

Moderation and mediation in sexual advertising

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Abstract

Although sexual appeals are commonly used in advertising campaigns, evidence shows that it is not always effective. Audience characteristics, such as gender, culture and religion and other explaining factors, such as emotions play also a role in the effectiveness of sexual advertising. This research investigated the moderating role of gender, culture and religion on the relationship between sexual ad content and purchase intention and likeability of the ad and the mediating role of specific emotions in this relationship. Gender did not moderate the effect of sexual ad content on likeability of the ad, while religiosity and culture moderated this relationship. The results showed also that eight of the ten assumed emotions mediated the relationship between ad type and likeability of the ad.

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1 Introduction

1.1 Sexual advertising

‘Sex is a part of nature. I go along with nature.’ Marilyn Monroe emphasizes with this quote the indispensability of sex in every day live of people. Human behaviour is often influenced by sexual desires and human choices, such as partner choice as well as the choice for personal external care and image, are driven because of this influence. Sex and sexual desires, also play an important role in advertising. Marketers try to use the effectiveness of ads on personal behaviour on behalf of their brands, products and services and aim to persuade consumers and build relationships with them. Choosing an appropriate appeal in this respect is one of the essential tasks to design an effective advertisement (Baack and Clow, 2012). Most common appeals that can be seen in advertising are appeals such as humour, sex, fear, music and rationality. Especially, sexual appeals have become increasingly popular among corporations and are perhaps more prevalent than ever before. Sexual advertising refers to the use of sex appeal in advertisements to make them sexual attractive to persuade consumers to choose for the advertised brand or product. From magazines to television ads and from nudity to muscular men, they can be found in different formats in different mainstream advertising. From the times that sexual advertising was ethically not acceptable, nowadays it is one of the important appeals that is used in advertising. They are used more frequently, because of their effectiveness and they also changed in format and increased in intimacy and explicitness. According to a research from Georgia University, since 1983, ads featuring sexual imagery rose from 15% to 27% by 2003 (Reichert, Childers and Reid, 2012)

Advertisers use sex, because it can be very effective said researcher Tom Reichert. "In almost every study I've seen, sexual content gives a purchase advantage in such instances" (Sorrow, 2012). According to the research of Reichert, Heckler and Jackson (2001), sexual appeals in advertising distinguish themselves, because sexual appeals are more persuasive overall than non-sexual appeals. In the same research, it has been found that sexual appeals also stimulate more favourable ad execution-related thoughts and are more attention getting, likable, dynamic and somewhat apt to increase interest in the topic than nonsexual appeals

(Reichert, Heckler and Jackson, 2001). Other research has also shown that sexual appeals are attention getting, arousing, affect inducing and memorable (Belch and Villareal 1987). Shimp also mentions in his research the effectiveness of sexual advertising in 3 ways: they are attention getting, they enhance recall and they evoke emotions (Shimp, 2003).

The rise of advertisements with sexual content have raised a lot of research attention and researchers as well as corporations are confronted with issues about the effectiveness of sex-based ads. While the findings of these researches encourage corporations to use advertisements with sexual content, it is important to note that not only the appeal and the way the message is presented influence the processing of the ad. General findings suggest that the effectiveness of sexual advertising varies by product category. According to Reichert, Childers and Reid (2012), the highest percentage of sexual imagery containing were the product categories health/hygiene, beauty, drugs/medicine and clothing, which are in line with Reichert's suggestions made in 2003. He argued that the effectiveness of sexual advertising is connected to the congruence between the sexual ad and the advertised product or brand (Reichert and Lambiase, 2003). Petterson and Kerin (1977) also examined in their research the importance of the congruence between appeal and product in sexual advertising. They found that sexual advertising was more effective for products such as body oil in comparison to products such as a ratchet-style wrench set. Based on this framework, a lot of research has been done through the years and the effectiveness of sexual ads on the consumption of specific products has been proven: designer jeans (Bello, Pitts and Etzel, 1993; LaTour and Henthorne, 1994), liquor (Grazer and Kessling, 1995), cigarettes and automobiles (Reid and Soley, 1981, 1983) and suntan lotion (Dudley, 1999).

1.2 Problem statement and research questions

Sexual advertising effectiveness depends not only on how the message is presented and on the congruence between the appeal and product, but also on how the message is perceived by the audience, which in turn depends on the characteristics of the members of an audience. The stimuli's relation to the audience and audience factors such as values, background, personality and the perception of the ad also play an important role. Differences among the receivers of the ad can lead to differences in information processing styles and thus in differences in the manner how receivers respond to sex appeal ads (Ruiz

de Maya and Sicilia, 2004). Aaker and Stayman (1989) also point out in their research that individual differences may play an important role in determining the impact of advertising messages.

Therefore, in recent years, the attention of advertising research is shifting from topics such as message appeal and product/appeal congruence and is becoming increasingly focused on audience characteristics and human psychology (Borden, 2018).

Following this shift in focus, previous literature has shown the moderating effect of gender in advertising. Moderation analyses are the appropriate tools in doing such studies. Moderation effects occur when the relationship between a dependent and independent variable depends on a third variable, known as a moderator variable. In this way, significant effects of gender differences have been found in information processing styles (Darley and Smith, 1995), in response to advertising type (Fisher, 2005), in response to web advertising (Wolin, 2013), in response to gender-positioning (Bellizzi and Milner, 1991) and in response to advertising spokesperson (Freiden, 1984). Given the power of gender differences in diverse advertising topics, it is also likely that there will be gender differences in response to sexual advertising. Therefore, the first goal of this study is to look at the moderating role of gender in sexual advertising. In order to meet this goal, the first research question is formulated.

Research question 1: Is there a difference in response to sexual advertising between genders?

Culture also plays an important role in advertising. Cultures differ from each other, and cultural differences are also observable in diverse advertising topics. Previous literature and cross-cultural studies found for example that Spanish and German people differ in their response to humor advertisements (Hoffman, Schwartz, Dalicho and Hutter, 2014), American people value visualization and image-based elaboration higher, compared to Russian people (Mikhailitchenko, Javalgi, Mikhailitchenko and Laroche, 2009), Chinese and German people differ in their acceptance of offensive advertising (Chan, Li, Diehl and Terlutter, 2007) and American, Australian and Chinese consumers (Liu, Cheng and Li, 2009) have different attitudes towards sex appeal advertising. Seeing the differences between several cultures, the expectation is that there also will be differences in response to sexual advertising in a different cultural context. The second goal of this study is to look whether

Dutch and Turkish people differ in their response to sexual advertising. In order to meet this, the next research question is formulated:

Research question 2: Is there a difference in response to sexual advertising between Dutch and Turkish consumers?

As described above, previous research found both cultural and gender differences in response to different marketing communications. However, less research is done to role of cross cultural gender differences in advertising. Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010) theory suggests that variation in male and female values and behaviour will vary across cultures, based on differences in cultural dimensions. In order to check whether gender differences exist across Dutch and Turkish consumers in response to sexual advertising, the next research question is formulated:

Research question 3: Is there a gender difference in response to sexual advertising between Dutch and Turkish consumers?

Religion is also likely to have an influence in advertising. It has been found that people with high religiosity, compared to people with a low religiosity, differ in their evaluation of offensive advertising (Fam, Erdogan and Waller, 2004). Religions influence people's behaviour thus in several ways, and there are also sexually rules and regulations in religions. Building on this, this research also focuses on religiosity as a moderator variable. The third goal of this study is to look whether religious and not religious people differ in their response to sexual advertising. Hence, the third research question is formulated:

Research question 4: Is there a difference in response to sexual advertising between religious and not religious people?

To ensure that sexual ads lead to favourable responses, marketers also need to know where attitudes come from and which factors actually lead to specific responses. While the importance of different moderators is emphasized above, it is important to note that sex-appeal advertising is transformational in nature and aims to evoke specific emotions in

people to get positive results. Emotions play an important role in the formation of response and are increasingly being recognized as important aspects of consumer behaviour and advocate a broadened view on sexual advertising. Previous literature has shown the mediating role that emotions play in advertising (Batra, 1986; Batra and Ray, 1986; Holbrook and Batra 1986). In order to get insights into more effective sexual advertising campaigns, the focus of this study will also be on emotions. Another goal of this study is to explain the relationship between sexual ads and responses to sexual ads, by looking to specific emotions as mediators. A mediation effect arises when a third hypothetical variable, known as a mediator variable, explains the process that underlies the observed relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. In order to meet this objective, the next research question is formulated:

Research question 5: Which emotions mediate the relationship between sexual advertising and consumer response?

1.3 Academic and practical relevance

The main goal of this study is to get insights into more effective sexual advertising by defining the role of specific moderators and mediators. This research will contribute to the theoretical understanding how processes and factors related to sexual advertising work. Furthermore, this study will also provide managers practical information to increase sexual advertising effectiveness. Although previous literature studied the role of gender, culture and religion and the effect of emotions in advertising (as described above), there is still a gap within the area of sexual advertising. The effects of moderators and mediators in sexual advertising are not studied much until now, this research will make unique contributions to the sexual advertising literature.

Marketers should be sensitive to the segments in their audience and the first contribution is that this research will give marketers insights to understand the consumer better and to help for a successful market segmentation. According to Kotler and Armstrong, market segmentation refers to “dividing the market into different consumer groups, that have different needs and wants and require separate products or marketing mixes” (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005). In order to be successful, organizations and companies have to try

different segmentation variables (Kotler and Armstrong, 1996). Although most segmentation strategies are based on demographics, such as age, this research will also investigate behavioural, geographical and psychographic differences.

