DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 259 371	CS 209 127
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TITLE	Commercial Complexity and Local and Global
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Involvement in Programs: Effects on Viewer
	Responses.
· PUB DATE	Aug 85
NOTE	31p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the
•	Association for Education in Journalism and Mass
J	Communication ('68th, Memphis, TN, August 3-6, 1985).
•	Small print may affect 1 gibility.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Research/Technical (143)
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Speeches/Conference Papers (150)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Advertising; Cognitive Processes; Higher Education;
• • •	*Mass Media Effects; *Programing (Broadcast);
•	*Retention (Psychology); *Television Commercials;
	*Television Research; *Television Viewing
IDENTIFIERS	*Audience Response; Brand Name Products
ABSTRACT	

A study investigated the effects of local (momentary) and global (whole program) involvement in program context and the effects of message complexity on the retention of television commercials. Sixteen commercials, categorized as simple video/simple audio through complex video/complex audio were edited into two globally high- and two globally low-involving, programs. Local involvement was varied within each of the four programs. Sixty-nine male and female undergraduate students viewed the programs and commercials and were asked to recall as many as possible of the commercials they had just seen. The subjects were then given a recognition test on which they indicated the product categories for which they had seen commercials and listed the brand names. Attitudes toward the commercials and television viewing behavior and demographics were also ascertained. The results indicated that recall and recognition of the commercials was, lower for globally high-involving programs. Local involvement resulted in mixed memory effects. Audio complexity aided recalls and the effect was enhanced by the presence of video complexity. No attitude effects were found. (HTH)

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Commercial Complexity and Local and Global Involvement in Programs: Effects on Viewer Responses

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Abstract

This study examined the effects of viewers' global and momentary (local) involvement in television programs, and the audia and video complexity of commercials occurring to the programs, on memory and attitudes toward the commercials and advertised products. Sixteen commercials categorized as simple video simple , audio, complex video simple audio, simple video complex audio, complex video complex audio were edited into two globally high and two globally low involving programs. local involvement was varied within each of the four programs. Recall and recognition of the commercials was lower for globally high involving programs. Local involvement had mixed memory effects. Audio complexity sided recall and the effect was enhanced by the presence of video complexity. No attitude effects were found. The results are discussed in terms of how programinvolvement may affect viewer processing of commercials.

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In maximizing the affectiveness of television advertising expenditures, the effect that programming context may have on commercial performance is often overlooked. Particularly in spot purchases, there is little consideration for the programming content itself, even though this context is likely to influence the communication effectiveness of commercials.

Although⁵ media huyers largely ignore the effects of program environment on message processing, the idea that it makes a difference is not new. Over the years, numerous studies have analyzed the influence of program environment on embedded messages, and most of the findings, both from experimental and survey studies, indicate that commercials are indeed affected by their program environment (Bryant & Comisky, 1978; Cannon, 1982; Horn & HcEwen, 1977; Kettedy, 1971; Krugman, 1983; ieach, 1981; Papazian, 1983; Priemer, 1983; Soldow & Principe, 1983; Yuspeh, 1977).

Nuch of the literature on the effects of programming involvement has been based on one or both of two assumptions about consumer processing. The first is that when viewers are involved in program content, they will spend more processing capacity organizing and rehearsing thoughts about the programming during intervening emmercials. As a result, the commercial messages will be less thoroughly processed and more poorly recalled and recognized.

A second explanation for programming effects was articulated by Axelrod (1963). He argued that when viewers are involved with a program, they will experience a feeling of irritation when the program is interrupted, and it is the irritation itself that interferes with processing and hence remembering of commercial messages. Before looking in detail at research that has teated these ideas, the concept of involvement with television programing must be oxamined. Four main operational definitions have appeared in the literature.

First is the degree to which programming is liked. Lesch (1981) for example, had subjects rate program liking and correlated this measure with recell. He found that higher recall scores were associated with commercials "that had appeared in better liked programs.

Second is the degree to which aubjects are interested in story lines. Using this definition, Krugman (1983) hypothesized that interest in a program would have a positive influence on commercial effectiveness because the "momentum of aroused interest catries over [from the program to the commercial message]." To test the hypothesis, Krugman correlated the differences in viewers' pre-and post-viewing attitude scores toward the General Electric Company and rated interest in programs aponeored by GE institutional advertising. He found more positive change associated with more interesting programs.

