Chapter – 2
Review of Literature
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

OVERVIEW

Ever since the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) encouraged explicitly naming competing brand in advertisements, many investigations have been conducted by advertising researchers to determine the effects of such a practice. The use of numerous independent and dependent variables in these investigations has generated a wide spectrum of results.¹

While bringing products and services to the marketplace involves a number of complex, interrelated decisions. It is now widely acknowledged that marketplace success depends on the interaction of the internal and external factors surrounding the firm. For all products, it is vital that the qualities that will satisfy the ‘buyers’ wants are communicated to the target market effectively – the right message delivered to the right audience, through the right channels, with the right amount of frequency. However, the communications or promotion variable is not always the most important factor in determining success. Often, one or more other variables – price, product, or distribution, for example – are more significant. Frequently, the external environment determines a company’s fate – a new law, a sudden shift in the economy, or a change in social or cultural values.

Further, the advertising effort, just like every company function, competes for company resources. A company can communicate in a number of ways; therefore, in a sense the advertising department competes with the sales department, the public relations department, and the sales promotion department. In a larger sense, the total promotion program competes for the resources that a company has to allocate to other marketing areas (product development) or to general business arias (such as investment in capital equipment).

To understand how advertising works for any company, it is necessary to appreciate its relationship to broader business decisions. Although the advertising manager is rarely responsible for these broader decisions, he or she must come to understand that advertising both affects and is affected by such decisions.

However, a number of studies provide positive results of advertising. These studies show that advertising can bring the sponsor’s brand closer to the competing brand by showing the similarities between the brands. This may be beneficial to the sponsored brand. The researchers have compelling reasons to encourage or discourage the practice of advertising.

DEFINITION & HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF ADVERTISING

The word advertising comes from the Latin word ‘advertere’ meaning ‘to turn the mind towards’. The word advertisement first appeared around 1665 A.D. It was used in the bible to indicate notification or warning. By 1660, it was used as a heading for commercial information by storekeepers. Harold W. Berkman and Christopher Gilson, have defined advertising as a persuasive media communication designed to respond and help to achieve the marketing objectives.

According to the New Encyclopedia Britannica, advertising is a form of communication intended to promote the sales of the product / service to influence public opinion, to gain political support or to advance a particular cause.

Modern advertising is largely a product of the twentieth century. However, communication has been a part of the selling process for almost a long as there has been the need to exchange goods from one person to another. The development of technology and research has led to increased sophistication in advertising in recent deals. During ancient and medieval times advertising

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was crude if measured by present day standards. However, the basic reason for using advertising was the same then as it is now.

The recorded history of advertising covers a period of about 5000 years including the modern satellite and internet age. Our knowledge of advertising in ancient times is in fragments. Nevertheless, it seems that the urge to advertise has been a part of human nature since ancient times. The diggings of archeologists in the countries rimming the Mediterranean Sea have unearthed a Babylonian Clay tablet of about 3000 BC, bearing inscription for an ointment dealer, a scribe and a shoe maker. Romans and their predecessors know that “it plays to advertise.” Papyri found in the ruins of Thebes (Egypt) show announcements offering rewards for the return of runaway slaves (about 3000 BC).

Before the insertion of printing from movable type (about 1438 A.D.) by John Gutenberg, there were three forms of advertising.³

**Trademarks:** Craftsman in early times wanted to be identified for their skills and placed their individual marks on goods they crafted. This led to reputation building of particular artisans by word of mouth. Buyers learnt to look for the distinctive mark just as we look today for brand names and trademarks on products.

**Signs:** Phoenicians and other traders painted commercial messages on prominent rocks along trade routes that they used. These messages highly praised the products that were for sale. This is an example of ancient outdoor advertising. Archeologists have revealed from excavations at Pompeii that little shops had inscriptions on walls near the entrance to inform the passers by whether the shop sold pottery, wine, bread, or any other goods.

**Town Criers:** This system of town criers was perhaps present in all developed civilizations of ancient world. In Greece during the Golden Age,

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town criers were paid to go around spreading news and making announcements in the streets of Athens.

Epics and history book about ancient India reveal that the system of town criers was used by the rulers in India to inform the public of various public interest matters. In rural India, town criers were used till 1950s. The first known printed advertisement in the English language appeared nearly forty years after the invention of the movable typewriter. William Caxton of London printed the first advertisement. It was a handbill of the rules for the guidance of clergy at Easter and was put on the church doors. The printed newspaper emerged from the newsletters which were handwritten by professional writers for limited circulation among the nobles and others elite classes.

The first advertisement in any language to be printed on a circulated sheet appeared in German news pamphlet in about 1525. The advertisement praised the virtues of a mysterious drug. It was from such beginnings that the printed newspaper emerged and the first printed newspaper in English came out in 1622, the Weekly News of London. The first advertisement appeared in an English newspaper in 1625.

The first advertisement in America appeared in 1704 in the Boston Newsletter offering a reward for the capture of a thief. This was more like the reward for returned slaves written on Egyptian papyrus thousands of years.

By the middle of the 17th century, weekly newspaper started to appear in England. Most of the early advertisement in these newspapers were in the form of announcements. Importers of products knew, England were prominent advertisers. The first advertisement offering coffee appeared in a newspaper in 1624, followed by an offering of chocolate in 1657 and tea in 1658.

In the late 1880s, John E. Powers emerged as a greater copywriter. He had a simple approach – he believed in “printing the news of store --- no catchy headings ---- no brag, no pressure.” J. Walter Thompson, a young advertising executive, signed on exclusive contract with twenty –five of the best American
magazines and had an impressive list of advertisers. He is also known as the inventor of the modern advertising agency.

An agency, Lord and Thomas, had two remarkable copywriters, John E. Kennedy (Joined Lord and Thomas in 1898) and Claude C. Hopkins and enjoyed a reputation work. Hopkins had joined Lord and Thomas in 1907 was regarded by many as the greatest creator of advertising who ever practiced the art (Claude C. Hopkins, My Life in Advertising, Chicago Advertising Publication: 1966, p.172).

During the 1920s, modern marketing research entered the world of advertising. As a result of this new development, advertising of this period started stressing on the outcome of consumer purchases such as health, happiness, status and love, etc. Advertisements contained bold headline, art work, photography and plenty of colour. Before the severe depression of the 1920s, radio was not being used for advertising. Strong though it seems, during this period of depression the commercial radio-emerged. However, it was not really a good period for advertising.

Most of the growth of advertising has been after World War-II. This was the time when excessive mechanised production and serious efforts to rebuild nations and economy was underway. After 1946, quite a number of medium and small companies entered the international market. Large advertising agencies of USA, Western Europe, and four East started opening their offices in several countries.

It was mainly because of the efforts of Leo Burnett, David Ogilvy and William Berribach that creativity and soft sell were reintroduced in advertising. Burnett’s contribution in late 1950s and 1960s brought drama and warmth to advertising with characters such as the Marlboro man Ogilvy, with Hathaway Shirt-man wearing an eye-patch, introduced a unique type of intelligence and class to advertising. Bernbach’s contribution was combining copy, art and
humour. “We try harder because we are No. 2” is the ad, which has been hailed as one of the most remarkable advertisement by Bernbach.

Kersey Katrak, an exceptionally talented advertising professional, helped in nurturing talents such as Arun Nanda, Mohad. Khan and Ravi Gupta in the mid 1960s. The collapse of some agencies such as MCM and Lyer’s brought on the scene many new agencies. The major trend in 1970s was professional approach and consolidation. During 1980s the economy showed significant improvement, and advertising agencies flourished.

Advertising is rarely a stable business. It changes with business conditions, social, cultural time and technology. The advertisements in the pre-independence period in India were mainly addressed to the affluent class. These advertisements were generally for tea, gramophones, cars, hotels, restaurants and cotton goods, etc. After independence, there was abolition of princely states and zamindary system and a new middle class emerged. With this significantly changed social, cultural and economic scenario, advertisers started paying attention to the middle class.

There are professional bodies that represent the advertiser, the advertising agency and the media. The name of these representative bodies are:

- The Indian Society of Advertisers (ISA)
- The Advertising Agencies Association of India (AAAI)
- The Indian Newspaper Society (INS)

Indian advertising has taken rapid strides and is becoming more professional by the day.

Advertising in the 21st Century: The past decade has witnessed a remarkable impact on advertising due to rapid strides in technology. It is difficult to determine exactly what the next decade will bring. However, what looks certain is that there will be much greater consumer involvement and control and some degree of two-way communication.4

Further progress in artificial intelligence will add a totally new dimension to advertising and its planning. There will be major career opportunities to talented people in electronic media. There will be a number of challenges unique to the coming generation and with these challenges there will be opportunities, responsibilities and rewards that advertisers of the past could not have imagined.

PREVIOUS FINDINGS

It is known fact that advertising pressure in only one of the many factors controlling sales levels and its contribution is submerged in the aggregate effect of all of them. Nevertheless, there are situations in which advertising is the dominate marketing variable because all competing brands are essentially identical with respect to price, distribution and product attributes. The consumer electronics industry in India present such a picture. In this industry, the other factors affecting the sales are also similar across brands and the functions of advertising is to act as a cure or reminder to purchase. The effort is to build a reputation of quality for the company over the long run. Advertising messages are also designed to make consumers aware of a forthcoming discount and other promotional schemes. Keeping in view the strong link between advertising and sales, the immediate sales could indeed become a useful performance measure and the basis for operational objectives.\(^5\)

For the past four decades, researchers have tried to estimate the effects of advertising on brand sales using field data (Leone and Schultz 1980; Valeratas and Ambler, 1996). Most of these studies have focused on many technical issues involved in efficiently capturing the unbiased effects of advertising, given the limitation of field data (Hanssene et al, 1990). Meta analysis of these studies have known that the effects of advertising are significantly greater than zero but vary by market and product characteristics.

