

Can Advertising Copy
Make FSI Coupons More
Effective?

France Leclerc

The University of Chicago
Graduate School of Business

John D. C. Little

Sloan School of Management
Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Publication of this Selected Paper
was supported by the Albert P. Weisman
Endowment.

France Leclerc is an associate
professor at the University of Chicago
Graduate School of Business.

John D. C. Little is an institute
professor at the Sloan School of
Management, Massachusetts Institute
of Technology.

The authors would like to thank Steve
Hoch, Dennis Regan, and Jay Russo
for their comments on a draft of
this paper. They also wish to thank
Information Resources Inc. for
providing data from its CouponScan
service and Ocean Spray Cranberries
Inc. for research support and
valuable comments.

Can Advertising Copy Make FSI Coupons More Effective?

France Leclerc
and John D. C. Little

A previous version of this paper was published in *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. XXXIV (November 1997)

Abstract

Packaged goods manufacturers distribute cents-off coupons in freestanding inserts (FSIs) in newspapers. FSI coupons typically are composed of two parts: the coupon per se and a print advertisement. Using two laboratory experiments and a separate analysis of coupon effectiveness measurements from scanner panels, we investigated whether the verbal and visual content of the print ad influences the effectiveness of the coupon. Theoretical arguments suggest that the impact on consumer attitudes will depend on the executional cues of the copy, the brand loyalty of the consumers, and the consumers' involvement with the product category. Supporting the theoretical framework, our results suggest that it is possible to make FSI coupons more effective by using appropriate executional cues in their advertisements.

Introduction

Consumer packaged goods manufacturers distribute hundreds of billions of cents-off coupons each year. Among consumer-oriented promotions, coupons represent the largest dollar amount of manufacturer spending, totaling more than \$6.5 billion in the United States in 1995. About 80 percent of these were delivered through freestanding inserts (FSIs), coupon leaflets inserted in Sunday newspapers.

Most marketers—quite correctly—think of coupons as devices to offer price discounts. However, a coupon in an FSI appears within an advertisement. Can this advertisement be used as an opportunity to build a strong brand image, enhance brand attitude, and affect purchase behavior, as suggested by Larson (1991) and

Schultz, Tannenbaum, and Lauterborn (1993) in their discussion of integrated marketing communications? Some marketers seem to think so, since in recent years coupon advertising has changed markedly. Formerly, most FSI ads were simple displays of the product. Now, however, the ads often have sophisticated executions, as might be found in magazines. Whatever the reason, many FSI ads today feature executional cues that actively seek to persuade by providing either brand information or peripheral cues, such as pleasant pictures without product information. Others retain the original style of simple product presentation. The diversity of approaches raises the question; Do the more elaborate executions offer an additional benefit?

An even more interesting question is whether executional cues differentially affect various types of consumers. Typically, the goal of a coupon promotion is to generate incremental sales—sales that would not have otherwise occurred. With this goal in mind, marketers target the following segments: (1) customers loyal to competitors' brands and (2) switchers. Understanding better how these groups process advertisements in FSIs may help marketers design more effective ads. For example, if for switchers, brand information in an ad is more effective than a pleasant picture is, and if for brand-loyal customers, brand information is not effective, then featuring such information in an FSI would generate sales from the brand switchers but not from the customers loyal to the competitor's brands. By featuring appropriate executional cues in FSI advertisements, marketers could make their coupon promotions more effective.

In researching these issues, we first developed a conceptual framework for analyzing the impact of executional cues on brand attitude as a function of loyalty. Then we designed and executed two laboratory experiments that tested the underlying hypotheses and implied relationships.

The conceptual framework also predicted that executional cues would have different effects on loyal customers and switchers, depending on their involvement in the product category. Accordingly, we tested hypotheses derived from our framework on a database of commercial measurements of coupon effectiveness.

Literature Review

Very little research has focused on the differential effect of executional cues on brand attitudes as a function of brand loyalty. Among the exceptions, Cushing and Douglas-Tate (1985) explored how the "people/product relationship" relates to advertising processing. Using a set of thirty-five items to measure various dimensions of buying style (e.g. consumer involvement in the product category, commitment to the brand, variety seeking, information seeking, attribute consideration, and price interest), the authors identified four clusters of customers. These four

groups were defined by combining two levels of category involvement (high vs. low) and two levels of brand commitment (high vs. low). Analysis revealed that neither of the groups with low category involvement had much interest in processing brand information. The group with low category involvement and low brand commitment made purchase decisions primarily on the basis of price. The group with low involvement and high commitment based their purchase decision mostly on routine behavior.

The two groups with relatively high category involvement, however, differed in their interest in processing information. The group highly committed to the brand reported little use of brand information, since there was "no need to be looking for anything better than what they have." Members of the second group, however, appeared willing to change brands if they found something better. They also were willing to seek out information—by paying attention to advertising and even by experimenting with new brands—to make their decisions.

Since only the two groups with high levels of category involvement were differentiated, Cushing and Douglas-Tate subsequently tested only these groups for their reactions to advertisements. After seeing broadcast commercials for non-favorite brands, subjects indicated their responses by using a battery of sixty-one items. The results suggest that for consumers with low brand commitment, advertisements rated high in cognitive interest always lead to higher brand purchase attitude. However, for consumers with high brand commitment, both cognitive interest and emotional response seem to relate to brand purchase attitude.

In another attempt to assess the effect of advertising as a function of brand loyalty, Raj (1982) used a split-cable test to show half of his subjects an advertisement that he categorized as a "mood" commercial. He found that this commercial affected only the purchase behavior of loyal customers. Loyal customers of the advertised brand increased their consumption of the advertised brand, while loyal customers of a competitive brand decreased their consumption of their brand. Advertising had no impact on brand switchers.

These two studies suggest that executional cues such as brand information (generating cognitive interest) and "mood" commercials (generating emotional response) can affect brand attitude differently, depending upon the degree of loyalty¹ to a brand in the product category being advertised. Consumers with a high level of loyalty are more affected by emotional cues, and consumers with a low level of loyalty are more affected by information-oriented cues. Furthermore, the results of the first study suggest that this differential effect may be present only when there is sufficient involvement in the product category.

The conceptual framework we developed that could account for these observed differences is outlined in the following section.

1. As illustrated in these two studies, brand loyalty has been conceptualized both as an attitudinal and a behavioral phenomenon, which is consistent with the definition of brand loyalty proposed by Jacoby and Chestnut (1978).

