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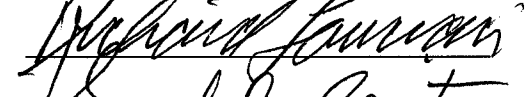Member's Name and Affiliation   Signature
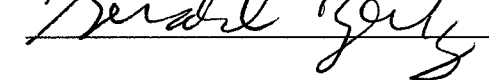
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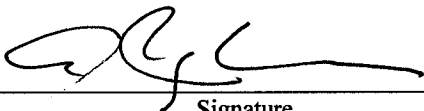
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GROUP OUT-OF-HOME TELEVISION VIEWING:

A STUDY OF VIEWING DYNAMICS AND ADVERTISING
EFFECTIVENESS

A Dissertation
Submitted
to the Temple University Graduate Board

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

By
Anthony Patino
May, 2007

ii

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ABSTRACT

GROUP OUT-OF-HOME TELEVISION VIEWING:
A STUDY OF VIEWING DYNAMICS AND ADVERTISING
EFFECTIVENESS

Anthony Patino
Temple University, 2007
Doctor of Philosophy
Major Advisor: Michael Smith, Ph.D.

Group out-of-home television viewing has grown significantly over the

past several years with the expansion of sports taverns and televisions in public

places like shopping malls and workplaces. While the amount of hours

individuals participate in out-of-home television viewing has increased, little

significant research has been completed to test the impact of this viewing

environment on advertising effectiveness.

This research paper employed a multi-method approach (ethnography and

experiment) to analyze this growing television viewing phenomenon. The

ethnography sites included taverns, health clubs, airports, schools and dormitories

across various populations. General themes uncovered involved music and

television content as initiators of social interaction and the development of para-

social relationships. Two additional themes that emerged were the underlying

rules of viewing in groups both formally and informally and the development of a

viewing community.

Utilizing the results of the ethnographic study, an experiment was

completed that compared advertising recall between connected groups of viewers

and individuals on both connected and non- connected programming. It was

found that viewers who watched a connected television program in groups were more likely to recall advertisements relevant to their population than those who viewed the programming alone. The ability to better understand this growing trend in media research can enable television programmers to schedule more strategically and advertisers better able to prepare cost efficient media buys.

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viii

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Chapter

ix

LIST OF FIGURES

x

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Until Nielsen adds an out-of-home viewing dimension to their
measurement system, it cannot purport to offer definitive information on
the TV viewing of these young adults,"
Dave Poltrack, Executive Vice President
of Research and Planning at CBS

The tavern in this trendy urban section of Baltimore
called Mount Vernon is rather busy for a Sunday night at 9PM.
Several young women are milling around the bar. They are
conversing with some others sitting across from the television
set. Others walk in and smile at those at the bar and take their
place at the bar. A hush falls over the bar as the television
volume is raised. A glance over at the bar reveals several of the
women and men looking up at the television..... A couple of
gasps and several laughs are heard as Bree prevents that
enchilada from falling off the dresser while she is having sex
with her husband. The program breaks for commercial.
Conversation develops but several of those at the bar start
chatting about the commercial spot for the movie *Million Dollar
Baby*. "I do not have any intention of seeing that," says the
woman in the corner. The man sitting next to her replies, "A
woman boxing, come-on." Some more chime in and the
conversation shifts from *Million Dollar Baby* to the Smyth
Jewelers television advertisement that aired later in the
commercial break. (The Hippo Bar in Baltimore, Maryland)

Television viewing is no longer a private isolated consumption activity.

While many people watch television at home alone or with family members, they

now have other options available to them. Televisions are found everywhere from

airport waiting areas to health clubs to doctors' offices and dormitories. Today, many

taverns and restaurants have designated viewing nights. It is not uncommon to find a

Duke University Basketball game being telecast at Satisfaction Restaurant and Bar in

1

Durham, North Carolina or "Will and Grace" broadcast at Mickey's Tavern in West Hollywood, California with a multitude of fans watching intently. The trend of watching television in groups in out-of-home settings continues to grow. For example, "Desperate Housewives" attracts more than sixty people on a Sunday evening at LaTasca, an upscale restaurant in Washington, DC (*USA Today*, October 12, 2005).

Viewers are seeking places outside the home to watch television with others. The reasons for seeking these places can vary from a social interaction component of meeting others and becoming part of a new community to a functional aspect whereby viewers can experience the current technology of high definition television sets available at these locations. By better understanding this trend of watching television in groups away from home, these establishments can benefit because they can cater to customers by, for example, sponsoring viewing nights and thereby, establishing a loyal client base who view the establishment as a meaningful component of their viewing experience and viewing community (Rosenbaum 2006). On all accounts, television viewing in an out-of-home setting is becoming more of a hedonic experience because of shared relationships and the excitement of the new technology (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982; Raghunathan and Corfman 2006). The program is not the only impetus or stimulus but rather just one element of the entire viewing experience. Viewers can rejoice with others when the Boston Red Sox sealed their first World Series in decades or console each other when that good looking patient dies on "Grey's Anatomy."

2

Although significant research on television viewing and advertising has been completed over the past several years, including studies on cultivation theory and television viewing (O'Guinn and Shrum 1997) and contextual priming and advertising (Yi 1990), few researchers have incorporated a group and out-of-home viewing dimension within their television study. The work of Russell and Puto (1999) and that of Ritson and Elliott (1999) provide the exception. Their studies incorporated social perspectives and, consequently, they have shifted the focus of television viewing from a personal to a social activity. However, Russell and Puto focused on parasocial relationships and television programming while Ritson and Elliott based their research on social interaction among teens days after viewing television advertising. Both of those studies included a group aspect in a post television viewing situation whether it be fan websites (Russell and Puto) or face to face interaction (Ritson and Elliot). By combining both aspects of connected television programming and group social interaction at the time of viewing, direct measures like recall can be collected and advertisers may be better able to understand the impact of viewing in group situations will have on advertising.

Most researchers pay limited attention to the social elements of watching television in an out-of-home setting, because of measurement difficulties and because they believe it to be solely context driven especially by sports programming (Eastman and Land 1997). While sports programming has become a staple at taverns and airports including college basketball games and NFL games, programs like "The Osbournes," "Family Guy," "Drawn Together," and "Melrose Place" have become hits because of their ability to transcend traditional television viewing and become

3

more of a shared experience. (*Wall Street Journal*, October 9, 1995). For "The Osbournes," the unique shared experience was debating Ozzy's vocabulary while for "Melrose Place," it was commenting on Amanda's next devious plan, and for a current program like "Desperate Housewives," it was commenting on Bree's wardrobe or young college women discussing Dr. Mc Dreamy on "Grey's Anatomy" (*USA Today*, October 14, 2005). By better understanding out-of-home group television viewing, measurement issues can be addressed assisting television networks and advertising account executives in their media buys. With advertising rates climbing in television, media buyers are required to justify media schedules more often.

Since media buyers are more often justifying their media schedules, the use of an advertising effective measurement instrument with consistent results and general appeal is needed. Recall has been used extensively by academics and practitioners and is the measurement for explicit memory (Till and Baack 2006; Bagozzi and Silk 1983). The use of recall measurements has been used in multiple studies; however, program involvement's impact on recall has garnered inconsistent results (McGrath and Mahood 2004). The inconsistent results can be attributed in part to a misattribution of involvement and the absence of moderating factors.

The purpose of this study is to review out-of-home group television viewing and to attempt to understand how advertising recall and involvement are impacted by this situational component.

4

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 General Overview

Several television programming genres have relied upon out-of-home viewing

for success. For instance, soap operas, like "General Hospital," are watched at the

office daily by co-workers, sporting events are watched by groups of ardent fans in a

variety of locations, and competitive reality programs, like "Survivor," are viewed at

local bars and restaurants. Most previous television viewing studies have not

embraced the changing situation of the out-of-home environment because of

measurement difficulties and a lack of understanding of the out-of-home viewing

construct. The majority of television studies were completed in an at-home setting

whereby the television program served as the agent of delivery and the subjects

watching did not interact or engaged in limited conversation between close family

members. In other words, the viewing was private and more of a passive experience

with little interest in anything outside the television program or event with the

exception of advertising (Giles 2003; Eastman and Land 1997).

Not until recently has the viewing environment and social influence been

considered. The increase in the number of sports bars and the appearance of

television sets everywhere from atop tables in shopping mall food courts to middle

school and high school classrooms where students break at 10:30AM to watch

Channel One account for the change in perspective (Fox and Gerbner 2000). The

group audience has forced researchers to analyze the opportunity for significant social

influence which they previously would ignore (Eastman and Land 1997; Raghunathan

5

and Corfman 2006). Clearly, the influence of the audience and the social environment has transformed television viewing from Giles' (2003) passive experience to a more interactive experience which recognizes a need for socializing with a sense of belonging to a community (Baumeister and Leary 1995; Raghunathan and Corfman 2006). The interaction may have the ability to reinforce connection to the television program or group as well as serve as a moderator to advertising recall (Russell, Norman and Heckler 2004).

For years, the television broadcast networks in the United States have stressed the importance of measuring these out-of-home viewers that Nielsen, television's measurement source, did not previously consider. The majority of the complaints were filed by ESPN, ABC and Fox with regards to televised NFL games. Supporting their contention of mis-measurement is a study conducted in 2003 by ESPN and Total TV Audience Monitor, which concluded that 36.3 million people over 18 years of age watch television outside the home (*Mediaweek,* May 3, 2004), and a 2005 study by the YES network that concluded ratings could rise by as much as 15 percent if out-of-home viewers were included (Television Week, December 12, 2005). While research executives David Poltrack of CBS and Alan Wurtzel of NBC have stressed the importance of studying out-of-home viewing by citing the fact that 49% of all adults view television outside the home (2003), most researchers have not properly addressed the concept of out-of-home television viewing. Confusion exists because out-of-home viewing is done both alone and in groups. Further complicating the problem is that Nielsen recently introduced the portable people meter (PPM) which tracks viewing in out-of-home environments without any understanding of how that

6

behavior differs from at-home viewing. Nielsen recently decided to forgo PPM and reinvest in other measurement issues including the inclusion of college students in the sample because they account for fifty percent of the out-of-home viewing audience (*Broadcasting* 3/1/2006). In a pilot study in November 2006, Nielsen found several programs experienced significant increases in their viewing audience from college dormitories including "Grey's Anatomy" which increased its female 18-24 audience by 53% and Comedy Central's "Drawn Together" whose audience rose 63% among males 18-24 (*Variety* 1/30.2007).

Despite Nielsen's decision to abandon PPM, Arbitron, the current supplier of PPM's, found the following with regards to television viewing in out-of-home settings which further substantiates the importance of understanding the dynamics of this special viewing experience:

1) Average quarter hour ratings rose across all dayparts and networks

2) The largest increases were found among younger demographics (18-34 years of age), particularly men.

3) Out-of-home audience average increases of 15%.

4) The viewing away from home was significant "at work." (Arbitron, September 20, 2005)

Given the rise in advertising rates and the decline of broadcast television ratings, out-of-home television viewing in groups has become a growing concern for network executives and advertisers for the past few years (Pilson 2001). According to *Advertising Age* (April 21, 2003), networks and advertising researchers have been unable to account for the loss of television viewers, while at the same time they have

7

been forced to justify higher advertising rates. The networks are claiming that out-of-home viewing is one cause for the apparent *erosion* because this vital audience has not been measured by any reliable service until now. Nielsen estimates out-of-home viewing can impact the ratings by as much as 12 percent (*Mediaweek*, 2/20/2006). However, they cannot claim this audience as a viable target for advertisers until it can be accurately measured and a proper measure requires a better understanding of how viewing in an out-of-home social environment differs from an at-home environment. Unfortunately, much attention in trade publications, like *Advertising Age* and *Mediaweek*, has focused on the television programming while neglecting to study the dynamics of the social interaction. Few research studies have examined what happens when people watch television in groups and why they opt to watch television in groups (Eastman and Land 1997; Buford-May 1999; Raghunathan and Corfman 2006).

While content plays a significant role in the television viewing experience, in the belief of this researcher, the environment in which a consumer experiences the content is as equally important as the advertisement or program stimulus itself. Social interaction has the ability to complement and, therefore, enhance the content. For many, sharing the television viewing experience can play a significant factor in the enjoyment and pleasure of it, a hedonic consumption activity (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982; Campbell 1987).

Previous environmental studies focused on the stimuli. Among the stimuli that were studied included humorous television programs and advertisements (Perry 2001), violent (aggressive) content (Zillman and Weaver 1999), and sexual situations

in programming (Metson 2000). The focus of these studies was on how the audience was impacted by these stimuli elements and not how the audience, as a group, may impact perception of the program or advertisement stimuli. Many of the studies used the theoretical construct of excitation transfer (Zillman 1971). In excitation transfer theory, Zillman (1971) proved that the excitement elicited from one stimulus can be shifted to another target. In 1994, Zillman and Bryant were able to show that social circumstances influence affective reactions. Excitation transfer theory has been employed in several studies in marketing including Pechmann and Shih's (1999) work on smoking and motion pictures. They tested the impact of smoking scenes on adolescents' decision to engage in smoking behavior, believing that smoking in a scene excites the viewer to smoke. Recently, excitation transfer theory was used in the study of web advertising and animation speed in which it proved animation speed as a significant psychological variable (Sundar and Kalyanaraman 2004) and in a study on aggression toward women in popular music, the researchers found aggressive actions toward women were influenced by rap music (Rubin, West, and Mitchell 2001).

