

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND BRAND PLACEMENT

by

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(Under the Direction of Spencer F. Tinkham)

ABSTRACT

This study examines the influence of individual differences (self-concept clarity, need for emotion, consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence, attention to social comparison information, need for cognition, and transportability) on consumers' belief toward the practice of brand placement. The results of factor analysis show that there are two dimensions: general attitude toward brand placement (ProBPL) and ethical perception of brand placement (Ethics) of belief toward the practice of brand placement. Through hierarchical regression analysis, three levels of individual differences (individual-related level, social-related level, message-related level) were found to be useful predictors of belief toward the practice of brand placement. Also the results show statistically significant predictive power for each individual difference level. The two dimensions of belief toward the practice of brand placement exhibited substantially different patterns of relationships to individual differences. To achieve more effective brand placement strategies, this study finds that individual differences in personality should be considered, along with demographic information (particularly age, race, and income).

INDEX WORDS: Brand Placement, Individual Differences, Marketing Communication, Resistance, Persuasion, Consumer Behavior, Advertising Avoidance, Media Planning, Social Influence, Information Processing, Message Strategy, Transportability, Need for Cognition

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DEDICATION

For

My lord, God

My Parents,

&

My family

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Numerous attempts have been made by researchers to reach a better understanding of the role of resistance in persuasion processes (Brehm, 1966; Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Brinol, Rucker, Tormala, & Petty, 2004; M. Green & T. Brock, 2000; McGuire, 1964; McGuire & Papageorgis, 1962). The notion of resistance has been investigated in the field of psychology, where the concept of resistance has occupied an important position especially in understanding persuasion mechanisms. Utilizing the principle of resistance to persuade message recipients may provide a fresh point of view in consumer and communication research (Knowles & Linn, 2004; Messer, 2002; Petty & Cacioppo, 1977; M. Pfau, 1992). The perspective of resistance-to-persuasion research has been applied in various manners. To protect audience from harmful and sensitive messages such as the portrayal of smoking, using drug, and drinking in motion pictures, inducing resistance can be used (e.g., Compton & Pfau, 2004; Crano, Siegel, Alvaro, & Patel, 2007). The exposure to the ethically-charged product portrayals (Gupta & Gould, 1997) or messages could harmfully affect vulnerable audiences, such as young people. On the other hand, the perspective of resistance can also be utilized, ironically, in persuading message receivers who have pre-existing resistance toward certain messages through reducing and removing their resistance to a persuasive trial. Thus, reducing or removing resistance in the persuasion processes can be an invaluable strategy for marketing communication practitioners and also a meaningful research topic for the consumer behavior researchers. To utilize the resistance principles in marketing

practice and also to explore it academically, looking into the nature of resistance should be the first consideration.

Diversified types of resistance-removing techniques (e.g., Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Brinol et al., 2004; Dal Cin, Zanna, & Fong, 2004; Knowles & Linn, 2004; McGuire, 1964; McGuire & Papageorgis, 1962; Rumbo, 2002) have been introduced in the psychology literature. Among them, Dal Cin, Zanna, and Fong (2004) have investigated the effectiveness of the narrative as a potential persuasion technique to reduce or remove audience resistance against persuasion efforts. Basically, the attributes of narratives are indirect, subtle, and furtive. Accordingly, narrative techniques can function more stealthily than direct, blatant, and overtly cumbersome persuasion efforts found in many advertisements.

Why does the surreptitious persuasion technique need to be explored? The most promising reason is based upon the fact that modern consumers frequently use the message avoidance strategies to evade excessive commercials due to weariness about the enormous number of commercial messages surrounding them (Dal Cin et al., 2004; Rumbo, 2002). According to Rumbo (2002), “the average American consumer was exposed to an estimated 3600 selling messages per day in 1996, compared to 1500 in 1984” (Rumbo, 2002, p. 128). Certainly, according to Percy and Elliot (2005), the large number of messages would be beyond consumers’ limited information-processing ability. With regard to the assumption of the limited processing ability of human beings, Percy and Elliot (2005) argued that when external information exceeds a human’s limited information-processing capability, the excessive messages cannot be properly processed by the recipients. What is worse, with the development of new media technologies, advertising zapping devices, such as TiVo have appeared. On the whole, the current situation may easily lead to consumer resistance and the possibility of

message avoidance (Gupta & Lord, 1998; Speck & Elliott, 1997), which would be detrimental to marketers. Hence, marketing managers and researchers should consider an alternatively effective persuasion method rather than obstinately insisting on traditional persuasion methods.

Associating with the need to seek a new persuasion way, Dal Cin et al. (2004) pointed out that advertisers increasingly employed product placement (interchangeably, brand placement: BPL) strategies to overcome consumer resistance as one of the effective persuasion alternatives. In this study, BPL is intensively examined in more detail in the next sections, along with the influence of individual differences on BPL.

Statement of Problem and Significance of the Study

During the past decades, in marketing communication and consumer behavior research, the investigation of the relationship between consumer attitude and persuasion has attracted much interest (e.g., J. Cacioppo, Harkins, & Petty, 1981; W. D. Crano & Prislin, 2005; Erwin, 2001; McGuire, 1985; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). The basic assumption that consumer attitude toward persuasive messages or media may eventually affect the consumer's belief in brands, whereby it will foster buying and increase a company's profits (Brown & Stayman, 1992; W. D. Crano & Prislin, 2005; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, 1986b) is the reason why consumer or audience attitude have received increasing attention. However, the approach of traditional communication research has focused more on inducing persuasion by directly creating or building positive consumer attitude toward or belief in brands rather than reducing or removing resistance to persuade target consumers or audience (Knowles & Linn, 2004). As a result, applying theoretical resistance viewpoints to communication research has been relatively neglected, compared with inducing persuasion (Brinol et al., 2004; Dal Cin et al., 2004).

Recently, across various social science fields, such as political science, communication, marketing, and consumer behavior, researchers have thrown new light on the subject of resistance (e.g., Brown, 2001; Crano et al., 2007; Dal Cin et al., 2004; M. Green & T. Brock, 2000; Knowles & Linn, 2004). However, as mentioned above, even though there are manifold resistance-removing methods introduced in the social science research arena such as psychology, this study does not deal with all those techniques. Instead, this study limits the discussion to brand placement as a form of narrative persuasion and the role of individual differences in this process.

A number of marketing practitioners and researchers have paid attention to the increasing market volume and sales of the practice of BPL (Brennan & Babin, 2004; Cowley & Barron, 2008; d'Astous & Seguin, 1999; Gould, Gupta, & Grabner-Kräuter, 2000; Gupta & Gould, 1997; Karrh, 1998; Karrh, Frith, & Callison, 2001; La Ferle & Edwards, 2006; Maynard & Megan, 2006; Morton & Friedman, 2002; Russell, 1998, 2002; Russell & Stern, 2006; Sung, Choi, & de Gregorio, 2008; Yang & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2007). In fact, the BPL market has rapidly grown in terms of its practice. In 2005, it was estimated to be used in 75 percent of prime-time network shows and the placement industry in 2004 was \$3.46 billion, with \$1.88 billion spent on television placements (Russell & Stern, 2006). Nevertheless, there still remains room for further investigation of BPL utilizing more theoretical examination rather than only its market demand to better understand the mechanism of BPL and how it works in effective ways. Thus, the psychological approach of this study supports in-depth understanding about how BPL works.

Another main concern of the current study is the influence of individual differences on consumers' belief in brand placement. For consumer researchers, identifying individual differences has been one of the goals because personality traits can be applied to develop

marketing strategy (Mowen, 1995). Usually, those personal characteristics come from psychological research to segment consumers according to their motivations, perceptions, learning, and other values (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994). Kassarian (1971) argued that consumers' purchase behavior, media use, social influence, or attitude change have been linked to their personality. Regarding the importance of personality or individual differences, Hong and Zinkhan (1995) also supported the idea of Kassarian (1971). That is, they argued that personality is an important and useful predictor of consumer behaviors with regard to media and brand choice and product purchase. Thus, the current study importantly concerns the individual differences (or personality traits) in the context of the practice of brand placement.

This study explores the relationships between individual differences and consumer's belief toward the practice of brand placement. Some research has investigated whether belief toward brand placement practice positively affects the effectiveness of brand placement (Gupta & Gould, 1997; Morton & Friedman, 2002). However, what seems to be still lacking is the exploration of the influence of personal characteristics on the belief toward the practice of brand placement. Based upon the assumption of the empirical studies (Gupta & Gould, 1997; Morton & Friedman, 2002) that belief in or acceptability of brand placement is an influential predictor of brand placement effectiveness, this study can provide a foundation for future research about the relationship between individual differences and the impact of brand placement.

Through an extensive review of literature in advertising and consumer behavior, it is relatively rare to find a study that examines the influence of individual differences on the belief in brand placement using theoretical frameworks. Rather, almost all brand placement research has been more interested in the effectiveness of brand placement with respect to consumer recall, recognition, or attitude toward brands (Brennan & Babin, 2004; Cowley & Barron, 2008; Gould

et al., 2000; Gupta & Lord, 1998; Karrh et al., 2001; Russell, 2002; Yang & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2007).

Hence, for the purpose of the current study, three theoretical information-processing frameworks (individual-related level, and social-related level, message-related level) and six individual differences (self-concept clarity, need for emotion, consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence, attention to social comparison information, need for cognition, and transportability) were studied using the existing theoretical foundation of psychology and consumer behavior.

The first framework is the individual-related level, which includes self-concept clarity: SCC (Campbell et al., 1996) and need for emotion: NFE (Raman, Chattopadhyay, & Hoyer, 1995). The working mechanism of the two variables can be regarded as self-oriented. That is, the level of individual-related variables is involved in the self-reference processing rather than the message level's interpretation or other reference group's influence.

The second framework is the social-related level. This level includes two social influence –related variables: consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (CSII) and attention to social comparison information (ATSCI). This level is based upon social influence theory (Park & Lessig, 1977; Wood, 2000; Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991) concerning brand placement. Although there are various social influence theories, these theories basically emphasize that people tend to interact with others, which in turn affects their beliefs and attitudes. The tendency makes people seek others' reactions or evaluations about themselves. Thus, social-oriented people may regard the practice of brand placement as socially relevant information. Through the process of identification, consumers may form their attitude toward products associated with an actor/actress in films and TV shows (Russell & Stern, 2006). Further, it is possible to apply the

logic of social theory in the context of brand placements. The social influence from a show's characters associated with the practice of brand placement may have an impact on consumers' attitudes or beliefs (Hudson & Hudson, 2006; Karrh, 1998; Russell & Stern, 2006) in brand placement. Thus, the people who have a socially-oriented tendency may positively react with favorable characters so that highly socially-oriented people are more likely to evaluate the social information sources (brand placement) more positively.

The third framework, the message-related level, contains two individual variables: Need for Cognition and Transportability. One is Need For Cognition (NFC) based upon the applied reasoning of the Elaborated Likelihood Model (ELM) (Cacioppo, Petty, & Kao, 1984; J. Cacioppo & Petty, 1982), though the ELM model is not directly tested in the present study. The other variable is transportability (Green & Brock, 2000), based upon the theory of narrative persuasion to overcoming resistance (Dal Cin et al., 2004).

In sum, the three levels of theoretical and hierarchical frameworks can provide a new approach to understanding how brand placement works in the narrative contexts, such as films or TV shows. Therefore, if the hierarchical working patterns result in a meaningful implication, the knowledge will significantly help to expand the foundation of brand placement research, especially regarding individual characteristics.

Purpose of Study

The objective of this study is to examine the influence of individual differences on consumers' belief in brand placement as an exploratory investigation for a subsequent experimental study. As discussed in the earlier section, although there have been numerous brand placement studies in the marketing communication and consumer behavior literature, researchers

have mainly been interested in the rapidly increasing market volume and sales scale of the brand placement industry. However, this study applies the theoretical background of the psychological phenomenon resistance into brand placement research to better understand consumer behavior.

Consistent with the purpose, individual differences were tested as predictors of belief in brand placement because it is possible to assume that human personality may determine consumers' acceptability or general belief while people are processing persuasive efforts (Haugtvedt & Petty, 1992; Kassarjian, 1971). The purpose was achieved by testing the relationships of each level of individual differences (individual-related level, social-related level, and message-related level) and consumer belief in brand placement.

The results of this research will contribute to the field of marketing communication and consumer behavior. To discover an effective and working alternative to the traditional communication approach, it is critical to implement targeted and specified communication planning for marketing or other audience persuasion. Understanding diverse individuals may be at the heart of the efforts. When targeting promotional media audience or planning any other persuasive campaigns, regardless of whether it is profit or non-profit, the current study will help decision makers. Several recommendations for decision making will be addressed.

The following chapter details the theoretical background for this study, drawn from the psychological resistance, narrative persuasion, and BPL literature. Also, the theoretical background of individual characteristics will be summarized according to the three systematic frameworks discussed above. Also, in the next chapter, the research questions and hypotheses are presented.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Resistance in Persuasion

Over the last few years, many articles in the psychology literature have been devoted to the study of resistance in psychology literature (e.g., Arkowitz, 2002; Brehm, 1966; Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Brinol et al., 2004; M. Green & T. Brock, 2000; McGuire & Papageorgis, 1962; Messer, 2002; Morimoto & Chang, 2006; Pfau et al., 2001). The term resistance has been used to refer to the desire to counteract someone else's attempts to limit one's choices (Brehm & Brehm, 1981), unwillingness to achieve others' insight about the real nature of one's thoughts or feelings (Messer, 2002), or even the feeling of ambivalence about change (Arkowitz, 2002), and so on.

Although there are various definitions of resistance, according to Knowles and Linn (2004), in general, resistance has two basic dimensions regarding its definition. First, resistance is sometimes understood as an outcome, which means the state of not being moved by any forces to change. On the other hand, resistance means a motivational condition to be against forces to change (Knowles & Linn, 2004). Thus, according to the way we define resistance, different research issues can be raised (Knowles & Linn, 2004). To distinguish those two notions of resistance, Knowles and Linn (2004) pointed out that a motivation to object against forces to change may not always result in behavioral resistance. However, although those two definitions are not always completely overlapping (Knowles & Linn, 2004), at least they are theoretically closely interrelated. Nevertheless, to concentrate on the purpose of the current study, the motivational aspect will be considered through individuals' personalities or characteristics to re-

act to forces to change. This study basically considers that individuals' differences will affect the motivation to accept or reject persuasive messages as demonstrated in many personality and attitude studies (e.g., Bearden, Netemeyer, & Teel, 1989; W. O. Bearden & R. L. Rose, 1990; Brown & Stayman, 1992; J. Cacioppo & Petty, 1982; Green & Brock, 2000; C. Haugtvedt, Petty, Cacioppo, & Steidley, 1988; Petty, Fabrigar, & Wegener, 2003; Petty, Ostrom, & Brock, 1981).

Brehm and Brehm's (1981) concept of reactance accentuates an external menacing source for resistance. They argued that "a threat to or loss of a freedom motivates the individual to restore that freedom" (p.4). That is, if people find that someone else is limiting his or her freedom to choose or act, they create the motive to insist on their freedom. Regarding people's judgment of the external threat, Brehm and Brehm (1981) asserted that the nature of the attack is very important. Overt, direct, and arduous requests will create more reactance than legitimate, subtle, and delicate requests. Nevertheless, the social science fields, such as communication, political science, and consumer psychology, which need to understand the nature of resistance to persuasion, frequently overlook the role of resistance in the persuasion process.

McGuire (1964) identified the interaction between persuasive threats and resistance. If a person is not very motivated to counter-argue against persuasive messages, then he or she could be easily persuaded. In contrast, if the motivations to resist toward external persuasion efforts are increased or counter arguments are available, then the persuasive messages will be obstructed. Concerning the dynamic interaction, much psychological research has pointed out that the resistance processes are not simply the reverse side of persuasion (Knowles & Linn, 2004). Consequently, the consideration of persuasion processes with the resistance perspective can provide more useful insight about communication and persuasion (Knowles & Linn, 2004). The aspect of resistance can be utilized to explore a better strategy to strengthen or change recipient

attitude or behaviors as much communication research has concentrated on the audience attitude and persuasion issues for several decades.

Narrative Persuasion to Overcome Resistance

As discussed above, there are various sorts of resistance-removing strategies (e.g., M. Green & T. Brock, 2000; Shakarchi & Haugvedt, 2004; Tormala & Petty, 2004). Among them, the present study focuses on the narrative strategy to more effectively persuade people more than persuasion with direct, blatant, and overt arguments. Dal Cin, Zanna, and Fong (2004) asserted that a narrative persuasion strategy is especially suited to overcoming resistance. Narrative communication is more likely to prevent the audience from message avoidance than the traditional persuasion methods (Morimoto & Chang, 2006; Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998; Rumbo, 2002). Dal Cin et al. suggested that there are two different routes by which narratives might overcome resistance, each of which reflects various working mechanisms. First, the narrative persuasion may remove resistance by reducing the “amount and effectiveness of counter-arguing or logical consideration (central processing) of the message. Second, narratives may overcome resistance by increasing identification with characters in the story (social influence)” (Dal Cin et al., 2004, p. 177).

Also, narratives work to remove people’s objection in other ways. Research has shown that individuals tend to avoid participating in external messages that are incongruent with their pre-existing attitudes (e.g., Sweeney & Gruber, 1984). Regarding the results, Petty and Cacioppo (1986a) pointed out that narratives may overcome the recipients’ pre-existing biased processing because narrative persuasion may weaken selective exposure. Narratives can be processed by the message recipients before they realize that the messages are persuasive in nature (Dal Cin et al.,

2004). Accordingly, narrative messages can be inherently appropriate especially for persuasive efforts seeking to change people's firm attitudes.

Narratives often relate different people's lives to each other, regardless of whether the lives are invented or authentic (Dal Cin et al., 2004). Researchers have suggested that it may be difficult to refute the messages conveyed by real or fictional people in a narrative (M. Green, Strange, & Brock, 2002; Slater & Rouner, 2002). As Green and Brock (2002) have especially noted, plausibility can be an important criterion by which people measure authenticity. That is, if people feel implausibility about a certain story, it will be neglected regardless of whether it is true or not. In contrast, if people perceive a certain story or message as very plausible, if not real, at least they can consider the plausible story as possible.

Narratives also have another advantage compared with an explicit advocacy often seen in commercials (Dal Cin et al., 2004). Due to the furtive trait of narratives, some beliefs are often conveyed in a more implied manner as opposed to messages stated explicitly. As Dal Cin et al. (2004) suggested, the buried message strategy may prevent people from counter-arguing against an external persuasive source because the strategy leaves message recipients with no specific refutation. Concerning the arguments of Dal Cin et al. (2004), Green and Brock (2000) and Slater (2002) argued that the message recipients who are absorbed in narratives may be left cognitively and emotionally less able to make any refutation against persuasive messages because the messages are naturally embedded in the story line.

Green and Brock (2000) explained that the absorption into the story line can be regarded as a convergent process, which means that all mental capabilities are engaged in the story (M. Green & T. Brock, 2000). However, cognitive psychology assumes that the human being's information processing capacity is limited (Percy & Elliot, 2005); hence, it is probably reasoned

that people will lose the recognition of reality when they are deeply absorbed in a narrative, and then the feeling of disbelief toward the story will be suspended. Consequently, the ability of cognitive information processing to generate counterarguments will be obstructed (Dal Cin et al., 2004). Thus, the attributes of narratives will help to persuade people if the persuasion messages are well-embedded in the narratives.

