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### Mass media advertising: Information or wallpaper?

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**Publication date**  
1999

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#### **Citation for published version (APA):**

Smit, E. G. (1999). *Mass media advertising: Information or wallpaper?* [Thesis, fully internal, Universiteit van Amsterdam]. Het Spinhuis.

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# 3

## Research design

In the first chapter, the central question ‘How and why do (or don’t) people use advertising in mass media?’ was posed. To answer this question advertising use was conceptualised by means of theories on media choice behaviour and other studies in the field of advertising research (meta-analysis). This chapter presents the research design: the link between the theoretical description and the empirical findings of this research project. First, an overview of central concepts, research questions, and different phases of the research project will be discussed in Section 3.1. Second, the studies will be described in detail in Section 3.2 to 3.5. In Section 3.6, a summary of the different data sets will be given, including the selection of results to be presented in the subsequent chapters.

### 3.1 Overview

The central concept 'advertising use' was defined in the first chapter as the behaviour of media users (or in marketing terminology 'consumers') with regard to advertising in these media. Furthermore, various studies were consulted in the second chapter to develop a model which functions as a starting point for the empirical part of this research project. The combination of the theoretical framework on the one hand and the model of Figure 2.4 on the other, results in the following conceptual model (Figure 3.1).

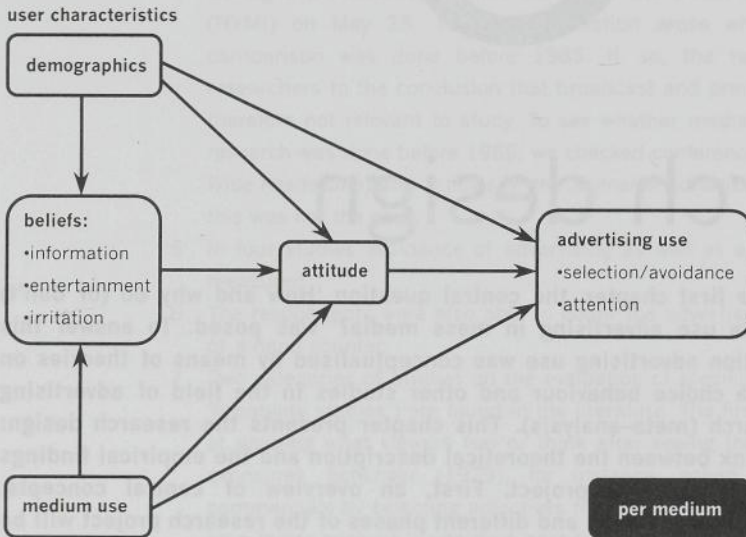


Figure 3.1: Conceptual model on explaining advertising use

This conceptual model emphasises the role of user characteristics (demographics, beliefs, medium use and attitude) in explaining advertising use. This means that variables with respect to 'situation of use' were excluded<sup>1</sup>. The variable 'medium' is included in this model because all concepts and relationships will be measured for different media.

#### [Advertising use]

Advertising use of the selection (or avoidance) of advertising, the exposure to the advertisements themselves and the amount of attention which is paid to them. Based on Levy and Windahl's conceptualisation of audience activity (see Chapter 1), a division is made between behaviours before and during exposure. Before exposure, a medium user can choose to select a type of medium content. In terms of advertising research, one could say that users actively choose *not* to select – thus avoid – advertising content. As was shown in the previous chapter, a lot of

studies deal with avoiding advertising. During exposure, advertising use consists of different degrees of paying attention to advertising. In sum, 'advertising use' is defined in this research project as behaviour of media users with respect to advertising in these media. This behaviour consists of selecting or avoiding advertising content before exposure and attending to advertising during exposure. 'Selecting' is defined as actively choosing to be exposed to advertising, for instance seeking specific advertisements in a newspaper. 'Avoiding' on the other hand, is defined as different kinds of behaviour in order to avoid exposure to advertising in a medium, such as zapping, zipping, or leaving the room. 'Attending' is used to indicate exposure and the degree of attention paid to the advertisements.

An important aspect of these different behaviours is the object of use. This object can vary from advertising in general to an advertisement for a specific brand on (for example) the front page of the latest issue of *de Volkskrant*. In Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1), several levels were distinguished: advertising in general, advertising in a specific medium, in a specific title, or a specific advertisement. In this research project, advertising use is measured on the medium level, specifically: television advertising use, radio advertising use, magazine advertising use and newspaper advertising use.

What is dealt with, is in fact *perceived* or *claimed* advertising behaviour (in a medium), because these types of use are measured by asking people what they do with advertising instead of observing their behaviours. Asking people how much advertising they for instance saw (self-reported rate of exposure to advertising), may reflect in fact what they 'wanted' to have seen (or not have seen). According to Price and Zaller (1993), questions about (media) use depend on guesswork, and moreover may be biased towards over reporting levels of exposure. In order to know to what extent perceived advertising use will be related to (actual) exposure to specific advertisements, advertising use is related to awareness of different advertisements (i.e. the most specific level of use in Figure 1.4). 'Awareness' is defined in this study as claims of having seen the advertisement ('recall' or 'recognition') and to be able to prove this claim by describing the advertisement ('proven recall') or filling in the masked brand name ('proven recognition').

#### [Attitude]

Advertising use is expected to be directly influenced by the attitude people have with respect to advertising in a specific medium. A central feature of different definitions of attitude is the idea of readiness of response (Oskamp, 1991, p.7). That is, an attitude is not behaviour, not something a person does; rather it is generally seen as "a disposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to given objects" (ibid., 1991, p.8). As was briefly described in the first chapter, this definition is based on the widely accepted view in attitude theory that the (cognitive, affective and behavioural) components are separate entities, whose

congruence is not necessary. An example: 'I like this book' (attitude) does not necessarily imply 'this book is informative' (belief), nor does it imply 'I am going to read this book' (behavioural intention). In this research project, attitude is defined as the degree to which a person responds favourably or unfavourably to advertising in a specific medium, in other words: the degree of like or dislike of television, radio, newspaper, or magazine advertising.

#### [Beliefs]

The attitude in Figure 3.1 is expected to be influenced by the beliefs people hold concerning the attitude object advertising. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975; Oskamp, 1991, p.11) define beliefs as "statements indicating a person's subjective probability that an object has a particular characteristic". Beliefs are cognitive (thoughts and ideas), whereas attitudes are affective (feelings and emotions). Beliefs which state a value judgement about an object – which is often the case in advertising research – are called 'evaluative beliefs' (Oskamp, 1991, p.12). These kind of beliefs, for example 'My colleague is a nice guy', are closely linked to attitudes of liking, for example 'I like Peter' (attitude). The beliefs of this research project are evaluative beliefs, for example 'Newspaper advertising provides me with useful information about bargains' or 'I think, magazine advertisements are funny'. Based on the meta-analysis different kinds of beliefs were distinguished: beliefs about negative aspects of advertising (irritation) and beliefs about positive aspects of advertising. These positive beliefs refer to functions of advertising for the consumer in terms of information they provide or entertaining qualities.