(Assmus, et al, 1984; Sethuraman and Tellis, 1991). Lambin (1976) found limited empirical support of the view that advertising influences industry sales: in only four products market out of ten could significant industry advertising effects be observed. The four industries were all in the early stages of the lifecycle. More recent studies based on single sources data have also found some significant effects of advertising (Deighton et al, 1994; Kanitkar et al, 1992; Pedrie and Zufryden 1991, Tellis 1998, Telies and Weiss, 1995). Estimates of how advertising affects aggregate sales are available from a variety of econometric models which estimate parameters of general demand functions. One such approach has been called Replication Analysis (Farlay et.al. 1981) to indicate that various studies are viewed as imperfect replications of one overall unplanned experiment. Partly because of the fragility of advertising effects and the complexity of getting bias-free estimates, few studies have addressed the next important issues about advertising’s effects on sales.

Presentational features (or mechanical elements of Ads) represent dimensions of layout and illustration, aside from text or content. With respect to layout, we focus on the number of items advertised within an ad, and whether the illustrations are of a decorative or descriptive type. A decorative type of illustration portrays the basic character of the merchandise, either in pictures and/or words, but leaves detail to the reader’s imagination, designed to create an atmosphere associated with prestige (Assael et al, 1967). Conversely, a descriptive illustration features the merchandise in realistic detail.\(^6\)

The amount and quality of exposure are influenced by attention, eye movement and readability. Attention can be associated with how the eye moves on exposure to ads, and how ads are read (readability). The importance of attention, as a measure of advertising effectiveness, is explained by Tolley and

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Bogart (1994), who assert that most people browse newspapers to scan vast quantities of newspaper material using peripheral vision rather than reading thoroughly, and then focus more exactly on specific advertisements that attract their attention. According to Valiente (1973), presentational feature may be perceived even when paying through at publication without actually reading it attentively, and this explains why higher noted recognition score are associated with presentational, features (colour, photographs and number of illustrations) compared to content features (Valiente, 1973).\(^7\)

Studies in readability and learning by Buzan (1983) suggest that non-linear forms, such as photographs and illustrations may be more important than linear (text) forms for nothing and recognition of print advertising. The advantages of photography and drawings over text include a more precise definition of the control idea or concept. Links between the key concepts will be immediately recognizable because of their spatial proximity and visual connections, in line with how the brain orders information schematically, thus improving recall. This dovetails with advertising practitioners' advice to employ a control or dominant focus in an effective advertising (Book and Sohick, 1990). One result is quick visibility, and the other is simplification of readability within the context of advertising clutter (Moriarty, 1991). When layout is familiar and simplified, reading speed improves, reducing eye fatigue, important to time-conscious readers.

Another perspective is that greater reader attention is given to features that are presented differently from their readers' schemes or expectations (Loftus and Mackworth, 1978). This is because more time and cognitive effort are spent on schema-inconsistent stimuli (Bettman 1979; Berlyne 1966; Heckler and Childers 1992). Hence we might except that unusual features are associated with higher levels of attention (Assall, Kofron and Burgi 1967). According to stimulus ambiguity theory, unique shapes ad recognition (Berlyne

\(^7\) Ibid.
1966). Similarly, a colour ad placed in the context of black and white environment might be considered striking. Thus, colour is associated with higher recall scores (Diamond 1968; Holbrook and Lehmann, 1980; Valiente, 1997).\(^8\)

Perception is a process in which meaning is associated with sensory input such as presentational features (Horowitz and Kaye, 1975). Perceptual processes lead to aesthetic experiences that involve eye appeal and the sense of “atmosphere”. Print illustrations and text need to be clearly reproduced, a function best served by photographs (Moriarty 1991). Presentational features that are unusual may also attract the eye, add interest (e.g. with shapes of newspaper ads) or convey status and exclusivity (Guest 1968; Moriarty 1991). Mood and atmosphere are enhanced by the flexibility of photographic studio-effects and by specific colours associated with certain ideas or emotions (Dalley 1980; Horowitz and Kaye, 1975).

Motivational levels are based on needs relating to either product or store appeal. Advertising appeals may be explained by applying attribution theory, how consumer makes inferences about stimulus cues (Folkes, 1988). Thus, information derived from advertising features may invoke a set of cognition in which the advertised products are favourably perceived. Advertising features may generate favourable store associations based on motives of value or convenience of a one stop shop (availability of all related items under one roof). This might explain a reader preference of multi-item advertisements found by Chamblee and Sandler (1992). In contrast, single item advertisements enhance the quality, reputation or prestige of the merchandise (Moriarty, 1991) associated with an exclusive product appeal.\(^9\)

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Appeals may be enhanced by photographs, which can demonstrate product authenticity in a way that sketched illustrations cannot. Photographs also offer store credibility (Ball and Smith 1992; Herschell, 1988). Appeals can also be enhanced by decorative illustrations that convey excitement or store prestige or by colour in an environment that can be favourably position the store or merchandise (Edwards and Liebowitz, 1981). Photographs are also a non-verbal form of communication that expresses personal values, and self-image in a more revealing way than conventional verbal forms (Hartman and Braunstein, 1998).

Our implicit theory proposes that the selective use of presentational features in concert with other creative approaches, serves to build favourable perceptions, experiences and motives, and can unequally position the merchandise or store by improving reputation, exclusivity or prestige. An implicitly theories. By synthesizing such implicit theories, we can develop a series of hypothesis about the use of presentational features in print advertising (Ball and Smith 1992, Chamblee and Sandler, 1992; Edward and Liebowitz 1981, Hendon 1973, Loftus and Mackworth 1978, Lund 1947, Moriarty 1991, Valiente 1973).

The strongest direct of evidence of a “medium” advantage is in the previously discussed research showing stronger than for audiences passively reading a message (Watts, 1967) and in research on discussion (Jamis and Hoffman, 1971) and role playing (Culbeetson, 1957; Jamis and Mann, 1965).

Evidence is Scant regarding effects of different mass media on persistence of communication. Conventional wisdom suggests that the effects of print media – especially magazines – will be more enduring than those of broadcast media – especially magazines – will be more enduring than those of broadcast media, since readers may have repeated exposure to magazine advertisements as they leaf through the publications several times (Coffin, 1975). Krugman (1967) also hypothesizes that print media are more involving
than broadcast media. The former require relatively more purposive effort, while television watching can be characterized by what Krugman calls the "bleary-eyed" viewer. Although it may be that any differences are due to the fact that more involving and more differentiable products are more likely to appear in print than on television (Preston, 1970), some evidence of more immediate connections in cognitive responses to print messages, compared to television has been found (Hsia 1968, Borg, Tolley and Orenstein, 1970). Krugman (1966) quoted some evidence that might refute Preston's (1970) conjecture. A time study showed that involvement with advertising tends to be higher for magazines than for television for high involvement products but no different with low involvement products. Krugman (1970) also found that one magazine advertising produced a higher proportion of cognitive arousal, as measured by brain waves, than did three television commercials.

In a more controlled experiment, Wright (1970a) found significantly more total cognitive responses, less source derogation, and more support arguments for a print version of an advertisement than for a radio version. Cueing women that they would be asked to evaluate the product depicted in the advertising ("high content involvement) increased counter arguing for the print message but not for the radio message. Although acceptance of the advertising message was not affected by the medium, buying intention was higher for the print condition than for the radio. In addition to the immediately measured cognitive response activity delayed responses were elicited two days later, among the involved women supportive responses to the radio advertising increased, but not to the print advertising. Initially, the rapid transmission rate of broadcast media, compared to the more audience controllable input of print, probably inhibits both the amount and variability of response activity. Overtime, relatively more opportunity exists for increases in cognitive responses to broadcast media; these response may, in turn, be related to different amounts of persistence of attitude change and behaviour. If such
hypothesized differences in cognitive response activity do exist, it may be even more important to assess delayed, as well as immediate, effects for broadcast media than for print because of the former's greater potential for increased cognitive response over time.

Presumably, an established brand name is a factor in gaining a share of the consumer's memory. Brand name and symbol repetition would seem to strengthen persistence effects on the basis of evidence received to this point. It is also conceivable that persistence effects may vary depending on the number of brands within a product group. It might be, for example, that advertising for a brand in a product group containing relatively few competitors would persist more than advertising for a brand in a more dense product group, since fewer brands and messages would be competing for the consumer's attention and memory.\(^\text{10}\)

A primary question concerned what relative advantage, if any, is held by an "established" company or brand. The issue is comparable to that investigated in research concerned with whether an initial communication is likely to have a stronger effect (primacy) than a communication received closer to measurement (recency). Miller and Campbell (1959) hypothesize a net primacy effect resulting from an advantage of prior entry. That is, for two stimuli equal in impact at a given point, the stronger (e.g. a more familiar or more established brand stimulus will decay less rapidly than the weaker stimulus. This prediction is based on Jost's second law of Learning (Jost, 1897). In term of marketing situation, this may suggest that the established advertiser should have an advantage in terms of persistence effects in communication relative to less established advertisers.

