

Advertising A2

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What you need to know

Advertising is the last topic of the Consumer psychology option (Papers 3 and 4). It has three parts: how adverts are built and delivered, how the person watching changes what works, and how brands get known and remembered. You should be able to:

1. **The Yale model of communication**: name and explain its **five features** (who sends the message, what it says, how it travels, who receives it, and what it changes).
2. **Advertising media**: compare **print**, **television**, **internet** and **smartphone** adverts, and explain how researchers use **eye-tracking** and **EEG** to see how people react to them, with a study such as **Ciceri et al. (2020)**.
3. **Lauterborn's 4 Cs**: the marketing mix seen from the buyer's side: **consumer wants and needs**, **cost**, **convenience** and **communication**.
4. **Personality and adverts**: how **self-monitoring** changes which kind of advert works, through the key study **Snyder and DeBono (1985)**. Know **study 3** in full; studies 1 and 2 only in outline.
5. **Product placement in films**: how seeing a brand in a film changes what people choose, with examples, the explanations **mere exposure** and **reminding**, and a study such as **Auty and Lewis (2004)**.
6. **Brand recognition in children**: how children start to understand advertising by learning to recognise **logos**, with a study such as **Fischer et al. (1991)**.
7. **Brand awareness, brand image and slogans**: what each term means, the **types** and **functions** of slogans, and **guidelines** for writing a good one, such as those of **Kohli et al. (2007)**.
8. **Evaluate all of it** with the issues the syllabus names for this topic: application to everyday life, cultural differences, objective and subjective data, generalisations, validity, using children in research, determinism versus free will, self-reports, quantitative and qualitative data, experiments and interviews.

Before 2024 this topic was organised differently and also covered the **AIDA** model, the **hierarchy of effects** model, McCarthy's **4 Ps** and Braun-LaTour et al.'s false-memory study. These are **not** on the current syllabus; they appear briefly at the end of "Understand it" only because older questions ask about them. Memory for adverts and **interference** (Burke and Srull) belong to the consumer decision-making topic, but two questions tagged here use them, so "How to do it" covers them.

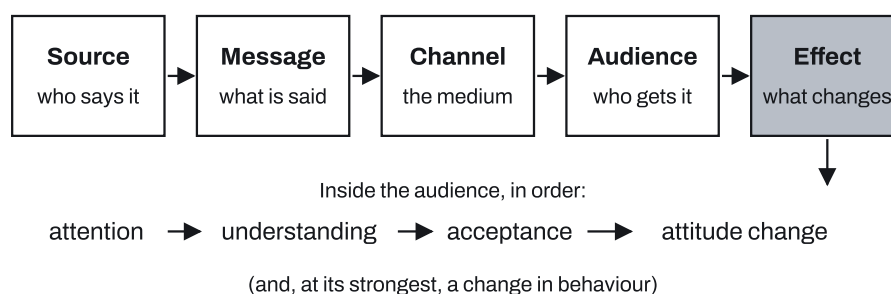
Understand it

The topic at a glance

Part	Idea or model	Study to know
Types of advertising and techniques	Yale model of communication	(no single study)
Types of advertising and techniques	Advertising media; eye-tracking and EEG	Ciceri et al. (2020)
Types of advertising and techniques	Lauterborn's 4 Cs	(no single study)
Advertising and the consumer	Self-monitoring and image or quality adverts	Snyder and DeBono (1985), study 3
Advertising and the consumer	Product placement: mere exposure and reminding	Auty and Lewis (2004)
Brands	Children's logo recognition	Fischer et al. (1991)
Brands	Awareness, image and slogans	Kohli et al. (2007)

The Yale model of communication

In the 1940s and 1950s Carl **Hovland** and colleagues at **Yale University** studied why some wartime messages changed people's attitudes and others did not. They split any persuasive message into five parts. Changing any one part changes how persuasive the whole message is.



1. **Source** (the communicator). We believe a person more when we think they **know the subject** (expertise) and have **no reason to mislead us** (trustworthiness). A dentist recommending toothpaste works better than a stranger. Presenters who are **attractive, likeable** or **similar** to the audience also help, and a celebrity used for too many brands starts to look less trustworthy.
2. **Message** (the content). The purpose should be obvious. A **two-sided** message, which admits a weakness or mentions a rival before answering it, tends to persuade more than a one-sided one, especially for an audience that already knows the arguments or the product. Figures and test results make a claim

feel solid, and **repeating** a message helps people remember it, though an advert that tries too hard can put people off.

3. **Channel** (the medium). The same words work differently on a poster, on the radio, on television, face to face or on social media. The best channel depends on **who** you are trying to reach: older people may see a newspaper advert that teenagers never would.
4. **Audience** (the receivers). The same advert lands differently on different people. **Age**: attitudes are less settled in the young, so they move more easily than those of older viewers. **Education**: people with less schooling tend to defer to an expert's word. **Self-esteem**: people in the middle range shift more than those with very high self-esteem (confident in their own view) or very low self-esteem (who may not take the message in).
5. **Effect** (the outcome). For a message to work, the audience must **notice** it, **understand** it and **accept** it. The weakest effect is a change in what people think; the strongest is a change in what they **do**, such as buying the product.

Evaluating it:

- **Application to everyday life**: advertisers can use it as a checklist: pick a credible presenter, decide one-sided or two-sided, choose the medium the target group uses.
- **Cultural differences**: which presenters count as credible, and how openly a message may push, vary between societies, so rules drawn from American research may not transfer.
- **Objective and subjective data**: attitude change was mostly measured by asking people (subjective), and deciding what counts as an "expert" or a "clear" message is a judgement.
- **Validity**: its five parts match what advertisers really have to decide, and research supports many of them (face validity), but it predicts what **tends** to happen, not what one viewer will do.
- **Reductionism and determinism**: it breaks persuasion into separate parts that really interact (a credible source can rescue a weak message), and it treats the audience as people things are done to, though viewers can choose to ignore an advert.

Advertising media

An advertising **medium** is the route an advert takes to reach people.

Medium	Examples	Strengths	Weaknesses
Print	newspapers, magazines, posters, leaflets	can be kept and reread; magazines reach a known group of readers; readers accept adverts as part of the paper	fixed once printed; no sound or movement; newspaper readership is falling
Television	adverts between programmes, sponsorship	sound, movement and music together; huge audiences; can be national or regional	expensive; viewers skip adverts or watch streaming services without them

Medium	Examples	Strengths	Weaknesses
Internet	banners, pop-ups, search results, video adverts, social media posts	cheap; can be aimed at people by their searches and interests; a link takes the viewer straight to the shop	easy to ignore ("banner blindness"); pop-ups irritate; ad blockers
Smartphone	in-app adverts, adverts in social media feeds, messages, location-based offers	with the person all day; can use where they are; quick to act on	small screen; seen as intrusive; privacy concerns

Measuring reactions: eye-tracking and EEG

Asking people whether they noticed an advert is unreliable: they forget, guess, or say what sounds sensible. Two physical measures avoid this.

