Introduction

Overview

The chapter consists of presentation of theoretical background of the present research topic. The background of the research is explained in the beginning with the detailed theoretical explanations of all study variables i.e. the concepts of role of advertisements on purchase decision, advertisement effectiveness, advertisement appeals, thinking styles, sensation seeking, self-concept and motivational needs. The purpose of the present research evolved out of the theoretical inputs and is presented in the later part of the chapter. The last section of the chapter presents the significance and scope of the present study.

1.1. Background

Marketing is one core area of business where firms come up with different products or services (offerings) which best suit the needs and purchase power of the target consumer. To sell these offerings the firms have to educate, persuade and reinforce the customers in terms of the benefits they acquire by making the purchase. Consumers generally make purchases to satisfy their needs and usually face broad arrays of products and brands that may satisfy their needs. The task of the customer is normally to choose a product from this wide range of market offerings. Role of advertisements are crucial here. It is a strong medium for educating consumers about the product offerings as well as persuading them to make purchase. It is also influential in maintaining post purchase satisfaction by rewarding them with feel good factors of pride ownership (Varma & Manjula, 2012). The present study is an attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of advertisement from a psychological perspective.
From a psychological perspective, advertisement is a carefully designed marketing stimulus that aims to elicit a favorable response by the target consumers in the form of purchase decision. The effect of advertisements on consumers (output) depends on the quality and attributes of the advertisement stimuli (input) and the interacting dynamic processes inside the consumers' mind. Present study is an effort to explore the impact of advertisements on purchase decision from a psychological perspective and to find out the moderating influence of few relevant psychological variables i.e. styles of thinking, sensation seeking self-concept and motivational needs which are considered as possible contributors to individual differences among consumers in processing advertisements towards making purchase decisions.

A detailed theoretical description of the study variables are given in the following pages:

1.2 Role of Advertisements in Consumer Decision Process

Advertisement is a paid form of persuasive communication used by marketers to reach broad audience through mass media as well as other forms of interactive communication to encourage or persuade a target audience to continue or take some new action (Wells, Moriarty & Burnett, 2007). Kotler and Armstrong (2008) defined advertising as “a paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services by an identified sponsor to create a desired outcome”. Most commonly, the desired result is to drive consumer behaviour with respect to a commercial offering, although political and ideological advertising is also common. Advertisers have been trying for years to answer the question how does advertising work? A vast body of research work explored and developed a theoretical understanding of the persuasion process of how advertising message influence consumers’ judgments and preferences.
Traditional Theories on the Role of Advertisements in Consumer Decision Process

The traditional theories on the role of advertisements in consumer decision process were attitudes and belief based theories of persuasion (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999) and they embraced the notion that persuasion depends on the extent to which message recipients learn from attitudes or belief, and retain the ideas conveyed in a message.

A) Lavidge and Steiner’s Hierarchy of Effects Model

One of the earlier important models explaining how advertisement works is the six step model proposed by Lavidge and Steiner (1961). The model postulated that hierarchical sequence of effects, resulting from perception of an advertisement results in development of attitude which in turn moves the consumers closer to purchase. According to the model a customer who is totally unaware of the product goes through the following six steps before making a purchase:

- **Awareness:** In this step the customer becomes aware of the existence of the product through advertising. This is a demanding stage; there is no guarantee that the customer will be aware of the product brand after they view the advertisement. Customers see many advertisements each day but may remember few brands.

- **Knowledge:** The customer comes to be familiar with the features and uses of the product.

- **Liking:** The customer develops a positive attitude towards the product.

- **Preference:** Consumers may like more than one product brand and could end up buying any one of them. Here, the customer develops preference for the said brand over other competitive products or substitutes.
Conviction: This stage is about creating the customer's desire to purchase the product. Advertisers may encourage certainty by allowing consumers to test or sample the product.

Purchase: The customer makes the actual purchase. Having advanced through the above stages, the advertiser desires the customer to purchase their product. This process needs to be simple and easy; otherwise the customer will get unhappy and walk away without a purchase.

The model also suggested that the six steps can be split into three stages of consumer behaviour: cognitive, affective and conative. The job of the advertiser is to promote the three behaviours.

B) Fishbein and Ajzen’s Expectancy Value Model

Fishbein and Ajzen (1972) argued that a person's attitude towards an object influence the overall pattern of his responses to the object. According to this analysis, a single behaviour is determined by the intention to perform the behaviour. The intention is in turn a function of his attitude toward performing the behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) later developed an expectancy value model and this framework was used to identify one important cognitive component i.e. belief strength. According to this model a belief represents an individual’s subjective probability that an attribute and an object are associated. Thus, beliefs are formed when an individual accepts information that links certain attributes to a particular object. The subjective probability can vary from 0.0 to 1.0. When the probability is closer to 1.0 the individual is more certain of the association than when the probability is closer to zero.
C) Contingency Model of Attitudinal Response

Winter (1973) investigated the influence of advertising exposure on individual brand attitude change. He stated that attitude prior to exposure greatly affects the manner in which the information is received. The study results indicated that past exposures, brand familiarity, and prior attitude are significantly related to attitudinal response. Allen and Janiszewski (1989) supported the viewpoint of Winter. The authors investigated a basic mechanism for shaping attitudes that has largely been ignored by empirical researchers in the marketing discipline. Two experiments were conducted in the study in which traditional Pavlovian procedures were merged with cognitive appraisal process. The data indicated that contingency learning or awareness is required for successful attitudinal conditioning. Contingency awareness involves conscious recognition of the relational pattern between the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli used in a conditioning procedure.

D) Information Processing View of Persuasive Communication

Another earlier theoretical development in the field of persuasive communication is the information processing view. This view rejected the traditional belief and attitude based ideas that argued persuasion as a function of peoples’ attitude and in contrast they argued that it is the reflections of the cognitive responses about the content of a message. This class of models assumes that consumer preferences, for example, the relative weights of attribute importance, are not changed by advertising and that consumer decisions are only rational.

Krugman (1965, 1967) one of the early theorists defined the position of information processing perspective. He noted that the advertisement message over massive repetition eventually filter through and rearrange the viewer’s cognitive structure, thereby repositioning the product in the viewer’s mind. This change takes
place without awareness; however it falls short of attitude formation or change. When confronted with a purchase situation, the consumer may select heavily advertised brand on the basis of new cognitive structure but still may not have formed an affect towards the brand. Wright (1973) stated that the process of advertising influence is modeled in terms of an array of cognitive responses to the message. He defined persuasion as a cognitive response and argued that any thoughts that arise during the process of elaboration when people relate message material to other message content or to their preexisting knowledge and views stored in memory affect the process.