In the previous 'separate entities view', beliefs and attitude are seen as interrelated, while they both directly influence behavioural intentions. On the other hand, evaluative beliefs are often summarised to determine someone's attitude towards an object. This latter view as well as the expectancy value model (in which the 'GS' represented the attitude, see Figure 1.1), makes the hypothesis that positive evaluated beliefs about advertising will result in a more favourable attitude towards advertising, which in turn will be positively related to advertising behaviour, more plausible (see Figure 3.1). This sequence: beliefs → attitude → (intention) → behaviour is also hypothesised in the theory on reasoned action of Fishbein and Ajzen (Van den Putte, 1993, p.6). This means that beliefs about information and entertainment are expected to influence attitude positively, while beliefs about irritation will be negatively related to this attitude (see also Figure 5.1 in Chapter 5).

#### [Demographics]

Based on the meta-analysis, the following demographics are expected to relate to advertising use, attitude and beliefs: age, sex, education, income and number of persons in a household. Based on the meta-analysis it is expected that younger people, women, people with less income, and people living in larger households are more positive

about advertising (attitude, beliefs) and use advertising more (in terms of less avoidance) than other people. No direction is specified with respect to the effect of education.

[Medium use]

The meta-analysis also showed that medium use is related to avoidance of advertising as well as to attention to advertising. People who watch television more than others, will not only avoid advertising more often but will pay more attention to it as well. The question is how to explain this effect. One reason is the nature of the relationships in the meta-analysis, which exclude indirect relationships. In this research project, medium use is defined by the time persons spend using this medium (duration) and their frequency of medium use.

[Medium: Pacing]

Media differ on many aspects. One of these aspects is 'pacing', which refers to the perceived control of moment of use and speed of use (Neijens & Smit, 1996, 1998; Van Raaij, 1991). As was described in Chapter 1, print media (or search media) are media with 'internal pacing': the users decide themselves at what moment and speed they use these print media. The broadcast media (or display media) on the other hand, are media with external pacing: it is the medium that controls the moment and speed of confrontation. In this research project, the different concepts will be measured for these different media.

### **Phases in the research project**

The research project started in February 1994 by determining the research domain and a global literature search. A year later this resulted in a more thorough search (the meta-analysis) and in-depth interviews (study I). The aim of both studies was to understand and define advertising use in order to develop the survey questionnaire. This survey (study II) was conducted in 1996 as a nation-wide telephone survey with a follow-up by mail. Study II aimed at comparing different measures for advertising use, comparing advertising use in different media and relating advertising use to users' evaluation of advertising and other user characteristics.

During the final year of this four year project, two smaller studies were conducted to indicate the relationship between general advertising use and awareness of specific advertisements. The first of these studies (study III) was conducted as a pilot study to compare different measures for awareness of specific advertisements. The other study (study IV), concerned measuring general magazine advertising use and reactions to specific advertisements (ad awareness). An overview of these different studies is given in Figure 3.2. The sections in which the designs and the results will be discussed are presented as well.

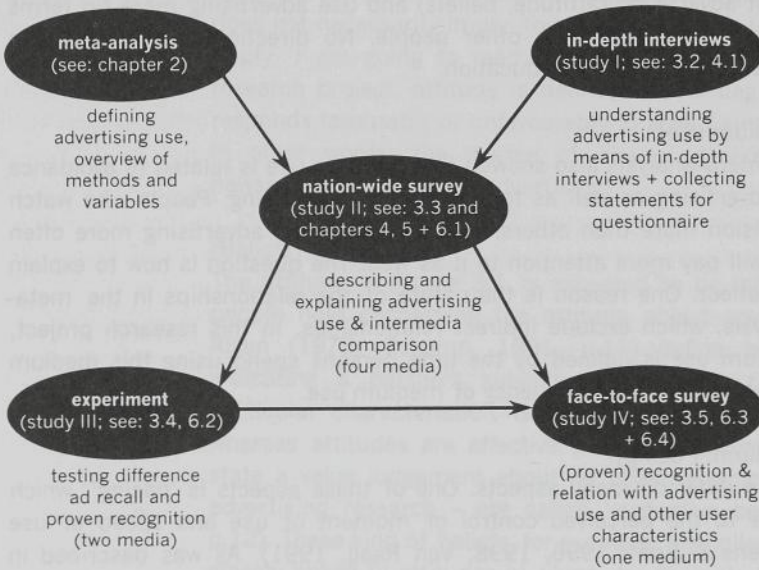


Figure 3.2: Overview of research projects (1994–1997)

## 3.2 Exploring advertising use (study I)

To explore the concept advertising use and to collect statements for the next studies, seven men and eleven women (varying in age from 12 to 74) were interviewed<sup>2</sup> for, on average, one and a half hours. These persons were friends or family of friends and were asked to participate in a study on media use. The in-depth interviews took place at these persons' homes in Haarlem (n=11), Beilen (n=3), Santpoort-Noord (n=2), IJmuiden (n=1) and Amsterdam (n=1). The reason for visiting these interviewees in their natural environment was to be able to see which media these people use, to ask for an example and to make them feel as comfortable as possible.

### Topics

A single pilot interview was held to develop the topic list. The starting point for this interview was what the interviewee understood by 'advertising' and what her general opinions were on this topic. After this, she was asked about her behaviour, feelings and opinions about advertising in different media: television, newspapers, magazines, outdoor and direct (non) mail.

During this interview it was apparent that it was difficult for her to talk about advertising, especially 'advertising in general'. Advertising was considered a topic that was not important enough to think about and it was difficult to think of examples. To make a person's advertising use more clear, the subsequent 18 interviews started with the

interviewees' use of media in general, followed by his or her regular use (habits). Then the topic advertising was introduced (see topic list in Appendix 2). This revised sequence of topics really enhanced the interviews.

### **Analysis**

The 18 interviews were taped and fully transcribed. The analysis consisted of three phases during which all the material was reviewed: 'the early steps' (coding), 'exploring and describing', and 'explaining and predicting' (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

During the first phase – 'the early steps' – the interviews were split up into different text fragments ('segments'). Each segment was then described by one or more codes based on the topic list (general codes) or nuances of these topics<sup>3</sup>. General codes were for example the medium (i.e. 'radio'), characteristics of interviewees ('profile'), 'television use', 'advertising use' or 'favourite television program'. The other codes, such as 'scanning', 'zapping', 'zipping', 'muting', 'go through' and 'irritation', described the general codes or consisted of factors that explained advertising use, for instance 'different commercial breaks'.

After this coding phase, the material was categorised by medium, type of advertising behaviour and reasons for this behaviour. The different segments were then summarised in more general statements per medium. Based on these statements, different types of advertising use were constructed, which described what people do with advertising when they are confronted with this commercial information while using the media for other reasons. For example, when they are casually confronted with commercials while watching a movie they can decide to watch one or more of the commercials or avoid them by zapping or by leaving the room.