- **Eye-tracking**: a camera, built into glasses or placed under a screen, records where the eyes point. It gives **fixations** (where the eyes rest and for how long) and the path the eyes take. Longer total fixation on an advert is taken as more **visual attention** to it. Results are often shown as a **heat map**.
- **EEG** (electroencephalogram): electrodes on the scalp, often in a headset, pick up the brain's electrical activity while the person looks at each advert. Patterns of activity are linked to states such as attention, engagement or **frustration**, so researchers can compare how the brain responds to different adverts or media.

Both give **objective, quantitative** data recorded at the moment of viewing. But the equipment is unfamiliar and can be uncomfortable, it shows **what** happened rather than **why**, and EEG readings can miss or misread activity.

A study of advertising media: Ciceri et al. (2020)

Aim: to compare how people attend to and remember the same adverts in a **printed** newspaper, a newspaper **website** and a **PDF on a tablet**.

Sample: **72** Italian adults who read a newspaper regularly, aged **23 to 55**, **36** of them men, picked to cover both sexes and the age range (stratified by gender and age).

Method: a laboratory experiment with an independent measures design.

- The three groups read the **same** newspaper content containing the **same 25 real adverts**, one group per medium.
- They read at their own pace while **eye-tracking** recorded where they looked and an **EEG** headset recorded brain activity, which was used to work out a **frustration index** (how irritated they felt) while looking at adverts.
- After a filler task, a **recognition test** showed them **50** adverts, **25** that had been in their newspaper and 25 new ones, and they said which they had seen.

Results:

- **Tablet** readers looked at the adverts for **longest** and recognised **most** of them.
- **Website** readers gave adverts the **least** visual attention and recognised the **fewest**.
- The tablet and paper versions were not very different from each other overall.
- The frustration index also differed between the media. Mark schemes describe this result in different ways, so build your answer on the attention and memory results, which are clear.

Conclusion: the same advert can be noticed and remembered more or less depending on the medium, and adverts on news websites do worst.

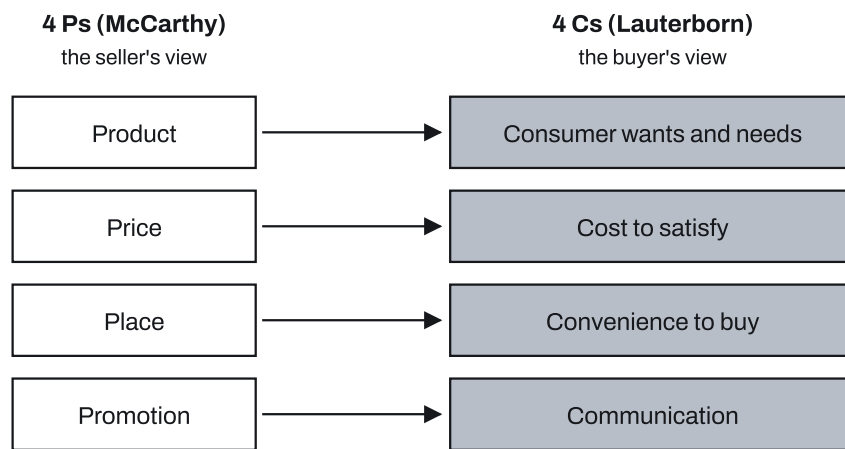
An alternative study: **Sundar et al. (1998)** showed students either a printed newspaper front page or an online version with the same content and adverts; the print readers remembered significantly **more** of the advertising.

Evaluating Ciceri et al.:

- **Objective and subjective data:** eye fixations, EEG and recognition scores are **objective** (recorded by equipment or scored right or wrong), so they are hard to bias, and they are quantitative, so the three media can be compared. But frustration was **inferred** from brain activity rather than reported by the person, and readers never said what they made of the adverts, so we learn nothing about their own reasons. A recognition test can also be affected by how hard someone tries.
- **Validity:** lab control means the medium was the only thing that changed. But nobody normally reads the news wearing eye-tracking glasses and an EEG headset, which may change how they read (low **ecological validity**); on the other side, the stimuli were a genuine newspaper and genuine adverts. Tablets and news sites are part of everyday reading today, so the findings should not date quickly (temporal validity).
- **Generalisations:** a fair-sized sample chosen to match Italian newspaper readers, but only regular readers in one country.
- **Application to everyday life:** advertisers could put more money into tablet and print editions and less into website adverts.

Lauterborn's 4 Cs marketing mix model

A **marketing mix** is the set of decisions a company makes to sell a product. The older **4 Ps** (McCarthy) look at it from the **seller's** side. In 1990 Robert **Lauterborn** argued that a company should start from the **buyer's** side and replaced each P with a C.



C	What it asks	Replaces
Consumer wants and needs	What are buyers trying to get? Find this out first, then make the product that delivers it.	Product
Cost (to satisfy)	What does buying it really cost the customer? Not just the price, but travel, time, effort, worry about quality and any ethical or environmental cost they care about.	Price
Convenience (to buy)	How little effort does it take to learn about it, order it and receive it? Online and in shops, delivery, opening hours, simple payment.	Place
Communication	A two-way conversation with customers (reviews, feedback, social media replies, surveys) instead of one-way promotion.	Promotion

Write "consumer **wants and needs**" in full: "customer" or "consumer" alone is not a C.

Evaluating it:

- **Application to everyday life:** it gives a firm four practical questions, and it fits online selling well (convenience: a link inside the advert; communication: reviews and replies).
- **Hard to test:** the Cs are changed together, so a jump in sales can't be traced to one of them, and outside events (a new rival opening, a heatwave) may be the real cause.
- **Hard to measure:** "cost to satisfy" includes feelings and effort, which are hard to put a number on.
- **Cultural bias:** it assumes shoppers who can pick between many sellers and have money to spare, which fits wealthy Western markets better than places where income, choice or internet access is limited.
- **Practicality:** a corner shop cannot pay for market research, an online store and a social media team, so the model suits big firms best.
- **Validity:** it is a model of what firms **should** do, built from marketing experience; there is less controlled research testing it than for the studies in this topic.

Advertising and personality: Snyder and DeBono (1985)

Self-monitoring is a personality trait: how much a person watches and adjusts how they come across to others.

- **High self-monitors** read each situation and change their behaviour to fit in and look good. They care about the **image** a product gives them, so **image adverts** ("soft sell": how it will make you look, who uses it) suit them.
- **Low self-monitors** act on their own attitudes and values, much the same in every situation. They care whether the product **does its job well**, so **quality adverts** ("hard sell": what it does, how well, test results) suit them.

Self-monitoring is measured with Snyder's **Self-Monitoring Scale**, a questionnaire.