This notion raises implication for current "corrective advertising" practices of the Federal Trade Commission, which may require an advertiser to

\(^{10}\) Merye Paula Gardner (1985); "Does Attitude Toward the Ad Affect Brand Attitude under a Brand Evaluation Set?", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 22, May, 192-198
run advertising that first cites earlier advertising that has been deemed misleading and then “correct” the particular misleading impression. Several studies have reported that a corrective advertising campaign of this type did indeed negate and some what reverse the effects of the previous campaign (Dyer and Kuehl 1972, Hunt 1973, Kassarjian, Carlson, and Rosin 1975, Mazis and Adkinson, 1976). However, on the bases of Jost’s law and notions from the sleeper effect research, one could speculate that, although the impact of the two advertisements appeared equal, the effects from the less established corrective advertising would decay more rapidly than the effects from the more established deceptive advertising. Sawyer (1976) concluded that studies indicating effectiveness of corrective advertising over heavily repeated, deceptive advertising campaigns when the effects are measured immediately may be misleading. Due to the more rapid decay of the corrective advertising, the effects of the prior deceptive advertising are likely to predominate with time. However, two recent studies of the effects of corrective advertising (Dyer and Kuehl 1978, Sawyer and Semenik, 1978) have not supported Sawyer’s prediction.

The durability of the effects of an established company’s reputation on evaluation of a new product was examined in a study of industrial buyer behaviour by Levitt (1965). Company (source) reputation was varied by identifying a paint salesman as being from a highly regarded long established chemical company (Monsanto) or from a lower-in-credibility fictitious company. As Levitt observed (1965: p.511),

\[\text{A sleeper effect hurts the well-known company but helps the lesserknown company. As the sales prospect forgets the well-known source his originally favourable attitude toward the product declines; as he forgets the lesser known source,}\]
his originally less-favourable attitude toward the product become more favourable.

The “Good” presentation was generally more effective than the “poor” presentation, and there were no interactions with source credibility over the five weeks.

The extent to which Lovitt’s findings can be questioned. Weinberger (1961), for example, suggests that repetition of advertising is probably more likely to reinforce the original effect of the advertising message, thus inhibiting development of the sleeper effect.

Weinberger’s reasoning appears to be supported by earlier communication research on effects of “reinstatement of the communicator.” Kelman and Houland (1953) exposed subjects with similar attitudes toward juvenile delinquency to identical messages varying only in source credibility. Immediately following exposure, effects were greatest among subjects exposed to the high-credibility source. Three weeks later, subjects were re-exposed to the communication and half were also reminded of the communicator’s credibility. Among those reminded of the communicators’, the original findings were maintained; however, among those not reminded of the communicator, there was a significant decrease in agreement with the high-credibility Communicator, and a small near-significant increase in agreement with the low-credibility communicator. The sleeper effect did not operate when there was repetition of the communicator – a situation analogous to advertising, which is generally repetitious.

There is no clear-cut evidence regarding whether or not the repetition characteristics of media advertising diminishes the opportunity for the produced to be dissociated from its advertising - similar to the sleeper effect. “Low involvement” notions of television advertising exposure (Krugman, 1966-67) seem to reinforce Weiss’s suggestion (1953) that attention diminishes
with repetition under conditions of “low motivation to buy or learn” (Krugman, 1966-1967). Moreover, Weiss (1953) and Berlyne (1966) suggest that repeated presentation of emotionally provocative stimuli leads to a kind of affective adaptation and reduction of arousal. Silk and Vawra (1974) argue that such affective adaptation might operate to offset the kinds of effects expected as a result of reinstating the source and thus might possibly negate the sleeper effect.

Again, empirical evidence is scant. However, contemporary advertising views suggest a “wear-out” model of persistence effects – i.e., advertising can greatly increase initial awareness and trial, but a saturation point is reached, followed by a decay phase. In the satiation phase there is no increased effectiveness with repeated exposures and in the decay phase there is a reverse effect of declining effectiveness with repeated exposures. The notion of wear-out thus denotes a negative carryover effect of pasted exposures.

Greenberg and Suttoni (1973) reflect this view in their review of studies conducted by several private advertising testing firms. The authors cite a Marplan study (TV Age, 1967) in which matched groups of viewers were exposed to the same television commercials from ten to twenty-four times over the eight weeks. The dependent variable was “interest”, measured by pupil dilation. Interest increased to a peak after fifteen exposures, and declined thereafter. However, Marplan cautions that interest varies by creative approach and product category.11

Although complete data are not presented, the authors conclude that wear-out of television commercials can be compared to verbal learning curves described by Jacobowitz (1956).

First is the generation phase where knowledge increases because of repeated exposure to the stimuli. Knowledge then reaches a satiation point.

where a person having little intrinsic interest or involvement in the subject matter feels there is nothing else to learn from the information presented. At this point, a person begins to forget the information he has already learned in spite of continuing exposure to the stimuli because he has mentally turned it out --- This is the decay phase (Greenburg and Suttoni, 1973, p. 40).

Support for this assertion is provided by studied by Apple (1971), Grass (1968), Wallace (1970), and Grass and Wallace (1969). In Appeal’s study recall of eight - one - 60- second commercials for thirty-one different brands was tested. While actual exposure could not be controlled average level of recall resembled the inverted U-shaped curve. Recall peak when commercials were on the air about one month, and decayed linearly after that.

The studies by Grass (1968), Wallace (1970), and Grass and Wallace (1969) extended laboratory studies to actual field experiments with Dupoint advertising. When the same commercial was repeated six times (AAAAAAA), interest declined after the second or third exposure. Insertion of a different commercial in the next to the last position (AAAABA) “revived interest momentarily” but interest returned to the earlier point on the decay curve for the last exposure. When two commercials were alternated (ABABAB), interest declined but at a slower rate, and, when six different commercials were used, little interest was observed. The authors noted that only recall and interest follows this “generation satiation – decay” pattern, attitudes maintain the level reached at the satiation stage, or even increase slightly with repeated exposure.

MEDIA SCHEDULE

The media schedule is defined as the number and timing of advertising exposures. On the basis of past research, it appears that, along with advertising supportive activities, repetition is the most important factor affecting the persistence of advertising effects. Although the efficiency of added advertising exposures in increasing effect is controversial (Simon, 1965, 1969), there is
little doubt that repetition is very effective in the importance function of preventing decay (Ostheimer, 1970; Stewart, 1964).

Some evidence for repetition effects is found in the communication research literature. Cromwell and Kunkel (1952) found that attitude change following a single exposure of a speech had nearly completely regressed to the pre-message level one month later but that one additional exposure at that time was able to return attitude change to the level after the first message. Cook and Insko (1968) found that a simple conclusion reminder eleven days after exposure facilitated persistence of attitude change. Other evidence for the effectiveness of repetition is reported in the marketing literature Politz (1960), Lucas and Britt (1963), Hubbard (1970) showed that repetition over a long time period can positively affect sales as well as awareness, and attitudes.

AMOUNT OF REPETITION

Research has established that repetition is effective in inducing persistence primarily through slowing the decay process. We now consider the effects of varying amounts of repetition on persistence. One particular repetition condition that is especially conducive to persistence effects is that of "overlearning". Like Eppinghaus, other researchers have found that practice (repetition) beyond the initial amount necessary to learn a task perfectly results in substantial persistence of learning over long periods of time (Keruger, 1929, 1930; Postman, 1962). However, if the subject matter is meaningful prose, over-learning appears to affect the absolute amount of learning and attention but not the rate of decay (Gilbert, 1957).

Craig, Sternthal and Olshon (1972) studied the effects of 100 per cent learning (7 exposures), 200 percent learning (14 exposures) and 300 percent leaning (21 exposures) of 12 print advertisements. The 200 percent learning condition resulted in more retention after 28 days than did the 300 percent condition. Both over learning conditions produce consistently better retention after 1, 7 and 28 days than did the 100 per cent condition. The authors
speculated that, somewhat similar to the "boomerang" result, the inverted U-curve for the number of brand name recalled may have been due to an offsetting effect of increasing retention, and increasing irritation, corresponding to decreasing motivation to retrieve the brand name. A subsequent experiment (Craig, Sternthal, and Leavitt, 1976) that controlled for inattention and reactance revealed that, as hypothesized, increasing repetition up to 400 percent learning monotonically increased recall after 14 and 28 days but no difference were found between 100, 200, 300, and 400 per cent learning for shorter time periods of 2 or 7 days. There is also the possibility that the constant repetition of an advertising campaign can make even a perfectly retained advertising appeal, such as, "I'd walk a mile for a camel," rather meaningless with no retained responses to that slogan (Amster, 1964; Amster and Glassman, 1966). It would be very interesting to examine directly the effects of a high number of exposures on delayed cognitive response measures such as counter arguing and support arguing.

TIMING OF ADVERTISING EXPOSURE

Besides frequency, another aspect of the media schedule that appears to affect the persistence of communication effects is the timing of the media exposures. Two relevant sub factors of timing are the spacing of repeated exposures and the degree of isolation of a brand's advertising exposures from those of competitor's.

Concerning the spacing of reported exposure, research on learning indicates that massed practice (short intervals) is more effective than distributed practice in producing initial learning (McCrary and Hunter, 1963). In advertising research, Strong (1916) varied the interval between four dummy magazine advertising exposures, and measured advertising recognition one month after the last exposure. He reported that a weekly interval was superior to monthly or daily intervals which in turn, were superior to immediate reviewing. Burt and Dobell (1925) investigated the effect of different schedules
of various sets of visual and audio-material on a paired-associate type of recall and recognition. When measured sixteen days after the first exposure, recall was superior, compared to a schedule with a ten-day interval between first and second exposures.