During the third and final phase of the analysis, the segments were again analysed to list all factors that seemed to explain advertising use. The interviewees explained their use by the amount of free time they have to use media, the expectations they have concerning their medium use ("I want to see a movie – as a whole – and not just parts of it because of the commercial breaks"), the relevance and liking of advertising ('evaluation') and their situation of use, such as watching television alone or with others. They also named characteristics of the media or advertisements as explanation: the technical possibilities of the medium ("For television, you can't just turn the pages – as in a newspaper"), and content and scheduling of advertisements (see Smit (1995) for an example of the analysis).

### Summary Study I

The aim of this first study was to understand advertising use and to collect statements, which could be used in the next study. The different types of advertising use will be described in Chapter 4. This first study showed that the explanations of the interviewees were in line with the summary model of the meta-analysis.

An additional factor is the disruption of the expectations the interviewees had concerning their medium use. Advertising irritated them more (and would be avoided more) if they were watching television to see a specific program (as compared with watching "just to see what's on"). Another additional factor is the perception of free time, which depends on their working schedule and other commitments.

This pilot study also showed that it was difficult for the respondents to formulate an opinion on 'advertising in general'. The interviewees talked about their behaviour and opinions in terms of the medium in which advertising appears. This 'medium specificity' will be part of the next study in which the same questions are used for four media. This first study was also used to formulate the behavioural and belief statements of the second study, since most examples of belief statements in the previous chapter were based on studies outside The Netherlands.

## 3.3 Advertising use studied on a larger scale (study II)

Having an indication about how people perceive their advertising use in different media, the next phase of the research project was to measure and explain this use on a larger scale by means of a nation-wide survey. This survey aims to answer research questions 3, 4 and 5 of Table 1.2 (Chapter 1). This survey also aims to compare advertising use in four media (the sixth research question): television, radio, newspapers and magazines (intermedia comparison). These four media differ in terms of pacing. Newspapers and magazines are media with 'internal pacing': the users decide themselves at what moment and speed they use these print media. The broadcast media on the other hand (television and radio), are media with external pacing: it is the medium that controls moment and speed of confrontation.

### Method: CATI and follow-up by mail

Observation would be an appropriate method to measure actual (advertising) behaviour (Bronner, 1986; Horsley, 1986; Tyler Eastman & Newton, 1995). Beside costs and the influence of the interviewer ('spy'), this method is not appropriate for measuring not observable (mental) constructs such as attitudes and opinions (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). According to Swanborn (1987), a survey is appropriate when motives, attitudes, opinions, future plans and the like are being studied, and

when behaviour is being studied which took place in the past, or which takes place in situations to which the researcher has no access, and which is not to be manipulated. The questions with respect to use as well as evaluation can both be answered by means of a survey.

In this study, Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI) was used to contact the respondents (see further). To keep the interviews short (a maximum of 20 minutes), only one medium per respondent was included in the questionnaire; television, radio, newspapers or magazines were randomly assigned to the respondents. At the end of the telephone interview the respondents were asked to complete a mail questionnaire containing similar questions for the 'remaining' three media.

### Questionnaire

In a small pilot<sup>4</sup>, the different statements (based on the studies of the meta-analysis and the results of the first study) were tested. In this pilot, ten people completed a questionnaire with 53 different statements about 'advertising in general'. After this, these respondents were interviewed about their associations with the statements: whether they were thinking about a particular medium and whether the statements were clear to them. As was the case in the first study, these respondents associated advertising with a particular medium, mostly television. As a result, all survey questions concerning advertising use were measured in a 'medium specific' way. This means that all questions were applied to a specific medium (television, radio, newspapers or magazines) instead of measured for 'advertising in general'.

The survey questionnaire consists of 30 questions, which were similar for CATI and mail. These questions concerned medium use, advertising use, and belief statements. The CATI questionnaire had 21 extra questions, which were included in all versions and thus excluded from the mail version, namely: attitudes, general user characteristics and some questions about the most-recent advertising campaign for the Dutch beer *Grolsch*<sup>5</sup>. By means of the mail questionnaire, some questions were asked which were not part of the CATI questionnaire, namely: what programs respondents watched or listened to, what newspapers and magazines they read (titles), and date of completing the questionnaire. Main questions are translated and included in Appendix 3. All dependent and independent variables are listed in Table 3.1, including corresponding question number (Q.), version (CATI and/or mail) and level of measurement.

**Table 3.1: Overview of dependent and independent variables**

<b>dependent variables:</b>	<b>question number:</b>	<b>level of measurement:</b>
<b>advertising use</b>		
number of ads noticed (It)	Q.11 (CATI and mail) *	ratio
attention drawn (It)	Q.12 (CATI and mail) *	0–100 percent (interval)
3 or 5 behavioural statements	Q.13–19 (CATI and mail)	scale: 1–4 (ordinal)
paying attention to advertising	Q.30 (CATI and mail)	scale: 1–4 (ordinal)
<b>evaluation</b>		
5 positive and 5 negative belief statements	Q.20–29 (CATI and mail)	scale: 1–5 (ordinal)
attitude toward advertising on television, radio, in newspapers and magazines	Q.31–34 (CATI)	scale: 1–5 (ordinal)
<b>measures with respect to the Grolsch campaign</b>		
unaided brand recall	Q.36 (CATI)	nominal
aided brand recall	Q.37 (CATI)	yes/no (nominal)
advertising medium (unaided)	Q.38 (CATI) **	nominal
recall television commercial (ad recall)	Q.39 (CATI) **	nominal
likeability television commercial	Q.40 (CATI)	scale: 1–10 (interval)
recall print advertisement (ad recall)	Q.41 (CATI) **	nominal
likeability print advertisement	Q.42 (CATI)	scale: 1–10 (interval)
<b>independent variables:</b>		
<b>medium</b>		
internal pacing	version of questionnaire	newspapers, magazines
external pacing	version of questionnaire	television, radio
<b>user (general)</b>		
frequency of medium use (days per week/month)	Q.1 (CATI and mail) ***	interval
duration of medium use	Q.2 (CATI and mail)	hours/minutes (ratio)
last time medium use (It)	Q.3–7 (CATI and mail) *	nominal
duration of medium use (It)	Q.8 (CATI and mail) *	hours/minutes (ratio)
product use (beer)	Q.43 (CATI)	nominal
size of household	Q.44 (CATI)	ratio
age	Q.45 (CATI), Q.21 (mail)	ratio
employment	Q.46–47 (CATI)	nominal
hours of employment (per week)	Q.48 (CATI)	ratio
education	Q.49 (CATI)	nominal
sex	coded by interviewer (CATI), Q.22 (mail)	nominal
<p>It = these questions referred to the last time the respondent was using the medium; * = first routing in the CATI as well as the mail questionnaire: if the respondent answered 'I don't know', refused to answer or answered 'I saw/heard nothing at all', the subsequent question (with *) was skipped. This routing concerned Q.3 to Q.12. ** = second routing in the CATI questionnaire: subsequent questions were only asked to the respondents who recalled the medium in which the advertisement appeared (Q.38); *** = third routing in CATI as well as mail questionnaire: if the respondent answered 'never' to use the medium, the interviewer skipped to Q.20.</p>		

Also the sequence of questions is shown in the previous table. After the questions about media use in general (Q.1–2), several questions were asked about the respondent's last time media use ('It') (Q.3–8). This was done to make someone's media use more clear and, moreover, to help them to recall their advertising use (Q.11–12). After all, the first study showed that it was difficult for the respondent to recall his or her exposure to advertising.