Conceptual Framework

A. Motivation and persuasion

Theorists have recognized that motivation to process arguments moderates persuasion. (For a review, see Eagly and Chaiken 1993; see also Petty and Cacioppo 1986.) Specifically, it has been shown repeatedly that motivated subjects process information from persuasive messages more extensively and systematically than do unmotivated subjects and, consequently, are more influenced by relevant arguments than by peripheral cues. Correspondingly, unmotivated subjects process information less thoroughly and more heuristically. For them, peripheral cues not directly relevant often have more impact than arguments do. Thus, motivated subjects exert cognitive effort to evaluate arguments, and their attitudes are a function of this activity; conversely, unmotivated subjects appear to be affected by cues that do not require thorough processing and that seem to occur through peripheral mechanisms. These include cognitive mechanisms, such as heuristic processing and attributional reasoning, and affective mechanisms, such as classical and operant conditioning. (See MacInnis and Jaworski 1989 for a discussion of a hierarchy of peripheral effects.)

B. Brand loyalty, involvement, and persuasion

When consumers browse through an FSI, their motivation to process brand information is likely to depend on their brand loyalty, or commitment, as well as their level of involvement in the product category. Consumers see many ads while scanning an FSI and must decide which ones to process thoroughly. Previous research has shown that people prefer information that has high utility for goal attainment. (For a review, see Eagly and Chaiken 1993.) Since the consumers' goal is to decide whether to clip a coupon, their motivation to process information will depend on whether this processing can help them make the decision. Loyal² customers have already decided which brand to buy, so they have little incentive to process brand information. Switchers³ have no specific brand in mind and must decide whether the couponed brand is of interest. This decision is required even if they have used the brand previously. Thus, switchers are likely to be motivated to process brand information in high-involvement product categories.

Customers with low involvement in the category lack motivation to process information, because they do not really care which brand they buy. Even switchers who buy many brands over time will not be motivated to process arguments and instead are likely to use heuristics, e.g., "buy the cheapest" or "clip the coupon regardless of the brand." (See Hoyer 1984 for a discussion of choice heuristics.)

In summary, and consistent with the work on brand loyalty previously reviewed, for low-involvement product categories, neither brand-loyal customers nor switchers will be motivated to process information. On the other hand,

2. In this paper, we focus on customers that are loyal to competitors' brands. Although we believe that our theoretical reasoning applies both to customers that are loyal to the promoted brand and to customers that are loyal to competitive brands with respect to motivation to process information, at this point we do not have sufficient empirical evidence to support this claim. However, even though we expect that customers loyal to the advertised brand will have low motivation to process information, the effect of peripheral cues on attitudes and clipping is less clear. Preexisting attitudes acquired through experience with the promoted brand may override the effect of the peripheral cues.

3. Of course, there can be various motivations for brand switching. Consumers may switch brands because they think they have found a better alternative, or to satisfy the need for variety seeking. (For a discussion of variety seeking, see Feinberg, Kahn, and McAlister 1992.) Whatever the purpose for brand switching, it is argued here that as long as the product category generates high levels of involvement, switchers will be motivated to process brand information.

for high-involvement categories, switchers will be motivated to process information because they are not sure what to buy. Loyal consumers will not be motivated, because their brand decisions are already made.⁴

Laboratory Experiments

Study 1

The purpose of this experiment was to study the effect of FSI executional cues on brand attitudes as a function of brand loyalty. Since loyalty was expected to have an effect only under high involvement, we chose a product category—fruit juices—that scores relatively high among packaged goods. In the experiment, three types of FSI ads were used: one with a simple product display only, one with an attractive picture (with no product information), and one with product information. (See Figure 1.)

Our framework predicted that the three ads would vary systematically in their effectiveness, depending on customer brand loyalty. We expected loyalty to create low motivation and, thus, low processing of information. Therefore, the information-oriented ad should have had little impact on brand attitude for loyal customers. However, with low processing of information, persuasion has been shown to be affected by peripheral cues, such as attractive pictures, that do not require the processing of arguments. Thus, as long as the picture generated positive affect, we expected loyal customers to be positively influenced toward the advertised brand.

Brand switchers, on the other hand, should have been motivated to process information. Therefore, the ad with product-specific information should have influenced their attitudes, and, as long as the information led to positive thoughts, the impact should have been positive. On the other hand, the advertisement featuring a picture without brand information provided no arguments to process and elaborate. Even though persuasion can be influenced by peripheral cues that do not require processing of message arguments, if the motivation to process information is high, the ad with a picture lacking product information should have exerted little influence. (See Miniard et al. 1991 for additional evidence.) Thus, for brand switchers, the information-oriented ad should have had more impact on attitude than the one featuring an attractive picture and no brand information.

Finally, if the advertisement simply displayed the product and contained essentially no brand information and no peripheral cues, then attitude toward the promoted brand would not be enhanced by either of the mechanisms we have discussed. We expected, therefore, that this advertisement would be inferior in its impact on brand attitude as compared to the advertisements using executional cues.

More formally, we formulated two hypotheses:

HYPOTHESIS 1A: Brand loyalty interacts with executional cues as follows: For customers with high loyalty to a competitive brand, an advertisement featuring

4. The claim that loyals will not be motivated to process information is limited to the context of noncomparative ads. When loyal consumers encounter a comparative ad announcing that their brand is inferior to the advertised brand, they may become motivated to process the brand information. This issue is taken up further in the discussion.



(a)



(b)



(c)

Figure 1. *Experimental FSI advertisements.* Each has a basic product display and a headline. Advertisement (a) is the product display only; (b) includes brand information; (c) includes an attractive picture.

an attractive picture and no target brand information will generate more positive attitude (and a higher propensity to clip) than will an advertisement providing brand information. For customers with low loyalty (switchers), an advertisement featuring brand information will generate more positive attitude (and a higher propensity to clip) than will an advertisement featuring an attractive picture and no brand information.

HYPOTHESIS 1B: Compared to an advertisement featuring product display only, advertisements featuring executional cues will generate higher attitude toward the brand—and higher propensity to clip.

Experimental Methodology

Overview

Coupon clippers were recruited under the cover story of testing a new technology for coupon clipping, namely electronic coupon scanning. In the lab, subjects were given experimental FSIs similar to the ones found in Sunday newspapers and were told to scan the coupons that they would clip at home. They were then asked to answer a series of questions on an experimental brand and two filler brands.

Subjects

A total of 180 subjects (15 percent male, 85 percent female) participated in the experiment. Average age was thirty-seven. All subjects were on the staff of an eastern university. Twenty-four subjects had to be dropped because they did not provide complete answers. Subjects who were not users of the product category were also dropped. Subjects had been screened on the basis of their coupon clipping experience, and only regular (more than twice a month) coupon clippers were selected to participate. Subjects were also screened on their level of involvement with the experimental product category (fruit juices).