E) Role of Emotions in Advertisements

The role of emotion was largely ignored in the early stages of research and there was a popular notion among researchers that emotions for the most part disrupt and disorganize behaviour and are primarily a source of human problems. But later researches conducted in the area of cognitive neuroscience revealed that emotions are intimately connected to cognition (Izard, 1991).

Theoretical structure of Puto and Wells (1984) supported the interaction of cognitive and affective functions. The theory is based on the cognitive and affective elements of the following types advertising.

- **Informational advertisements**: Informational advertisements are the ones which provide consumers with factual and relevant brand data in a clear and logical manner such that they have greater confidence in their ability to assess the merits of buying the brand after having seen the advertisement.

- **Transformational advertisement**: Transformational advertisement are the type of advertisements that associate the experience of using (consuming) the advertised brand with a unique set of psychological characteristics which would not typically be associated with the brand experience to the same
degree without exposure to the advertisement. This type of advertising often uses emotional and symbolic contents and is essentially affect-based.

Information and transformation advertisements are not mutually exclusive categories of advertisements but exhaustive. Based on the intensity of information and transformation content present any given advertisement can be classified as belonging to one of four basic categories:

- High transformation/ Low information advertisements
- Low transformation/High information advertisements
- High transformation/High information advertisements
- Low transformation/Low information advertisements

The elaboration likelihood model (ELM) developed by Petty and Cacioppo (1986) is another theoretical model explaining the importance of emotions in persuasive communication. The model suggests that affective reactions to persuasive messages can influence attitude under certain conditions.

The model presents two routes of attitude formation:

- **Central route:** Central route emphasizes information about an object and the evaluation of that information.

- **Peripheral route:** Peripheral route involves thinking about or evaluating attributes. The peripheral route relies more on affective response to non-factual information.

Elaboration is a key to determining which processing mode is taken to form or change the attitude. Elaboration refers to the extent to which a person thinks carefully about the content of messages. The more involved people are in product judgment, the more likely they are to scrutinize product-relevant information. Elaboration on
product-relevant messages enables people to discern the strength of the message argument, which in turn influences their attitudes toward the product. At a low level of involvement, people do not make an effort to process the message. However, they still form attitudes toward the product through peripheral processing. Without carefully examining product-relevant information, they base their product attitudes on peripheral cues such as attractive endorsers, music, and the background of the advertisement. A “peripheral cue” is any advertising element that is not central to the product’s merits but can affect attitudes toward it. For people with low levels of involvement, it is not the strength of the message argument but their individual reactions to peripheral cues that influence their attitudes toward the advertised product.

Later research works indicated that emotional reactions influenced both central (systematic) and peripheral (heuristic) processing. It has been shown that positive emotions influence peripheral information processing while negative emotions influence central processing (Batra & Stayman, 1990) Researchers have then gone a step forward and stated that, in fact, there may be no central or peripheral cues and that the two routes to persuasion can interact with each other with one route dominating in the face of contradictory information and both routes occurring concurrently when the persuasive information provided does not contradict the attitude structure of an individual (Chaiken & Maheswaran, 1994). Subsequent research supported this line of thought and while investigating the influence of print advertisements on the affective and cognitive responses of adolescents, Edens and McCormick (2000) discovered that “many adolescents were unable to detect the explicit claim of an advertisement yet maintained that the advertisement made sense, which suggests that peripheral visual information becomes the central message”.
1.3 Advertisement Effectiveness Concept

Early studies on the role of advertisements in the process of purchase decision making process were more academic in nature. Later when competition increased in global market, marketers started approaching advertisement research seriously. This led to the development of the concept of advertisement effectiveness. Advertising effectiveness consists of how well a company's advertising accomplishes the intended response. Earlier measures of advertisement effectiveness were econometric models of market response like reach (number of people who actually saw a company's advertising), sales and profits, brand awareness etc. (e.g. Bass & Clarke, 1972; Broadbent, 1984; Rao, 1986). They typically related advertising, pricing, and promotional measures to purchase behaviour (sales or brand choice) measures. Psychological factors moderating the purchase process were not considered in those models.

Wells, Moriarty and Burnett (2007) explained The AIDA model as a sophisticated illustration about the entire process of how advertising affects consumer behaviour. AIDA stands for:

A - **Attention (Awareness)**: attract the attention of the customer.

I - **Interest**: raise customer interest by focusing on and demonstrating advantages and benefits (instead of focusing on features, as in traditional advertising).

D - **Desire**: convince customers that they want and desire the product or service and that it will satisfy their needs.

A - **Action**: lead customers towards taking action and/or purchasing.

The model explains that advertising needs "to attract attention (cognition), maintain interest, create desire (affect), and get action (conation)". It proposes that
consumer behaviour moves from attention to interest, followed by desire and finally action.

1.4 Advertisement Appeal as Reason for Advertisement Effectiveness

According to Manrai, Broach and Manrai (1992), appeal is the basic idea behind an advertisement or the basic reason why an audience should act. Advertising appeals aim to influence the way consumers view themselves and how buying certain products can be beneficial for them. Advertisement appeal is broadly categorized into emotional or rational based on the content of messages. Kotler and Armstrong (1991) defined emotional appeal as an attempt in the advertisements to stir up either negative emotions like fear, guilt, and shame or positive emotions like love, humor, pride and joy in the mind of consumers to motivate purchase. Emotional appeals are often strategically employed to influence consumers indirectly and make the consumer feel good about the product (Calder & Gruder, 1989) and make a brand liked or friendly (Batra & Ray, 1986), relying on feelings for effectiveness (Aaker, Stayman & Hagerty, 1986). Stafford and Day (1995) suggested that rational appeals contain basic facts about the product and is favored by advertising practitioners for creating and changing consumer’s beliefs. According to Kotler and Armstrong (1991) rational appeals relate to the audience’s self-interest and show the audience what desired benefits the product will produce. Examples are messages showing a product’s performance, quality, economy, value etc. Rational appeals come from the traditional information processing models of decision-making, which presume that consumers make logical and rational decisions (Holbrook & O’Shaughnessy, 1984).