In an attempt to enhance respondents self-reported rate of exposure to the media (which are often perceived by them as a set of low-salience behaviours), Price and Zaller (1993) conducted a series of split-sample experiments on whether it is preferable to query respondents about their use of a given medium in a average or typical week, or last week. Results indicated that the 'typical week' versions produced higher mean rates of reported media use. According to Clancey (1992) average viewing is more subject to over-estimation of actual behaviour than recent or 'last time viewing'. The reason is that 'average' allows people to express an idealised view of themselves. In her study, a higher proportion of respondents reported that they on average switch channels more often than they actually did the last evening they viewed. The same over-estimation was found for watching programs. In order to minimise over-estimation in our study and make medium use more salient, respondents were asked about the last time they were using the medium<sup>6</sup>.

### **Organisation fieldwork**

The fieldwork for CATI<sup>7</sup> was a co-operation between the University of Amsterdam, Department of Communication, and the Free University in Amsterdam, Department of Methodology. The research project of the latter department tried to motivate and train interviewers in such a way that non-response due to refusal to participate would be reduced (Pondman, 1998). This project had an experimental design with three conditions of 12 interviewers each. The first group of interviewers was encouraged to persuade subjects and to develop persuasion strategies themselves ('motivation group'). The second group of interviewers followed a task-related training in which they were taught how to use persuasion strategies ('training group'). The third group of interviewers was the control group. These interviewers only received the minimum necessary instructions about the CATI questionnaire. These instructions were given to all interviewers. The interviewers were all female first year students at the University of Amsterdam following their introductory course in mass communication (first trimester of 1995/1996).

In general, the interviewers in the motivation as well as the training group indeed obtained lower refusal rates than the control group. However, there appeared to be no significant difference between the interviewers of the motivation group and the interviewers of the training group with respect to the number of refusals (for more details, see: Pondman, 1998).

The interview started with the interviewers introducing themselves, the University of Amsterdam, and the research topic. After this, the respondent was asked to participate<sup>8</sup>. If agreed, the interviewer asked the questions from one of the four versions of the questionnaire. The versions were randomly assigned to the interviewers.

The data were collected on weekdays in the winter of 1995/1996 (December 7 – February 8) at the Free University. During a period of 27 evenings (between 6 and 10 PM), a large number of computer generated telephone numbers were dialled (see next). After this 'CATI period', all mail questionnaires were sent to the respondents who agreed to complete this second questionnaire (January 22 until February 19, 1996). Most questionnaires were sent back by the respondents before April 1, 1996<sup>9</sup>.

### Response

A total of 4737 computer generated telephone numbers were used<sup>10</sup>. In Table 3.2 the results of dialling are shown. A 'broken connection' means that the connection was broken before the interviewer was able to speak to the other person. In that case the interviewer immediately called back to be sure this was not a refusal. A number was 'inaccessible' when the interviewer had tried five times. Some respondents were not able to communicate with the interviewer, because they had a hearing problem or did not speak the Dutch language ('hearing or language problem'). In that case, the interviewer was not allowed to translate the questionnaire on her own and stopped the interview. The other possibilities for a number were: a business line, a fax, non-existent or 'other'.

**Table 3.2: Results of dialling the randomly generated telephone numbers<sup>11</sup>**

results:	n	%
(a) participation	1105	23.3
(b) refusal	1057	22.3
(c) broken connection	37	0.8
(d) hearing or language problem	60	1.3
(e) inaccessible	677	14.3
(f) fax	106	2.2
(g) business	240	5.1
(h) non existent	1311	27.7
(i) other	123	2.6
<b>total</b>	<b>4737</b>	<b>100</b>

As is shown in this table, 1057 persons refused to participate (22.3%) and 1105 (23.3%) participated in the survey. Of these 1105 interviews, 40 interviews were removed because they were partly completed (item non response of more than 75% of the questions) or because it appeared that the respondent had been interviewed before<sup>12</sup>. Of these remaining respondents (n=1065), 849 respondents (79.9%) were willing to fill in the mail questionnaire with questions about the

other three media. 541 respondents (50.8% of 1065) completed and returned this questionnaire. Unfortunately, 6 questionnaires were unusable because the telephone numbers on the back were unreadable (which was needed to match the data of the mail questionnaire with the CATI data). For an overview of the net samples per medium and per method, see Appendix 4. To see whether the composition of the sample matches the Dutch population, some background variables were compared. Table 3.3 shows the response of the (CATI) sample (n=1065) divided up according to a number of background variables.

**Table 3.3: (CATI) Sample versus Dutch population**

<b>background variables:</b>	<b>sample:</b>		<b>Dutch population:</b>	
	<b>n</b>	<b>% of total</b>	<b>N (x 1000)</b>	<b>% of total</b>
<b>sex</b>				
men	453	42.5	7662.3	49.4
women	612	57.5	7831.6	50.6
total	1065	100	15493.9	100
<b>age</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>% of total</b>	<b>N (x 1000)</b>	<b>% of total</b>
0–19 years of age *	51	4.8	3771.6	24.3
20–39 years of age	428	40.3	4938.0	31.9
40–64 years of age	434	40.9	4723.4	30.5
65–79 years of age	112	10.6	1579.4	10.2
80 years and older	36	3.4	481.5	3.1
total	1061	100	15493.9	100
<b>education</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>% of total</b>	<b>N (x 1000)</b>	<b>% of total</b>
primary school	59	5.6	1556	14.8
lower g.s.e. ('mavo')	118	11.2	1111	10.6
higher g.s.e. ('havo')/pre-u.e. ('vwo')	119	11.3	670	6.4
lower voc.e. ('lbo/vbo')	175	16.7	1718	16.4
intermediate voc.e. ('mbo')	229	21.8	3390	32.3
higher voc.e. ('hbo')	221	21.0	1442	13.7
university	106	10.1	592	5.6
other	24	2.3	–	–
total	1051	100	10498	100

source Dutch population: CBS, 1997 (base=1996); \* = contrary to the CBS statistics, the sample consists of people aged 12 years and older; g.s.e. = general secondary education, u.e. = university education, voc.e. = vocational education; test results of sample ( $f_s$ ) versus Dutch population ( $f_e = \% \text{ Dutch population} * n \text{ sample}$ ): sex  $\chi^2(1)=20.02$ ,  $p=0.00$ ; age  $\chi^2(4)=227.81$ ,  $p=0.00$ ; education  $\chi^2(6)=198.38$ ,  $p=0.00$ .