Brand Placement (BPL) as a Form of Narrative Technique

As brand placement occurs in the context of narratives, it can be assumed that it also has the attributes of resistance-removing similar to other narratives. Accordingly, in line with efforts to expand its application to real marketing communication practices while expanding its scope, the current study considers brand placement in the theoretical framework of overcoming resistance and narrative persuasion, because more persuasion will be possible when people do not realize that they are being exposed to persuasive attempts (Brinol et al., 2004; Dal Cin et al., 2004). Brinol et al. (2004) suggested that a salient persuasive message would more likely cause people to resist persuasion.

Various definitions of brand placement have been proposed (d'Astous & Seguin, 1999; Gould et al., 2000; Gupta & Lord, 1998; Karrh, 1998; La Ferle & Edwards, 2006; Maynard & Megan, 2006; Morton & Friedman, 2002; Russell, 1998; Yang & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2007). As de Gregorio (2005) observed, the definitions have been refined over the years, culminating with Karrh's (1998), extending the definition to include brand placements in various forms of media. According to Karrh (1998), brand placement is defined as "the paid inclusion of branded product or brand identifiers, through audio and/or visual means, within mass media programming" (Karrh, 1998, p. 33). However, there is still room to better define brand placement. Although

Karrh's (1998) conceptualization is widely accepted, Fisher and Wagner (2004) have suggested that "paid" needs to be removed from Karrh's definition because many practices of brand placement are frequently conducted without real monetary exchanges, but rather with other forms of exchanges such as the use of products for frequent and prominent exposure of brand identifiers (de-Gregorio, 2005). Accordingly, de Gregorio (2005) argued that, the practice of brand placement is not always a pure aesthetic choice of content writers because although there are sometimes non-paid practices of brand placement, basically the intention of marketing decision makers will be likely more oriented to promotional purposes (de Gregorio, 2005). In fact, brand placement is necessary to both the advertising industry and motion picture industry because the practice can make synergies for both advertisers as a promotional tool and content creators as financial supports of production (de-Gregorio, 2005).

It is noteworthy that although many research articles have used the term product placement more than brand placement, brand placement is more appropriate terminology compared with traditional product placement (Brennan & Babin, 2004; Karrh, 1998; Yang & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2007). In marketing, brand placement relates to the issues of more selective demand (Karrh, 1998). On the other hand, product placement relatively relates to the issues of generic demand (Segrave, 2004). Hence, assuming that marketing decision makers usually want to drive selective demand such as purchasing "Apple" or "Starbucks" rather than purchasing a notebook or coffee, the term brand placement more accurately captures the real intention of marketing decision makers (Karrh et al., 2001; Reid, 1999). Thus, although this study basically considers those two terms as interchangeable, in this thesis the term brand placement will be used for the purpose of the study.

Several studies about brand placement have suggested that the Reese's Pieces (chocolate brand) placement in the film *E. T. (The Extra-Terrestrial)* may be the first modern-style brand placement serving as a mediator between advertisers and content creators (Brennan & Babin, 2004; Karrh, 1998; Morton & Friedman, 2002; Russell, 1998). Since then, many advertisers have become more involved in brokering brand placement for their clients (de-Gregorio, 2005). There are some reasons why advertisers are increasingly interested in brand placements. First, there are many research articles reporting various numbers such as the increasing sales volume and profits or frequency of using brand placement (e.g., Brennan & Babin, 2004; Cowley & Barron, 2008; d'Astous & Seguin, 1999; Gould et al., 2000; Gupta & Gould, 1997; Gupta & Lord, 1998; Karrh et al., 2001; La Ferle & Edwards, 2006; Morton & Friedman, 2002; Russell, 1998; Yang & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2007). Particularly, the cost-benefits with the potential for extended audience market will be attractive to advertisers (Wasko, Phillips, and Purdie, 1993). Although there is still no established pricing standard of the practice of brand placement, through brand placement brands can be seen or heard by viewers in various routes such as film, video games, DVD. Also, brand placement is broadcasted on network television, pay cable channels, and even globally marketed across other countries (e.g., Gould et al., 2000; Morton & Friedman, 2002).

Considering that a popular show is frequently re-run in the syndication market, brand placement's cost effectiveness should be powerful. Second, another important aspect of brand placement for those involved in the content-creation side of media (e.g., film directors, music producers, and video game developers) is financial support in producing the art work. Brand placement deals assist in reducing continually rising production and marketing costs (de-Gregorio, 2005). In 2005, the average cost of producing and marketing a Hollywood film rose to \$96.2 million along with \$39 million marketing costs. Considering that the averaged and

combined marketing/production costs of a film was \$55.06 million, adjusted for 2003 inflation rates in 1993, the cost of film production and marketing is rapidly increasing (Sung et al., 2008). In this situation, as discussed previously, non-paid practices of brand placement will greatly reduce the costs.

Based upon the resistance theory, there are various outcomes of resistance such as counter-arguing or not being changed (Knowles and Linn, 2004). Advertising avoidance can be explained upon the foundation of resistance. Particularly, the understanding of the motivation to resist against persuasive messages may help to better understand how advertising avoidance tendency works.

In sum, the narrative nature of brand placement can be used to overcome consumer resistance toward persuasive messages due to its unobtrusive and subtle traits. Dal Cin, Zanna, and Fong (2004) explained that the structure of narratives is likely to obstruct consumers' counter-attitudinal efforts because a story unfolds with some degree of suspense. That is, because the development of a story or plot is usually not predictable to the audience, narratives may not be easily selectively exposed until it is too late (Dal Cin et al., 2004). This reasoning leads us to posit that the audience will not readily avoid persuasive efforts (usually, marketing-oriented) with brand placements. Thus, many brand placement studies have appraised the importance of brand placement as a marketing communication strategy. The present study tries to expand the ways to understand consumer attitude toward brand placement with the psychological foundation of resistance to persuasion. It will help to understand consumers' different information-processing patterns regarding marketing persuasion efforts, such as brand placements.

Individual Differences in Resistance to Persuasion

The way that people think plays a major role in shaping their opinion or attitude toward their circumstances. For this reason, individuals' various personalities have been the focus of many studies reported in the social science literature (e.g., J. Cacioppo et al., 1981; J. Cacioppo & Petty, 1982; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986b). According to Kassirjian (1971), researchers have made numerous efforts to relate various consumer behaviors such as purchasing, use of media, or other personality-related behaviors with individual characteristics. Based upon the research tradition, a number of individual difference variables have been considered as important sources of resistance. That is, the sources of resistance are attributable to personal characteristics (Shakarchi & Haugvedt, 2004). However, it is not easy to say that a single general personality makes people more or less resistant to persuasion because there can be many individual personalities affecting resistance (Brinol et al., 2004).

For example, since the early 1950s, there have been many efforts to identify individual differences affecting resistance such as "cognitive rigidity," which means the stability of the person's beliefs and "authoritarianism personality," which arose out of the idea that some individuals were predisposed to agree with the fascist ideology (Brinol et al., 2004). According to Brinol et al. (2004), people low in authoritarianism would be more likely to resist, and authoritarianism can provide a partial support to predict level of resistance to social influence. Recently, the interests in identifying those general individual differences in understanding resistance to persuasion have been revived (Dal Cin et al., 2004).

On the other hand, concerning identifying individual differences, Shakarchi and Haugtvedt (2004) noted that some of the individual scales can measure overlapping notions like the consideration of future consequences with the need for cognition (J. Cacioppo & Petty, 1982).

Thus, Shakarchi and Haugtvedt (2004) explored the relationship of the various individual difference measures with one another: the need to evaluate, the need for cognition, self-referencing, resistance to persuasion, consideration of future consequences, bolster-counter-arguing, and transportability. They concluded that these various individual difference measures relevant to resistance have high validity and seem to make theoretically independent contributions in measuring individual differences (Shakarchi & Haugtvedt, 2004) though there are still many potential individual characteristics which need to be investigated. For the purpose of this study, several important individual variables related with narrative persuasion/BPL were considered, along with some of the individual differences explored by Shakarchi & Haugtvedt, such as the need for cognition (J. Cacioppo & Petty, 1982) and transportability (Dal Cin et al., 2004).

Although many studies have been conducted on understanding individual differences, Dal Cin et al. (2004) suggested that researchers still need to identify other individual variables to catch the mechanism of how, when, and for whom narrative persuasion works to overcome resistance. Through the investigation of identifying meaningful personalities, it will be possible to determine whether or not narrative persuasion is indeed different from traditional persuasion techniques.

The following section details the theoretical background for each individual difference variable chosen for this study. The research hypotheses and questions are also presented.

Individual-Related Level

Self-Concept Clarity (SCC). Self-concept clarity is defined as the “extent to which the contents of an individuals’ self-concept (e.g., perceived personal attributes) are clearly and

confidently defined, internally consistent, and temporally stable” (Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavalley, and Lehman, 1996, p. 141). Campbell et al. (1996) argued that self-concept clarity is related to, but a distinct concept from, the aspect of self identity such as achievement, status, self-esteem, and so on. Also, because the concept is perceptual rather than behavioral, the concept is not always an accurate predictor of behavior. This concept includes belief-based items about people’s self-perception.

During the past decades, the view of self-concept has been dramatically transformed by psychologists. Although the early researchers considered the self-concept as uni-dimensional, modern researchers deal with the self-concept as a multifaceted construct (Campbell et al. 1996). Regarding the nature of self-concept clarity, Campbell et al. (1996) argued that clarity overlaps with many other traditional constructs. One of the most overlapped concepts is self-identity. However, they pointed out that the identity is much more complex than clarity (Campbell et al. 1996). In addition, there are other similar constructs such as self-concept stability, which focuses on the temporal stability of self-belief (Rosenberg, 1965), and self-consistency, which emphasizes internal consistency of self-beliefs (Gergen & Morse, 1967).

Campbell, Chew, & Scaratchley (1991) asserted that high-self-esteem people have a positive belief about themselves. In contrast, low self-esteem people are better characterized by relatively uncertain, unstable, and inconsistent, which means low clarity. Of course, these self-concept-related constructs are not easily explained and understood by referencing only differences in the clarity or certainty of their self-beliefs (Campbell & Lavalley, 1993). Nevertheless, these self-concept-related constructs can be validly conceptualized as relatively stable traits (Campbell et al. 1996). Supporting this self-concept clarity’s validity and reliability,

Setterlund and Neidenthal (1993) pointed out that a manipulation of low clarity predicted the possibility of failure to decide on some choices involving the self.

Need for Emotion (NFE). The need for emotion (NFE) is defined as “the tendency or propensity for individuals to seek out emotional situations, enjoy emotional stimuli, and exhibit a preference to use emotion in interacting with the world” (Raman, Chattopadhyay, and Hoyer, 1995, p 537). This notion is mainly appropriate for short-term emotions, rather than long-term emotions. Nevertheless, Raman et al. (1995) proposed that the need for emotion can partially explain a person’s behavioral type. Although there are some similar constructs regarding affect or emotion, the notion of the need for emotion is a distinct construct (Raman et al., 1995). Interestingly, as Raman et al. hypothesized, female subjects ($M = 46.42$, $SD = 8.97$) rated significantly higher on the need for emotion than males ($M = 43.83$, $SD = 8.54$; $t = 2.23$, $p < .05$).

Like the need for cognition, the need-for-emotion construct can be considered as an important and popular individual difference variable. The need for cognition has been relatively well established in the communication literature (Raman et al., 1995). Particularly, based upon the Elaborated Likelihood Model (ELM), the need for cognition has been utilized in empirical research dealing with the message-induced information-processing procedure through the central or peripheral route (Batra and Stayman, 1990).

Raman et al. (1995) pointed out that persons will differently process affective or emotional stimuli. The need for emotion may have its own importance due to the assumption that consumer behavior can be different based upon individuals’ emotional needs (Raman et al., 1995). Thus, the assumption of the need for emotion can give rise to meaningful questions such as the following: Would the type of brand portrayal have an impact on persuasion? Does an

emotionally likeable main character in a TV show tend to be more effective in endorsing brands positively associated with the main characters in the show? These and other questions may be addressed through an understanding of the need for emotion. For the purpose of the current study, basically, more emotional people can be considered as more easily absorbed into the story, which leads the individuals to being transported into the plot.

Much research has demonstrated the importance of affect and moods of consumers on consumers' memories, evaluation, and behavior (e.g., Edell and Burke, 1987; Gardener, 1985; Raman, Charropadhyay, and Hoyer, 1995). Raman et al. (1995) pointed out two foundations of why the need for emotion should be considered as an important construct. First, due to the differences in expressiveness, orientation, and intensity of emotional experiences, individuals may differently seek out emotional stimuli (Harris and Moore, 1990; Larsen and Diener, 1987; Raman, Charropadhyay, Hoyer, 1995). Second, buyers' information processing, decision-making, and impulsive-purchasing may be better understood dealing with emotions and affective cues (Raman et al., 1995).

As indicated above, the need for emotion (NFE) is a relatively short-term oriented construct because NFE would be related to seeking out and enjoying specific emotional events or objects. Nevertheless, the NFE taps into a relatively stable tendency to seek emotional cues such as other personality factors (Raman et al., 1995).

However, even though the current study deals with both the need for cognition and the need for emotion at the same time, those two constructs are not exclusive of each other. Raman et al. (1995) emphasized that NFE is conceptualized to be independent from NFC, so that individuals may be high or low on either, or on both emotional and cognitive dimensions. Thus, even though the relationship between those two constructs is not a main concern in this study, it

should be noted that the need for emotion may not always be understood in terms of the ELM model's peripheral route as a counterpart of a central route which is related to the need for cognition. Although the issue is beyond the scope of the present study, it can be explored in future research.

On the other hand, regarding the relationship between the need for cognition and the need for emotion, Raman et al. (1995) pointed out that it can be speculated that persons may differently avoid emotional cues rather than seek out emotional situations. Concerning the difference, they explained that an alternative reason can stem from the wording of the items in the scale. They noted that the word "emotion" or "emotional situation" appears frequently in the scale so that subjects may have interpreted the terms negatively. However, interestingly, the limitation of Raman et al.'s study (1995) can provide a good rationale to use the need for emotion in relation to the general belief in brand placement. The need-for-emotion scale was examined in more general contexts rather than specific emotions such as joy and anger, or positive-versus-negative emotions (Raman et al., 1995) though the investigation of specific emotional contexts is required for the future research.

Social-Related Level: Social Influence Frame

Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence (CSII). This construct is defined as "the need to identify with or enhance one's image in the opinion of significant others through the acquisition and use of products and brands, the willingness to conform to the expectations of others regarding purchase decisions, and/or the tendency to learn about products and services by observing others or seeking information from others" (Bearden et al., 1989, p. 474). The social influence of individuals' behavior has increasingly been of interest to psychologists (Bearden et

al., 1989). Particularly, product portrayal used by prominent/attractive spokespersons has been evidence of the social influence construct. Endorsing products has been used to explain consumer behavior (Bearden et al., 1989). Stafford and Cocanouer (1977) claimed that without considering the effects of interpersonal influence on consumers' development of attitudes, norms, values, and purchase behavior, consumer behavior cannot be fully understood.

The consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence construct stems from McGuire's (1968) concept of influence ability and is consistent with early research which argues that individuals differ in their reactions to social influence (Bearden, 1989). McGuire (1968) observed that people who conform to one source on one issue will likely conform to other sources on other issues.

The review by McGuire (1968) concluded that susceptibility to interpersonal influence is a general trait that varies across individuals and that an individual's influenceability in one situation tends to be significantly positively correlated to the person's influenceability in a range of other social circumstances. With regard to susceptibility to influence, McGuire (1968) and Cox and Bauer (1964) pointed out that people with low self-esteem accept other people's suggestions easily to avoid social disapproval. In particular, regarding the relationship between self-confidence and persuasibility, Cox and Bauer (1964) argued that there is correlation between them. With regard to this issue, Janis (1954) concluded that people having low self-esteem tend to be more easily influenced than others. Supporting these arguments, Berkowitz and Lundy (1957) found that individuals with low interpersonal confidence are more vulnerable to peer influence.

Based upon the above discussion, Bearden et al. (1989) reported that researchers have shown an interest in interpersonal influence and its effect on decision processes. Many

researchers (e.g., Ellis, 1980; Moschis, 1976; Witt and Bruce, 1972) investigated the tendency of people to conform to reference group norms or other's evaluations when making judgments. Regarding social influence, Burnkrant and Cousineau (1975) defined normative influence as the trait to conform to the expectations of others.

On the other hand, consumers' susceptibility can be interpreted in other, more positive ways. Although the above research on consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence represents a somewhat negative or vulnerable consumer tendency, the construct also can be positively and practically dealt with. The practical aspect is especially closely related to the context of brand placement.

The idea of value expressiveness provides evidence of the practical aspect (Kelman, 1962). Value expressiveness is motivated by the person's desire to support their self-concept through referent identification (Kelman, 1962). Importantly, the value expressiveness works through the identification mechanism, which operates when a person accepts an opinion of another because the opinion is associated with satisfying a self-defining relationship (Brinberg and Plimpton, 1986; Price et al., 1987; cited in Bearden, 1989). In other words, individuals' compliance occurs when they conform to others' expectations to achieve any compensation to avoid disadvantages by the reference group (Bearden et al., 1989).

In addition to value expressiveness, the idea of informational influence also provides supports for the positive interpretation of consumer susceptibility with regard to the practice of brand placement. Informational influence is defined as the tendency to accept information from others as evidence about reality (Deutsch and Gerard, 1955). Beard et al. (1989) explained that informational influence may occur in two ways -- the observation of the others' behavior (Park and Lessig, 1977) and the process of internalization, which occurs when information from others

increases the persons' knowledge about their surroundings. Thus, Bearden and Etzel (1982) asserted that informational influence is bound to affect consumers' decision processes regarding product/brand selections.

Attention to Social Comparison Information (ATSCI). Attention to social comparison appraises the extent to which one is aware of the reactions of others to one's behavior and is concerned about or sensitive to the nature of those reactions. These individuals care what other people think about them and look for clues as to the nature of others' reactions toward them (Lennox and Wolfe, 1984). The attention to social comparison information is derived from the theory of self-monitoring (Snyder, 1979) presuming the consistency of individual differences in the extent to which individuals regulate their self-image by adjusting their behaviors in accordance with situational cues.

Bearden and Rose (1990) argued that the working processes of interpersonal influence are dependent upon the persons' participating in the beliefs and expectations of others. Thus, regarding product choices, the extent to which people are sensitive to social comparison cues can affect purchase behavior. In other words, individuals' concern about others' reactions to themselves may have much impact on their decision making (W. O. Bearden & R. L. Rose, 1990). Concerning predicting and understanding consumer behavior, grasping what kinds of normative influences are contributing to developing their behavioral intentions is important. Regarding the issue, Miniard and Cohen (1983, p. 171) argued that "to the extent consumers' behavior is influenced by concerns over what others might think of them or how others might act toward them as a function of their product choice and usage, the identification and separation of normative from personal reasons for preferring a product would appear to be quite useful."