1.5 Thinking Styles and Advertisement Effectiveness

Sternberg (1994) defined thinking style as a preferred way of using the abilities that individuals have. According to Sternberg (1997) people think in different
ways and what happens in their life is dependent on what they think. It mainly
depends not on how well they think but on how they think. Sternberg defined styles of
thinking as a preferred way of thinking. It is the way we use our cognitive abilities in
a better way. According to him individuals possess not a single style of thinking but
have a profile of styles.

Development of the styles of thinking concept is closely linked with the
extensive but diversified research works on the related concept of cognitive styles.
Cognitive style is a psychological dimension representing consistencies in an
individual’s cognitive functioning, particularly with respect to acquiring and
processing information (Asch & Witkin, 1948; Ausburn & Ausburn, 1978).
Witkin et al., (1977) defined cognitive styles as “individual differences in the way
people perceive, think, solve problems, learn, and relate to others”.
Messick (1976, 1984) explained cognitive styles as “stable attitudes, preferences, or
habitual strategies that determine individuals’ modes of perceiving, remembering,
thinking, and problem solving”.

The early empirical studies conducted in 1940s and early 1950s observed the
existence of individual differences in simple cognitive tasks involving perception and
categorization. The main contribution of these early studies was to identify individual
differences (even though there was no established label for these individual
differences at that time) in the performance of simple cognitive tasks and to
demonstrate that people differed in their overall success and in the ways in which they
perceive and solve the tasks. Hanfmann (1941) showed that some individuals used a
perceptual approach when grouping blocks whereas others used a more conceptual
approach, trying first to formulate hypotheses about possible groupings. Witkin and
Asch (1948) reported significant individual differences in the way people perceive the
“upright” orientation of a rod in different surrounding fields in a task called the Rod-and-Frame Test. In the test some subjects perceived the rod as upright only when it was aligned with the axes of the field whereas some other subjects without the axes of the field. Witkin et al., (1954) further conducted a large experimental study that played crucial role in the further development of cognitive style research. In this study the authors investigated individual differences in perception and associated these differences with particular personality tendencies of individuals. The study results revealed that individual differences in how people performed the perceptual tasks are stable over time and across tasks. The study also identified two groups of subjects i.e. field dependent (FD)—those who exhibited high dependency on the surrounding field; and field independent (FI)—those who exhibited low dependency on the field. Witkin, Dyk, Faterson, Goodenough and Karp (1962) explained individual differences in perception as the outcome of different modes of adjustment to the world, concluding that both FD and FI groups have specific components that are adaptive in particular situations. Field dependence reflects an early and relatively undifferentiated mode of adjustment to the world, whereas field independence reflects a later and more differentiated mode. Contemporary research studies done by Klein and associates also revealed the existence of cognitive styles in more or less similar line. Klein (1951) studied how accurately people make judgments about changes in perceptual stimuli. He identified two types of individuals: sharpeners and levellers, sharpeners are the group of individuals who notice contrasts of stimuli and maintain a high degree of stimulus differentiation while levellers are the group of individuals who notice similarities among stimuli and ignore differences. Several years later, Holzman and Klein (1954) defined cognitive styles as “generic regulatory principles” or “preferred
forms of cognitive regulation” in the sense that they are an “organism’s typical means of resolving adaptive requirements posed by certain types of cognitive problems”.

Along with field dependence–independence and levelling–sharpening, dozens of other style dimensions were proposed. One such dimension was impulsivity–reflectivity representing the preference for making response quickly versus carefully attending the stimulus to decrease the number of errors in problem-solving situations (Kagan, 1958, 1966). Other commonly studied cognitive styles of this period are tolerance/intolerance for instability and unrealistic experience by Klein and Schlesinger (1951) (Tolerance is easiness and intolerance is difficulty in experiencing apparent movement when viewing two figures exposed alternately), breadth of categorization i.e. degree to which people are impelled to act on or ignore an awareness of differences by Gardner (1953), field articulation (modes of perceiving complex stimuli classified into element articulation i.e. articulation of discrete elements from a background pattern, and form articulation i.e. articulation of large figural forms against a patterned background) by Messick and Fritzky (1963), conceptual complexity of abstract and concrete thinking by Harvey, Hunt and Schroder (1961), holist (people who understand holistic view by identifying and focusing on major patterns or trends in the data) and serialist (people who operate with a step-by-step approach in problem solving) of Pask (1972), verbalizer – visualizer (individual preference to process information by verbal versus imagery means) by Paivio (1971) and locus of control (external and internal orientation) by Rotter (1966).

New trends of unifying cognitive styles aimed to unite and systematize multiple style dimensions into coherent and practically useful models started to emerge from 1990s. The first attempts to organize the array of cognitive styles
revolved around the idea that there is a unified structure based on an analytical–holistic (or analytical–intuitive) style (Allinson, 1996). The analytical–holistic dimension of this research study is based on the hemispheric lateralization of the brain based on the assumption that the left and right hemispheres have different cognitive functions during information processing (e.g., the left hemisphere processes information analytically, whereas the right hemisphere processes information holistically). Although this assumption is not accurate in the light of current theories in neuroscience, nevertheless, many researchers have claimed that this dimension is a key element in differences among individuals. The analytical style has commonly been described in the cognitive style literature as convergent, differentiated, sequential, reflective, and deductive whereas the holistic style has been described as divergent, global, impulsive, intuitive, inductive, and creative.

Another attempt to describe individual differences in intellectual functioning is the development of theory of thinking styles by Sternberg (Sternberg 1994, 1997). This theory does not systematize existing cognitive styles but differentiates thinking styles from cognitive styles and offers a new multi-dimensional system of thinking. The model uses the structure of government as a metaphor for understanding and explaining individual differences in the regulation of intellectual activity. He believed that just as there are many ways of governing society, there are many ways to govern or manage our day to day activities. These different ways of managing our activities or using our abilities are called thinking styles. Sternberg’s model consists of thirteen thinking styles that fall across five dimensions. The first dimension is function, which is conceptualized as legislative, executive, and judicial thinking styles. The second dimension is associated to form, which consist of hierarchical, oligarchic, monarchical, and anarchic thinking styles. The third dimension consists of level, which includes
global and local thinking styles. The fourth dimension is scope mentioned as internal and external thinking styles. The fifth dimension is leaning classified into liberal and conservative thinking styles. Sternberg’s claim that the theory of mental self-government is a general theory of styles that applies to both academic and non-academic settings. Implications of the findings are discussed for organizational psychologists, human resource management personnel marketing managers and consumer behaviourists.