Subjects were asked to rate ten product categories using the PII (personal involvement inventory) scale. (See Zaichkowsky 1985.) Only subjects rating the experimental product category as a relatively high-involvement product (PII rating > 110) were selected. The subjects were paid \$10 each for their participation. They were randomly assigned to one of three experimental conditions: 1) an information-oriented ad, 2) a pleasant picture without brand information, or 3) a picture of the package only (no information, no pleasant picture).

Finally, since the experimental brand is not fictitious but real, and given that the focus of this paper is on brand switchers and on customers that are loyal to competitive brands, people were asked to list the brand(s) of fruit juices they had used in the past year. Forty-four percent of the participants were classified as nonusers of the brand. Only the results of those subjects are reported.

Stimuli

For the information-oriented ad, it was necessary to ensure that the information was persuasive so that its elaboration would generate positive thoughts. Ten claims that had already been used in advertisements for this brand were pretested. Twenty subjects were asked to rate the claims for the experimental brand on two seven-point scales (very weak/very strong and not at all persuasive/very persuasive). The three claims with the highest ratings (mean > 5.9) were used in the information-oriented ad. They were "Brand X has no added preservatives, flavorings, or colorings," "Brand X is also high in vitamin C and very low in sodium," and "Brand X is a healthy and refreshing alternative to soft drinks."

For the advertisement with a pleasant picture, it was necessary to ensure that the picture was attractive enough to generate positive affect. Five pictures were pretested by the same twenty subjects, who rated them on a seven-point scale (not at all attractive/very attractive). The picture selected (mean = 5.2) was a picture of people at the beach.

Finally, the three advertising executions were pretested to see whether they would blend with typical ads in FSIs. For each of the three experimental ads, a set of four ads of the same type was prepared. Subjects in the pretest rated the advertisements on four seven-point scales (good/bad, like/dislike, irritating/not irritating, interesting/not interesting). The pretest revealed that the experimental ads were not significantly different from typical FSI ads. Except for the experimental manipulations, the other elements of the ad executions were the same (except for the size of the picture of the package, which had to be made smaller in the advertisement with an attractive picture). In all three cases, the headline invited the reader to enjoy the product, using the tagline "Enjoy the flavorful taste of Ocean Spray!" All of the experimental ads were full-page size. (See Figure 1.)

To create the FSIs, twenty-one coupon advertisements for different products were scanned and printed using a color laser printer, which produced a quality similar to the real FSIs. These coupons were selected so that all three creative approaches used in the experimental advertisements were equally represented. This was done to be sure that the experimental ads would not stand out from the others.

Finally, for each FSI, the coupon (and its respective print ad component) for the experimental brand was inserted as page seven of twenty-two pages. All of the expiration dates on coupons were edited to expire at least three months from the time of the experiment.

Laboratory Procedure

The idea behind our cover story of testing a new technology was that instead of laboriously cutting the coupons, consumers would simply be able to scan the coupons they wished to use. Since the experiment was done at an engineering school, the participants found this premise quite plausible, and, in fact, were enthusiastic about the technology. Subjects were run individually. As they arrived at the laboratory, they were trained in the use of the scanner and were instructed simply to proceed as they would at home and scan the coupons they would clip. They were then given the FSI booklet containing the advertising stimuli and were told to raise their hands when finished.

When subjects completed perusing and scanning their FSIs, they received a questionnaire. On the first page of the questionnaire were questions consistent with the cover story. Subjects were asked, using a scale from one to nine, whether they liked using the coupon scanner and whether they found that using it had distracted them from deciding which coupons to select. They were then asked whether

they thought that using the scanner resulted in getting the number of coupons that they otherwise would have clipped.

Subjects then received a series of questions, first with respect to the experimental brand and then to the two filler brands (one brand of pain reliever and one brand of laundry detergent) that were also promoted in the FSI. On the first page of the booklet, subjects were given the three product categories (those of the experimental brand and the two filler brands) with five brands listed for each category. Subjects were asked to select the correct brand names from among each group of five brands. No specific predictions were made for the memory data.

Next, subjects were asked to list the thoughts that had crossed their minds as they examined the ad for the experimental brand and the ads for the two filler brands. Then they were asked to describe their attitude toward the advertisement featuring the experimental brand, that is, their purchase intention and their attitude toward the experimental brand. Finally, they were asked about their pattern of usage of the experimental brand and of the filler brands. At the end, subjects were asked to write down what they thought the purpose of the study was. Upon completion of the questionnaire, the subjects were thoroughly debriefed, thanked, paid for their participation, and dismissed.

Checks on cover story and demand characteristics

An analysis of the subjects' final statements about the purpose of the experiment indicated that none of the subjects guessed the true purpose of the study. To the cover story questions, subjects answered that they felt positive about using the scanner (mean = 3.26 on a scale of 1 to 9, where 1 is very much and 9 is not at all) and that using the scanner did not distract them from the task (mean = 1.82 on a scale of 1 to 9, where 1 is not at all and 9 is very much). Finally, 84 percent of the subjects indicated that they scanned the same number of coupons in our lab as they would have clipped at home. These ratings did not differ by experimental conditions or degree of switching. (See the next section for our operationalization of switching.)

Checks on brand recognition

Recognition of the brand name (Ocean Spray) was very high (mean = .90). There were no significant differences in recognition among advertising executions, and degree of switching had no significant effect on recognition of the brand.

Dependent variables

(1) Attitude toward the promoted brand (brand.attitude): Subjects rated their overall impression of the brand on three nine-point differential scales anchored at one and nine (good/bad, favorable/unfavorable, satisfactory/unsatisfactory). Purchase intention was assessed on a nine-point scale by asking subjects how likely

they were to purchase the experimental brand “the next time they needed this product category.” The endpoints of the scale were 1 = not at all likely and 9 = very likely. Since the intercorrelations among all four of these scales were very high (all $R_s > .80$), responses were averaged to assess brand attitude.

(2) Propensity to clip (clipping): Clipping behavior (whether the coupon for the experimental brand was scanned) was recorded both by the hand-held scanner and by an unobtrusive observer. The correlation between the two was very high ($R = .89$), so the clipping behavior as recorded by the scanner was used. (Clipping = 1 if the coupon was scanned, and 0 if not.)

Independent variables

(1) Advertising execution: As previously described, the three advertisements comprised two with executional cues (one with an attractive beach picture and the other with information-oriented copy) and a third with a simple product display only.

(2) Brand loyalty (switching): Brand loyalty entered the analyses through a variable that is its opposite, switching. Our measure of switching was the number of brands listed by the subject as bought during the previous year, -1. (The -1 makes switching = 0 mean “no switching” or “completely loyal.”)