Secondly, this research will make a unique cross-cultural contribution, by comparing Dutch and Turkish people. Such a cross-cultural comparison doesn't exist in advertising literature.

Finally, most of the research investigating the role of emotions as mediators, include just emotional dimensions ignoring specific emotions, or include just a few specific emotions. In contrast to that, this study will include 10 specific emotions.

1.4 Structure

This thesis exists of several parts. It started with an introduction, in which the problem statement is discussed, the research questions are formulated and the academic and practical contribution is explained. The second chapter of this thesis will contain the theoretical framework, in which the literature in sexual advertising will be reviewed. The theoretical framework will contribute to make some expectations and formulate hypotheses, which will be tested in chapter 4. Chapter 3 will contain the methodology used and will discuss how the empirical part of this research is performed. After this, Chapter 4 will give an overview of the results and will give a clarification of them, where after the hypotheses will be tested. Finally, chapter 5 will include the conclusion, in which the general findings, limitations and recommendations will be discussed.

2 Theoretical Framework

2.1 Gender

Although previous research has shown the effectiveness of sex appeal advertising, findings from these studies may have a limited reach. They may be not effective for many consumers and may contribute to different attitudes towards sex appeal advertising based on different factors such as gender and culture. Given these uncertainty and questions, the focus of this section will be on gender as a moderating factor.

Gender is one of the most important factors that shapes people's personality traits and assists to human behaviour. From psychological characteristics to the occurrence of diseases and from differences in crime to differences in leadership, gender affects how people think and behave. Gender differences have been studied for a long time in a variety of fields, such as psychology and sociology. Also, marketers are engaged to the implications of gender differences, especially in the area of sexual advertising. This is mainly caused by the fact that females and males differ in their sexual choices and attitudes towards sex.

2.1.1 Gender differences in sexual motivations from an evolutionary view

Men and women have different orientations toward sex, because of their different sexual and personal motivations and desires (DeLamater, 1987). According to the research of DeLamater, women and men engage for different reasons in sexual activities and have different motivations for engaging in it. Men have a pleasure orientation, with the goal of physical gratification, while women have a relationship orientation and value intimacy and commitment. Hill also emphasizes in his research the gender differences in sexual activities, and points out that women prefer to engage in sexual activities that have an emotional engagement, whereas men prefer to engage in sexual activities that arise from interest in pleasure and sensuality (Hill, 2002). According to him, relationship stage has also an impact in the engagement in sexual activities. Women perceive sexual activity as more likely in a serious relationship than in a dating relationship, while men perceive sexual activity likely in both circumstances. Men's sexual interest that arises from interest in pleasure expresses itself also in earlier expectations. Several studies found that men expect to engage earlier in

sexual activities compared to women, because of their permissive attitudes. (Byers & Lewis, 1988; Cohen & Shotland, 1996).

The parental investment theory (Trivers, 1972) gives a theoretical explanation for the gender differences in sexual behaviour. Parental investment refers here to any investment, such as time, energy or effort, by the parent in an individual offspring that increases the survival and reproduction of the offspring (at the cost of parent's ability to invest in other offspring). The parental investment theory suggests that women face higher levels of parental investment and are by far more selective in the choice of partner selection, compared to men, because women invest more in offspring. Women select partners based on specific reasons to increase the survival and reproduction of her offspring. On the other side, men are the less-investing gender and compete with other men for sexual access to women. This results into the selective search of women for a long-term relationship, while because of the mutual competition, men tend to take immediately advantage of engaging in sexual activities with more than one women.

2.1.2 Gender differences in sexual advertising response

Gender differences in sexual motivations expresses itself in women's relatively negative attitude towards sexual advertising, compared to men's attitude.

Although limited, previous research has found differences between women and men in response to sexual advertising. (LaTour and Henthorne, 1994; Reichert 2001). Reichert suggests for example that sex appeal advertising may be effective for one gender, while may be ineffective to the other gender. Researchers focused on how men and women differ in their responses to sex appeal advertising. The general findings suggest that women respond more negatively to sexual advertising than men (Yan, Ogle, Hyllegard and Attmann, 2010; Reichert, 2001; LaTour and Henthorne, 1994). While males are most positive towards sexual advertising when faced with nudity, females are most sexually aroused with romantic sources. It has also been found that women respond negatively towards female nudity compared to men (LaTour, Pitts and Snook-Luther, 1990), men respond negatively towards male nudity compared to women (Sciglimpaglia, Belch and Cain, 1979) and women had more

negatively attitudes than men towards higher level sex-appeal advertising (Liu, Li and Cheng, 2006)

On the opposite, Taflinger claimed in his article (1996) that women don't necessarily respond more negatively to sexual advertising compared to men. According to him, sexual appeal advertising with the use of nudity is more effective for men, while sexual appeal advertising with the use of elements such as courtship, love and romance are more effective for women. Research, by Ma and Gal (2012), supports Taflinger's suggestion. The authors found that sexual imagery with elements such as romance led to a decrease in men's preference for romantically linked products and services, but not in women.

Another strong evidence supporting Taflinger's view in purchase behaviour as result of sexual advertising is the research done by Sengupta, Dahl and Vohs (2009). Their research showed that women's relative negative attitude of sexual ads softened when the ad contained commitment-related resources being offered by men to women. In opposition to that, relationship commitment cues did not affect men's positive attitudes towards sexual ads.

In summary, previous research found significant gender differences in sexual motivations and responses to sexual advertising. In brief, they suggest that women and men are different and respond different to sex-based advertisements. Findings suggest that women have a lower sex-drive compared to men. Men react more positively to higher level sexual appeals, like nudity, whereas women compared to men had more negative attitudes. Based on the theory and literature review on gender differences in sexual advertising, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H1a: Men, compared to women, will have a higher purchase intention after exposure to the same sex-appeal ad.

H1b: Men, compared to women, will have more positive attitudes towards the same sex-appeal ad.

Furthermore, we expect also the relative effect of sex-appeal advertising to be higher compared to humorous advertising. Prior research found evidence that sexual appeals are more persuading, attention getting, likeable and interesting than non-sexual appeals (Reichert, Heckler and Jackson, 2001).

2.2 Culture

For an effective communication, marketers need to understand and adapt to their target audiences' needs and wants. By using market segmentation, companies will understand consumers better and make their marketing strategy more effective. Although demographics like gender and age are useful variables to target customers, cultural segmentation is also important because of the fact that the world economy globalizes and an increasing number of open borders that makes countries more accessible for foreign people. Therefore, the focus of this section will be on culture as moderator variable.

Culture is also likely to moderate consumer's' responses to advertising appeal and cultural differences in responses to sexual advertising have also been found in several studies (Overby, Gardial and Woodruff, 2004; Ford, LaTour, Honeycutt, 1997; Liu, Cheng and Li, 2009) Especially for companies operating and advertising in highly multicultural countries, these findings have implications. Such companies use standardized advertising campaigns in different countries (Agrawal, 1995) and these differences could lead to ineffectiveness of different advertising campaigns.

As mentioned in the introduction, one of the goals of this study is to compare the responses of the Dutch and Turkish culture to sexual advertising. As is well-known, The Netherlands has a very complicated demographic structure. There are a lot of ethnic groups in the country, of which the Turks are one of the biggest (CBS, 2016). Checking the effects of ads for different cultures in The Netherlands is very important regarding the ad-themes that enterprises use to maximize their sales. According to Taylor (2005), Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory is a useful framework to compare advertising effectiveness in such a cross-cultural context.

2.2.1 Geert Hofstede's Cultural dimensions theory

Different cultures have different norms and values and react and behave therefore different on occurrences in different circumstances. Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory (Hofstede, 2010) explains and describes a culture's effects on the values of its members and how these values relate to their behaviour. According to his theory, there are six primary dimensions in which national cultures differ from each other:

1. Power Distance Index,
2. Individualism versus Collectivism,
3. Masculinity versus Femininity,
4. Uncertainty Avoidance Index,
5. Long term orientation versus Short term normative orientation and
6. Indulgence versus Restraint.

These dimensions represent independent preferences for one state of affairs over another that distinguish cultures from each other. The country scores of the dimensions are relative. The model is common used in order to understand cultural differences in marketing communications (De Mooi and Hofstede, 2010). According to De Mooij and Hofstede (2011), the cultural dimensions theory explains variances in marketing communications, and has elements which are relevant to branding and advertising. Other research found also evidence that these dimensions are likely to influence consumer's response to advertising (Liu, Cheng and Li, 2009; An and Kim, 2006; Chan, Li, Diehl and Terlutter, 2007).

Therefore, we start the analysis with explaining the dimensions. The Power Distance Index dimension refers to what degree the less powerful members of a society expect that the power is distributed unequally and accept the power of more powerful members. A high Power Distance Index indicates inequalities between most and least powerful members and that this hierarchy is clearly established and accepted, without doubt and reason, while in a society with a low Power Distance Index, the described hierarchy is counteracted and people question this hierarchy and attempt to distribute power. Regarding to advertising, literature suggest that in a high Power Distance Society items such as wealth, prestige, luxury and fashion in advertising are more effective compared to low Power Distance societies (De Mooij, 2010). The use of affective message strategies, such as sexual or humour appeal is preferred in low Power Distance Societies (De Mooij, 2005), while celebrity endorsements in

advertising have a more impact on audiences in high Power Distance societies (De Mooij, 2001).