A comparison of the sample figures with the composition of the Dutch population shows that the sample is fairly representative. The sample deviates because fewer men, 'young respondents' and 'respondents with a lower education' responded. This result is in line with other research on characteristics of non response due to refusals; the refuser appeared to be older (Smith, 1989), and male (Brehm, 1993).

Within the sample, we compared the group of respondents who did not return the extra mail questionnaire ('only phone') with the group who did ('phone & mail') (see Table 3.4).

**Table 3.5: Who returned the mail questionnaire? (row percentages)**

background variables:	only phone		phone & mail	
	n	%	n	%
<b>sex</b>				
men	242	53.4	211	46.6
women	288	47.1	324	52.9
total	530	49.8	535	50.2
<b>age</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
12-19 years	28	54.9	23	45.1
20-39 years	217	50.7	211	49.3
40-64 years	195	44.9	239	55.1
65-79 years	57	50.9	55	49.1
80 years and older	29	80.6	7	19.4
total	526	49.6	535	50.4
<b>education</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
primary school	38	64.4	21	35.6
lower g.s.e. ('mavo')	57	48.3	61	51.7
higher g.s.e. ('havo')/pre-u.e. ('vwo')	55	46.2	64	53.8
lower voc.e. ('lbo/vbo')	94	53.7	81	46.3
intermediate voc.e. ('mbo')	106	46.3	123	53.7
higher voc.e. ('hbo')	106	48	115	52
university	51	48.1	55	51.9
other	12	50	12	50
total	519	49.4	532	50.6

g.s.e. = general secondary education, u.e. = university education, voc.e. = vocational education; test results: sex  $\chi^2(1)=4.22$ ,  $p=0.04$ ; age  $\chi^2(4)=18.44$ ,  $p=0.00$ ; education  $\chi^2(7)=8.09$ ,  $p=0.33$ .

This table shows that men, the youngest and the oldest age groups, and the lower educated respondents were less inclined to fill in the mail questionnaire. These differences were small and, moreover, not significant for education.

We checked if the differences in response figures were due to Pondman's training of the interviewers. This was not the case<sup>13</sup>, the only exception being the percentage of respondents who were *inclined* to fill in the mail questionnaire. It appeared that the motivated interviewers persuaded relatively more respondents to fill in the extra mail questionnaire than the interviewers of the other two conditions ( $\chi^2(2)=6.24$ ,  $p=0.04$ ), which did not result in a higher percentage of respondents who actually returned the questionnaire.

### Summary Study II

The results of this study – which will be described in Chapters 4 and 5 – leaves two questions unanswered. The first question that needs further research is how to measure use of a specific advertising campaign. In the CATI part of this study, several questions were asked about an advertising campaign. Results, however, show that a lot of respondents were not able to recall their exposure to the campaign, which means that only a few of them were able to answer the subsequent questions about the specific advertisements. This problem of recalling the specific advertisement will be described in Chapter 6. In order to test whether a visual cue would be a better method for measuring exposure to specific advertisements than verbal cues (which was used in the CATI questionnaire), an experiment was conducted (study III, Section 3.4). The other question is whether the belief statements of study II were too much in favour of television advertising instead of magazine advertising<sup>14</sup>. This problem is dealt with in study IV about magazine advertising (Section 3.5).

## 3.4 Measuring ad awareness (study III)

In March 1997, an experiment<sup>15</sup> was conducted to test the difference between ‘recall’ and ‘recognition’ of specific advertisements in order to choose an appropriate one for the next study. Based on study II, it was concluded that the respondents, who were not able to recall elements of the advertising campaign, could have been hindered by the verbal cue given in the telephone interview. A visual cue, which is used in ‘recognition’ measures, could have fitted the ad memory better (this problem and the results of study III will be described at length in Chapter 6).

### Hypothesis

The aim of the experiment is to test the difference between recall and recognition of television commercials and magazine advertisements. This experiment is partly based on Zielske’s (1982) two studies on the recollection of different types of advertisements. In his first study (n=400), recollection of television commercials was measured by means of telephone interviews. Zielske’s second study (n=400) on remembering magazine advertisements, consisted of in-home interviews. In both studies, ‘proven recognition’<sup>16</sup> as well as ‘day-after recall’<sup>17</sup> was used. Primarily in the second (magazine) study, recall understated the true memory of advertisements (average understatement of 29% (television study) and 62% (magazine study)<sup>18</sup>). Comparing the results of both studies, Zielske concludes that “day-after recall may penalise magazine ads relative to television commercials. If this is true, a masked-recognition form of measurement would be a safer technique to use than recall if magazine ads are to be compared with television

commercials in terms of remembrance and brand identification" (1982, p.22).

In study III, two measures were compared: recall versus recognition of specific advertisements. For both measures, the respondents were asked to prove their claim of seeing the ad before by describing elements of the advertisements ('proven ad recall') or to fill in the masked brand ('proven recognition'). These measures are compared for television commercials as well as magazine advertisements. For both media, it is expected that showing the respondents the masked advertisements ('recognition') will result in more correct claims than by giving them the brand name as a cue and asking them to describe the advertisement ('recall'). Moreover, this difference will be larger for the magazine advertisements.

### **Method and questionnaire**

During two days, respondents joined the experiment in small groups (2 to 10 respondents at a time). Every half hour, new respondents arrived and were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions. Both groups received the same first part of the questionnaire in which 'brand awareness' was measured for several product categories. For each product category the respondent was asked to list all brands for which he or she had seen a commercial on television. The same question was asked for magazines. By means of this open question, it would be possible to check whether general awareness of brands in a product category would influence the recognition or recall scores<sup>19</sup>. When finished, the respondents returned this questionnaire to one of the research assistants and received the second part. This part differs per condition. Respondents of the first group received the questions about '(proven) ad recall', while the respondents of the second group were shown the eight television commercials and eight magazine advertisements in which the brand name was masked ('proven recognition'). Finally, all respondents were asked to complete the third part with some background questions (see Table 3.5).