Besides the timing of repeated exposures, another important aspect of timing is the sequencing of exposures relative to competitor’s advertisements. Available research evidence from the order effects literature (Miller and Campbell, 1959, Insko, 1964) previously displayed indicates that there is usually a recency advantage; i.e., of two message, the one heard most recently usually has a greater impact. If a market has a very strong argument or the ability to purchase a lot of exposure or, if the goal is long-term effects, then it might be advantageous to get exposure before competitors. If the goal is immediate impact, the last exposure is probably a more attractive position (Gerhold and McGuire, 1966).

ADVERTISING FORMAT AND APPEALS

Some advertisements are more memorable than other due to their appeal – sex, humour, comparison advertisements etc. – or to their format, such as typography or visual technique in commercials. Over review of research yielded various studies dealing with the relationship between persistence of advertising and format or appeals. The following areas will be examined in turn.

- Refutational appeals
- Fear appeals
- “Soft-Sell” appeals
- Amount of information
- Self attribute appeals
- Advertisement with incomplete copy
REFUTATIONAL APPEALS

Most advertising messages, of course, present only supportive points in favour of the viewpoint and do not mention any potential drawbacks or refute claims in the message. The study of refutational appeals has focused on their greater effectiveness compared to supportive appeals in inducing resistance to subsequent attacking or competitive claims (McGuire, 1964). In addition to McGuire’s work with non-controversial topics, refutational advertising appeals have been found effective in inducing resistance in general (Bither, Dolich, and Nell, 1971) and in changing attitudes of users of competing products (Faison, 1961; Sawyer, 1973) and attitudes of more educated consumers (Faison, 1961).12

Some research has examined the effects of refutational appeals over time. McGuire hypothesized that refutational appeal would “inoculate” people against attacks on previously unquestioned beliefs. Supportive appeal on the other hand, would provide information but little or no motivation to resist subsequent persuasion. Following this reasoning, McGuire (1964) hypothesized that, compared to a refutational message, a supportive appeal is immediately more persuasive, but that later, after an attacking message is presented, the refutational appeal is superior.13

FEAR APPEAL

One type of advertising appeal that is gaining increasing attention from marketing researcher is the use of fear (Ray and Wilkin, 1970; Sternthal and Craig, 1973). This upsurge of research interest reflects a parallel resurgence of advertising campaigns which use some variety of fear appeals, e.g. campaigns for life insurance firm and alarm systems. Research on the question of whether high levels of physical threat are more effective than low fear appeals or messages using no fear has produced no simple answers. Research on the

13 Ibid.
question of whether high levels of physical threat are more effective than low fear appeals or messages using no feat has produced no simple answers. Both negative and positive relationship between fear level and changes in attitude and behaviour have been reported, and models which allow for non-monotonic relationships have been proposed (e.g., Janis, 1967; McGuire, 1968b, Levanthal, 1970).

The effects of fear appeals over time have been examining in a few studies. Although results are not totally conclusive, the overall finding seems to be that high fear appeals are more effective over time. Levanthal and Niles (1964) concluded that negative relationship between fear and persuasion seemed to result when measures were delayed following exposure (e.g. Janis and Feshback, 1953), while opposite results were found with immediate measurement (e.g. Levanthal, Singer, and Jones, 1965). However, when Levanthal and Niles conducted an experiment to test this conclusion, they failed to find the expected results. Fear, manipulated by the length of exposure (8 to 32 minutes) to highway safety movies, was at first positively related to changes in auto safety-related opinion and intentions; this attitude change dissipated back to pre-exposure levels over a one week period. Although the difference was not significant, somewhat less decay was found for the high-fear conditions. This result was consistent with Halfner (1956), who found that high fear message about the dangers of atomic bomb testing were more effective than low fear appeals both immediately and two week after message exposure.

Insko, Arkoff, and Insko (1965) tested the effects on seventh graders of high and low fear messages about the health hazards of smoking. The high fear message was more effective than the low-fear message in immediately changing intentions about smoking behaviour. Although the high fear message was still more effective after one week, the difference was much smaller due to a “sleeper-like” effect by which the effectiveness of the high-fear condition
decreased and that of the low-fear message increased overtime. Higbee (1969) and Evans et al. (1970) find almost same results.

In addition to highlighting the effectiveness of alternatives to fear messages, Evans's field experiment serves to show the complexities of the multiple effects of fear appeals over time. Other research has shown that the effects of fear over time vary between intentions and behaviour (Levanthal and Watts, 1966; Chu, 1996 Lavntahl, Singh and Jones, 1965). More fear research — especially in advertising contexts — is needed to clarify the conditions under which the effects of fear persist over time, relative to other appeals.

SOFT-SELL APPEALS

One controversy in advertising concerns the relative effectiveness of "Soft-sell" and "hard-sale" appeals. The former are low-keyed, often humorous or relatively pleasant, and usually contain implicit or subtle claims that must be grasped by the audience. The latter tend to be forceful and factual with very explicit claims thrust upon the audience. Krugman (1962) speculated that the subtleties of the typical soft-sell ad would not "wear out" from repetition as fast as would hard - sell ads in the high - repetition context of ads for consumer packaged goods. Some support for this hypothesis has been reported (Ray and Sawyer, 1971; Silk and Vavra, 1974). Although no direct tests of the persistence effects of soft sell advertisements are available, several relevant areas of research offer some insight.

One aspect of soft-sell advertising appeals involves the pleasantness of the message pleasantness may be due to the general mood of the commercial, some contained entertainment or even some direct humour. Some controversy exists over whether the effectiveness of an advertisements is a direct function of its pleasantness or whether unpleasant or irritating advertisements may also, like pleasant ones, be more effective than neutral advertisements. Most research indicates that a pleasant message environment facilitates immediate
attitude change (Janis, Kaye, and Kirschner, 1965; Rosnow, 1965). In an extensive review, Silk and Vavra (1974) speculate about a discounting cues process in which negative advertisements lose any immediate negative effects and become more persuasive overtime.

Pleasant messages – especially humorous ones may facilitate opinion change through distraction (Festinger and Maccoby, 1964; Bither, 1972; Gandrier, 1970; Haaland and Vanka Tesan, 1968). That is cognitive defenses of audience members are distracted from the persuasive intent of the ads, which facilitates attitude change. Oterhosue and Brock (1970) found that distraction decreased counter-arguing cognitive responses and increased attitudes, when measured immediately Lull (1940) found that two serious massages were equally effective as two humorous ones in both the immediate and delayed conditions. Other research (see Sternthal and Craig, 1973) has failed to find humorous messages superior. Finally, there is some evidence that source credibility can be enhanced by the use of humor especially for topics of low interest (Gruner, 1967; 1970).

Other than pleasantness, soft sell ads are usually characterized by the subtleness of their conclusions. Experiments which have compared messages containing explicitly drawn conclusions to messages with vague or no explicit conclusions have consistently found greater immediate attitude change for the explicit messages (e.g. Houland and Mandell, 1952; Cooper and Dinerman, 1951). However, if subtle ads which do not contain explicit conclusions result in the audience’s becoming more actively involved with the message, more persistence would be expected (e.g. Watts, 1967). Such reasoning receives some support from the work of Katz and his associates (Katz, Sarnoff, and McClintock 1956; Stotland, Katz and Patchen, 1959). “Self-insight” message conditions, which let the subject interpret a complex rational against prejudice, tend to be more effective over time than purely informational messages. Also,
as discussed earlier, some support for the delayed filtering of complex implication hypothesis has been reported (McGuire, 1960a; Cohen, 1957).

AMOUNT OF INFORMATION

One advertising decision involves the optimal amount of information to include in an ad. From the standpoint of memory, it would seem that the use of a unique selling proportion – combined with repeated exposure would be most effective (Reeves, 1961). It would also seem that the simpler and less cluttered the message, the more likely it would be easily perceived and retained and the less likely it would encounter retroactive interference. Weber (1971) found that, over three to seven weeks, attitudes decayed significantly less than in other conditions when a high – credibility source was mentioned 22 times in a message. Repeating a message’s conclusion seven times in a high – social – approval situation was much more effective than a one – conclusion only message at maintaining changed attitude over six week (Cook and Wadsworth, 1972). Also, as reported earlier, longer messages result in more enduring attitude effects than shorter messages. (Levanthal and Niles, 1965; Calder, Insko and Yandell, 1974).

SELF ATTRIBUTION APPEALS

Consumer researchers are beginning to focus on Kelley’s (1967) attribution theory as a useful explanation for consumer attitudes and behaviours (e.g. Settle, 1972; Scott, 1973; Burnkrant, 1975). In this theory, people are hypothesized to inter attitude regarding themselves and others from what they observe and see. One recent experiment suggested the effectiveness of a self-attribution appeals in producing persisting behaviour change. Miller, Brinkman, and Bolen (1975) compared the effectiveness of varied repetitions of attribution appeals with normal persuasive appeals on the littering behaviour of fifth-grade children. The self-attriubution messages (e.g. “You are neat”) were significantly more effective than the persuasive messages (“you should be neat”) is including neatness and pickup behaviour both immediately and after
two weeks. A second experiment designed to improve mathematics performance showed a similar advantage for self-attribution messages after two weeks. The authors hypothesized that the self-attribution messages, which presents the desired behaviour as a present fact, results in reduced counter arguing.