Our original plan was to assess brand loyalty by collecting a proportion-of-purchase measure. First, subjects listed the names of brands they bought in the previous year in the product category. Then they indicated the proportion of times they bought each of the brands they listed. This measure has been shown to have good test-retest reliability. (See Jacoby and Chestnut 1978.) However, some subjects just listed brands without providing the proportion of time purchased. As a substitute, we chose the number of brands purchased in the previous year as a (negative) indicator of loyalty. This measure has been used previously (Farley 1964) and correlates highly (.76) with the proportion-of-purchase measure for the subset of subjects providing both types of information. Since number of brands is negatively related to loyalty, for clarity we refer to the variable as “switching.”

(3) Picture vs. information contrast (pic.vs.info): A dummy variable, pic.vs.info, assesses the differential effect between the two ads with executional cues and enters as an explanatory variable in the linear contrast models. This variable equals 1 for an observation involving the ad with a picture, -1 for the information-oriented ad, and 0 for the simple product display.

(4) No cues vs. cues contrast (nocue.vs.cue): A second dummy variable assesses the differential effect between the simple product display only and the ads with executional cues. The variable equals 2 for observations using the ad with product display only and -1 for either of the others.

(5) Interactions: The above variables can be used to generate interaction variables for a general linear model.

Models

The experiment focused on two principal hypotheses: 1A, a predicted interaction between loyalty (switching) and executional cues, and 1B, a predicted superiority of ads with executional cues over ads with product display only. The hypotheses were tested using a linear contrast model with brand attitude as dependent variable, and by a logistic regression model with clipping as the dependent variable.

The linear contrast model for brand attitude potentially contains high-order interaction terms. Running the full model produced several terms with very low significance. Discarding these, we tested hypotheses with the following model:

$$\text{brand.attitude} = b_0 + b_1 (\text{switching}) + b_2 (\text{pic.vs.info}) + b_3 (\text{nocue.vs.cue}) \\ + b_4 (\text{pic.vs.info} * \text{switching})$$

A corresponding model with clipping as the dependent variable and the same independent variables was run as a logistic regression. The calibrated models appear in Tables 1A and 1B, along with the simple means of the dependent variables for each cell.

Results

The main theoretical prediction was that when loyalty was high (switching = 0), the ad with an attractive picture would generate higher brand attitude than would the ad with brand information. This was supported by the positive and significant b_2 for the picture vs. information contrast variable ($t = 2.02, p < .05$). Therefore, hypothesis 1A's predicted interaction between switching and executional cues was supported.

Furthermore, as switching increased (loyalty decreased), the information-oriented ad worked increasingly well, as predicted. This was indicated by the negative and significant b_4 for the interaction between picture vs. information and switching ($t = -2.27, p < .05$).

The theory also predicted that the presence of executional cues (picture or information) would be better than product display only. This was supported by the negative coefficient b_3 for the no-cue vs. cue contrast ($t = -1.34, p = .18$). However, this did not reach significance, so hypothesis 1B was only directionally supported.

Clipping showed a similar overall pattern of results to brand attitude but was considerably weaker. (See second column of Table 1A.) The coefficient for picture vs. information was positive but did not reach significance. However, the coefficient for the interaction picture vs. information by switching was negative and significant ($p < .10$), suggesting again that as switching increased (brand loyalty decreased), the information ad generated more clipping than did the attractive picture. The second contrast (no-cue vs. cue), capturing whether executional cues surpassed simple product display, did not reach significance.

Table 1: Results of Experiment 1

A. Brand attitude shows the predicted interaction between loyalty and executional cues. At switching = 0 (high loyalty), an attractive picture is better than brand information. The effect decreases as switching increases. Propensity to clip shows similar patterns, but more weakly.

VARIABLE (coef.)	Attitude toward the brand (brand.attitude)		Propensity to clip (clipping)	
	COEFFICIENT	(t-value)	COEFFICIENT	(t-value)
intercept (<i>b0</i>)	4.491	(8.40)	-1.204	(-2.35)
switching (<i>b1</i>)	0.277	(0.85)	0.359	(1.17)
pic.vs.info (<i>b2</i>)	1.337**	(2.02)	0.763	(1.16)
nocue.vs.cue (<i>b3</i>)	-0.269	(-1.34)	0.191	(1.05)
pic.vs.info*switching (<i>b4</i>)	-0.897**	(-2.27)	-0.625*	(-1.62)
Adjusted <i>R</i> -square	0.05			
Chi-square	5.11			

N = 67, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

B. Mean Attitude Toward the Brand As a Function of Brand Loyalty and Executional Cues (Number of subjects is shown in parentheses.)

	Brand Loyalty	
	Loyal	Switcher
<i>Executional cues</i>		
Product display	4.44 (17)	4.59 (8)
Pleasant picture	5.67 (14)	4.75 (10)
Information	4.93 (12)	5.40 (8)

Discussion

The results of the experiment suggest that for a high-involvement packaged good, different executional cues in a coupon influence persuasion differently depending on loyalty. For brand-loyal consumers, an advertisement with an attractive picture and no brand information will generate higher brand attitude than an information ad. For switchers, on the other hand, an information ad will generate higher brand attitude and a higher likelihood of clipping than an ad with an attractive picture and no brand information. The weaker effect found on propensity to clip may not be surprising, given that we measure one single behavior that could be a function of many factors in addition to brand attitude (such as whether the customer currently needs the product). Conceivably, a composite index of

behaviors or a laboratory environment allowing the recording of several successive behaviors might produce stronger results.

Combining across both types of consumers, the effect of the two executional cues on propensity to clip was not significantly higher than that of the baseline ad of a simple product display.

Finally, it could be argued that our measure of brand loyalty might have reflected involvement with the task as well as brand loyalty. In other words, subjects who were more involved in the task may have listed more brands and been more motivated to seek information. However, if this were true, we should have seen a significant correlation between the number of brands listed in the three product categories (experimental and two filler brands), since subjects who were highly involved in a task should have listed a higher number of brands in all three categories. However, the pairwise correlations between the number of brands listed in the three categories were not significant.

Another potential problem was that the measure of loyalty could have been a function of the family size. However, information on family size was collected, and the addition of this variable to the model did not affect the significance of the focal variables.

Finally, we note that the two studies cited in the literature review measured brand loyalty differently from each other (attitudinal measure and repeat purchase behavior)—and differently from us. The results of all three studies, however, are mutually supporting, suggesting that our conclusions are rather robust with respect to the loyalty measure used.