The Individualism versus Collectivism dimension refers to the extent to which people in societies are integrated into groups. People from individualistic cultures have weak ties with each other and such societies only relate an individual to his/her immediate family, whereas people from collectivistic cultures have strong ties with each other and relate relationships with extended families and in-groups. Previous literature found that differences in this dimension influence how cultures react to different marketing communications and cause variances in response. It has been found that in individual societies, people find information in ads more important to maximize their utility, whereas collectivistic societies value interpersonal communications and word-of-mouth marketing (Goodrich and De Mooij, 2013). According to De Mooij and Hofstede (2010), individualistic cultures are also low-context communication cultures and prefer explicit communication. Collectivistic cultures are high-context communication cultures and prefer an indirect style of communication. In a collectivistic culture, it is important to build first a relationship and trust between the parties, whereas in individualistic cultures, parties want to get to the point fast. According to them, the differences in this dimension are expressed in the role of advertising. In individualistic cultures, the role of advertising is to persuade consumers, whereas in collectivistic cultures the role of advertising is to build trust. Consumers from high context cultures often evaluate direct and explicit marketing communications as pushy and aggressive, whereas consumers from low-context cultures evaluate them as informative and persuasive (Rossman, 1994). Previous literature found also that cultures that differ in this dimension, also react different to the same advertising appeal. Zhang and Neelankavil (1997) found that advertising appeals with emphasize on individualistic benefits (products used in a private setting) are more effective in the USA than in China, whereas advertising appeals with emphasize on collectivistic benefits (socially visible use) are more effective in China. Another, more appropriate research in the context of sexual advertising has shown us that German and Chinese consumers, who differ from each other in this dimension, differ in their acceptance of offensive advertising (Chan, Li, Diehl and Terlutter, 2007). Chinese consumers, who have a lower score in this dimension and thus are more collectivistic, accepted offensive advertising less, as they liked offensive advertising less, compared to German consumers which are more individualistic.

With regards to the Masculinity/Femininity dimension, we can say that women in the respective societies have different values. In feminine societies, they share values and views equally with men. In masculine societies, there is still a difference between male and female values. In such societies, female, compared to male, are less assertive and emphatic. When comparing the differences of cultures in this dimension, we can say that this dimension also influences independently the responses to ads (Chingching Chan, 2006). Chingching Chan found in his research that people from Masculine societies like factual, informational communication strategies, while people from feminine societies react equally to the informational and transformational (affective) message strategies. Similar to high Power Distance societies, in Masculine societies, status is viewed as important and elements such as luxury, jewellery and image in advertising is more effective compared to Feminine societies, where people are more concerned with values about the quality of life and mutual respect (De Mooij, 1998). It has also been found that fictional advertisements are more effective in feminine societies, while non-fictional advertisements are more effective in masculine societies (De Mooij, 1998).

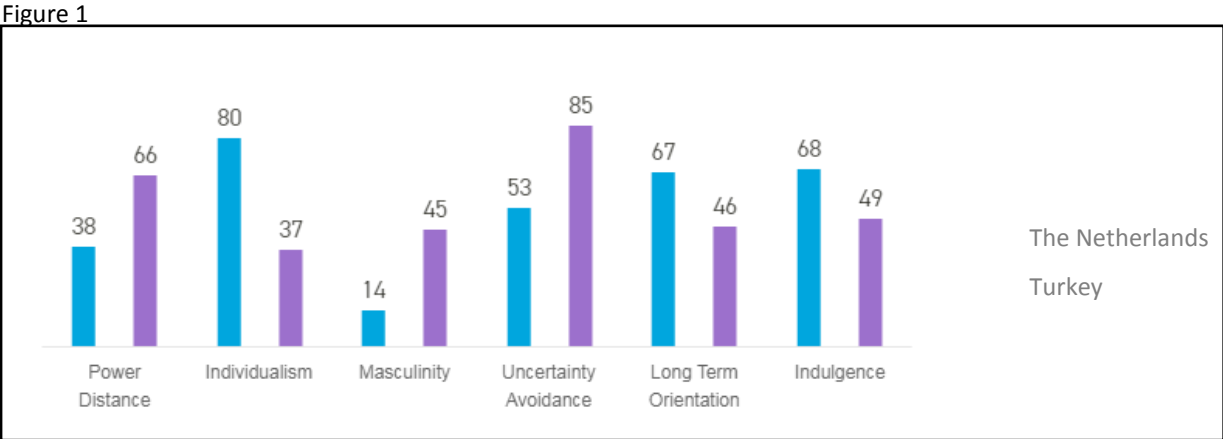
The Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) refers to a society's ambiguity and has also an impact in a society's advertising response. Societies with a high UAI have strict codes of belief and behaviour, and do not accept traditional behaviour and ideas, while societies with a low UAI have more loose attitudes towards ideas and behaviour. It has been found that societies with a low uncertainty avoidance index respond not significantly different to mild or strong sexual advertising, whereas cultures with a high uncertainty avoidance index respond differently towards mild or strong sexual advertising. (Garcia and Yang, 2006).

The fifth dimension is the Long/Short term orientation dimension. A short-term oriented society has a conventional historic or short-term orientation, and traditions and steadfastness are important in such societies. While in a long-term oriented society, adaptation and pragmatic problem-solving are important and thus has a pragmatic future-oriented point of view. Although this dimension is a relatively new dimension and not much research is done, it has been found that in societies with a short-term orientation, a more expressive and elaboratic way of communicating is preferred that enhances self-presentation, while in countries with a long-term orientation, a briefer communication is preferred with a more modest self-presentation (Goodrich and De Mooij, 2013).

The last dimension is the Indulgence versus Restraint dimension. This dimension deals with to what degree people in a society fulfil their joy and try to control their desires. While indulgent societies allow satisfaction of desires related to enjoying life and having fun, restraint societies are regulated by strict social norms. This dimension is also a relative new dimension and not much research has been done that explains this dimension’s effects in marketing communication.

2.2.2 Comparing the Netherlands and Turkey

Figure 1 shows the scores of The Netherland and Turkey for each dimension of Hofstede’s cultural dimensions theory.



Source: www.hofstede-insights.com

The Power Distance Index of the two cultures differ. Turkey has a higher Power Distance Index with a score of 66, whereas The Netherlands has a score of 38 for this dimension, which indicates that things as hierarchy in the workplace and family, centralized power, rules and formality are more accepted in the Turkish society compared to the Dutch society, where things as hierarchy for convenience, accessible superiors, equal rights, decentralized power and informality are more accepted.

The relative difference is the highest for the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension, with a score of 80 for the Netherlands and 37 for Turkey. According the model, this indicates that The Netherlands is an individualistic society and Turkey is a collectivistic society.

The dimension scores also indicate a difference in the Masculinity/Femininity dimension. Although both societies are on the same side of this dimension and thus are both feminine societies, there is a relative difference between the scores of the two cultures. The Netherlands has a very low score of 15, while Turkey has a score of 45. This means that the Dutch society attach more importance to things as leisure, equality, solidarity and problem solving by compromise and negotiation, compared to the Turkish society.

Turkey has also a higher Uncertainty Avoidance Index with a score of 85, compared to The Netherlands with a score of 53. These scores indicate that the Turkish society is in a huge need for laws and regulations in order to avoid threats, makes use of a lot of rituals and traditions and seems to be religious. In contrast to that, The Netherlands has also a preference for uncertainty avoidance, but to a lesser extent than Turkey. The Dutch society is intolerant of unorthodox ideas and behaviours and the necessity of rules come from emotional needs such as stress and hecivity avoidance.

The two societies differ also in the Long/Short Term Orientation dimension. With a score of 67 in this dimension, The Netherlands is pragmatic in nature and easily adapts to certain conditions, while Turkey, with a score of 46, is a less pragmatic and a more normative culture, think normative and have respect for traditions and focus on the short-term.

The two countries differ also in terms of the Indulgence/Restraint dimension. With a score of 68, The Netherlands is an indulgence society, where people attach value to exposing and realizing their impulses and desires regarding to enjoying life and having fun. Turkey has a score of 49 and is a restraint society, where people restraint themselves with regards to enjoying life and having fun and are regulated by strict social norms and values. According to a lot of authors, the most important and relevant dimension for explaining cultural differences in sexual advertising response, is the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension (Taylor, Wilson and Miracle, 1994; Liu, Cheng and Li, 2009; Chan, Li, Diehl and Terlutter, 2007; An and Kim, 2006). Therefore, our focus will be on the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension to compare The Netherlands and Turkey.

To summarize, previous studies support that differences in the cultural dimensions influence advertising responses. A comparison has been made between the Netherlands and Turkey, who differed in all of the dimensions. Especially, research focusing on the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension, suggest that countries who differ in this dimension, differ in

their communication preferences and response to sexual advertising (Taylor, Wilson and Miracle, 1994; Liu, Cheng and Li, 2009; Chan, Li, Diehl and Terlutter, 2007). We saw that The Netherlands and Turkey differ in the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension. Since the Netherlands is a relative more individualistic society (and also differ in the other dimensions), the expectation is that The Netherlands and Turkey will differ in their response to the same sex-appeal ad. General findings suggest that individualistic societies accept offensive advertising more, value transformational (affective) ads more and like direct marketing, and prefer to receive direct and explicit marketing communications, compared to collectivistic societies. Based on this, the next hypotheses are formulated

Hypothesis 2a: Dutch consumers, compared to Turkish consumers, will have a higher purchase intention after exposure to the same sex appeal ad.