Studies 1 and 2 in outline (details not needed): participants compared magazine adverts for products such as whisky, cigarettes and coffee that were the same except for an image or a quality slogan (study 1), and said how much they would pay for products advertised either way (study 2). High self-monitors favoured and would pay more for image-advertised products; low self-monitors for quality-advertised ones.

Study 3 (know this in detail)

Aim: to see whether self-monitoring changes how willing people are to **try** a product, depending on the type of message they hear.

Participants: 40 students at the University of Minnesota, half high and half low self-monitors (sorted beforehand with the scale).

Procedure:

1. Each participant was **telephoned** by an experimenter who did **not know** whether they were a high or low self-monitor (single blind).
2. The caller said they worked for a **market research firm** testing a **new shampoo** and offered the chance to try it free.
3. Each participant was **randomly** given **one** of two messages:
 - **image message:** tests showed the shampoo was only ordinary at getting hair clean, but **better than most** at making hair **look good**;
 - **quality message:** the reverse: only ordinary for looks, but **better than most** at getting hair **clean**.
4. They were asked two questions: how willing they were to try it, on a **five-point** spoken scale from "definitely not" to "definitely yes", and what **percentage** from **0** (not at all) to **100** (definitely) described their willingness.
5. The caller then explained the real study and answered questions.

Results: high self-monitors were **more willing** to try the shampoo after the **image** message; low self-monitors were more willing after the **quality** message.

Conclusion: the same product can be sold to different people by changing the kind of claim. High self-monitors respond to what a product does for their image; low self-monitors respond to what it does.

Evaluating study 3:

- **Ethics:** participants were **deceived** (a made-up research firm, a fake shampoo, a false reason for calling), so they could not give fully **informed consent**. There was no harm, and they were debriefed. Don't say they were harmed or denied the right to withdraw: there is no evidence of either.
- **Telephone interview:** questions have to be **few**, **short** and **simple**, because nothing is written down and people forget long answer options; study 3 asked essentially one question twice, on a five-point scale and as a percentage. Strengths: easy to reach many people, and people answer about their own preferences. Weaknesses: no non-verbal clues, little detail, and people can hang up part-way.
- **Self-reports:** "willing to try" is what people **say**, which may not match what they do; they may give socially desirable answers.
- **Quantitative data:** the scale and percentage are easy to compare between the groups, but there is no qualitative data on **why** each message appealed.
- **University students as participants:** a student pool is quick to recruit and fairly uniform, so differences are less likely to come from age or job, and young adults do buy shampoo, so the task suited them. But psychology students may work out what is being tested and answer to fit (**demand characteristics**), their budgets and buying habits are not those of older shoppers, and one American university limits **generalisation**.
- **Determinism versus free will:** if personality decides which advert works, behaviour looks determined; but people still chose, and the effect was a tendency, not a rule.
- **Validity:** the blind caller, random allocation and identical product controlled bias; but one product and a phone message are a narrow test of "advertising".

Product placement in films

Product placement is putting a real branded product into a film, TV programme or video so that viewers see it being used or hear it named, often in return for payment. Examples: characters drinking a named cola, a hero's car or phone clearly shown, a logo on a shop front in a scene.

Why can it change what people choose?

- **Mere exposure:** seeing something repeatedly makes us like it more, even when we don't notice that we've seen it. A brand that keeps appearing in a film becomes familiar, and familiar feels good, so it is more likely to be picked later. This works **without awareness**, which is why it can be effective.
- **Reminding (priming):** this works on brands the viewer already knows. The film puts the brand back at the front of their mind, along with whatever they already liked about it, so it is the first brand they think of when choosing.

Say **why** the effect happens. A result such as "children chose Pepsi" with no reason is not an explanation, and saying people copy a famous actor was not credited as an explanation in a recent report.

A study of product placement: Auty and Lewis (2004)

Aim: to test whether a brand placed in a film affects children's choice of that brand.

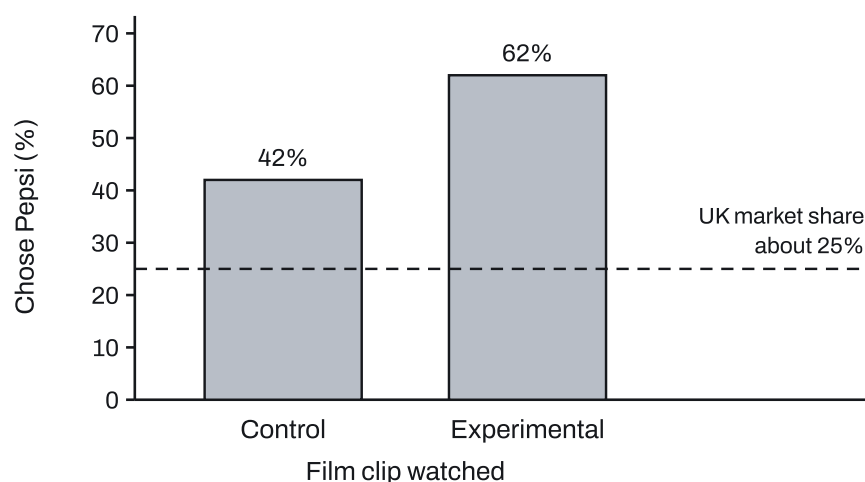
Participants: 105 children from schools in the **UK**, in two age groups, **6–7** and **11–12** years. Parents gave **written permission** in advance.

Method: an experiment with random allocation to two conditions (independent measures).

- **Experimental group:** watched a clip from the film **Home Alone** in which the family eats a meal and **Pepsi** is drunk and named.
- **Control group:** watched a scene of a meal from the same film with **macaroni cheese and milk** and no branded drink.
- Afterwards each child was interviewed alone and, first, offered a drink: **Pepsi or Coca-Cola**. The choice was recorded.
- The child was then asked to describe the clip, with **prompts** if they did not mention what was eaten and drunk.

Results:

Condition	Chose Pepsi	Chose Coca-Cola
Experimental (saw Pepsi)	62%	38%
Control (no Pepsi)	42%	58%



- Children who saw Pepsi were more likely to choose it, and those who had **seen the film before** and then saw the Pepsi clip were especially likely to (a **reminder** effect).
- **Age** made no difference to the choice, but the **younger** children needed **more prompts** to recall the clip (on average **4.43** prompts against **2.06** for the older group).
- Both groups chose Pepsi more often than its UK market share (about **25%**) would predict.

Conclusion: even a brief placement can shift children's choices, whether or not they can recall seeing the brand.