Several studies have indirectly extended Zillman's excitation transfer theory. For instance, Russell and Puto (1999) found that the types of television programs as well as the characters in the program induced different levels of attention and arousal. By increasing arousal, a sense of connectedness develops between the viewers and the characters and programs. In this study, and in most studies, the stimulus has been the television programming. No study has placed the social viewing environment as the stimulus in studies. By neglecting to consider this active viewing audience,

9

advertisers are ignoring a valuable mechanism for priming the advertising content. An active audience watching television can play as important a role as the television programming content has for preparing or priming the advertising content for the audience (Soldow and Principe 1981). Researchers believe this active audience can serve as an extra-textual priming opportunity for advertising and for television programming. In contrast to contextual priming, whereby the television program becomes an important component of the advertising process, extra-textual priming posits that the viewing environment is an equally vital component of the process. The group viewing situation may provide a motivation influence for the commercial break.

The concept of extra-textual priming had been studied indirectly by Ritson and Elliott (1999) in their seminal research paper on the social implications of advertising. In that study, Ritson and Elliott (1999) conducted an ethnographic study of adolescents the day after watching television programming and were able to document the way advertising acts as an impetus for discussion. Ritson and Elliott studied the post-consumption environment, the day after viewing the advertisements, and its tangential impact on memory. By studying this post-consumption experience, an opportunity emerged in the literature in which the timing of experiencing the advertisement is equally as important as the advertisement itself. By shifting the timing of the advertisement, the direct impact of the active audience on the program and advertisements becomes the major dependent variable. By waiting to test advertising elements until the next day or subsequent days, confounds the measurement because other factors may distort the data. The measure of

10

effectiveness is used in natural settings as is the case with viewing in out-of-home settings (Wright-Isak, Faber, and Horner 1997). Unfortunately, no one has formed an accurate measurement device for testing advertising effectiveness.

By shifting the stimulus from the television programming and advertising to the social television viewing environment, the social interaction experienced by those in the viewing audience becomes the dominant component in this proposed research study. It is believed that the amount of social interaction will increase, because the viewers in the audience will exhibit similar motives and characteristics as well as have a higher level of social attraction (Hogg and Hardie 1992). For instance, by opting into the viewing setting, the viewer would at the least enter a group with similarities in background and interests because of the location and the type of crowd (Strauss 1977). For instance, viewers of "Desperate Housewives" will convene at an establishment because they are all interested in the programming and fans of Maryland Terrapin Football will convene to watch the game together. This type of social interaction enhances social influence (Thomas 1992), resulting in a higher level of social connectedness (Lee and Robbins 1995) and enjoyment. A by-product of the social interaction amongst group members is the creation of a "viewing community." The "viewing community" exhibits similar characteristics of a brand community whereby the culture of the viewing creates powerful experiences complete with rules and protocols (Muniz and O'Guinn 2001; Muniz and Schau 2005).

This paper will explain the impact of the out-of-home viewing context using excitation transfer theory and social interaction. It will compare and contrast the viewing experience of at home alone viewing with those of the out-of-home audience.

11

It will then decompose how out-of-home viewing impacts advertising recall. By uncovering overlying themes and testing those themes will enable future researcher to better measure this viewing phenomenon.

2.2 Out-of-Home Television Viewing

The average adult in the United States of America watches over seven hours of television per day (Silverblatt 1995, Nielsen Media Research 1998). In fact, television viewing accounts for 40% of American leisure activity (Silverblatt 1995). Given the significant amount of time adults watch television and the impact it has on life, researchers of television-viewing have lost an opportunity to expand the field of behavioral research by including only viewing in the at-home context alone or among family members (Comstock et al. 1978). Some studies, for example that of Lull (1980), concentrated on the family structure as the unit of analysis and the home as the context. This study and similar ones referenced personal relationships and the communication patterns of established family members (Lemish 1982), thus recognizing that social interaction is an integral component of the viewing environment. But the importance of social interaction needs to be addressed outside the home as well. While established relationships are important components of any social interaction study, the ability to analyze new and less-established relationships can provide new opportunities for study (Goffman 1963).

Out-of-home viewing studies are difficult to conduct for many reasons (Schmitt, Woolf and Anderson 2003). In addition to the difficulty of accurately

12

understanding group measurement issues, Nielsen Media Research, the television ratings provider, has previously only recorded data from in-home viewing (Webster, Lichty and Phalen 2000). When Nielsen Media Research distributes the data for advertising usage, they provide information about the number of households and the demographic ratings used to set rates for local television stations and television networks. Since television has traditionally been an at-home leisure activity, Nielsen Media Research has developed a methodology to assess at-home viewing including passive measurement devices (people meters) and non-passive instruments (television viewing diaries). However, recognizing the shortcomings of these tools for measurement, ratings competition has emerged that is attempting to integrate out-of-home viewing with at home viewing (PPM's) (Jensen 1999).

With the proliferation of televisions in public places, the advertising and broadcasting industries have realized the importance of understanding this phenomenon. Lemish (1982), Eastman and Land (1997), Buford May (1999) and Krotz and Eastman (1999) have made significant contributions to the study of alternative viewing contexts. Alternative viewing contexts include restaurants, taverns, sports bars, shopping malls, gyms, airports, doctors' offices, dormitories, schools, all non-private places (Nielsen Media Research 1998). Nielsen Media Research and advertisers label these non-home contexts as "out-of-home viewing" (Krotz and Eastman 1999).

Over twenty-five million adults watch an average of five hours and thirty-seven minutes of television in an out-of-home setting each week, almost 15% of total viewing (Nielsen Media Research 1998). The significance of these numbers inspired

13

the American television networks (ABC, CBS, NBC, and FOX) and cable networks (ESPN) to commission studies to further investigate this trend. According to a 2002 ESPN ABC Sports study, 17.2 million men 18 years old and older watched 6.5 hours of television in an out-of-home setting each week. Yet out-of-home viewing is not restricted to sports programming but includes all programming. According to a recent Nielsen study, over 937,000 adults watched ABC daytime programming like soap operas in public settings, and that represents just one network (Nielsen Media Research 1998).

A major difference with out-of-home viewing is its dependence upon situational factors that are overlooked in traditional at-home studies. Among the situational factors include a negotiated cultural creation for the television viewer where norms are created (Eastman and Land 1997). The negotiated cultural context includes the public nature of the setting where viewers are exposed to different rules from those at home (Lemish 1982; Eastman and Land 1997; Goffman 1971; Meyrowitz 1985). For instance, for some out-of-home television viewing sites, an unwritten rule of silence is expected during all parts of the program, while during television viewing at home, dialogue may be encouraged.

Since the public setting acts as the unit of analysis, one must analyze its constraints such as the type of place, accepted norms of behavior for the viewing place, conditional elements like noise and elements, the motivation for watching away from home, competitive or complementary forces to communication (social interaction), and the cultural background. Katz, Blumer and Gurevitch (1974) have

14

addressed one such aspect, the reasons for opting into a viewing environment, with uses and gratifications theory.

Unfortunately, the majority of the uses and gratification studies has focused on the functional uses of television like diversion and convenience (a diversion to standing in line while in a grocery store), decoration and atmosphere (enhanced mood), a need for comfort and support during intense news days, and attraction and entertainment (to sell more food or drinks). One study by McFarland (1992) evaluated the importance of television programming ("Mister Rogers Neighborhood") for education in a pre-school setting while another by Zielinska and Chambers (1995) studied the pro-social behavior that "Sesame Street" encouraged among pre-schoolers.

Krotz and Eastman (1999) expanded the functional analysis by including a site analysis. The site not only impacts the viewing experience, but it can also affect the advertising message and the program context (Kamins, Marks and Skinner 1991). Several studies have shown that program context can positively influence advertising recall and the cognitive processing of the commercial messages. Pavelchak, Antil and Munch's *Journal of Consumer Research* Super Bowl XX study (1988) juxtapositioned programming and emotion. They found that recall was positively related to arousal but not as strongly to pleasure. In addition to Pavelchak, et al (1988), Ayelsworth and MacKenzie (1998) researched the impact of program context mood on attitude toward the advertisement, while Sharma (2000) incorporated the effects of commercial and program congruity on advertising recall. In both cases, the program acted as the stimulus leading into the commercial block or commercial pod,

15

a practice known as contextual priming. As the studies have shown, the program

context stimulation transferred to the advertisement. This transfer of the excitement

is known as excitation transfer theory (Zillman 1971).

2.3 Excitation Transfer Theory

Excitation transfer theory was pioneered by Dolf Zillman in 1971. Zillman

derived his theory from Shachter and Singer's two-factor model of emotion (1962),

which looked at the emotional and physiological responses to meaningful

experiences. Basically, excitation transfer theory states that the emotion derived from

one situation is transferred to another causing an intensification of the second

experience and a possible misattribution of the first experience to another. A major

criterion is that the external stimulus be apparent like a television program or

television commercial (Reizensen and Gottinger 1982). For instance, Mattes and

Cantor (1982) found that highly arousing film segments increased the effectiveness of

commercials. In this case, the film is the external stimulus and the transfer of

intensity to the commercial.

While multiple studies have been conducted using television programming

and advertising as stimuli, no studies have employed a reverse excitation transfer

perspective in which the excitement is transferred from the group (the external

stimulus) to the television program or advertisement message (the second

experience). In other words, the excitement of being with the group is transferred to

the programming and advertising. The transfer may make the program more

16

appealing and the advertising message more meaningful because subjects seek a target for this upbeat feeling (Schachter and Singer 1962).

Most studies position the programming stimulus as the vehicle to exciting the viewer. Since excitation transfer theory is based on the presence of a stimulus, social interaction has been shown to act as a stimulus in limited studies the Cohen, Waugh and Place (1989) study on motion pictures. Although the study utilized social interaction, they addressed it as both a stimulus and a response. The basis of their study was comparing the dynamics of mixed sex couples after viewing a romantic film. As mentioned previously, Pechmann and Singh (1999) employed excitation transfer in a product placement marketing context believing the arousal from the movie can transfer to the product. In their case, the excitement of the movie can be shifted to cigarette smoking.

17

THE GROUP OOH (OUT-OF-HOME) TELEVISION MODEL

Figure 1
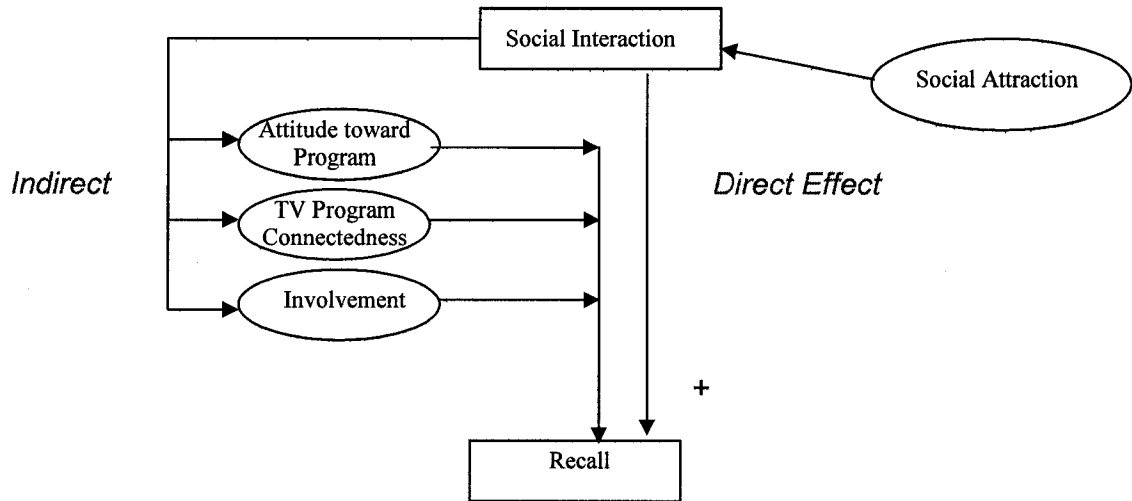
Exhibit 1 is the group OOH (out-of-home) television model. The model examines the impact of group television viewing on advertising recall. Watching television in an out-of-home setting can lead to social interaction among those watching the television program together or within proximity. The amount of interaction is dependent upon social attraction and proximity (Hogg and Hardie 1992). Individuals tend to engage in more social interaction with others who they believe share similar interests to themselves (Strauss 1977; Hogg and Hardie 1992). Those viewing a program have identified themselves as having a common interest whether a sports team (college or professional) or a popular television program like "Gray's Anatomy."

The social interaction impacts the proposed Group OOH Television Model in two ways. The first way is the direct route. The interaction among group members will have an impact on attitude toward the ad and on advertising recall. When group

18

members engage in dialogue during the television program, commercial advertising messages can provide the impetus for discussion. For instance, when viewing the World Series in 2002 at a local bar in Arizona, viewers saw an advertisement for "Charlie's Angels: Full Throttle" and began discussing their desire to see the film. By discussing the advertising appearing during the programming, the group members have advertising messages reinforced depending on what is said about the program.

The indirect route operates via the television program. The television program can serve as the source for the social interaction, and the social interaction can provide the foundation for the enjoyment of the television program. By engaging in social interaction with group members regarding programming, individuals become influenced by others. The influence of group members will impact television connectedness, attitude toward the program, and involvement in it. As a result of the interaction and the television programming factors (connectedness, attitude and involvement), advertising recall should increase.

While most studies have limited their analysis to the programming influence of contextual priming, the model presented here incorporates both television programming and group influence factors.

