# The Mere Presence of Choices and its Effects on Attitude-towards-the-Ad $(A_{ad})$ and Attitude-towards-the-Brand $(A_b)$

By

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#### **ABSTRACT**

Extensive literature has documented how having to choose from many choices can negatively affect our emotions as it brings additional cognitive costs, reduced motivations to choose, reduced subsequent actions, and reduced satisfaction. This phenomenon, often referred to as the choice overload theory, posits that when individuals are faced with having too many options, adverse consequences are observed. Realising this, is it possible for marketers to shape consumer's attitudes by controlling the number of choices? This study looks at this possibility from the perspective of exposure to advertisements, which involves mere exposure to extensivechoice environments. More specifically, it examines whether extensive-choice environments in an advertisement can impact a consumer's attitude-toward-the-ad  $(A_{ad})$  and attitude-toward-thebrand (A<sub>b</sub>), even without involving the decision-making process. An experiment was conducted among 120 Sunway University students where they were exposed to three pairs of two competing fictional brand's advertisements that contains a varying number of choices. The participant's affective feelings of A<sub>ad</sub> and A<sub>b</sub> are then recorded and evaluated. The resulting findings demonstrated that no occurrence of choice overload is observed in extensive-choice environments if a specific choice outcome was not required. However, a significant inverse effect of choice overload is recorded when choice sets are reasonably large. No significant effect is found however when the sets of choices are considerably small. We posit that choice overload operates at various levels depending on the degree of involvement of the decision maker, and the degree of significance the choice brings to the decision maker.

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#### **CHAPTER 1: Introduction**

In almost all aspects of our daily lives, we are presented with an increasingly abundance of choice. Compared to decades ago, we have more choices today in domains across products, careers, homes and even education (Schwartz, 2004; Scheibehenne, Greifeneder, & Todd, 2010). Our supermarkets for instance, have steadily increased their number of selections over the past decades—attaining an average of 30,000 items in 2000, 39,000 items in 2010 and more recently, 42,000 items in 2014 (Food Marketing Institute, 2014). Similarly, the introduction of online on-demand streaming services such as Netflix and Spotify allows us to not only access films and music anytime and anywhere, but also allowing us to choose what media to consume from a massive library of content. It is therefore not absurd to claim that we are increasingly spoiled with having the freedom to dictate what we choose, which raises the question—does this freedom come at a cost?

At face value, having the freedom and ability to select from a large set of options does seem to be a positive thing, especially since all humans share the universal goal of freedom and autonomy (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Classic economic models would suggest that these conditions will be favourable for the chooser, making it advantageous for both retailers and consumers to have larger assortments (Arnold, Tae, & Douglas, 1983; Baumol & Edward, 1956). After all, having the ability to choose does provide both instrumental and expressive value that allows for individualisation—allowing individuals to choose precisely what provides them the best satisfaction according to their own specific individual needs (Schwartz, 2004).

However, the reality of having an abundance of choice is seemingly not all that positive. As humans, we already engage in having to make plenty of decisions—both consciously and unconsciously—throughout the day and throughout our lives. They can range from relatively minor and less impactful decisions (e.g., what to eat; what to wear) to larger ones with significant

long-lasting effects (e.g., where do I invest; where should I live) (Newell, Lagnado, & Shanks, 2007). Likewise according to Iyengar (2011), some of these decisions require a great deal of cognitive effort, even to the point of it being agonising. Hence, having an increase in choices would only serve to add to the number of decisions we have to make in a day.

Furthermore, a growing number of literature has shown that having to choose in extensive-choice environments would incur detrimental effects. An abundance of choice as these researches indicate, seems to evoke negative feelings and carry additional cognitive costs to the chooser (Chernev, Bockenholt, & Goodman, 2015; Beneke, 2015). In an extensive choice environment, consumers are reportedly (1) less motivated to choose; (2) less likely to take subsequent actions; (3) less satisfied with their choices; and (4) less confident with their decisions (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000; Inbar, Botti, & Hanko, 2011; Beneke, 2015). This phenomenon is commonly referred to as *choice overload* or the *overchoice effect*, where the classic advantages of having an increased choice set is offset by the increase in cognitive complexity. The implications of these findings would thereby argue that having less choices, is indeed more.

#### 1.1 Problem Statement

The choice overload effect is often discussed in the context of decision-making and the decision-maker. Previous studies have mainly focused on participants being placed in an environment where a specific choice outcome was required. This study however, aims to explore the effects on consumers on the mere exposure to the presence of extensive-choice. Therefore unlike previous studies, participants in this study will merely be exposed to different choice set conditions, and no decision-making process will be required to take place.

The applications of the resulting findings can be applied in many different contexts, but most notably in brand building through advertisements (ads). A consumer's exposure towards brands are after all, largely influenced by their exposure towards the brand's ads, which have

shown to be able to play a central role or have a direct correlation in building brand image (Meenaghen, 1995; Najmi, Atefi, & Mirbagheri, 2012). As such, ads will therefore be used as our vehicle to examine if the mere presence of extensive-choice can elicit the choice overload effect. We examine this by measuring two specific outcomes, the consumer's Attitude-towards-the-Ad  $(A_{ad})$  and Attitude-towards-the-Brand  $(A_b)$ .

Despite extensive literature suggesting that having too many choices is capable of eliciting negative responses, very few studies to date has examined if the mere presence of choice is capable of evoking choice overload; and no studies have applied choice overload in the context of attitudes towards the ads and brands.

#### 1.2 Research Objectives

- To investigate if effects of choice overload are present in an extensive choice environment even if consumers are not required to make a choice.
- To investigate the relationship between the mere presence of extensive-choice and A<sub>ad</sub>.
- To investigate the relationship between the mere presence of extensive-choice and A<sub>b</sub>.

#### 1.3 Research Questions

This study is guided by the following research questions:

**RQ1** Is there a response towards an extensive-choice environments if consumers are not required to make a choice?

This study seeks to examine the effects of mere exposure towards extensive-choice environments where participants are not required to make a choice, and whether similar effects of choice overload are seen in this context.

#### **RQ2** Can the mere presence of extensive-choice environments affect $A_{ad}$ ?

This study aims to examine how extensive-choice environments affect consumer's evaluation and perceptions towards an ad, using Attitude-towards-the-Ad  $(A_{ad})$  as a measurable variable.

#### **RQ3** Can the mere presence of extensive-choice affect $A_b$ ?

This study also aims to examine how extensive-choice environments affect consumer's evaluation and perceptions towards the advertised brand, using Attitude-towards-the-Brand  $(A_b)$  as a measurable variable.

#### 1.4 Significance of the Research

The resulting findings of this study would have significant theoretical and practical implications to this field of research. Firstly, we build upon and add a new dimension to the existing literature of choice overload. That is, if the mere exposure of extensive choice is capable of eliciting choice overload effects.

Secondly, we identify if marketers and advertisers can use the number of choices as a variable in communicating a certain brand image. After all, marketers and advertisers often carefully plan, craft, arrange and utilise elements in ads in order to communicate a particular set of values for the brand. Having a deeper understanding of how choices affects consumer's perceptions may help marketers and advertisers fulfil their roles better.

#### **CHAPTER 2: Literature Review**

In this chapter, existing research on choice overload will be presented to give an in-depth overview of this field of research. We will also discuss and explore in detail on the two dependent variables: attitude-towards-the-ad  $(A_{ad})$  and attitude-towards-the-brand  $(A_b)$ .

#### 2.1 Choice Overload Theory

When the era of consumerism first began, the marketplace was devoid of the options and customisation that we see today. Technical limitations and simple factories prevented manufacturers from not only producing in mass, but also from being capable of offering options to consumers (Emblemsvåg, 2003). However, advancements in production and logistical methods seen during the periods from 1900s to 1930s altered the consumer marketplace significantly (Miller, 2009). Advertisements during that period began placing focus on product variety and assortment, marking a fundamental shift in the marketplace (Marchand, 1986). Since then, product variety and assortment size in the marketplace has been seeing consistent growth across decades—especially as advancements in technologies help to create more efficient production and logistical methods.