**Table 3.5: Questionnaire Study III**

<b>variable:</b>	<b>level of measurement:</b>
<b>part I: brand awareness (both groups)</b>	
products/services magazines: insurance, personal computers, jeans, cars, butter, chewing gum, facial cream, cigarettes	nominal (open question)
products/services television: tax free savings, cookies, cars, aspirin, cat food, mineral water, beer, employment agency	nominal (open question)
<b>part II: recall (group 1)</b>	
brands magazine ads: ABN/AMRO, Fujitsu, Lee, Peugeot, Becel, Sportlife, Dr. Van der Hoog, Philip Morris (products/services were listed as well as these brands)	dichotomous (yes/no), if yes, a description is asked (= 'proven ad recall')
brands television commercials: Spaarbeleg (AEGON), Verkade, Seat, Witte Kruis, Sheba, Sourcy, Brand, Randstad (products/services were listed as well as these brands)	dichotomous (yes/no), if yes, a description is asked (= 'proven ad recall')
likeability (for each ad asked whether the respondent liked it or not; if 'unknown' the respondent was asked to fill in an 'X')	interval (1–10)
<b>part II: recognition (group 2)</b>	
for each magazine ad shown, the respondent was asked to fill in the missing brand name (ABN/AMRO, Fujitsu, Lee, Peugeot, Becel, Sportlife, Dr. Van der Hoog, Philip Morris)	dichotomous (coded as right/wrong)
for each commercial shown, the respondent was asked to fill in the missing brand name (Spaarbeleg (AEGON), Verkade, Seat, Witte Kruis, Sheba, Sourcy, Brand, Randstad)	dichotomous (coded as right/wrong)
likeability (for each ad asked whether the respondent liked it or not; if 'unknown' the respondent was asked to fill in a 'X')	interval (1–10)
<b>part III: general</b>	
product use: per previous product/service: 'already bought/used', 'going to buy/use', 'I don't know yet', 'I'll never buy/use it'	nominal
sex	nominal
age	ratio

### Selection advertisements

In a pilot study, first year students (n=111) were asked to list their most frequently watched television programs and to list their most frequently read magazine titles. The top five television programs are: the evening news program at 6 and 8 o'clock (NOS, public broadcasting), a Dutch soap ('Goede tijden, slechte tijden'), the evening news program at 7:30 (RTL4, commercial broadcasting), and the X-files (a US serial about unsolved fictional mysteries). During the two weeks before the experiment, all commercial breaks around (and within) these programs were recorded. Also the top five magazine titles were bought, namely: the women magazines 'Viva' and 'Cosmopolitan', and the opinion magazines 'Nieuwe Revu', 'Elsevier' and 'Vrij Nederland'. Commercials or magazine advertisements were selected if it was possible to mask the brand name without garbling the image too much. This was especially difficult for television commercials in which the brand name was shown

too much (visual or auditory). Another selection criterion was to select diverse products or services<sup>20</sup>. After this selection, the magazine advertisements were pulled out of the magazines, masked and put in a plastic file. The commercials were selected, the brand name was masked by deleting short pieces of the commercials, and the commercials were put together in a reel.

### **Sample**

The respondents were recruited during the two days of this experiment. These respondents were communication students who had courses or were studying in the library. A total of 80 respondents joined the experiment. They were not paid for their participation. 67.5% of these respondents were women, and 32.5% were men. This division reflects the student population of Communication science at the University of Amsterdam. The respondents were on average 23 years of age. The two groups of 40 respondents each, do not differ in sex ( $\chi^2(1)=0.23$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) and age ( $t(78)=0.05$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

### **Summary Study III**

This study showed that measuring awareness of specific advertisements by means of recognition results in significantly higher correct claims than a measurement by recall, especially for magazine advertisements (see Chapter 6). Based on these results, the recognition method by means of a face-to-face research is chosen for the next magazine study.

## **3.5 Awareness of magazine advertisements (study IV)**

In order to answer the research question 'To what extent is (claimed) advertising use related to awareness of specific advertisement?', a fourth study was conducted. By means of a face-to-face survey, all questions about general advertising behaviour, attitude and beliefs, medium use and demographics as well as (proven) recognition of advertisements were measured for one medium (magazines).

### **Method**

All respondents were asked to complete a structured questionnaire in the presence of the interviewer. After this questionnaire, the respondents were asked to go through the magazine and indicate for each advertisement (of which the brand name was masked) whether they had seen this ad before. Moreover, they were asked to fill in the missing brand name as some proof of this recognition ('proven recognition').

This method of going through a magazine, page by page, is called a copy-test. The copy-test was developed by Politz and applied in the United States in the late fifties. This method is often applied, for instance in the Infratest in Germany (1968, 1969) and the Dutch

research projects of Cebuco (1985) and the Advertising Reaction Research project or 'RRO' (Van der Molen & Robben, 1991), which used the English Starch Tested Copy method of 'noted scores' (Starch, 1989). The copy-test method is seen as one of the most appropriate methods for measuring 'advertising reach', a concept that matches 'awareness' in this study.

Based on a literature study, Bronner (1986) compared seven possible methods: the copy-test, the diary method<sup>21</sup>, observation<sup>22</sup>, the glue spot technique<sup>23</sup>, electronic devices<sup>24</sup>, rating scales<sup>25</sup>, and other methods such as the tachistoscope<sup>26</sup> and a view data panel<sup>27</sup>. The conclusion of this study was that especially the copy-test and the diary method are the most appropriate for measuring advertising reach. The copy-test is fairly intensive and therefore expensive. The diary method on the other hand, is cheaper but has fewer methodological advantages than the copy-test method.

A subsequent pilot study (Bronner, 1987) showed that the copy-test method is fairly valid. Comparison of 'open eyes' by means of camera observation and claimed number of pages seen, showed that 60 percent of the claims were correct. In a similar study of Cebuco (1985), the correspondence between claimed number of pages seen and registered behaviour was even higher (90 percent). Another validating study is the study of Walter (1995), in which the eye movements of 50 readers were observed by a video camera. Correlation between these observation results and results of the copy-test appeared to be very high ( $r=0.92$ ) (see also Belson, 1986; Brown, 1990; Bunn, 1982; Kent, 1994).

### **Selection magazine titles and advertisements**

A total of fourteen magazine titles were used in this study, namely the five women magazines 'Libelle', 'Margriet', 'Flair', 'Viva', 'Yes', the three male oriented magazines 'Aktueel', 'Nieuwe Revu', 'Panorama', the three opinion magazines 'Vrij Nederland', 'Elsevier', 'HP/De Tijd', and the three gossips 'Privé', 'Story', 'Weekend'. These titles are the largest (in terms of reach and circulation) within the category 'general-interest magazines' in The Netherlands. Of all titles, four recent (subsequent) issues were present (two copies) at the research location<sup>28</sup>.

Four criteria were used to select the advertisements in these titles. First, the ad must have had a chance to be noticed; so the size of the ad had to be at least 50% of the page. Secondly, the ad must be targeted at a general audience. Thirdly, brands with a near-monopoly were not selected, because seeing the product would then automatically imply the brand name (for example: ads for the Dutch telecom organisation). The final criterion was the ease of masking the brand name without covering too much of the advertisement (50% of the ad must remain visible). A total of 369 advertisements were selected in the four issues of the fourteen magazine titles. The number of selected advertisements varied from 1 to 17 per issue.

### **Organisation fieldwork**

This study was a co-operation between the University of Amsterdam and SUMMO. The input of the latter organisation was to finance the entire fieldwork and the internship during which most of the data were conducted<sup>29</sup>. The first organisation was responsible for the content of the questionnaire. The fieldwork took place at NSS Testpoint in The Hague during four days in June, 1997.

### **Questionnaire**

The questionnaire consists of three parts (see Table 3.6). The first part had to be completed by the respondents themselves. In this part of the questionnaire, the questions about perceived magazine advertising use and evaluation of magazine advertising were listed (the belief statements were slightly different from the statements of study II, see note 14). Also some questions about magazine readership were asked. One of these questions was which magazine titles the respondents read frequently.