As discussed above, attention to the social comparison information measure (Lennox & Lennox, 1984) was revised based upon Snyder's (1979) self-monitoring. Lennox and Wolfe (1984) reported that attention to social comparison information was identified as a variable distinct from the self-monitoring construct due to its powerful relationship with social anxiety. According to them (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984), people basically have two kinds of social anxiety dimensions regarding attention to social comparison information factors such as neuroticism ($r = 0.29$) and fear of negative evaluation ($r = 0.64$). Simply put, persons scoring high in attention to social comparison information care what other people think about themselves (W. Bearden & R. Rose, 1990). This point can be applied to the marketing communication contexts. Marketing communication techniques often provide social comparison information to consumers with positive reinforcement as a result of using products (Nord & Peter, 1981). Sometimes the opposite techniques are used in negative appeal like social sanctions for failing to use products (W. Bearden & R. Rose, 1990). Snyder and DeBono (1985) found that the effects of social threat appeals in advertising are different across persons.

In consumer contexts, Beard and Rose (1990) suggested that attention to social comparison information can be a more solid moderator of consumer conformity than self-concept clarity because it is strongly related to social anxiety, which leads to motive (e.g., the evasion from negative social evaluation). In contrast to self-concept clarity (J. Campbell et al., 1996), proposing that persons who have a high self-esteem should be less concerned with social negative evaluation, socially sensitive people will follow the portrayal of brands in media. Bearden and Rose (W. O. Bearden & R. L. Rose, 1990) argued that attention to social comparison information's moderating role is largely normative in nature. They supported the idea that there is a strong correlation between attention to social comparison information and

Bearden et al.'s (1989) normative subscale of susceptibility to interpersonal influence ($r = 0.68$). Consequently, the attention to social comparison information can be regarded as a supportive variable with consumer susceptibility to the interpersonal influence factor in social influence classification for the purpose of this study.

Message-Related Level: Narrative Persuasion Frame

Need for Cognition (NFC). The need for cognition (NFC) represents a person's tendency to engage in and enjoy thinking (Cacioppo and Petty 1982). The need for cognition is described by Cohen, Stotland, and Wolfe (1955) as "a need to structure relevant situations in meaningful, integrated ways. It is a need to understand and make reasonable the experiential world" (p. 291). This scale is frequently used in consumer research especially regarding persuasive messages (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). Also, this concept was applied to understanding endorser attractiveness in advertisements and understanding consumer attitude formation (Cacioppo and Petty, 1982). According to Haugtvedt, Petty, Cacioppo, and Steidley (1988), persons with a high need for cognition are more affected by the quality of the advertisement arguments. On the other hand, Inman, McAlister, and Hoyer (1990) reported that individuals with a low need for cognition easily respond to simple price promotion cues regardless of its real cost reduction.

The need-for-cognition research has focused on two main issues: the nature of knowledge and the character of the processes to gain and use this knowledge (e.g., Wyer & Carlston, 1979; Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). Cohen et al.'s (1957) experiments found that high need-for-cognition people are more likely to structure and evaluate the information to which they are exposed. The need for cognition is supported by research such as that conducted by Haugtvedt et al. (1988) and Inman et al. (1990). Low need-for-cognition people tend to be affected by the peripheral

cues, for example, endorser attractiveness or price-related information rather than high quality information (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann, 1983). Thus, the proposition can be posited that high need-for-cognition people will not have a good attitude toward brand placement because the people who have a high need for cognition may be more likely to counter-argue the persuasive messages of brand placement than their counterparts.

Transportability. The concept transportability stems from transportation (Green & Brock, 2000). Dal Cin, Zanna, and Fong (2004) suggested that the impact of narrative messages on readers' responses may be dependent on "the extent to which a reader becomes involved with the narrative" (Dal Cin et al., 2004, p. 181) Green and Brock (2000) termed this phenomenon transportation, which is defined as "a convergent process, where all mental systems and capacities become focused on events in the narrative" (p.701). Because human beings have a limited ability to counter-argue against persuasive messages, if many persuasive messages are inaccessible, counter-arguing is increasingly difficult as absorption in the story increases (Dal Cin et al., 2004). In that meaning, more transportability may be useful for overcoming resistance by reducing negative thoughts associated with the persuasive messages.

When individual differences are considered as unique personal characteristics, one of the individual personality traits, transportability may work in narrative persuasion. Some individuals are readily transported by narratives, whereas others are not absorbed in stories and a low level of transportation occurs; these characteristics are called transportability (Dal Cin et al., 2004). Dal Cin et al. (2004) thought that transportability is a moderator that is appropriate to narrative persuasion. To measure this construct, they created the transportability scale. From the assumption that transportability is a generalized trait to be transported into stories, they designed

the measurement scale to be distinct from transportation at a specific time, in response to a specific narrative (Dal Cin et al., 2004; M. Green & T. Brock, 2000).

Belief toward the Practice of Brand Placement

Many studies have investigated the effects of brand placement on recognition, recall, attitude, or purchase intention in motion pictures (Babin & Carder, 1996; Gould et al., 2000; Gupta & Lord, 1998; Karrh et al., 2001; Morton & Friedman, 2002). For example, Karrh, Frith, and Callison (2001) claimed that the first published study about general audience attitudes towards brand placement may have come from Nebenzahl and Secunda's study (1993). In their study, over 70 percent of the open-ended answers were positive about brand placement and about 25 percent of respondents thought that brand placement should be prohibited or restricted on ethical reasons (Nebenzahl & Secunda, 1993). In addition, according to Gupta and Gould (1997), 1,012 American college students reported generally positive attitudes toward brand placement (product placement) except for some ethically charged products such as alcohol and tobacco. In the study, the general acceptability of brand placement was relatively high for more frequent film viewers. On the other hand, Gould, Gupta, and Grabner-Krauter (2000) have investigated the cross-cultural differences among Austrian, French, and American consumers' purchase intention and reported that American consumers and females are more likely to purchase brands seen in movies. Especially, regarding the overall consumer attitude toward brand placement, researchers have argued that consumers' evaluation of brand placement has an impact on acceptance of brand placement. For example, Nebenzahl and Secunda (1993) argued that consumers' belief toward the practice of brand placement have influence on their acceptance of the brand placement in general.

However, almost all brand placement research has mainly been conducted on consumers' brand recognition, recall, and overall attitudes (Brennan & Babin, 2004; Gupta & Lord, 1998; Karrh, 1998; Karrh et al., 2001; Morton & Friedman, 2002) rather than measures more specific to brand placement contexts. Thus, Morton and Friedman (2002) adapted eight useful measure components (Gupta & Gould, 1997; Karrh, 1998), which are appropriate to brand placement contexts from previous studies and then put them into one construct. The construct, the so-called belief toward the practice of brand placement, has multiple items to assess the "individual's perceptions, awareness, and feelings about product placement, including its perceived benefits relative to traditional advertising, its utility in establishing movie scene authenticity, and the merit of the practice in general" (Morton & Friedman, 2002, p. 36). Morton and Friedman (2002) also conducted factor analysis with those items included in the belief in brand placement construct, and then two meaningful factors were uncovered: "ProPlacement" and "Ethical." Also Morton and Friedman (2002) conducted a regression analysis with those two variables to test the relationship between the two factors of belief in brand placement and consumer behavior. As a result of the test, two factors were significant predictors of consumer behavior (Morton & Friedman, 2002).

However, Morton and Friedman (2002) indicated that, there are still only a few studies on belief in or acceptance of brand placement. Considering that the belief, acceptance, or evaluation of brand placement has influence on consumer behavior such as purchase, it is important work to investigate the antecedents or predictors affecting the acceptance or evaluation toward brand placement. In this context, there is still more research needed on understanding the relationships between individual differences and belief in brand placement.

Thus, to investigate the relationship between individual differences and the belief in brand placement, the current study provides an exploratory foundation. To do so, this study utilizes well-identified individual differences measures with theoretical frameworks. The research hypotheses and research questions will be addressed according to these frameworks.

Hypotheses and Research Questions

The hypotheses and research questions, derived from the literature review, are presented in this section based upon empirical grounding from specific research findings in resistance, brand placement, and the individual difference research area. The current study is an exploratory work for future experimental study in a continuing research stream. This study will focus on individual differences and belief in brand placement. As stated above, individual differences have been considered as predictors of the effects of persuasive communication (Haugtvedt, Petty & Cacioppo 1992; Wang and Mowen, 1997). However, surprisingly few attempts have so far been made to explore the influence of individual differences on acceptance of brand placement. In this study, three theoretical frameworks of six individual differences (transportability, self-concept clarity, consumer susceptibility interpersonal influence, attention to social comparison information, need for cognition, and need for emotion) were utilized. As introduced in the earlier section, some of those individual differences have been frequently studied in such fields as marketing communication, psychology, and consumer behavior. On the other hand, some other personality measures are relatively new notions. Research questions, the three classifications of the six individual differences, and hypotheses are explicated below.

Individual-Related Level

Self-Concept Clarity (SCC). One measure of individual-related level frame is self-concept clarity (J. Campbell et al., 1996). Self-concept clarity is defined as “the extent to which the contents of an individual’s self- concept are clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent, and temporally stable” (Campbell et al., 1996, p. 141). Regarding self-concept clarity, as discussed previously, people who have higher self-monitoring tend to be characterized by having a positive belief about themselves and also having strong self-esteem (J. Campbell et al., 1996; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Based upon this assumption, one proposition can be generated. Individuals who have high self-concept clarity, while they are watching a motion picture, will not be easily affected by the main characters’ preferences about the brands they use. Expanding this idea, people who have strong self-esteem or self-concepts will not be easily persuaded by brand portrayals in the scenes of a show. Based upon the marketing decision makers’ point of view, brand placement usually aims to build and develop a positive attitude toward their brands associated with the show, character, or plot. Thus, brand placement may be used for the purpose of persuading people in more subtle and covert manners (Dal Cin et al., 2004). However, in the case of people who have definite and clear self-esteem, they will not be likely influenced by brand placement. Hence, those individuals will not have a positive evaluation about brand placement, and thus the following proposition can be made as follows:

H1: Self-concept clarity will be negatively associated with belief toward the practice of brand placement.

Need for emotion (NFE). While Raman et al. (Raman et al., 1995) expected the need for cognition and the need for emotion to have no or a low correlation with each other, a moderate correlation (for the developmental study: $\alpha = .46, p < .01$; for the hold-out study: $\alpha = .31, p < .01$)

was found in their study. A negative correlation between the need for cognition and the need for emotion would imply that both measures are opposite in direction (Raman et al., 1995). However, as they argued, these two measures are basically conceptualized and developed differently.

Conceptualizations of the need for emotion deal more with individuals' emotional aspects rather than the cognitive sides of the need for cognition. Thus, it is possible to assume that some people can exhibit high scores for both need for cognition and need for emotion (Raman et al., 1995).

Raman et al. (1995) provided an explanation for the finding as follows: "Cognition and affective systems are considered to interact with each other and not function in isolation...Both of these constructs describe a tendency to seek out stimuli, albeit different types of stimuli" (Raman et al., 1995, p. 541). Thus, the investigation of the need for emotion, along with that of the need for cognition, can provide a better understanding of the mechanism of audience information processing.

Five important basic conceptualizations of the need for emotion provide the rationale for why the need for emotion can be a suitable measure of individuals' emotional message processing regarding narrative brand placement contexts: "(a) whether a person seeks to be involved in situations where there is a potential for emotion-laden stimuli to be present, (b) whether a person is comfortable with and even enjoys experiencing such situations, (c) whether a person prefers to process emotional information, (d) emotional preferences and general behaviors across situations, and (e) emotion as a single dimension, rather than various emotional sub-dimensions" (Raman et al., 1995).

As described above, emotional individuals may have a stronger motivation to seek out emotional stimuli for enjoyment. Thus, it can be assumed that more emotional individuals will more likely watch motion pictures that are emotionally entertaining rather than their counterparts.

In line with the contexts of the need for cognition, as the need for emotion is basically a personal stable trait, when they watch a popular show, they will be readily transported into the show and will also be involved with the state of empathy with the main characters of the narrative. In that case, if the association between characters/plot and brands is positive, individuals with a high need for emotion will positively process the brand associations with the emotional empathy. While this implication has similar rationale with some social influence variables dealt with in this study, the need for emotion is basically a distinct construct and also can help expand an understanding of how consumers evaluate emotionally associated information such as brand placement.

H2: The need for emotion will be positively associated with belief toward the practice of brand placement.

Social-Related Level: Social Influence Frame

Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence (CSII). Consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and attention to social comparison information can be classified into the social influence framework. Consumer susceptibility is related with self-image enhanced with other peoples' opinions through the acquisition and use of brands (Bearden et al., 1989). Bearden et al. (1989) argued that some individuals tend to try to satisfy other people's expectations through a purchase decision. Thus, those people are likely to be more vulnerable to fascination such as attractive main characters in motion pictures. In general, the main characters in popular TV shows or films are charming actors/actresses. Thus, people who are vulnerable to the trend of society may tend to want to be similar to the famous and stylish people portrayed in the show.

The notion of identification provides a rich explanation to better understand those people. Russell and Stern (2006) argued that identification is a useful notion to understand the mechanism of how brand placement works, along with individual differences. According to their research, people who have a tendency of being easily socially influenced may consider popular actors/actresses in shows as attractive (Russell & Stern, 2006). Accordingly, brands placed in the shows will be regarded as preferable because the attractive characters use them, or at other times the brands are positively associated with the characters even though they do not use the brands directly. Thus, if brand placement is well designed and structured in narratives, individuals who have high susceptibility to interpersonal influence will positively appraise brand placement because brand placement will help them enhance their positive social image allowing them to enhance their self-image through referent identification (Bearden et al., 1989).

H3: Consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence will be positively associated with the belief toward the practice of brand placement.

Attention to Social Comparison Information (ATSCI). Based upon a rationale similar to that of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence, but clearly a distinct conceptualization, attention to social comparison information can be regarded as another important individual characteristic related to social influence. Attention to social comparison information provides the background to understand why individuals seek out social information through various media or others. Lennox and Wolfe (1984) explained that people with high attention to social comparison information tend to be concerned about what others think about themselves. That is, those persons are sensitive to the reactions of others, so they look for cues about others' reaction to them (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). With regard to brand placement, the attention to social comparison information can be applied in order to understand why people watch TV shows or

films as social information sources (Richins, 1991; Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). In the case of a popular TV show, as discussed previously in the consumer susceptibility section, the show will be a useful information source to the people who seek social comparison sources. In fact, sometimes a certain brand can become popular with consumers due to the TV show's popularity, especially when the brand is positively and attractively associated with the main characters of the show. People who pay much attention to social comparison information will consider brand placement as a serviceable and convenient social information provider among others.

H4: Attention to social comparison information will be positively associated with belief toward the practice of brand placement.

Message-Related Level: Narrative Persuasion Frame

Need for cognition (NFC). In consumer research, one of the important and widely investigated attitude models is a three-component attitude model consisting of three dimensions: cognitive, affective, and conative (Brown & Stayman, 1992; Greenwald, 1968; Knowles & Linn, 2004; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, 1986b; Petty et al., 2003; Petty et al., 1981; Petty & Wegener, 1998). According to researchers, some focus more on one of these dimensions or others focus more on more than one at the same time (Knowles & Linn, 2004). In line with the efforts to expand the previous studies of the three attitude dimensions to brand placement research, the present research tests the influence of two of these dimensions -- the cognitive and emotive aspects -- as important measures of individual differences with regard to brand placement acceptance.

The need for cognition has been a popular and important measure of individual differences in such areas as consumer behavior and communication research (Haugtvedt & Petty,

1992). Regarding narratives, the construct can provide a good reason to be applied to understand brand placement. As discussed previously, brand placement has a narrative nature (Dal Cin et al., 2004). As mentioned in the earlier section, the need for cognition represents the individuals' tendency to enjoy thinking (J. Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). The study by Haugtvedt, Petty, Cacioppo, and Steidley (1988) showed that individuals with a low need for cognition were influenced more by the peripheral cue endorser attractiveness, compared with their counterparts who were more influenced by the quality of arguments in the advertisement.

Applying the logic of the empirical study results to brand placement contexts, people's tendency to identify themselves with attractive main characters in TV shows or films will likely lead to a more positive attitude toward brands associated with the characters or endorsers as demonstrated in advertising research (e.g., Russell & Stern, 2006). Thus, these people may have a relatively positive attitude toward brand placement because they may not operate their cognitive and thoughtful scanning system to filter the contents of motion pictures. Rather, they can consider the practice of brand placement as interesting while they are watching motion pictures.

In addition, the people with a low need for cognition can be easily transported in narratives if they are interested in the main characters or other situational peripheral cues such as background music or atmosphere rather than the quality of the argument. Because the messages of narratives are usually interpreted in subtle and furtive moods, those who have a low need for cognition will not be concerned about why brand placement appears in a certain scene; rather, they will just enjoy watching the scene. Based upon this reasoning, individuals with a low need for cognition will positively accept the practice of brand placement if brands are positively associated with attractive characters. In fact, with regard to the relationship between the need for

cognition and brand placement portrayal, Gibson and Maurer (2000) found that, using the Elaboration Likelihood Model as a framework (J. Cacioppo & Petty, 1982), non-smokers with a low need for cognition reported more favorable attitudes toward smoking with greater willingness to be friends with a smoker in movies as stimuli. Notably, there can be negative associations between brands and main characters; however, when assuming that usually the marketing decision makers' main purpose is to promote their brands positively in general, the issue of negative brand association with characters goes beyond the boundary of this study though the issue deserves investigation in future research.

H5: The need for cognition will be negatively associated with belief toward the practice of brand placement

Transportability. Transportability can be classified into the message-related level. This study focuses on the role of individual differences on consumers' belief of the practice of brand placement. Thus, the basic assumption is that individual differences may play an important role in narrative persuasion (Dal Cin et al., 2004). Dal Cin et al. (2004, p. 183) describe transportability with a comparison that "some individuals seem to be readily and deeply transported by narratives, whereas others do not seem to experience the same level of transportation." They called this individual difference "transportability." Because brand placement is a form of narrative persuasion techniques to overcome audience resistance, if a person is more transported into the story, he/she will likely enjoy the show. With regard to the nature of brand placement, which is usually embedded in the scene in motion pictures, high transportable individuals will likely consider brand placement more favorably because the narrative uses brand placement as a tool to reinforce the reality of the show. People who like narratives and tend to be easily absorbed into narratives may consider brand placement as a

necessary and useful component for narratives lending verisimilitude (Karrh, 1998). Thus, the person who is high transportability will have a more positive belief in brand placement.

H6: Transportability will be positively associated with belief toward the practice of brand placement.

Research Questions

The above hypotheses were basically proposed to test the influence of each individual difference on the overall belief in brand placement. However, as described in the above literature review section, regarding the two dimensional aspects of the belief in brand placement, the predictors may have different relationships. As Morton and Friedman (2002) argued in their study, two different dimensions of the overall belief about brand placement were uncovered as meaningful predictors of consumers' purchase behavior. If those two dimensions are separated from each other, do they have the same relationships with individual differences? Accordingly, the previously proposed hypotheses can be tested for each different dimension of belief about brand placement (ProPlacement and Ethical). Thus, this study refined and adjusted the above broad hypotheses to be more specific to the context of each dimension. That is, based upon the above overall hypotheses, in fact the current study tested two sets of hypotheses on two different dependent variables: ProPlacement: H1~H6 and Ethical: H7~H12).