Evaluating it:

- **Using children:** parents gave consent and choosing a drink is harmless, so the study was ethical; saying it was unethical because the **children** did not consent is wrong. Children are less likely than adults to guess the aim, but may still try to please the interviewer, and results may not apply to adults.
- **Generalisations:** a fair sample with two age groups, but from a few UK schools.
- **Validity:** random allocation and a matching control clip support cause and effect. But choice was measured **straight after** the clip, so it says nothing about long-term effects, and individual drink preferences in the two groups could not be fully controlled.
- **Quantitative and qualitative data:** the choices and prompt counts are quantitative and easy to compare; the children's descriptions of the film were not analysed in depth, so we don't learn why they chose.
- **Application:** supports firms paying for placement, though some countries restrict placement in programmes for children.

How children learn about advertising: logos first

Children recognise brand **logos** long before they understand that adverts are trying to sell them something. A logo is a simple, repeated picture, so even a three-year-old can learn which product it belongs to.

Understanding **persuasive intent** (that the advert wants your money and shows only the good side) comes later, from around age 7–8. Psychologists describe children under about 7 as **limited processors** (they struggle to store and recall information even when helped) and older children as **cued processors** (they can recall well when prompted), which fits the extra prompts the younger children needed in Auty and Lewis.

A study of brand recognition: Fischer et al. (1991)

Aim: to find out how well very young children recognise brand logos, including logos for products meant for adults.

Participants: 229 children aged 3 to 6 at preschools in **Georgia, USA**. Parents signed consent forms.

Procedure: a matching **game**. Each child had 22 cards, each showing a brand logo, and a game board with pictures of products. They placed each logo on the product it goes with. The logos covered children's brands (such as the Disney Channel), adult brands (such as car makers) and **two cigarette brands**, including **Old Joe**, the cartoon camel used to advertise **Camel** cigarettes.

Results:

- Logo recognition was high and **rose with age**.
- Old Joe was matched to a cigarette by about **30%** of 3-year-olds and about **91%** of 6-year-olds, about as many as recognised the Disney Channel logo at that age.
- Recognising cigarette logos was **not** linked to whether the child's parents smoked.

Conclusion: very young children notice and remember advertising, even for products they cannot buy, so tobacco advertising reaches them, which is worrying given the harm smoking does.

Evaluating it:

- **Using children:** the matching game suited their short attention span and limited language, and parents consented, so the task was ethical and easy. But the task only shows where a card was put, not why, so a correct match could be chance; and some would question showing cigarette logos to preschoolers, although the cards carried no selling message.
- **Experiments:** a standardised task gives reliable, quantitative data; but recognising a logo is not the same as liking the product or wanting to buy it later.
- **Generalisations:** one US state; children elsewhere see different brands.
- **Determinism:** children do not choose what adverts they see, which supports limits on advertising to them.
- **Application:** evidence used in arguments to restrict tobacco advertising.

Brand awareness and brand image

- **Brand awareness** is how far people know that a brand exists and what it sells. It is tested in two ways:
 - **recall** (unaided): "Name all the brands of trainers you can think of" (harder; shows the brand is top of mind);
 - **recognition** (aided): showing logos, names or a list and asking which they know (easier).
- **Brand recognition** is the aided form: picking out a brand from one of its cues, such as its logo, packaging, colours, jingle or slogan.
- **Brand image** is what people think and feel when they think of the brand: its personality (fun, reliable, luxurious, cheap) and the associations it carries. Two brands can be equally well known but have very different images.

Slogans

A **slogan** (or tagline) is a short, memorable phrase used again and again in a brand's advertising. Logos rarely change, but firms change slogans quite often to fit new campaigns.

What slogans are for (functions):

- build **brand awareness**: help people know the brand exists and what it sells;
- shape the **brand image**: give the brand a personality, or shift one the firm no longer wants;
- make the brand **memorable**;
- **link** a phrase in people's minds to one brand, so hearing the phrase calls up the brand;
- nudge people towards **buying**: a phrase they know well makes the brand feel safe and likeable on the shelf.

Types of slogan (what a slogan is like, not what it does): **descriptive** (says what the product is or does), **imperative** (tells you to do something), **superlative** (claims to be the best), **question** or provocative, **wordplay** or double meaning (polysemous), and **jingle** (the slogan is sung or set to its own tune, not just played over background music).

Kohli et al. (2007) is a **review**: the authors pulled together earlier research and many real slogans, and turned them into **seven guidelines**:

1. **Think ahead:** choose words that will still suit the brand as it grows, rather than ones tied to this year's campaign.
2. **Say what the brand stands for:** the slogan should make clear what sets the brand apart from its rivals.
3. **Make the brand impossible to miss:** put the brand name in it, or make the connection obvious; many slogans don't, and people then credit them to the wrong brand.
4. **Stick with it:** one slogan used in every advert, for years, so the link has time to form.
5. **Consider a jingle:** a sung slogan stays in memory, but it can grate if overused or doesn't suit the brand.
6. **Launch with it:** make the slogan part of the brand's advertising from the first campaign instead of adding it later.
7. **Don't play it too safe:** a slightly complex or clever slogan makes people think harder about it, which can make it more memorable, as long as they still get it.

Evaluating Kohli et al. and slogan research:

- **Strengths:** it gathers a large body of research and examples from many products; it is **useful** to firms writing slogans; it is fairly recent.
- **Weaknesses:** much of it rests on examples and expert opinion rather than experiments, so cause and effect is unclear: if sales rise after a new slogan, the product, price, adverts or shelf position may be the real cause. Long-term effects are hard to test. Asking people whether they like a slogan invites **socially desirable** answers. A laboratory test of slogans controls variables but is unlike meeting them in daily life (**ecological validity**).

Issues and debates for this topic

Issue	How it applies here
Application to everyday life	Yale features, the 4 Cs, image or quality adverts, product placement and slogan guidelines are all used by real advertisers.
Cultural differences	The Yale model, the 4 Cs and most studies come from the USA, UK or Italy; trusted sources, internet access, brands and what counts as a good image differ between cultures.
Objective and subjective data	Eye-tracking, EEG, recognition scores and drink choices are objective ; willingness ratings, liking of slogans and attitude change are subjective .
Quantitative and qualitative data	Most studies here are quantitative (percentages, ratings, recognition scores), which allows comparison but rarely tells us why people responded.
Self-reports	Snyder and DeBono's ratings and slogan questionnaires rely on what people say, which may differ from what they do.
Experiments	Ciceri et al., Auty and Lewis and Snyder and DeBono controlled variables and randomly allocated people, supporting cause and effect, but in artificial settings.
Interviews	Snyder and DeBono used telephone interviews; Auty and Lewis interviewed each child; interviews allow follow-up but can lead to socially desirable answers.

Issue	How it applies here
Using children in research	Fischer et al. and Auty and Lewis: parental consent, simple harmless tasks; children may not explain answers and results may not apply to adults.
Determinism versus free will	Mere exposure works without awareness and personality shapes advert preference (determinism), but consumers still decide what to buy (soft determinism at most).
Generalisations and validity	Small or narrow samples (US students, Italian readers, UK schoolchildren) and short-term measures limit how far findings apply.