Hypothesis 2b: Dutch consumers, compared to Turkish consumers, will have more positive attitudes towards the same sex appeal ad.

2.3 Religion

Like culture, religion also plays an important role in the way how people behave. Different people have different interpretations about what religion means for them. But usually, a religion can be described as a set of behaviours, practices, ethics or world views.

2.3.1 Effect of religion on behaviour

Each religion has developed its own practices and values and it has been found that religion has a significantly impact on people's attitudes and behaviours (Arnould, Price & Zikhan, 2004). A religion encourages the formation of practices that lead to social behaviour (Hawkins et al. 1980; Schiffman and Kanuk 1991) and according to Peterson and Roy (1985), religion makes life understandable and interpretable by providing purposes for people. That is why religion and its values and practices play an important role in everyday life of people. These values and practices have been arisen from religious rules and ethics, which play an important role in shaping people's attitudes, beliefs and behaviours. These rules and ethics constantly suggest people on their behaviour and on what is considered to be right or wrong in their behaviour. From what they eat to their visits to religious places and from marriages to political ideas, these rules influence people's behaviour in every aspect of life.

According to Hirschman (1983), the belief in and affiliation to a religion can be seen as a cognitive process, in which attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviours are shared by members of a group and that the rules and ethics in such a group influence the group's behaviour in the same way.

Undoubtedly, when religious people act and behave in this way, the rules and ethics of a religion have then also implications for marketers who examine consumer behaviour and develop companies' strategies. For example, Muslims who are not allowed to drink alcoholic drinks or Jews that are not allowed to eat meat in certain periods of the year and McDonald's that doesn't sell its usual assortment in India.

2.3.1 Religion and sexuality

Each religion has also developed rules and moral codes about sexuality and a religious group's sexual norms can be linked to these religious rules and codes. According to McGuire (2008), these rules regulate people's sexual activity and assign normative values to certain sexually charged actions or thoughts of people (McGuire, 2008). In order to have a better understanding of the relationship between religion and sexual advertising, it is useful to understand first how religions aim to influence people's behaviour with regards to sexuality and which sexual rules religions assign to people. Therefore, our focus will be on two dimensions of religions with regards to sexuality: spiritual and rules and regulations (Bryson, 2000). Viewed from the spiritual dimension, each religion teaches its followers to avoid undesirable behaviour, to develop virtue and to control themselves regarding sexual behaviour. These spiritual expectations are based on a set of rules and regulations and each religion has different requirements and prohibit its followers in terms of sexuality. A religion's moral rules and regulations regulate the situations that rise people's sexual interest and influence people's sexual behaviour.

2.3.3 Difference between religious and not religious people

According to Hunt and Vitell (2006), religious people engage in both deontological and teleological evaluations in determining their ethical judgements and thus their behaviour, whereas not religious people don't engage in teleological evaluations. Based on this, religious and not religious people show different behaviours towards topics such as sexuality. And indeed, researches have proven the relevance of this theory. Recent research has showed that, for example, religiosity is associated with a decreased frequency of sexual activity, lower number of sexual partners and increased age of coitarche (Gold, Sheftel, Chiappetta, Young, Zuckoff, DiClemente and Primack, 2010). The influence of religiosity on behaviour is not limited to people's sexual activity.

The influence of religiosity on consumption and advertising of certain products has also been proven (De Run, Butt, Fam and Jong, 2010; Fam, Waller and Erdogan, 2004; Hirschman, 1983). Fam, Waller and Erdogan found, for example, in their research that religion has a significant impact on consumers' buying behaviour for controversial products

such as alcohol, cigarettes, condoms and sexual disease preventers. They discovered that more religious people found the advertising of the controversial products more offensive than less religious people. De Run, Butt, Fam and Jong found similar results in their research. In accordance to this, Putrevu and Swimberghek (2013) found in their research that sexual appeal advertising elicits more positive ethical judgements and attitudes for less religious people compared to more religious people. The opposite was the case for nonsexual appeal advertising, that elicit positive responses from more religious consumers.

Based on the behavioural differences between religious and not religious people concerning sexuality described above and on prior research that examined different effects of religiosity on advertising and consumption, the next hypotheses are formulated:

Hypothesis 3a: Religious consumers, compared to non-religious consumers, will have a lower purchase intention after exposure to the same sex-appeal ad.

Hypothesis 3b: Religious consumers, compared to non-religious consumer will have less positive attitudes towards the same sex-appeal ad.

2.4 Emotions as mediators

Until now, our focus was on the evaluative component of attitude and we hypothesized in the previous sections that different people could react differently to advertisement with a sexual appeal. As important as the evaluative component of sexual advertising research is the emotional component of attitude and during the past years, an increasing amount of attention goes to the emotional aspects of advertising and consumer behaviour. In their research, Holbrook and O'Shaughnessy (1984) emphasize the role of emotions in advertising. According to them, emotional processing of ads can be distinguished from other motivational and affective constructs that lead to consumption choice. Zajonc (1980) also suggests in his research that consumption choices can be based on emotional factors in addition to rational-factual factors. According to him, emotional factors play an important role in the decision-making process and deserve more attention than they receive nowadays. Although the purchase decision looks like the end state of the customer journey, emotions regarding to sexual advertising should be studied because it can explain a lot of things in the purchase decision. Therefore, we propose that emotions represent a distinct dimension of sexual advertising and the focus of this section will be on emotions as mediators.

2.4.1 The role of emotions in advertising

Our feeling-based analysis starts at the point where various advertising studies provide evidence that feelings are elicited by ads. According to Edell and Burke (1987), there are two distinct approaches in doing such studies that have yielded for an attitude component that is feeling-based (Edell and Burke, 1987). The first approach is the semantic judgement approach and deals with people's explicit memory and refers to the general world knowledge (facts, ideas, meaning, concepts) that people accumulate during their lives. This world knowledge is strongly connected with experience and is dependent on culture. Based on this approach, Edell and Burke (1986) found out that subjects' evaluations of ads decline as levels of exposure increase, and even return to their initial levels after an eight-month period without exposure. Notable in the same study were the results that two different measures of attitude toward the ad showed very different patterns over time. The

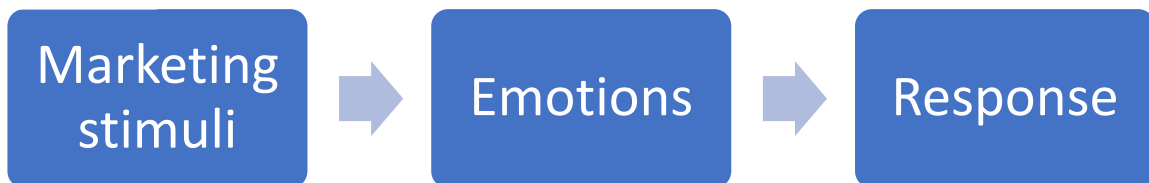
authors found out that subjects' evaluations of the ad, such as whether the ad was interesting or humorous, didn't capture all the subjects' attitude toward the ad and didn't account for changes in attitude over time. They suggest that feeling-based responses, which are more capable to change over time than the evaluations of the ad's characteristics, account for the unexplained variance in attitude towards the ad.

The second approach is the cognitive response approach and locates the most direct cause of attitude formation on the target, rather than the content of the message. Increasingly detailed coding schemes of emotions have been appeared in recent advertising research by means of this approach. Using this approach, Batra and Ray (1986) found evidence that feelings are elicited by ads and influence the effectiveness of advertising campaigns. They stated in their research that affective responses represent the feelings and moods evoked by the ad and are different than evaluative responses toward an advertisement. They found, amongst other things, that three categories of positive affective responses have a significant impact on brand attitudes and purchase behaviour and suggested 10 other categories of emotions that may also impact advertising effectiveness.

Due to these findings, particular interest has been emerged in the role of emotions in advertising research and a wide variety of studies paid attention and numerous studies yielded evidence and documented the role of emotions in advertising (Aaker, Stayman and Hagerty, 1986; Batra and Ray, 1986; Edell and Burke, 1987; Holbrook and Batra, 1987) For instance, Aaker, Stayman and Hagerty (1986) have found that the impact of the feeling of warmth (defined as positive, mild, volatile emotion) created by a commercial on advertising responses, such as liking and purchase likelihood, was significant. Edell and Burke (1987) found similar results and examined that ads elicit both positive and negative emotions and are important predictors of advertising effectiveness. These early attempts to the emerging interest in emotional advertising responses contributed to the arise of systematic models of emotions in advertising. The most widely-known and common-used model in this sense is the familiar C-A-B paradigm. The general approach in determining the role of emotions in advertising effectiveness can be viewed with the C-A-B paradigm which assumes that cognition determines affect which in turn results in behaviour. Holbrook and Batra emphasize in their work (1986) that the C-A-B paradigm occupies a central position in research to emotional responses and that most of the researches in this field only slightly

varied from the C-A-B paradigm. The C-A-B approach is showed in the following communication model:

Figure 2



In short, this model uses independent variables of ad content and emotions and dependent variables of advertising response to measure the role of emotions as mediators in advertising.