Third is the degree to which programming is suspenseful. Kennedy (1971) theorized that viewers of suspenseful programs experience a greater desire for "closure," that is, having the viewing experience be a whole pattern. Similarly, Soldow and Principe (1981) measured involvement as subjects' rankordering of crime and adventure programs in terms of suspense. Both atudies found lower recall of commercials embedded in more suspenseful programming.

Fourth is over-time measures of involvement, two of which were introduced by Bryant and Comisky (1978). They first measured involvement in terms of the frequency of errors aubjects made in detecting a time during viewing of programs (more errors indexed higher involvement.) The second measure was an indicator from subjects of how "absorbing" each minute of the program was. Again the



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reault was lower recall of commercials embedded in the most involving program segments.

As can be seen, many stimulus dimensions seem relevant to the notion of involvement with programming. To avoid taking too narrow an approach to operationalizing the concept, the present study departed from previous approaches and, determined programming involvement by asking prepert subjects to rate for each program segment how involved they were with the program. This measure, while a simple one, was designed to allow subjects to decide for themselves what the involvement concept meant and thereby to include a number of different dimen- a sions such as "auspenseful," Winteresting," "liked," "challenging," and so onlocal and Global Involvement

It means obvious that programming will not create a constant level of involvement for the viewor. Indeed, commercial interruptions often seem designed to occur in programm at peaks of action, suspense, or interest. Only one study has examined both global (whole program) and local (momentary) involvement effects. Bryant and Comisky (1978) showed that memory for a commercial was best after the resolution of a story, leas strong before either climax or resolution and least after climax and before resolution. They argued, then, that both global and local involvement levels affect memory: Commercial Structure

While the idea that the structure of a commercial message will affect viewer memory and liking for it is not new (Leavitt, 1968; Percy & Rossiter, 1983; Rossiter & Percy, 1980), this variable has not received attention in the literature on program involvement. As an exploratory step, the present study therefore manipulated two structural variables that have been well-researched in the television effects literature: video and audio complexity. Video complexity wss measured in terms of the occurrence of cuta, dissolves, zoom-ins and-outs, pans,

person and object movement and scene clianges (Thorson, Reeves, & Schleuder, 1985; Hatt & Weich 1983). Audio complexity was measured in terms of grammatical complexity and the number of ideas present per unit time (Britton, Westbook, & Holdredge, 1978; Kintach, 1974; Kintach & van Dijk, 1978).

Dependent Measures

There have been three categories of viewer response measured in the program involvement literature. The first is memory. Kennedy (1971) showed poorer recall of commercials in suspenseful programming than in a comedy. Soldow and Principe (1981) showed less recall of brand names and sales messages in a suspenseful show "(<u>Baretta</u>) than in a family situation comedy (<u>Brady Bunch</u>). Finally, Bryant and Comisky (1978) aboved poorer commercial recall during more "involving" segments of an action adventure program (Banacek).

A second measure has been attitudinal. Both Soldow and Principe (1978) and Kennedy (1971) failed to find programming context effects on liking for products or mds.

Finally, four atudies have examined effects on purchase intent (Yuspeh, 1977; Kennedy, 1971; Bryant & Comisky, 1978; Soldow & Princie, 1981). Only Soldow and Principe (1981) found significant effects, and here again, higher involvement in programming had negative effects on the dependent measure. Design Flaws in the literature

As can be seen, significant questions remain to be asked about program context effects. In addition, however, to problems of defining program involvement, distinguishing local and global involvement effects, and lack of attention to the effects of commercial structure themselves, previous studies have suffered'from two major design flaws. First, none of the studies have sampled instances of high-and low-involving programs. Rather, they have used unique, aingle instances of programs and attempted to generalize from them. This leaves observed effects open to the possibility of having been produced by the programs themselves, rather than by involvement processos per se (Jackson & Jacobs, 1983).

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Second, none of the studies have both sampled commercials and counterbalanced their order of presentation in the test programming. Without such a manipulation, results cannot be attributed to processes independent of the possibility that unique messages or unique message/order combinations are producing the effects.