If one of the most recently read issue of these titles was present at the location, the copy-test procedure started (part II). For each selected advertisement in this number, the respondents were asked whether they had seen the ad before ('recognition'), what the brand name was ('proven recognition'), whether they sometimes use the advertised product or service ('product use'), and whether they are in general interested in advertisements for that specific product or service ('product-ad interest'). These questions were asked for each advertisement in that magazine. If a specific issue contained less than five advertisements, another recent issue of the same title was gone through.

When all questions for at least five advertisements per respondent were asked, the interviewer continued with part III of the questionnaire (demographics).

**Table 3.6: Questionnaire Study IV**

<b>variable:</b>	<b>level of measurement:</b>
<b>part I: evaluation, advertising use and medium use (completed by respondent)</b>	
attitude	ordinal (5 point scale)
belief statements: amusing, bargains, new ideas, too much, funny, beautiful, specific products, no credibility, all alike (9 items) (see Table A8.5 in the appendix)	ordinal (5 point scale)
paying attention to new, beautiful, irritating, funny ads and ads for interesting products (5 items) (see Table A8.2)	dichotomous
behavioural statements: looking thoroughly, looking briefly, skipping (3 items) (see Table A8.3)	ordinal (5 point scale)
attention normally drawn	interval (0–100 percent)
medium use: frequency	interval (1–7 days of the week)
medium use: most read title *	nominal
subscription or else	nominal
<b>part II: copy-test procedure (completed by interviewer for each ad)</b>	
recognition	dichotomous
proven recognition	dichotomous
likeability	interval (score: 1–10)
product-ad interest	dichotomous
product use	dichotomous
<b>part III: demographics (completed by interviewer)</b>	
sex	nominal
residence	nominal
age	ratio
education	nominal
size household	interval (number of persons)
net income per month (household)	ordinal (8 categories)
* the most read title was selected for part II	

### Sample

The respondents were selected in the street. Here, the interviewer showed the potential respondent an overview of the fourteen magazine titles (so called 'mastheads') and asked this person whether he or she regularly read one of these titles. If yes, this person was asked to join in a study on magazine advertising conducted by the University of Amsterdam. The sample was not selected randomly in order to keep the research costs low. To obtain an equal amount of men and women of different age groups, a quota sampling procedure was therefore used (see Table 3.7).

**Table 3.7: Respondents study IV**

	women (n=52)		men (n=48)		total (n=100)	
15–29 years of age	19	52.8%	17	47.2%	36	100%
30–50 years of age	18	51.4%	17	48.6%	35	100%
51–77 years of age	15	51.7%	14	48.3%	29	100%
mean age = 39.40						

A total of 100 respondents were selected. These respondents completed the first and third part of the questionnaire. Twelve respondents, however, did not answer the questions of the second part, because they did not read one of the recent four issues of one of the titles.

In the next table the sample of 100 respondents is compared with the Dutch population with respect to some background variables. This table shows that the sample deviates significantly in terms of age and education. Fewer young respondents, fewer elderly and more respondents with a higher education joined the survey.

**Table 3.8: Sample study IV versus Dutch population**

	sample (n=100)	Dutch population *
<b>sex</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>
men	48.0%	49.4%
women	52.0%	50.6%
<b>age</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>
0–19 years of age	6.0%	24.3%
20–39 years of age	52.0%	31.9%
40–64 years of age	35.0%	30.5%
65 years and older	7.0%	13.3%
<b>education</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>
primary school + lower g.s.e. ('mavo')	14.0%	25.4%
higher g.s.e. ('havo') /pre–u.e. ('vwo')	7.0%	6.4%
lower voc.e. ('lbo/vbo')	4.0%	16.4%
intermediate voc.e. ('mbo')	21.0%	32.3%
higher voc.e. ('hbo')	27.0%	13.7%
university	27.0%	5.6%

\* source Dutch population: CBS, 1997 (base = 1996). Education: g.s.e. = general secondary education, u.e. = university education, voc.e. = vocational education; test results of sample ( $f_e$ ) versus Dutch population ( $f_e = \% \text{ Dutch population} * \text{sample}$ ): sex  $\chi^2(1)=0.04$ ,  $p=0.99$ ; age  $\chi^2(3)=29.29$ ,  $p=0.00$ ; education  $\chi^2(5)=103.36$ ,  $p=0.00$ .

### Summary Study IV

Based on this final study, the complete conceptual model can be tested for magazine advertising. The results of this test will be presented in Chapter 6. It will be shown that respondents who are in general more positive about magazine advertising, (claim to) pay more attention to magazine advertising, and recognise more specific magazine advertisements than other respondents.

### 3.6 Summary of data sets

In this chapter, the designs of four different studies were described. The first study was conducted to explore the concept advertising use. Study III was used to test different measures. Because both studies aimed to select measures for the next study, only part of the results will be discussed in one of the subsequent chapters. The other two studies (study II and IV) were used to answer the research questions and test the conceptual model. The results of these studies will be presented in more detail in the next three chapters. Table 3.9 lists all studies in terms of data sets and sections in which the results will be presented.

Table 3.9: Overview studies on advertising use (AU)

	study I	study II	study III	study IV
<b>aim</b>	exploring topic	understanding and explaining AU	testing difference between recall and recognition	relating AU to recognition of specific ads
<b>media</b>	various	television, radio, newspapers, magazines	television, magazines	magazines
<b>sample</b>	n=18 age: 12+	n=1065 age: 12+ fairly representative sample of Dutch population	n=80 age: 18+ students	n=100 age: 15+ inhabitants of The Hague and surrounding area
<b>method</b>	in-depth interviews	survey: CATI with follow-up by mail	experiment	face-to-face survey, copy-test
<b>results</b>	Section 3.2, 4.1	Chapter 4 and 5, plus Section 6.1	Section 6.2	Section 6.3 and 6.4