Study 2

A second experiment was designed to test further the hypothesized process and replicate the first study using a different brand. Our framework proposed that loyal customers would react more favorably to an attractive picture than to brand information because they would be poorly motivated to process information. Switchers, on the other hand, would be highly motivated, since information could help them make their brand decision. If this was the case, a change in picture attractiveness (a peripheral cue) would influence brand attitude more for brand loyals than for switchers, whereas a change in argument strength would influence attitude more for switchers than for loyals.

Therefore, the second experiment tested the following:

HYPOTHESIS 2: Attractiveness of the background picture in an ad will have a greater impact for brand loyals than for brand switchers, whereas argument strength will have a greater influence for brand switchers than for brand loyals.

Experimental Methodology

Subjects and Design

A total of 110 male and female consumers participated in this experiment. Subjects were paid \$10 each for their participation. As in the previous study, only subjects that were users of the product category, had relatively high involvement in the product category, and were nonusers of the experimental brand were retained. Subjects were assigned to each of the cells in a 2 (argument quality: strong or weak) x 2 (cue: attractive vs. unattractive picture) design. Subjects were run individually. The third factor, degree of switching, was measured.

Procedure, stimuli and dependent variables

The procedure and the dependent variables were the same as in the previous experiment. The product category was also the same (fruit juice) but the promoted brand was different (Tropicana).

Independent variables

(1) Argument strength: A variety of arguments for orange juice were pretested on a sample of graduate students. In the strong arguments version of the ad, the following six statements were made:

"Tropicana is 100% pure fruit juice, not from concentrate."

"It has no added sugars, no artificial flavors or colors, and no preservatives."

"Tropicana is squeezed only from oranges that meet its strict quality standard."

"Its rich orangier taste is almost like taking a bite out of a fresh orange wedge."

"It provides your family with a full day's supply of vitamin C."

"It's the leading brand."

In the weak arguments version of the ad, the following six statements were made:

"Tropicana is made from concentrate."

"It's mostly natural: a small portion is artificial preservatives and sweeteners."

"Tropicana is squeezed from good oranges."

"It has a rich orangy taste."

"It provides your family with some vitamin C."

"It's the No. 4 brand."

(2) Attractiveness of the picture: The pictures selected were similar to the pictures used in the first study of Miniard et al. (1991). Their pictures were found to have an impact under low involvement but not under high involvement. We pretested a number of pictures and selected two for their attractiveness and appropriateness for the product category. In the attractive/appropriate (henceforth

referred to as attractive) condition, the background picture was a beach with sand, ocean, and palm trees. In the unattractive/inappropriate (henceforth referred to as unattractive) condition, the background picture showed a gorilla in front of trees.

(3) Switching: Subjects were classified as loyalists or switchers as a function of the number of brands that they listed as having used in the past year. Subjects that had listed only one brand (thirty-two subjects) were classified as brand loyalists. Subjects who listed more than two brands were classified as brand switchers (forty-two subjects). Subjects listing exactly two brands were dropped.

Results

Brand attitudes as a function of switching, picture attractiveness, and argument strength appear in Figure 2.

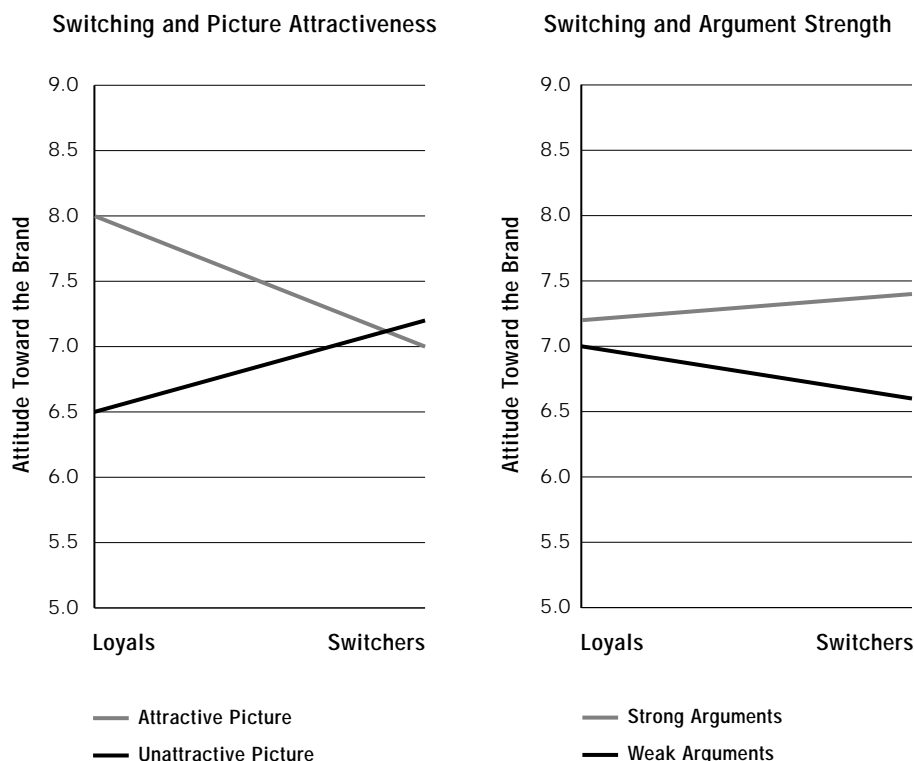
A 2X2X2 ANOVA (attractiveness of the picture/argument strength/switching) shows that the main effect of picture attractiveness was borderline significant ($F[1,66] = 2.64, p = .10$), with the attractive picture generating higher attitude toward the brand than the unattractive picture ($M = 6.80$ and $M = 7.29$). The main effect of argument strength did not reach significance ($F[1,66] = 1.88$), although strong arguments had a more positive effect on attitude than weak arguments did ($M = 7.31$ and $M = 6.75$). The main effect for picture attractiveness must be qualified, however, in light of a significant interaction between switching and attractiveness ($F[1,66] = 3.38, p < .10$). Planned comparisons revealed that customers loyal to competitive brands rated the promoted brand higher when exposed to an attractive picture ($M = 8.0$) than when exposed to an unattractive picture ($M = 6.47$), ($t = 2.19$, one-tailed $p < .05$). In contrast, the brand attitudes of switchers were not influenced by the attractiveness of the picture ($t = 0.40$).

The two-way interaction of argument strength by switching did not reach significance, but contrast analyses revealed that for switchers, a strong argument generated significantly more positive brand attitudes ($M = 7.42$) than a weak argument did ($M = 6.58$), ($t = 1.54$, one-tailed $p < .10$). However, loyal consumers were not affected by argument strength ($t = 0.28$). Neither the interaction of attractiveness by argument nor the three-way interaction approached significance.