The Present Study

The atudy reported here was designed to correct some of the deficiencies in previous research and to explore some new questions. Based on the literature cited shove and on the two assumptions about how program context might affect commercials, eight hypotheses were formulated.

Hypothesea

The first three hypotheses concern the effects of global and local program involvement on memory for commercials.

Hypothesis 1

Subjects will have lower memory scores for summercials occurring in a globally high-involvement program than for commercials in a globally low-involvement program.

Hypothesis 2

Subjects will have lower memory scores for commercials that are placed in a locally high-involvement position in a program than for commercials placed in a locally low-involvement position.



Hypothesis 3

local program involvement offects will be of greater magnitude s

in globally high-involving programs than in low-involving ones. The fourth and fifth hypotheses concern the effects of message complexity on memory scares. Again, given previous research on message complexity (Hatt & Welch, 1983; Watt'& Krull, 1970) and the two assumptions about the effects of program context it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4

Audio and video complex commercials will be less well β remembered than audio and video simple commercials.

Hypothesis 5

The detrimental effects of audio and video complexity

will be enhanced when commercials occur during globally

high-involvement programs.

Given the assumption that viewers who are involved in a program will experience negative fadlings when the program is interrupted for a commercial message, the expectation here is that the following conditions will lead to more negative feelings about watching the commercial and advertised product. Thus,

Hypothesis 6

Subjects will have more negative attitudes towards commercials and products advertised that are shown in a globally highinvolvement program, than for commercials and products advertised in a globally low-involvement program.

Hypothesis 7

Subjects will have more negative attitudes towards commercials

and products advertised in a locally high-involving position. than when those are placed in a locally low-involvement position.



Hypothesia 8

Subjects will have more negative attitudes towards commercials and products placed in a locally high-involvement position of a globally high-involvement program than towards commercials placed in a locally low-involvement position within a globally high involvement program.

The eight hypotheses were tested in an experiment, where subjects viewed 16 commercials varying in audio and video complexity, and embedded in four programs; two globally high-involving and two globally low-involving? Local program involvement was varied within each of the four programs.

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Selection of programming

e television programs (Little House on the Prairie, A-Team, Inside Business; and Wild Americs) and one movie segment (Pressed to Kill) were edited down to 13-minute "programs." Thirty-three pretest subjects viewed one of two randomized orders of the programs and then answered four questions about eschasegment on a five-point scals ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5).

- 1. This program was thought provoking,"it made me think what happen next[
- While viewing this segment, F felt some of the same things the 2. characters were feeling at times.
- ٦.
- I found this program wogment varmexcitings. I never got involved in this program as 'I do when I am watching
 - s similar show on television. (Scale reversed)

On the basis of mean ratings on the four quest fous, four programs were selected for the experiment: high involving: Dreamed to Kill (X = 2.0); Bittle Hockse 2.4) and Jow Involving: Wild Americs (X + 3.4); Inside Austness (X = 3.4).

Selection of Commercials.

Sixteen commercials previously used in an experiment conducted by Thorson, Reeves, and Sableuder (1985) were included in the present study. The commercials represented the factorial combination of simple and complex sudio information and two levels of visual complexity (simple visual/simple audio, simple visual/complex audio, complex visual/simple audio, and complex visual/complex sudio). The selection method for these 16 measage units was a two-step process.

First, 436 commercials were coded for video and sudio structural complexity. Then, the eight commercials judged to be the most representative of the four complexity categories were presented in random order to 53 pretest subjects. Eighteen of the subjects only watched the 32 commercials, 19 only listened, and 16 both watched and listened. Subjects used magnitude scaling (Stevens, 1972) to estimate unit complexity on a 100-point scale. Before rating the 40 messages, subjects viewed or listened to anchors. A commercial depicting a man sitting in a chair and discussing at a rapid pace frozen vegetables was the video simple/sudio complex anchor. Subjects were told that the video portion of this message unit would be rated a 10 and the sudio portion is 100. Three other anchors representing simple/simple, complex/simple, and complex/complex ratings were shown. On the basis of the subjects' ratings, four message units per complexity level were splected.