RQ1: With regard to the individual differences, are there any meaningfully different relationships between ProPlacement and Ethical?

If there are different relationships between ProPlacement and Ethical, to enhance the predictive power of the individual difference variables, a comprehensive model can be proposed in addition to the separate tests of individual differences on the two dependent variables. As

mentioned previously, through the extensive literature review, six individual differences were classified into three conceptual frameworks (individual-related level, social-related level, and message-related level). Thus, it can be proposed that the influence of the individual differences can be differently explained by each level of hierarchy. In particular, because in this study the perspective of resistance theory and narrative persuasion was the starting point of the study, the study has interests more in the message-related (narrative persuasion) level. Also, need for cognition can be tested in the same group with transportability as an important component of the message-related level. Thus, to better explore the hierarchical relationships among three frameworks, the following research question can be addressed:

RQ2: Is there any meaningful increment in the power of prediction when each level (frame) is hierarchically added to the other levels?

The adjusted hypotheses and research questions are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Hypotheses and Research Questions

Hypotheses
H1: Self-concept clarity will be negatively associated with ProBPL
H2: The need for emotion will be positively associated with ProBPL
H3: Consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence will be positively associated with ProBPL
H4: Attention to social comparison information will be positively associated with ProBPL
H5: The need for cognition will be negatively associated with ProBPL
H6: Transportability will be positively associated with ProBPL
H7: Self-concept clarity will be negatively associated with Ethics
H8: The need for emotion will be positively associated with Ethics
H9: Consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence will be positively associated with Ethics
H10: Attention to social comparison information will be positively associated with Ethics
H11: The need for cognition will be negatively associated with Ethics
H12: Transportability will be positively associated with Ethics
Research Questions

-
- RQ1: With regard to the individual differences, are there any meaningfully different relationships between ProPlacement and Ethical?
- RQ2: Is there any meaningful increment in the power of prediction when each level (frame) is hierarchically added to the other levels?
-

Figure 1 shows the overall research framework with regard to the comprehensive hierarchical Regression model and in the following section the methods used in the study, including research design, sample, measurements, and procedures, are detailed.

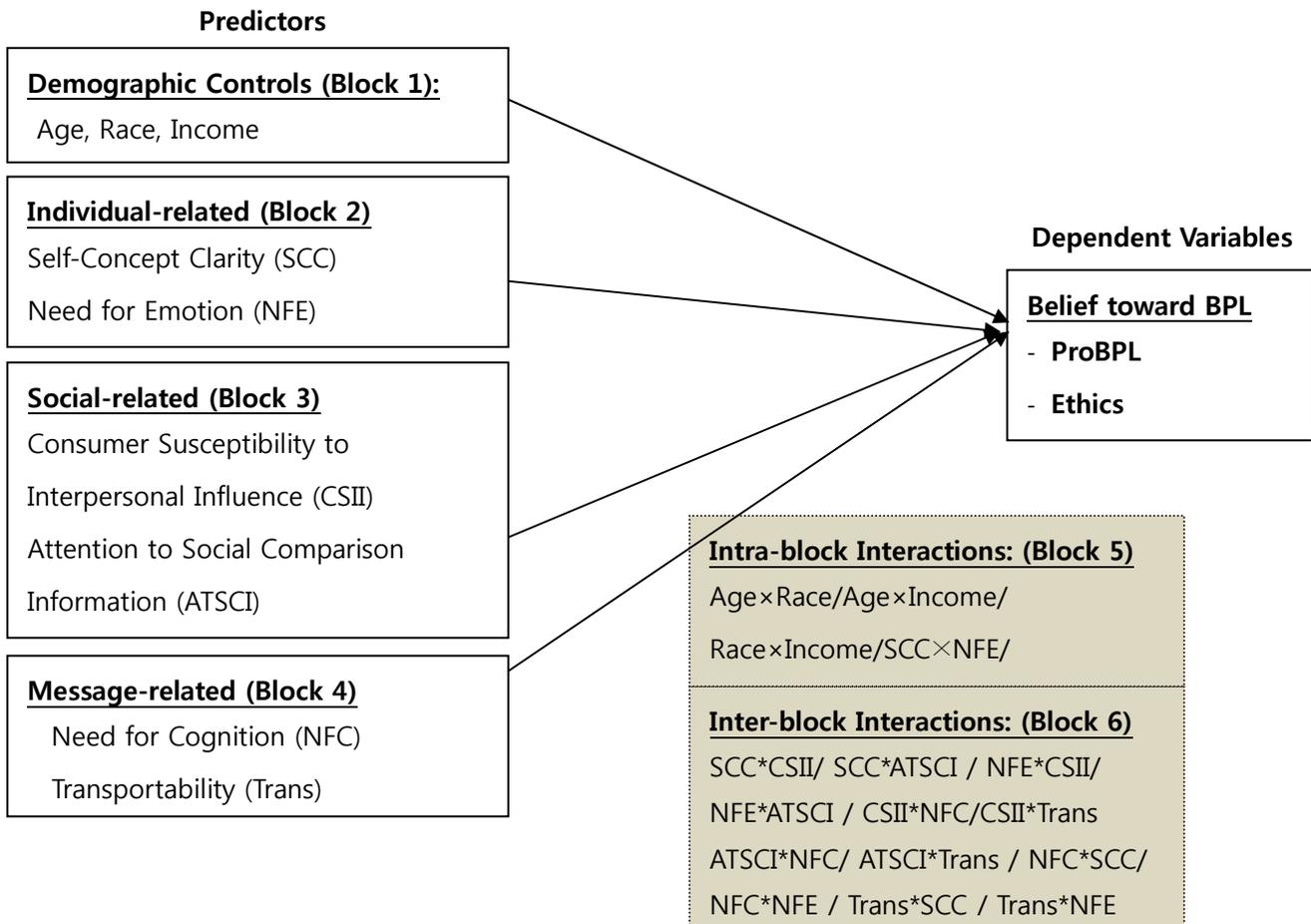


Figure 1. Hierarchical Regression Model

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The data for this study were collected during two weeks of May 2009. A professional online survey Web site (Zoomerang.com) was used to program the research instruments and collect the data. The online survey was designed to collect data for two different studies simultaneously through both a survey and an experiment. There are a total of five parts in the online survey questionnaire. The first two parts were designed mainly for the survey study, the remaining two parts were designed for the experimental study (not analyzed in this thesis), and the final part consisted of demographic questions. Each part will be detailed in the following sections: research design, sample, procedures, and measurements. Evidence for reliability and validity of all measures is provided.

Research design: Survey and Experiment Mix

The current study is one part of the mixed research design including both a survey and an experimental study. The survey study was designed to test the relationships between six individual differences (need for cognition, need for emotion, self-concept clarity, transportability, attention to social comparison information, and interpersonal influence) and consumers' general belief toward the practice of brand placement. As the second part of the mixed design, the experimental study tested the effects of brand placement type (One sensory: video only or visual only versus Mix: a video-audio combination) and plot-connectedness (high versus low) on

consumers' recognition of and attitude toward brands placed in a film, and the purchase intention as the consumers' conative index.

The six individual differences tested in the survey study will also be carefully investigated with regard to the effects of brand placement in the experimental study in the near future. Because it was considered that brand placement possibly has narrative characteristics, plot-connectedness can be meaningfully explored with the individual differences and the impact of brand placement. Also, the frequently investigated variable brand placement type or modality should be considered with regard to the individual frameworks and differences. More interestingly, the influence of consumers' belief (evaluation or acceptance) in brand placement will be tested on the effectiveness of brand placement.

However, for the purpose of the current study, this methodology chapter focuses more on the survey study than the experimental study. Thus, in this methodology chapter, the methodology of the second experimental study such as experimental measurements or manipulation checks will be only briefly described and not reported in detail because it is not the main concern of the present thesis. This decision is justified by the exploratory nature of the present study.

Sample

Overall, a 308-consumer panel members (adult sample) were utilized by a professional online survey agency MarketTools (for the pretest: N=41; for the main test: N=267 and missing N=4) using the online survey software (Zoomerang.com) for both the survey and experimental studies. Because this study used MarketTools' consumer panel as subjects, the total response rate was over 95 percent (N=304) and the usable data rate was over 95 percent (N=302). Considering

numerous potential negative factors on response rate in both postal and e-mail surveys such as survey length, respondent contact, design, etc (Sheehan, 2001), the response rate was high. Because sample selection and assignment, respectively are important elements for valid survey and experimental research (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006), the reasons for the high response rate need to be described as evidence. Thus, the description of the consumer panel recruiting procedure is presented in the following section. In addition, the national representative characteristics of the sample are explained.

According to MarketTools (Derek Rosen, personal communication, May, 2009), the online consumer panel is recruited in various ways, including direct recruiting efforts to encourage users to join, recruiting via Zooerang and ZoomPanel websites, and partnerships with direct marketing services. The composition of the recruited panel is carefully monitored to target hard-to-reach groups. Also the representativeness of the sample is considered. As a result, the panel of the survey closely mirrors the U.S. and Canadian populations on all key attributes such as geographic distribution, gender, age, household income, and presence of children, and so on. That is, the consumer panel of the current study is basically a nationally representative quota sample.

However, the study utilized an adult consumer panel as a purposive sample. To strengthen the rationale for the validity of the study and reflect the real audience composition of the show used in the study, the study tried to follow the real audience composition of the *Sex and the City*: more female than male; relatively younger audience. One of the limitations in imitating the real audience composition was that the show was premiered through premium cable channels, such as HBO or TBS. It can probably be inferred that the premium show's audience information is not likely to be gathered in media data archives such as Simmons Choices III because the

audience population is regarded as relatively smaller than network broadcasting shows.

Consequently, through an extensive online search of many reviews or editorials about the show and with the consideration of the show's characteristics such as its premiered periods or impact on society, 70 percent female and 30 percent male were decided as the ratio of gender.

Concerning the age composition, the study tried to follow the U.S. Census Bureau's reports (U.S. Census Bureau, May, 2009). In terms of age, there is not so much difference between each 5-year age unit. Most units represented a range from 6.11 percent to 7.52 percent (age 25-64; average ratio for each 5 year unit: 6.64 percent). Based upon the information, the study intended to imitate the relatively evenly distributed composition and encouraged relatively younger subjects to participate in the survey.

One other important recruiting procedure supported the validity of the sample. At the stage of consumer panel recruitment, the following a specific recruitment procedure was adopted:

MarketTools verified the information that panelists provided against extensive databases with objectively validated consumer demographics. These databases have been built for specific industries such as consumer financial services (Derek Rosen, personal communication, May, 2009). MarketTools applied this validation process to all prospective panelists — and to those of MarketTools' participating TrueSample Certified Partner network. As a result of this process, as many as 20 percent potential panelists were turned away.

MarketTools went a step further and used digital fingerprinting to eliminate blacklist fraudulent respondents across MarketTools' TrueSample Certified Partner network. Specifically, MarketTools took advantage of a powerful filtering technology that determined whether a given respondent was a duplicate or professional survey-taker and eliminated such undesirable respondents from the database. The technology is similar in concept to the fraud-detection

mechanisms employed by credit card companies to authenticate individuals. With digital fingerprinting each computer is tracked anytime it tries to take a survey, building a survey history. Multiple e-mail accounts that are used to take surveys on the same computer are identified, and panel accounts from multiple research firms on the same computer are identified and blocked (Derek Rosen, personal communication, May, 2009).

Sample Size

A number of rules of thumb have been used to determine the minimum number of subjects required to conduct multiple regression models. Identification of the necessary sample size is an important issue in the estimation and interpretation of the multiple regression models. However, Green (1991) noted that the use of a rule of thumb with some constant (e.g., 150 subjects) as the minimum number of subjects was not supported. According to Green (1991), some support was obtained for a rule of thumb supporting $N \geq 50 + 8m$ (m = number of predictors) for the multiple correlation.

Although there is no clear guideline regarding the necessary sample size, considering the commonly used sample sizes in multivariate research and using the above equation ($N \geq 50 + 8m$; $50 + 8*6$), the usable sample size (>250) is considered sufficient to yield statistically valid result for multiple regression modeling, though Green (1991) suggested that researchers might also consider the effect size as well as the number of predictors as a slightly more complicated rule of thumb. Even with this more sophisticated guideline, a large size ($N \geq 250$) is deemed to possess sufficient statistical power.

Measurements

Dependent Variable-Belief toward Brand Placement

Morton and Friedman (2002), sought to explore the variables that contribute to a consumer's belief in brand placement. They adopted eight statement items measuring general consumer belief toward the practice of brand placement from previous studies on product placement (e.g., Gupta & Gould, 1997; Karrh et al., 2001). The measure's statements were revealed to have two underlying dimensions through factor analysis with a principal component technique, along with varimax rotation (Morton & Friedman, 2002). The current study assumes that the two underlying dimensions might be used to explain specific patterns of relationships between individual differences and belief in brand placement separately that might not be evident from examination of the one original construct. The rationale for this assumption is presented in Results chapter (chapter IV) through factor analysis based on the current data.

Morton and Friedman (2002) named the two dimensions as "ProPlacement" and "Ethical." They explained the classification that the first dimension is composed of three variables: BELIEV, FEEL, and RECALL. On the other hand, the second dimension includes a more ethics-oriented conceptualization containing two variables: ETHICS AND BANNED (see Table 2 for the items). Regarding these two different dimensions, Morton and Friedman (2002) explained that the ProPlacement dimension is related to the potential effects of how and by whom a product is used in a movie. On the other hand, the Ethical dimension may involve concerns about ethical aspects of the practice of brand placement. However, the negative wording of the ethical items does not indicate a negative attitude toward brand placement because the negative wordings were reverse coded during the analysis period. Rather if the

scores of the ethical aspect are high, that indicates stronger positive judgment of the ethics of brand placement. Thus, for the purpose of the current study, the two dimensions were considered to represent different aspects of the consumer beliefs toward the practice of brand placement. Thus, the unweighted global calculation was not utilized for the analysis to test the inter-relationships between individual differences and consumer belief in brand placement. The elaborated distinction will help the present research model better explain the influence of individual differences on brand placement acceptance. The items in the overall belief toward the practice of brand placement are presented in the table below (Table 2.).

After the participants read the description of brand placement, belief toward the practice of brand placement was measured using eight component statements. The component items were intended “to measure the individual’s perceptions, awareness, and feelings about brand placement, including its perceived benefits relative to traditional advertising, its utility in establishing movie scene authenticity, and merit of the practice in general” (Morton & Friedman, 2002, p. 36). The participants evaluated eight items using a seven-point Likert scale that measured the individual’s intensity of agreement to each item. Negatively worded items were reverse scored such that higher scores reflected higher belief in brand placement. Labels for each statement were *strongly disagree* and *strongly agree*. The component items that comprised the belief toward the practice of brand placement constructs were 1) ALTER, 2) ETHICS, 3) TICKET, 4) BANNED, 5) BELIEV, 6) PAYMOR, 7) FEEL, and 8) RECALL. The scales are briefly described below, and Table 2 provides the exact phrasing of each item by variable.

Table 2. Brand Placement Comprehensive Items

Name	Item statement	Dimensions
ALTER	1. Brand placements in movies are a good alternative to traditional commercials.	-
ETHICS*	2. The idea of placing brands in movies is not ethical because the moviegoer doesn't want to watch paid advertising.	Ethics
TICKET	3. Brand placements in movies are a good idea for keeping down the price of admission tickets.	-
BANNED*	4. In my opinion, brand placement in movies should be banned.	Ethics
BELIEV	5. Real brand should be used extensively in movies to make a scene more believable.	ProPlacement
PAYMOR*	6. Brand placements in movies can keep the price of movie tickets low, but I'd pay more to see a movie without them.	-
FEEL	7. The way the brand is used in a movie scene can affect my feelings about the product.	ProPlacement
RECALL	8. When a character that I like uses a brand in a movie, I am more likely to remember the brand.	ProPlacement

Note: An asterisk indicates that items were reverse coded.

Independent Variables

Participants were asked to answer each of the 87 statements using a seven-point Likert scale. The six scales are briefly described below (W. Bearden & R. Netemeyer, 1999; Dal Cin et al., 2004; Green & Brock, 2000; M. Green, 2004):

Self-Concept Clarity scale (SCC). The scale consists of 12 items scored on a seven-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree and summed and averaged. This measure represents a single factor and thus can be considered uni-dimensional. Negatively worded items are reverse scored such that higher scores reflect higher SCC. This measure was developed and validated by Campbell et al. (1996).

Need for Emotion scale (NFE). The NFE scale is composed of 12 items scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. This scale was developed and validated by Raman et al. (Raman et al., 1995) All worded items are reverse scored such that higher scores reflect higher NFE.

Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence Scale (CSII). The CSII scale consists of 12 items each scored on a seven-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. This scale was developed and validated by Bearden, Netemeyer, and Teel (1989). Two factors were assumed to underlie the original development of items: (a) normative factor items and (b) informational factor items. This scale is scored and summed and averaged. A higher score is indicative of susceptibility.

Attention to Social Comparison Information scale (ATSCI). The ATSCI scale has 13 items which are scored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Item scores are summed to form an index. This scale was proposed and validated by Lennox and Wolfe (1984). Items are scored and summed and averaged.

Need for Cognition (NFC). The original scale has 34 items proposed and validated by Cacioppo and Petty (1982). In 1984, Cacioppo et al. proposed an 18-item short form for assessing NFC. Some of the items are reversely worded to prevent response bias. For the purpose of the present study, the short version was used and scored using a seven-point scale labeled from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Like other common personality variables, item scores are summed and averaged for an overall index.

Transportability. The scale consists of 20 statements. Negatively worded items are reverse scored such that higher scores reflect higher transportability. Labels for each statement were *strongly disagree* and *strongly agree*. This construct was adopted from Dal Cin et al.'s study (Dal Cin et al., 2004), which is revised from the transportation scale of Green and Brock (2000). The scale was intended to capture its major dimensions, including “emotional involvement in the story, cognitive attention to the story, feelings of suspense, lack of awareness

of surroundings, and mental imagery” (Green & Brock, 2000, p. 703). Items are scored and summed and averaged.

Table 3. Measurement Instruments

Measurement Items	Source
<i>Self-Concept Clarity (SCC)</i>	Campbell et al. (1996)
1*. My beliefs about myself often conflict with one another. 2*. On one day I might have one opinion of myself and on another day I might have a different opinion. 3*. I spend a lot of time wondering about what kind of person I really am. 4*. Sometimes I feel that I am not really the person that I appear to be. 5*. When I think about the kind of person I have been in the past, I’m not sure what I was really like. 6. I seldom experience conflict between the different aspects of my personality. 7*. Sometimes I think I know other people better than I know myself. 8*. My beliefs about myself seem to change very frequently. 9*. If I were asked to describe my personality, my description might end up being different from one day to another day. 10*. Even if I wanted to, I don’t think I could tell someone what I’m really like. 11. In general, I have a clear sense of who I am and what I am. 12*. It is often hard for me to make up my mind about things because I don’t really know what I want.	
<i>Need for Emotion (NFE)</i>	Raman et al., (1995)
1*. I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is a likely chance of my getting emotionally involved. 2*. Experiencing strong emotions is not something I enjoy very much 3*. I would rather be in a situation where I experience little emotion than one which is sure to get me emotionally involved. 4*. I don’t look forward to being in situations that others have found to be emotional. 5*. I look forward to situations that I know are less emotionally involving. 6*. I like to be unemotional in emotional situations. 7*. I find little satisfaction in experiencing strong emotions. 8*. I prefer to keep my feelings under check. 9*. I feel relief rather than fulfilled after experiencing a situation that was very emotional. 10*. I prefer to ignore the emotional aspects of situations rather than getting involved in them. 11*. More often than not, making decisions based on emotions just leads to more errors. 12*. I don’t like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that is emotional in nature.	

Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence (CSII)

1. I often consult other people to help choose the best alternative available from a product class.
2. If I want to be like someone, I often try to buy the same brands that they buy.
3. It is important that others like the products and brand I buy.
4. To make sure I buy the right product or brand, I often observe what others are buying and using.
5. I rarely purchase the latest fashion styles until I am sure my friends approve of them.
6. I often identify with other people by purchasing the same products and brands they purchase.
7. If I have little experience with a product, I often ask my friends about the product.
8. When buying products, I generally purchase those brands that I think others will approve of.
9. I like to know what brands and products make good impressions on others.
10. I frequently gather information from friends or family about a product before I buy.
11. If other people can see me using a product, I often purchase the brand they expect me to buy.
12. I achieve a sense of belonging by purchasing the same products and brands that others purchase.

Bearden,
Netemeyer,
and Teel
(1989)

Attention to Social Comparison Information (ASCI)

1. It is my feeling that if everyone else in a group is behaving in a certain manner, this must be the proper way to behave.
2. I actively avoid wearing clothes that are not in style.
3. At parties I usually try to behave in a manner that makes me fit in.
4. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for clues.
5. I try to pay attention to the reactions of others to my behavior in order to avoid being out of place.
6. I find that I tend to pick up slang expressions from others and use them as a part of my own vocabulary.
7. I tend to pay attention to what others are wearing.
8. The slightest look of disapproval in the eyes of a person with whom I am interacting is enough to make me change my approach.
9. It's important to me to fit into the group I'm with.
10. My behavior often depends on how I feel others wish me to behave.
11. If I am the least bit uncertain as to how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.
12. I usually keep up with clothing style changes by watching what others wear.
- 13*. When in a social situation, I tend not to follow the crowd, but instead to behave in a manner that suits my particular mood at the time.

Lennox and
Wolfe (1984)

Need for Cognition (NFC)

1. I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with solutions to problems.
 2. I would prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought.
 - 3*. Learning new ways to think doesn't excite me very much.
-

Cacioppo et
al. (19984)

-
4. I usually end up deliberating about issues even when they do affect me personally.
 - 5*. The idea of relying on thought to get my way to the top does not appeal to me.
 - 6*. The notion of thinking abstractly is not appealing to me.
 - 7*. I only think as hard as I have to.
 - 8*. I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them.
 - 9*. I prefer to think about small daily projects to long-term ones.
 10. I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities.
 - 11*. I find little satisfaction in deliberating hard and for long hours.
 - 12*. I don't like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking.
 - 13*. I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that requires a lot of mental effort.
 - 14*. Thinking is not my idea of fun.
 - 15*. I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is a likely chance I'll have to think in depth about something.
 16. I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve.
 17. I would prefer complex to simple problems.
 - 18*. It's enough for me that something gets the job done; I don't care how or why it works

Transportability Scale

Dal Cin et al.
(2004)

1. I can easily envision the events in the story.
2. I find I can easily lose myself in the story.
- 3*. I find it difficult to tune out activity around me.
4. I can easily envision myself in the events described in a story.
5. I get mentally involved in the story.
- 6*. I can easily put stories out of my mind after I've finished watching them.
7. I sometimes feel as if I am part of the story.
8. I am often impatient to find out how the story ends.
9. I find that I can easily take the perspective of the character(s) in the story.
10. I am often emotionally affected by what I've watched.
11. I have vivid images of the characters.
12. I find myself accepting events that I might have otherwise considered unrealistic.
13. I find myself thinking what the characters may be thinking.
14. I find myself thinking of other ways the story could have ended.
- 15*. My mind often wanders.
16. I find myself feeling what the characters may feel.
17. I find that events in the story are relevant to my everyday life.
18. I often find that reading stories has an impact on the way I see things.
19. I easily identify with characters in the story.
20. I have vivid images of the events in the story.

Note: An asterisk indicates that items were reverse coded.

Procedures

The procedures for this mixed design study consist of 1) pretest (development/choice of stimuli materials), 2) pilot study, and 3) main test.

Pretest

To enhance ecological validity, the study was conducted using actual episodes of the season premieres of *Sex and the City* -- viewed in the online survey questionnaire. *Sex and the City* was one of the highest rated sitcoms of the season. It premiered on HBO, June 6, 1998 and the last original episode aired on February 22, 2004. This series went into the international syndications and also has been released commercially on DVD. Recently, based upon the *Sex and the City* TV show, a feature film was produced. While premium cable channels tend to attract more male viewers, *Sex and the City's* had more female viewers (ages 18-64) than any other original HBO series. The total audience in 1999 averaged more than 9 million per episode, up from 6.9 million in 1998 (Mansfield, 2000 May 28). The study used the film version for the stimuli. Concerning its popularity, cultural impact, and especially many brand placement scenes in the show, the film *Sex and the City* is regarded as appropriate to test the impact of the brand placement, along with consumer's attitudes toward brand placement (Sex and the City, 2009, May 14).

Stimuli video clips were excerpted and edited from the movie *Sex and the City*. Using the editing software, it was technically manipulated according to the operationalization of two variables: (1) brand placement type (audio only, video only, and audio-video combination), and (2) plot-connectedness of brands in the story (high versus low). For the brand placement-type

questions, multiple choice questions were used and for the plot-connectedness questions, a seven-point Likert scale was employed.

At the end of the pretest questionnaire, demographic information was collected. Upon completing the survey, the survey was debriefed to participants. The self-report questionnaire took approximately 30-45 minutes to complete. Subjects watched four two-minute video clips. The recognition of brand placement confirmed that participants could perceive the consumption-related instances in movies. If participants could not catch the instances of brand placements, the validity of the measurements could be harmed.

On the other hand, this study concerned about the legal affairs such as the copyright of using stimuli. As mentioned above, this study used actual film as stimuli to enhance external validity. Thus, to use the actual film some criteria were considered. The determination of whether a use of a copyrighted work is within fair use depends upon making a reasoned and balanced application of the four fair use factors set forth in Section 107 of the U.S. Copyright Act. To provide the evidence that this study considered the legal and practical issues carefully, those factors are introduced as follows:

- The purpose and character of the use, including whether such use is of a commercial nature or is for nonprofit educational purposes;
- The nature of the copyrighted work
- The amount and substantiality of the portion used in relation to the copyrighted work as a whole
- The effect of the use upon the potential market for or value of the copyrighted work

All four factors should be evaluated in each case, and no one factor determines the outcome. Although most researchers may think that one of the factors such as the purpose and character of the use is enough, to be lawful more careful inspection is needed. However, in fact each of the factors is subject to interpretation as courts work to apply the law.

In sum, simple rules and solutions may be compelling, but by understanding and applying the factors, users receive the benefits of the law's application to the many needs and technologies (University System of Georgia Copyright Policy; The Fair Use Exception).

In the case of this study, all four factors were carefully considered. To establish the justification of use, several legal professionals provided advices concerning the fair use criteria (i.e., the lawyer of the University of Georgia's Legal Affair Department, IRB inspector, and the director of the Media Department of University of Georgia Main Library). Through meticulous consideration, this study was determined as appropriate to conduct.

Pilot Study

The pilot study involved a web-based questionnaire test with a convenience sample of 10 graduate students (7 females and 4 males) at a major southern U.S. university during May 2009. Also, the test was performed to refine the research instrument for both survey and experimental studies (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006), especially for a new media interface such as online video clips embedded in the online survey questionnaire. This provided an opportunity to check the clarity of the wording of the questionnaire and to find out whether what the researcher had planned would actually work. Particularly, because this study utilized Youtube.com to show participants several video clips as stimuli, the pretest was important to achieve a reliable research instrument for the purpose of the study.

As a result of the pilot study, the wording of some questions about brand placement stimuli was found to be confusing. Also, the pilot study also brought attention to the need to make sure whether the subjects' computer sound system works properly before participants take a survey. Therefore, the item was adjusted to make it clear and easy to understand. In particular, to ensure the survey's reliability, at the beginning of the survey, the question asking the status of computer's sound system was included. There were only a few subjects reporting a sound problem.

Also, it was found that there would be the possibility of a pop-up blocker setting in the subjects' computers. Because at first, the video clips were linked to the Youtube.com website, they were expected to be shown to participants with a new window. Importantly, however, considering recently many people use the pop-up blocker to avoid spam e-mail (Sheehan, 2001), it would harm the reliability of the survey questionnaire. To solve the technical problems, video clips were embedded into the survey questionnaire with some technical procedure using HTML (online programming tool) language. The embedded video clips worked properly, so there were no technical problems. Finally, each brand placement scene was positioned in the middle of each video clip to reduce the position effects. There were no other specific problems with questionnaire design, wording, or procedure.

Main Test

Four survey sets were developed having the same four video clips in a different order. The positioning of the video clips was based upon the Latin Square design (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006) to reduce possible order effects of brand placement exposure. According to Wimmer and Dominick (2006, p. 243), "if the researcher think that the order effects of

presentation of the independent variables in a repeated-measure design will be a problem, a Latin Square design is appropriate.” The design was conducted on independent groups rather than on individual subjects. Because this study assigned participants to four different survey sets with grouping, Latin square is considered as an appropriate experimental design for the study.

The data were obtained via an online survey by means of self-reported questionnaires. The questionnaire was posted on a professional online survey website, Zoomerang.com. The consent form was presented on the first page of the survey. In Part 1, the questionnaire began with the description of brand placement practice to ensure conceptual standardization across participants. The description read,

“In the show, sometimes people are seen interacting with certain brands (eating certain foods, drinking certain things, using certain modes of transportation, traveling to certain places, shopping at certain places, consuming certain forms of entertainments, using certain types of services, etc). That is often called Brand Placement: BPL (interchangeably, Product Placement: PPL) in the show.”

In Part 1, the participants were asked to answer about their general belief toward the practice of brand placement. Because in the experimental study the preexisting attitude information of participants will be controlled and compared with the post attitude after they watch stimuli, the preexisting attitudes and familiarity toward *Sex and the City* were collected. In Part 2, participants were asked to answer about their six individual differences using a 7-point Likert scale. Each measure of constructs ranged from 12 to 20 in terms of the number of items (e.g., for transportability 20 items and 18 items for need for cognition). In Part 3, subjects were shown four video clips according to the Latin Square logic. After watching each video clip, participants were asked to answer questions about the recognition of, attitude toward, and purchase intention of brands placed in the show. In Part 4, questions concerning the participants’ program liking composed of eight items were asked to test the influence of the familiarity with

brand placement effects. In the last section, Part 5, demographic questions were asked pertaining to the respondent's age, gender, race, education level, and household income level. The nominal indices, gender and race were re-coded as dummy variable.

Participants were randomly assigned to each survey set. Also, this study is basically a repeated measure design, which means that each subject watches all different four video clips repeatedly in a given survey set.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Descriptive Results

Characteristics of Sample

In the main study female participants made up 68.2 percent (N=182) of the sample, while males made up 30.3 percent (N=81). 1.5 percent (N=4) was missing. The average age was approximately 37, with ages ranging from 25 to 74. The most prevalent ethnic group was Caucasian/White (81.3 percent), followed by Asian (6 percent), Hispanic/Latino (4.5 percent), African American/Black (4.5 percent), and Biracial/Multiracial (3 percent). Concerning the highest education level, 36.7 percent of the respondents were Some College, followed by Bachelor's (27 percent), High School (19 percent), Master's (10 percent), and Middle School (4.9 percent). Table 4 describes the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Table 4. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

		Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	81	30.3
	Female	182	68.2
	Missing	4	1.5
	Total	267	100
Education	Middle school	13	4.9
	High school	53	19.9
	Some College	98	36.7
	Bachelor's	72	27.0
	Master's	28	10.5
	PhD	2	0.7

	Missing	1	0.4
	Total	267	100.0
Race	African American/Black	12	4.5
	Hispanic/Latino	12	4.5
	Asian	16	6.0
	Caucasian/White	217	81.3
	Biracial or Multiracial	8	3.0
	Other	1	.4
	Missing	1	.4
	Total	267	100.0

Dependent Variables and Independent Variables

Descriptive statistics were run to generate a mean score for each variable. Higher average scores for variables were interpreted to indicate a stronger agreement with each variable. Among independent variable, the highest mean score of total respondents is for the variable of Self-Concept Clarity (mean=4.6568), followed by Need for Cognition (NFC) (mean=4.4901). By race, White has more positive belief in brand placement than non-White. For White, Self-Concept Clarity is also the highest mean score, followed by Need for Cognition; however, non-White group has the highest score for Transportability, followed by Self-Concept Clarity. Table 5 provides the mean and standard deviation for each variable by gender and race.

Table 5. Descriptive Results of Dependent and Independent Variables by Gender and Race

		Total mean (s.d.)	By Gender		By Race	
			Male	Female	White	Non-white
Brand Placement		4.5892 (0.94222)	4.5272 (0.8589)	4.6326 (0.9464)	4.6878* (0.9244)	4.1814 (0.9135)
-	ProBPL	4.4608 (1.1019)	4.4641 (1.0890)	4.4773 (1.0913)	4.5396* (1.0847)	4.1333 (1.1233)
-	Ethics	4.8023 (1.4156)	4.6287 (1.4431)	4.8926 (1.3812)	4.9324* (1.4027)	4.2614 (1.3521)
Individual related level	SCC	4.6568 (1.3547)	4.5559 (1.4005)	4.6949 (1.3430)	4.7130 (1.3701)	4.4040 (1.2669)
	NFE	4.1224 (1.2371)	3.8561 (1.2381)	4.2301* (1.2101)	4.1954* (1.2870)	3.8197 (0.9576)

Social related level	CSII	3.1269 (1.3707)	3.3125 (1.6081)	3.0714 (1.2517)	3.0578 (1.3347)	3.4394* (1.4996)
	ATSCI	3.6055 (1.2632)	3.7155 (1.4176)	3.5791 (1.1918)	3.5442 (1.2861)	3.8638 (1.1381)
Message related level	NFC	4.4901 (0.8706)	4.4844 (0.8276)	4.4877 (0.8956)	4.5374* (0.9028)	4.2840 (0.6844)
	Transportability	4.4340 (0.9343)	4.2889 (0.9931)	4.5221* (0.8866)	4.4315 (0.93631)	4.4446 (0.9362)

Note: An asterisk indicates that the difference of means is significant at 0.05 level, using the group comparison t-test

Table 6 presents the correlation matrix of each variable and control variables.

Table 6. Correlation Matrix for Major Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1.ProBPL	1												
2.Ethics	.17**	1											
3.Trans	.44**	-.01	1										
4. NFC	-.03	.31**	-.08	1									
5. ATSCI	.29**	-.29**	.38**	-.44**	1								
6.CSII	.25**	-.37**	.40**	-.44**	.78**	1							
7.SCC	-.17**	.33**	-.29**	.52**	-.68**	-.63**	1						
8.NFE	-.06	.20**	-.09	.42**	-.32**	-.39**	.47**	1					
9.Age	-.15*	-.05	-.14*	.13	-.24**	-.28**	.14*	.02	1				
10.Race ¹	.12	.16**	-.04	.12	-.12	-.13	.10	.15*	.11	1			
11.Gender ²	.01	.08	.12	.00	-.05	-.08	.05	.14*	.04	.12	1		
12.Income ³	-.06	.11	.10	.04	.00	.03	.11	.04	.04	-.01	.03	1	
13.Edu	-.10	.10	-.02	.09	.06	.07	.05	-.06	-.02	-.13*	-.09	.32**	1

Note: (**) means that correlation is significant at .01 level (2-tailed) and (*) means that correlation is significant at .05 level

1. Race variable is recoded as a dummy variable (1=white, 0=non-white)

2. Gender (1=female, 0=male)

3. Income variable is recoded as dummy variable (1=high income, 0=low income)

ProBPL was positively correlated with 1) transportability, 2) attention to social comparison information, and 3) consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and these correlations are statistically significant. It was also significantly negatively correlated with self-concept clarity and age. Regarding the dependent variable of Ethics, need for cognition, self-concept clarity, need for emotion, and race dummy variables had a significant positive

relationship; however, Ethics was negatively correlated with attention to social comparison information and consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence.

Data Assumption Checks

Prior to the main analysis, the assumptions underlying the factor analysis and hierarchical multiple regression model were checked, along with basic data scanning such as missing data, outliers, and normality. The assumption check is an essential and basic step to estimate the hypothesized model through the multivariate research, such as Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis (Leech et al, 2005).

For the factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test were conducted. The KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy was over .70 (.723). The result indicates sufficient items for each factor. Regarding Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, the result was significant (less than .05), indicating that the correlation matrix is significantly different from an identity matrix, in which correlations between variables are all zero Leech et al, 2005.

For the Hierarchical Multiple Regression, although there are many assumptions to consider, the major ones were tested with SPSS. Multicollinearity occurs when there are high intercorrelations among some set of the predictor variables. In other words, Multicollinearity happens when two or more predictors contain much of the same information. The test was conducted by Collinearity statistics such as Tolerance or VIF value. For example, if the Tolerance value is low ($< 1-R^2$) or , then there is probably a problem with Multicollinearity. Also, with regard to another important assumption, independence of error, the Durbin-Watson value was close to 2.0, which means that there is no problem of independence. The Hierarchical Multiple Regression models of the current study met the assumptions (Leech et al, 2005).

Finally, in terms of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), the important assumption of homogeneity of variances was checked. The result of Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was not significant, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not a problem (Leech et al, 2005).

Missing data was treated with listwise deletion, in which observations are excluded only if they contain missing data on any variable. That is, the effective sample size with listwise deletion included only cases with complete records (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005).

Reliability

A measure can be regarded as reliable if it consistently provides the same answer (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002; Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). The reliability of the measurement items were evaluated using the summated measure from all four survey sets. By using Cronbach's alpha coefficients, the internal reliability for all items of each construct was calculated. Furthermore, "Cronbach's alpha if item deleted" was reviewed. As a result, although it was revealed that the deletion of some items in each construct would slightly improve the internal reliability, the amount of increasing was not substantial. For example, removal of the item "When a character that I like uses a product in a movie, I am more likely to remember the product" would increase Cronbach's alpha from 0.739 to 0.740. However, because the change was slight, the item was included in the analysis and for the other similar items the same logic was applied to ensure the originality of the measurement scale to keep its measure validity if there is not significant problem. As shown in Table 7, reliabilities of each construct ranged from 0.729 to 0.952, which is acceptable given Nunnally's (1978) minimum suggestion of 0.60 being adequate for basic research.