ADVERTISING WITH INCOMPLETE COPY

Since Zeigarnik's (1972) classic study, it has been consistently found that in complete tasks are better remembered than complete tasks (e.g., Butterfied, 1964). This may be true due to a created tension for completion which improves memory active completion being reinforcing and thus increasing learning (Heller, 1956), or the fact that active participation is apt to produce longer memory than passive participation. Advertisers have sometimes employed copy that might lead to a Zeigarnike effect in advertising - ending slogans like: "Winston Tates goods like a -“ or “To a smoker, it's a at the end produced 33.8 percent more immediate recall than complete versions and exhibited a 52.4 per cent advantage one week later. Including a pause after the commercial had no main effect on recall, but there was a significant but complex interaction of pause, ad completeness, and initial brand awareness. Heionback and Jacoby (1972) did report that, in another experiment, no immediate change in general liking of the incomplete commercial was found.

CONSUMER DURABLE REPLACEMENT BEHAVIOUR

Consumer durable goods, such as automobiles, television sets, refrigerator, clothes washers, and microwave ovens, have become standard items for many households. The high penetration of such products implies that most of the currently observed sales are due to replacement purchases. For example according to industry sources, in 1986 replacement accounted for 88% of refrigerator sales. 78% of clothes washer sales, and 53% of colour television set sales (Merchandising, 1986). More than 70% of all automobiles purchased in 1986 and 1988 were replacement (Newsweek, 1986, 1988). The replacement
rates of even some relatively new durable products are substantial in relation to their overall penetration rates (e.g., compact disk players had a penetration rate of 3% in 1985 and a replacement rate of 7%). These replacement numbers translate into several million dollars of sales each year.\textsuperscript{14}

Major research pertaining to consumer durable goods has included the following topics. (See also the review by Dickson and Willkie 1978): (i) information search and decision making (e.g. Westbrook and Fonell, 1979; Wilkie and Dickson, 1985), (ii) planning of purchases and the acquisition sequence of durable goods (e.g., Bayus and Rao, 1989; Dickson, Lusch, and Wilkie, 1983; Kasulis, Lusch, and Stafford, 1979), and (iii) Post purchase behaviour (the disposition of durable goods – e.g., Burke, Conn, and Lutz, 1978; Debell and Dardis 1979; Jacoby, Berning and Dietvorst, 1977; Consumer dissatisfaction and Complaint behaviour - e.g., Tse and Wilton, 1988).\textsuperscript{15}

Few studies, however, have explicitly examined consumer replacement behaviour. Exceptions include work by Jacoby Berning, and Dietvorst (1977) and its extensions (Burke, Conn, and Lutz, 1978; Debell and Dardis, 1979), which look at the disposition process for consumer durable goods. Jacoby and his co-workers, for example, develop a conceptual model of the major disposition behavior of consumers (e.g., old product thrown away given away, traded in, loaned, stored, converted to another use). Other researchers have attempted to identify consumer segments based on demographic and lifestyles variables and relate those segments to various disposition behaviours (Burke, Conn, and Lutz, 1978). Product factors related to the disposition decision also have been examined (Debell and Dardis, 1979). All of these studies, however, focus on product disposition after a replacement decision has been made. None examine the consumer replacement decision and, in particular, the timing of replacement purchases.\textsuperscript{16}

\textsuperscript{15} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{16} Ibid.
Though product reliability has increased and service incidence has declined over time for home appliances because of advancements in technology (MIT 1974), studies suggest that consumers are not necessarily interested in products with longer lifetimes (Lund 1977). Consumers replace working units before they wear out for a variety of reasons, including style/fashion preferences (DeBell and Dardis 1979; Hoffer and Reilly, 1984; Sherman and Hoffer, 1971); product features and technology advances (Katona, 1960; Mueller, 1958), and price and sales promotions (Bayus, 1988; Katona and Muller, 1954; Quelch, Neslin, and Olson, 1987). Survey further indicate that specific reasons for replacement purchases included failure or unreliable performance of the current product, changed family circumstances (e.g., recent marriage, larger family size, household move), and improved financial circumstances (Gaber and Granger, 1972; Ktona and Muller, 1954; Pickering 1975; Wilke and Dickson, 1985).17

Generally, replacement purchases can occur as a result of situations that are “forced” or “unforced” (Bayers, 1988; Wilkie and Dickson, 1985) . A product failure, would create a forced purchase situation, whereas unforced situations could include replacements of working units because of changes in style preferences. Depending on the replacement situation, postponing the purchase (e.g. because of financial problems or changes in priorities) may be on important alternatives. Thus, there is some uncertainty about the specific time a replacement purchase is made.

Modeling the replacement time as a stochastic quantity generates an aggregate durable good replacement distribution in which a wide range of consumer behaviour can be represented from people replacing after only a few years (early replacement buyers) to people replacing after many years (late replacement buyers).

Several approaches have been suggested for analyzing aggregate replacement purchases for the purpose of sales forecasting (e.g. Bayus, Hong, and Labe 1989; Kamakura and Balasubramaniam, 1987; Olson and Choi, 1985).

These methods use probabilistic distribution such as the Rayleigh (Olson and Choi, 1985), truncated normal (Kamakura and Balasubramaniam, 1987), and Weibull (Bayus, Hong, and Lobe, 1989) to model replacement purchases. Though appropriate for forecasting, these methods are purely statistical and afford no understanding of the characteristics of individuals with different replacement behaviours.

ADVERTISING EFFECTIVENESS

Marketers are frequently concerned with the effect of their advertisements. The effect of advertising depends on several factors: the quality of the advertising and the media, the characteristics of the potential buyers, situational factors such as the sequential order of the advertisements, the amount of time between advertisements and momentary consumer moods and other circumstances that are not under the direct control of the advertiser.18

The study of the effects of advertisements has generated a large and still growing body of literature. Much of this research is concerned with the influence of ad format, media factors, and individual characteristics on consumer's response (Begozzi and Silk, 1983). But most of the important testing diagnostic procedures employed by advertising researchers ignore possible situational moderating factors (e.g. Green and Sahaffer, 1983; Buke and Edell, 1986). Exceptions are more recent attempts to examine advertising in situational and temporal contexts. For example, Aaker et al (1986) examined sequence effect – how feelings created by perior commercials influence perception of subsequent advertisements. Batra and Ray (1986) explored

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moods effects on post-exposure brand attitudes. Temporal and other situational issues are, in the view of Schmalensee (1983), "... among today's top priority advertising research questions by top advertisers and agencies".19

There are many examples in the social and behavioural sciences in which the predictive validity of some measures varies systematically in accordance with various situational independent variables. For example, the amount of time between stimuli and the time of the day that they are received may be important factors in determining individual response (Mehrabian and Ruesell, 1974). If such factors are significant and uncontrolled, they may reduce the reliability and validity of test results.

To incorporate situational variables in advertising models and measures, one needs two types of research, first, the development of a situational inventory (Kakkar and Lutz, 1981); and second, the testing of specific situational cues, such as time of day effect on consumer response and behaviour (Schlinger, 1982).

Belk (1975) defined situations as "... all those factors particular to a time and place of observation which do not follow from a knowledge of personal (intra individual) and a stimulus (choice alternative) attributes and which have a demonstrable and systematic effect on current behaviour" (p. 175). Since behaviour occurs within the context of varied sets of circumstances. One may assume that these circumstances are an important sources of variations in consumer response.20

The role of situational variable has been acknowledged in a growing number of studies in consumer behaviour (e.g. Hornik, 1982). These study rely on the tradition of environmental psychology (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974). Which is concerned with such stimulus issues as the effects of noise,

19 Ibid.
temperature, mood, time of day, and other specific variables on individual response and behaviour.

TIME OF DAY AND RESPONSE BEHAVIOUR

Various pieces of evidence bearing on the relationship between diurnal fluctuation in stimuli and individual response and learning can be found in the behavioural science literature. Interest in the effect of time of day on learning dates back to the beginning of this century when practical consideration concerning arrangements of school time tables led educational researchers to investigate the best times to teach different subjects (e.g. Winch, 1913). Recent studies of STM and LTM tasks involving immediate and delayed recall of educational material have been the main source of knowledge available to educators and psychologists regarding how time of day of instruction is likely to influence achievement (e.g. Folkard et al, 1977). Generally, these studies have found that STM performance is better in the morning, while LTM performance is better in the late afternoon or early evening. Basing their arguments on studies involving recall of information presented in various forms, some researchers have stated that afternoon presentation results in better LTM performance at any time of day (Jarrett and Furnham, 1983).

Theories that support the findings of time of day and recall studies posit that physiological processes involving factors such as basal arousal and diurnal rhythms in plasma hormone level are basic determinants (Eysenck, 1976). It was shown that arousal rises from a low level in the early morning to a peak in the evening, usually operationalized in terms of oral temperature. In addition, arousal during initial learning has consistently been found to result in superior retention when testing is delayed for at least 30 minutes (Craik and Blankstein, 1975).

Blake (1971) found responses on a range of stimuli not involving STM to increase over the day and to parallel fairly closely the circadian rhythm in body temperature. He also found digit span, a “classic” test of STM, to show
virtually the opposite time-of-day effect and to be highest in the morning. Similarly Folkard et al. (1977) found that immediate memory for either a passage of prose or for a short film sequence was better among subjects who received the learning material at 8 A.M. than for those who read or saw it at 8:00 P.M. On tests of delayed memory, however, performance is typically found to improve rather than to deteriorate later in the day. They also found better recall for a story after a delay of a few hours among children who heard it at 3:00 P.M. than among those who heard it at 9:00 A.M.

Finally, Craik and Blankstein (1975), in an extensive review of the memory and arousal literature, concluded that the beneficial effect of arousal on LTM has been found rather more consistently than its detrimental effects on STM. In view of this, it might be expected that LTM should be better following afternoon, rather than morning presentation.