2.4 Social Interaction/Social Influence

When people watch television in an out-of-home setting in groups, some form of social interaction will occur between those watching television and those within a close range (Bonner 1959; Homans 1950). The communication that ensues among those people viewing a television program occurs because of social attraction and

19

similarity (Hogg and Hardie 1992; Hogg and Hains 1996). Social attraction is, according to Hogg (1993), when individuals are interested in someone because they embody a group ideal in contrast to a personal attraction. In other words, individuals are attracted to others to form a group because they believe them to share a common characteristic like the enjoyment of a program. The viewers in an out-of-home setting have opted to watch a particular program. By choosing this experience, the viewers have demonstrated their similar interests and are more likely to engage in social discourse, in part, due to their common interest. (Hogg and Hardie 1992).

The television programming and advertising provide the stimuli for the interaction (Russell and Puto 1999; Ritson and Elliott 1999). To illustrate, a group of adults are viewing "Desperate Housewives" at a local establishment in Washington, D.C. While viewing the programming, strangers sitting close to one another begin to engage in dialogue regarding the television context. The interaction continues throughout the program and television commercials. For some, the dialogue is based on characters and the decisions they are making in the viewed episode enabling the viewers to form a stronger bond with the characters and programs commenting on Susan's pratfalls or Bree's lipstick (Russell and Puto 1999), while others are more interested in the hearing about the performance of a product or service being advertised during the program like the discussion about the new perfume or how that Clorox bleach pen works.

According to Turner (1981), personal influence and information influence both fall under the umbrella of social influence. It is "a composition of the processes whereby people directly or indirectly influence the thoughts, feelings, and actions of

20

others (page 98)." Informational social influence results from a person's responding to information provided by others and using that information for decision making processing. Informational influence on a group of people with shared beliefs results in an active discussion because fellow members of the group seek information or knowledge (knowledge capital) from a valued group member (Myers and Lamm 1976). The active discussion amongst the group members results in the exchange of ideas and opinions. These social situations can cause us to change or modify our opinions. We conform because we believe others have accurate information and they are more like us (Campbell and Fairey 1989).

The group viewing environment encourages the development of conversations. These conversations emerge as the major agent in the formulation, justification, and socialization of thoughts (Middleton and Edwards 1990; Thomas 1992). The use of conversations as the vehicle to exert social influence and social proof become valid because it shows how people really remember things (Neisser 1982). According to Cialdini (1993), social proof is a heuristic by which we "view a behavior as correct in a given situation to the degree to which we see others performing it (page 95)." In other words, the recall of advertising messages is a direct result of the social interaction and actions of the group watching television.

The ability to influence and alter the belief and attitude of others toward the viewing experience can, in turn, cause a shift in belief (Chaiken, Wood and Eagle 1996). For instance, a woman views a film and believes it to be marginal. She attends a get-together where the film is discussed amongst friends and acquaintances. She joins the conversation with others who believed the film to be superior. She may

21

reconstruct the film in her mind to concur with the others in the group. When

retrieved again for reconstruction in a conversational setting or for internal thought,

her opinion would be based on a higher acceptance with a stronger emotional bond

because the conversation acted as the stimulus in the retrieval response.

2.5 Viewing Community

By viewing television in group settings, people become members of a

"viewing community." The members of the community create the rules incorporating

behavioral expectations (Muniz and O'Guinn 2001). By engaging in this activity, the

viewer's experience becomes more transformative thus creating stronger links to the

programming, advertising, and other group members in much the same way as has

been studies with rafting trips (Arnould and Price 1993), risk and sky diving (Celsi,

Rose and Leigh 1993) and Harley Davidson riders (Schouten and McAlexander

1995). The programming is a "pseudobrand," but the viewing experience and its

hedonic component further enhance the brand or "viewing community." Most

hedonic community studies have been based in sports (Hopkinsons and Pujari 1999),

however, arts consumption like television viewing poses another research context

because the hedonic experience of fun and pleasure are an integral component of its

formation (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). The viewing community is an extension

of Arnould and Price's (1993) rafting ethnography which studied the formation of

"communitas."

The core of this "viewing community" like that brand community is the

relationships that are formed (McAlexander and Schouten 2002). The relationships

22

formed in the "viewing community" are those between fellow viewers and also those between fellow viewers and the characters in the programs, a parasocial perspective. Parasocial interaction relationships develop within media channels; "a seeming face to face relationship between spectator and performer" (Horton and Wohl 1956) (page 215). Viewers talk about the characters and their plot situations; they offer advice and discuss options (Buford May 1999). Through these activities, viewers become more involved with the program and the viewing experience.

2.6 Television Programming Elements

The television programming elements that impact advertising recall both directly and indirectly are television connectedness, program involvement and attitude toward the program. Russell, Norman and Heckler (2004) have decomposed the three concepts into distinct entities. Television connectedness is described as "the level of intensity of the relationship that a viewer develops with the characters and contextual settings of a program in the parasocial television environment (pg 152)." Based on Russell's research and findings, the connectedness grows from the program into the characters and plotlines. Programs like "Friends," "Seinfeld," "Sex and the City," and "Desperate Housewives" have experienced high levels of connectedness because of the characters' style, wardrobe, and actions.

While program involvement may seem similar to connectedness, it is a separate construct. Involvement acts as the impetus to connectedness (Russell, Norman and Heckler 2004). Basically, involvement is a function of three factors: person, situation, and object (Zaichkowsky 1985). In the case of out-of-home

23

viewing, the situation is the driving force of involvement. Through repeat viewing, an enduring involvement develops which can lead to connectedness (Zaichkowsky 1985).

Attitude toward the program is an enduring feeling about the object, in this case the television program (Fishbein and Azjen 1975). The attitude is an antecedent step in the process of connectedness, because the person must have some feeling toward the program before they can engage in a connection or a parasocial relationship with the characters. Barwise and Ehrenberg (1987) successfully tested the program content effects on advertising whereby viewers with a positive attitude toward a program transferred that attitude to the advertising, in a process otherwise known as program context effects. As a consequence of involvement and attitude toward the advertisement, individuals are able to form stronger bonds with the program.

2.7 Hypothesis Proposals

The out-of-home television viewing experience is hedonic in nature whereby the experience of sharing with others becomes a major component of the viewing activity (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). From the experience, consumers engage in conversation, thus magnifying the positive emotion. Television viewing becomes the stimulus transferring the excitement from the group to the advertising message utilizing excitation transfer theory (Zillman 1971). The moderating element of social attraction can reinforce the impact because attachment theory states that the greater

the attachment the higher the emotional level (Smith, Murphy and Coats 1999). As a result, we propose the following hypotheses:

As individuals engage in social interaction while viewing television commercials, they are more likely to develop more extreme attitudes toward the advertisement. The interaction between individuals can serve as an agent of influence for the advertisement (Gibson 2005). In addition, the social interaction between group members provides an opportunity for members to persuade others in their beliefs.

By engaging in social interaction, viewers discuss the program and advertisements. Through conversation, plot content is discussed and questions answered regarding the program. Loyal viewers will share their enthusiasm for the program and the characters. In short, the interaction will lead to higher valences of attitude toward the program, higher levels of involvement, and the development of television programming connectedness (Russell and Puto 1999; Russell, Norman and Heckler 2004).

> **H1: Social interaction leads to**
>   **a) higher valence of attitude toward the program**
>   **b) television programming connectedness**
>   **c) higher levels of television involvement.**

While most research has considered interaction as an impediment to recall (Wells 2000), the interaction and consequent influence can assist in recall. Other studies have found that the arousal produced from emotional programming hinders recall (Newell, Henderson and Wu 2001). However, interaction amongst fellow viewers provides a point of discussion. If viewers engage in dialogue, it will enhance memory

25

and unaided recall (Thomas 1992). The dialogue will develop if the advertisements are relevant to the group viewing the program. The impact of this social interaction will act as a direct effect.

H2: Social interaction leads to higher advertising recall among group television viewers as compared to non viewers.

When the interaction is based on television programming, the social dialogue serves as the initiator to television programming factors like attitude, involvement and connectedness. Group members will become more involved in the programming, causing their levels of arousal to rise. In other words, the television programming serves as a primer for the advertisement, preparing the group member for the commercial that follows. While much research on advertising has produced mixed results (McGrath and Mahood 2004), their experiments were limited to individual viewing.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

3.1 Study Objectives

The purpose of the research study is to gain a better understanding of the dynamics of group out-of-home television viewing and its impact on advertising effectiveness. Since the concept of television viewing in groups in an out-of-home setting has not been fully studied, it was necessary to understand this phenomenon before designing an effective experiment. In light of this, the research was conducted using a mixed-methodology strategy combining qualitative and quantitative approaches, an ethnography and a quantitative experiment. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), mixed method studies "are studies that are products of the pragmatist paradigm and that combine the qualitative and quantitative approaches within different phases of the research process (pg 19)." The first part of the study, an ethnography, was completed in order to better understand the television viewing construct. The second component of the study was an experiment where subjects watched television in groups and recall metrics were collected.

By utilizing a mixed method approach, the study is designed to overcome problems associated with a single method research protocol by uncovering latent constructs difficult to discover in a single method approach (Cook and Campbell 1979). The focus of both the ethnographic study and the experiment is to

(1)   identify social interactions during group television viewing within different ages and locations

(2)   study the dynamics of out-of-home viewing

(3)   analyze the impact of group television viewing on advertising

metrics like recall.

3.2 Ethnographic Methodology

The objective of the ethnographic study was to better understand naturalistic

television viewing behaviors, behavior done in natural settings in contrast to

laboratory settings (Lincoln and Guba). Diverse populations were studied in a variety

of settings while watching several programming genres (scripted and non-scripted).

While most previous television studies utilized self-reported surveys, a distinguishing

feature of this study is that it shifted the setting from a laboratory to "direct

engagement with the real world" (Miriampolski 2006). The ethnography enabled

more accurate information gathering and to provide better understanding of the more

subtle dimensions of television viewing in groups (Robson 1993). A major benefit of

this ethnography was its ability to gain insight into the television culture and its

community. Subtleties like gestures and language were not possible with a standard

quantitative survey method, because many subjects did not realize they were

behaving in this manner (Miriampolski 2006; O'Guinn and Muniz 2001; Goffman

1959).

The selection of the site locations for the study was based on current Nielsen

Media Research and Arbitron research on out-of-home viewing (Arbiton 2006;

Nielsen 2006). According to data from out-of-home viewing studies by these

research companies, the majority of out-of-home viewing occurs at taverns, airports,

schools, workplaces and gyms. Sites were selected where the availability of

28

television sets was a central focus of the establishment and groups of people could easily congregate to watch the program. Sites were also selected based on the monitoring of local papers and announcements for special television viewing nights. For instance, the Baltimore City Paper, a local events paper targeting young adults, carries several advertisements announcing special nights at local taverns for the viewing of programs including a "Survivor" Night at Bohagers Bar, a "Will and Grace" night at The Hippo Bar and Dance Club, and Maryland Terrapin Football at The Baltimore Sports Club. One distinguishing factor across the data selection sites was age. The locations included a middle school (children), multiple taverns (adults), an airport (adults), gyms (young adults), and an assisted living center (elderly). The study of these populations and locations afforded the researchers the opportunity to study the community aspects of these groups.

The particular settings were chosen for their clientele, proximity, and convenience. Though convenience samples are not the most desirable, the choice of samples by age of actors and choice locations were chosen in part because they were easily accessible for the collection of data (Lindlof 1995). Although the sites were selected in part due to their convenience, they were also naturally occurring and more preferable than any staged location (Cole and Mean 1986).

In order to gain access to the locations, two methods were utilized. For the middle school and assisted living centers, written permission was needed from the administrators of both places. A research proposal for the study was submitted to both administrators and the researcher was granted access for the study during selected times. An interview by the principal of the middle school was arranged prior

to the first data collection date. For the taverns, gyms and airports, no approval was required. The airport collection site was problematic because of increased security measures after 9/11 and collection opportunities were limited to when travel was planned. For the gym, a site chosen for convenience of collection of data was limited to two, one in Baltimore and the other Tucson. Ethnographic data collection occurred between 20001 and 2005.

Middle School

Description

A middle school was selected because adolescent audiences frequently use television and advertising as stimuli in social interaction (Ritson and Elliott 1995). The middle school was located in a southwestern state in a district with a diverse population. The students were Hispanic-American, African-American and Caucasian. The data collection was planned during the second half of the school year, because relationships and classroom dynamics have already been formed. Ritson and Elliot (1999) selected schools for their study for similar reasons.

At the school, 10-11 year old children were observed in their sixth grade classroom watching a variety of programming. They watched "Channel One" in the mornings for 10 minutes at each sitting. The "Channel One" programming was set and automatically began at 9:05AM and ended at approximately 9:15AM. "Channel One" programming included daily news, interest stories, and product/service commercials. In addition to "Channel One," children watched "School House Rock" and movies including "Ferngully." The majority of the non- "Channel One" viewing occurred in the afternoons, and all viewing happened between the hours of 9AM and

30

2PM under the supervision of a teacher or a teacher's aide. The viewing took place in a highly structured classroom situation whereby students were assigned seating during the "Channel One" viewing, but during the viewing of the other programming, they were afforded more flexibility and sometimes allowed to change seating. For the students, viewing of the television program was mandatory. Even though there was a formal structure to the school viewing situation, interferences did occur. Sources of interference included disruptive students, the teacher, school announcements over the general address system, and the school bell system.