In order to test which specific emotions play a role in sexual advertising effectiveness, this study will also use this model. To do so, ten specific emotions are chosen which are relevant to sexual advertising and are supposed to influence the effectiveness of sexual advertising. As there are 10 different positive and negative emotions in the study, the next hypotheses are formulated:

H4a: Joy will mediate the relationship between the ad type and attitude towards the ad

H4b: Excitement will mediate the relationship between the ad type and attitude towards the ad

H4c: Passion will mediate the relationship between the ad type and attitude towards the ad

H4d: Humour will mediate the relationship between the ad type and attitude towards the ad

H4e: Happiness will mediate the relationship between the ad type and attitude towards the ad

H4f: Anger will mediate the relationship between the ad type and attitude towards the ad

H4g: Shame will mediate the relationship between the ad type and attitude towards the ad

H4h: Disgust will mediate the relationship between the ad type advertising and attitude towards the ad

H4i: Irritation will mediate the relationship between the ad type advertising and attitude towards the ad

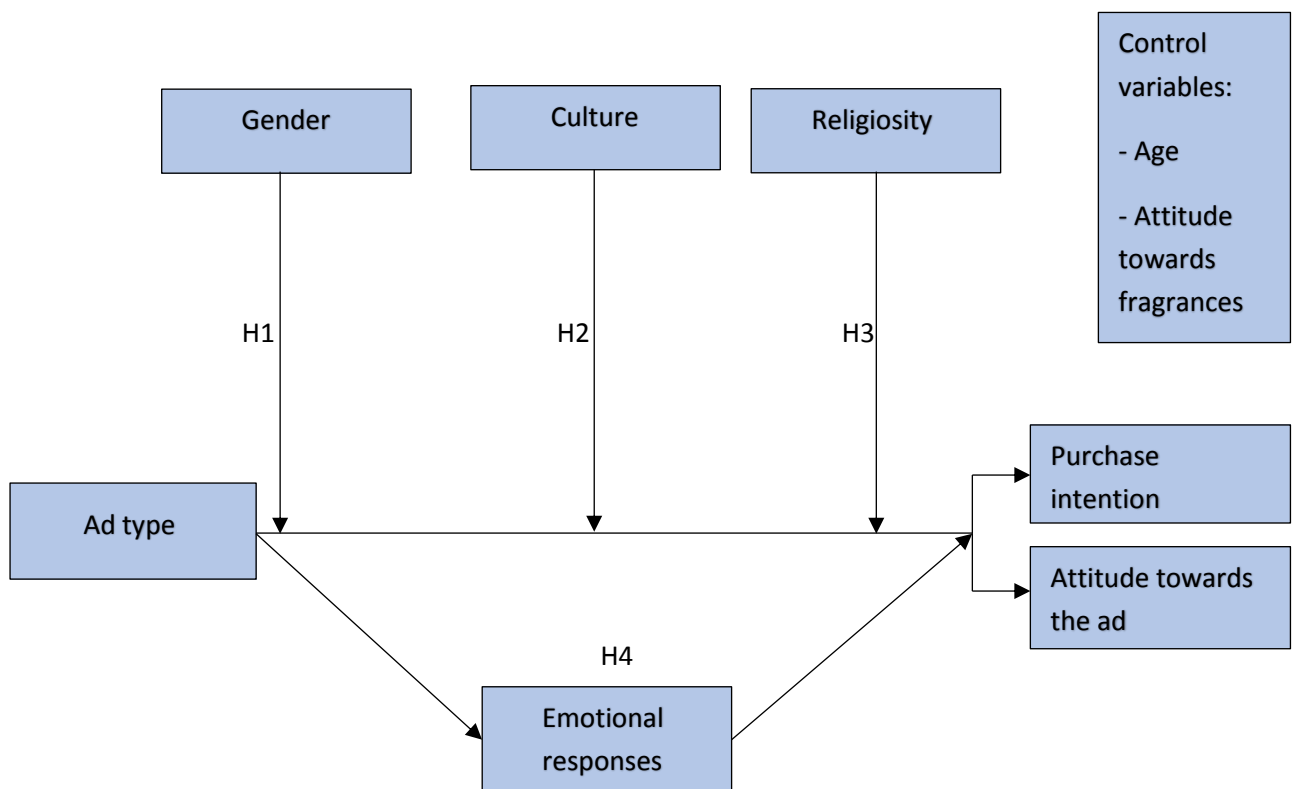
H4j: Concern will mediate the relationship between the ad type advertising and attitude towards the ad

2.5 Conceptual framework

As already mentioned in the introduction of this thesis, the first and main goal of this research is to take a closer look at the moderator variables within the field of sexual advertising and examine the gender differences as well as the cultural and religious differences in response to sexual advertising. In addition to the analysis of the moderator variables, the second goal of this research is to measure the effect of emotions in sexual advertising and to examine which emotions the relationship between sexual advertising and consumer behaviour mediate. To meet these objectives, a quantitative research approach will be used. In this way, the first part of the research was based on the literature overview, on which the hypotheses are based. The research will be completed with a set of studies based on an experiment that will test these hypotheses.

To have a better understanding of this study and make the theoretical framework and hypotheses clearer, a conceptual framework is developed. Figure 3 shows the conceptual model. Each of the hypotheses formulated in the previous sections, is illustrated with arrows in the conceptual model.

Figure 3: Conceptual model



The conceptual model shows the independent (Ad type) and dependent variables (Purchase intention & Attitude towards the ad) and how the dependent variables are influenced by the independent variables and the relationships between them. The figure also shows the role of the moderator and mediator variables.

The left vertical arrow in the model shows the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between advertising type and purchase intention and attitude towards the ad. The middle vertical arrows represent the moderating effect of culture and the jointly moderating effect of gender and culture on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The right arrow shows the moderating effect of religiosity on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The lower arrows in the model show the mediating role of emotional responses on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The control variables are shown in the upper right box.

3. Research Methodology

This chapter will discuss the used methodology to test the hypotheses formulated in the previous chapter. This will be done by two different studies based on an experiment.

3.1 Experimental design

For the experiment, an online survey was created with Qualtrics and distributed using social media channels such as Facebook and WhatsApp. The experiment had a between subject design and participants were randomly assigned to a condition (sexual ad or control ad). Separate groups were thus created for each type of advertisement. The experiment took place at one specific point in time and the gathered data therefore had a cross-sectional structure.

3.1.1 Stimuli

For the experiment, two different ads of the same product group have been used to set two different conditions. Each participant was randomly assigned to one of these conditions. As a result, two different groups were created. The experimental group was exposed to a fragrance ad with sexual content. Comparing the experimental condition with another emotionally charged condition seemed to be more interesting and valuable than to compare the experimental condition with a neutral ad, and the control group was thus exposed to a fragrance ad with humorous content. The ad with sexual appeal showed a half-naked couple in a sexy situation, that was kissing and hugging each other. The ad with humorous content on the other hand is played by the four members of the pop band One Direction. In the advertisement, the members of the band gather ingredients for their new fragrance in different comic situations. Fragments of the two ads are shown in Appendix 7.2.

3.1.2 Participants

The data gathering procedure took approximately five weeks. A total of 359 participants were asked to participate in the experiment. Unfortunately, not all surveys were completed by the participants. After deleting the incomplete responses and filtering the participants on ethnicity, 236 participants remained with a Dutch or Turkish ethnicity. 114 of the participants were Dutch and 122 were Turkish. Of the total participants, 135 were female and 101 were male. The amount of the total of religious people was 150, whereas 86 not religious participants filled in the survey.

3.1.4 Experimental Procedure

The online survey began with a short introduction and respondents got limited information about the purpose of the study, because this might bias the results. First, the participants were asked some demographic questions (gender, age, ethnicity, birth place and residence). After this, the respondents got a total of 7 questions about their religiosity and religions in case they were religious. Next, participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions and were shown an ad: the sex-appeal fragrance ad or the control ad. After this, participants faced with questions about the ads and were asked how sexy and funny the ad was. These questions are part of the manipulation check, that will be discussed in detail in the next sections. Their attitude towards fragrances were also asked. Then, participants got a question about emotions, in which they got asked how much they felt of a selection of emotions. The survey ended with two questions about attitude and purchase intention of the advertised fragrance.

3.2 Measurement of the variables

The variables measured during the experiment are shown in figure 4.

3.2.1 Dependent variables

One of the two dependent variables measured in the experiment was the purchase intention. The respondents were asked for their purchase intention for the advertised fragrance. This is measured with a 10-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (definitely would not buy the fragrance) to 10 (definitely would buy the fragrance).

The second dependent variable in the experiment was attitude towards the ad. The respondents were asked how much they liked the ad. This is also measured with a 10-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (dislike) to 10 (like).

3.2.2 Independent variables

The independent variable in the experiment is the ad type and the respondents were exposed to the sex-appeal fragrance ad or the control ad.

3.2.3 Moderators

The moderator variables measured in the experiment were gender, culture and religiosity. Gender was measured on a nominal scale with categories of male and female. Culture was measured on a nominal scale with categories of Dutch and Turkish and religiosity was also measured on a nominal scale with categories of religious and not religious (one of the measures from the survey is chosen). This is a widely used measure in The Netherlands and Belgium (Jaak Billiet, 2002) and is a better measure compared to the other measures. For example, if we measure religiosity on a 10-point Likert scale, it is often difficult for respondents to choose a level and to draw conclusions. Also, the questions about praying and attending to religious services are difficult to measure, because this varies by period for each respondent and the respondents often don't remember the answer to these questions.