Local Positioning of the Commercials

Guided by Bryant and Jonisky's (1978) research, program segments were edited to provide a high-involvement position (pre-resolution) between the 10th and 12th minute, and a low-involvement position between the 5th and 6th minute (pre-climax).

Subjects

Forty-four female and 25 male undergraduates at a large midweatern university participated in the experiment. They were recruited from introduc--

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tory mass communication courses-and were given class credit for their par-

Apparatus

A JVG U-Hatic videotspe player and a JVC 19" color television set work used to show the experimental materials. Materials

The sixteen test commercials were embedded in the four program acgments. In each segment, blocks of two commercials were embedded in locally high-and lowinvolvement positions. There were six counterbalanced orders of the four programs and the 16 commercials.

Design

A 2 (global program involvement) x 2 (local program involvement) x 2 (video complexity) x 2 (audio complexity) repeated mensures design was used. Each subject viewed the two high and the two low involvement programs, as well as all 16 commercials.

Procedure

Subjects were randomly assaigned to one of the program orders, and tested in groups of one to seven.

Before the start of the experiment, the subjects when told that they would participate in a television viewing study. To-avoid aensitization, no mention was made that conmercials were embedded in the programming. Subjects were told that they were going to watch four 15-minute television and movie segments. Subjects were instructed not to tark during the experiment and to any normal sttention to the segments. The experimenter remained in the testing room during viewing and testing.

After the 60-minute viewing session, the subjects were instructed to count backwards by sevens, starting at 5000. This was done to clear the subjects' short tgrm memory of traces of the last block of commercisis. * After about three minutes, subjects were asked to recall as many as possible of the connercials they had just seen. After the recall test each subject was given a resignition test on which they first had to indicate for which of twenty listed product categories (16 targeted and 4 foil commercials) they had seen a commercial. They were also asked to list a brand name for each recognized product category. Next, they were given an attitude questionnaire on which they had to indicate on a 10-point scale:

- a. liking of advertised product;
- b. liking of commercial; '...
- c. attitude toward the advertised brand;
- d. intention to buy the advertised brand.

Finally, there were questions about general television viewing behavior, an wall as gender, age, and field of study. Subjects were also asked to indicate whether they had previously seen any of the commercials or program segments and as a manipulation check, to rate the global and local involvement levels of the programs, themselves. Upon completion of the questionnaite, the subjects were thanked for their participation and asked not to discuss the experiment with other class members.

Result

Subject protocols were initially checked to determine whether any of the program segments or commercials had been seen before. Since having seen the conmercials before would provide unfair memory sdvantage, any commercial reported as seen before by a subject was eliminated from his/her protocol. But since previously seen program segments were not reported by subjects as significantly differently involving than previously unseen segments, all program segments were maintained and "program seen before" was added as a variable in the analyses of variance.

Bliminating commercials that had been seen before lowered the number of subjacts in analyses where the 16 commercials were divided into four complexity levels and the four complexity levels into high and low local involvement positions (hence dopping the number of commercials in each category to two). The result was insufficient data to allow for simultaneous statistical examination of local and global involvement and commercial complexity. Instead, two aepsrate analyses of variance (anovas) were performed. The first was a threeway test: Seen Segment x Global involvement x local involvement ($\underline{n} = 61$), subsequently referred to as the positioning anova. The second was a four-way test: Seen Segment x Global involvement x Video Complexity x Audió Complexity. ($\underline{n} = 37$), referred to as the complexity anova.

A second manipulation-checking procedure concerned whether the subjects yould verify the categorization of the program segments as high and low 1 involving, and whather they would perceive the within-program involvement differences that had been derived by intuition. On a scale from 1 (low) to 10 (high), the two high involving programs were indeed rated higher than the low involving programs. The mean scores were:

Dressed to Kill	8.32
Little House on the Prairie	7.46
Wild America	4.87
Inside Businoss	4.03

T-Tests showed that both the high-involvement programs were rated significantly \mathcal{L} higher (p <-05) than both the low involvement programs.

The manipulation of local involvement, however, was only partially successful. While locally high and low positions within high involvement programs were rated as significantly different, there was no difference between the rating of the high and low involvement scenes in the globally low-involving programs. This result must be taken into consideration when interpreting the effects of local involvement.