Zhang (2000b) categorized seven of Sternberg’s thinking styles into two broad types. The first type which includes the legislative, judicial, global, and liberal styles is classified as creativity generating style that involves complex information processing. Individuals who use this type of thinking styles tend to be risk taking and norm challenging. The second type which includes the executive, local, and conservative styles is classified as simplistic information processing style. Individuals who use this type of thinking styles tend to be norm favouring and authority oriented.

Zhang and Sternberg (2000) found that Zhang’s first type of thinking styles is significantly related to the deep and surface learning approach proposed by Biggs’s (1987). According to Biggs an individual who uses a deep approach tries to gain a real understanding of what is learned, while an individual who uses surface approach only try to reproduce what is taught in order to meet ordinary requirements. The study found that creativity generating style is positively related to the deep approach to learning but significantly negatively related to the surface approach to learning. Complementarily, the simplistic information processing style of thinking is significantly positively related to the surface approach to learning but significantly negatively related to the deep approach to learning.
Earlier Torrance (1988) adopted the concept of cerebral dominance into the areas of psychology as a concept of dual human information processing. Torrence defined the differences in preference of the two hemispheres for information processing as styles of learning and thinking (SOLAT). The information processing styles that are characteristically used by right or left-brain dominant individuals listed by Torrence and Taggrat (1984) are the following:

- **Linear vs. Holistic Processing**: The left side of the brain processes information in a linear way. It processes information from part to whole. It takes sections and arranges them in a logical order; then it draws conclusions. The right brain, however, processes information holistically i.e. from whole to part. It starts from the answer. It sees the whole first, not the details. If a person is right-brained, he may have difficulty following a lecture unless he is given the overview first. It is absolutely necessary for a right-brained person to read background information before a lecture or a chapter before reading.

- **Sequential vs. Random Processing**: In addition to thinking in a linear manner, the left-brain also processes information in a sequential order. They enjoy making a master schedule and doing daily planning. They will complete tasks in order and take pleasure in checking them off when they are accomplished. Likewise, learning things in a sequential manner is also relatively easy for them. A left-brained person is probably a good speller.

- **Symbolic vs. Concrete Processing**: The left-brain individuals have no trouble processing symbols. Many academic activities deal with symbols such as letters, words, sentences and mathematical notations. The left-brained persons tend to be comfortable with linguistic and mathematical activities. Left-brained students will also just memorize vocabulary words or mathematical formulas. The right
brain, on the other hand, wants information to be concrete. They want to see or feel the real object. They may have trouble in using phonics. They prefer to distinguish words in context and to see how the formula works.

**Logical vs. Intuitive Processing:** The left brain processes in a linear, sequential, logical manner. When a person process on the left side, they use information piece by piece to solve a mathematical problem or work out a science experiment. When they read and listen, they will look for the pieces so that they can draw logical conclusions. Their decisions are made on logical proofs. If a person processes primarily on the right side of the brain, they use intuition. They may know the right answer to a mathematical problem but not be sure how they got it. They may have to start with the answer and work backwards. On a quiz, they have a gut feeling as to which answers are correct, and they are usually right. In the process of writing, it is the left-brain that pays attention to mechanics such as spelling, and punctuation. But the right side pays attention to coherence and meaning; that is, right brain tells what it "feels" right.

**Verbal vs. Non-verbal Processing:** Left-brained persons have little trouble expressing themselves in words. Right-brained persons may know what they mean but often have trouble finding the right words. The best illustration of this is how people give directions (Martin, 2000). The left-brained person will say something like "From here turn left and go right three Kilometres and turn north on First Street. Go three or four Kilometres and then turn east onto Fifth Street." The right-brained person will say something like this: "Turn right (pointing right) by the Temple over there (pointing again). Then you will pass a McDonalds and a Pizza hut. At the next Signal, turn right toward the Railway Station".
Reality-Based vs. Fantasy-Oriented Processing: The left side of the brain deals with things the way they are with reality. When the environment affects left-brained persons, they usually adjust to it. Not so with right-brained persons; they try to change the environment! Left-brained people want to know the rules and follow them. In fact, if there are no rules, they may probably make up rules to follow! The right-brained persons are creative. And since emotion is processed on the right side of the brain, right-brained person probably remembers well anything that they are emotionally involved.

Although Styles of Learning and Thinking (SOLAT) of Torrence was originally designed to measure brain dominance, the term ‘brain dominance’ no longer seems to be appropriate since later findings suggest that the two hemispheres are more dynamic than static and that they are more interactive than once believed to be (e.g. Banich, 1998; Banich & Heller, 1998; Beeman & Chiarello, 1998). Later researches which used SOLAT as research tool used the term ‘hemispheric thinking style’ rather than ‘hemispheric dominance’ in their conceptualization (Albaili, 1996; Hassan & Abed, 1999).

Zhang (2002) opined that SOLAT is clearly a cognition-centred inventory more than brain dominance measuring people’s preferred ways of processing information. He defined SOLAT as a thinking style inventory with three types of thinking styles (modes of thinking) i.e. analytic, holistic, and integrative. An individual with an analytic mode of thinking (originally left-brained dominance) tends to process information in a piecemeal, analytical, and sequential manner. An individual with a holistic mode of thinking (originally right-brained dominance) tends to process information in an intuitive, gestalt-type, synthesized manner. An individual with an integrative mode of thinking (originally whole-brained dominance) tends to
process information in an interactive and dynamic way. Zang also noted that although, each individual has a dominant mode of thinking, one may use the other mode of thinking depending on the tasks being dealt with. Nisbett, Peng, Choi and Norenzayan (2001) found that holistic thinkers focus more on relationships between an object and its environment than analytic thinkers. Another research study by Norenzayan, Smith, Kim and Nisbett (2002) found that analytic thinkers are more likely to engage in rule-based categorization than holistic thinkers. Chiu (1972) found that analytic thinkers group objects according to category membership or attributes (e.g., a jeep and boat are grouped together because both have motors). However, holistic thinkers group objects according to functional or thematic interdependence between objects (e.g., a table and chair are grouped together because people sit on the chair to eat at the table).