3.2.4 Mediators

The mediators consisted of 10 different positive and negative emotions, which are shown in table 4 (joyous, excited, passionate, humorous, happy, angry, shame, disgusted,

irritated and concerned). The respondents were asked how much they felt of each of these emotions after exposure to the ad. The emotions are all measured with a 10-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (felt the emotion not at all) to 10 (felt the emotion very strongly).

3.2.5 Control variables

The variables Age and Attitude towards fragrances were included as control variables. The control variable Age was measured on a dichotomous scale with numbers. The control variable Attitude towards fragrances was measured with a 10-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (I definitely dislike fragrances) to 10 (I adore fragrances).

Table 1: Variables

Variable	Type of variable	Measurement scale	Levels
Ad type	Independent variable	Nominal	Category labels of sex-appeal ad and control ad
Gender	Moderator	Nominal	Category labels of male and female
Culture	Moderator	Nominal	Category labels of Dutch and Turkish
Religiosity	Moderator	Nominal	Category labels of religious and not religious
Emotions			
Joyous	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*
Excited	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*
Passionate	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*
Humorous	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*
Happy	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*
Angry	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*
Shame	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*

Disgusted	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*
Irritated	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*
Concerned	Mediator	Ordinal	10-point scale*
Attitude towards ad	Dependent variable	Ordinal	10-point scale**
Purchase intention for advertised fragrance	Dependent variable	Ordinal	10-point scale***
Age	Control variable	Continuous	Numerical
	Control variable	Ordinal	10-point scale****
Attitude towards fragrances			

Notes: *(1 = Felt the emotion not at all, 10 = Felt the emotion very strongly)

** (1 = Disliked the ad, 10 = Liked the ad)

*** (1 = Definitely would not buy the fragrance, 10 = Definitely would buy the fragrance)

**** (1 = I absolutely dislike fragrances, 10 = I adore fragrances)

3.3 Manipulation check

To check whether the treatment condition (exposure to sexual advertising) had the intended effect, a manipulation check was conducted. The respondents indeed found the treatment condition sexier than the control condition ($M = 5.34$ vs $M = 2.63$, $F(1, 235) = 90.802$, $p = 0.000$).

4. Results

4.1 Study 1: Moderation analysis

To test the hypotheses 1, 2 and 3, a 2x2x2x2 factorial MANCOVA is conducted. The results of the relevant interaction effects are shown in table 1.

Table 1: Interaction effects

	Purchase intention		Attitude towards ad	
	F (1, 218)	P-value	F (1, 218)	P-value
Ad Type x Gender	5.139	0.024	3.053	0.082
Ad Type x Culture	1.429	0.233	13.912	0.000
Ad Type x Gender x Culture	4.669	0.032	1.680	0.196
Ad Type x Religiosity	2.229	0.137	7.553	0.006

Hypothesis 1a predicted that men compared to women, will have a higher purchase intention for sexual appeal ads and hypothesis 1b predicted that men, compared to women, will have more positive attitudes towards the sex-appeal ad.

The results are summarized in Table 1. The results indicate that there was a significant interaction between ad type and gender on purchase intention ($F(1, 218) = 5.139, p = 0.024$). The interaction between ad type and gender on attitudes towards ad was marginally significant ($F(1, 218) = 3.053, p = 0.082$). The results of the simple main effects analysis (Table 2) indicated that female had a higher purchase intention compared to male ($M = 3.596$ vs. $M = 3.388$), which is contradictory with the direction of hypothesis 1a. However, this difference is not significant ($F(1, 218) = 0.113, p = 0.737$). On the other hand, male had more positive attitudes toward the sex-appeal ad, compared to women ($M = 4.556$ vs. $M = 3.924$) as predicted by hypothesis 1b, but is also not significant ($F(1, 218) = 1.222, p = 0.270$). Hence, there were no significant gender differences in both purchase intention and attitude towards the sexual appeal ad and both hypotheses 1a and 1b are not supported.

Surprisingly, men had a lower mean for both purchase intention and attitude towards the advertising with sexual appeal (3.388 and 4.556), compared to the ad with humorous appeal (4.282 and 5.086), while for women, this effect was in the opposite direction as expected. They had higher means for the sex-appeal advertising, compared to the humorous ad.

Table 2: Simple main effects for gender

	Male		Female		F (1, 218)	P-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
<i>Fragrance advertising with sexual appeal</i>						
Purchase intention	3.388	0.438	3.596	0.435	0.133	0.737
Attitude toward the ad	4.556	0.405	3.924	0.403	1.222	0.270
<i>Fragrance advertising with humorous appeal</i>						
Purchase intention	4.282	0.384	2.630	0.380	9.111	0.003
Attitude toward the ad	5.086	0.356	3.127	0.352	14.943	0.000

Hypothesis 2a predicted that Dutch people will have a higher purchase intention for the sex-appeal advertisement compared to Turkish people and hypothesis 2b predicted that Dutch people will have more positive attitudes towards the sex-appeal advertisement. The results of the interaction effect are shown in table 3. There was not a significant interaction between ad type and culture on purchase intention ($F(1,218) = 1.429, p = 0.233$), while the interaction between ad type and culture on attitude towards the ad was significant ($F(1,218) = 13.913, p = 0.000$). Table 3 shows the simple main effects analysis. There is no significance difference in purchase intention between Dutch and Turkish people after exposure to the sex-appeal ad ($F(1,218) = 2.454, p = 0.119$). The means are also not in the same direction as predicted ($M = 3.009$ vs $M = 3.976$) and hypothesis 2a is thus not

supported. The difference in attitude towards the sex-appeal ad between Dutch and Turkish was significant ((F (1,218) = 9.115, p = 0.003). But H2b is also not supported, because Turkish people had more positive attitudes towards the ad, compared to Dutch people (M=5.103 vs M=3.377).

The results from table 3 also show that for Turkish people, the sex-appeal ad was more effective, compared to the humorous ad (higher purchase intention and attitude). On the contrary, for Dutch people, the humorous appeal was more effective compared to the ad with sexual appeal.

Table 3: Simple main effects for culture

	Dutch		Turkish		F (1, 218)	P-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
<i>Fragrance advertising with sexual appeal</i>						
Purchase intention	3.009	0.285	3.976	0.547	2.454	0.119
Attitude toward the ad	3.377	0.264	5.103	0.507	9.115	0.003
<i>Fragrance advertising with humorous appeal</i>						
Purchase intention	3.460	0.338	3.452	0.412	0.000	0.988
Attitude toward the ad	4.652	0.313	3.561	0.382	4.883	0.028

There was a marginally significant difference in purchase intention between Turkish and Dutch female (F (1, 218) = 3.150, p = 0.062). Turkish female had a higher purchase intention, compared to Dutch female, (M= 4.412 vs M = 2.779). There was also a significant difference in attitude towards the sex-appeal ad between Turkish and Dutch female (F (1,218) = 5.303, p= 0.022). Turkish female had a mean of 4.853, which is higher, compared to Dutch female (M= 2.994).

Table 4: Simple main effects for female and culture

	Dutch Female		Turkish Female		F (1, 218)	P-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
<i>Fragrance advertising with sexual appeal</i>						
Purchase intention	2.779	0.411	4.412	0.767	3.510	0.062
Attitude toward the ad	2.994	0.381	4.853	0.711	5.303	0.022
<i>Fragrance advertising with humorous appeal</i>						
Purchase intention	3.183	0.387	2.077	0.647	2.181	0.141
Attitude toward the ad	4.096	0.359	2.157	0.600	7.820	0.006

The direction of the purchase intentions of Dutch and Turkish males were also different. Turkish male had a higher purchase intention, compared to Dutch male (M= 3.539 vs M= 3.238) This difference between Dutch and Turkish male in purchase intention after exposure to the sexual advertising was not significant (F (1, 218) = 0.118, p=0.732). The difference in attitudes toward the ad was significant (F (1, 218) = 3.843, p=0.051). However, Turkish male had more positive attitudes, compared to Dutch male (M= 5.353 vs M= 3.759)

Table 5: Simple main effects for male and culture

	Dutch Male		Turkish Male		F (1, 218)	P-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
<i>Fragrance advertising with sexual appeal</i>						
Purchase intention	3.238	0.397	3.539	0.782	0.118	0.732
Attitude toward the ad	3.759	0.367	5.353	0.724	3.843	0.051

*Fragrance advertising
with humorous appeal*

Purchase intention	3.737	0.560	4.827	0.518	2.062	0.152
Attitude toward the ad	5.208	0.519	4.964	0.480	0.121	0.729

Hypothesis 3a predicted that religious people will have a lower purchase intention for the sex-appeal advertisement compared to not religious people and hypothesis 3b predicted that religious people will have a less positive attitudes towards the sex-appeal advertisement compared to not religious people. The results of the interaction effect between ad type and religiosity is shown in table 1. The interaction between ad type and religiosity on purchase intention is not significant ($F(1, 218) = 2.229, p = 0.137$), while the interaction between ad type and religiosity on attitude towards the ad is significant ($F(1, 218) = 7.553, p = 0.006$). Table 5 shows the simple main effect analysis. Purchase intention of religious people compared to not religious people was lower ($M = 3.090$ vs $M = 3.894$), but the difference was not significant ($F(1, 218) = 1.700, p = 0.194$). Attitude towards the ad of religious people was also less positive, compared to not religious people ($M = 3.179$ vs $M = 5.301$). This difference was significant ($F(1, 128) = 13.804, p = 0.000$). Hence, H3a is not supported, while H3b is supported.