Traditional economic models see these proliferation of choices across all sectors of the marketplace as a favourable outcome, suggesting that these conditions are advantageous for both retailers and consumers (Arnold et al., 1983; Baumol & Edward, 1956). Of course, in many situations having the ability to choose produces greater advantages than not being able to (Geers et al., 2013; Patall, 2013). But recent researches have asserted that the benefits of increasing choice sizes is subject to diminishing returns, as benefits from each additional alternative becomes increasingly marginal (Chernev & Hamilton, 2009). After a certain point, the advantages of having an increased choice set is simply offset by the additional costs in cognitive complexity (Roberts & Lattin, n.d.).

These increase in cognitive complexity along with other adverse reactions brought about by an extensive-choice environment is what researchers commonly refer to as the choice overload theory (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000). Across the entire research body dedicated to this subject, this phenomenon has been found to be referred under multiple names and constructs, such as *choice overload*, the *overchoice effect*, and the *tyranny of choice* (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000; Gourville & Soman, 2005; Schwartz, 2004). Despite the different nomenclature, they all commonly refer to the adverse effects that surface when individuals are faced with having too many options. For sake of brevity, this study would henceforth refer to this phenomenon as *choice overload*.

A key element of the choice overload theory is assortment size, the question of what truly constitutes for an extensive-choice environment. Iyengar & Lepper (2000) described it as having "reasonably large, but not ecologically unusual number of options" (p. 996). The lack of an exact definition and a direct figure implies that what constitutes for an extensive-choice environment is highly contextual, and is dependent on the items being featured in the choice set. For instance, it might not be odd to expect thirty different kinds of shampoos in a supermarket, while conversely, it will be odd to see thirty different car models in an up-scale BMW showroom.

Recent developments in the choice overload theory was popularised by Iyengar & Lepper (2000). In their study, they exhibited that consumers were more likely to take part in subsequent purchasing behaviours when presented with lesser options. In their experiment, consumers were presented with either of two different booths selling jams that differs in the number of available choices: 24 options vs. 6 options. It was found that although consumers were initially more attracted towards the booth with a larger set of choices, more jams were subsequently sold in the booth with lesser number of options. This would therefore suggest that although having too many choices is initially capable of generating more interest and attraction, it however results in reduced subsequent purchasing behaviour.

Consumers are also found to be less satisfied with their decisions after having to choose in an extensive-choice environment — a situation where researchers label it as 'post-choice regret' (Botti & Iyengar, 2004; Carmon, Wertenbroch, & Zeelenberg, 2003; Gu, Botti, & Faro, 2013; Inbar, Botti, & Hanko, 2011). In a study by Inbar et al. (2011), participants were instructed to select a DVD of their choice from a collection of discs. These collections were either a large-set (30 DVDs) or a small-set (6 DVDs). The resulting findings from the study demonstrated that individuals in the large-set condition experienced heightened regret and a greater feeling of being rushed. As a result, they posit that larger sets of choices are more likely to necessitate a more hasty decision making process, thus creating a feeling of making a rushed decision and exacerbating the feeling of post-choice regret.

Next, Schwartz (2004) argue that the abundance of choice is among the many contributors to the observable decline of happiness in the United States (US). He posits that although autonomy and freedom is a much-valued societal trait in many societies, he argues that having excessive freedom, autonomy and self-determination can sometimes become a form of tyranny, negatively affecting our happiness over time. Despite an increasing engagement in acts of shopping, consumers are reportedly enjoying it less than before (Lane, 2000).

Several researchers have also identified a curvilinear relationship between assortment size and choice overload in their studies (Reutskaja & Hogarth, 2009; Shah & Wolford, 2007). That is, consumer's reactions are found to be negative towards both choice sets that offer little no alternative and those that offer too many alternatives. Meanwhile, choice sets that fits within the middle of these two extremes are found to be rated more positively instead. This supports existing implications by Geers et al. (2013) and Patall (2013) that offering choices is better than having no choice, while also supporting the assumption of the choice overload theory that having too many choices can result in adverse consequences.

A meta-analysis by Scheibehenne, Greifeneder, & Todd (2010) on the choice overload theory, however, suggests that the number of choice may after all, only have negligible effects on consumers. In their meta-analysis, they demonstrated that although a number of studies has shown the occurrence of choice overload, an equal amount of other studies have found no effects or inversely, find that an increase in choice can instead elicit positive feelings. Fifty published and unpublished experiments were aggregated and their effect-sizes combine. The resulting findings found that the overall mean effect size across the experiments were close to zero. As a result of these somewhat inconsistent findings of choice overload across studies, Scheibehenne et al. (2010) thus argue that there are several preconditions that are required prior to the occurrence of choice overload. Their study, however, fail to define these preconditions and left it open for future research.

Most recently, further meta-analyses were conducted to create a more cohesive understanding of when and where choice overload do occur. Building upon previous studies, Chernev, Bockenholt, & Goodman (2015) aimed to identify the four key factors or preconditions for choice overload to occur. In their research, they identified and concluded these factors as: (1) choice set complexity; (2) decision task difficulty; (3) preference uncertainty; and (4) decision goal—all of which has shown to facilitate the occurrence of choice overload.

From the literature gathered during this research, it is found that the effects of choice overload during mere exposure towards extensive-choice environments are rarely discussed. Similarly, choice overload have never been applied in the context of ads. Henceforth, we propose that this is a gap in the research of choice overload theory that is worth exploring as it provides significant theoretical and practical implications.

#### 2.2 Attitude-toward-the-Ad $(A_{ad})$ and Attitude-toward-the-Brand $(A_b)$

In the subject of advertising, attitudes function as a popular measure because they are found to not only be useful in predicting consumer behaviours (Mitchell & Olson, 1981), but also due to the richness and availability of various theoretical frameworks for the purpose of studying attitudes. Among the many attitudinal constructs available to measure attitudes towards ads and brands are: attitude-toward-the-ad ( $A_{ad}$ ) and attitude-toward-the-brand ( $A_{b}$ ).

Attitude-toward-the-Ad  $(A_{ad})$ 

Attitude-toward-the-ad ( $A_{ad}$ ) is a framework model defined as "a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a specific advertising stimulus during a particular exposure situation" (Lutz, 1985).

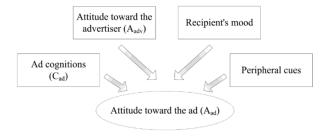


Figure 2.1: Antecedents of A<sub>ad</sub> (Najmi et al., 2012)

In a study by Lutz, Mackenzie, & Belch (1983), four antecedents of  $A_{ad}$  were identified, which are (1) ad cognitions, (2) existing attitudes towards the advertisers, (3) the viewer's mood during the exposure and (4) peripheral cues. This study primarily focuses on peripheral cues, which have been demonstrated to have a direct and significant impact on  $A_{ad}$  and  $A_{b}$  (Lord, Lee, & Sauer, 1995). It refers to the sources' information which are not related to the actual message being communicated. In our study, the choice conditions are therefore a form of peripheral cue for the viewer. To maintain a consistent result, it is important to maintain the consistency of the other antecedents to avoid unwanted external influences on  $A_{ad}$  when conducting the study.