Analysis of the clipping data parallels the results obtained on the attitude data. For loyalists, propensity to clip was affected by attractiveness ($t = 1.39$, one-tailed $p < .10$) ($M = 0.53$ for unattractive picture and $M = 0.77$ for attractive picture) but not by argument strength ($t = 0.50$) ($M = 0.67$ for weak argument and $M = 0.60$ for strong argument). For switchers the impact of argument strength was significant ($t = 1.99$, one-tailed $p < .05$) ($M = 0.60$ for weak argument and $M = 0.86$ for strong argument) but attractiveness was not ($t = 0.66$) ($M = 0.77$ for unattractive picture and $M = 0.71$ for attractive picture).

Figure 2: Attitude Toward the Brand

Left panel shows interactive effect of switching and picture attractiveness on attitudes toward the promoted brand. Right panel shows interactive effect of switching and argument strength on attitudes toward the promoted brand.



Discussion

The results obtained in Study 2 parallel and extend those of Study 1. The fact that loyal consumers were affected by picture attractiveness but not by argument strength suggests that loyal consumers have low motivation to process information. Thus, peripheral cues would be more persuasive. However, the fact that switchers were affected by argument strength suggests that this segment is motivated to process information and should be targeted using strong arguments.

An alternative prediction could have been derived from the literature. It has been shown that subjects counterargue when presented with a counterattitudinal message (Petty and Cacioppo 1979). Based on that finding, one could argue that loyal customers would be motivated in counterarguing the claims made in an ad for a competitive brand. Our data do not support this view, however. In Study 1, loyal customers showed no difference between product display only and the product display with information but were affected by the presence of an attractive

picture lacking product information. Admittedly, in Study 2, the lack of effect of argument strength on loyal customers could have been the result of their counterarguing (central processing). However, as shown in Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983), both central and peripheral persuasion routes can occur simultaneously under low-involvement conditions, but only the central route occurs under the high-involvement conditions. Consequently, if counterarguing occurred, it does not conflict with our claim that loyal subjects were not motivated in processing brand information.

We believe that the low motivation occurs because, for real brands, consumers are faced daily with a plethora of “counterattitudinal” messages and can’t possibly process them all. Thus, one way consumers reduce the number of messages they have to process is by ignoring those about product categories in which they are loyal to a brand. In addition, many competitive ads are not counterattitudinal—they do not try to argue that one brand is bad, only that some other brand is good. This is the case unless it is a comparative ad in which the brand to which one is loyal is advertised. It is possible that loyal customers would get motivated to process information when exposed to such comparative ads, so we consider that type of executional cue to be one that requires further investigation.

Scanner Data Analysis

Additional support for our conceptual framework comes from a quite different source: a cross-sectional study of FSI coupon effectiveness as measured by scanner data. The laboratory experiments focused on the interaction between executional cues and loyalty in a single high-involvement product category. For the cross-sectional study, loyalty data were not available, but multiple categories were. Furthermore, measures of consumers’ involvement in the categories could be constructed. Therefore, we used our framework to predict the effect of executional cues on FSI effectiveness as a function of category involvement.

As mentioned previously, the main goal of coupons is to increase brand sales relative to their level without coupons. Only in this way can a coupon defray its cost and show a profit. Therefore, a critical measure of effectiveness is the proportion of coupon redemptions that represent incremental sales. This is generally called “coupon efficiency” and is measured by Information Resources, Inc. (IRI) in its commercial service, CouponScan. For a discussion of CouponScan methodology, see Little (1994).

Coupons can increase incremental sales by stimulating brand purchases both by switchers and by customers who are normally loyal to competitive brands. As already shown, information-oriented ads improve brand attitude for switchers in high-involvement categories. Our framework also predicted that information

ads would not affect attitude for switchers in low-involvement categories, since, in such cases, even switchers do not have the motivation to process messages. Furthermore, we predicted that information would not have an impact on loyal customers because they lack the motivation to process it, regardless of their involvement. Since switchers are a main source of incremental sales, we proposed the following hypothesis:

HYPOTHESIS 3: Brand information will have no effect on coupon efficiency (the proportion of coupon redemptions that are incremental sales) for product categories generating low levels of consumer involvement. As involvement increases,⁵ the effect of brand information on efficiency will increase.

The effect of an attractive picture was harder to predict. It was expected to be effective for both low- and high-involvement products but in different loyalty segments. For high-involvement categories, we predicted that an attractive picture would produce a positive attitude gain for loyal customers but not for switchers.⁶ For low involvement, we predicted that an attractive picture would have a positive impact for all consumers, loyal or not. Thus, the difference in effect between the two cases appears to depend on the proportion of loyal customers in the product category and, unfortunately, loyalty was not measured in our data. We argue, however, that switchers are likely to be a much more important source of incremental sales than are loyal customers, especially in large categories with many brands. Since switchers will not be affected by an attractive picture in high-involvement categories, we expected that, as involvement in the category increased, the effect of an attractive picture on coupon efficiency would decrease.⁷ More formally:

HYPOTHESIS 4: An attractive picture will have a positive effect on coupon efficiency for product categories generating low levels of involvement. As involvement increases, the effect of an attractive picture will decrease.

Methodology

Overview

The database for the study consisted of the print ads for 387 coupons evaluated by IRI's CouponScan service, along with their measured efficiencies. The coupons come from seven product categories: analgesics, cookies, crackers, margarine, fruit juice, bar soap, and breakfast cereal. Each coupon was coded for two executional cues: the presence of brand information and the presence of visual elements (equivalent to an attractive picture). For each category, we also constructed a measure of customer involvement. Efficiency was then modeled as a function of information, visual elements, involvement, and two further variables known to affect efficiency—brand share and coupon face value.

5. Involvement is usually conceptualized as a dichotomous instead of a continuous variable. Here, the analysis was done both ways and yielded the same results.

6. We expect that attractive pictures should exert little influence on brand switchers in the high-involvement category even if a peripheral cue's influence operates through an affect-transfer process. This is because issue-relevant thinking is viewed as the dominant determinant of attitudes when motivation is high. (See Miniard et al. 1991 for a similar view and supportive empirical evidence.)

7. In fact, the effect of an attractive picture on proportion of coupon redemptions that are incremental sales is even more complicated than the way it is explained in the paper. An attractive picture would positively affect efficiency through its effect on customers that are loyal to competitive brands but would negatively affect efficiency through its effect on customers that are loyal to the promoted brand. Since it is expected that for most brands, there are more customers loyal to all competitive brands than to the promoted brand, we feel that the overall effect from loyal customers should be positive.