Method

The primary method for collecting data in the middle school was direct observation. Field notes were taken within full view of the children. At some times, the ethnographer sat in the back of the classroom with a laptop and sometimes notes were taken on a pad of paper while the ethnographer sat among the students. The children never questioned the researcher's role in the classroom. One reason for the lack of questions was the researcher had conducted studies in the same classroom on previous occasions. As a result, his presence in the classroom was not a novel experience for the children and therefore, did not generate much interest or interference.

According to Pelto and Pelto (1978), ethnographers use multiple methods to help obtain the best ethnography possible. Among the many options are observations, interviews, diagnostic tests, questionnaires, and personality tests. In order to shed more light on the interactions within the school setting, not only were observations recorded but two additional methods were utilized, a television diary and an open-

31

ended questionnaire. The television diary allowed the children to log what shows were watched away from school, the time the programs were watched, and with whom they watched the program. The open-ended questionnaire explored issues related to the viewing of "Channel One" including favorite segments. Additionally, the researcher collected buying preferences among the students.

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Taverns/Gyms/Airports

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Description

The taverns were located in the Tucson, Arizona and Baltimore, Maryland metropolitan area. In the taverns, the patrons are assumed to be over 21 years of age, the legal drinking age in each jurisdiction. Three of the settings were restaurant/taverns combinations (Applebees, Maloneys, O'Malleys) while the others were traditional taverns serving alcohol and light "bar food" (Woody's, The Hippo, Fox Sports Bar, Midtowne Yacht Club, Baltimore Sports Club). Airport taverns were also selected which were traditional taverns in addition to airport waiting areas telecasting news programs like CNN. These establishments supported Wallendorf's and Belk's (1989) sampling characteristics in which range and quality of the data is improved when sites of a similar nature are included in the study. Both the tavern and restaurant/tavern settings had several televisions of varying sizes located throughout the viewing area. The television programming broadcasted at these locations included sporting events and prime time network scripted and non-scripted shows. The sporting events included "Monday Night Football," "The World Series," "Summer Olympics," College Football and Basketball (Maryland Terrapin, Arizona Wildcats) and professional basketball games (NBA). Prime time scripted and non-

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32

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scripted programs included "Desperate Housewives," "Will and Grace," "Survivor," "Real World," "The Apprentice," and "Family Guy." The majority of the data collection occurred in the evening, with the exception of College Football, College Basketball, and Summer Olympics which were collected on weekend afternoons.

As patrons entered the establishments, they had an option to position themselves for viewing the television or to engage in another activity (eating a meal). Television viewing was strictly voluntary. Structurally, the position of the tables and the chairs facing the television sets were stable. Music, the wait staff, food, cellular phones, and other patrons created interference during data collection. At the Fox Sports Bar at Sky Harbor Airport in Phoenix and at various taverns at BWI Airport in Baltimore, the constant public address system announcements for boarding and arrivals were an additional source of interference.

Two health clubs were selected to further the ethnographic study. The first, Olympic Gym, is located on the northwest corner of Stone and Glenn in Tucson, Arizona, and Merritt Athletic Clubs is located in downtown Baltimore, Maryland. Members must be over 18 years of age to join due to liability constraints. The data collection occurred in the evening hours while people exercised and because of the increased activity during those hours.

Olympic Gym was divided into two sections. The first section was the cardio section with various cardio-vascular machines located in the front section of the building by the windows, and the second section was the free weights and lifting section with free weights and machines in the rear of the building. At Merritt Athletic

33

Clubs in Baltimore, the cardio-vascular equipment was located on the second floor of the health club with free weights and machines sectioned off on the first floor.

At Olympic Gym, television sets were set above the cardio-vascular equipment in the corners while at Merritt, there are eight television sets placed above the cardio equipment in one row and another six sets in the second row. The cardio-vascular equipment at both health clubs included stationary bicycles, treadmills and stair masters. Viewing of the television sets was strictly voluntary and the choice of program to view was at the discretion of the clients participating in cardio-vascular exercise. The volume of all television sets was usually off and those watching generally used headsets in order to view the programming. At some times, the television sound was activated when only one or two televisions were working. Those working out decided which television program to watch by an informal consent from those around. While television viewing was very flexible, the physical structure of the environment was formal. The equipment was never moved and television sets remain in a stationary position. Those who wanted to watch television had to view in the cardio vascular section. Interference at the gym was caused by the noise of the cardio-vascular equipment, music, and other gym members. Since headsets are needed to view television, interfering noise was not as much a distraction as in other areas but interaction was curtailed.

Method

In the tavern/gym setting, participant observation was used in order to gain information about the social events occurring in the setting. "Participant observation is the preferred means of experiencing and recording events in social settings. It

34

entails being in the presence of others on an ongoing basis and having some status for them as someone who is part of their lives" (Lindolf 1978). The researcher's role was as a member of the scene, but his status as researcher was unknown to the subjects being studied. According to Schwartz and Schwartz (1955), there are different levels of participant observer, active and passive. The active participant observer tries to completely immerse himself or herself in the setting, while the passive participant observer seeks little direct participation in the setting. In order to develop a more accurate view on the interactions, the ethnographer switched between active and passive roles. The benefit of this participant observation was the ability to better interpret the meanings and experiences of the viewing scenarios (Manis and Meltzer 1967). For instance, while watching NCAA Football in a group setting over a period of time, the researcher was able to understand the gestures and symbols Maryland football fans shared with each other.

Note-taking varied by setting. In the cases when the researcher was the active participant observer, notes were concealed and taken in the bathroom and in the researcher's car outside the establishment out of the view of the subject participants. By approaching the note taking in this manner, the researcher was better able to separate the data collection from the analysis (Robson 2002). Several subjects questioned the researcher when note taking during a study at the Baltimore Sports Club. The researcher explained to the subjects why he was there. The researcher was "invited" back the following weekends and was accepted into the Maryland College Football "viewing community." By becoming part of the "viewing community," the researcher was better able to understand the television viewing culture and rituals

35

particularly among sports programming (Muniz and O'Guinn 2000). During passive observation, notes were not concealed and were taken directly at the tables in the restaurant, tavern or gym equipment.

Assisted Living Centers

Description

The observation of the elderly population occurred at two assisted living centers in Tucson, Arizona and Baltimore, Maryland. The Life Care Center patients were more advanced in age and wheelchair bound, while the Carestone Assisted Living had a younger population than the Life Care Center. Though still elderly, the Carestone patients generally possessed self-locomotion abilities. At both assisted living centers, group television viewing was one of the activities that would usually be frequently organized for particular afternoons and held in the dinning room area. The chosen program for the specific day would be announced ahead of time and displayed in front of the dining room area along with the menu items for that day. Accordingly, the residents had some choice in the participation of viewing, though due to their health restrictions some of them could not freely enter or exit the dinning room. The television content included PG rated movies, "The Lawrence Welk Show," Evening News, and "Xena." The televised programs had limited commercial interruptions while the movies did not have any.

Viewing occurred in a modified structured environment. The structure was a function of the content of the programming and on the presence of the activities organizer. During a movie, there was a more formal environment where talking was not permitted. If a participant began to talk during the movie, other viewers would

36

ask that person to please be quiet. On the other hand, while watching "The Lawrence Welk Show," less structure was apparent and more conversation ensued. It was common for the viewers to discuss the music and the people on the show. A number of interferences occurred with the television viewing, such as residents falling asleep and nurses checking on patients.

Method

Due to the nature of this situation, the researcher used an unobtrusive method of observation, attempting to be non-participatory (Robson 2002). Even though the ethnographer in this setting assumed the role of the unobtrusive observer, sometimes the residents would perceive him as a caregiver and ask for assistance. Because of the age of the subjects and the nature of the environment, the unobtrusive observer/researcher assumed more of a marginal participant role where he was passive for the majority of the times but became an active participant at other times (Ziesel 1984). As a result of the unobtrusive/marginal role, the observer took open notes in the viewing situations. One resident questioned the researcher's activities and reacted positively after the researcher explained an interest in people watching television and that he was completing academic research.

Attempt to Overcome Biases in Setting

In order to overcome biases and to ensure accurate notes were taken, the researcher compared his notes to that of fellow researchers who accompanied the researcher on several occasions. This technique helped in overcoming possible personal biases (Robson 2002). Upon comparison of notes between the female and male researchers from Maloney's and O'Malley's (10/26/02 and 10/31/02), it was

37

noticed the male ethnographer made multiple references to sports programming content ("double play" and "error") in addition to social interaction while the female ethnographer concentrated solely on the social interaction between viewers ("drink ordering" and "couples"). The change of the setting also helped in overcoming observer's gender influences. While at the middle school, the female ethnographer paid considerable attention to the "wolf whistle" of one of the young boys in reaction to a "sexy cartoon female" on the screen while there was no mention of the incident in the male ethnographer's notes. As a consequence of note taking in all of the settings, the researchers gained deeper understanding of all locations which created better comparisons between them.

Attempt to Overcome Biases in Role Taking Perspective

In the school and assisted living setting, the researcher was faced with a perspective challenge. As an ethnographer, he found it necessary to pay careful attention to how he was interpreting actions, motives, etc. Many people shared the opinion that just because all adults were once children we have "an intrinsic understanding of children's needs, concerns, fears, and joys" (Lindlof 1995). Children's cognitive capabilities are often "viewed as simply primitive versions of adult capacities" (Lindlof 1995). With the elderly population, it was also imperative to pay attention to the fact that as researchers we do not know the experiences of an elderly person. He entered the setting, facing the obstacles of describing two perspectives, that of a child and that of an elderly person, both of which add to a range of interpretations of the action within those settings.

38

3.4 Coding

In developing a coding scheme, close attention was paid to the similarities between the respective primary settings. According to Barlow, et al. (1984), "the key features of much structured observation are the development of a coding scheme and its use by trained observers (page 293)." In essence, the codes were used to label, separate, compile and organize the data (Charmaz 1983). The coding became a cross-classifying task because of the nature of the study (Robson 2002). The researchers analyzed behavior, motivation and the physical location. By coding the observations, inter-observer reliability was easily checked and confirmed. These codes developed into a thematic analysis across the different locations.

Empirical Methodology

3.5 Design

A laboratory experiment was conducted to test advertising recall and attitude toward the advertisement measurements across connected and non-connected groups. The study used a 2 x 2 between subjects design with connectedness to the program (connected program/non-connected program) and type of viewing situation (group/non-group) as the manipulated factors. Dependent variables collected were advertising recall, television connectedness, attitude toward the program, involvement, and group attachment.

[Note: Attitude toward the advertisement data was collected from all participants. Since attitude toward the advertisement scales have resulted in mixed results across academic research studies, the data was not used in the analysis.]

39

3.5a Participants

A total of 122 participants (61 in a group setting and 61 in a non-group setting) were recruited from a large mid-Atlantic university. 27 participants were eliminated because they did not complete the entire task. Flyers were posted around campus and through email newsletters. In addition, research colleagues and fellow faculty announced the experiment to their students via an in-class announcement and the computer program blackboard.

Participants were told they would be completing a television watching study. Participants were told that they would receive compensation of either a ten dollar gift certificate to a local restaurant for the group viewers or a raffle for an I-pod Nano (three I-pods Nanos were raffled) for the non-group viewers. Students enrolled in entry level marketing classes received extra credit for participation. All participants, upon contacting the researcher, were assigned randomly to the treatment conditions, and all dependent variables were represented in each experimental session. When the participant contacted the researcher, the student was assigned to either a group viewing session or a non-group viewing session. Those assigned to the group session were asked to bring along four to five friends and those assigned to the non-group viewing session were told to come alone. Upon entering the laboratory setting, participants were randomly assigned to one of two television programs, connected or non-connected. The entire session lasted approximated 45 minutes.

3.5b Stimuli Pretest

Since the basis of the study is to compare reaction to connected and non-connected programming, the researchers performed a pre-survey among 118

40

introductory marketing students at a northeastern university. The main purpose of the study was to find the programs students aged 18-22 viewed regularly alone and with friends and to compare the data with those of Nielsen Media Research. According to Nielsen Media Research (2005), the most popular programs among college-aged students are "Real World," "Family Guy," "Desperate Housewives," "Grey's Anatomy," "Seinfeld," "Daily Show," "Survivor: Guatamala," and "CSI." Students were administered the survey at the end of a marketing class. Each student had the option of participating in the study. The survey (Appendix A) included questions on programs they watched regularly, programs they most anticipate, and demographics. "Family Guy" was noted as a regularly watched program by 31.9% of the 118 surveyed in the free response section (Graph 1). The other programs that achieved scores above 15% were: "Seinfeld" (23.2%), "The Simpsons" (21.1%), "Laguna Beach" (19.0%), "Gilmore Girls" (18.7%), "Sports Center" (16.7%), "Friends" (16.4%) and "The Daily Show" (16.1%).

Based on the convergence of the data, "Family Guy" was selected as the connected program because it achieved the highest level of mentions in the free response data of the administered survey and placed among the highest rated television programs among college aged people, according to Nielsen (2005).

The non-connected program selected for the experiment was a "busted pilot" obtained from an executive at a major motion picture/television studio. A "busted pilot" is a television program that was never broadcast, therefore, no participant had seen the episode. By utilizing a "busted pilot," the experiment is not confounded by pre-established attitudes toward the program.