Given a similar stimuli,  $A_{ad}$  has been demonstrated to vary between different contexts and cultures (Christian, Zdenek, & Lucie, 2014). In Christian et al. (2014) research on advertising-in-general ( $A_g$ ) that encompasses three different countries (US, Germany and Ukraine) with varying economic and cultural backgrounds, it has been shown that cultural values can exert large influence on the results of  $A_g$  and by extension  $A_{ad}$  (since they are both directly correlated). For instance, respondents from Germany were noted to be more pessimistic than respondents from US, who are more optimistic. The differences, they argued, were stemmed from the difference in Orthodox and Atheistic beliefs compared to other forms of beliefs. Therefore it is important to note that the results of our study may only be limited to our scope and may not necessarily be the same in other context and culture.

#### Attitude-toward-the-Brand $(A_h)$

According to Najmi et al. (2012), attitude-toward-the-brand (A<sub>b</sub>) is defined as "[the] audiences' affective reaction towards the advertised brand". In other words, it refers to the audiences' perception on the quality of the brand in polar opposites ie. good-bad, favourable-unfavourable, and etc. (Lutz et al., 1983).

In a study by Lutz et al. (1983),  $A_{ad}$  tends to act as a mediating variable for other measures of advertising effectiveness, such as  $A_b$ . In a cascading form of influences, Lutz et al. (1983) demonstrated that  $A_{ad}$  acts as a mediator and antecedent to  $A_b$  in three out of four hypotheses. Hence our decision to utilise these two variables together (as opposed to just  $A_b$ ) in our measure against the presence of choice in ads.

Our study mainly focuses on the reciprocal mediation hypothesis (RMH) of  $A_{ad}$ , whereby it is said that  $A_{ad}$  and  $A_b$  have direct influence on one another. It is also noted that the correlation between  $A_{ad}$  and  $A_b$  becomes stronger when the brand is unfamiliar (Najmi et al., 2012). To present a stronger result, it is hence important that only unfamiliar or fictional brands are used. As familiar, more common brands may carry preexisting notions that may affect the results.

#### 2.3 Conceptual Framework

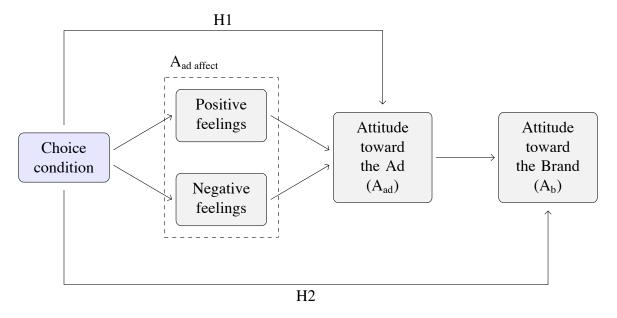


Figure 2.2: Conceptual framework for choice conditions on Aad and Ab

A conceptual framework derived from studies by Spears & Singh (2004) and Najmi et al. (2012) was developed for the purpose of this research. The models from the aforementioned studies were simplified, and the predictor variable relevant to this study—choice conditions—was integrated into the model as moderators of affective feelings, A<sub>ad</sub> and A<sub>b</sub>. Figure 2.2 shows the conceptual framework for choice conditions on A<sub>ad</sub> and A<sub>b</sub>.

From the framework, two testable hypotheses (H1 and H2) were developed to give this study a more specific focus. While choice overload theory posits that an increase in number of choices can intensify overall negative feelings, these observations are often recorded in a post-choice environment. Because this study is performed in the context of mere exposure to the number of choices, non-directional, two-tailed hypotheses were developed instead.

 $H1_a:=Attitude\ towards\ the\ ad\ (A_{ad})$  is impacted by the number of choices present in the ad

 $H2_a := Attitude towards the ad (A_b)$  is impacted by the number of choices present in the ad

## **CHAPTER 3: Methodology**

#### 3.1 Stimulus

Stimulus ads were presented to the respondents with varying characteristics. Firstly, only fictional brands are to be used in these six ads to strengthen the causal relationship of  $A_{ad}$  and  $A_b$ . The reciprocal mediation hypothesis infers that in a given situation where the viewer is unfamiliar with the brand,  $A_{ad}$  takes precedent and helps viewers to form cognitions and attitudes towards the advertised brand (Najmi et al., 2012).

These stimulus ads presents various choice set conditions, and are crafted based on Chernev et al.'s (2015) factors to choice overload. That is, to strengthen the occurrence of choice overload, the choice sets should have high choice set complexity (no dominant option), high preference uncertainty and high decision task difficulty. As a result, the difference in choices will primarily be based on trivial differences, such as colours, shapes, and etc. Thirdly, efforts to main consistency among the antecedents of A<sub>ad</sub> as defined by Lutz et al. (1983) was taken to avoid unwanted external biases on the results.

The advertised product types in these stimulus ads were either: (1) smartphones; (2) ciders; or (3) shampoos. Each product type have two ads each, one of which is a smaller set condition, while the other being a larger set condition. In certain cases, the discrepancies between number of choices can be small (e.g., difference of one) or it can be big (e.g., difference of eighteen choices). Table 3.1 illustrates the experimental conditions.

Table 3.1: Choice conditions in stimuli

Choice set discrepancy	Product Type	Choice set	Number of Choices
Tiny	Shampoo	Larger	2
Timy	Shampoo	Smaller	1
Small	Ciders	Larger	5
Jinan	Olders	Smaller	3
Large	Smartphones	Larger	20
Lange	omar opnones	Smaller	2

#### 3.2 Participants

The targeted participants for this study were Sunway University students. To recruit participants, the simple random sampling method was used. Participants were either sent an online copy of the experiment, or were invited to participate in the experiment at a computer lab in the campus. The data collection was conducted for a total period of one (1) week. At the end of the data collection, a total of 137 responses were obtained, but only 120 were considered valid as the remaining were incomplete.

#### 3.3 Procedures

Primary data collection was performed using the quantitative technique. Regardless of whether the experiment was sent online or conducted at the computer lab, all participants were required to go through the same procedures via a computer. The experiment is a repeated-measure design, whereby all participants are subjected to all different experimental manipulations and conditions. This helped to reduce extraneous variables (eg. age, IQ, mood, etc) which gives greater sensitivity to the manipulated variable.

Consenting participants were told that they would be participating in a study that aims to investigate how certain peripheral cues may affect the viewer's attitude-towards-the-ad  $(A_{ad})$  and attitude-towards-the-brand  $(A_b)$ . The actual research objectives of the study is not revealed at this point to prevent biases.

After they have completed reading the instructions and consented to be a part of this study, participants were instructed to look at a series of ads (for a total of six ads). The questionnaire was designed in a way that the ads can only be seen for a total of 10 seconds each. After each subsequent ad, the participant is directed to answer two sets of measures, one pertaining to  $A_{ad}$  and the other to  $A_b$ .

At the conclusion of the experiment, participants were debriefed and the actual research objectives are revealed. The participants were instructed not to disclose the actual research objectives to other potential participants to minimise the risk of introducing biases to the data.

#### 3.4 Scales

Each ad is followed by two sets of scales that measures  $A_{ad}$  and  $A_b$  respectively: the  $A_{ad}$  Affect Index and  $A_b$  Affect Index.

 $A_{ad}$  Affect Index. We measured participant's feelings and evaluations towards  $A_{ad}$  with an inventory adopted from Madden, Allen, & Twible (1988) that contains psychometric properties. Four positive and two negative adjective terms are listed in the inventory to measure viewer's feelings towards the stimulus: good, cheerful, pleased, soothed, irritated and repulsed. Two items from the original inventory, stimulated or insulted were removed as the researcher felt they were not relevant to the experimental manipulations. Participants were asked 'Did the ad make  $you\ feel\ [adjective]$ ?' for each adjective on a likert-scale that ranges from 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much so). To calculate the final measure, the two negative adjective terms were reverse

scored and the scores of all six adjective terms were combined together to generate a final  $A_{\text{ad}}$  score for each participant.