Turning to the main analyses, recall and recognition product and recall and recognition of both product and brand were analyzed separately, each variable is both the complexity and the positioning anovas: Figure 1 shows the effects of global and local program involvement on recall, of product and recall of both product and brand name. Figure 2 shows their effects on recognition (positioning anovas). Figures 3 and 4 show the effects of global involvement and video and audio complexity on product recall and both product and brand & recall (complexity anovas). Figures 5 and 6 show the effects of global involvement and video and audio complexity on recognition of product category and both product category and brand name recognition (complexity snovsa). Global involvement

Hypothesis 1 suggested that commercials located in globally high-involving programs would be less well recalled and recognized than those located in globally low-involving programs. Figure 1 shows this hypothesis was supported in the recall results. Product recall was higher in low-involvement programs (\overline{X}), 481) than in high-involvement programs (\overline{X} = .361). Brand recall in low involvement programs was higher (\overline{X} = .427) than in high-involvement programs (\overline{X} = .342).

Insert Figure 1 about here

Hypothesis 1 was also supported by the recognition results (Figure 2). Highinvolvement programs produced lower product ($\bar{x} = .688$) and brand ($\bar{x} = .477$) recognition than did low-involvement programs (product recognition $\bar{x} = .772$; brand recognition $\bar{x} = .559$).

inaert Figure 2 shout here

Turning to the complexity analyses of variance, which had fewer degrees of fraedom, the global involvement effect remained significant for product recall,



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(Figure 3) and became marginally significant for brand recall (Figure 4). Global involvement did not produce significant main effects for product recognition or brand recognition and is therefore not shown in Figure 5.

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Insert Figures 3, 4, and 5 about here

In general, then, there was ample support for the notion that commorcials occurring in globally high-involving programs were less well remembered than when they occurred in globally lower-involving programs.

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Rypothesis 2 suggested that commercials placed in locally high-involving positions in programs would be feas wells remembered than commercials placed in locally low-involving positions. Hypothesis 3 auggested the local involvement effect would show an anhanced effect in globally high-involving programs. It should be kept in mind, of course that the local involvement manipulation in globally low-involving programs remains questionable.

Figure 1 shows that neither product nor brand recall showed significant, main effects of local program involvement. Figure 2 shows the same lack of effect for recognition. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 was supported by both product and braud recall in the global high-involvement condition. For the low-involvement condition, however, the relation was reversed: high local involvement produced higher recall than did low local involvement (the interaction between local and global involvement was aignificant for both recall measures).

Although the interaction of global and local involvement are counterintuitive, it was reflected almost exactly in the recognition measures (Figure 2). For product recognition, high local involvement produced high accuracy when glo-



bal involvement was low, and low accuracy when global involvement was high. The name result held for brand recognition, with the addition that local involvement had a marginally significant effect ($p\leq 10$). The direction of that effect was the opposite from that predicted by Hypothesis 3- local high-involvement programming produced better brand recognition ($\bar{x} = .542$) than did local low-involvement programming ($\bar{x} = .495$).

The picture, then, for local involvement effects was inconsistent with that hypothesized, but the results were consistent across the four memory measures.

Having seen the program segments previously had only one affect on memory. Figura 1 shows that for product regall, programs seen interacted significantly with local involvement. For subjects who had seen the programming previously, high local involvement produced consistently better product recall than did low local involvement.

Audio and Video Complexity

Hypothesis 4 suggested that both sudio and video complexity in commercials would result in weaker remembering. Hypothesis 5 suggested this result would be enhanced when the compercials occurred in globally Migh-involving programs.

As can be seen in Figures 3-6, audio complexity hat reignificant main affect on product and brand recall and product recognition. It did not have a significant effect on brand recognition. The directions of the effects were, however, generally contrary to the prediction. Audio complex commercials were better recalled than audio mimple ones (Figures 3 and 4). But audio complex commercials were less accurately recognized than simple ones (Figure 5).

Also as shown in Figures 3-6, video complexity did not have a significant affect, except on product recognition (see Figure 5) where as predicted, the video complex commercials produced poorer memory ($\bar{x} = .704$) than the simple ones ($\bar{x} = .820$). There was, however, no other significant indication that video complexity harmed memory.