The sex appeal ad led to a higher purchase intent and more positive attitudes for not religious people, compared to the humorous ad (as expected). However, for religious people the humorous ad had a higher effect, compared with the effect of the sexual ad (Table 6).

Table 6: Simple main effects for religiosity

	Religious		Not religious		F (1, 218)	P-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
<i>Fragrance advertising with sexual appeal</i>						
Purchase intention	3.090	0.268	3.894	0.555	1.700	0.194

Attitude toward the ad	3.179	0.248	5.301	0.514	13.804	0.000
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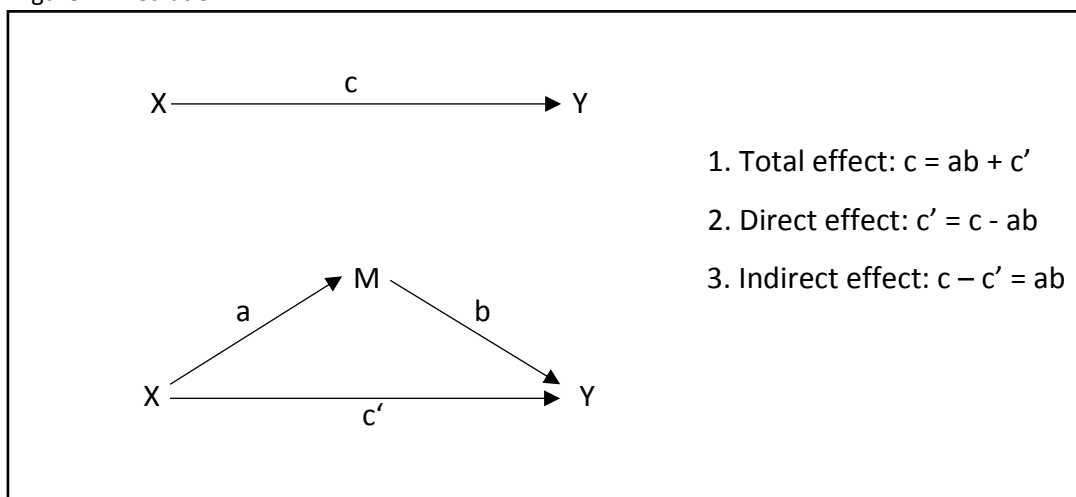
Fragrance advertising with humorous appeal

Purchase intention	3.664	0.319	3.247	0.429	0.606	0.437
Attitude toward the ad	4.086	0.295	4.127	0.397	0.007	0.935

5.2 Study 2: Mediation analysis

The aim of study 2 was to look to the mediating role of specific emotions in sexual advertising and to test H4. To test the mediating effect of the specific emotions on the relationship between advertisement type and attitude towards the ad, the causal-steps approach presented by Baron and Kenny (1986) is followed, which is shown in figure 4.

Figure 4: Mediation



The upper part of the figure represents the causal relationship between the dependent variable (X) and the independent variable (Y), which is called the total effect (path c). The lower part of the figure depicts the mediated model, in which the effect of X on Y is mediated by a mediator variable (M). Path a shows the relationship between the independent variable X and moderator M, whereas path b represents the relationship

between the moderator M and dependent variable Y. Path c' shows the effect of X on Y controlling for M.

Kenny (2018), Baron and Kenny (1986), Judd and Kenny (1981), and James and Brett (1984) discuss that the following steps should be met in order to support the mediation:

1 The independent variable is a significant predictor of the dependent variable (Path c)

2 The independent variable is a significant predictor of the mediator (Path a)

3 The mediator variable is a significant predictor of the dependent variable (Path b), using the independent variable and mediator as predictors of Y (Path c'). It is not adequate just to correlate the mediator with the dependent variable, because the correlation of the mediator with the dependent variable may be caused by the independent variable.

4 If the significant effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable disappears the findings support full mediation. If the independent variable X is still significant, the findings support partial mediation.

In order to test the mediating effect of emotions, a series of OLS regression analyses are performed, which will be discussed step-by-step in the next sections, as suggested by previous literature. The results of the OLS regression analyses are shown in table 7.

5.2.1 Step 1

The first step to test whether the specific emotions mediate the effect of advertising type on attitudes towards the ad, is to correlate the independent variable with the dependent variable. The necessary condition here is that the independent variable X (ad type) significantly predicts the dependent variable Y (attitudes towards the ad). Table 7 shows this relationship. The relationship between ad type and attitude towards ad is significant ($F(1, 235) = 7.625, p = 0.006$) and it can be confirmed that step 1 in our mediation analysis is met.

Table 7: OLS regression table

	X		M	
	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig
<i>Effect of X on Y</i>				
Ad Type on Attitude towards ad	0.758	0.006		
<i>Effect of X on M</i>				
Ad Type on Joyous	0.663	0.019		
Excited	-0.340	0.208		
Passionate	-0.296	0.335		
Humorous	1.489	0.000		
Happy	0.453	0.116		
Angry	-0.062	0.783		
Shame	-0.762	0.007		
Disgusted	-0.433	0.140		
Irritated	-0.290	0.386		
Concerned	-0.186	0.434		
<i>Effect of X and M on Y</i>				
Ad Type and Joyous	0.374	0.097	0.580	0.000
Excited	0.929	0.000	0.503	0.000
Passionate	0.890	0.000	0.446	0.000
Humorous	0.051	0.839	0.475	0.000
Happy	0.497	0.025	0.576	0.000
Angry	0.758	0.006	-0.014	0.859
Shame	0.707	0.012	-0.067	0.294
Disgusted	0.681	0.013	-0.178	0.012
Irritated	0.672	0.009	-0.297	0.000
Concerned	0.744	0.007	-0.080	0.290

5.2.2 The other steps for each specific emotion

The second and third step in the analysis is to consecutively test the effect of the independent variable on the mediator variables, and the effect of the independent variable and mediators on the dependent variable. Table 7 shows the results of these steps.

5.2.2.1 Joyous

The independent variable (ad type) had a significant effect on the feeling of the emotion joyous ($F(1, 235) = 5.588, p = 0.019$). Also, the mediator (joyous) had a significant impact on the dependent variable ($F(2, 234) = 68.974, p = 0.000$), using the ad type and mediator as predictor of the dependent variable. The direct effect of X on Y disappeared when the mediator was added to the model, which points to full mediation. Hypothesis 4a is supported.

5.2.2.2 Excited

The independent variable (ad type) had not a significant effect on the feeling of the emotion excited and the second condition was thus not met ($F(1, 235) = 1.591, p = 0.208$). According to Baron and Kenny's approach (1987), there is no ground for mediation if one of the four conditions isn't met. However, according to Haynes, there can be a significant mediation if just one of the two paths a and b is significant. According to him, the significant mediation effect is a multiplication of the a-path and b-path. Regardless of the insignificance of one of the two paths, there can be a significant mediation effect. Kenny (2018) also suggest that steps must be considered and tested in terms of the coefficients and not in terms of statistical significance, as suggested. Therefore, we continue with the next step and test the third condition. The mediator (excited) had a significant effect on the dependent variable (F

(2, 234) = 42.589, $p = 0.000$, using the ad type and mediator as predictor of the dependent variable. The direct effect of X on Y did not disappear, but remained significant, which indicates partial mediation. Hypothesis 4b is partly supported.

5.2.2.3 Passionate

The independent variable (ad type) had also not a significant effect on the feeling of the emotion 'passionate' ($F(1, 235) = 0.935, p = 0.335$), although we continued with the next step (Haynes). The next step was to predict the Y using the dependent variable (ad type) and mediator as predictors. The mediator had a significant effect on the dependent variable ($F(2, 234) = 43.401, p = 0.000$). The direct effect of X on Y remained significant, indicating that there is support for partial mediation. Hypothesis 4c is partly supported.

5.2.2.4 Humorous

The independent variable (ad type) had a significant effect on the feeling of the emotion 'humorous' ($F(1, 235) = 26.454, p = 0.000$). Also, the relationship between the mediator and independent variable was significant ($F(2, 234) = 44.194, p = 0.000$), when X and M were used as predictors of Y. After step 2 and 3 were met, we continued with step 4. The direct effect of X on Y disappeared, when controlled for M, which confirmed that all the 4 conditions were met that pointed to full mediation. Hypothesis 4d is supported.

5.2.2.5 Happy

The effect of the independent variable (ad-type) on the feeling of the emotion 'happy' had a trend to significance and therefore, we continued with the analysis ($F(1, 235) = 2.489, p = 0.116$). The mediator (happy) had a significant impact on the dependent variable ($F(2, 234) = 72.862, p = 0.000$), using the ad type and mediator as predictor of the dependent variable. Once the first 3 conditions were met, we continued with condition 4. The direct effect of X on Y remained significant when the mediator was added to the model, but the effect reduced in size, pointing to partial mediation. Also, Hypothesis 4e is partly supported.