 $A_b$  Affect Index. For the scales that measures participant's feeling feelings and evaluations towards  $A_b$ , this research adopted Spears & Singh's (2004) item pool of five opposing pairs of adjectives: unappealing/appealing, bad/good, unpleasant/pleasant, unfavourable/favourable and unlikable/likable. Each participant is required to rate the  $A_b$  Affect Index on a 7-point semantic differential scale. A final score was calculated for each participant by combining the scores of all five adjective terms.

Data resulting from the study was then processed in SPSS, where statistical analysis was performed to evaluate and make meaning of the data.

## **CHAPTER 4: Findings and Discussion**

The resulting findings from the experiment obtained via the online questionnaire is statistically analysed in this chapter. From a total of 137 respondents, only 120 (87.5%) were valid to this study as the remainder were incomplete (n=17). All results of the participants' (N=120) data is reported in an aggregate format and will never in anyway disclose the identity of any single participant.

### 4.1 Demographics of the sample

Demographics data of the sample was recorded and reported because cultural differences has been suggested to have significant moderating effects on an individual's ad perception (Christian et al., 2014; Usman et al., 2010; De Run & Gray, 2005).

#### Gender

Based on the reported data, a total of 67.5% (n=81) participants were females, while the remaining 32.5% (n=39) were males. Figure 4.1 illustrates this distribution.

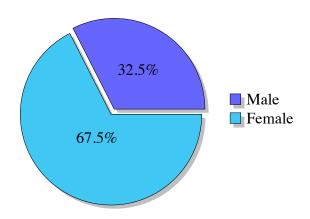


Figure 4.1: Percentage of participants based on gender

### Nationality

As shown in Figure 4.2, 90.8% (n=109) of the respondents were reported Malaysians while the remaining 9.2% (n=11) were from other countries.

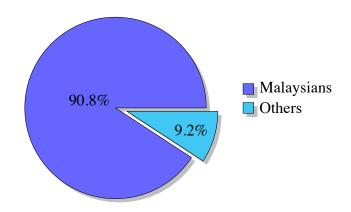


Figure 4.2: Percentage of participants based on nationality

#### Race

Based on the reported data, Chinese constitutes the majority of the respondents at 89.2% (n=107), followed by Others at 5.8% (n=7), Indians at 3.3% (n=4) and Malays at 1.7% (n=2). Figure 4.3 illustrates this distribution.

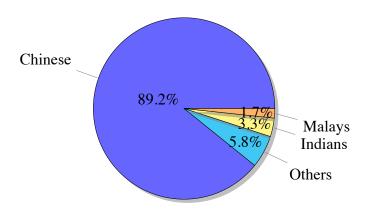


Figure 4.3: Percentage of participants based on race

#### Religion

Figure 4.4 shows the distribution of the respondents based on their reported religion. A large majority of the respondents are reported Buddhists at 57.5% (n=69), followed by Christians at 24.2% (n=29), Others at 15.8% (n=19) and Muslims at 2.5% (n=3).

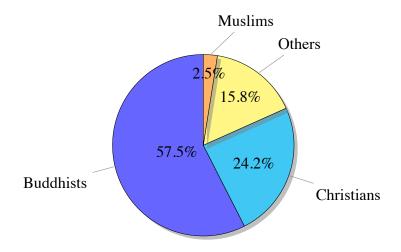


Figure 4.4: Percentage of participants based on religion

#### Age

The overall reported age of the sample ranges between 16 to 24 years old with a *median* age of 21 years old. 75% of the participants (n = 90) fall within the IQR range of 20–22 years old. Figure 4.5 display the frequency distribution of ages in the sample.

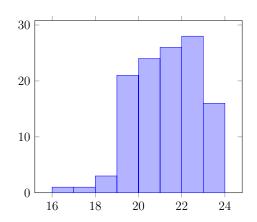


Figure 4.5: Frequency distribution of participant's age

#### 4.2 Reliability of Scales

A total of two scales were used to measure the effects of extensive-choice environments on the participant's attitudes towards the ad and brand: the  $A_{ad}$  affect index, and the  $A_b$  affect index, adopted from Madden et al. (1988) and Spears & Singh (2004) respectively.

The  $A_{ad}$  affect index which measured  $A_{ad}$  consisted of four positive items ( $\alpha=.89$ ) and two negative items ( $\alpha=.68$ ). Meanwhile, the  $A_b$  affect index which measured  $A_b$  consisted of five items ( $\alpha=.96$ ) The following Table 4.1 illustrates the overall reliability of the scales used in this study.

Table 4.1: Overall reliability of scales

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha, $\alpha$	Number of Items
$A_{ad ext{-positive affect}}$	.89	4
A <sub>ad-negative</sub> affect	.68	2
$A_b$	.96	5

#### 4.3 Shampoos: Averagely Tiny Choice Sets

In this pair of ads that advertises two separate brands of volumizing shampoos, the discrepancies between the conditions is significantly minimized. The small-set condition contained a total of one (1) choice, while the large-set condition contained one extra for a total of two (2) choices. The resulting difference of choices is  $1 \ (\Delta = 2 - 1 = 1)$ . Each choices are differentiated on the size of the shampoo bottle.

A paired sample dependent t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the dependent variables that were subjected to different conditions. The results of the t-test is tabulated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: t-test results comparing choice conditions on A<sub>ad</sub> and A<sub>b</sub>

Variable	Choice set	$\bar{x}$	N	SD	t-test	df	p-value
	Larger $(x=2)$	14.47	120	4.84	-1.475	119	1.49
A <sub>ad</sub> -positive affect	Smaller $(x = 1)$	15.23	120	5.40	-1.475		.143
<u> </u>	Larger $(x=2)$	5.81	120	2.84	0.967	119	.387
A <sub>ad-negative</sub> affect	Smaller $(x = 1)$	6.04	120	3.10	-0.867		
	Larger $(x=2)$	24.66	120	6.11	0.000	119	.412
$A_{ad}$	Smaller $(x = 1)$	25.18	120	6.41	-0.823		
$A_{\mathrm{b}}$	Larger $(x=2)$	18.70	120	6.64	0.017	119	.416
	Smaller $(x = 1)$	19.24	120	6.58	-0.817	119	.410

As a result of the t-test, we can observe that when participants evaluate the positive affect indexes of  $A_{ad}$ , there is no statistical significance found between the larger set of choices ( $\bar{x}=14.47, SE=0.44$ ) and smaller set of choices ( $\bar{x}=15.23, SE=0.49$ ), t(119)=-1.475, p>.05, r=.13. Likewise, no significant effects on the negative affect indexes of  $A_{ad}$  is found when compared between the larger set of choices (M=5.81, SD=2.84) and the smaller set

of choices (M = 6.04, SD = 3.10), t(119) = -0.867, p > .05, r = .08.

Consequently, the overall composite score of  $A_{ad}$  for the larger set of choices (M=24.66, SD=6.11) is only marginally less than the smaller set of choices (M=25.18, SD=6.48) and hence, no significant results is produced, t(119)=-0.823, p>.05, r=.08.

As expected based on the results of  $A_{ad}$ , no statistical significance is found when participants evaluate  $A_b$  between the larger set of choices ( $M=18.70,\,SD=6.64$ ) and smaller set of choices ( $M=19.24,\,SD=6.58$ ),  $t(119)=-0.817,\,p>.05,\,r=.07$ . The overall result of this product type is fit into the framework as shown in Figure 4.6.