According to Ruiz and Sicilia (2004) as advertisers increasingly seek greater communication effectiveness, more careful consideration needs to be given to the selection of the type of advertising appeal used for each target group. Research suggests that individual differences among message recipients may lead to wide variations in the manner in which people respond to advertising appeals (Moore, Harris & Chen, 1995) and appeals tend to be more effective when the nature of the appeal matches with the information processing styles of consumers (LaBarbera, Weingard & Yorkston 1998). Venkatraman, Marlino, Kardes and Sklar (1990) found that people who enjoy thinking and problem solving are more persuaded by factual advertisements than fictional advertisements. Childer, Houston and Heckler (1985) suggest that consumers’ cognitive orientation is related to responses to advertising. Monga and John (2010) reported that consumers with analytic style of thinking focus on specific attributes of products while consumers with holistic thinking style usually select alternative ways like overall brand reputation for evaluating products. They
found that analytic thinkers respond more favourably to functional brands when they are introduced with an elaborational (providing extensive information about the brand) communication. They opined that product information needs to be presented in a way that is compatible with the styles of thinking of consumers since persuasive appeals are more effective when they match a person’s information processing (thinking) styles.

1.6 Sensation Seeking and Advertisement Effectiveness

Sensation seeking is defined as “the need for varied, novel and complex sensations and experiences and willingness to take physical and social risks for the sake of such experiences” (Zuckerman, 1979). It is a biologically based personality construct with high sensation seekers identified as those who actively seek varied, novel or complex sensations or experiences. During the past years, many studies conducted in different parts of the world have accumulated a rich research database that generally validates the concept of sensation seeking and its usefulness as an important research tool in both basic as well as applied areas of psychology.

The sensation seeking construct was developed by Zuckerman as part of a theory of individual differences in response to the experimental situation of sensory deprivation. Work on sensation seeking behaviour began in the early 1960’s based on the idea that there were consistent individual differences in optimal levels of stimulation and arousal and that these differences could be measured with a questionnaire (Zuckerman, Kolin, Price & Zoob 1964). Zuckerman and Link (1968) developed a questionnaire and examined the traits measured by the sensation-seeking scale (SSS) by defining its sub factors. The sub factors were thrill, social, visual, and antisocial sensation seeking.
In 1974 Zuckerman (Zuckermann, 1974) defined sensation seeking as a biological personality construct based on the biological data collected from his research studies and new theoretical viewpoints of others. He argued that high sensation seekers are those who function better at high cortical arousal. He provided evidence for biochemical differences determined primarily by dopamine level which apparently drives sensation-seeking variance. Greater tendency to seek sensation is often associated with lower default levels of dopamine. In other words, high sensation seekers have higher optimal levels of stimulation and arousal. Because of this, sensation seekers possess stronger orienting response than other individuals. An orienting response is an individual’s first reaction to a new or unexpected stimulus. It is a tendency toward sensory intake, as opposed to defense responses, which attempt to screen out stimuli.

Zuckerman, Eysenck & Eysenck (1978) revised the factor structure of sensation seeking and described sensation seeking as a trait with four different factors. These factors are:

- **Thrill and adventure seeking**: Desire to engage in sports or activities involving some physical danger or risk.

- **Experience seeking**: Desire to seek new experiences through the mind and senses by living in a nonconforming life style.

- **Boredom susceptibility**: An aversion for repetitive experience of any kind, routine work, or even dull or predictable people etc.

- **Disinhibition**: Need to disinhibit one’s behaviour in the social sphere by drinking, partying and seeking variety in sexual partners etc.

In 1979, in the third theoretical phase of sensation seeking Zuckerman defined sensation seeking as a construct beyond the optimal level of arousal into a biosocial
construct highly influenced by social factors like family, peer influence, early childhood experience etc. Later sensation seeking got accepted as a personality construct and was classified as a theory under limited domain approach (Shultz & Shultz, 2008). After this Zuckerman and various other researchers from diverse social science branches have studied the influence of sensation seeking traits on a variety of variables. The sensation seeking scale developed by Zuckerman also got adapted to different cultures of the world. Basu, Verma, Malhotra & Malhotra (1993) adapted the “Zuckerman’s original Sensation Seeking Scale” into Indian population with separate Indian norms.

In the area of consumer behaviour and marketing also a lot of research work has been done depicting the influence of sensation seeking in the process of consumer evaluation of marketing stimuli and purchase decision. Several researchers opined that consumption of products is not purely a rational process but an experiential activity involving playful leisure activities, sensory pleasures, daydreams, aesthetic enjoyment, and emotional responses etc (e.g. Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Venkatraman & MacInnis 1985; Christopher & Justin, 2000 etc.). They pointed out that the investigation of experiential consumption appears to offer considerable scope for revival of personality research in consumer behaviour and advertisement effectiveness.

### 1.7 Self-concept and Advertisement Effectiveness

Self-concept is one of the most important key factors influencing the individual behaviour. Rosenberg (1979) defined it as “the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings having reference to him/her as an object”. It is a multi-dimensional construct that refers to an individual's perception of "self" in relation to a specific characteristic. Self-concept is the set of knowledge and attitude that an
individual has about him/her self (Adeyemo & Torubeli, 2008). It is the characteristics or attributes that the individual uses to describe himself/herself. Hamacheck (1992) defined self-concept as “those perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings which the individual views as part of characteristics of him/herself”. It is person’s conception of his/her health and physique, intellectual abilities, academic status, temperamental qualities, mental health, emotional tendencies, socio-economic status etc. Self-concept is best conceived as a system of attitudes towards oneself formed as a result of experiences which the person organizes into a self consistent system and defends against threats and attacks (Deo, 2005).

Self-concept is treated in various manners in different theories. Psycho analytic theory views self-concept as a self system inflicted with conflict, behavioural theory construes the self as a bundle of conditioned responses; organismic theory treats the self in a holistic form; cognitive theory represents the self as a conceptual system, processing information about the self, symbolic interactionism, views the self as a function of interpersonal interactions (Sirgy, 1983). It is originally considered to be the keystone in non directive counseling of Carl Rogers.