MESSAGE FORMAT

From the perspective of cognitive theory, a message format might affect immediate and delayed processing of information. There is growing evidence, e.g., that emotional advertisements may involve a considerable reliance on STM (Choi and Thorson, 1983), particularly when semantic coding of information can be avoided. Furthermore, based on the demonstration of Pallak et al. (1985) it can be argued that responses to rational persuasive messages are based on systematic processing and tend to be more enduring, whereas responses to emotional messages are based on heurisitic sequence of ad exposures. This was done in order to control for possible sequence and recency effects.

ATTITUDE TOWARD THE ADVERTISING ON BRAND ATTITUDES

Recent research (Batra and Stephens, 1987; Cox and Locander, 1987; Gardner, 1985; Gresham and Shimp, 1985; Lutz et al, 1983; Mackenzie et al, 1986; Mitchell and Olson, 1981; More and Hutheinson, 1983, Park and young 1986, Shimp and Yokem, 1981) has established that attitude towards the
advertising and brand related beliefs are the primary influencers of postexposure brand attitudes (Ab). Theory suggests the relative impact of these variables should differ when receivers are more or less involved with the advertising message (Batra and Stephens, 1987; Park and Yong, 1986; Petty and Cacioppa, 1981). For example, under high message involvement conditions, advertising receivers are likely to use “central route” or “brand” processing, whereby their postexposure brand attitudes are formed after diligent consideration brand attitudes are formed after diligent consideration of the message points of an advertising (Cacioppa and Petty, 1984; Petty et al, 1983). As a result, brand related beliefs are expected to be strong influencers of brand attitudes formed by highly involved receivers (Gardner, 1985; Park and Young, 1986).²¹

Conversely, when involvement with a message is limited, the receiver is thought to give greater credence to “peripheral” aspects of the advertising (e.g., advertising source, presence or absence of humor, etc.) when formulating their brand attitudes (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981). Accordingly, advertising is thought to be the primary influencer of Ab when receivers are less involved (i.e., when they employ non-brand processing) with the advertised message (Batra and Stephens, 1987; Park and Yong, 1986).²²

Yet, empirical findings have not always mirrored expectations. For example, Aad had also been found to influence Ab for highly involved receivers (Batra and Stephens, 1987; Gardner, 1985; Park and Young, 1986; Shimp and Yokum, 1982). These findings question the predictive validity of the Elaboration likelihood Model (FLM) and suggest that “the central route to persuasion may supplement rather than replace the peripheral route under some conditions” (Gardner, 1985, p.193). An automatic affect-transfer mechanism may provide a theoretical explanation for this relationship, whereby highly

involved individuals automatically associate positive or negative feelings with an advertisement to the advertised brand (Gardner, 1985, Zajone and Markus, 1982).23

Definition: Aad :- Aad is a predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion (Lutz, 1985)

Ab.: Ab is a predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular brand (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

PROPAGANDA FOR, NOT AGAINST, COMMERCIAL PERSUASION

For years advertising had been disparaged as the epitome of self-indulgent, wasteful, and manipulative capitalism. Previous bans on advertising had been rationalizing as efficient, a source of tremendous savings for society. But in 1979 advertising was suddenly portrayed as having a number of potential virtues. Advertising could be aesthetic, beautifying the cityscape, while being itself a clean “smokeless” industry, advertising could be inspirational, lifting spirits to “make us feel proud of a thriving socialist economy or culture in a cheerful artistic atmosphere” (Anderson, 1983). Advertising was now also seen as instrumental to catching up and competing with more develop economies, an essential to becoming more modern and a valuable source of hard currency from foreign advertisers (Kamn, 1979).24

Perhaps most significantly, advertising is now perceived as an effective and efficient management tool. Advertising could “promote understanding and cementties between the masses and production and sales departments (Anderson, 1983). The Chinese advertising community argued that the consumer needs “Scientific guidance in a socialist system as well as in a capitalist systems” (Stress, 1988). Their confidence pride in being able to

"create demand" and "impelling them (Citizen Consumers) to work harder" is ironic. Such power is assumed, criticized, and feared in the west, and, hence, denied in the public posturing of the industry.25

COGNITIVE RESPONSE FRAMEWORK

The recipients of the message are considered to be active, rather than passive, information processor who generate responses to the messages. Advocates of the cognitive response theory make the assumption that when a person receives a persuasive communication, an attempt is made to relate the information in the message to the pre-existing knowledge that the person has about the topic. This process necessitates considering information that may not be found in the communication itself. These additional self-generated cognitive responses (thoughts) may agree with the proposals being made in the message, may disagree, or may be entirely irrelevant to the communication.

To the extent that the communication evokes cognitive responses that are supportive, the individual will tend to agree with the message. The extent that the communications evokes antagonistic cognitive responses, the individual will tend to disagree with the message.

The fundamental premise of cognitive response theory is that the initial attitude change produced by a message will depend on the extent to which favourable or unfavourable thoughts are generated by the message recipient at the time of the message exposure. This premise has clear implication for advertising as discussed next.

IMPLICATION FOR ADVERTISING

The key to the cognitive response theory is the predisposition of the individual prior to exposure to the message. If the individual is favourably predisposed to agree with position advocated in advertisements, he will generate support arguments. However, if not favourably predisposed, counter argumentation will occur (Berkman and Gilson, 1986). Thus, in advertising, the
users of the competing brand may react by counterarguing against the comparative claim (Wilkie and Farris, 1975). The stronger the individual's predisposition toward the comparison brand, the greater the discrepancy between his/her position and that of the advertiser making the comparison. A defensive reaction may occur whereby negative thoughts (e.g. counterarguments, source derogations, rejections) may be emphasised in processing the message. Not only may negative thoughts be more available and accessible to the individual favourably predisposed to the comparison brand, but also the motivation to agree against the comparative message may be stronger than when no comparison is made.

In summary, as stated earlier, the chief objective of the cognitive response theory is to determine how various features of the persuasion situation influence the number of favourable and unfavourable responses that will be generated. These responses mediate the acceptance or rejection of the advertisement (Wrigth, 1973). Based on Wilkie and Farris's (1975) speculation that users of competing brand may react by counterarguing against the comparative claim, several researchers have measured the cognitive responses to determine the impact of advertising (Belch, 1981; Swingard, 1981). Using this approach, researchers have investigated the effects of various situations as well as independent and dependent variable in analyzing the consequences of comparative advertising. Appropriateness of taking a cognitive response perspective in advertising can be determined by an analysis of past investigations' in this research stream.

EFFECTS OF ADVERTISING

EFFECTIVE OF ADVERTISING ON COGNITIVE MEASURES

Several cognitive measures have been used in investigations of advertising. These measures include thoughts evoked due to advertising, recall effectiveness, brand awareness and perceptions of challenger leader similarity.
Included in this section are discussions of those investigations that used these measures and their findings.

- **Thoughts Generated by Advertising**

  A few investigations have examined the effects of advertising on arguments or thoughts evoked due to exposure to advertisements. Indeed, these arguments or thoughts could be in favour or in opposition to the message conveyed in the advertisements.

  A study investigating the arguments generated by advertising was reported by Belch (1981). With type of message (comparative or non-comparative), message sidedness (one or two sided) and message repetition (one, three, or five exposures) as the independent variables. The participants, members of church groups, when exposed to commercials for a new fictitious brand of toothpaste conveyed their reactions on terms of positive, thoughts, negative thoughts, and attitude towards sponsored brand.

  The author found a significant main effects of message type on negative thoughts, i.e. comparative message generated more negative thoughts than non-comparative messages.

- **Recall Effectiveness**

  An early study to assess communication effectiveness of advertising was reported by Prasad (1976). Because novelty and contrast elements in stimulus serve to increase attention levels of the audience (Engel, Kollat and Blackwell), he conceptualized high recall effectiveness of advertising due to its novelty at the time. In this study, students subjects were exposed to explicit comparative as well as brand X comparative advertisements for movie camera with or without prior preference for a well-known brand.

  The results indicated that claim recall was higher among subjects who were exposed to the comparative advertisement than among those who were exposed to the brand X advertisements, regardless of their preferences towards the well-known brand. Further, perception of the competitive position of the
sponsor's brand was found to be no different between the explicit comparative and brand X comparative advertisement.

According to Parasad (1976), an advertisement can enhance message recall to some extent. However, an issue regarding the appropriateness of presenting a persuasive message of an audience that may not typically purchase such a brand remains unresolved, specifically, students may not be the target market for movie cameras, and therefore, the results of this study should be accepted with caution.

- **Brand Awareness**

Levine (1976) conducted an investigation to determine the differences in the effects of comparative and non-comparative advertising commercials of health and beauty aids and drug products. The pre/post test included exposing female heads of household to stimuli to determine their responses on identification of the sponsor as well as awareness about the sponsor's brand. The frequency analysis enabled him to conclude that the comparative advertisements suffered from greater misidentification of the sponsor. The awareness about the sponsor's brand was not found to be different for comparative on non-comparative advertisements.