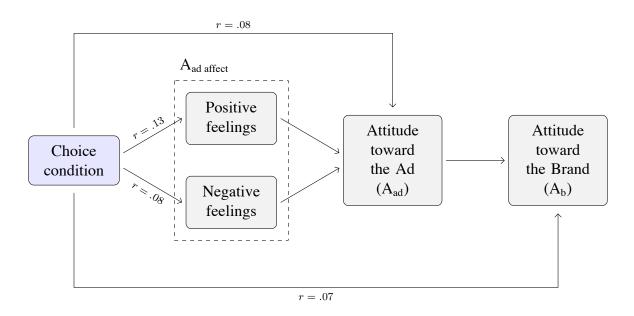


Figure 4.6: Framework fit for averagely tiny choice sets

#### 4.4 Ciders: Averagely Small Choice Sets

In this pair of ads that advertises two separate brands of ciders, the small-set condition contained a total of three (3) choices, while the large-set condition contained a total of five (5) choices for a difference of 2 choices ( $\Delta = 5 - 3 = 2$ ). Each choices are differentiated on the flavour of the beverage.

A paired sample dependent t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the dependent variables that were subjected to different choice set conditions. The results of the t-test is tabulated in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: t-test results comparing choice conditions on A<sub>ad</sub> and A<sub>b</sub>

Variable	Choice set	$ar{x}$	N	SD	t-test	df	p-value
Λ	Larger $(x=5)$	19.58	116	4.26	1 261	115	.000***
A <sub>ad-positive</sub> affect	Smaller $(x = 3)$	17.48	116	4.80	4.364	110	.000
Λ	Larger $(x=5)$	5.50	118	3.05	3.156	117	.002**
A <sub>ad-negative</sub> affect	Smaller $(x = 3)$	4.64	118	2.05	5.100		.002
A <sub>ad</sub>	Larger $(x=5)$	29.48	120	6.24	1.575	1 575 110	.118
	Smaller $(x = 3)$	28.53	120	5.67	1.373	119	
$A_b$	Larger $(x=5)$	24.75	118	6.81	0.004	117	.368
	Smaller $(x = 3)$	24.13	118	6.32	0.904		.300

<sup>\*\*</sup>p < 0.01, two-tailed. \*\*\*p < 0.001, two-tailed.

As a result of the t-test, we can observe that when evaluating the affect indexes of  $A_{\rm ad}$ , participants on average rated more positively when presented with a larger set of choices (M=19.58, SD=0.45) than to a smaller set of choices (M=17.48, SD=0.40), t(115)=4.364, p<.001, r=.38. Interestingly, participants also on average rated more negatively when presented with the larger set of choices (M=5.50, SD=3.05) than to the smaller set of choices (M=4.64, SD=1182.05), t(3.156)=117, p<.002, r=.28. Hence, a certain

degree of attitudinal ambivalence is shown here.

When evaluated against the overall attitude toward the ad  $(A_{ad})$  however, comparison between the larger set condition (M=29.48,SD=6.24) and the smaller set condition (M=28.53,SD=5.67) revealed no significant differences between the two conditions, t(119)=1.575, p>.05, r=.14.

As expected from the effects on  $A_{ad}$ , no statistical significance is also found towards participant's evaluation of  $A_b$  in both the larger-set ( $M=24.75,\,SD=6.81$ ) and smaller-set conditions ( $M=24.13,\,SD=6.32$ ),  $t(118)=-0.904,\,p>0.05,\,r=.08$ . The results for this particular product type is fit into the conceptual framework as shown in Figure 4.7.

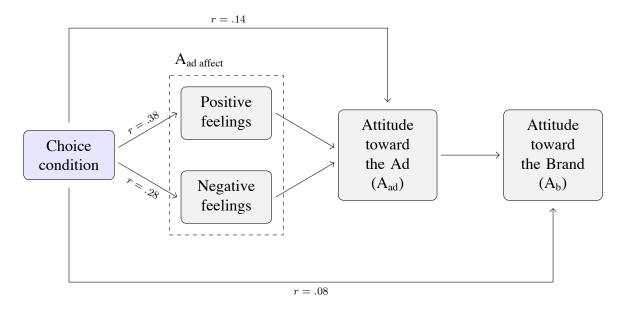


Figure 4.7: Framework fit for averagely small choice sets

#### 4.5 Smartphones: Averagely Large Choice Sets

In this pair of ads that advertises two separate brands of smartphones, the small-set condition contained a total of two (2) choices, while the large-set condition contained a total of twenty (20) choices for a difference of 18 choices ( $\Delta = 20 - 2 = 18$ ). Each choices are differentiated on the colour of the smartphone.

A paired sample dependent t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the dependent variables that were subjected to different choice set conditions. The results of the t-test is tabulated in Table 4.3.

Table 4.4: t-test results comparing choice conditions on A<sub>ad</sub> and A<sub>b</sub>

Variable	Choice set	$\bar{x}$	N	SD	t-test	df	p-value
	Larger $(x=20)$	18.80	116	4.70	7 001	115	.000***
A <sub>ad-positive</sub> affect	Smaller $(x=2)$	15.00	116	4.23	7.091		.000
$A_{ad\text{-negative affect}}$	Larger $(x = 20)$	5.12	120	2.61	-3.252	119	.001***
	Smaller $(x=2)$	6.01	120	2.96	-3.232		.001
$A_{ad}$	Larger ( $x = 20$ )	29.39	120	5.62	e F9e	119	.000***
	Smaller $(x=2)$	25.03	120	5.68	6.586		.000
$A_b$	Larger $(x = 20)$	23.61	117	6.30	5.247	116	.000***
	Smaller $(x = 2)$	19.70	117	6.12	0.241	110	.000

<sup>\*\*\*</sup>p < 0.001, two-tailed.

In this condition where a large discrepancy in choices is present ( $\Delta=18$ ), the t-test revealed a significant effect on the affect indexes of  $A_{ad}$ . The larger-set condition (M=18.80, SD=4.70) is on average rated more positively when compared to the smaller-set condition (M=18.00, SD=4.23), t(115)=7.091, p<.001, r=.55. Participants also on average rated less negatively towards the larger-set condition (M=5.12, SD=2.61) than the smaller-set condition (M=6.01, SD=2.96), t(119)=-3.252, p<.001, r=.29.

Based on the overall attitude toward the ad  $(A_{ad})$ , the results similarly indicate a significant preference for the larger-set  $(M=29.39,\,SD=5.62)$  over the smaller-set  $(M=25.03,\,SD=5.68),\,t(119)=6.586,\,p<.001,\,r=.52.$ 

Likewise, participants are found to evaluate  $A_b$  more positively on average when presented with the larger set of choices (M=23.61, SD=6.3) than the smaller set of choices (M=19.70, SD=6.12), t(116)=5.247, p<0.001, r=.44. The results for this product type is illustrated via the framework in Figure 4.8.

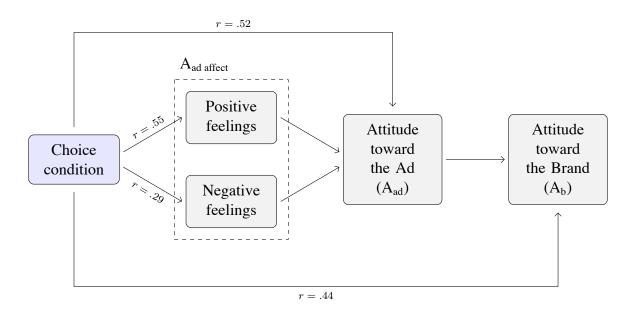


Figure 4.8: Framework fit for averagely large choice sets

#### 4.6 Results on Hypothesis Testing

Table 4.5: Summarised findings of advertisement pairs

Set	Avg. Choice Set	Variable	r	d	p-value
		$A_{ad ext{-positive affect}}$	.13	-0.27	.143
Shampoos	Time A 1	$A_{ad\text{-negative affect}}$	.08	-0.16	.387
$x_1 = 2; x_2 = 1$	Tiny, $\Delta = 1$	$A_{ad\text{-}composite}$	.08	-0.15	.412
		$ m A_b$	.07	-0.15	.416
		${ m A}_{ m ad ext{-}positive affect}$	.38	0.81	.000***
Ciders	C 11 A 9	$A_{ad\text{-negative affect}}$	.28	0.58	.002**
$x_1 = 5; x_2 = 3$	Small, $\Delta = 2$	$A_{ad\text{-}composite}$	.14	0.29	.118
		$ m A_b$	.08	0.17	.368
		${ m A}_{ m ad ext{-}positive affect}$	.55	1.32	.000***
Smartphones	I A 10	$A_{ad\text{-negative affect}}$	.29	-0.60	.001***
$x_1 = 18; x_2 = 2$	Large, $\Delta = 18$	$A_{ad\text{-}composite}$	.52	1.21	.000***
		$A_{\mathrm{b}}$	.44	0.97	.000***

<sup>\*\*</sup>p < 0.01, two-tailed. \*\*\*p < 0.001, two-tailed.