In a critical article on self-concept in consumer behaviour Sirgy (1985) stated that there is ambiguity and confusion on the precise conceptualization of self-concept in the consumer behaviour literature that a number of investigators have discussed self-concept as a single variable and have treated it as actual self-concept i.e. it is the perception of oneself and another group of investigators conceptualized self-concept as multiple construct with more than one component i.e. the actual self and idealized self. Some other investigators have gone beyond the duality dimension and referred self-concept with actual, ideal, and social dimensions. In his book on self-concept by consolidating his previous research findings Sirgy (1986) proposed a self-image/
product image congruence theory. The theory states that product cues involving images usually activate a self schema and the value placed on the product and its image attributes are influenced by this self schema. The self image/ product image congruence occurs in the following forms:

- **Positive self-congruity**: comparison between a positive product image perception and a positive self image belief.
- **Positive self-incongruity**: comparison between a positive product image perception and a negative self image belief.
- **Negative self-congruity**: comparison between a negative product image perception and a negative self image belief.
- **Negative self-incongruity**: comparison between a negative product image perception and a positive self image belief.

These different self-image/ product-image congruity states will influence purchase motivation differently. Positive self-congruity will determine the strongest level of purchase followed by positive self-incongruity, negative self-congruity and negative self-incongruity respectively.

Self-concept in general is considered to consist of four forms, perceived, ideal, actual and social self-concept (Deo. 2005). Detailed descriptions of these four self-concepts are provided below:

- **Perceived self-concept**: This relates to what the person thinks he or she is in relation to specific characteristics. It is the perception that the individual holds of himself/herself and characteristics of attributes that he/she uses to describe him/her based on his previous experience and worldly knowledge.
➤ **Ideal self-concept**: Ideal self-concept is the self-concept of an individual as he or she wants to be. This represents a person’s perception about the ideal qualities and attributes like courage, confidence, compassion, love, fortitude, perseverance, patience, forgiveness, integrity, etc. he or she is supposed to possess. It also represents a person’s striving to behave in an excellent way.

➤ **Actual self-concept**: Actual self-concept is the real self of a person. It represents the true part of an individual’s personality.

➤ **Social self-concept**: Social self-concept represents the person perception of how other people perceive him. It represents an individual's sense of worth in social interactions.

The importance of self-concept stems from its notable contribution to personality formation. It influences how the person feels, how an individual thinks, values himself, relates to others and overall how he behaves. The self-concept of a person gradually forms as a result of his interaction with the environment. Children slowly come out from their narrow world and progressively define their position in the environment. This process is very important as an adequate self-concept represents the maturity of the individual.

Deo (2005) explained self-concept as a system consisting of attitudes, aspirations and values concerning oneself and classified self-concept into five different dimensions concerned with personal and social life. The dimensions are:
- **Intellectual self-concept**: This self-concept consists of the individual’s perception regarding his/her intellectual capacities and strengths.

- **Emotional self-concept**: This self-concept consists of the individual’s perception regarding his/her emotional strength and maturity.

- **Social self-concept**: This self-concept consists of the individual’s perception regarding the relative position of the individual in society.

- **Character self-concept**: This self-concept consists of the individual’s perception regarding his/her character and ethics.

- **Aesthetic self-concept**: This self-concept consists of the individual’s perception regarding his/her aesthetic abilities and tastes.

Observations, projective techniques, self-reporting lists and inventories are some of the main methods used for measuring self-concept. Of these, self-reporting technique maintains its unique and important position because it has the single advantage of knowing exactly what the individuals feel about themselves. The best way to know what a person feels is to ask the person him/herself. Sentence completion, adjective checklists and inventories are generally used for this purpose.

Based on the above mentioned self-concept dimensions, Deo (2005) developed
The role of self-concept has been investigated in a number of areas in consumer behaviour and advertisement effectiveness (consumer attitudes towards products Jacobson and Kossoff, 1963; product perception, Hamm and Cundiff, 1969; brand preference, Dolich 1969; Hughes 1976, purchase intentions, Landon 1974; advertisement effectiveness, Zou et.al. 2005 etc). Levy (1959) suggested that products are ‘symbols for sale’. What he meant was that products are often purchased and consumed for their symbolic as well as their pragmatic value. According to him products and services serve three symbolic purposes:

- First, it allows consumers to create meaning for themselves to symbolize to themselves who they are.
- Second, products are signs that are essential for creating an identity and status in the eyes of significant others.
- Finally, products are instrumental to the symbolic extension of self.

Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) also mentioned that purchase and consumption of goods can be self enhancing in two ways:

- In a way that a person believes the goods they are purchasing is recognized publicly
- As symbols that serve the individuals to cause desired reaction from other individuals.

Solomon (1983) studied the role of products as social stimuli and noted that the subjective experience imparted by the consumption of many products substantially contributes to the consumer's structuring of social reality, self-concept, and behaviour.
Moreover, the consumer often relies upon the social meanings inherent in products as a guide to the performance of social roles, especially when role demands are novel. He argued that while marketing theory traditionally views products as post hoc responses to underlying needs, the focus is also needed to shift on an advertising model under which products serve as ‘a priori’ stimulus to behaviour.

Thus the self-concept is an important concept as far as the advertisement research is concerned. An understanding of self-concept is important for influencing the buying behaviour of the consumer. Hence present study also incorporated self-concept as another moderating variable which influences the impact of advertisements on purchase decision making process.

1.8 Motivational Needs and Advertisement Effectiveness

Theories of personality based upon needs and motives suggest that our personalities are a reflection of behaviours controlled by needs (Shultz & Shultz, 2008). While some needs are temporary and changing, other needs are more deeply rooted in our nature. Early motivational theorists including Freud and Hull followed the Darwinian tradition and considered man as basically a survivor. That is they believed that any life threatening situation prompts the man to respond in such a way as to insure his continued existence (Hall & Lindzey, 2000; Hilgard & Bower, 1996). Situations that threatened survival were defined as biological drive like hunger and thirst, pain and sex. Stimulation associated with any of these variables arouses behaviours that aim to reduce or eliminate the stimulation. According to this notion man is motivated to attain minimal stimulation. The theory of minimal stimulation was criticized by many later theorists and was proved to be untrue at many cases. Two group of theories put minimal stimulation hypothesis under question mark. The first group of theories postulated the optimal arousal and sensation seeking approach
(discussed in the earlier part of introduction) where it demonstrated that individuals find environments aversive when they are either repetitive or predictable. Another group of theorists under the leadership of Tolman and Murray postulated that people continue to show goal directed behaviours even when there is apparently no state of deprivation

Tolman (1920, 1926, & 1928) observed that the presence of an appropriate object could arouse a drive or appetite that led to behaviour designed to reduce that appetite. This type of motivational process was labeled as incentive motivation. According to Tolman behaviour is the result of the needs and demands of a person at any given time and of the quality of the environment at that particular time as perceived by that person. Or more simply behaviour is the result of the expectancy of attaining what is wished for and the degree of value attributed to the situation at hand.

