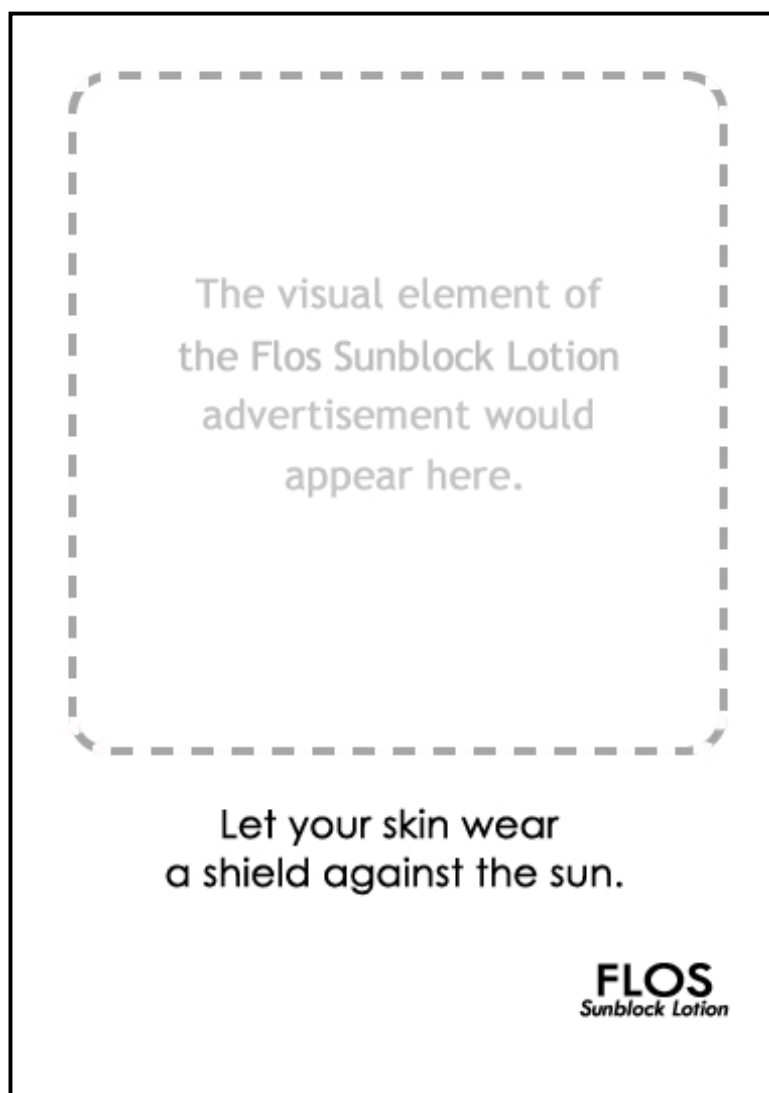
Advertisement # 6



Advertisement # 7



Advertisement # 8



Advertisement # 9



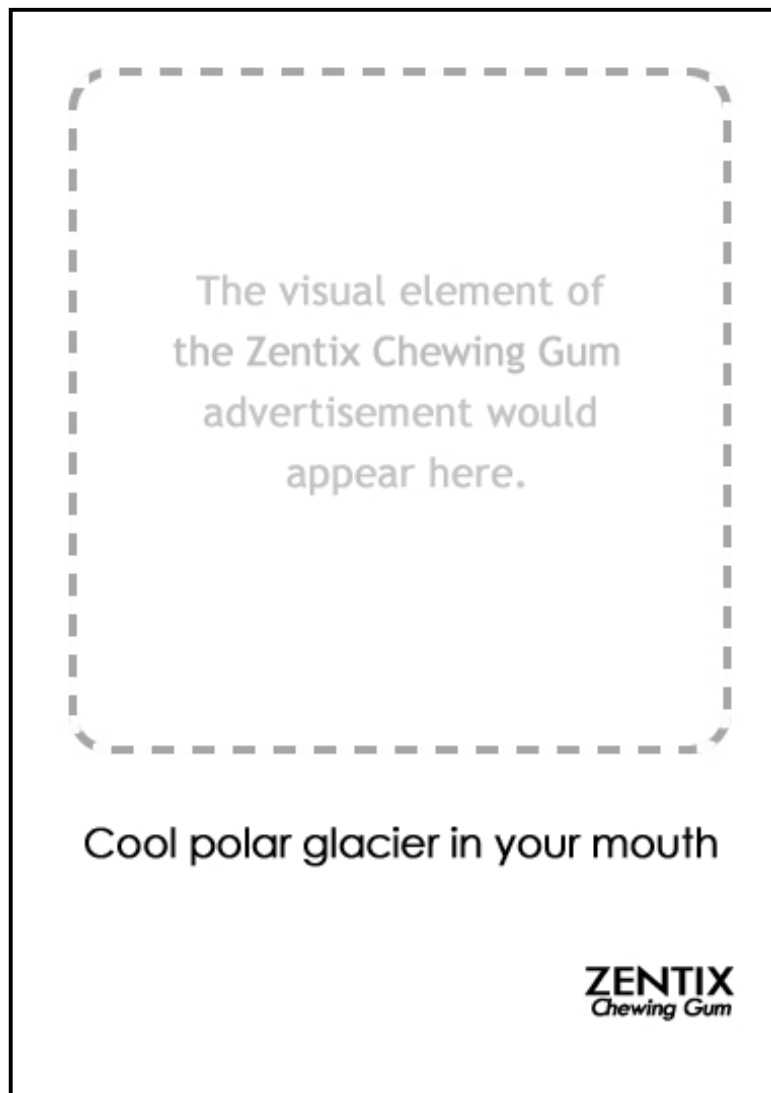
Advertisement # 10



Advertisement # 11



Advertisement # 12



Advertisement # 13





Advertisement # 15