## Notes chapter 3

- 1 Situation of use was partly included in the first qualitative study.
- 2 I thank *Marieke Tel*, who assisted me in collecting the data. She also used part of the interviews in her Master's thesis (Tel, 1995). Results of the interviews were described in Smit (1995) as well.
- 3 The coding of the interview segments was structured by means of Kwalitan 4.0; a computer program developed by the university of Nijmegen (The Netherlands) to analyse text fragments (Peters & Wester, 1990). This program facilitates various selections of interview fragments.
- 4 This pilot study was conducted by *Karin Schut*, during her internship at the Department of Communication, University of Amsterdam (April until August 1995; Schut, 1995).
- 5 I thank *Simone Maas* of the advertising agency FHV/BBDO, who assisted me in choosing the advertising campaign and gave me the opportunity to see the campaign in advance.
- 6 A recent Dutch study on media perception also made use of specific moments of media consumption (Platform'95, 1998). Respondents were asked to recall their yesterday's media consumption. Questions about media perception were then asked for a randomly chosen consumption moment. It was concluded that this kind of questioning enhances the memory of media perceptions. Furthermore, a vague measurement of attitudes and opinions could thereby be prevented.
- 7 CATI = Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing. One of the reasons for the smooth proceeding of the fieldwork was this CATI questionnaire, which was programmed by dr. *Wil Dijkstra* of the Department of Methodology, Free University in Amsterdam.
- 8 Most of the times, this was the first person answering the telephone. Only when the interviewer could hear that the respondent was younger than 18 years, she asked for an older person of the same household.
- 9 The coding of a few open questions and the data entry of all questions was done by *Natasja Dokter* during her internship at the Department of Communication, University of Amsterdam (January until May, 1996). She also used part of the data in her Master's thesis (Dokter, 1996).
- 10 The computer randomly generated a large amount of telephone numbers. It was not verified beforehand whether the selected numbers were real, in other words, whether they were distributed by the Dutch telecom organisation. Moreover, business numbers and fax numbers were not separated from the sample. The number selection was written by dr. *Jan de Ridder*, Department of Communication, University of Amsterdam, whose assistance I highly appreciate.
- 11 These figures deviate somewhat from the results of Pondman (1998, p.87). This difference is due to Pondman's focus on the refusal rate for each individual interviewer. In this study on advertising use, it did not matter whether a respondent was called back by the same or another interviewer ('transferred appointment' in Pondman's study).
- 12 These 'doubles' were due to the computer procedure we used to generate the telephone numbers. During the fieldwork it appeared that some numbers

appeared twice in the sample. If these respondents had completed the questionnaire twice (sometimes another version of it), the second data set was removed.

- 13 No significant differences were found for 'interviewer condition' by sex, age, education and most of the other variables. Oneway analysis showed that respondents interviewed by interviewers of the control group score on average little higher on 'attitude toward newspaper advertising' ( $F(2,961)=6.50, p=0.00$ ), 'entertainment of magazine advertising' ( $F(2,457)=3.56, p=0.03$ ), 'information television advertising' ( $F(2,500)=3.69, p=0.03$ ), and unaided recall of the television commercial (see note 11 of Chapter 6).
- 14 At this research phase, discussions took place about applying the belief statements in the written questionnaire of SUMMO (= Samenwerkingsverband voor de Uitvoering van Multi-Media Onderzoek', the organisation responsible for the standard readership survey in The Netherlands). A commission of SUMMO members evaluated in this respect the study II questionnaire. As a reaction to this evaluation, a pilot study was conducted in 1997 in which some of the belief statements were changed. Also two sequences were tested. Results of this test is shortly described in Appendix 5.
- 15 I thank *Mirjam Baars* and *Ester de Waal* who assisted me in collecting the data of study III. Part of the results of this study are used in their Master's thesis (Baars & De Waal, 1997). They also did a great job in collecting literature on measuring advertising awareness (ibid.).
- 16 In Zielke's study, 'proven recognition' is defined as the percentage of the respondents exposed to the commercial who said they remembered seeing it and who correctly identified the brand name, minus the corresponding percentage among those who had not been exposed to the commercial (Zielske, 1982, p.20). The advertisements shown were masked by deleting the brand name.
- 17 The 'day-after recall' procedure is as follows: the day after the program had been viewed (or the magazine had been read), the respondent was first asked whether he or she saw the commercial (or magazine ad) for a certain product category. If this respondent did not reply 'yes' or identified the brand correctly, he or she was then given a further aid by giving the brand name. If the answer was 'yes', the respondent was asked to describe the advertisement (after Zielske, 1982, p.20).
- 18 Zielske (1982) also compared the recollection of 'feeling ads' (which are advertisements based on emotional cues) with 'thinking ads' (based on logical arguments) for two media. Results show that day-after recall resulted in understatement of true memory, especially for the feeling ads.
- 19 One of the elements of Baars and De Waal (1997) was product involvement. The listed products and services of Table 3.5 vary in degree of product involvement and purchase motivation (the FCB-grid of Vaughn, 1986). Results, however, show no overall effect of product type.
- 20 This selection was based on the FCB-grid (see previous note).
- 21 A *diary* can be used to register the respondent's use of for instance the radio (as in the Dutch research for radio listening ratings ('CLO') or various readership moments (Novum, 1974). This latter Dutch research project aimed to measure

the opportunity that someone was confronted with an editorial page or an advertising page ('Pagina Konfrontatie Kans'). According to Kent (1994), diaries are distinguished by the fact that they capture data on behaviour longitudinally, that is on an individual basis over time. They require the respondent to complete an entry every time that behaviour occurs over the time period to which the diary refers. Examples are the studies of Van Meurs & Sijtsma (1993), Kalfs & Den Boon (1996), and Van Meurs (1996).

- 22 The *observation method* is a set of different techniques in order to register someone's actual behaviour. This observation can be done by means of other observers or 'spies', a (video) camera or similar techniques. According to Bronner (1993), observation is the most valid method of measuring behaviour, although this behaviour takes place in an unnatural situation. Examples are: Capocasa, Denon & Lucchi (1986), Horsley (1986), Tyler Eastman & Newton (1995), Cronin & Menelly (1992).
- 23 The *glue spot method* is a technique that enables the interviewer to see what pages are opened by the respondent and what pages are not. Before the respondent is asked to read a magazine or newspaper 'like he or she normally does at home', all or some pages are meticulously stuck together with a little bit of glue. Afterwards one can see what pages are still glued together.
- 24 By means of *electronic devices* it is possible to follow someone's reading behaviour. Examples of such devices are: little transmitters in the magazine or newspaper, eye-movement or eye-tracking techniques, stop clocks or other timers, buttons and hand sets (e.g. Miljard, 1992; Goodstein, 1993; Lord & Burnkrant, 1993; Olney, Holbrook & Batra, 1991).
- 25 *Rating scales* measure someone's claimed behaviour. Like in this dissertation study, respondents are asked to give an indication of their medium use by means of different scales.
- 26 A *tachistoscope* is a device that shows the respondent an advertisement very briefly. If the respondent is able to recall various elements of the advertisement, the assumption is that he or she must have seen this ad before.
- 27 In a *view data panel*, the panel members receive questions about for instance their viewing behaviour. Every evening they complete these questions on a computer screen, which has the character of an electronic diary.
- 28 The following Dutch publishing companies made this possible: *Admedia*, *Audax Media*, *Bonaventura*, *De Telegraaf Tijdschriften Groep*, and *De Weekbladpers*.
- 29 *Marjolein Moorman* did her internship at SUMMO and organised most of the fieldwork as part of her trainee period. I thank Marjolein for the great job she did: preparing the magazine titles, interviewing the respondents (assisted by *Anita Elberse*, *Manon Ferguson*, *Rogier Moorman* and *Maayke Schuitema*) and analysing part of the data which she used in her Master's thesis (Moorman, 1997). One of the hypotheses in this Master's thesis is that affinity for magazine advertising is the same for specific magazine titles and magazine advertising in general. In general, this hypothesis could not be rejected (Moorman, 1997).