The resulting statistical analysis of all three sets of ads are tabulated in Table 4.5. This gives a clearer overview of the results obtained, making it easier to evaluate the three hypotheses and hence allowing us to draw appropriate conclusions and inferences.

# $H1_a:=$ Attitude towards the ad $(A_{ad})$ is impacted by the number of choices present in the ad

The results of the statistical analysis performed on the data showed a positive trend between the choice conditions. As illustrated by the data in Table 4.5, the participant's attitude toward the ad is measured more positively as the average choice set increases.

When the average choice set is tiny ( $x_{larger}=2, x_{smaller}=1, \Delta=1$ ), no significant effects are apparent towards  $A_{ad}$ . Only negligible differences in the participant's evaluation of positive and negative feelings towards the ad is produced between its two choice sets, thus failing to produce any meaningful relationship. Likewise, the composite  $A_{ad\text{-composite}}$  showed no significance as well.

When the choice set is increased slightly ( $x_{larger}=5,\,x_{smaller}=3,\,\Delta=2$ ), a significant effect is observed on the participant's affective measure towards the ad. Both psychometric measures are shown to increase (ie. more positive, but also more negative) in a statistically significant manner. While the composite  $A_{ad\text{-composite}}$  showed no statistical significance, it is however important to note that there is an observable increase across the measure when compared to the tiny average choice set.

When the choice set is made larger ( $x_{larger}=18, x_{smaller}=2, \Delta=2$ ), an increase across all  $A_{ad}$  measures is observed. Participants are recorded to have a significant increase in positive feelings and a significant decrease in negative feelings towards the ad. Likewise, the composite  $A_{ad\text{-composite}}$  is also shown to have a significant increase.

As a result of the observations drawn from the analysis, the hypothesis in a reasonably large choice set,  $H1_a$  is favoured while its null hypothesis,  $H1_0$  is rejected as it is shown that a statistically significant effect is produced towards  $A_{ad}$  when the number of choices increases.

# $H2_a := Attitude towards the brand (A_b)$ is impacted by the number of choices present in the ad

The mediating role of  $A_{ad}$  towards  $A_b$ , would forecast a similar positive trend as observed in the first hypothesis (H1<sub>a</sub>). As predicted, a positive relationship, albeit to a lesser magnitude, can be observed between the number of choices and attitude towards the brand ( $A_b$ ) as shown in Table 4.5.

When the average choice set is tiny  $(x_{larger} = 2, x_{smaller} = 1, \Delta = 1)$ , no significant effects can be observed towards  $A_b$ . Negligible differences are recorded between its two choice sets, but not notable enough to warrant a significant effect.

Likewise, there is still no significant effects recorded when the choice set is made slightly larger on average ( $x_{larger}=5$ ,  $x_{smaller}=3$ ,  $\Delta=2$ ). There is only a marginal increase in terms of effect size when compared to the tiny average choice set.

When the average choice set is increased considerably ( $x_{larger} = 18$ ,  $x_{smaller} = 2$ ,  $\Delta = 2$ ) however, a consistent increase in  $A_b$  is observed. Participants on average rated  $A_b$  more positively in the averagely large choice set, indicating a statistically significant effect.

As a result of the observations drawn from the analysis, the hypothesis  $H2_a$  is accepted provided that the choice sets are reasonably large in the first place. When that condition is met, a more positive attitude towards the brand is associated with more choices.

#### 4.7 Discussion

This chapter summarises the findings obtained from the results and further discusses the implications of choice conditions on attitude towards the ad  $(A_{ad})$  and attitude towards the brand  $(A_b)$ . This study was conducted to investigate the effects of extensive choice environments on consumer's perception of the advertisement. More specifically, it examines where the number of choices present in an advertisement can impact a consumer's attitude towards the ad  $(A_{ad})$  and attitude towards the brand  $(A_b)$ .

Summary and implications of the findings

A repeated-measure experiment involving 120 Sunway University students was conducted to study the effects of extensive-choice environments on consumer's perception towards the ad. All participants were subjected to ads containing varying degree of choices and were asked to rate their feelings towards the ad and the advertised brand.

Based on the findings obtained from the results, no notable increase in negative feelings in all ads was recorded as the number of advertised choices increased. As a result, no instances of choice overload was observed in all sets of ads, suggesting that it is not likely for choice overload to occur in pre-choice environments.

Conversely, the inverse of choice overload was observed in choice sets that are considerably large (x=20), whereby participants are found to have an increase in positive feelings and a decrease in negative feelings. Hence, this results in a more positively rated  $A_{ad}$  and  $A_{b}$  toward ads that contain a high number of choices.

When choice sets are reasonably small however, no significant effects are produced. Participants were not more likely to rate  $A_{ad}$  and  $A_{b}$  more positively or negatively in the larger set than the smaller set. This suggests that the inverse of choice overload, whereby a remarked

increased in positive feelings is observed, only occurs when the choice set is reasonably large.

The observed occurrence of the inverse of choice overload in reasonably large sets is consistent with the findings of Iyengar & Lepper (2000). In their study, participants were found to be more attracted towards the booth with more jams, which is more or less analogous to the context of this study — a pre-choice environment.

The inverse of choice overload occurring within the context of pre-choice environments can be attributed to the perceptions conveyed by a reasonably large set of choices. After all, a large number of choices can be advantageous because it increases the likelihood of being able to satisfy the diverse amount of consumers (Anderson, 2006). Similarly, Berger et al. (2007) also demonstrated that having more granular distinctions within a product line (ie. multiple colors) have been shown to increase the perception of quality.

Therefore we posit that choice overload operates at various levels depending on (1) the degree of involvement in the decision-making process; and (2) the degree of significance the choice brings to the decision maker. That is, as the degree of involvement and degree of significance increases, the likelihood of seeing the effects of choice overload is higher. Participants in this study were not highly involved in the decision-making process as they were just merely exposed to extensive-choice environments. A required specific choice outcome was not necessary to be made. As a result, no instance of choice overload was found to occur.

Findings based on research questions

The resulting findings and discussions are explored in the context of the research questions as defined earlier.

**RQ1** Is there a response towards an extensive-choice environments if consumers are not required to make a choice?

It was found that there is a response towards extensive-choice environments even if consumers are not required to make a choice. However, they are not the negative effects of choice overload as we commonly see in other studies but rather, positive effects were observed instead. Having a larger assortment size gives the impression that it increases the likelihood of being able to satisfy the needs of the consumers, which may explain why a larger assortment size is found to be rated more positively when no decision making process was involved (Anderson, 2006).

**RQ2** Can the mere presence of extensive-choice environments affect  $A_{ad}$ ?

It was found that extensive-choice environments are capable of affecting consumer's evaluation and perceptions towards the ad more positively, in contrast with the negative effects of choice overload.

**RQ3** Can the mere presence of extensive-choice affect  $A_b$ ?

It was found that extensive-choice environments are also capable of affecting consumer's evaluation and perceptions towards the advertised brand more positively, in contrast with the negative effects of choice overload.