Table 7. Summary of Reliability

	Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
Dependent Variable	<u>Brand Placement</u>	.739
	<i>ProBPL</i>	.768
	<i>Ethics</i>	.809
Independent Variables	<u>Individual-related level</u>	
	<i>Self-Concept Clarity(SCC)</i>	.929
	<i>Need for Emotion(NFE)</i>	.950
	<u>Social-related level</u>	
	<i>Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence(CSII)</i>	.952
	<i>Attention to Social Comparison Information (ATSCI)</i>	.931
	<u>Message-related level</u>	
	<i>Transportability</i>	.922
	<i>Need for Cognition (NFC)</i>	.861

Validity

In addition to being reliable, to ensure the validity, the individual and dependent variables were adopted from previous studies (Bearden et al., 1989; W. O. Bearden & R. L. Rose, 1990; J. Cacioppo & Petty, 1982; Campbell et al., 1996; Green & Brock, 2000; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; Morton & Friedman, 2002; Raman et al., 1995). According to Wimmer and Dominick (2006, p.61), “A valid measuring measures what it is supposed to measure.” Basically, the measurement scales adopted in this study were validated in many studies as Bearden and Netemeyer (1999) pointed out in the *Handbook of Marketing Scales*.

Also, as shown in the correlation table below, there was relatively an overall expected correlation between the independent variables. For example, in the social-related level, two variables -- attention to social comparison information (ATSCI) and consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (CSII) -- showed strong positive correlation ($\alpha = .776$, $p < .01$). In addition, the social-related level's variables (ATSCI and CSII) and need for cognition (NFC) and self-concept clarity (SCC) showed at least medium negative correlations respectively (ranging from -.442 to -.680). Importantly, transportability and NFC were revealed as significant predictors of

belief in brand placement in the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model as proposed. These results provide some evidence of concurrent validity related to predictive validity (Shadish et al., 2002; Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). Specifically, for the dependent variable Belief in Brand Placement, factor analysis was conducted to validate the two dimensions in the construct. The results were similar to the original study's results. The results are described in the following section.

Factor Analysis: Identifying Dependent Variables

Although this study adopted the measure of belief in brand placement from the previous study (Morton & Friedman, 2002), to purify the items in order to make them more appropriate to the context of this study with regard to the individual differences, factor analysis was performed.

Because the factors were correlated with each other, a principal-component factor analysis with varimax rotation resulted in two factors, which were named "ProBPL" and "Ethics." In the previous study, some of the items such as "Product placement in movies are a good alternative to traditional commercials" or "Product placement in movies are a good idea for keeping down the price of admission tickets" were excluded because of their low factor loadings of below .60. However, in this study all eight items in the construct were clearly divided by two factors. The ProBPL factor contained five variables -- ALTER, TICKET, BELIEV, FEEL, and RECALL -- that related to the potential impact of product placement. The second factor named ETHICS contained three variables -- ETHICAL, BANNED, and PAYMOR. The naming of each variable and two broad dimensions followed the format of the previous study (Morton & Friedman, 2002), but some were slightly revised. The evidence probably represents that the two factors can be appropriate dependent variables for the current study. In addition, the correlation

between the two factors was only .166. This relatively weak correlation also provides the rationale to use the factors as different dependent variables for the study. The reliability of five items of the ProBPL was acceptable (Crobach's Alpha=.768). Also, the reliability of three items of the Ethics was appropriate to use (Cronbach's Alpha=.809). In fact, the two different factors were revealed as meaningful distinct aspects of belief in brand placement. The results are presented in the following section of Hierarchical Multiple Regression tests with hypotheses.

Table 8. Principal Components Factor Analysis

Items	Item Statement	Factor 1	Factor 2
RECALL	8. When a character that I like uses a brand in a movie, I am more likely to remember the brand.	.744	-.249
FEEL	7. The way the brand is used in a movie scene can affect my feelings about the product.	.740	-.340
ALTER	1. Brand placements in movies are a good alternative to traditional commercials.	.729	.350
TICKET	3. Brand placements in movies are a good idea for keeping down the price of admission tickets.	.708	.327
BELIEV	5. Real brand should be used extensively in movies to make a scene more believable.	.658	.336
BANNED*	4. In my opinion, brand placement in movies should be banned.	.240	.858
ETHICS*	2. The idea of placing brands in movies is not ethical because the moviegoer doesn't want to watch paid advertising.	.088	.809
PAYMOR*	6. Brand placements in movies can keep the price of movie tickets low, but I'd pay more to see a movie without them.	-.109	.774

Note: An asterisk indicates that items were reverse coded. Varimax rotation was used.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Before describing the comprehensive hierarchical regression tests, the hypotheses tests of each individual difference on both dimensions (ProBPL and Ethics) of belief toward the practice of brand placement are presented.

The results for six hypotheses tests are summarized in Table 9. Table 9 looks specifically at the impact of each individual difference variable on ProBPL using the stepwise hierarchical regression. At the individual-related level frame, findings suggest that self-concept clarity contribute negatively to BPL, as expected, but need for emotion is not significantly associated with ProBPL. At the social-related level frame, the key coefficient for both consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and attention to social comparison information are positive and significant, indicating that both social-related individual difference variables matter to positive belief in brand placement. While need for cognition is not significantly associated with ProBPL at the message-related level, transportability is significant and in the expected direction (positive). In sum, H1, H3, H4, and H6 are supported but H2 and H5 are not supported. See Figure 2. for a visual summary of Hypotheses 1~6.

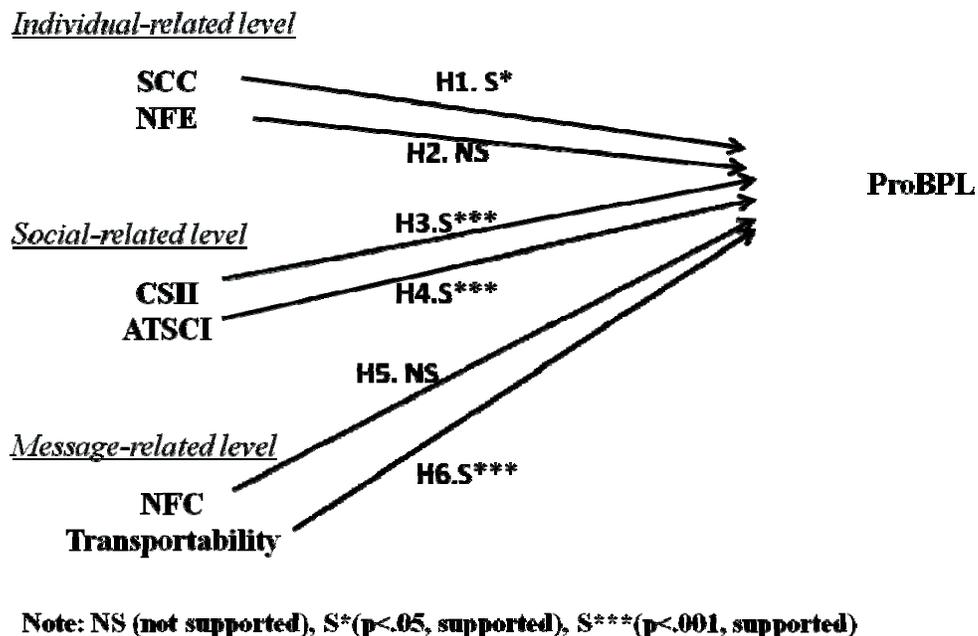


Figure 2. Summary of Hypotheses Tests on ProBPL (General Attitude toward Brand Placement)

Table 9. Hypotheses Tests on ProBPL

Dependent Variable: ProBPL				
Model	B	t	R²_{adj}	Results
H1. SCC	-.012	-2.257*	.031	Supported
H2. NFE	-.036	-.572	-	Not Supported
H3. CSII	.150	3.245***	.054	Supported
H4. ATSCI	.197	4.021***	.079	Supported
H5. NFC	-.10	-.145	-	Not Supported
H6. Transportability	.409	6.734***	.018	Supported

Note: *** indicates significance at $p < .001$; ** indicates significance at $p < 0.01$; * indicates significance at $p < 0.05$

Table 10 evaluates the influence of six individual difference variables on another aspect of belief in brand placement, Ethics. Models used in these analyses are also based on the stepwise hierarchical regression. The slope of the coefficient is significant across all of the indicators, except transportability. At the individual-related level frame, both self-concept clarity and need for emotion significant and positive, indicating that people who have high self-concept clarity or with high need for emotion are more likely to have a positive evaluation to the ethical aspects of the practice of brand placement. At the social-related level frame, it is both statistically and substantively compelling that consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and attention to social comparison information contribute negatively to the belief toward the practice of brand placement regarding ethical aspect. Finally, at the message-related level, the results show that need for cognition is positively associated with Ethics while transportability does not

significantly influence the ethical aspect of belief in brand placement. See Figure 3. for a visual summary of Hypotheses 7~12.

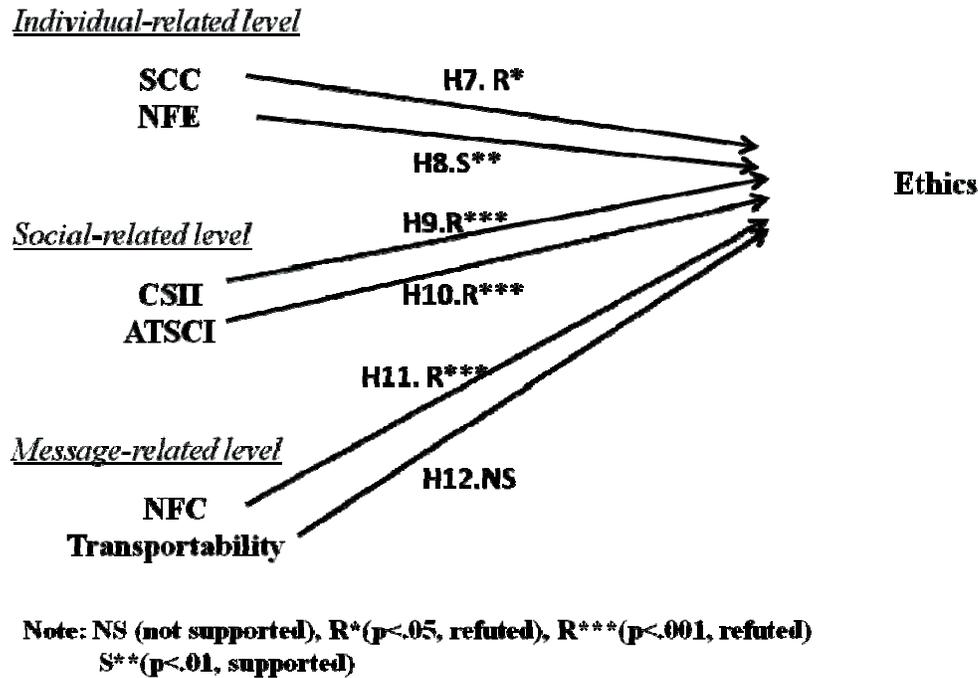


Figure 3. Summary of Hypotheses Tests on Ethics (Ethical Perception of Brand Placement)

Table 10. Hypotheses Tests on Ethics

Dependent Variable: Ethics				
Model	B	t	R ² _{adj}	Results
H7. SCC	.234	5.239***	.116	Significant but refuted
H8. NFE	.143	2.821**	.052	Supported
H9. CSII	-.262	-5.901***	.141	Significant but refuted
H10. ATSCI	-.220	-4.512***	.097	Significant but refuted
H11. NFC	.340	4.753***	.115	Significant but refuted
H12. Transportability	-.002	-.027	-	Not Supported

Note: *** indicates significance at $p < .001$; ** indicates significance at $p < .01$; * indicates significance at $p < .05$

Comprehensive hierarchical regression analysis was conducted in six steps to empirically test the hypotheses. Each of the six independent variables (e.g., transportability) was regressed on the dependent variable, Belief in Brand Placement, in order of their expected contributions. The Durbin-Watson test statistic was approximately 2, indicating that the adjacent residuals are uncorrelated. Furthermore, according to estimations of the histogram of standardized residuals, the normal probability plot, and the scatter plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values, the principal three assumptions of multiple regression analysis between the predictor variables and errors of prediction were satisfactorily met.

By using the sequential procedure, the significance of the addition of each independent variable with the theoretical framework to the previous equation is indicated by the F-value as follows:

ProBPL Model

(1) To control the influence of the participants' background factors, the equation starts with demographic information, such as age, which was revealed as statistically significantly correlated with the dependent variable, Belief in Brand Placement, on the correlation table. The age of the participants resulted in no significant R-square change.

(2) After step 1, with self-concept clarity and need for emotion (individual-related level) added in the equation, the R-square significantly increased.

(3) After step 2, attention to social comparison information and consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (social-related level) were added to the equation, the model exhibited significant R-square increment.

(4) After step 3, the addition of Need for Cognition and Transportability (message-related level) had a significant effect on the dependent variable of Belief in Brand Placement.

(5) After step 4, the addition of interaction terms of age led to no significant increase in the R-square.

(6) Finally, when the interaction terms of individual differences were added to the equation, the prediction of the dependent variable produced no significant improvement in the R-square.

Table 11. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Model Summary for ProBPL

Model	R	R ²	R ² _{adj}	Std.Error of the estimate
1. SCC	.205	.042	.037	.9484
2. ATSCI	.294	.086	.076	.9286
3. Transportability	.475	.225	.212	.8576

Table 12. Coefficients for the Analysis of ProBPL

Model	B	β	t
1. SCC	-.145	-.205	-2.830**
2. SCC	-.019	-.206	-.285
ATSCI	.209	.276	2.978**
3. SCC	.005	-.008	-.089
ATSCI	.097	.128	1.432
Transportability	.448	.406	5.692***

Note: *** indicates significance at $p < .001$; ** indicates significance at $p < .01$; * indicates significance at $p < .05$

H1 addresses the importance of Self Concept Clarity and proposes that it is directly and negatively related to the consumer's general belief in brand placement. The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate a significant relationship between the two variables in a predicted direction. H1 was therefore supported.

H2 entails direct and positive association between need for emotion and belief in brand placement. However, the findings show that the relationship between the two variables was not significant. Also, the direction was different from the expected direction. This does not support H2.

H3 predicts the significant and positive association between consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and belief in brand placement. However, H3 was not supported.

H4 asks whether attention to social comparison information is positively associated with the belief in brand placement. In the regression model, this variable makes the significant and positive contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable. Therefore, H4 was supported.

H5 is related to the influence of need for cognition, which was not significant on the dependent variable. The direction was also different. Thus, H5 was not supported.

Finally, the positive association of transportability with the dependent variable was addressed in H6. As can be clearly seen, the contribution of the variable in the final model was significant. Therefore, H6 was supported.

Ethics Model

The same procedure was conducted with another dependent variable -- Ethics. The results were different from those of the ProBPL test. Also, different demographic information which was significantly correlated with the dependent variable was controlled.

(1) To control the influence of the participants' background factors, the equation starts with race and income, which were revealed as statistically significantly correlated with belief in brand placement. The two variables were significant predictors of the dependent variable and there was a significant R-square change.

(2) After step 1, with self-concept clarity and need for emotion (individual-related level) added in the equation, the R-square was significantly increased.

(3) After step 2, attention to social comparison information and consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (social-related level) were added to the equation, the model exhibited significant R-square increment.

(4) After step 3, the addition of need for cognition and transportability (message-related level) had a significant effect on the dependent variable of belief in brand placement.

(5) After step 4, the addition of interaction terms of income and race were added and led to no significant increase in the R-square. Also, the result showed a significant interaction between need for cognition and race. Thus, the pattern of the interaction is analyzed in the following section.

(6) Finally, when the interaction terms of individual differences were added to the equation, there was no significant improvement in the R-square.

Table 13. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Model Summary for Ethics

Model	R	R ²	R ² _{adj}	Std.Error of the estimate
1. Race	.198	.039	.034	1.0122
2. Income	.246	.061	.050	1.0036
3. SCC	.347	.120	.106	.9738
4. CSII	.418	.175	.157	.9456
5. Race*NFC	.441	.195	.173	.9369

Table 14. Coefficients for the Analysis of Ethics

Model	B	β	t
1. Race	.523	.198	2.760**
2. Race	.518	.196	2.752**
Income	.337	.146	2.045*

3. Race	.417	.158	2.259*
Income	.258	.112	1.601
SCC	.189	.250	3.536***
4. Race	.322	.122	1.774
Income	.341	.148	2.154*
SCC	.056	.074	.864
CSII	-.224	-.298	-3.486***
5. Race	-.575	-.218	-1.242
Income	.333	.144	2.122*
SCC	.000	.001	.006
CSII	-.212	-.279	-3.286***
Race*NFC	.205	.391	2.103*

Note: *** indicates significance at $p < .001$; ** indicates significance at $p < 0.01$; * indicates significance at $p < 0.05$

The same sequence with ProBPL was used to test hypotheses as follows:

H7 Self-concept clarity showed a significant and positive relationship with Ethics. H7 was supported.

H8 Need for emotion was positively associated with Ethics. However, the result was not significant though it was in the same direction with the expected direction. Thus, H8 was not supported.

H9 predicts the significant and negative association between consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and Ethics. However, the direction was different from the expectation. Therefore H9 was Significant but refuted.

H10 asks whether attention to social comparison information positively associated with Ethics. In the Hierarchical regression model, this variable makes no significant contribution to the prediction of dependent variable. Therefore, H10 was rejected though the direction was same with the expectation.

H11 is related to the influence of need for cognition, which was not significant on the dependent variable. The direction was also different from the proposition. Thus, H11 was not supported.

Finally, the positive association of transportability with Ethics was revealed but it was not significant thus, H12 was not supported. This result showed a different result from ProBPL model. The discussion is presented in the next section.

Research Question Analysis

Research question 1 explored the differences between two different but associated dimensions of belief in brand placement: ProBPL and Ethics. The results of factor analysis and Hierarchical regression test showed that there were meaningful differences between ProBPL and Ethics in terms of the relationship with individual differences. The different prediction patterns were founded through Hierarchical regression tests. Thus, the potential result of the research question 1 is that there is a meaningful difference between two dependent variables with regard to individual characteristics.

Research question 2 addresses the empirical information that three levels of individual differences frameworks have impact on predicting the belief in brand placement. It was revealed that when a given proposed level is added on the top of the other level of frameworks, there was significant increment on the prediction of dependent variables. Thus, the overall research framework was supported with the results. In addition, regarding the narrative and brand placement context, message-related level was found to be significantly contributable to prediction of ProBPL. The implication of the results is presented in the discussion section in more detail.