Murray (1938) developed a theory of personality that was organized in terms of motives, presses, and needs. Murray described needs as a, "potentiality or readiness to respond in a certain way under certain given circumstances" He classified needs into:

- **Primary needs or viscerogenic needs**: The needs which arise from internal bodily states and include those needs required for survival, as well as such needs as sex and sentience.

- **Secondary needs or psychogenic needs**: The needs which arise indirectly from primary needs.

- **Reactive needs**: The needs which involve a response to something specific in the environment and are aroused only when that object appears.

- **Proactive needs**: which do not depend on the presence of a particular object but elicited appropriate behaviour whenever they are aroused.
Murray observed individual needs in everyday life and developed a set of universal basic needs (28 needs), with individual differences on these needs leading to the uniqueness of personality through varying dispositional tendencies for each need. The needs Murray developed were:

A) Ambition Needs

- **Need for achievement**: The need to accomplish something difficult, to master, manipulates physical objects, organize human beings, or ideas, to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard, to excel one's self, to rival and surpass others etc.

- **Need for recognition**: The need to excite praise and commendation, to demand respect, to boast and exhibit one's accomplishments, to seek distinction, social prestige, honours, or high office etc.

- **Need for exhibition**: The need to make an impression on others, to be seen and heard by others, to excite, amaze, fascinate, entertain, shock, intrigue, amuse, or entice others etc.

B) Materialistic Needs

- **Need for acquisition**: The need to gain possessions and property, to work for money or goods.

- **Need for order**: Need to put things in order, to achieve cleanliness, balance, arrangement, organization, neatness, tidiness, precision etc.

- **Need for retention**: The need to keep things that have been acquired

- **Need for construction**: The need to make and build and create things.

C) Status Defense Needs

- **Need for infavoidance**: The need to avoid being humiliated or embarrassed.
➢ Need for defencedence: The need to defend oneself against attack or blame, hiding any failure of the self.

➢ Need for counteraction: The need to make up for failure by trying again, seeking to overcome obstacles with pride etc.

D) Power Needs

➢ Need for dominance: The need to control one's environment, controlling other people through or to dissuade, restrain, or prohibit command or subtle persuasion.

➢ Need for deference: The need to admire a superior person, praising them and yielding to them and following their rules, to emulate an exemplar to others or to conform to custom or general order.

➢ Need for Autonomy: The need to get free, shake off restraint, break out of confinement, break free from constraints, resisting coercion and dominating authority. To be irresponsible and independent, to be independent and free to act according to impulse to defy convention etc.

➢ Need for contrarience: The need to oppose the attempted persuasion of others.

➢ Need for aggression: The need to forcefully overcome an opponent, controlling, taking revenge or punishing them etc.

➢ Need for abasement: The need to surrender and submit to others, accept blame and punishment and to enjoy pain and misfortune.

➢ Need for blame avoidance: The need to not be blamed for things done or to escape from criticism.

➢ Need for harm avoidance: Need to avoid pain, physical injury, illness, and death, escape from a dangerous situation, to take precautionary measures etc.
E) Affection Needs

➢ **Need for affiliation**: The need to be close and loyal to another person, pleasing them and winning their friendship and attention etc.

➢ **Need for sex**: The need to form relationships that lead to sexual intercourse, to be in romantic love etc.

➢ **Need for rejection**: The need to separate one from a negatively viewed object or person, excluding or abandoning it etc.

➢ **Need for nurturance**: The need to give sympathy and gratify the needs of someone who is weak disabled, tired, inexperienced, etc., and to feed, help, support, console, protect, comfort, nurse, and heal others.

➢ **Need for succorance**: The need to have one's needs satisfied by sympathetic aid by someone or something. Includes being loved, nursed, helped, forgiven and consoled, to remain close to a devoted protector, to always have a supporter.

➢ **Need for play**: To have fun, laugh and relax from stress, enjoying oneself by participating in games, sports, dancing, drinking parties, playing cards etc.

F) Information and Aesthetic Needs

➢ **Need for sentience**: The need to seek and enjoy sensuous or aesthetic impressions.

➢ **Need for cognizance**: The need to seek knowledge, clarify curiosity, and about things in order to understand.

➢ **Need for understanding**: The need to analyze and experience, and understand things.

➢ **Need for exposition**: Need to provide information and educate others.
Murray’s theory was the first systematic approach to the understanding of the non biological human needs. Murray believed that everyone has the same basic set of needs but that individuals differ in their priority ranking of these needs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010). Murray’s basic needs include many motives that were assumed to play an important role in consumer behaviour.

Bayton (1958) pointed out the importance of need theories in the area of consumer behaviour. According to him a consumer is making a brand choice based on the attributes of the goal objects which permit them to differentiate the benefits. These differentiating attributes are cues or signs that facilitates decision making. All cues are not important to all the customers. The signs have expectancies or psychological gradients associated with them. This psychological gradient acts as a powerful appeal for the brand if the individual needs strongly matches with the gradient. The discussion of Bayton was concerned with cognitive processes as they relate to mental representations of goal objects under the instigation of need arousal.

Fowles (1976, 1982) did extensive studies on advertisement appeals based on Murray’s needs, and asserted that target audiences' motivational need appeals are reflected in advertisements over time. He chose eighteen need appeals from the list of Murray's psychogenic motivational needs and applied it in the field of advertisement. The list of needs adopted by Fowles is:

- Need for Achievement
- Need for Acquisition
- Need for Affiliation
- Need for Autonomy
- Need for Cognizance
- Need for Harm avoidance
- Need for Inviolacy
- Need for Nurturance
- Need for Order
- Need for Passivity
Dichter (1985, 1986) opined that consumers are guided toward the purchase of a particular product by inner factors that are related to product perception. The consumers are likely to purchase a product when they perceive that these factors or motivational needs are parallel with the product's advertised image. If a consumer perceives the relationship between the consumer's motivational needs or self-image and the product's image as positive, the consumer's self-image is enhanced and the consumer is likely to purchase the product.