41

For both programs, a series of commercials was edited within the program in order to best match typical viewing. Editing was done by a commercial editor at a local television station in the northeast. Since both shows lasted 27 minutes, two commercial pods were inserted at the 9 minute break and again at the 19 minute break. Both commercial pods, contained 5 commercials, an industry standard. Commercials included both local and national brands. The local brands were not testing area specific to avoid confounding effects but the national brands may have been seen by the subjects. Commercials included a local automobile show, a local lawyer, a local plumber, a local health club, a local television station newscast, a national automobile, a national bank, a national yogurt, and a national new vitamin product.

3.6 Procedures Main Study

Experimental sessions were divided into two groups.

a) connected group:

The connected group sessions were held in a conference room with a table and couch with light food and soft drinks. A large screen (50 inch) television with a DVD player was positioned in the center of the room. The room was small enough so everyone can see each other and have opportunity for discussion. Participants are told upon entering they will be participating in a television viewing experiment. They were told to act like if they were viewing television at home with these same friends. Each connected group was left in the waiting area for ten minutes before the experiment began in order for them to become comfortable. Upon entering the room,

42

they were offered a drink and then a survey to complete. The survey (Appendix B) was used to gauge viewing interest and television habits.

After all completed the survey, they were told they were going to watch a television program. The connected program group was told they would be viewing an episode of "Family Guy" and to feel free to talk throughout the program. The non-connected program group was told they would be viewing an episode of a potential series and to feel free and talk throughout the program.

b) non-connected group:

The non-connected group sessions were held in the same conference room with a table and couch. A large screen (50 inch) television with a DVD player was positioned in the center of the room. Participants were told upon entering they will be participating in a television viewing experiment. They were told to act like if they were viewing television at home. Upon entering the room, the participant was offered a drink and then a survey to complete. The survey (Appendix B) was used to gauge viewing interest and television habits.

After the participant completed the survey, he/she was told to watch a television program. The connected program participant was told he/she would be viewing an episode of "Family Guy" and to behave as if they were viewing the program at home alone. The non-connected program participant was told he/she would be viewing an episode of a potential series.

c) both groups:

After the program ended, each group was given a questionnaire to list all the advertisements they remember viewing during the program. After completing that

43

questionnaire and submitting them to the researcher, they were then given surveys

that measured television programming information, advertising information and

social group attachment information. Those in the non-group viewing situation did

not complete group information questions.

3.7 Measures

The following scales were used in the collection of information because they

have been validated:

- Television Connectedness Scale (Russell, Norman and Heckler 2004) – the scale measures the level of identification the viewer has with a television program.
- Social Group Attachment Scale (Evans and Jarvis 1985) – the scale measures the level of identification and attachment the member of a group has with the group
- Involvement Scale (Zaichkowsky 1995) – the scale for enduring involvement was measured with Zaichkowsky's (1994) ten-item scale, which were scored on a 7-point semantic differential scale. The degree of involvement was operationalized as the mean of ten items.
- Attitude Toward the Television Program (Barwise and Ehrenberg 1987) – a program evaluation measure. A nine-item scale measured on a 7-point semantic differential scale.
- Attitude Toward the Advertisement (Wells 2000) – a measure of affective reaction to an advertisement using a 22 item scale on a 7-point semantic differential.

CHAPTER 4

ETHNOGRAPHIC RESULTS

5.1 Themes

Several themes emerged after reviewing the ethnographic field notes.

5.2 Music

The impact of music was evident regardless of the differences in the content of the television programming. In general, the music played three roles: attention getter, interaction initiator and mood creator.

Music as "Attention Getter"

Music acted as an "attention getter" by creating a higher level of viewing among the people in that setting. Music's attention getting value has been researched in various studies including research completed by Kroeber-Riel (1979), Hecker (1984) and Kellaris, Cox, and Cox (1993). The context of these studies was advertising. Several were able to depict the "attention-gaining value" of music to the target population. (Kroeber-Riel 1979). Across all settings, music served as an attention getter by bringing viewers to the programs or advertisements.

Karen made another one of her comments about Grace's dress and it broke to commercial. The first commercial to air was a Quizno's ad with what seemed like hamsters singing. I looked around and saw several people look up immediately and start smiling. One, a female around 28 years of age, told her friends to stop talking and watch the commercial. She said, "This was the ad I was telling you about." The other guy said that he loved it. Seconds later they start singing, "They have a pepper

45

bar." The group started laughing and continued watching the television commercial.
After the commercial they continued to hum the song and repeated "they have a
pepper bar" over and over again. (Hippo- tavern – "Will and Grace")

The music from the Quizno's television commercial grabbed their attention
just like the Led Zeppelin music from the Cadillac televised spot attracted men in the
gym:

It was another night at the gym and the televisions were louder tonight. There
is only one television in the back of the gym by the heavy equipment. Several men are
lifting hard and news is playing on the television. Occasionally, one or two men
would walk over to the television to hear a news story. After closer observation, I
realize it is the local evening news. I hear the sound of Robert Plant. The guys look
up and they walk over to the television and some are nodding their head. (Gym –
Tucson)

The use of music as an "attention-gaining" device was used by network
promotion managers to attract viewers to a television show. Theme music for
television shows have been used to attract this attention via theme songs like
"Gilligan's Island" and "Hawaii Five-O" in the 1960's and 1970's to "Friends" and
the eerie theme of "Six Feet Under" today (Shales 2002). The theme songs are aimed
to call the viewer to action in much the same way as the school bell signals a change
to class.

It was almost 7PM and I was on the lat pull down machine looking at the
mirror. Behind me, using weightlifting equipment, were three females in their early
to mid 20's using various equipment including dumbbells and the hip machine. The

46

television sets at the front of the gym were unusually loud. I heard the unmistakable sound of the Friends theme song – "I'll be there for you…" – the women picked up their towels and water bottles and walked toward the cardio equipment. They chose bikes and treadmills and joined the two other men (late teens and 20's) and one other female watching the show. Kind of ironic – (the Friends music reminded me of the high school bell to change classes), (Olympic Gym- health club – "Friends")

At the school, the children's attention was easily gained by catchy music. This was apparent in the children's love of "School House Rock." In fact, the children paid the most attention to the different episodes of this classic show as compared to the other television programs they viewed.

The teacher spent several minutes trying to quiet the class down. It seemed like a day where many of the students were not interested in staying in their seats. She explained to them about their math homework and said that they will be spending the next 30 minutes watching a video before they started their writing class. She grabbed the video from her desk drawer and the students began to get louder and talk with one another. I thought it was weird that she did not tell her students to quiet down. As soon as she hit play on the video, I heard the song "conjunction conjunction what's your function?" Many in the class stopped talking and began to sing along with the music and clapping their hands. One particularly active boy instantly settled down and regrouped. (School – School House Rock)

The Mountain Dew commercial also provided a great example of the attention getting characteristics of music among children. Even though a commercial, the

47

children in class recognized the music from previous viewings of the Mountain Dew commercial during the prior days' airings of "Channel One."

A Mountain Dew commercial began with a distinctive beat and almost every child looks up. Exclamations can be heard "Oh Cool!" "Look at that!" There is someone on the commercial skateboarding and one of the boys is sitting at my table says, "I want to do that." The children are paying more attention to the commercial than they did to the program. (School - Channel One)

While overall research has been inconclusive regarding music's impact on advertising, the data supports Hecker's (1984) results; music increased the memorability of the commercial advertisements. A student's ability to recognize the music aided in the recall of the advertisement.

Similar to the school setting, the commercials containing music increased attention at the tavern locations among adults. Even though patrons may have been engaged in other conversations, they were immediately drawn to the television program due to the music.

During a commercial, they (a group of men in their late 30's) tune away - a popular song by the Eagles (a rock group) starts playing at the start of an automobile commercial causing them to look up at the television set, and then they tune back to the television program - the music caught their interest more than any other commercial they saw in that pod. (O'Malley's Tavern – Tavern – Summer Olympics)

48

Music as "Interaction Initiator"

Music was coded as "interaction initiator" when it provided a vehicle for either vocal communications or gestures. An "interaction initiator" is when a group of people began a dialogue based on the music they heard. The music acted as the stimulus for discussion in the group. For example, "The Lawrence Welk Show" sparked a number of interactions among the viewers which is quite unusual for an assisted living setting:

Baltizar seemed to be quite emotional and continued talking and pointing at TV. I went to sit near him and tried to find out what he was trying to say. I told him that I did not speak Spanish and was wondering if he spoke any English. He said two words to me in English and continued on in Spanish moving his arms. I asked him if he ever played any instruments and gathered that he did. [Baltizar continued talking to me in Spanish until the end of the show], (Nursing Home - Lawrence Welk Show)

During the same show:

A very nicely dressed couple was performing ballroom dancing. Betty was making those "uhum" sounds and even I replied that it looked great. There was one of the famous old songs (I recognized it) and Betty was quietly singing along and moving her hands. She kind of moved around and got behind me, as she was moving she looked at me and both of us laughed. (Nursing Home - Lawrence Welk Show)

Music not only provided an impetus among older viewers, but it also became a topic of conversation for the other groups of viewers. Groups, separated from each other at the start of the program, started talking after the music was heard.

49

During one episode of "Will and Grace," Cher appeared. In the episode, Jack begins to sing Cher's songs. One song was "If You Can Turn Back Time." Once the program breaks to commercial, many people are imitating Jack's impersonation of Cher singing. Others do the same thing. Groups next to each other start singing and I notice how the topic becomes Cher's music. The discussion extends beyond the commercial break between groups. (Hippo – tavern – Will and Grace)

The former examples presented programming music as an interaction initiator. Music in commercials also provided an opportunity for interaction. After the Cadillac commercial at the Tucson gym sparked the attention of several of the men weightlifting, they began a conversation about Cadillac and Robert Plan, a member of Led Zeppelin:

The men start talking about Led Zeppelin. I walk over and overhear them talking about how much Cadillac has changed. I remember my dad's caddy said the 40 something year old male. The other one said, hey you know it is more of a "pimp" car. You see them on MTV all the time. The conversation fluctuates between Cadillac and Led Zeppelin. (Gym – Tucson)

Music as "Mood Creator"

Music was viewed as a "mood creator." The study of music to create mood has been researched by Milliman (1986) and North, Hargreaves, and McKendrick (2000). Both papers extend the work of Kotler's concept of atmospherics (1973-

50

1974).   Music is an integral component of the setting.   The music seems to affect the behavior of those present.

During the summer Olympics broadcast in tavern settings, patrons became very patriotic after hearing the national anthem. They were discussing how much better the USA was to live in compared to other countries participating in the games. The national anthem created both a patriotic atmosphere as well as providing a stimulus for interaction among those present. (Applebees – tavern –Summer Olympics)

The music of the game show "Jeopardy" set the tone several nights at the health club in Baltimore.

Three women in their 20's and a man in his late 30's are on the stationary bicycles pedaling when the center television's volume is increased and the unmistakable sound of the Jeopardy theme song is heard. The four of them begin to slow down pedaling and prepare for the game show. I continue to watch and I notice a very serious tone permeates the area as the four of them have a casual competition between them (Gym – Baltimore).

Upon hearing the distinctive sound of the "Jeopardy" music, all four became focused on the programming and seemed more serious in the cardio exercise – the entire mood of the workout changed.

Another example was witnessed in the middle school setting. During the videotape showing of "School House Rock," the music caused a change in the mood of the classroom; non-interested students were drawn into the program creating a more enthusiastic setting in the classroom:

51

One segment is entitled Interjection and has an upbeat sound with words

appearing on the screen. As soon as that segment begins, all the students including

several of the talking students lift up their heads and watch. They are moving their

heads to the beat of the music and are also singing along. Several words are flashed

on the screen and the students yell the words out. (Music is so important with these

students). The words are repeated over and over again - the students continue to

recite the words. (Middle School- School House Rock)

5.3 TV Content

The second theme that emerged from the study was television content acted as

an initiator of social interaction even more than the music as described earlier. The

content of the program and the advertisements in the programs created an impetus for

interchange with other subjects at that location. Unlike previously discussed music

elements, this interaction varied between television programming content, character

discussions, advertising, and product placement within the television programming

(Giles 2003; Russell and Puto 1999; Buford May 1999). The types of interaction

included vocal, gestures, and body language; all are dependent upon the setting. For

example, in the more formal setting of assisted living center, the interaction was

based on a discussion of the content but it occurred after the movie ended:

As the move ended the ladies started talking. "It was a good movie"-said #0.

"You liked it?"-asked Maryellen. They all talked about different versions of Black

Beauty. Maryellen said that this movie is a "good feeling movie"-(meaning that

everything turned ok by the end). As the pictures with credits were appearing on the

52

screen ladies noticed that the scenery was very nice. #3 told that she gets videos from her children that she watches. They talked about the beautiful scenery and the animals. Maryellen talked about the Discovery channel. Maryellen read the last lines of the movie that mention that no animals were hurt during the filming of the movie. She repeated it a number of times making sure that all ladies heard her. (Assisted Living Center - Black Beauty)

Although technically not content, the commentators in the sports programming provided viewers with additional subject matter to discuss, the performance of their teams or key players. Watching sports and commenting is part of the rules of viewing at these public locations (Eastman and Land 1997).

The males at the table next to me are discussing the game and I overhear them say, "They got to get rid of Miller – he is awful." The other two nod in agreement with one saying "He sucks." The three hold up their beers and cheer. (Phoenix Sky Harbor Airport - Fox Sports Bar – World Series)

In addition, television commercials act as an initiator to social interaction (Ritson and Elliott 1999). In some cases, the commercials provided more interaction then the actual sports program or television programming. The findings support earlier academic studies which focused on the social implications of advertising (Ritson and Elliott 1999).