ANCOVA: Significance of the Interaction between Need for Cognition (NFC) and Race

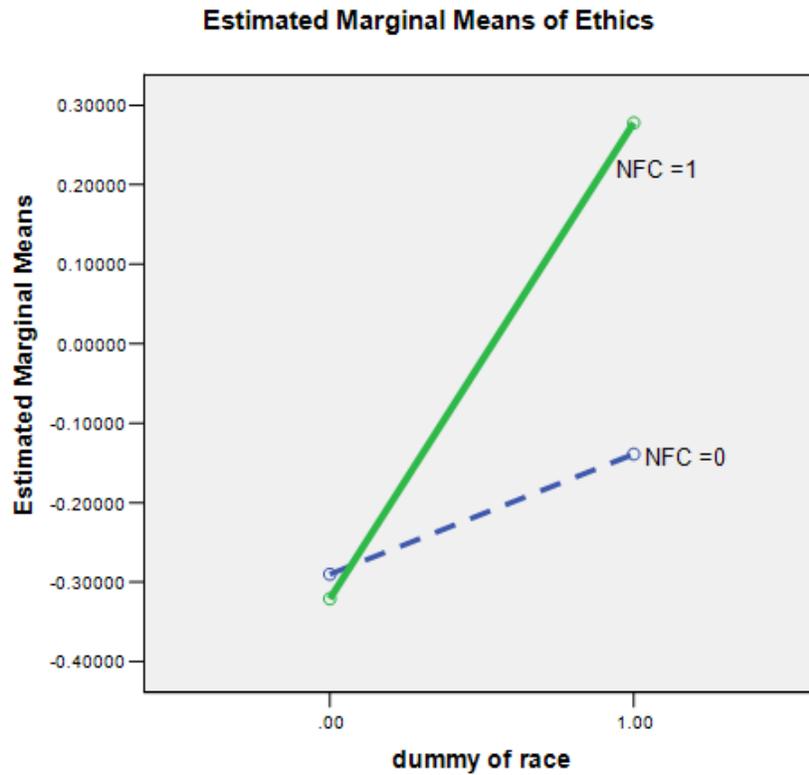
The interaction was revealed in the Hierarchical Multiple Regression test. An ANCOVA test was performed to investigate the pattern of interaction between need for cognition (NFC) and demographic characteristic (race). Independent variables consist of need for cognition and race, and the dependent variable was Ethics (second belief in brand placement factor). The covariates are income, self-concept clarity (SCC), and consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (CSII) that were revealed as the predictors of the dependent variable in the result of hierarchical regression.

Table 15. Test of Between-Subjects Effects on Ethics

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	51.735(a)	6	8.622	10.308	.000	.229
Intercept	.463	1	.463	.554	.458	.003
Income	3.551	1	3.551	4.246	.041	.020
SCC	.275	1	.275	.329	.567	.002
CSII	10.605	1	10.605	12.677	.000	.057
Race	3.189	1	3.189	3.812	.052	.018
NFC	.956	1	.956	1.142	.286	.005
Race*NFC	1.328	1	1.328	1.587	.209	.008
Error	173.990	208	.836			
Total	225.781	215				
Corrected Total	225.725	214				

a R Squared = .229 (Adjusted R Squared = .207)

The interaction of factors was analyzed by creating a line plot, which demonstrates the interaction pattern (see Figure 4). There was no significant interaction between need for cognition (NFC) and race in the ANCOVA analysis, although the hierarchical regression revealed this to be a significant effect. However, despite the lack of statistical significance, the scores of white/Caucasian at a high need for cognition point was much higher.



Note: Race (1=white / 0=non-white)
NFC (1=high need for cognition / 0=low need for cognition)

Figure 4. Interaction between Need for Cognition and Race

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter summarizes the findings of this study and provides discussion for marketing communication practitioners and researchers. Limitations and suggestions for the future study are addressed.

Summary of Findings and Discussion

This study investigated the potential predictors of belief in brand placement (self-concept clarity, need for emotion, attention to social comparison information, consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence, need for cognition, and transportability). Also, the dependent variable, belief in brand placement, was factor analyzed and divided into two clean factors as distinct and meaningful dependent variables regarding their relationship to individual differences. On the basis of the data from the national adult sample, the principal propositions of the study were tested by univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analysis. The results were mixed. That is, as predictors of each dependent variable, only some gained empirical supports.

Factor analysis of the belief in brand placement of Morton and Friedman (2002) identified two useful distinct dimensions of the construct (ProBPL and Ethics). Although the construct measure can be used in general, to explore more specific explanations of the relationships between individual differences and acceptance of brand placement, this study provides a starting point for developing a more accurate and valid measurement of attitude toward brand placement. Particularly, in terms of the ethical aspects of the practice of brand

placement, there has been considerable research in the marketing communication and consumer behavior research arena (Gibson & Maurer, 2000; Gould et al., 2000; Gupta & Gould, 1997; Karrh, 1998; Karrh et al., 2001), but little relating this perception of brand placement to individual differences.

In detail, self-concept clarity (SCC) and consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (CSII) were significantly related to the ethical aspect. Regarding self-concept clarity, the results showed that there is a positive association between self-concept clarity and the ethical aspect of the belief in brand placement. This result may imply that because high self-concept clarity leads to more concern about their benefits or loss from the marketing promotions than other concerns, the people who have high self-concept clarity may not seriously care about the ethical aspect of the practice of brand placement. People who have high self-concept clarity are likely to believe that they can control their acceptance or rejection of persuasive messages even though it may be related to some furtive techniques.

On the other hand, with regard to the ethical aspects, consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (CSII) showed a negative relationship with the ethical aspect. In fact, high consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (CSII) was assumed to show a positive acceptance of brand placement with more favorable attitude. Thus, the hypothesis was refuted. Nevertheless, there can be an interesting interpretation about the result. The negative relationship between consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (CSII) and the ethical aspects of belief in brand placement may enforce the proposed hypothesis about consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (CSII). That is, if people who have high consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (CSII) recognize that they are persuaded, they are more likely to have

fear about being persuaded in a furtive manner. In the end, those people may be more likely to react against persuasive messages contained in brand placement.

Interestingly, with regard to the other dimension of the belief in brand placement, ProBPL, there were different results. Self-concept clarity (SCC) showed a significantly negative relationship with ProBPL. This supports the hypothesis of self-concept clarity (SCC) in the ProBPL model test. The result can be understood based upon the literature review section. High self-concept clarity (SCC) people are more likely to have clear and stable self identity or esteem. Those tendencies will lead to a careful scanning of persuasive messages such as marketing communication. Hence, as proposed in the resistance literature, those people may easily have resistance toward persuasive messages affecting the acceptance or evaluation of persuasion.

On the other hand, High attention to social comparison information (ATSCI) showed a significantly positive relationship with ProBPL. It can be inferred that more social-oriented people are more likely to positively evaluate and accept brand placement than their counterparts. This would lead to more positive effects of the practice of brand placement. Moreover, in terms of the message-related level, one of the main interesting variables, transportability, showed a substantially significant, positive relationship with ProBPL in the model test.

As proposed in the literature review and hypothesis section, the message-related individual differences were appropriate to predict the belief toward the practice of brand placement. In other words, more easily transported people are more likely to evaluate brand placement positively, which may lead to more positive effects of brand placement. Based upon this inference, it may be reasoned that enthusiastic fans of some films or TV shows can be easily persuaded by the positive and delicate association between main characters and brands in the shows.

Consequently, the factor analysis and hierarchical regression tests showed meaningful results and provide implications with regard to the research propositions. In particular, the hierarchical regression analysis identified the contribution of each level of the framework on predicting belief toward the practice of brand placement. For the ProBPL dimension, the contribution of individual-related framework was significant ($\Delta R^2=.042$, $p \leq 0.01$), implying that including individual-related level into predicting model was meaningful. With the addition of the social-related level in the model, R Square was significantly increased ($\Delta R^2=.045$, $p \leq 0.01$). Furthermore, the increment was substantial when the message-related level was added in the equation ($\Delta R^2=.139$, $p \leq 0.01$). From the statistically significant results of the Hierarchical Regression model tests, it can be inferred that the inclusion of each level of framework enhances predictive power.

The hierarchical regression test is an appropriate method to use when a researcher has a prior idea about how the predictors go together to predict the dependent variable (Leech et al., 2005). However, the method was used to explore relatively unknown research issues for the purpose of the study. Thus, although in nature this study was an exploratory trial, the proposed theoretical frameworks based upon the background knowledge from an extensive literature review and reasoning were tentatively concluded to be valid (predictive validity).

In addition, regarding the ethical dimension of the belief in brand placement, each level increases the R Square value in the equation as follows: for individual-related level, $\Delta R^2=.060$, $p \leq .01$; for social-related level, $\Delta R^2=.055$, $p \leq .01$; for message-related level $\Delta R^2=.020$, $p \leq .05$). The assumption of the Hierarchical Regression test is that no matter how they are entered, the same regression coefficients are selected to produce the best model with the same set of predictors and the same dependent variable (Leech et al., 2005). Accordingly, concerning the different

coefficients and R Square value for each dependent measure, the findings can provide the discriminant validity of the two dependent variables when these are separated from the one overall measure of the belief in brand placement. Also, the individual difference variables in each level were respectively differently related to the two distinct dependent variables (ProBPL and Ethics). Hence, in this study using the same set of predictors and the different dependent variables provides evidence of discriminant validity of the traits as predictors of the two dependent variables (ProBPL and Ethics).

Finally, in the Analysis of Covariance, the results showed that the form of the significant interaction (revealed in the regression analysis) between need for cognition and race. At the high need for cognition, White/Caucasian scored higher, which means that there are substantial differences across race in ethical judgment of belief in brand placement according to need for cognition. Thus, for future research, this difference can be explored with cultural comparison theory. On the other hand, the need for cognition can be investigated based upon the Elaborated Likelihood Model (ELM) model with regard to the consumer information processing of brand placement.

Theoretical Implications

Morton and Friedman (2002) argued that the overall measure scale of the belief toward the practice of brand placement was designed to reflect a sample's accurate assessment about the practice of brand placement. Thus, in addition to measures assessing the potential impact of brand placements on the individual (ProBPL), the ethical aspects (Ethics), which were negatively worded and reverse coded in opposition of the practice of brand placement, were also measured.

Importantly, however, a high score of Ethics (ethical dimension of the belief toward the practice of brand placement after recoding) does not necessarily indicate a positive belief toward the effectiveness of brand placement as a potential technique (in a Promax rotation, the two factors were minimally correlated, $r = .166$). Further, a high Ethics score does not mean that the practice of brand placement is judged as highly ethical, just not unethical. This means that ratings which indicated disagreement with the negative worded beliefs do not indicate necessarily a positive ethical assessment of the practice. This point is critical in interpreting the data results for the study. This study was aimed to test only the different patterns of the measures of ProBPL and Ethics regarding individual differences. The study did not intend to argue that ProBPL and Ethics are directionally opposite and complementary measurements.

It should be recalled that the main purpose of the study was to test the influence of the individual differences on belief toward the practice of brand placement. The tests of the two dependent variables adopted and revised from Morton and Friedman's (2002) general belief in brand placement were to enrich the understanding of measures of consumer evaluation and acceptance of the practice of brand placement. The results of the tests do imply that individual differences, considered at different levels of information processing, significantly and substantially predict belief toward the practice of brand placement. Therefore, this study has theoretical significance in that it provides empirical evidence, in the context of resistance theory and narrative persuasion, that individual differences should be included in any comprehensive model of brand placement effectiveness. The presence of a number of direct and interactive effects involving demographics also suggest that they too must play an important role in a comprehensive model.

Managerial Implications

In terms of consumers' demographic information, in all hypothesis tests with ProBPL age was a significant predictor of belief toward the practice of brand placement. On the other hand, in the Ethics model, race was significant predictors of ethical considerations of brand placement. Regarding age, there was a negative association with ProBPL. That is, younger people rated higher in terms of ProBPL in the tests. This would imply that younger people are more likely to positively assess the practice of brand placement. There can be various interpretations about the results. One of the explanations can be that younger people are more familiar with media such as TV shows or films. They may consider brand placement as an appropriate alternative of the traditional advertising. They are always exposed to the motion pictures. This may lead to more acceptance of the practice of brand placement. This means that younger people may not have resistance against the relatively new promotional activity, brand placement. Accordingly, the industry of brand placement has the potential to grow continuously for the time being with the younger generation consumers, so the practice of brand placement will be an increasingly important marketing communication tools.

On the other hand, the results of the study showed a significantly positive association between race and Ethics. White/Caucasian scored higher in terms of Ethical aspect of the practice of brand placement than other races. There can be one possible interpretation about these results. White/Caucasian is more likely to accept the practice of brand placement as a marketing promotion tool. In fact, according to some research on the acceptance of the practice of brand placement, there are significant differences across races or countries. For example, Singaporean respondents were less likely to accept the practice of brand placement than American consumers

due to the ethical reasons (Karrh et al., 2001). Also, Chinese consumers are generally less likely to accept brand placement than American consumers (McKechnie & Thou, 2003). The results of the current study have the consistency with the previous studies on the acceptance of the practice of brand placement. Thus, media planning managers should consider these cultural differences across races and countries when they plan to use brand placement for their marketing goals. Particularly, in terms of the localized marketing campaign in such as Asia or America, the results of this study can provide a background information regarding consumers' acceptance of brand placement.

On the other hand, this study investigated the influences of individual differences on consumer belief toward the practice of brand placement. The results of the study can contribute to a better understanding of consumer behavior. Particularly, when marketing decision makers plan a new marketing campaign for their brands, media planning will be an important decision regarding its cost efficiency and message effectiveness. The efficiency or cost effectiveness of brand placement can be considered relative to that of other elements in the marketing communication mix. Keeping in mind the huge scale of the film industry, brand placement can contribute to an effective mixed way of communicating with consumers because as previously discussed this technique can contact a number of consumers through the world wide film distribution in a sophisticated manner that can reduce or remove resistance compared with the traditional blatant argumentations found in many advertisements.

Finally, With regard to the individual differences, marketing managers or planners should keep in mind that there can be variations of the effects of the practice of brand placement depending on individuals. If advertisers simply put their effort into brand placement without the consideration of the audiences' different acceptance of the practice of brand placement, this

would be detrimental to marketers in terms of its cost efficiency and effectiveness. Targeting the appropriate audiences or consumers will help corporations improve the cost efficiency and message effects.

In more detail, if marketing decision makers can get the audience's specific personality information such as VALS¹ by SRI Business Intelligence (SRIC-BI, 2009), they should utilize the knowledge in planning a marketing communication campaign because individual difference factors can strongly affect the acceptance or attitude toward brand placement as shown by the current study. For example, VALS uses psychology to analyze the consumers' preferences and material constraints on consumer behavior. The assumption of VALS is that consumers should be segmented on the basis of personality traits because the personality traits will affect purchase behavior (SRICF-BI, 2009). Once marketing managers collect consumers' personality or individual differences (such as their purchase preferences or life styles), they should carefully link those personality traits and film watching behavior. Then, brands should be placed in the more appropriate films and contexts to be well embedded in narratives. These issues can be explored in future research.

Limitations and Suggestions

Although the findings of this study provided rich insights into the understanding of individual differences and brand placement, the current study has some limitations. First, this research did not specify brand types or motion picture types when asking people's general belief

¹ **VALS (for Values, Attitudes, and Lifestyles):** a marketing and consulting tool that helps businesses develop and execute strategies such as targeting and segmenting consumers on the basis of personality traits

in brand placement. However, the various brand types or show types need to be considered in future research.

Second, there is a need to continue investigating various confounding variables that may affect the consumers' perception of the show such as background music, atmosphere, and story plot. Qualitative factors may have influence on media effects in the brand placement context because motion pictures usually have a number of qualitative confounding variables.

In addition, even though this study utilized an adult sample, it was not a perfect probability sample representing all population of United States. Thus, there may be a problem of generalizability of the results of the study. Particularly, because this study employed an online consumer panel, all participants should use Internet and a computer to participate in the survey. However, the Internet users are not representative of all population. In fact, generally online survey takers are composed of individuals who have skills and knowledge about computers. Accordingly, there can be the possibility that people who are not skillful to use computers could be excluded in the sample. On the other hand, there could be some fault respondents using public computers such as professional survey takers for their benefits from the participating. The fault respondents should be screened out to purify the sample. With more representative sample, future study can enhance the generalizability.

Next, the purpose of this study was to measure the general belief in brand placement rather than a real behavioral outcome. Thus, the research did not represent a pure experimental design because there is no independent variable manipulated to generate different belief in brand placement in the sample (this is planned for the subsequent experimental study). Only the overall scores of individual differences were used to predict the dependent variables. Hence, it is difficult to conclude that there is causality between independent and dependent variables.

In sum, the practice of brand placement remains in its infancy. However, as previously discussed, corporations need to keep in mind the potential of the practice of brand placement. This study showed a positive relationship between the White/Caucasian and ProBPL (positive attitude toward brand placement), which means that White/Caucasian people are more likely to accept the practice of brand placement as a marketing promotion tool. Thus, in the area where many Americans/Caucasian people live, marketing communication researchers or marketing decision makers should importantly consider brand placement in a context of an effective media mix, along with the research of the cultural differences of acceptance of the practice of brand placement with more theoretical approaches. Also, corporations positioned in potential brand placement market have to take into account the availability of the brand placement agencies, which are capable of coordinating specialized local media expertise with headquarters' marketing policy. Such integrated media mix could not only reduce consumer resistance, but also enhance synergic effects.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Pre-test Questionnaire

Pretest questionnaire

Instructions: You will watch several video clips. Each clip is approximately 2 minutes. After you see the video clips, you will be asked to answer questions regarding the video clips. The same questions will be repeated after each video clips.

Instructions: this survey includes five question sections and will show you four short Youtube video clips in one of the sections. Accordingly, before starting this survey, please check that the sound system of your computer is working properly. For the purpose of the study, you need to listen to the sound. If possible, please set the sound system up for you to listen to the sound.

Is the sound system working properly?

Yes **No**

(Video clips are shown and the same question sets are repeated for each video clips)

1. Can you remember any brand name in the video clip you just watched?

Yes (Please go ahead to question 2) *No* (Please skip to question 4)

2. If your answer is yes, please type in all the brand names as you can remember.

(_____)

Instructions: Please check about the brands you just answered. There are three different answers. Please, read them and answer according to the definitions.

If you can only find any visual identifiers such as logo or symbol of some brands, please check ***Visual only***.

If you can only hear any audio identifiers such as brand names, please check ***Audio only***.

If you can both find any visual identifiers and hear any brand names in the show, please check ***Both Audio-Visual***

Brand Placement mode

3. In what way do you think that the first brand you just typed in was presented?

- ① *Visual only* ② *Audio only* ③ *Both Audio-Visual*

Please, skip to question 5.

4. If your answer is no, from the list below, please check one brand you can firstly remember or most strongly remember.

- ① Apple ② Escada ③ Louis Vuitton ④ Starbucks
⑤ Vivienne Westwood ⑥ Vogue

4-1. In what way do you think that the brand you just checked was presented?

- ① *Visual only* ② *Audio only* ③ *Both Audio-Visual*

5. How do you feel if you made a purchase decision of the brand you chose? Please answer the following questions with the seven-point semantic differential scales.

If I bought this brand, I would think that it is:

A very unimportant decision 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A very important decision

A decision that requires little thought 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A decision that requires a lot of thought

A purchase with little to lose if I choose the wrong brand 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A purchase with a lot to lose if I choose the wrong brand

6. To describe this brand, please answer your perception of the brand's image

I think the most representative adjective for this brand (is):

Functional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Emotional
Thinking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feeling
Objective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Subjective
Inexpensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Expensive
Not prestigious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Prestigious

I think this brand:

Makes me feel low class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Makes me feel high class
Makes me feel low status	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Makes me feel high status

Plot connectedness

Please read the following description and answer.