Older syllabus content (2021–2023 questions only)

- **McCarthy's 4 Ps**: product (the item or service itself, with packaging and guarantee), price (what is charged, including discounts), place (where and how it is sold and distributed), promotion (all the communication about it, including advertising).
- **AIDA**: an advert must get **attention**, hold **interest**, build **desire** and lead to **action** (buying); often drawn as a funnel.
- **Hierarchy of effects**: six steps from **awareness**, **knowledge**, **liking**, **preference** and **conviction** to **purchase**.
- **Braun-LaTour et al. (2004)**: after seeing an advert showing Bugs Bunny at a Disney park, many people "remembered" meeting him there, which is impossible because he is not a Disney character: a new advert changed an old memory (a retroactive effect).

Key facts and formulas

There is no formula list in the 9990 exam. "Learn it" means you must remember it.

Fact	Status
Yale model of communication (Hovland et al.): source, message, channel, audience, effect; the audience must notice, understand and accept a message before attitudes (and behaviour) change	Learn it
Advertising media: print, television, internet, smartphone. Eye-tracking records fixations (where and how long the eyes rest); EEG records the brain's electrical activity through scalp electrodes	Learn it
Ciceri et al. (2020): 72 Italian newspaper readers aged 23–55; paper, website or tablet PDF with the same 25 real adverts; eye-tracking, EEG frustration index, recognition test of 50 adverts; tablet most attention and recognition, website least	Learn it
Lauterborn's 4 Cs (buyer's view): consumer wants and needs (for product), cost to satisfy (for price), convenience to buy (for place), communication (for promotion)	Learn it
Self-monitoring: high self-monitors adapt to look good and prefer image adverts; low self-monitors act on their own values and prefer quality adverts	Learn it

Fact	Status
Snyder and DeBono (1985) study 3: 40 students, telephoned about a new shampoo, random image or quality message, willingness on a 5-point scale and as 0–100%; high self-monitors more willing after image, low after quality	Learn it
Product placement works by mere exposure (repeated sight increases liking, even unnoticed) and by reminding (seeing a known brand brings it to mind)	Learn it
Auty and Lewis (2004): 105 UK children aged 6–7 and 11–12; Home Alone clip with Pepsi or without; Pepsi chosen by 62% against 42%; age did not affect choice; younger children needed more prompts (4.43 against 2.06)	Learn it
Fischer et al. (1991): 229 children aged 3–6 in Georgia, USA; matched 22 logos to pictured products; Old Joe recognised by about 30% of 3-year-olds and 91% of 6-year-olds	Learn it
Brand awareness: how far people know a brand, tested by recall (unaided) and recognition (aided). Brand image: what people think and feel about the brand	Learn it
Slogan functions: awareness, image, memorability, linking a phrase to the brand, encouraging purchase. Kohli et al. (2007): seven guidelines (think ahead, say what the brand stands for, make the brand obvious, stick with it, consider a jingle, launch with it, don't play it too safe)	Learn it
Percentage-point difference = larger percentage – smaller percentage	Learn it
Mean = $\frac{\text{sum of the scores}}{\text{number of scores}}$; median = middle score in order; range = largest – smallest	Learn it

How to do it

We have tagged 39 questions on this topic, from 2021 to 2026 (Papers 3 and 4; 30 different questions, as variants repeat them). 17 of them have parts of more than one type, so the counts add up to 61.

Question type	Questions
Outline a concept, model or explanation	13
Describe a named study	7
Evaluate a named study's method	7
Describe and evaluate essay	7
Apply a model or finding to a new scenario	6
Children as participants in advertising research	5
Plan a study and justify it	5
"To what extent" essay	5
Suggest a way to measure, then its strength and weakness	4

Question type	Questions
Explain a weakness of a model or a problem researching it	2

1. Outline a concept, model or explanation (13 questions)

Usually 2 marks: name or state the idea (1), then add a detail, an example or a link to advertising (1).

- **Functions of slogans:** give two **functions** from the slogans section (awareness, image, memorability, linking the phrase to the brand, encouraging purchase). Types such as "descriptive" or "jingle" are not functions.
- **Brand awareness:** how familiar people are with a brand and what it sells (1), plus elaboration such as the two ways it is tested, recall without help and recognition from a list or logos (1).
- **Why product placement affects choice:** name **mere exposure** or **reminding** (1) and explain the process (1): for example, repeated sight of the brand during the film makes it feel familiar and liked without the viewer noticing, so it is picked later. Auty and Lewis can be the example only if you say why the result happened.
- **How EEG is used on adverts:** adverts (in one or more media) are shown to someone wearing a headset of scalp electrodes (1); the researchers then compare the brain activity recorded during each advert or medium, for example its frustration index (1).
- **A C from the 4 Cs**, such as convenience: the effort it takes a customer to learn about, order and get hold of the product, where less effort is better (2). Two Cs: write each in full, such as "consumer wants and needs" and "cost to satisfy".
- Older papers: **AIDA** (the four steps, linked to what an advert does) and the **retroactive effect** (a new advert changing an existing memory, with the Bugs Bunny example). See the older syllabus section.

2. Describe a named study (7 questions)

Usually 4 marks for the procedure, sometimes with one result. Use the study sections above.

- **Snyder and DeBono study 3:** telephone call, shampoo cover story from a "market research firm", random image or quality message, the two questions (five-point scale; 0–100%). Sample details and how self-monitoring was scored earn **nothing** in a procedure question.
- **The two message types:** name both (1 for naming both) and say what each claimed (image: average cleaning but better-looking hair; quality: average looks but cleaner hair).
- **Auty and Lewis:** the Home Alone clip with Pepsi against the clip without it, the drink choice, the recall prompts; a result with figures (62% against 42%).
- **Fischer et al.:** preschool children aged 3–6, logo cards matched to pictured products, cigarette logos included, recognition rising with age, Old Joe figures.
- **Kohli et al.:** a review, the purpose of slogans, and several of the seven guidelines, each with what it means.

3. Evaluate a named study's method (7 questions)

2 marks a point: the point (1), tied to the study (1), such as "they may respond to demand characteristics (1) by saying they would try the shampoo because they think that is wanted (1)".

- **Ethical guideline broken in study 3: deception** (false firm, fake product, false reason for the call) or no fully **informed consent**. Not harm or withdrawal.
- **A feature of telephone-interview design applied to study 3**: a phone call has no written questions to look back at, so each question must be short and easy to hold in mind (1); study 3 kept to a single question about trying the shampoo, answered on a five-point scale and again as a percentage (1).
- **Strength and weakness of a telephone interview** for this topic: reaches many people cheaply and they report their own preferences; but short questions give little detail, no non-verbal clues, and people hang up.
- **University students**: quick to recruit and alike in age and situation, and they buy shampoo too; but they may work out the aim, and their budgets and habits limit generalisation. Use the evaluation of study 3 above.
- **Auty and Lewis** and **Kohli et al.**: take the points from their evaluation sections.
- Older paper (Braun-LaTour): an example of data (number of words in recall, whether Bugs Bunny was "remembered"), inter-rater reliability (two coders agree; 0.9 is a strong correlation), and the situational (the advert, the visit) and individual (the person's own false memory) sides.