**PERCEPTIONS OF CHALLENGER LEADER SIMILARITY**

A study investigating the effects of advertising on perceived similarity between the advertised brands, in the context of simultaneous advertising by the competitive brand, was reported by Gorn and Weinberg (1984). Because real life situations involves advertising by a challenger as well as by the market leader, the authors contended that investigations of comparative advertising should include context of presence or absence of (non-comparative) advertising by the leaders as an independent variable. In their experiment, type of advertisement was varied between comparative and non-comparative and context was manipulated by presence or absence of a (non-comparative) leader advertisement in the stimulus material. Type of products (i.e. cigarettes,
toothpastes and golf balls) was a repeated factor. With the objective of studying the impact of comparative advertising on perception of a brand in a product category, the authors hypothesized greater perceived challenger leader brand similarity with exposure to comparative versus non-comparative advertisements. Also hypothesized was greater brand similarity for a hypothetical new brand (in the same product category) with exposure to comparative) versus non-comparative advertisements. The results supported both hypotheses for the main effects of advertisements and products. Additional analysis showed that cigarette brands were seen as significantly more similar than toothpaste brands with golf in between for both challenger – leader similarity and perceived similarity of new brands. Further, the authors investigate carry over effects of advertising in other product categories.

The major finding of the Gorn and Weinberg (1984) study is that perceived brand similarity is greater with exposure to comparative advertisements than non-comparative advertisements. This, according to the authors, psychological distance between the challenger and the leader can be reduced by comparative advertising.

In summary, it appears that there is no consensus on the effectiveness on cognitive measures. Belch (1981) indicates that comparative advertising generates more negative thoughts than non-comparative advertising. Prasad (1976) found comparative advertising superior to non-comparative advertising. Levine (1976) fails to provide any recommendation for comparative advertising. Gorn and Weinbery (1984) claim the superiority of comparative advertising for the perceived similarity between the compared brands.

EFFECTS OF ADVERTISING ON AFFECTIVE MEASURES

The investigations in advertising have used a variety of affective measures to capture and analyze the effects of various advertisements. Included among them are variables such as believability of claims made in the
advertisements informativeness and interestingness of the advertisement attitude toward the advertisement and the brand.

One of the studies investigating the effect on the believability of claims made in the advertisement was conducted by Prasad (1976). The investigation found that the subjects who had prior preference for the competitive brand found the claim in comparative advertisement less believable than those with no prior preference.

- **Attitude Toward the Advertisements**

  A few investigations in comparative advertising have investigated consumers attitude toward comparative advertisements.

  Goodwin and Etgar (1980), reports that measures of attitude toward comparative advertisements are no different from those for non-comparative or 'brand X' advertisements. In their experiment only one out of nine different measures of attitude, toward advertisement was significantly influenced by the type of advertisement. Moreover, one other measure of attitude was significantly influenced by the type of products used in the advertisements. The authors concluded as only a few of the main effects are statistically significant, inferences to be drawn are speculative.

- **Attitude Toward the Sponsored Brand**

  The above study of Goodwin and Etgar (1980) also reported findings related to the attitude towards the sponsored brand. Their investigation focused on the type of appeals (comparative, non-comparative and brand X), number of attributes in advertisements (two, five and seven) and type of products (functional or social utility). The results showed no difference between the attitude towards the sponsored brand in comparative or non-comparative advertisements whereas the attitude with "brand X" was marginally superior. In addition, the medium level of attribute information (i.e. five attribute) was able to raise the assessment of quality of the sponsored brand higher than low level of attribute information (i.e. two attributes) or high (i.e. seven attributes) levels
of attribute information. Finally, subjects' perceptions of the sponsored brand were more favourable for product classes providing social utility than those providing functional utility.

Consumers' attitudes toward the sponsored brand in comparative advertisements have also been investigated by Belch (1981). With type of advertisements (comparative and non-comparative), message sidedness (one and two sided) and message repetition (one, three and five exposures) as the treatments. The study analysed the effect on attitude towards the sponsored brand. The only finding of interest was that the highest level of exposures (i.e. five exposures) generated negative attitude towards sponsored brand.

Finally, an investigation examining the effects on the attitude toward the sponsored brand has also been reported by Gorn and Weinberg (1984). In the study described earlier, the authors varied the type of advertisements in the presence (or absence) of a leader advertisement for three different products. The results indicated no difference in attitude toward the sponsored brand due to comparative or non-comparative advertisement. However in the absence of a leader advertisement the attitude was more favourable. Also, the main effect of product was significant for the attitude toward the sponsored brand.

In summary, Goodwin and Elgar (1980), Belch (1981) and Gorn and Weinberg (1984) found no difference between the attitude toward the sponsored brand in comparative and non-comparative advertisements.

EFFECT OF ADVERTISING ON CONATIVE MEASURES

- **Purchase Intention**

Several conative measures have been used in the investigations of advertising. These include purchase intention and information search intention, although by fear purchase intention has been popular conative measure used by researcher. Golden (1979) investigated the relative effects of advertising on purchase intention for an antiperspirant. She also investigated the effects of other variables which may effect consumer reactions to advertisements, such as
comparative positions of the advertised brand (three levels), claim substantiation (provided or not provided), and the theme of the advertisements (three variations). Responses of students subjects revealed that the purchase intention ratings elicited by the comparative advertisements are not significantly different from those of the non-comparative advertisements. The results were the same for the other three independent variables.

Goodwin and Etgar (1980) also investigated the effect of type of advertisements (comparative and non-comparative), type of product (social versus functional utility), and different levels of information (low, medium and high information load) on the intention to purchase the promoted brand. The type of advertisements was not found to influence the purchase intention. However, the results showed a main effect for the type of product. Further analysis indicated that the purchase intention was higher for the product with greater social utility than functional utility. Unfortunately, the study does not report why the purchase intention may be higher for one type of product than for the other.

- Sales Response

Contending that the effectiveness of advertising may not be limited to the cognitive responses, Demirdjian (1983) included the sales response as the dependent variable in his field experiment, Extending Wright’s (1973) cognitive response framework, he measured sales response form students after exposing them to actual comparative and non comparative advertisements of two equally priced brands of pen. After administration of the stimulus, the subjects were given coupons for both brands to be redeemed toward the purchase of either brand.

Analysis of sales data revealed that the subjects exposed to comparative advertisement purchased more pens (both brands combined) than those exposed to non-comparative advertisements. Also the sponsor’s brand was purchased more than the compared brand by the subjects exposed to
comparative advertisements. Therefore, the author concluded that comparative advertising may, strongly influenced purchase behaviour and may beneficial to the sponsor. However, due to the lack of information about the control of other factors possibly influencing the behaviour of the subjects in this field experiment, the results must be regarded cautiously.

As is amply clear from the preceding literature review, there is no consensus on the effect of comparative advertising. All the investigations reported so far were conducted with the cognitive response framework. Various measures have been used in the investigations of comparative advertising. The review grouped the measures into the categories of cognitive, effective and conative measures. For all three types of measures, no consensus emerged regarding the effects of comparative advertising.

Therefore, if the consumers' cognitive responses are understood, the effectiveness of advertising can be measured.

COMPARATIVE ADVERTISEMENTS

Ever since the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) encouraged explicitly naming competing brands in advertisements, many investigations have been conducted by advertising researchers in America to determine the effects of such a practice. The use of numerous independent and dependent variables in these investigations has generated a wide spectrum of results.

While some researchers (e.g. Levine, 1976; Prasad, 1976; Swinyard, 1981) suggest that overall comparative advertising is inferior to non-comparative advertising, others (e.g. Belch, 1981; Golden, 1979; Goodwin and Etgar, 1980) claim that there is no difference in the effectiveness of comparative and non-comparative advertising. Naturally the measures of effectiveness vary considerably in these studies. But on the whole, the results of these studies indicate that, at best, comparative advertising is as good as non-comparative advertising in generating favourable responses towards the
challenging brand. These researchers contend that users of the competing brand tend to argue for their brands, undermining the claims of the challenging brand.

However, a small number of studies (e.g., Gorn and Weinberg, 1984; Sujan, 1987) provide some positive results of comparative advertising.

These studies show that comparative advertising can bring the sponsors' brand closer to the competing brand by showing the similarities between the brands. This may be beneficial to the sponsored brand. Both camps of researchers have compelling reasons to encourage or discourage the practice of comparative advertising.

INSTANCES OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING IN AMERICA

The advertising scene in the U.S.A. is full of examples of comparative advertisements successfully used. Examples include the classic Plymouth advertising in the 1930s. When a relatively unknown brand of automobile (CHRYSLER CAR) asked consumers to “Look at All Three” that is Chrysler, G.M. and Ford car and the AVIS campaign of the 1960s, wherein a comparison was made to HERTZ. Because AVIS was number two in the rent-a-car business, the claim that its employees “tried harder” was given as a reason for doing business with the firm. Another famous example is of PEPSI-COKE war in which PEPSI capitalized on religious attitude about taste. COKE also retaliated but could not very successfully. In 1970s DATRIL on over the counter headache relief medicine made direct comparisons with TYLENOL, which was dominant in this product category at that time. Here the message was that the competitive product was just as effective, yet was being sold at much lower prices. In 1988, RENAULT MEDALLION car was compared with not just one but with ten other famous cars.

BRAND WAR THROUGH COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING IN U.S.A.

(i) IBM Versus ZENITH

The comparative advertising resorted to by the two computer marketers, IBM and Zenith turned out to be a bottle. IBM came up with a two page
advertisement one page of the advertisement was left completely blank, on the other page, IBM listed out all the distinctive features of IBM computer and challenged the competitors to fill the blank page with a better offer if they had one. Zenith immediately took up the challenge. It reproduced the IBM advertisement in full and filled up the blank page. With the product features/characteristics of Zenith computer. In the headline Zenith declared:

"We fill in the blanks that other leave"

As we saw that one has to be very careful while opting for comparative advertising. IBM resorted and started this battle in a hope that this will establish their supremacy in the market but ZENITH proved to be more creative and they utilized the very technique which IBM used for the counter attack and were successful and in a better situation.