Plot connectedness is defined as the degree of connection between the brand and the story line.

Higher plot-connected brands are tightly integrated to the story when the script was initially developed and thus become a central component of the plot. For instance, if an ice cream brand is used as the object of conflict between the two main characters or some electronic devices are meaningfully used by characters, it would be highly connected to the plot. In contrast, lower plot connected brands are simply added to the script after the story had been finalized and thus do not affect the progression of the story. If a candy or a cookie brand is placed in scenes where it does not add to the structure of the story, but merely serves as a tangential element in the scene, it would be low in plot connection.”

7. The brand I chose is

Not strongly connected to the plot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly connected to the plot
---------------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------------------------------

Demographic Characteristics

Please provide the following details:

1. In what year were you born? _____

2. Are you: _____ Male _____ Female

3. Which of the following best describes your highest educational level:

① Middle School	② High School
③ Some College	④ Bachelor's
⑤ Master's	⑥ PhD
⑦ Other _____ (please specify)	

4. What is your racial/ethnic identification?

① American Indian or Alaska native	② African American/ Black
③ Hispanic or Latino	④ Asian
⑤ Caucasian/ White	⑥ Biracial or Multiracial
⑦ Other _____ (please specify)	

5. Which of the following categories best describes your family income during the last year?

① ~ <\$25,000
② \$25,000 ~ <\$50,000
③ \$50,000 ~ <\$75,000
④ \$75,000 ~ <\$100,000
⑤ \$100,000 ~ <\$150,000
⑥ \$150,000 ~

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your assistance in providing this information is very much appreciated. The purpose of the study is to test the effects of the Brand Placement (BPL). To avoid biased answers, the researchers did not use the actual title of this study—The Influence of Individual Differences and Brand Placement.

Appendix B. Consent Form _Pretest



Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication

PARTICIPATION CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in a research study titled "Individual Characteristics and Consumer Behavior" conducted by Ilwoo Ju, a master's student in the Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication at the University of Georgia, under the direction of Dr. Spencer F. Tinkham, Department of Advertising, University of Georgia (706-542-4791). I understand that my participation is voluntary and I am 18 years of age or older. I can refuse to participate or stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled. I can ask to have all of the information about me (to the extent that it can be identified as mine) returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

This survey is for Mr. JU's thesis, and the results may be published. This study is designed to investigate the influence of individual characteristics on consumer behavior. If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to watch videos (some short video clips), then answer a questionnaire, which will take approximately 60 minutes to complete.

Some video clips may include mature content. That is, some of the video clips can contain mildly suggestive video and/or offensive language. I can choose not to participate or decide to stop taking part.

While there may be no direct benefits to me, findings from this project may provide valuable information on understanding consumer behavior.

MarketTools (Zoomerang.com) provides incentives to panelists to participate in Ilwoo Ju's studies. Panelists earn "50 Zoom Points" for participating in a study. These Zoom Points are like a cash incentive and are good for a variety of different products and services. Therefore, the researcher does not offer additional compensation.

Internet communications are insecure and there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed due to the technology itself. However, once the researcher receives the completed survey, standard confidentiality procedures will be employed. The researchers will keep my identity confidential. No identifying information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others. During the analysis, the information will be confidentially stored in a safe place, then after the analysis all information will be deleted.

In order to make this study a valid one, some information about my participation will be withheld until completion of the study. To reduce the biased answers as much as possible, the original title of the study will be just general and broad. At the end of the online survey, the original title will be introduced.

The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, after the course of the project. (Ilwoo Ju, MA student; Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication, University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602-3018; Phone: (706) 224-5128; Email: ilwooc@uga.edu)

By completing the questionnaire, I am agreeing to participate in the above-described research project.

Please save or print this page for your records.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

Appendix C. Consent Form _Main Test



Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication

PARTICIPATION CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in a research study titled "Individual Characteristics and Consumer Behavior" conducted by Ilwoo Ju, a master's student in the Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication at the University of Georgia, under the direction of Dr. Spencer F. Tinkham, Department of Advertising, University of Georgia (706-542-4791). I understand that my participation is voluntary and I am 18 years of age or older. I can refuse to participate or stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled. I can ask to have all of the information about me (to the extent that it can be identified as mine) returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

This survey is for Mr. JU's thesis, and the results may be published. This study is designed to investigate the influence of individual characteristics on consumer behavior. If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to watch videos (some short video clips), then answer a questionnaire, which will take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

Some video clips may include mature content. That is, some of the video clips can contain mildly suggestive video and/or offensive language. I can choose not to participate or decide to stop taking part.

While there may be no direct benefits to me, findings from this project may provide valuable information on understanding consumer behavior.

MarketTools (Zoomerang.com) provides incentives to panelists to participate in Ilwoo Ju's studies. Panelists earn "50 Zoom Points" for participating in a study. These Zoom Points are like a cash incentive and are good for a variety of different products and services. Therefore, the researcher does not offer additional compensation.

Internet communications are insecure and there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed due to the technology itself. However, once the researcher receives the completed survey, standard confidentiality procedures will be employed. The researchers will keep my identity confidential. No identifying information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others. During the analysis, the information will be confidentially stored in a safe place, then after the analysis all information will be deleted.

In order to make this study a valid one, some information about my participation will be withheld until completion of the study. To reduce the biased answers as much as possible, the original title of the study will be just general and broad. At the end of the online survey, the original title will be introduced.

The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, after the course of the project. (Ilwoo Ju, MA student; Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication, University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602-3018; Phone: (706) 224-5128; Email: ilwooc@uga.edu)

By completing the questionnaire, I am agreeing to participate in the above-described research project.

Please save or print this page for your records.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

Appendix D. Main-Study Questionnaire

Main-test questionnaire

Instructions: this survey includes five question sections and will show you four short Youtube video clips in one of the sections. Accordingly, before starting this survey, please check that the sound system of your computer is working properly. For the purpose of the study, you need to listen to the sound. If possible, please set the sound system up for you to listen to the sound.

Is the sound system working properly?

Yes No

Instruction: Please, read the below description and then answer the following questions.

“In the show, sometimes people are seen interacting with certain brands (eating certain foods, drinking certain things, using certain modes of transportation, traveling to certain places, shopping at certain places, consuming certain forms of entertainments, using certain types of services, etc). That is often called Brand Placement: BPL (interchangeably, Product Placement: PPL) in the show.”

Part 1.

Instructions: The following questions are designed to measure your general individual characteristics. Please answer with the below seven-point scale for each question.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree			Neither Disagree or Agree			Strongly Agree

1. Brand placements in movies are a good alternative to traditional commercials.

2. The idea of placing brands in movies is not ethical because the moviegoer doesn't want to watch paid advertising.
3. Brand placements in movies are a good idea for keeping down the price of admission tickets.
4. In my opinion, brand placement in movies should be banned.
5. Real brand should be used extensively in movies to make a scene more believable.
6. Brand placements in movies can keep the price of movie tickets low, but I'd pay more to see a movie without them.
7. The way the brand is used in a movie scene can affect my feelings about the product.
8. When a character that I like uses a brand in a movie, I am more likely to remember the brand.

Instructions: The following questions are designed to measure your familiarity and attitude toward a certain TV show and its main characters. Please answer the following questions.

Have you ever seen the TV show or movie, Sex and the City?

Yes

No

1. To me, "Sex and the City" is:

Very Unfamiliar 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very Familiar

While I am watching "Sex and the City", my attitude toward the show is:

Very Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Positive
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Dislike very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Like very much
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting

Characters

Instructions: Please, answer the following questions about each main character of “Sex and the City”.



Carrie Bradshaw (Actress: Sarah Jessica Parker)

Do you know this main character or actress of “Sex and the City”?

Yes

No

Very Unfamiliar 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very familiar

Very Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Positive
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Dislike very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Like very much
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting



Miranda Hobbes (Actress: Cynthia Nixon)

Do you know this main character or actress of “Sex and the City”?

Yes

No

Very Unfamiliar 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very familiar

Very Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Positive
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Dislike very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Like very much

Boring 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Interesting



Charlotte York (Actress: Kristin Davis)

Do you know this main character or actress of “Sex and the City”?

Yes

No

Very Unfamiliar 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very familiar

Very Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Positive
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Dislike very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Like very much
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting



Samantha Jones (Actress: Kim Cattrall)

Do you know this main character or actress of “Sex and the City”?

Yes

No

Very Unfamiliar 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very familiar

Very Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Positive
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Dislike very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Like very much
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting

Instructions: The following questions are designed to measure your familiarity and attitude toward some brands. Please answer with the below seven-point scale for each question.

Apple

Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

Starbucks

Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

Escada

Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

Louis Vuitton

Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise

Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

Vivienne Westwood

Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

Vogue

Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

Part 2

1. I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with solutions to problems.
2. I would prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought.

3. Learning new ways to think doesn't excite me very much.
 4. I usually end up deliberating about issues even when they do affect me personally.
 5. The idea of relying on thought to get my way to the top does not appeal to me.
 6. The notion of thinking abstractly is not appealing to me.
 7. I only think as hard as I have to.
 8. I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them.
 9. I prefer to think about small daily projects to long-term ones.
 10. I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities.
 11. I find little satisfaction in deliberating hard and for long hours.
 12. I don't like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking.
 13. I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that requires a lot of mental effort.
 14. Thinking is not my idea of fun.
 15. I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is a likely chance I'll have to think in depth about something.
 16. I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve.
 17. I would prefer complex to simple problems.
 18. It's enough for me that something gets the job done; I don't care how or why it works
-
1. I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is a likely chance of my getting emotionally involved.

2. Experiencing strong emotions is not something I enjoy very much
3. I would rather be in a situation where I experience little emotion than one which is sure to get me emotionally involved.
4. I don't look forward to being in situations that others have found to be emotional.
5. I look forward to situations that I know are less emotionally involving.
6. I like to be unemotional in emotional situations.
7. I find little satisfaction in experiencing strong emotions.
8. I prefer to keep my feelings under check.
9. I feel relief rather than fulfilled after experiencing a situation that was very emotional.
10. I prefer to ignore the emotional aspects of situations rather than getting involved in them.
11. More often than not, making decisions based on emotions just leads to more errors.
12. I don't like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that is emotional in nature.

1. My beliefs about myself often conflict with one another.
2. On one day I might have one opinion of myself and on another day I might have a different opinion.
3. I spend a lot of time wondering about what kind of person I really am.
4. Sometimes I feel that I am not really the person that I appear to be.
5. When I think about the kind of person I have been in the past, I'm not sure what I was really like.
6. I seldom experience conflict between the different aspects of my personality.
7. Sometimes I think I know other people better than I know myself.
8. My beliefs about myself seem to change very frequently.

9. If I were asked to describe my personality, my description might end up being different from one day to another day.
10. Even if I wanted to, I don't think I could tell someone what I'm really like.
11. In general, I have a clear sense of who I am and what I am.
12. It is often hard for me to make up my mind about things because I don't really know what I want.

When watching for pleasure

1. I can easily envision the events in the story.
2. I find I can easily lose myself in the story.
3. I find it difficult to tune out activity around me. (Reversed)
4. I can easily envision myself in the events described in a story.
5. I get mentally involved in the story.
6. I can easily put stories out of my mind after I've finished watching them. (Reversed)
7. I sometimes feel as if I am part of the story.
8. I am often impatient to find out how the story ends.
9. I find that I can easily take the perspective of the character(s) in the story.
10. I am often emotionally affected by what I've watched.
11. I have vivid images of the characters.
12. I find myself accepting events that I might have otherwise considered unrealistic.
13. I find myself thinking what the characters may be thinking.
14. I find myself thinking of other ways the story could have ended.
15. My mind often wanders. (Reversed).

16. I find myself feeling what the characters may feel.
 17. I find that events in the story are relevant to my everyday life.
 18. I often find that reading stories has an impact on the way I see things.
 19. I easily identify with characters in the story.
 20. I have vivid images of the events in the story.
-
1. It is my feeling that if everyone else in a group is behaving in a certain manner, this must be the proper way to behave.
 2. I actively avoid wearing clothes that are not in style.
 3. At parties I usually try to behave in a manner that makes me fit in.
 4. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for clues.
 5. I try to pay attention to the reactions of others to my behavior in order to avoid being out of place.
 6. I find that I tend to pick up slang expressions from others and use them as a part of my own vocabulary.
 7. I tend to pay attention to what others are wearing.
 8. The slightest look of disapproval in the eyes of a person with whom I am interacting is enough to make me change my approach.
 9. It's important to me to fit into the group I'm with.
 10. My behavior often depends on how I feel others wish me to behave.
 11. If I am the least bit uncertain as to how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.

12. I usually keep up with clothing style changes by watching what others wear.
 13. When in a social situation, I tend not to follow the crowd, but instead to behave in a manner that suits my particular mood at the time.
-
1. I often consult other people to help choose the best alternative available from a product class.
 2. If I want to be like someone, I often try to buy the same brands that they buy.
 3. It is important that others like the products and brand I buy.
 4. To make sure I buy the right product or brand, I often observe what others are buying and using.
 5. I rarely purchase the latest fashion styles until I am sure my friends approve of them.
 6. I often identify with other people by purchasing the same products and brands they purchase.
 7. If I have little experience with a product, I often ask my friends about the product.
 8. When buying products, I generally purchase those brands that I think others will approve of.
 9. I like to know what brands and products make good impressions on others.
 10. I frequently gather information from friends or family about a product before I buy.
 11. If other people can see me using a product, I often purchase the brand they expect me to buy.
 12. I achieve a sense of belonging by purchasing the same products and brands that others purchase.

Part 3

Instruction: You will watch four video clips in order, then will be asked to answer questions regarding each video clip. Each video clip is approximately 2 minutes. The same questions will be repeated for each video clip. Before watching the four video clips, please read the description below and then go ahead.

“In the show, sometimes people are seen interacting with certain brands (eating certain foods, drinking certain things, using certain modes of transportation, traveling to certain places, shopping at certain places, consuming certain forms of entertainments, using certain types of services, etc). That is often called Brand Placement: BPL”

Video Clip 1, 2,3,4 are shown.

Please, remember all instances of similar consumption-related events in the video clips you just saw, and for each instance type in the brand and the associated show character with the brand.

(_____)

Instructions: Please, answer the following questions about the brand you just saw in the video clip.

Apple

Did you recognize this brand?	Yes			No			
Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Wise
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Pleasant

If this brand were available in the shops, I would intend to purchase:

Would not buy it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Would buy it

While you were watching the video clip,

If you can only find any visual identifiers such as logo or symbol of some brands, please check ***Visual only***.

If you can only hear any audio identifiers such as brand names, please check ***Audio only***.

If you can both find any visual identifiers and hear any brand names in the show, please check ***Both Audio-Visual***

Brand Placement mode

3. In what way do you think that the first brand you just typed in was presented?

① *Visual only*

② *Audio only*

③ *Both Audio-Visual*

Please read the following description and answer.

“Plot connectedness is defined as the degree of connection between the brand and the story line. Higher plot-connected brands are tightly integrated to the story when the script was initially developed and thus become a central component of the plot. For instance, if an ice cream brand is used as the object of conflict between the two main characters or some electronic devices are meaningfully used by characters, it would be highly connected to the plot. In contrast, lower plot connected brands are simply added to the script after the story had been finalized and thus do not affect the progression of the story. If a candy or a cookie brand is placed in scenes where it does not add to the structure of the story, but merely serves as a tangential element in the scene, it would be low in plot connection.”

7. The brand I chose is

Not strongly connected to the plot 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly connected to the plot

(The above two questions are repeated for each brand)

Starbucks

Did you recognize this brand?	Yes							No							
Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If this brand were available in the shops, I would intend to purchase:

Would not buy it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Would buy it

Escada

Did you recognize this brand?	Yes							No							
Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Unpleasant 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Pleasant

If this brand were available in the shops, I would intend to purchase:

Would not buy it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Would buy it

Louis Vuitton

Did you recognize this brand? Yes No

Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

If this brand were available in the shops, I would intend to purchase:

Would not buy it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Would buy it

Vivienne Westwood

Did you recognize this brand? Yes No

Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

If this brand were available in the shops, I would intend to purchase:

Would not buy it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Would buy it

Vogue

Did you recognize this brand?	Yes			No				
Very unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Very Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favorable
Unlikable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likable
Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Wise
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

If this brand were available in the shops, I would intend to purchase:

Would not buy it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Would buy it

Part 4

Instructions: All video clips you just watched are from the same show and the following questions are designed to measure your program liking of the show. Please, answer the following questions.

Program liking (Murry, Lastovicka, & Singh, 1992)

I'm glad I had a chance to see this program:

Disagree very much 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree very much

I would never watch a rerun of this program on television:

Disagree very much 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree very much

I liked watching this program:

Disagree very much 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree very much

If I knew this program was going to be on television, I would look forward to watching it:

Disagree very much 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree very much

I disliked watching this program more than I do most other TV programs:

Disagree very much 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree very much

There is something about this program that appeals to me:

Disagree very much 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree very much

Part 5

Demographic Characteristics

Please provide the following details:

6. In what year were you born? _____
7. Are you: _____ Male _____ Female
8. Which of the following best describes your highest educational level:
- ① Middle School ② High School
- ③ Some College ④ Bachelor's
- ⑤ Master's ⑥ PhD
- ⑦ Other _____ (please specify)
9. What is your racial/ethnic identification?
- ① Asian ② Black
- ③ Hispanic ④ Native American
- ⑤ White ⑥ Biracial or multiracial
- ⑦ Other _____ (please specify)
10. Which of the following categories best describes your family income during the last year?
- ① ~ <\$25,000
- ② \$25,000 ~ <\$50,000
- ③ \$50,000 ~ <\$75,000
- ④ \$75,000 ~ <\$100,000

⑤ \$100,000 ~ <\$150,000

⑥ \$150,000 ~

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your assistance in providing this information is very much appreciated. The purpose of the study is to test the effects of the Brand Placement (BPL). To avoid biased answers, the researchers did not use the actual title of this study—The Influence of Individual Differences and Brand Placement.

Thank You Very Much!

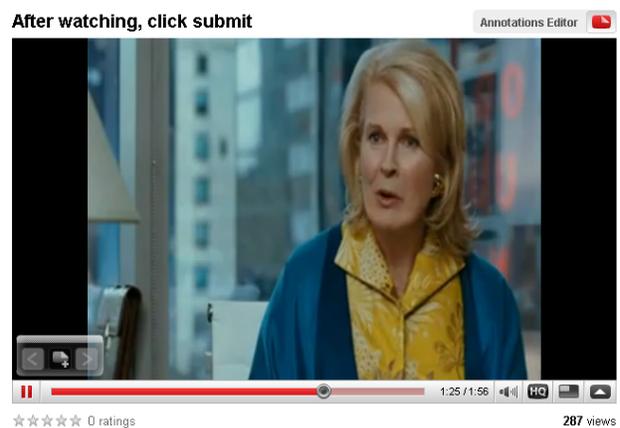
Appendix E. Stimuli



Brand: Escada (Visual only)



Brand: Louis Vuitton (Visual+Audio)



Brand: Vogue (Audio only)



Brand: Vivienne Westwood (Visual+Audio)