Dependent variable

The dependent variable is coupon efficiency. This is measured by IRI as follows. Household purchase data collected by scanner panels is combined with information collected in-store to calibrate a multinomial logit model of sales (Guadagni and Little 1983) for each couponed product before the coupon drop. Incremental sales after the event are then measured by predicting sales (with the model) in the absence of the drop and subtracting them from actual sales. The period of measurement includes all weeks during which appreciable incremental sales would be expected (from experience with the category) or until a subsequent coupon event for the brand. The efficiency of the event is calculated by dividing the resulting incremental sales by total redemption sales; the measurement of sales is standardized across brand sizes by converting to product sales volume (in ounces or other physical units) per unit of time. Thus, efficiency equals incremental weeks of sales divided by redemption weeks of sales for the couponed brand.

Independent variables

To determine level of consumer involvement with the product category, each of the seven categories was rated by forty raters using the PII scale. (See Zaichkowsky 1985.) The raters were adults who had identified themselves as coupon clippers and were from a population presumed to be similar to the population captured in the IRI data set. From a possible PII range of 20 to 140 (twenty one- to seven-point scales), the involvement ratings of the seven product categories were:

Category	Involvement Index (PII)
bar soap	110
fruit juice	107
breakfast cereals	96
analgesics	89
cookies	83
crackers	82
margarine	74

The involvement ratings (mean = 90, std.dev. = 12) were then standardized (mean = 0, std.dev = 1).

The print ads were each coded by two raters to create variables measuring the executional cues: brand information and visual elements. Each ad was rated using a seven-point scale (agree/disagree) on the presence of information in the ad and the presence of visual elements in the ad. Each variable was rated using two statements. For information, the statements were "The ad contains a lot of information about the brand" and "The ad highlights the benefits of the brand by providing information." For visual elements, the statements were "The only visual element in

this ad is a picture of the package” (reverse score) and “In addition to a picture of the package, the ad contains many visual elements (such as people, scenery, etc.).” Intercoder and item reliability were all at least .79. The mean rating for presence of “information about the brand” was 2.97 and for “presence of visual elements” was 3.36. The correlation between the two executional cues was -0.225 .

Two other independent variables were introduced: brand share (measured as share of market in percentage points) and coupon face value (measured in dollars). Previous research (Klein 1981; Irons, Little, and Klein 1983) has shown these variables to influence coupon efficiency.

Model

Since efficiency was constrained to lie between 0 and 1, we could conveniently and robustly model it by logistic regression. Let z = efficiency, x = a vector of the independent variables, b = the corresponding vector of coefficients. The logistic regression was $z = \exp(bx)/(1+\exp[bx])$. By making the transformation $y = \ln(z/[1-z])$, the model became $y = bx$ and we could estimate the coefficients using ordinary least squares.

Therefore, expressing variables in words, we estimated b 's in the following regression:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln(\text{efficiency}/[1 - \text{efficiency}]) = & b_0 + b_1 (\text{face.value}) + b_2 (\text{brand.share}) \\ & + b_3 (\text{visual.elements}) + b_4 (\text{information}) + b_5 (\text{involvement}) + b_6 \\ & (\text{information} * \text{involvement}) + b_7 (\text{visual.elements} * \text{involvement}) \end{aligned}$$

Each coupon provided one observation.

Results

The logistic regression model explained a statistically significant portion of the variance and had an adjusted R^2 of 0.083. (See Table 2.) The coefficients for brand share and face value were significant ($p < .05$) and related to efficiency as expected from the literature. Brand share affected incremental sales negatively, since higher share makes it difficult to generate more incremental sales. A higher face value improved incremental sales.

As predicted, the interaction between involvement and brand information was positive and statistically significant ($t = 1.99, p < .05$). Therefore, as involvement increased, the effect of information on coupon efficiency increased, as hypothesized. In the case of information by itself (standardized involvement = 0), we postulated no effect. Applying therefore a two-tailed test, we found no significance ($p = 0.16$). Thus, hypothesis 3 was supported.

Also as predicted, the interaction between involvement and visual elements was negative, although it was only marginally significant ($t = -1.41$, one-tailed

Table 2: Scanner Data Coupon Efficiencies Modeled by Logistic Regression

Coupon efficiency, modeled by a logistic regression, shows the predicted interaction between executional cues and category involvement. "Information" in ads increases efficiency more at high involvement than at low. "Visual elements" in ads increases efficiency but does so less at high levels of involvement.

VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	(t-value)
Constant	-0.365	(-1.48)
Face Value	0.681	(2.60)
Brand Share	-0.032	(-2.84)
Visual Elements	0.099	(2.43)
Information	-0.050	(-1.39)
Involvement	-0.051	(-0.24)
Information*Involvement	0.074	(1.99)
Visual Elements*Involvement	-0.055	(-1.41)
Adjusted R-square	0.083	

(*N* = 387)

$p < .10$). Thus, as involvement increased, the effect of visual elements on coupon efficiency decreased. When involvement was equal to the mean involvement rating, the effect of visual elements was positive and significant ($t = 2.43, p < .05$). Therefore, hypothesis 4 was also supported.

Discussion

The analysis of coupon efficiency shows that executional cues interact with category involvement to affect performance, as predicted by our theoretical framework. Brand information in an FSI advertisement affects incremental sales only for high-involvement products, presumably because of the persuasive effect of the information on switchers. In contrast, the presence of visual elements has a stronger effect on incremental sales for low-involvement categories than for high-involvement categories. We have thus been able to demonstrate the effects of executional cues in a real-world context.

General Discussion

We have shown that executional cues do matter in coupon advertising. They can affect brand attitude, propensity to clip, and coupon efficiency. Furthermore, they do so in ways that depend on brand loyalty and level of involvement in the product category. In particular, loyal consumers lack motivation to process information; we

found that an advertisement with an attractive picture (peripheral cue) generated higher attitude than an informational ad did. On the other hand, switchers are motivated to process information for high-involvement products; we found that an informational ad generated higher attitude than an attractive picture did. As involvement decreased, so did this effect, until for low-involvement products, attractive pictures dominated brand information for achieving coupon effectiveness.

From the point of view of theory, the linking of brand loyalty to motivation is important. Such a link has been suggested (for example, see Hoch and Deighton 1989), but it has not previously been demonstrated empirically. In fact, although brand loyalty is a very important concept in marketing, little experimental work has been done on this topic in the past two decades (for an exception, see Kahn and Raju 1991).

In addition to linking brand loyalty to motivation, our framework suggests that loyalty interacts with product involvement. Note that this conceptualization is consistent with and extends the seminal work of Jacoby and Chestnut (1978). Their definition of brand loyalty requires that repeat purchase behavior be the result of a post-purchase evaluation of the product. In other words, the consumer must perceive that purchasing the brand satisfies needs better than existing alternatives. If repeat purchase occurs simply to reduce cognitive effort, the process is described as habitual purchase, not brand loyalty. Linking this distinction to our framework suggests that repeat purchase behavior for a high-involvement product is an indicator of brand loyalty whereas it is simply habitual purchase for a low-involvement product.