The commercial for the new Charlie's Angels movie airs. Rachel asks what I think about that. I voice my opinion and she says her favorite angel was Farrah Fawcett and I say mine was Kate Jackson. Now many more males are joining in - we hit a nerve - the commercial is actually drawing people in. There are conversations

53

all around the bar area. The patrons sitting around the bar are talking about the

angels growing up. The bartender interjected and said, "Have you seen Farrah

Fawcett lately? She ain't looking too good." They all say yes. The game resumes

and there is still idle chatter about the Angels. (Woody's – tavern – Summer

Olympics)

The integration of advertising and content has been a major objective of many

marketers due to clutter and rising advertising costs. Product placement has been the

option for many advertisers because it positions products within the context of the

program (Balasubramanian, Karrh, and Patwardhan 2006). The growth of product

placements has exceeded 42.2% in 2005 and continues to grow (Marketing News

2006). By utilizing product placement, marketers have extended the impact of the

promotion because viewers in the group are discussing the product among themselves

in the same manner as they have done with the television programming. For instance,

during one episode of "The Apprentice," they discussed the features and aspects of an

automobile used in the program:

Look at the Solara, said one twenty something year old man sitting at the

table with several of his friends while watching The Apprentice. He asked if any of

them has seen the car before. He then began saying that he would actually think of

buying an American car if they looked like that. The two other men sitting next to him

asked the young women at the table if they would like the car. One of them says if

you own a car like that then I'd be hanging with out much more. They all laugh.

(Bohagers – tavern -The Apprentice)

54

A key aspect consistently carried from one bar setting to the next was humor within commercials acting as an initiator to interaction. Commercials featuring humor were watched more intently and discussed:

Mimi from The Drew Carey Show is featured in the Bud Light Commercial. The men stop talking when they see her and intently watch the television. They begin to laugh and joke with each other. One man, I can overhear saying, "Can you imagine that!!!!" - much more laughter and chatter after it is over. (O'Malleys – tavern – college football)

The level of attention and involvement in the television programming impacted the amount of social interaction. A feeling of camaraderie and comfort was evident if fans of the same time were near each other. For example, during a competitive Monday Night Football broadcast:

The couple has minimal dialogue and they eat. While eating they rarely look at their food and focus on the game. The game is tight. Anytime there is break in play and the camera is on the commentator, there is more talk on that table and other tables. Commercial time is time to talk. (Applebees – tavern – Monday Night Football)

5.4 Parasocial Relationships

Parasocial relationships are based on the viewer's reaction to the characters on the television screen (Horton and Wohl 1956). It is defined as a "relationship on the part of a television viewer of friendship or intimacy with a remote media 'persona'"(Rubin, Perse, Powell, 1985,p.156). The relationship is formed between the

55

viewer and the program which can be anything from a drama series to a soap opera. "Rubin and Perse (1988) examined the impact of attitudes, motives, and audience activity on cognitive, affective, and behavioral involvement among soap opera viewers. They found that Para social interaction and thinking about and discussing content were aspects of media involvement meaning how intentionally respondents approached the viewing situation and how much attention they paid to the programs"(Emmer-Sommer, 1999,p.482). In essence, they believe the characters are with them. Buford May (1999) found the parasocial relationships as the basis for discussion among patrons at a tavern in his ethnographic study. Similar findings were uncovered during this data collection. During one Sunday viewing of "Desperate Housewives" in Washington, DC:

> *The crowd was pretty quiet. Gabrielle just finished her argument with Carlos on the program. Two women in their 40's are sitting next to each other at the bar. One says to the woman next to her, "when is Carlos going to get it?" "I just do not understand, I just want to tell him, he is just so naïve." The other woman says to her, "Carlos is not stupid, he knows exactly what she is up to and I bet he is doing someone behind her back." They continue to talk and the program begins again. The first woman says to the television set after the commercial break and when Carlos appears "Carlos, wake up and smell the coffee and wise up."(Tosca – tavern – Desperate Housewives)*

While dramas make up a multitude of parasocial relationship opportunities, situation comedies were ripe for parasocial relationships.

56

Don't you love Karen? (From "Will and Grace") I just want to invite to my party, grab a martini and just comment on what everyone is wearing. I can be so much more fun than Grace. She is so so boring and Karen needs someone like me to hang with. Hey, plus I can have a piece of her money. (The Hippo – tavern – Will and Grace)

Buford May (1999) uncovered parasocial relationships emerging from soap opera fans who watch in a group setting in his ethnography of tavern viewing. While his study was a thorough analysis of the particular setting, the findings here were more generalizable and across multiple locations.

It is late in the evening on Tuesday. The gym is pretty quiet and near closing. A young man in his late 20's and a young woman in her mid 20's are on the treadmills watching the Real World. They begin with headphones on but after a short while leave one headphone on one ear and begin talking to each other about Danny's mother. The woman asks how Danny can stay in Austin although his mother has just died. The man comments that his mother was never there for him so why should be move. They begin an intense discussion about Danny wondering how he is going to cope with his loss. (Merritt Athletic Club – health club – Real World)

For commercials, the development of parasocial relationships is difficult because there are few recurring characters used in advertisements today. Serial advertisements have not been used consistently with few exceptions (Taster's Choice coffee). One scene less than one minute long does not permit these relationships to form. A positive aspect of the parasocial relationships is the heightened level of involvement of the programming and its support with others which can possibly lead

57

to higher recall. While previous research, particularly Sanbonmatsu and Kardes (1988), have found advertising recall hindered by involvement, the viewing situation was not monitored and the effect of parasocial relationships unmeasured. The viewing environment was not considered. In group viewing situations, the viewers' attentional resources remain activated with social interaction regarding the program and not during just the actual program (MacInnis et al 1991).

5.5 Formal vs. Informal Viewing

The third theme developed from the level of formality is the setting. In the formal settings there is an inhibition of social interaction during the viewing of the program. A code of conduct exists whereby one is not to talk during the program. In the assisted living centers there was an unspoken rule that there was no talking during movies (Goffman 1959). For example:

#3 turned to me when she arrived and during that eye contact moment I silently said "Hello". I noticed that I would be uncomfortable to say it out-loud, since the TV was on and the others were watching. (Assisted Living Center - Gremlins)

Due to the inhibition of vocal interaction at the assisted living center, the facial expressions or body language became a dominant form of communication.

The movie started. Little Asian boy was telling some weird American how to take care of some unusual thing that was alive. During that moment Anita looked at me and kind of laughed quietly. I smiled back. (Assisted Living Center - Gremlins)

58

The formal setting also seems to force higher levels of attention towards the television programming. For example, in the school setting these two scenarios depicted the more formal rules.

A story about college starts. A female shushes the other children at her table so she can hear. The teacher says, "pay attention you are all going to college and you need to know about this."(Middle School - Channel One)

"You need to take notes, your teacher wants you to write your opinion when she gets back. This movie is Fern Gully. You are going to need to write your opinion, if you like it and if you don't and why." The kids keep talking. The kids are being obnoxious and loud, acting as if the substitute isn't standing there. The substitute stands in front of the room smiling and not starting the movie. When the children realize she isn't starting the movie, they quiet a bit. The substitute says, "Okay now, are you sure you're finished? As long as everyone is quiet, I will start the movie." (Middle School - Fern Gully)

The formal nature of viewing was dependent upon the programming genre. For scripted programming, discussion was limited to commercial breaks while during sports programming, conversation continued throughout the sporting events. If a viewer talked during a program, they were glared at or asked to be quiet. In fact, other viewers would move to different locations if a person was talking during the program.

A gentleman, in his upper 30's, seemed to be unfamiliar with the viewing "protocol. He was sitting at the bar watching the program, drinking a beer, and trying to "flirt" with the ladies next to him. While talking, they asked him to be quiet and others in

59

the bar shook their heads. He continued to make comments. During the commercial

break, the ladies next to him left that side of the bar. People throughout the bar were

commenting on why he was talking. When the show resumed, he was alone and

eventually left the bar. (Tosca – tavern- Desperate Housewives)

The informal setting provided freedom for a mixture of different types of

communication including, verbal and physical.

Green Bay scores. They are Green Bay fans and they are giving each other

high fives-yelling "I cannot believe that play - did you see that?" The woman at the

table is equally as excited and is calling many of the plays ahead of time. They

behave the same way during commercials and during the broadcast of the game

(Applebees- tavern – Monday Night Football)

Informal setting provides the opportunity for social interaction, which can

either enhance or diminish the level of attention to the television program. An

example of an increased level of attention is:

I continue to watch beach volleyball on TV2 and Skippy begins to ask me

questions about volleyball. His first question is who is winning. I tell him and I

notice Male 4 listening in. He then asks me the score and we watch a couple of

points. I explain to him the point and he begins to answer additional questions.

(Although not a volleyball player, I become the information source). A commercial

starts and Skippy begins to ask me questions. He asks me where I am from and I tell

him the East Coast and he says I can tell by your accent. (Damon's – tavern –

Summer Olympics)

An example of a decreased level of attention is:

The waitress then walks over to the table of four men and places herself strategically between the two men facing the front of the television. The men laugh and look at her and not at the television-there are two outs left in the inning and the men are still looking at the waitress when she is taking orders. (O'Malley's – tavern – World Series)

Much of the formality and informality was a product of the room design and seating. For those closer to the television, a great level involvement was expected a stricter code of conduct.

5.6 Community

The formation of a community and the sharing of a common interest is a product of the group viewing environment. Those who gather at these places are there for the purpose of watching the program with others who share a common bond (O'Guinn and Muniz 2000). The relationships seem to be limited to the confines of the viewing environment.

I have been sitting here at the Maryland Sports Club for a couple of weeks and finally someone asked me what I was doing here. I told them and then more of "the regulars" open up and talk more about the Maryland Terrapins. They talk to me about the players and their experiences as fans during the trying times. (2 weeks later) The regulars greet me as soon as I walk in. They are all wearing their Terrapin sweatshirts and hats. I begin to ask them what they think about this pivotal game in the season – a win ensures a lock on a bowl bid. They are nervous and start

61

gesturing and rubbing their makeshift terrapin shrine. I look and they call me over. When I walk over, I am handed a Terrapin sweatshirt and told "you have to wear it – we need all the support we can get." (Baltimore Sports Bar – tavern – College Football).

According to O'Guinn and Muniz (2000), community members share "exhibit three traditional markers of community: shared consciousness, rituals and traditions, and a sense of moral responsibility." Shared consciousness is a product of a connection to not only the television program but to each other. These viewers have a common interest whether it is the television program or the sporting team. The rituals and traditions are manifested in the shared consumption experience like the excitement of watching your college team win wearing your college sweatshirt or joining in the jeers of Simon from "American Idol." The sense of moral responsibility is seen in how members react to new members and the accepting of new members into the community as long as they abide by the shared rituals. The viewing of the basketball game represents all three levels.

5.7 Discussion

This objective of the ethnographic research was to explore how groups of people view television in an out-of-home setting. Rather than focus just on the programming content, this study focused on external factors like interaction and viewing situations.

The results of this ethnography suggest that out-of-home viewing differs greatly from an at-home setting. Rosenbaum (2006) examined the importance of

62

these "other" or third place situations, in this case, the viewing environment. These places have emerged in part due to a need for "companionship and emotional support" during a consumption experience (page 59).

Through this ethnographic study, the rules of watching in groups away from home are extremely different from at home viewing situation like the rules of watching television and how parasocial relationships are formed. As a result of the social interaction that develops in group viewing situations, the rules of viewing have changed. Viewers behave differently ceding control of the viewing environment to those involved (Goffman 1963). While individuals can limit interference and distractions at home, those in public viewing situations are not able to control for obstacles like the noise from those around while they watch television. In family viewing situations, there is less structure and a more willingness to adapt to the situation (Lull 1990).

As a result of the lack of control, viewers in an out-of-home group setting can either enhance their viewing involvement or hamper their involvement (Goffman 1963). The enhancement of the viewing includes greater discussion of television programming content including programming and advertisements. Through these discussions, viewers are able to obtain incite about products advertised from co-viewers and develop deeper bonds with characters from programming. A major result of this form of television viewing is it enables fellow viewers to form relationships with others at the location furthering increasing opportunities for social interaction. These interactions not only increase loyalty to the establishments but provide opportunities for viewers to enhance their feelings to the programming and in

63

return to the advertisers (Moore, Moore and Capella 2005). Involvement may be hampered by the interference from those around the viewer.

Advertisers who better understand the dynamics of this viewing situation, can better allocate resources for planning and deliver creative executions that can augment advertising recall. In other words, if advertisers understand how groups view television outside of home, they can decide to use certain executions in order to take full advantage of the viewing situation. Creative elements like music can assist advertising executives in their creative executions.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The following section describes the tests conducted on the data collected.

6.1 Manipulation Checks

In order to insure the groups were classified effectively, a manipulation check for the connected/non-connected program was conducted. The overall goal is to ensure the variable was properly perceived. An independent t-test showed that the difference between conditions was significant (t = 13.482, df = 259, p = .000, one tailed). The results show that the program "Family Guy" was more liked and more connected than the busted pilot program of "Electra Woman and Dyna Girl." The busted pilot is the first episode of a possible television series that was not selected for a television network schedule. These episodes were never broadcast. A manipulation check for the group connectedness was not needed because those who viewed the program alone did not complete a social attachment scale.