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Insert Figure 6 shout here

Also unpredicted was the fact that audio and video complexity produced interactive effects on memory for all meaures except brend recognition. As can be seen in the analyses of variance reported in Figures 3-5, the interactions were complex. In general, however, it appeared that when commercials were video simple, sudio complexity had little effect. But when commorcials were video , gcomplex, those that were also audio complex generally showed higher memory scores than those that were audio simple (see Figures 3, 4, and 6).

In general then, while commercial complexity had significant effects, they were more complicated then was hypothesized. Furthermore, complexity did not interact as hypothesized with global involvement. For product recall (Figure 3) and produceprecognition (Figure 5), there were no interactions of global involvement and complexity. For brand recall (Figure 1), involvement, and audio complexity interacted marginally with having seen the programs before. For subjects who had seen the Programs before, low involvement programs showed marked sudio complexity effects. For brand recognition, audio complexity sud global involvement interscted (Figure 6). In low-involvement programs, audio complexity had little effect on memory, but for high-involvement programs, audio complexity Hypothesis 4 nor Hypothesis 5 were supported.

Attitude Results

Subjects' attitudes about the commercials and the products they advertised were tested with two procedures. First, free recall protocols were content analysed for positive and negative opinion statements about commercials or products. Two observers content analyzed the protocols, producing an intercoder



reliability acure of .80. Second, after memory testing, subjects were asked to indicate on a 10-point acake their:

- liking of each advertised product;
- liking of each commercial;
- attitude toward each advertised product;
- intention topbuy each advertised product.

The free recall results are reported first.

Positive and Negativo Opiniona about Products and Commercials. For each of the regories of opinion statement (positive opinion about the product or commercial; negative opinion about the product or commercial), two analyses of variance were performed. Similar to the analysis of the memory results, one analysis of variance was a three-way (Global Involvement x Local Involvement x Seen Prugrama), and the other was a four-way (Global Involvement x Video Complexity x Audio Complexity x Seen Programs).

Only one category (positive opinions about the commercial) showed significant anova effects at the .05 level. As shown in Figure 7, sudio complexity and video complexity interacted. It appeared that video complexity affected positive attitudes towards the commercial only when the commercials are also sudio simple. There was also a rather complicated three-way interaction between global involvement, video cumplexity, and having seen the program before. Video simple commercials were better liked when embedded in a globally low involving program. Finally, there was a main effect for sudio complexity. Audio simple commercials were better liked ($\bar{x} = .169$) than sudio complex messages ($\bar{x} = .093$).

Insert Figure 7 about here

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Since the other categories did not reveal any significant findings, hypothe-

Because subjects fraquently did not provide attitude ratings for some commercials, the second measurement (including a behavioral intention measure) had to be limited to a one-way analysis of variance, measuring the effect of global involvement. None of the analyses showed significant effects, and hence no support was evidenced for Hypotheses 6, 7, or 8.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of local and global involvement in program context and the effects of message complexity on the processing of commercials. Consistant with previous research, recall of commercials was lower when they occurred in globally high-involving programming. The effects on recognition of products and brands advertised were mixed. It seems likely that the recognition measures failed to show consistent effects of global program involvement because of the nature of the recognition task itself. The additional cuss available in the task may have had such a strong effect on the accessing of memory for commercials that the program effects were masked.

In addition to program involvement effects at a global level, the present study showed that local high involvement also weakened memory for the commercials. Unfortunately, these results must be tempered by the fact that a manipulation check did not discriminate between locally high-and low-involving segments of low-involving programs. One possible reason is that the local involvement commercial placement based on intuition was not exact enough. A more precise measure, as for instance a minute-to-minute assessment of local involvement is recommended for future research.

Under the initial sesumption that viewers would spend the time during commercials continuing to process high-involving programs, it was predicted that audio and video complex commercials would be remembered significantly less well than simple ones. Contrary to predictions, however, sudio complex commercials



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were recalled better than sudio aimple ones, and this effect was even stronger for commercials that use also video complex. This result argues against the notion that memory deficits abown in high-involvement programming result from viswers processing programming rather than commercials. If viewers recognize and respond to the used for more cognitive processing of audio complex commercists, they may lay down a stronger memory trace that is less interfered with by processing of subsequent programming. Such an interpretation lends credence to a retroactive inhibition (Bryant & Comisky, 1978) notion of program context effects. Under this model, processing high involvement materials subsequently to processing commercials damages otherwise normal memory traces of the commercials. Although follow-up studies are needed to verify the direction of commercial complexity effects, the present results can significant doubt on the "residual processing of involving programs" idea.