Buttle (1989) relocated the concept of needs from a psychological frame of reference to an anthropological one. According to him needs are socio-cultural elements which can vary from one time to another. This article suggests that needs are learned from the privileged discourse of a community. He opined that if marketing and advertising are the privileged discourses of 20\textsuperscript{th} century westernized cultures; it can also be concluded that they have a formative effect on needs.

The literature of advertising from consumer perspective states that an advertisement may not motivate further action if it is not perceived to be relevant to customers’ current or future needs, even though unique qualities of the advertisement may result in brand building (Blumler, 1979). According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2010) advertisements have cues designed to arouse needs and without these cues the needs might remain dormant. Creative advertisements arouse needs and create psychological imbalance in the consumers mind. These observations are relevant at least in few Indian cases where the advertisements reinforce traditional stereotypes, but there exists only very few available studies analyzing the effectiveness of

- Need for Deference
- Need for Play
- Need for Dominance
- Need for Recognition
- Need for Exhibition
- Need for Sentience
advertisements from psychological need perspective. Keeping this in mind present study also conceptualized Fowles’ eighteen motivational needs as moderator variables that influence the processing of advertisements in favor of purchase.

1.9 Purpose and Context of Research

The purpose of the present study is to evaluate the impact of advertisements on consumers’ purchase decision from a psychological perspective and find out the moderating influence of styles of thinking, sensation seeking self-concept and motivational needs in the process.

Processing of advertisements is a purely psychological process thus impact of advertisements needs to be studied from a psychological perspective. Recent theoretical inputs in the area of advertisements effectiveness explain advertisement appeals as one main reason for the effectiveness of advertisements. An advertisement can instigate a purchase if it is one or the other way appealing to the customer. Appeals are classified into categories based on the content of the message. The categories are rational and emotional. Since the objective of the study is to psychologically analyze the impact of advertisements on purchase decision the impact is defined based on the concepts of these two dichotomous advertisement appeals.

Most of the behavioural dynamics of purchase process are typically present only in complex buying process where huge investments are made on purchase. Purchase of an entry level car is a large purchase for most of the middle class people in India. Hence it is a good choice for a theoretical research to evaluate the impact of advertisements on purchase decision. For this reason the current study is exclusively carried out on Indian entry level hatchback car brands.

Research studies reveal that styles of thinking is one of the major factors influencing the processing of persuasive messages (Sun, Wang & Chen, 2009;
Monga & John, 2010) and was decided to include as a moderating variable in the present study.

Purchase of a product is not purely a rational process but also an experiential activity which involves playful leisure activities, sensory pleasures, daydreams, aesthetic enjoyment, emotional responses etc. Even though few early reviews pointed out the strong impact of emotional advertisement appeals among high sensation seekers there exists more scope to establish sensation seeking as a relevant variable affecting the effectiveness of advertisements. Hence this variable was also included as a moderator variable in the study design.

Self-concept is considered as the totality of the individual and it influences how the person feels and thinks. Early studies have revealed the importance of self-concept in the dynamics of effective persuasive communication. Hence this variable was also included in the study design as a moderator variable.

Consumers are buying products to satisfy their needs. Since human beings have selective attention they process those messages well allied with their stronger needs than weaker needs. Success of an advertising campaign depends on how well it is connected with the real needs of the consumers. For this reason the study also incorporated motivational needs as another moderator variable.

1.10 Significance and Scope of the Research

Advertisement is a major marketing tool with huge investments. An effective advertisement can reach the target customers fast and influence them to make purchases which in turn return the investment of the marketer with huge profit. It is also considered that effective advertisement can reduce unnecessary wastage of resources which eventually can reduce the cost of the product. Developing an advertisement based on the psychological makeup of consumers can assure the
success of the advertisement. Applied academic studies on advertisement effectiveness facilitate the marketers with better understanding of their customers and help them to produce effective advertisements. This reduces the cost of promotion and is beneficial to the customers since they are ultimately the end users bearing all costs of marketing. Not many advertisers in India routinely collect data on differential impact of advertising appeals on consumer purchase decision (Verma, 2009). The present study is significant in this context and it is an applied academic study focusing on contributing to the existing theories pertaining to advertisement effectiveness.

Advertisement is a form of persuasive communication. Persuasion is an information-processing activity, in which thoughts are actively manipulated to create new beliefs and attitudes. In the process of influencing consumers, advertisements use a host of communication strategies with huge investments. But many marketing experts (E.g., Abraham & Lodish, 1990; Jerry, 2008) opined that in most cases much of the advertising expenditures are wasted in ineffective campaigns which have not taken consideration of the principal psychological factors of the target consumers. Traditionally advertisement effectiveness process focused more on economic aspects but recently lot of effort is being made to study advertisement effectiveness from a psychological point of view (E.g., Puto & Wells, 1984; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Manrai et al., 1992).

The core assumption of consumer behaviour is individual differences. Individuals are different based on various psycho social factors like personality, perception, motivation, attitude etc. A marketing strategy normally creates differential response. A particular product feature may be highly attractive to a particular group of customers and not to another group of customers. Even though individual difference is the base rationale for the process of market segmentation, traditionally geographic
and demographic variables have been the major variables for segmenting markets. In recent years psychographic segmentation is getting popular, but even if it is limited in growth. Most of the market initiatives are only trying to segment market based on the overt behavioural characteristics like lifestyles, values, interests, hobbies, general personality types like introversion, extroversion etc. This approach is limited because of difficulty in measurement of personality types or life styles in population. It is also difficult to develop specific strategies for each segment and analyze the effect of these strategies on consumer purchase. From the advertising and promotion perspective the problem is still more complicated due to the complexity of reaching individuals of specific types through mass media. Since observable behaviour is a consequence of internal, subjective and non-observable psychological features, psychographic profiling based on covert cognitive processing differences is a better alternative.

People differ internally in the way they process information based on the characteristics of individuals (trait) and their current cognitive and affective circumstances (state) (Szalm & Hancock, 2005). Knowing the internal processing differences of advertisement stimuli by different consumers would be helpful for the advertisers to cater them with variety. Present study is an effort based on this orientation and it aims to explore the influence of few relevant psychological variables (styles of thinking, sensation seeking self-concept and motivational needs) considered as possible contributors to individual differences among consumers in processing advertisements towards making purchase decisions.