6.2 Results

Participants watching television in groups recalled fewer commercials than those who watch alone (p= .01). The average number of commercial advertisements recalled by those watching alone was 2.79 is higher than those who watch in groups (2.29). The difference between the means of 0.5 and the pooled standard deviation is 1.59 combine to result in an effect size of approximates 0.33, which is slightly below average (Cohen 1988).

TABLE 1

RECALL COMPARISON BETWEEN GROUP TELVISION VIEWING
AND VIEWING TELEVISION ALONE

Variable	Mean	SD	T	Df	P
RECALL			2.582	265	.010
Alone	2.79	1.67			
Connected	2.29	1.50			

When considering the type of program watched as confirmed through the manipulation check described above, an extension of the analysis was performed using a 2 (viewing situation: individual vs. group) x 2 (program: connected vs. non-connected) between groups independent design. The means and standard deviations for recall for the two groups of connected and individuals are below with those who are not connected represented by a 0 and those connected represented by a 1 and the connected program represented by a 0 and the non-connected program (busted pilot) represented by a 1:

TABLE 2

Descriptive Statistics of Recall Between Program Type

Dependent Variable: any form of recall

Connected	Program	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
.00	.00	2.6053	1.61723	76
	1.00	3.0000	1.71499	69
	Total	2.7931	1.67040	145
1.00	.00	1.8750	1.58865	64
	1.00	2.7414	1.26436	58
	Total	2.2869	1.50195	122
Total	.00	2.2714	1.63963	140
	1.00	2.8819	1.52552	127
	Total	2.5618	1.61260	267

66

The following table shows that there was not a significant interaction between program type and viewing situation (p=.222):

TABLE 3

PROGRAM TYPE AND VIEWING SITUATION ANOVA

Variable and Source	Df	MS	F	Eta^2
Total Recall				
Group	1	16.16	6.58* p<.01	.024
Connected Program	1	26.28	10.70**p<.001	.039
GroupxProgram	1	3.68	1.50	.006
Error	263	2.46		

As evidenced by the above table, there was a significant main effect of program on recall $F(1, 263) = 10.70$, p< .001. Another strong effect but not as strong as program type was viewing situation. The viewing situation effect on program recall was measured using an F test at $F(1, 263) = 6.58$, p<.01. Unfortunately, the data suggests the contrary to H1 and H2 because the social interaction hinders retention thus causing the rejection of H1 and H2. The rejection of these hypotheses supports previous research on involvement whereby interaction and involvement can provide obstacles to the advertising communication process (McGrath and Mahood 2004). If there is too much discussion amongst those viewing, recall can be impacted because the dialogue may impact the explicit memory measurement or recall.

Further analysis was done on notes taken during the experiments. After reviewing notes, it was found certain advertisements provoked additional discussion. Given this information, a post hoc analysis was completed.

6.3 Post Hoc Analysis

Some advertisements seemed to provide more discussion and interest than other advertisements. Since the results of the analysis were not consistent, a post hoc analysis was completed on twenty four college aged respondents who were from the same university as the experiment subjects. These subjects were questioned as to the relevance of the advertisements the prior subjects viewed through the use of a relevance survey (Evans, Patterson, and O'Malley 2001). The relevance survey was based on a five point scale with one indicating lower relevance and five representing higher relevance.

In order to compare the impact of each of the advertisements, a single factor repeated measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Geisser correction was conducted to assess whether three were differences between the relevant ratings of each of the 10 advertisements. Results indicated that the participants did rate the 10 advertisements differently, $F(5.67, 130.43) = 16.03$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .411$, $eta^2 = .411$. The means and standard deviations for the advertisements are listed in the table below:

68

TABLE 4

ADVERTISEMENT RATINGS MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

Variable	M	Standard Deviation
Auto show	1.58	1.06
Honda	1.96	0.99
Legal	1.04	0.20
Cable	3.17	1.17
Vitamin	1.46	0.66
Health Club	2.35	1.03
Local News	2.67	1.17
Yogurt	2.83	1.31
Plumber	1.13	0.34
Bank	3.04	1.40

Examination of these means suggests that subjects rated some advertisements more relevant than others. Polynomial contrasts showed, in support of this, there was a significant linear trend, $F(1, 23) = 22.22$, $p< .001$, $eta^2 = .49$.

A Friedman test was calculated to assess if there was a difference among the mean ranks of the advertising interest scores, X^2 df=9, 94.59 p<.001. This result indicates there were differences among the ten mean ranks. It was found that the more significant measurements were those of the cable company, the bank, the yogurt, the health club and local news. The local news spot was excluded from the analysis because it was a form of programming and was not considered an advertisement.

When the connected and non-connected groups were compared upon the relevant advertisements, a significant difference emerged $F(133,1) = 8.76$, $p<.05$.

Irrelevant advertisements were recalled less significantly among the connected group

than the individual viewers t(133) = 2.74 p = .008.

6.4 New Hypothesis

    Given the data and re-evaluating the effect from the ethnographic study

presented earlier, the researcher revisited the hypotheses. Since commercial

advertisements did not always present interaction opportunities, the researcher

reviewed notes and tapes from the previous experiments. With the results from the

post-hoc tests and these ethnographic notes, the following hypothesis was proposed

and a new model developed which looked at the direct effect with relevance:

**H3: Social interaction leads to higher advertising recall among group television
viewers as compared to individual viewers when the advertisement is more
relevant.**
                THE GROUP OOH (OUT-OF-HOME) TELEVISION MODEL II

                                    Figure 2

                                        70
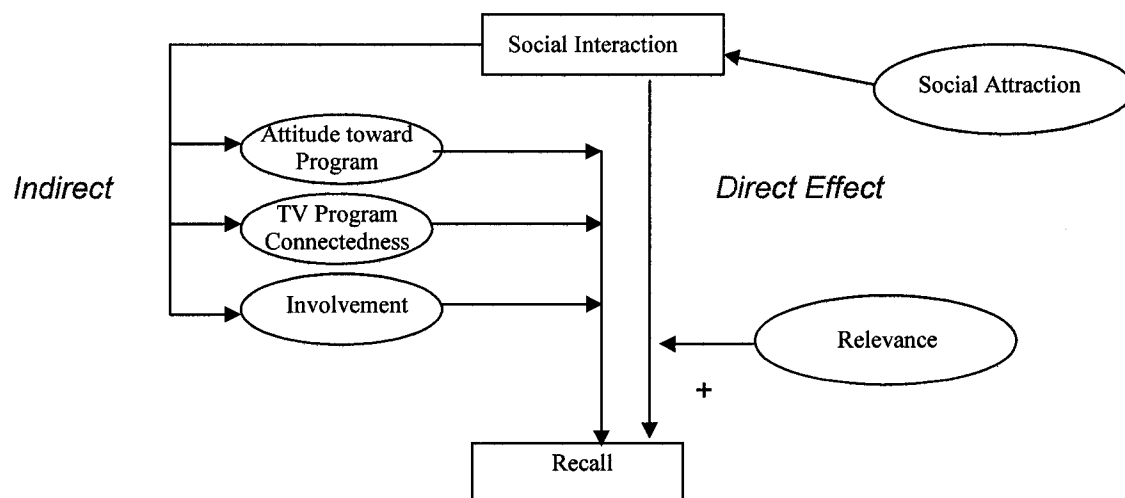
6.5 Analysis with Post Hoc Results

A 2 (viewing situation: individual vs. group) x 2 (program: connected vs. non-connected) between groups repeated measures design for relevant and irrelevant advertisements was run. As previously referenced, 122 subjects were included in the study.

TABLE 5

Between-Subjects Statistics For Relevant/Irrelevant Advertisements

		N
Connected	.00	74
	1.00	48
Program	.00	61
	1.00	61

There was a significant interaction between the effects of connectedness and program on relevant advertisements, $F(1, 118) = 9.52$, $p=.003$. The profile plot further verifies the significant effect:

71

Figure 3

Estimated Marginal Means of relrec
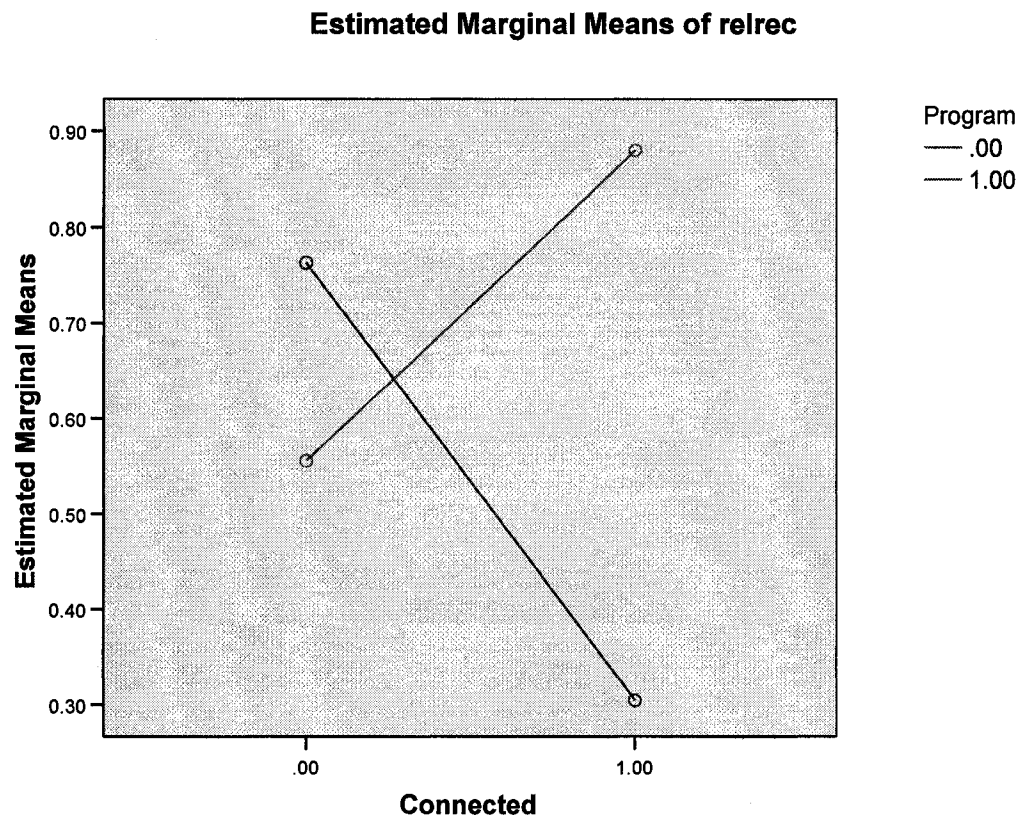
Table 6

GROUP OUT-OF-HOME MODEL II ANOVA

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Relrec	4.864(a)	3	1.621	3.462	.019	.081
	Irlrec	8.761(b)	3	2.920	5.306	.002	.119
Intercept	Relrec	45.542	1	45.542	97.237	.000	.452
	Irlrec	93.389	1	93.389	169.684	.000	.590
Connecte	Relrec	.131	1	.131	.280	.598	.002
	Irlrec	7.576	1	7.576	13.765	.000	.104
Program	Relrec	.985	1	.985	2.102	.150	.018
	Irlrec	1.379	1	1.379	2.506	.116	.021
connecte * program	Relrec	4.459	1	4.459	9.521	.003	.075
	Irlrec	.012	1	.012	.022	.882	.000
Error	Relrec	55.267	118	.468			
	Irlrec	64.944	118	.550			
Total	Relrec	110.000	122				
	Irlrec	184.000	122				
Corrected Total	Relrec	60.131	121				
	Irlrec	73.705	121				

a R Squared = .081 (Adjusted R Squared = .058)
b R Squared = .119 (Adjusted R Squared = .096)

73

Simple effects analyses revealed that subjects who were involved in group viewing

situations and watched a connected program had higher relevant advertising recall,

$t(118) = 2.538$, $p<.012$.

TABLE 7

Relevant Recall Contrast Tests

		Contrast	Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
relrec	Assume equal variances	1	.4588	.18080	2.538	118	.012
		2	-.3244	.17817	-1.821	118	.071
	Does not assume equal variances	1	.4588	.17275	2.656	57.348	.010
		2	-.3244	.17190	-1.887	51.087	.065

Since the assumption of equal variance was not violated, the data was selected from

the equal variance section of the contrast test analysis.

TABLE 8

Relevant Recall Test of Homogeneity of Variances

relrec

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.616	3	118	.189

As evidenced by the above analysis, H3 was supported.

6.6 Discussion

Based on the empirical results, the group television viewing situation and

connectedness to the program play major factors in advertising recall. The study's

sample size was large enough to yield high power results. Overall, when subjects are

74

not connected to the program, group connectedness decreases memory for the ads regardless of relevance. Since the group is not interested in the television program, their discussions extend beyond the show and they reference topics orthogonal to programming and ignore the advertisements. The program is not keeping their interest and their focus is no longer on the television program but on factors not contained in the program. The lowest recall was recorded in the group viewing the non-connected program (mean = 1.88).

When the connected group participants are also connected to the program, their memory for the relevant advertisements are higher than participants in the non-connected groups (p = .003). In other words, when connected to the program the connected group may discuss program related topics and topics related to the relevant advertisements. The reinforcement of the advertising can be an impetus to conversation. Group viewing subjects discussed the relevant advertisements and asked fellow subject about the products. Interestingly, the connected group performs worse than the non-connected group when they feel connected to the program but the advertisements are irrelevant. When the advertisement was irrelevant, subjects did not pay much attention to the advertisement.

Overall, out-of-home group television viewing impacts advertising recall when the advertisements are relevant.