In addition to recall and recognition scores, the effect of programming context was measured by attitudinal and purchase intention scores. Neither measure showed main effects for program involvement. Failing to find involvement effects on attitude scores is consistent with most previous atudies. This consistent result argues against the second assumption made here, namely that viewers are more irritated by commercial interruptions during high-involvement programs. It is possible, instead, that a commercial break in a high-involving program provides a feeling of "relief" -- allowing the viewer to relax and enjoy a break. Or perhaps even more likely, given the lack of differences in attitudes between high-and low-involving programming, American viewers are so accustomed to commercial interruptions that there are no attitudinal shifts at all.

In general, this study has provided some new insights in the effects of local and global involvement in television programs, as well as in the effects of message complexity on processing commercials. Furthermore, this experiment

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is valuable in that, unlike previous studies, the design involved anapling both programs and commercials. It counterbalanced the occurrence of the commercials in the programs, and finally, it verified subjects' involvement levels in the programs, rather than relying on experimenter intuitions about them.

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Finally, it is important to consider what the implications of this study are for the advertising practitioner. Although the results are rather complex, it appears that if memory for message content is a major goal of the advertiser, audience considerations asids, commercials placed in a low-involving context seems advisable.



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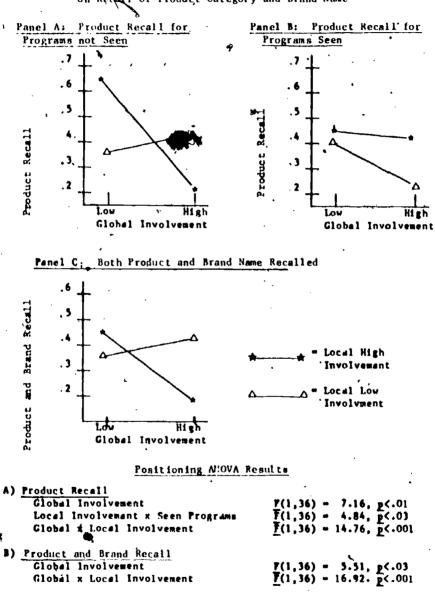
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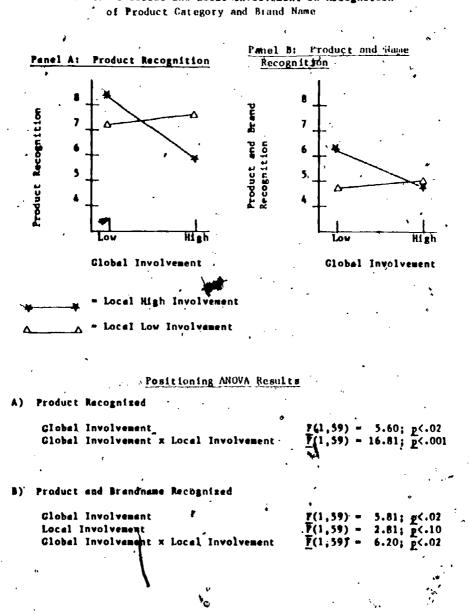
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Effects of Global and Local Involvement on Recoil of Product Category and Brand Name