4. Describe and evaluate essay (7 questions)

Paper 3: (a) **describe** [6] (8 before 2024), (b) **evaluate** [10] with a **named issue**.

1. **(a)**: describe **every** bullet the question names; describing only one caps (a) at 4. For a study, the top level needs procedure detail (media, adverts, measures) **and** at least one result. For the Yale model, all five features with an advertising example each.
2. **(b)**: go issue by issue, **named issue first**, each point backed by detail from (a), then a judgement. Use the evaluation lists under each section and the issues table.
3. **Pairs asked so far**: the Yale model with a media study (Ciceri et al., or Sundar et al.); a media study with the 4 Cs. Named issues: objective and subjective data, validity, practical applications, use of children, reductionism.
4. **Variant (2024)**: choice blindness with memory for adverts and **interference**. **Proactive** interference: memories of older adverts get in the way of learning a new one, so the new brand's details are lost. **Retroactive** interference: a newer advert disrupts memory of an older one. The more **alike** two adverts are, and the **shorter the gap** between seeing them, the more they interfere; Burke and Srull (1988) found that adverts for competing brands of similar products reduced recall of a brand's details.

5. Apply a model or finding to a new scenario (6 questions)

Each point: the concept from the model or study (1) and an idea that fits **this** scenario (1). Two suggestions must be clearly different.

- **Using the 4 Cs** for a new group of customers: name the C, then a specific idea for that group. For example, convenience: let young buyers order on an app and pay by phone; communication: ask for a rating after each order and reply to comments on the platforms young people use; cost: a cheaper range, checked with market research, linked to the group's budget. "Lower the price" with no link to the group earns little.
- **Self-monitoring**: for high self-monitors an **image** advert (how stylish or admired the product makes you, aspirational people and places); for low self-monitors a **quality** advert (what it is made of, how well and how long it works, test results). Say which self-monitors and which kind of advert, then describe the advert.
- **Why a slogan is weak**: check it against the functions and Kohli's guidelines: no brand name or product, doesn't say what is special, not catchy, could belong to any firm.
- **Convenience and the internet**: a link inside the advert lets people buy in a few clicks; adverts reach people anywhere, all day, aimed by their interests.
- **Interference** with a copycat advert: if the new advert looks like rivals' adverts, interference is likely; proactive interference makes viewers recall the rivals instead of the new product, so it isn't asked for by name; use the word **interference** to reach full marks.

6. Children as participants in advertising research (5 questions)

Short questions (2–6 marks), or the issue named in an essay.

- **Why follow ethical guidelines with children**: children are **vulnerable**, and young ones cannot judge what a study involves, so permission has to come from a **parent or carer**. Testing them somewhere they know, such as their school, and telling them simply what will happen, protects them from distress. "Children can't consent" earns nothing unless you say who consents instead.
- **How children can be used** in brand research: a simple task such as matching logos to products, as in Fischer et al. (describing Fischer et al. can earn full marks); always link it to brands or advertising.
- **Strengths**: young children rarely try to work out what the researcher wants, so their responses are more natural; today's children are tomorrow's shoppers; and evidence that they know adult-product logos can be used to argue for limits on that advertising.
- **Weaknesses**: they may not understand instructions or be able to explain their thinking; they may want to please the adult; findings may not apply to adults.

7. Plan a study and justify it (5 questions)

Paper 4, with the research methods topic. Since 2024: (a) a plan [10] including the features named (such as a directional or non-directional hypothesis and descriptive statistics); (b)(i) describe the psychological knowledge it is based on [4]; (b)(ii) how two features of that knowledge shaped the plan [4]; (c) reasons for your choices, 2 marks each (the point, then applied to **your** plan). Before 2024: a design [10] and its psychological **and** methodological evidence [8] (only one kind caps it at 5).

1. **Experiment**: the type (lab or field), the **IV** with its levels, the **DV** operationalised (number of logos correctly matched out of 20), the **design** (independent measures for males against females), **controls** (same logos, order, time limit, room), **sample** and sampling technique, **ethics**, procedure.

2. **Hypothesis: directional** if research predicts which group will do better, otherwise **non-directional**; a null hypothesis earns 0 in (c).
3. **Descriptive statistics**: the mean (and median, range) for each condition, and a bar chart; in (c) say why: they summarise the scores so the two groups can be compared at a glance.
4. **(b)(i)**: describe the knowledge: brand recognition (knowing a brand from its logo, pack or slogan) with Fischer et al., or slogan guidelines (Kohli et al.), or product placement (Auty and Lewis).
5. **(b)(ii)**: "Fischer et al. measured recognition by matching logos to products, so my DV is the number of logos matched correctly."
6. **Jingle designs**: a jingle is the slogan **sung** to its own tune, not a slogan read out with background music.

8. "To what extent" essay (5 questions)

Old Paper 4, 12 marks: argue **both sides** with examples of research, then a reasoned conclusion.

- **Qualitative and quantitative data for children's brand recognition**: numbers allow comparison and statistics (Fischer et al.'s recognition rates), but don't say why; qualitative answers could explain, but young children may not be able to put their thinking into words. A judgement such as: quantitative data is enough for young children, both for older ones.
- **Children should never be participants**: agree, because a child may not follow the instructions, realise they can stop, or understand a debrief, and some harm only appears years later; disagree, because parents can consent, tasks such as matching cards or picking a drink are harmless, children behave naturally, and the findings are used to protect them. Don't assume any study with children is unethical.
- **Only one effective advertising medium** (such as television): TV's sound, pictures and reach against cost, skipping and streaming; other media suit other audiences (Ciceri et al.: tablet beat website). Stay on media, not other parts of the topic.
- **Eye-tracking findings have no value because of low ecological validity**: disagree, because the record of where eyes rest is objective and numerical, so people and studies can be compared; agree in part, because people who know their eyes are tracked may look differently, the data never explain a glance, and choosing a product also depends on touch, smell and price.

9. Suggest a way to measure, then its strength and weakness (4 questions)

(b) 2 marks: the method **with its type or format** (1), applied to what is being measured (1). (c) 4 marks: a strength and a weakness **of that method**, each tied to the context.

- **Laboratory experiment**: show participants several slogans, then test later how many they can match to the right brand. Strength: controls such as the same exposure time mean differences come from the slogan. Weakness: seeing slogans on a screen is not like meeting them in daily life.
- **Structured questionnaire with closed questions**: "Which brand uses the slogan ...? (a) (b) (c) (d)" or "Name three brands of energy drink". Strength: many people quickly, easy to compare. Weakness: guessing, or socially desirable answers about liking.
- **Interview**: semi-structured, asking what the slogan makes people think of the brand. Strength: follow-up questions give reasons. Weakness: interviewer influence, slow.