6.7 Practical Implications

Over the last several months, the advertising industry has had multiple meetings on the impact of televised commercials. Many in the advertising community and in academic circles are concerned about the engagement of the viewer. Most recently, Wang and Calder (2006) examined the level of engagement of transit commuters and print advertisements. By better understanding the dynamics of the viewing audience, media buyers are not only making more informed decisions on media placement, but they can also tailor creative to take full advantage of the audience dynamics. Advertising executions can be recommended which takes best advantage of this viewing situation.

CHAPTER 6

IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study provides the first step in an on-going research stream. The objective of this research study was to better understand out-of-home group television viewing by not only studying the nuances but also to test the impact this group viewing has on recall. The intent was to see if a relationship does exist and then to proceed with additional studies after this data is released. We have found a relationship does exist and believe additional research is needed to understand how this television activity can impact recall. Through this two part study, we were able to test the significance.

Since viewing television in public places is not a controllable environment, issues like alcohol consumption may arise that can impact results. Since the data was collected in an experimental setting, the ability to combine both the ethnography and experiment together in a quasi experiment format can result in richer more generalizable data.

A major limitation of the study was the content/programming. In the study, the non-connected program was operationalized as a "busted" pilot. The use of programming like other genres and other less polarizing programming can enable researchers to get an even tighter understanding of this out-of-home social group influence.

The study did not incorporate different levels of group connectedness. While some groups were connected based on living situations other groups were connected

77

from a course perspective. All groups involved were pre-connected. In many viewing situations, connectedness is formed at the viewing occasion. Since the overall recruitment of subjects was difficult because of subject's time constraints, the ability to create group connectedness at the time of the experiment could not be employed in this study. With funding for participation reimbursement, future studies can plan for this step.

The research completed did not take into account any sub-cultural factors. Previous research by Buford May (1999) with African Americans, Roslow and Nicholls (1996) with Hispanics and Burnett's (2000) study on gays and television viewing. By including sub-cultural influences, as described by Grier and Brumbaugh (1999), the impact of social interaction is more noticeable. Members of the same subculture will have higher levels of social attraction causing stronger direct effect influence on recall and possibly with attitude toward the ad and attitude toward the brand.

Since a major percentage of out-of-home television viewing is related to sports (Eastman and Land 1997), the testing of sports programming will provide a needed comparison with non-sports programming. Given the timeliness of sports programming, sports programming testing is difficult. By working with television network and advertising agencies, a richer understanding of sports programming viewing can be achieved and how it impacts advertising recall.

The creation of a group television index (GTI) will enable advertisers and networks to better position programming and commercial inventory and establish a

78

rate card that more accurately reflects viewership dynamics rather than just estimates. Each program will be evaluated according to its out-of-home group television viewership. The higher the index, the more likely the program will appeal to out-of-home viewers and more relevant advertising should be selected.

An analysis of out-of-home viewing provides a new perspective for advertisers to consider when preparing media plans. The data in this study would need to be expanded by including year-round collection to avoid seasonality and to incorporate multiple market data collection opportunities to counter geographic bias. For instance, in the tavern setting, Durham, North Carolina, may experience more interaction and attendance during college basketball season because Duke University's basketball program has enjoyed continuing popularity. In addition, summer months traditionally have lower television audience figures and should be reflected in the data.

In order to understand the differences between forced and voluntary viewing, children and the elderly should be analyzed in more diverse settings. The settings should be places where they are not forced to view but have an option. Some examples are golden age clubs for the elderly and play areas with games and televisions for children. The ability to incorporate more diverse viewing alternatives and possibility for control of the television content in the settings would be beneficial. For instance, programming such as situation comedies at a bar and soap operas at the assisted living center can provide the perfect alternatives.

79

Since the data was collected on the basis of age, it would enhance future studies to observe combined age groups in one setting. Places where adults, children and elderly can view television together freely may be difficult to locate but would provide a comparison study. The interaction among different age groups in one setting during the television viewing will create another test for the emergent themes and possibly reveal additional factors that will impact out-of-home television viewing.

7.2 Conclusion

Lemish (1982) devised specific rules regarding watching television in a public setting based on single location and age category. This project extended his work by incorporating additional variables of settings and age allowing for higher generalizability of those rules. In comparison to his study that used a sole ethnographic perspective, we used a team research approach in order to counter act possible personal and gender biases.

The purpose of the study was to gain a better understanding of group out-of-home television viewing. Several themes emerged from our data collection. First, music acts as an attention getter, interaction initiator and a mood creator for television programming. Second, television content (programming and commercials) created an impetus to initiate contact among viewers. Third, the structure of the setting impacts the level and type of social interaction, as well as the level of attention towards the television content. Fourth, violence, for two of the three settings, created different levels of attention based on possible age and gender differences. For the elderly population violence decreased attention to the program while for the children it created a higher level of attraction towards the program.

81

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APPENDIX:

SURVEYS

ASSIGNMENT 1

You should have received an index card with a number on the right hand side. DO NOT PLACE THE NUMBER ANYWHERE ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. When you turn in your questionnaire, please place your index card in the pile next to it.
We are analyzing television programs among college students. Your answers to these questions will be very helpful.

1. What are your favorite television programs? (Up to four)

_____   _____

_____   _____

2. What television program(s) do you watch regularly?

_____   _____

_____   _____

3. What television program(s) is/are you anticipating the most over the next few months?

_____   _____

4. Which television programs do you like to watch with other people?

_____

_____

5. When you visit friends, do you watch television programs with them?
         Yes ___   No _____

Which television program(s)?

_____

6. When you go to eating/drinking establishments, do you watch television programs there?
         Yes ___   No _____

Which television program(s)?

_____

Demographic Information:

Gender (Circle answer): Male   Female

Date of Birth: _____

91

Race (Circle answer):
Caucasian   Black   Hispanic   Asian   Other   Decline to answer

LOCATION: Behavioral Lab
                     Lobby with chairs

SCRIPT

When participants enter the waiting area

"Hi, Welcome. While we wait for the others to come, please complete the questionnaire. When you are done, bring the questionnaire back."

ADVERTISING AND TELEVISION VIEWING

Temple University

In order to better understand television viewing amongst college aged adults, we ask you to kindly complete this survey. All questionnaires will remain anonymous.

Please answer the following questions

What are your three favorite television shows to watch?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Who are your three favorite celebrities?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

How much television do you watch in a typical day?

☐   I do not watch television

☐   Less than one hour

☐   More than one hour but less than two hours

☐   More then two hours but less than three hours

☐   More than three hours but less than four hours

☐   More than four hours

AFTER YOU TURN THIS PAGE, DO NOT RETURN TO IT

Please indicate how often you watch each of the television shows listed below and whether you are more likely to watch them by yourself or with others:

A. Family Guy

					Watch it
Watch					
Never watch it		Occasionally			Every Episode
1	2	3	4		5

2. Who do you watch Family Guy with?
___ Usually watch it by myself
___ Usually watch it with others
         How many others ____

___ N/A I don't watch it

B. Real World

		Watch it			Watch
Never watch it		Occasionally			Every Episode
1	2	3	4		5

2. Who do you watch Real World with?
___ Usually watch it by myself
___ Usually watch it with others
         How many others ____

___ N/A I don't watch it

C. Seinfeld

					Watch it
Watch					
Never watch it		Occasionally			Every Episode
1	2	3	4		5

2. Who do you watch Seinfeld with?
___ Usually watch it by myself
___ Usually watch it with others
         How many others ____

___ N/A I don't watch it

Class Year:

        Freshman   ☐

        Sophomore   ☐

        Junior   ☐

        Senior   ☐

Gender: Male   ☐   Female   ☐

Year of Birth: _____

Race: Caucasian/White (non-Hispanic) ☐

               African American/Black   ☐

               Hispanic   ☐

               Asian   ☐

               Native American   ☐

               Mixed Race   ☐

               Prefer not to answer   ☐

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION
When completed, please bring survey to the group facilitator. You will be given a set of three stickers. Please place one sticker on this survey and keep the others to be used later.

96

Script:

We are going to view a television program today. We would like to know your attitude toward the program you are watching along with other factors. You will be audio and videotaped during this process.

Get comfortable and treat this television viewing experience as you would a typical television viewing experience you have when you are with others. Feel free to eat and chat. After you view the program, you will be given a series of questionnaires to complete. Please make sure you have your stickers.

PROGRAM IS VIEWED

Let's start off by completing this first questionnaire. The first questionnaire is a short one that should only take 2-3 minutes. Make sure you put your sticker on the top part of the questionnaire. After you complete the first questionnaire and submit it to the program facilitation, you can begin the next set of questions.

97

ADVERTISING AND TELEVISION VIEWING

Temple University

Instructions

List all the commercials you just viewed while watching "Family Guy."

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

When you are done, please place your sticker on the top right corner and then turn it in to the facilitator.

After you submit the questionnaire, you can begin work on the next section.

98

ADVERTISING AND TELEVISION VIEWING

Temple University

Instructions

Please answer the questions in each section by selecting the best answer. Please select the answer that comes to mind first and then move on to the next question without hesitating. If you have any problems, please ask the researcher for help. The questionnaire should take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Thank-you for your participation.

Please respond to the following statements regarding the program you just viewed:

1.   Watching "Family Guy" is an escape for me

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

2.   "Family Guy" helps me escape the day's problems

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

3.   If I am in a bad mood, watching "Family Guy" puts me in a better mood

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

4.   I imitate the gestures and facial expressions from characters on "Family Guy"

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

99

5.   I find myself imitating phrases from "Family Guy" when I interact with others.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

6.   I try to speak like characters from "Family Guy."

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

7.   I would love to meet the characters from "Family Guy."

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

8.   I relate what happens in "Family Guy" to my own life.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

9.   I have objects that relate to "Family Guy."

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

10.   I read books if they are related to "Family Guy."

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE

You just viewed an episode of *The Family Guy*. We are interested in your reactions to the program. Please tell us how you felt about the program after you viewed it. Circle the number that best measures how you felt about the program after you viewed it.

Like	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike
Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Bad
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexciting
Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fascinating
Not part of my self-image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Part of my self-image
Doesn't tell Others about Me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Tells others about me
Does not portray An image of Me to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Portrays an image of me to others

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE

101

Please evaluate advertisement #1 on the following points

(Done for each advertisement – a total of four)

We would like you to tell us how the television advertisement for Cladaugh's Pub you just viewed made you feel. We are interested in your reactions to the ad, not how you would describe it.

Beautiful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ugly
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unpleasant
Harsh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Gentle
Appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unappealing
Unattractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Attractive
In poor-taste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	In good taste
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexciting
Uninteresting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
Not worth Looking at	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Worth Looking at
Comforting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Frightening
Colorful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Colorless
Fascinating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Boring

102

Meaningless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Meaningful
Weak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strong
Simple	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Complicated
Ordinary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	New
Easy to Understand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Hard to Understand
Washed out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sharp
Lively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Lifeless
Ordinary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	New
Easy to Remember	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Hard to Remember
Important To me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unimportant to me

THANKS FOR YOUR HELP ON THIS PROJECT

PLEASE MAKE SURE YOU PUT YOUR STICKER ON THE FRONT PAGE OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE PACKET.

SCRIPT:

Since we have several extra minutes, I would like you to complete a questionnaire about this entire viewing experience. It is the last survey.

Please respond to the following statements regarding the experience you just had viewing television with others:

	Agree							**Disagree**	
1. I want to remain a member of this group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. I like my group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. I would look forward to coming to the group again	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. I don't care what happens in this group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. I felt involved in what is happening in my group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. If I could drop out of the group now, I would.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. I would dread coming to this group again	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. I wish it were possible for the group to end now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. I am dissatisfied with the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. If it were possible to move to another group at this time, I would.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. I feel included in the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. In spite of individual differences, a feeling of unity exists in my group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. Compared to other groups I know of, I feel my group is better than most.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

104

14. I do not feel a part of
the group's activities.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5　　6　　7　　8　　9

15. I feel it would make a
difference to the group
if I were not here.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5　　6　　7　　8　　9

16 I feel distant from
the group.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5　　6　　7　　8　　9

17. It makes a difference to
me how this group
turns out.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5　　6　　7　　8　　9

18. I feel my absence would
not matter to the group.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5　　6　　7　　8　　9

19. Overall, I enjoyed
being here.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5　　6　　7　　8　　9

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION
DO NOT FORGET TO PUT YOUR LAST STICKER ON THIS PAGE

POST HOC SURVEY

PLEASE CIRCLE THE RESPONSE THAT BEST DESCRIBES YOUR FEELING ABOUT THE ADVERTISEMENT:

1. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest
1	2	3	4	5

2. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

106

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest
1	2	3	4	5

3. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest
1	2	3	4	5

4. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest
1	2	3	4	5

108

5. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest
1	2	3	4	5

6. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

109

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	

Great Interest

1	2	3	4	5

7. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest
1	2	3	4	5

8. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

110

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest
1	2	3	4	5

9. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely

111

1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	

Great
Interest

1	2	3	4	5

10. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely

1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely

1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely

1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest

1	2	3	4	5

11. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest
1	2	3	4	5

12. Advertisement: _____

How likely are you to view this ad if you were watching television when it was broadcast?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to purchase or use the product/service just advertised?

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How likely are you to discuss the product/service just advertised with friends?

113

Definitely Not	Less Likely		Somewhat Likely	Definitely
1	2	3	4	5

How much interest do you have in the product advertised?

No Interest	Little Interest		Some Interest	Great Interest
1	2	3	4	5