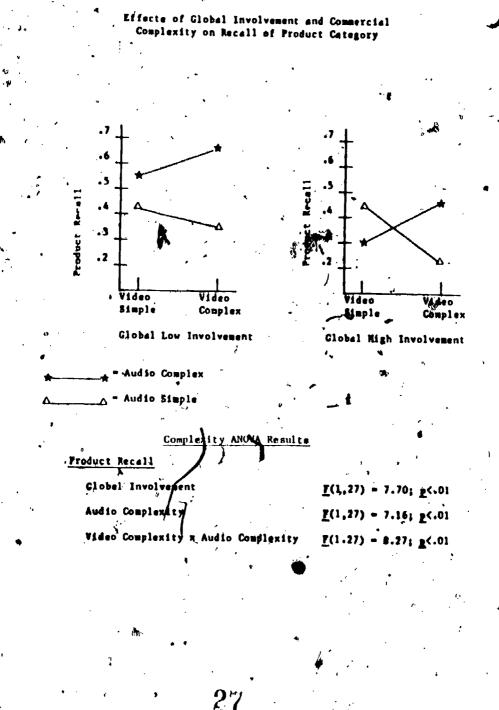
FIGURE 1

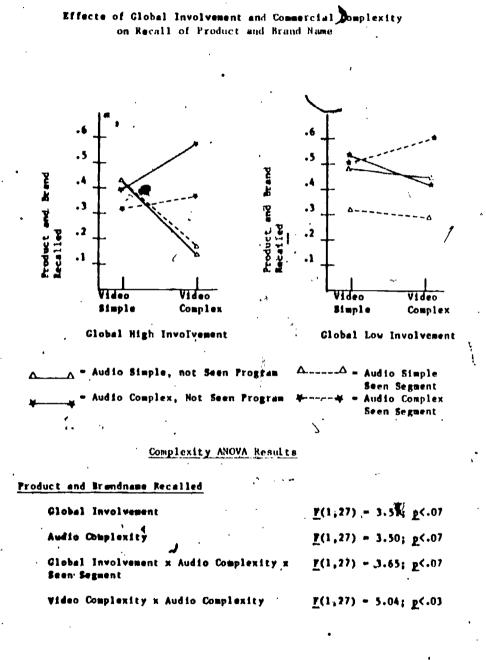
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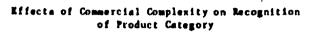


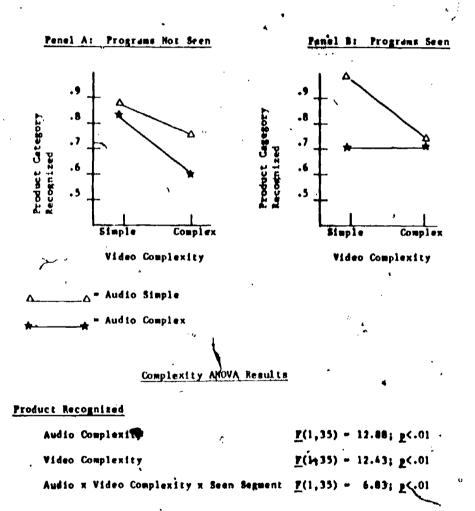
Effects of Global and Local Involvement on Recognition

FIGURE 2



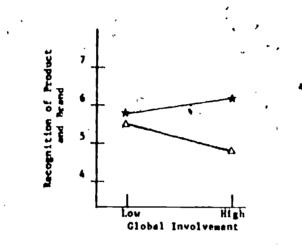












A Audio Complex

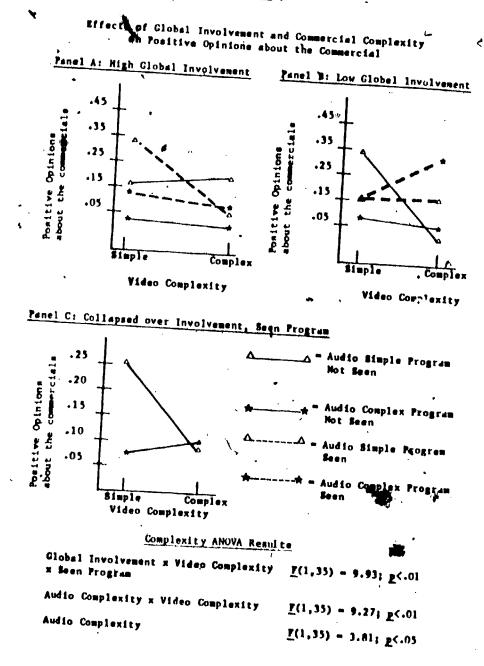
Complexity ANOVA Results

Product and Brandname Recognized

Global Involvement x Audio Complexity

<u>F(1,35) = 4.20; p(.05</u>





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