A noteworthy aspect of this paper is the use of two strikingly different methodologies to investigate a question of both theoretical and practical importance. Of course, neither method is perfect: laboratory experiments may lack external validity while scanner data lack control. Nevertheless, we believe that the combination of analyses, while not strictly comparable, adds considerable convergent validity to our theoretical framework. (See, e.g., Kahn and Raju 1991 for another example of this approach.) In addition, scanner data offer an opportunity to study the effect of advertising in FSIs in the actual consumer environment that is of most interest to marketers.

Additionally, this research helps inform the debate about whether promotions negatively affect brand evaluations. Based on self-perception theory, it has been proposed that promotions may have a negative impact on brand image (Dodson, Tybout, and Sternthal 1978), with consumers attributing their purchase to the discount rather than the brand per se. Recent empirical evidence, however, has challenged this assertion. For example, Davis, Jeffrey, and McAlister (1992) found that price reductions had no effect on brand evaluations. Our work shows that promotional tools do not necessarily hurt brand evaluations and in fact, the appropriate executional cues in the design of a promotion can positively affect

brand evaluations and coupon effectiveness. This raises the interesting question as to whether FSI coupons are in a different class of promotional tools, since they provide an opportunity to enhance brand image while promotions that are simple price discounts do not.

Finally, these results have implications for advertisers. For high-involvement categories with many switchers (as would be the case with a category having many brands but no brand with a dominating share), it will be desirable to provide information on brand benefits in the ad. On the other hand, if the advertiser is primarily targeting loyal users of a competitive brand that is dominating the category, a peripheral cue will be better.

In the case of low-involvement products, our results seem to suggest that advertisers are better off using such peripheral cues in any case. However, future research should investigate whether other executional cues not considered in this study (e.g., a direct comparative ad) could outperform the effect of peripheral cues for loyal consumers. Our success in identifying the practical effects of these two types of executional cues suggests that the study of other kinds of cues may well lead to further actionable results.

Bibliography

Cushing, Peter, and Melody Douglas-Tate. 1985. The Effect of People/Product Relationship on Advertising Processing. In *Psychological Processes and Advertising Effects*, ed. Linda F. Alwitt and Andrew A. Mitchell, 241–59. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Davis, Scott, Inman J. Jeffrey, and Leigh McAlister. 1992. Promotion has a Negative Effect on Brand Evaluations—or Does It? Additional Disconfirming Evidence. *Journal of Marketing Research* 23 (February): 143–49.

Dodson, Joe A., Alice M. Tybout, and Brian Sternthal. 1978. Impact of Deals and Deal Retraction on Brand Switching. *Journal of Marketing Research* 15 (February): 72–81.

Eagly, Alice H., and Shelly Chaiken. 1993. *The Psychology of Attitudes*. Orlando, Fla.: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.

Farley, John U. 1964. Why Does Brand Loyalty Vary Over Products? *Journal of Marketing Research* 1: 9–14.

Feinberg, Fred M., Barbara E. Kahn, and Leigh McAlister. 1992. Market Share Response When Consumers Seek Variety. *Journal of Marketing Research* 29 (May): 227–37.

Guadagni, Peter M., and John D. C. Little. 1983. A Logit Model of Brand Choice Calibrated on Scanner Data. *Marketing Science* 2 (summer): 203–38.

Hoch, Stephen J., and John Deighton. 1989. Managing What Consumers Learn From Experience. *Journal of Marketing* 53 (April): 1–20.

- Hoyer, Wayne D. 1984. An Examination of Consumer Decision Making for a Common Repeat Purchase Product. *Journal of Consumer Research* 11 (December): 822–29.
- Irons, Karl W., John D. C. Little, and Robert L. Klein. 1983. Determinants of Coupon Effectiveness. In *Advances and Practices of Marketing Science 1983, Proceedings of the 1983 ORSA/TIMS Marketing Science Conference*, ed. Fred S. Zufryden. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 157–64.
- Jacoby, Jacob, and Robert W. Chestnut. 1978. *Brand Loyalty: Measurement and Management*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Kahn, Barbara E., and Jagmohan S. Raju. 1991. Effects of Price Promotions on Variety-seeking and Reinforcement Behavior. *Marketing Science* 10 (fall). 316–37.
- Klein, Robert L. 1981. Using Supermarket Scanner Panels to Measure the Effectiveness of Coupon Promotions. In *Proceedings, 3rd ORSA/TIMS Marketing Measurement and Analysis Conference (March)*. 118–24.
- Larson, Ronald B. 1991. Coupons are More than Price Discounts. Paper presented at TIMS Marketing Science Conference (March), University of Delaware.
- Little, John D. C. 1994. Modeling Market Response in Large Customer Panels. In *The Marketing Information Revolution*, ed. Blattberg, Robert C., Rashi Glazer, and John D. C. Little. 150–72. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- MacInnis, Deborah J., and Bernard J. Jaworski. 1989. Information Processing from Advertisements: Toward an Integrative Framework. *Journal of Marketing* 53 (October). 1–23.
- Miniard, Paul W., Sunil Bhatla, Kenneth R. Lord, Peter R. Dickson, H. Rao Unnava. 1991. Picture-based Persuasion Processes and the Moderating Role of Involvement. *Journal of Consumer Research* 18 (June). 92–107.
- Petty, Richard E., John T. Cacioppo, and D. Schumann. 1983. Central and Peripheral Routes to Persuasion: Application to Advertising. *Journal of Consumer Research* 10 (September). 135–46.
- Petty, Richard E., and John T. Cacioppo. 1986. *Communication and Persuasion: Central and Peripheral Routes to Attitude Changes*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- . 1979. Issue Involvement Can Increase or Decrease Persuasion by Enhancing Message-relevant Cognitive Responses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 37: 1915–26.
- Petty, Richard E., Rao H. Unnava, and Alan J. Strathman. 1991. Theories of Attitude Change. In *Handbook of Consumer Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall. 241–81.
- Raj, S. P. 1982. The Effects of Advertising on High and Low Loyalty Consumer Segments. *Journal of Consumer Research* 9 (June). 77–89.
- Schultz, Don E., S. Tannenbaum, and Robert F. Lauterborn. 1993. *Integrated Marketing Communications*. Lincolnwood, Ill.: NTC Publishing Group.
- Zaichkowsky, Judith Lynne. 1985. Measuring the Involvement Construct. *Journal of Consumer Research* 12 (December). 341–52.