(ii) THE COLA WAR

One of the PEPSI’s strategic move was called the ‘PEPSI CHALLENGE’. It involved blind taste tests between two unnamed colas. They said that COCA COLA says it is the real thing. But PEPSI believes that when it comes to Colas only real thing is taste. So, that is why the PEPSI challenge had been asking thousands of people across the country to let their own taste decide. In the end it was found that more people preferred the taste of PEPSI over COCA COLA. This “PEPSI CHALLENGE” was trumpeted in TV commercials. This was a good strategy because it exploited a weak point of the competitive product. After this advertisement, COCA COLA suddenly and publicly changed their formula to match the sweetness of PEPSI COLA. This led to their decline in sales as COCA COLA was no longer the real thing.

(iii) AVIS versus HERTZ CAMPAIGN

In 1960’s AVIS, a car-rental company, made a comparison to HERTZ, the market leader. AVIS was number 2 in the rent-a-car business. So, they claimed that their employees “tried harder”. This slogan was given as a reason for doing business with the firm.
COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING IN INDIA

For many years in India, direct brand v/s brand comparisons in advertising have been avoided by the advertiser. It has been seen that explicit and direct comparisons are often made in personal selling only. Rarely, we see a salesman who does not mention specific qualities on which his particular brand outperforms a named competitor e.g. salesman of car, insurance company, home appliances etc.

Many reasons can be given as the cause for the traditional reluctance in consumer advertising for comparisons in India.

(1) May be because of legal concern regarding the use of another company’s brand name or trade mark.

(2) Because of business belief that it may highlight the competitor’s brand or

(3) Perhaps it may cause consumers to feel warmer towards the attacked competitor.

Despite these traditional taboos there were some consumer advertisements that employed comparison e.g., TVS SUZUKI versus HERO HONDA.

Several factors encouraged and facilitated this break with this tradition.

There was a strong expression of interests in comparative advertising as some people advocated comparative advertising on the grounds that it would provide more factual and useful product information for consumers. Future stimulus for such comparisons was the development of an official requirement that all factual claims made in advertising be substantiated in advance. In 1972, the TV networks agreed to run commercials employing named competitors. A growing variety of consumers goods marketers made use of the comparative advertising approach during 1973-74. These include packaged good (example shampoo, detergents, etc.), major appliances (such as TV sets) and consumer
services (such as credit cards and airlines). This encouraged Indian advertisers to make comparison in their advertisements.

EXAMPLES OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING IN INDIA

(i) TVS-SUZUKI Versus HERO HONDA

In this advertisement the sponsor TVS-SUZUKI compared their mobike with HERO-HONDA on seven features. Those features of HERO-HONDA were proved as disadvantageous and the similar features of TBS-SUZUKI as efficient and economical engineering products. But here HERO-HONDA, the market leader chose to be silent rather than counter attacking. But this comparison bodified of TVS-SUZUKI.

(ii) PEPSI Versus THUMS UP:

In their advertisements PEPSI has used the logo of THUMS UP so as to degrade them and turn around their logo to imply THUMS DOWN Thus advertisement show that PEPSI has downthrown THUMS-UP.

(iii) PEPSI Versus COCA COLA

Where PEPSI was compared with coca cola directly on taste.

(iv) CONGRESS Versus BJP

During the elections in 2004 CONGRESS and BJP attacked each other by making comparisons between the two parties. BJP attacked CONGRESS by comparing on these grounds:

(a) Equality or appeasement
(b) Integrity or corruption
(c) Peace or Panic
(d) Niti or Aniti
(e) Feel Good Factor for India

They gave a call to the people to make their choice and put on end to the Congress culture of appeasement, and opportunitism. On the other hand Congress came out with an advertisements campaign saying that 'Congress keeps the nation together not by slogans (referring BJP but by sacrifice.)
The final impact of these comparison advertisements could be noticed after the results of elections were declared.

(v) SURF Advertisement Campaign

In their comparative advertisements SURF tries to compare themselves with their major competitor, NIRMA. Their advertisements compared the weight of the two products and said that half Kg SURF was equivalent to one Kg of ordinary detergent powder. Here though NIRMA has not been named but it was quite obvious.

(vi) CAPTAIN COOK Versus TATA SALT

In this advertisement by captain cook salt the various qualities of this salt are compared with another salt e.g. free flowing, whiter etc. here the competitor is quite obvious i.e. Tata Salt.

(vii) ARIEL Versus RIN SOAP

In this advertisement, Arial shows that their detergent soap lasts longer than other detergent soap (referring Rin). Hence unnamed competitor is obvious.

Their other advertisements campaign read “How can those who don’t believe in the brotherhood of man speak of religion?”

SOME MORE EXAMPLE RELATING TO CONSUMER DURABLES

ONIDA

When ONIDA introduced flat screen television in market claim that ONIDA brings you the ultimate in Flat TV technology “Black” with DVMC. ONIDA Black, gives you the flat screen technology with unbelievable picture clarity and razor sharp images. The unique DVMC circuit ensures uniform scanning both at the center and at the corner. So, even the channel logos and cricket scores at the corner of the screen appear much clearer. ONIDA used slogan “It will change your World” and “Take the ONIDA Clarity challenge and you will know the difference”.

WEGA

In this advertisement WEGA claim; welcome the family of intelligent televisions into your home. The new WEGA-X A series. Televisions that sense and correct poor signals automatically. Televisions that optimize colour and before you can reach for your remote. Television that remember the level of sound you prefer across the channels. Television that are equipped to do all your thinking, while you sit back and seak in the visual experience. WEGA use the slogan “Experience the Real Thing”.

WESTON

Weston digital television with “Xplo sound” claim in this advertisements that “Matchless features, Matchless price.”

BPL

t-Sort™ viewing convenience. Now watch programmes of your choice at the touch of a button. Welcome to the amazing new world of digital home entertainment with t-Sort. BPL claim in this advertisement that BPL is “So new, so fast, so simple and so flexible!” and use the slogan “BPL – Believe in the Best”.

PHILIPS

In this advertisements Philips dares to compare. In a comparison test conducted by AC Neilsen in Mumbai, the PHILIPS-Pixel Plus was tested against the SONY DRC (DR29). The test was conducted on four key parameters – motion smoothness, picture stability, picture sharpness/details and best TV. The PHILIPS-Pixel Plus emerged as a clear winner, with 93% of the respondents rating it as the best TV in the overall ratings.

SAMSUNG

Samsungs revolutionary DNLe technology is now also available in its range of LCD Projection TV’s and LCD TV’s. The LCD projection TV has been launched in India for the first time by SAMSUNG. These worldmost advanced and provide the most real home theatre experience ever. What’s more
these stylish masterpieces will do the most elegant of interiors proved with their aesthetics and appeal. In this advertisement a smart man sitting on sofa and seeing a programme on flat screen SAMSUNG Television.

LG

In this advertisement LG claim that, now you can watch television for as long as you want, without worrying a bit. Because LG Televisions come equipped with the revolutionary ‘Digital Golden Eye’ with Gamma Correction that automatically adjusts the picture to ambient light. Ensuring you enjoy strain-free viewing. LG televisions are loaded with other break through features like. Exciting games, PIP, surround sound, Intel surf, and many more. So, bring home one and let your eyes sparkle, now and for years to come.

PANASONIC

Panasonic brings you a breakthrough in Japanese TV technology. The world’s first TV where excellent picture quality and sound output come together to create a real life experience for you. Added to all this is its elegant aesthetic design that makes PANASONIC Tau worthy of display.

VIDEOCON

Experience the best picture quality; see fluid motion and breath taking image detail. Here life like sound. VIDEOCON offers you the ultimate entertainment encounter. Discover the Videocon Plasma Display Panel. The ultimate digital experience in the world. Check out its impressive list of features and you will agree nothing come close to the Videocon Plasma Display Panel in terms of technology and viewer experience.

WHIRLPOOL

Whirlpool presents the new Ice magic. “A Plonk, A Splash, A Plop”. The wonderful new sounds that will fill your house when you get the new whirlpool Ice magic Frost-free refrigerator. For its superior cooling makes ice super quick and gives your family all the joys of ice! Now you can surprise your family with cool refreshing delights every time! Like a glass of chilled ice
tea for your husband, frosty ice candies for your little ones and icy delights for your guests. So, if you want to turn your summers magical, bring home the Whirlpool Ice magic and sing along with your family "*Ooh, Aah, Ice Ice Magic*"!

**LG**

There are refrigerators and there are LG Preserve Nutrition refrigerators. As the name implies, an LG Preserve Nutrition refrigerator uses a combination of technologies to counter factors which cause degeneration, staleness and unpleasant odours, to keep your fruits and vegetables fresh, crisp and nutritious for a long—long time.

**HAIER**

The HAIER evolution series the future of all refrigerators. Look closely and as you tear your eyes away from the sleek good looks and prefect styling, the first thing you will notice is the freezer at the bottom. Surprised? Well, that is only one of the many things we have changed keeping your modern lifestyle in mind. More energy efficient, more ergonomically designed for ease of use, and a unique technology that allows you to alter temperatures in the freezer and the refrigerator to your desired level. Just at the touch of a button. With a world of evolved features, there's only one word to describe it — Future perfect.

**ELETROLUX KELVINATOR**

In this advertisement advertiser claim that, ELETROLUX KELVINATOR refrigerator is world class refrigerators to make your life better. This refrigerator comes with the advantages of super quick cooling. Which mean this refrigerator will make ice faster than any other refrigerator. Not only that, this refrigerator also comes with high class colours and a gold matt finish on the door top and the handle.