## **CHAPTER 5: Conclusion**

This chapter summarises the results of this entire study, outlines the potential limitations of this study, as well as offering recommendations for future research on this subject.

#### 5.1 Conclusion

The study was conducted to examine the effects of mere exposure towards extensive-choice environments in the context of advertisements. Past research on choice overload has found that when faced with having too many options, the results can be debilitating (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000; Inbar et al., 2011; Beneke, 2015). However, these researches are often discussed in the context of decision-making, where a specific choice outcome was required. This study however, aims to explore the effects on consumers on the mere exposure to presence of extensive-choices.

A total of 120 Sunway University students participated in this experiment to study the effects of extensive-choice environments on consumers by measuring their attitudes and perceptions towards the ad and advertised brand. Participants were exposed to six different ads containing various choice conditions. Their resulting attitudes and perceptions towards these ads were then measured, recorded and analysed.

The resulting findings from this study found that in contrast with the negative effects commonly associated with the choice overload theory, positive effects were observed instead in extensive-choice environments—provided that choice set is sufficiently large. Several arguments may help to explain this phenomenon. For one, Anderson (2006) noted that having a larger choice set provides the impression that the choice set is able to satisfy the diverse needs of consumers when the need arises. Berger et al. (2007) also noted that having more granular distinctions within a product line (ie. multiple colors) have been shown to increase the perception of quality.

The resulting findings of this study have contributions to both theoretical and practical implications in this field of research. Theoretically, it adds to existing literature on the choice overload theory, and expands on the effects of mere exposure towards extensive-choice environments. Its practical applications may help marketers and advertisers fulfil their roles better by allowing them to craft a certain brand image in a more controller manner.

#### 5.2 Limitations of the study

During the course of conducting and analysing the results of these studies, several limitations were made apparent. These limitations are discussed and recommendations to remedy these limitations are offered in the next section.

Comparing ads across three different product types. The usage of using different product types in the stimuli ads may have introduced biases and potential effects on the results. Each product type may carry pre-existing perceptions and cognitions which may have affected the participant's evaluation of the ad and the advertised brand. For instance, ciders—an alcoholic beverage—may be rated more negatively by individuals who abstain from alcohol, such as the Muslim and Baha'i community. Therefore, to compare the results across the three different product types may have had some unwanted side effects.

Stimuli ads may not have optimally controlled the other variables that may have affected the result. When evaluating ads and the advertised brand, consumers take into account many different factors and variables (Lutz et al., 1983). These other variables such as colour, brand logo, and copy may not have been sufficiently controlled in the stimuli ads. As a result, this may have caused and introduced unwanted side effects in the results.

#### **5.3** Recommendations for future research

Utilise an independent-measure design with only one product type instead. In this study, a repeated-measure experiment design was utilised, whereby participants were subjected to all experimental manipulations and choice conditions. For future researches however, we recommend using an independent-measure design instead, whereby different participants are subjected to different experimental manipulations. This allows the research to only use one product type, while also giving greater control over other mediating variables that may affect the results.

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#### **Default Question Block**

# Peripheral Cues and its Effects on Consumer's Attitude-towards-the-Brand (Ab)

Dear participant,

I, James Ooi Weng Teik (Student ID: 12051843), am a final year undergraduate student currently enrolled in the BA (Hons) in Communications programme in Sunway University. You are invited to take part in this research study that aims to investigate how certain peripheral cues can affect the audience's attitude towards the advertised brand.

#### **Procedures**

Multiple, fictional stimulus ads will be displayed to you for 10 seconds each. After each subsequent ad, you will be required to answer a set of questionnaire items pertaining to the previously shown ad. In total, this survey questionnaire will take **approximately 10–15 minutes** to complete.

#### **Participation & Confidentiality**

Before you proceed however, kindly take this moment to understand your rights as a participant:

- 1. Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any stage.
- 2. Your data, personal information, and the resulting findings:
  - will strictly be used for academic purposes only;
  - will strictly be kept confidential;
  - o will comply to the laws of the Personal Data Protection Act (PDPA); and
  - will only be accessible by the researcher and supervisor.

Your kind participation in this research study is highly appreciated. While there will be no direct benefits for you as a participant, it will however, help further the literature and understanding of the behavioural effects of advertising.

#### **Further Information**

If you require any further information regarding this research, feel free to contact the

researcher or the researcher's supervisor at the contact information below:

- James Ooi Weng Teik, Student Researcher
   BA (Hons) in Communication, Sunway University
   12051843@imail.sunway.edu.my
- Lyon Laxman, Supervisor
   Senior Lecturer, Sunway University
   llaxman@sunway.edu.my

The Sunway University BA (Hons) in Communications programme is affiliated with Lancaster University, which provides access to its services such as this survey platform, Qualtrics.

### CONSENT

#### I agree to the following terms:

- 1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information provided above for the study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.
- 2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason.

3. I consent to this study that the information I provide will be documented.

4. I agree to take part in the above study.

Yes

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study! Let's begin...

Section 1 of 4

Demographic Information

Gender

Male

Female

Nationality	
Malaysian	
	Others (Please specify)
Race	
Malay	
Chinese	
Indian	
	Others (Please specify)
Religion	
Christian	
Muslim	
Buddhist	
	Others (Please specify)
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Age	
Section 3 of 4	
Peripheral Cue	es
Before you procee	d with this section, please read the following carefully:
<ul> <li>You will be sh</li> </ul>	nown a fictional, stimulus ad for <b>10 seconds</b> .
<ul> <li>You are advis</li> </ul>	sed to not advance the page yourself.
<ul> <li>After 10 seco</li> </ul>	nds:
<ul><li>The pag</li></ul>	e will automatically advance to the next page.
<ul><li>You will</li></ul>	not be able to see the previously shown ad again.
Va	be required to answer a set of questionnaire that pertains to the

• This process repeats until all six (6) fictional, stimulus ads are shown.

If you are ready to begin, click the **next** button.

#### Ad 1 of 6 - Craft

Ad 1 of 6

Please view the ad below. This page will automatically advance in 10 seconds.



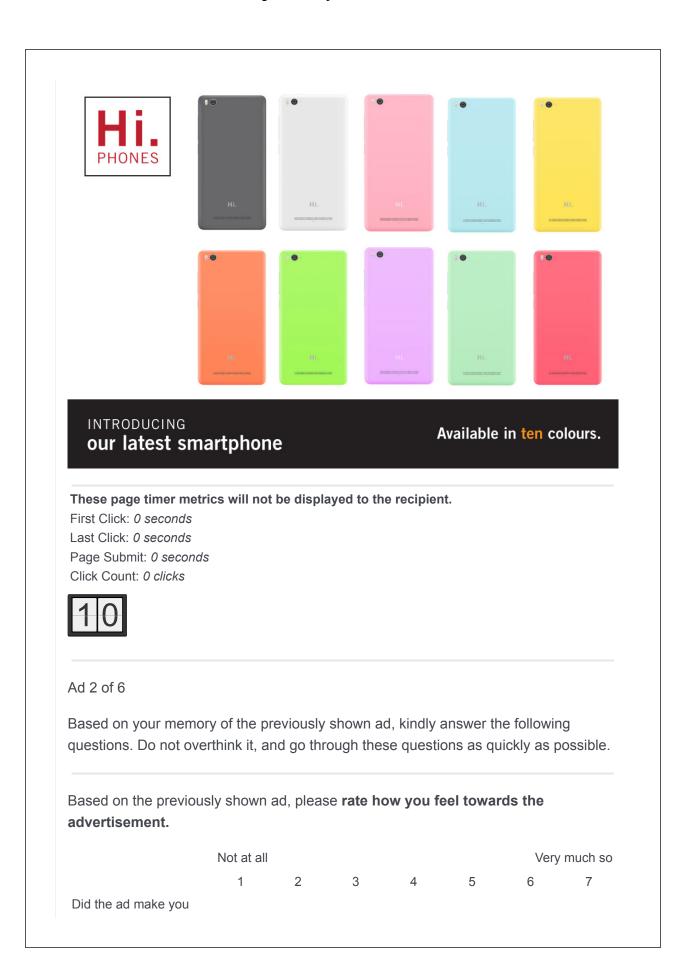
These page timer metrics will not be displayed to the recipient.