- **Observation:** record how quickly shoppers find a brand on a shelf. Strength: real behaviour. Weakness: can't see why.
- **Other than EEG: eye-tracking** (record where and how long people look at each advert) or a questionnaire about adverts they have seen.
- **Strength of EEG:** the reading comes from the brain at the moment of viewing, so the person can't shape it to please the researcher. **Weakness:** a headset of electrodes is an odd thing to wear while watching adverts and may change attention, and the signal can be noisy or miss brief responses.
- If (b) bans a method ("other than a rating scale"), don't use it, and make (c) match (b) exactly.

10. Explain a weakness of a model or a problem researching it (2 questions)

2 marks: the problem (1), explained in context (1).

- **4 Cs:** use a point from its evaluation above (the Cs can't be separated when judging success, Western assumptions, cost for small firms, "cost to satisfy" is hard to measure) and apply it. Saying it ignores modern technology was not credited: it fits online selling well.
- **Researching slogans:** a new slogan rarely arrives alone, so a change in sales may be due to the product, price or shelf position; a slogan's effect builds over years, longer than a study runs; people may say they like a slogan to seem agreeable, or may not really know; firms' own success stories are not controlled evidence; and testing slogans on a screen in a lab is not how people meet them.

Worked examples

Example 1

A start-up sells refillable water bottles called Rivo, made from recycled plastic. It has no slogan yet.

(a) State **two** things a good slogan could do for Rivo. [2]

(b) Using guidelines for writing effective slogans, explain **two** features Rivo's slogan should have. [4]

(a) It could make more people aware that Rivo exists and sells refillable bottles (**B1**). It could build an image of Rivo as the brand for people who care about the environment (**B1**).

(b) The slogan should include the brand name, such as "Refill with Rivo" (**B1**), because Kohli et al. found many slogans are remembered without their brand, so people may credit the line to a rival bottle maker instead (**B1**).

It should be used, unchanged, in every Rivo advert, on the bottles and online for years (**B1**), because repeating the same slogan builds the link between the phrase and the brand, so hearing it calls up Rivo (**B1**).

Example 2

A holiday company sells stays at the same beach resort to two groups of customers. Group A scored high on a self-monitoring scale; group B scored low.

(a) Using the findings of Snyder and DeBono (1985), describe a radio advert that would suit each group. [4]

(b) Explain **one** reason why the findings of study 3 may not apply to the holiday company's customers. [2]

(a) Group A are high self-monitors, who respond to adverts about image (**B1**), so their advert could describe being seen at the resort everyone is talking about, with guests posting photos from the rooftop pool and friends at home asking where they went (**B1**).

Group B are low self-monitors, who respond to claims about quality (**B1**), so their advert could give facts: guest ratings for cleanliness and food, the size of the rooms, and that everything is included in the price (**B1**).

(b) Study 3 used American university students and a free trial of a cheap shampoo (**B1**), whereas a holiday is expensive and booked by families with more money and experience, so personality may matter less than price or dates, and saying you are willing to try is not the same as paying (**B1**).

Example 3

(a) Describe:

- study 3 of Snyder and DeBono (1985), and
- research on how product placement in films changes what people choose. [6]

(b) Evaluate the research you described in (a), including a discussion of self-reports. [10]

(a) *Snyder and DeBono*. Self-monitoring is how much people adjust their behaviour to create a good impression. In study 3, 40 students who had already been sorted into high and low self-monitors were telephoned by a caller who did not know their score. The caller claimed to be from a market research firm and offered them a new shampoo to try. Each was randomly read one of two messages: an image message, that the shampoo was only average at cleaning but made hair look better than most, or a quality message, that it was only average for looks but cleaned better than most. They rated how willing they were to try it on a five-point scale and as a percentage from 0 to 100. High self-monitors were more willing after the image message and low self-monitors after the quality message.

Product placement. Product placement means a branded product appears in a film. It may work through mere exposure (repeated sight makes a brand liked, without awareness) or by reminding viewers of a brand they know. Auty and Lewis showed 105 UK children aged 6–7 or 11–12 a Home Alone clip in which Pepsi was drunk and named, or a clip with milk. Offered Pepsi or Coca-Cola afterwards, 62% of the Pepsi group chose Pepsi against 42% of the control group. Age did not change the choice, but younger children needed more prompts to recall the clip.

Why it reaches the top level: both bullets, each with procedure detail and at least one result.

(b) Self-reports (the named issue). Snyder and DeBono relied on self-reports: participants **said** how willing they were to try the shampoo. This made it quick to collect comparable data over the phone, and the two scales gave numbers that could be compared between the high and low self-monitors. But saying you would try something costs nothing, and we don't know whether anyone used the shampoo; participants may also have answered politely to a friendly caller. Auty and Lewis avoided this weakness by recording a real choice of drink, which is behaviour rather than a report, though their recall data were self-reports and needed many prompts from the youngest children.

Validity. Both studies used random allocation, and Snyder and DeBono's caller was blind to self-monitoring scores, so the message or clip is the likely cause of the difference. But both measured the effect straight away, so they tell us nothing about choices weeks later.

Generalisations and children. Snyder and DeBono tested students from one US university, who may not represent older consumers. Auty and Lewis used children with parental consent and a harmless task; children are less likely to guess the aim, but the results may not apply to adults.

Determinism. Mere exposure suggests choices can be pushed without our knowledge, and self-monitoring suggests personality decides which adverts work. But in both studies many people still chose against the prediction (38% of the Pepsi group chose Coca-Cola), so these are influences, not causes that remove choice.

Application. Advertisers can match the type of claim to the audience and pay for placements, though some countries limit placement aimed at children.

Overall, the findings are useful and fairly well controlled, but because one rests on what people say and both on short-term measures, they show that adverts **can** shift choice more than how much they change real buying.

Why it reaches the top level: the named issue first and in depth, applied to both studies; several further issues with detail from (a); a reasoned judgement.

Example 4

A drinks company has paid for its sparkling water, Zeno, to appear in a pop music video.

(a) Plan an experiment to find out whether young adults who see Zeno in the music video like the brand more than those who don't. Include a hypothesis (directional or non-directional) and the descriptive statistics you would use. [10]

(c)(i) Give **one** reason why you chose this kind of hypothesis. [2]

(c)(iii) Give **one** reason for using these descriptive statistics. [2]

(a) Type: a laboratory experiment. **IV:** which version of the music video is watched: one in which the singer drinks from a clearly shown Zeno bottle, or the same video with the bottle's label blurred. **DV:** liking of Zeno, rated from 1 (dislike a lot) to 10 (like a lot) on a questionnaire that also asks about four other brands, so the aim is less obvious. **Design:** independent measures, with participants randomly allocated to the two versions.

Controls: the same three-minute video apart from the label, the same screen, volume, room and written instructions, and only people who have never tasted Zeno. *Directional hypothesis*: young adults who watch the video with Zeno shown will give Zeno a higher liking rating than those who watch the version with the label blurred. *Sample*: an opportunity sample of 40 college students aged 18–21, 20 per condition. *Ethics*: informed consent, the right to withdraw, ratings kept anonymous, a debrief explaining the real aim. *Descriptive statistics*: the mean, median and range of the liking ratings for each condition, shown in a bar chart of the means.

(c)(i) A directional hypothesis was chosen because earlier research predicts the direction of the effect **(B1)**: Auty and Lewis found children who saw Pepsi in a film clip chose it more often, and mere exposure suggests seeing Zeno will raise liking, not lower it **(B1)**.

(c)(iii) The mean summarises all 20 ratings in each condition as one number **(B1)**, so it is easy to see at a glance whether the group who saw Zeno rated it higher than the blurred-label group, and the range shows whether ratings in either group were very spread out **(B1)**.

Common mistakes

- **Giving types of slogan when functions are asked**: "descriptive" or "jingle" says what a slogan is like, not what it does (March 2026 report).
- **Naming a method with no detail**: "a questionnaire" with no format (closed questions, online) or no question that measures the slogan scores little; and a strength or weakness that doesn't match the method in (b) scores nothing (March 2026 report).
- **Writing "customer" as one of the 4 Cs**: it must be consumer **wants and needs** (June 2022 report). Mixing up the 4 Cs with the 4 Ps also loses marks (March 2025 report).
- **"Lower the price" with no link** to the customers in the scenario earns no credit (March 2025 report).
- **Saying the 4 Cs lack temporal validity**: not credited, since the model fits internet selling well (March 2025 report).
- **Explaining product placement by copying a celebrity**: not credited; use mere exposure or reminding, and explain **why** (March 2025 report).
- **"The children didn't give consent, so it was unethical"**: in Fischer et al. and Auty and Lewis, parents gave consent, which is what the guidelines require (June 2021, June 2022, November 2022 and March 2023 reports).
- **Fischer et al. details wrong**: the wrong age range, vague results ("they were good at matching"), or saying cigarette logos were recognised more in smoking homes; they were not (June 2021 report). Describing Auty and Lewis when Fischer et al. is asked, or the other way round (June 2021 and March 2023 reports).
- **Snyder and DeBono procedure**: writing about the sample or how self-monitoring was scored earns nothing when the procedure is asked (mark scheme). In a "to what extent" essay, describing the study without discussing the statement scores little (March 2021 report).
- **Kohli et al.**: listing guidelines without saying what each means or why (November 2021 report).
- **Jingle designs**: playing background music while a slogan is shown is not a jingle; and North et al.'s restaurant music is a different topic (June 2023 report).

- **Drifting off the question:** answering a media question with brand recognition, product placement or marketing mix models (June 2022 report); describing a whole eye-tracking study instead of using it to argue (June 2021 report).
- **The Ciceri et al. frustration result:** mark schemes report it differently, so lead with the attention and recognition results, which are clear.
- **Interference the wrong way round:** proactive means the old interferes with the new; retroactive means the new interferes with the old (November 2022 report).

How to get the marks

- **"Identify", "state", "give":** short and exact (two Cs in full, two functions, the name of a message type).
- **"Outline"** (2 marks): the idea plus a detail, an example or a link to advertising.
- **"Explain" or "suggest"** (2 marks a point): the point (1), then tie it to the study, product or people in the question (1). Repeating the question's words earns nothing.
- **Scenario questions:** two clearly different suggestions, each naming the model part (the C, the type of self-monitor, the guideline) and a specific idea for that scenario.
- **Study recall:** figures earn marks: 40 students, a five-point scale and 0–100%, 105 children, 62% against 42%, 229 children aged 3–6, 72 readers and 25 adverts.
- **Measure, then strength and weakness:** name the method with its type or format and say what exactly is measured; then a strength and weakness of **that** method, each in context.
- **"Describe" essays:** cover every bullet named; for a study, procedure detail and at least one result. No evaluation in (a).
- **"Evaluate"** (10 marks): issue by issue, named issue first, each backed by evidence from (a), then a judgement.
- **"To what extent":** both sides with research examples, then a conclusion reached by reasoning, not a summary.
- **Plans:** every feature the question names, the IV with levels and an operationalised DV, a hypothesis that names both conditions and the DV, and reasons applied to **your** plan.

Quick check

1. Match each of Lauterborn's 4 Cs to the P it replaces.
2. In Auty and Lewis (2004), 62% of the experimental group and 42% of the control group chose Pepsi. What is the difference in percentage points, and what percentage of each group chose Coca-Cola?
3. Is each one a test of brand **recall** or brand **recognition**? (a) "Name all the brands of breakfast cereal you can think of." (b) "Here are eight logos. Which ones do you know?"
4. Ten participants who saw Zeno in the music video gave liking ratings of 7, 8, 6, 9, 7, 8, 5, 7, 8, 6. Ten who saw the blurred version gave 5, 6, 4, 7, 5, 6, 3, 6, 5, 4. Find the mean, median and range for each group.

5. Which feature of the Yale model is being changed in each case? (a) A toothpaste advert swaps an actor for a real dentist. (b) A bank moves its advert from television to a podcast. (c) A car advert aimed at retired people is remade for first-time drivers.

Answers

1. Consumer wants and needs replaces **product**; cost to satisfy replaces **price**; convenience to buy replaces **place**; communication replaces **promotion**.
2. $62 - 42 = 20$ percentage points. Coca-Cola: $100 - 62 = 38\%$ of the experimental group and $100 - 42 = 58\%$ of the control group.
3. (a) **Recall** (no help given). (b) **Recognition** (the logos are shown).
4. Saw Zeno: sum 71, mean $71 \div 10 = 7.1$; in order 5, 6, 6, 7, 7, 7, 8, 8, 8, 9, median $(7 + 7) \div 2 = 7$; range $9 - 5 = 4$. Blurred: sum 51, mean $51 \div 10 = 5.1$; in order 3, 4, 4, 5, 5, 5, 6, 6, 6, 7, median $(5 + 5) \div 2 = 5$; range $7 - 3 = 4$. The Zeno group's ratings are higher on average with the same spread.
5. (a) **Source**. (b) **Channel**. (c) **Audience**.

Past questions to try

- 9990/42/M/J/24 Q3: the procedure of Snyder and DeBono's study 3, an ethical guideline broken, telephone interviews.
- 9990/33/M/J/24 Q5: image and quality adverts for high and low self-monitors.
- 9990/32/F/M/24 Q7: why a slogan is weak, and a problem in researching slogans.
- 9990/42/O/N/24 Q4: using EEG to study responses to advertising media.