First Click: 0 seconds Last Click: 0 seconds Page Submit: 0 seconds Click Count: 0 clicks

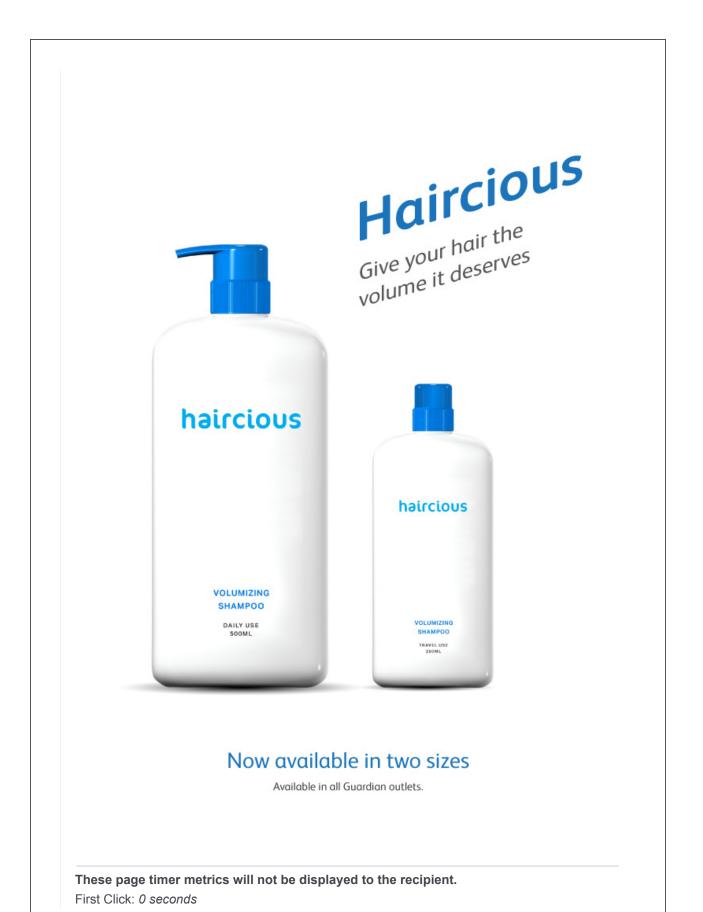


Ad 1 of 6

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Did the ad make yofeel irritated?	ou O	0	0	0	0	0	0
Did the ad make yofeel repulsed?	ou O	0	0	0	0	0	0
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Did the ad make you feel <b>pleased</b> ?	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Did the ad make you feel <b>soothed</b> ?	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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#### Ad 4 of 6 - Barrel

Ad 4 of 6

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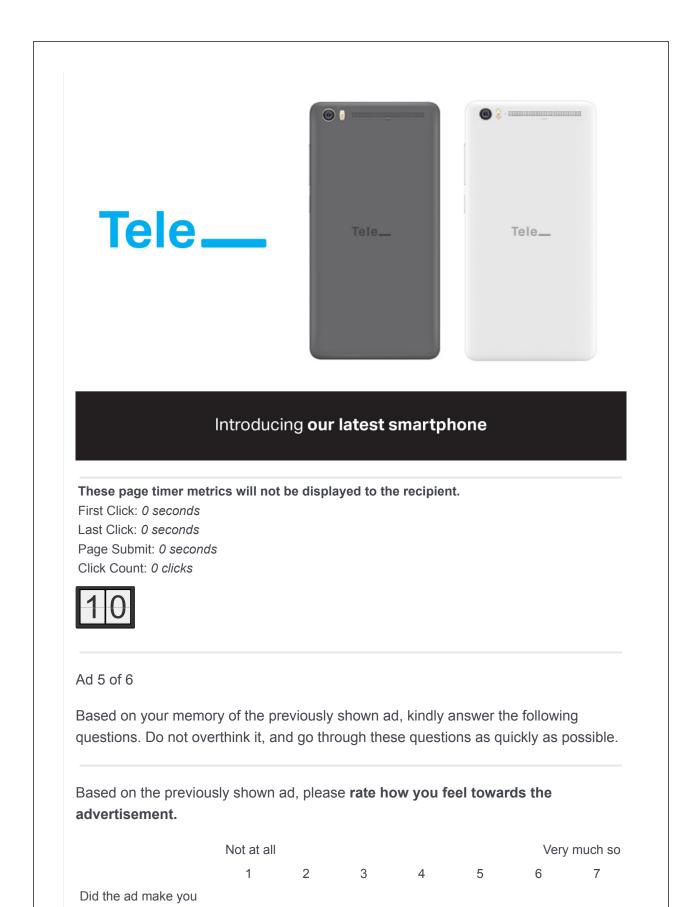
These page timer metrics will not be displayed to the recipient.

First Click: 0 seconds
Last Click: 0 seconds
Page Submit: 0 seconds
Click Count: 0 clicks



Ad 4 of 6

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Did the ad make you feel <b>soothed</b> ?	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Did the ad make you feel <b>irritated</b> ?	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Did the ad make you feel <b>repulsed</b> ?	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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Did the ad make feel <b>soothed</b> ?	you	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Did the ad make feel <b>irritated</b> ?	you	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Did the ad make feel <b>repulsed</b> ?	you	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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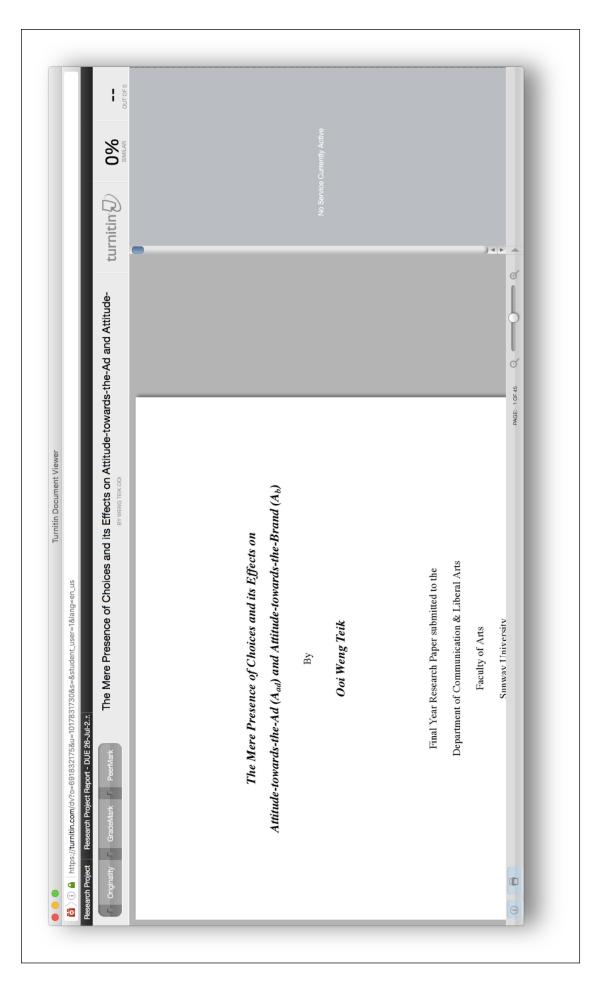
**APPENDIX 1: Sample Survey Questionnaire and Stimulus Ads** 



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## **APPENDIX 2: Turnitin Report**



## **APPENDIX 3: Ethics Forms**