5.2.2.6 Angry

The effect of the independent variable (ad-type) on the feeling of the emotion 'angry' was not significant ($F(1, 235) = 0.076, p = 0.783$), as well as the effect of the mediator on the dependent variable ($F(2, 234) = 3.813, p = 0.859$), using the ad type and mediator as predictors. Mediation was thus not supported and hypothesis 4f is not supported.

5.2.2.7 Shame

The effect of the independent variable (ad type) on the feeling of the emotion 'shame' was significant ($F(1, 235) = 7.459, p = 0.007$). The effect of the mediator on the independent variable was not significant ($F(2, 234) = 4.368, p = 0.294$), but regardless of this, we continued with the analysis. According to Hayes, there could still be a significant mediation. The direct effect of X on Y remained significant, but decreased in size, which points to partial mediation. Hypothesis 4g is thus partly supported.

5.2.2.8 Disgusted

The effect of the independent variable (ad type) on the feeling of the emotion 'disgusted' was not significant ($F(1, 235) = 2.194, p = 0.14$), but we continued with the third condition. The effect of the mediator variable on the dependent variable was significant ($F(2, 234) = 8.295, p = 0.003$). The direct effect of X on Y, using X and M as predictors of Y, remained also significant, indicating partial mediation. Hypothesis 4h is partly supported.

5.2.2.9 Irritated

The effect of the independent variable (ad type) on the feeling of the emotion 'irritated' was not significant ($F(1, 235) = 0.754, p = 0.386$), but again we continued with the third step, because there could still be a significant mediation. The effect of the mediator on the independent variable was significant ($F(2, 234) = 21.934, p = 0.000$), using the X and M as predictors of Y. After this, we continued with step 4. The direct effect of X on Y was significant when the mediator was added to the model, indicating partial mediation. Hypothesis 4i is also partly supported

5.2.2.10 Concerned

The effect of the independent variable (ad type) on the feeling of the emotion 'concerned' was not significant ($F(1, 235) = 0.315, p = 0.434$). Also, the effect of the mediator on the dependent variable ($F(2, 234) = 4.377, p = 0.290$, using the X and M as predictors of the dependent variable, was not significant. Conditions 2 and 3 were not met, indicating that there is no support for mediation. Hypothesis 4j is not supported.

5 Conclusion

In this chapter, the research questions will be discussed, based on the results of the empirical analysis and the tested hypotheses. After this, implications and the limitations of this research will be discussed. Finally, we will end with practical recommendations and recommendations for future research.

5.1 General Discussion

In this paper, gender differences as well as cultural and religious differences in sexual advertising response are analysed. Additionally, there was also a focus on the mediating role of 10 different emotions on the relationship between ad type and advertising response. To that end, existing theory and previous literature have been used to formulate hypotheses and creating expectations. The hypotheses are tested using a factorial MANCOVA and a set of OLS linear regression analyses.

Contradictory to our expectation, gender had not an effect on sexual advertising response. The expectation was that male, compared to female, would have a higher purchase intention and more positive attitudes towards the ad. The results showed us that male had more positive attitudes towards the ad, but lower purchase intention. However, the differences in purchase intention and attitude between male and female were not significant. This is not in line with the expectation and does not support previous findings. The softening of the ad with the inclusion of a couple might explain the indifferences between men and women. Also, the level of sexual appeal plays a role as suggested by previous literature (Liu, Li and Cheng 2006). The experimental condition showed a soft sex-appeal to respondents and a higher level sexual exposure might lead to higher gender differences.

As expected, culture had indeed an effect on sexual advertising response. There was a difference between Dutch and Turkish consumers in attitude towards the ad, but no difference in purchase intention. Turkish consumers had more positive attitudes towards the sexual advertising, compared to Dutch consumers, which is in contrast with our expectation.

Dutch and Turkish female differed both in purchase intention and attitude towards the ad. But these differences were again in contrast to our expectations. Turkish female had a higher purchase intention and more positive attitudes towards the ad. Dutch and Turkish male did not differ in purchase intention, but differed only in attitude towards the ad. Remarkable was again that it was contradictory to the expectation. Turkish male had more positive attitudes towards the ad, compared to Dutch male. The direction of the findings did thus not support previous findings (Taylor, Wilson and Miracle, 1994; Liu, Cheng and Li, 2009; Chan, Li, Diehl and Terlutter, 2007). Cultural assimilation of the Turks in the Netherlands maybe the cause for this. The relative higher purchase intention and attitudes towards ad of Turks may also be caused by the compensation effect, such that Dutch people that perceive sexual advertising as causal, might be less sensitive to it, compared to Turkish people.

Religion also influenced sexual advertising response. The difference in purchase intention between religious and non-religious people was not significant, but they differed in attitudes towards the ad. As expected, religious people had less positive attitudes towards the ad, compared to not religious people. The findings of this research are in line with previous research, that suggest religious people's relatively dislike of sexual advertising, compared to not religious people (De Run, Butt, Fam and Jong, 2010; Fam, Waller and Erdogan, 2004; Hirschman, 1983; Putrevu and Swimberghek, 2013).

Another important finding is that the effect of sexual advertising on purchase intention and attitude are different. The effect of sexual advertising on attitude towards the ad was higher than the effect on purchase intention. Also, sexual advertising content was not as effective as humorous content, in contrast to previous findings (Reichert, Heckler and Jackson, 2001).

Finally, the findings of the mediation analysis are in line with previous research (Aaker, Stayman and Hagerty, 1986; Batra and Ray, 1986; Edell and Burke, 1987; Holbrook and Batra, 1987). Joyous and humorous emotions fully mediated the relationship between ad type and attitude towards the ad. The emotions excited, passionate, happy, shame, disgusted and irritated partially mediated the relationship between ad type and attitude towards ad, while the emotions angry and concerned did not mediate the relationship between ad type and attitude towards the ad.

5.2 Research and Practical Implications

With the results and findings of this research, we emphasize the importance of religiosity in sexual advertising response, because the strongest difference in the moderation analysis was that between religious and non-religious consumers. This is in accordance with the findings of previous literature, that investigated the role of religiosity in marketing (De Run, Butt, Fam and Jong, 2010; Fam, Waller and Erdogan, 2004; Hirschman, 1983; Putrevu and Swimberghek, 2013). Previous literature suggested that differences in religiosity lead to differences in response to controversial marketing stimuli. The findings of this research regarding religiosity are thus in line with previous research (Fam, Waller and Erdogan, 2004; Putrevu and Swimberghek, 2013). For marketers and companies, the findings suggest that religiosity should be taken into consideration in company strategies, such as market segmentation. Marketers need to make use of sexual ad content when their target consist of not religious people. When their target audience is religious, we suggest other advertising appeals. Furthermore, we also suggest marketers to take culture into consideration when segmenting the market and reaching the target audience. Although not as strong as religiosity, significant cultural differences between Dutch and Turkish consumers in sexual advertising response have been found in this research. The differences in Dutch and Turkish consumers are in line with previous research as described in the theoretical framework, but also remarkable, because with the use of Hofstede's cultural dimension, the expectation was that the differences between the two cultures in response to sexual advertising had to be larger. The two cultures differed in all the dimensions in Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory and these differences were relative high. The effect of cultural assimilation and the compensation effect needs to be additionally clarified, as explained in the previous section. Unexpectedly, according to the results, there were no significant gender differences in sexual advertising response, contradictory with previous literature. A reason for this could be the softening of the sexual advertisements by including the opposite sex, as supposed by some researchers. Therefore, we recommend marketers to think deeply and properly investigate the role of gender in sexual advertising. According to this research, gender differences should only be taken into consideration in a cross-cultural context, because significant differences between Dutch and Turkish females and males have been found.

The findings of this research provide marketers also that sexual advertising is more effective in creating attitudes, compared to lead to a higher purchase intent.

Finally, previous literature found evidence that emotions play a role in advertising, but only focused on emotional dimensions (Batra and Ray, 1986; Edell and Burke, 1987; Holbrook and Batra, 1987). This research found 8 specific emotions that play an important role in sexual advertising and suggests marketers to evoke positive emotions as much as possible, by targeting the right audience with the use of the results of the moderation analysis.

5.3 Limitations

Although this research provides interested people useful results and insights regarding sexual advertising, it has also several limitations that should be discussed. First of all, one of the goals of this research is to study the effects of moderators in sexual advertising and deals with demographics such as gender, ethnicity and religiosity. Considering this and the number of the total participants, some of the results of this research could be stronger or different if more people participated in the survey. Also, the largest part of Turkish respondents was Turks from the Netherlands, which are different from Turks in Turkey. This might explain the reverse effect in the results, which are contradictory with the expectations. Secondly, the survey sample did not represent the entire population. The survey is distributed by using tools such as Facebook and WhatsApp, and did not reach older people who don't use such tools. Another limitation is that this research focused on the role of just 10 emotions. Human beings are complex and certainly, a lot of other emotions could play a role in sexual advertising response.

Finally, the measurement scales of some of the variables could be a limitation. For example, it is very difficult to measure the degree of religiosity of people and a lot of different scales exist. It could be possible that using other scales, the results of this research could differ. The same could occur for variables such as purchase intention and attitudes toward the ad, which are also difficult to measure.

5.4 Recommendations for future research

This research investigated the moderating role of gender, culture and religiosity in sexual advertising. There was also a focus on cross-cultural gender differences and this research investigated also the role of the moderators gender and culture together. A recommendation for future research is to focus also on the other two-way interactions, such as gender and religiosity, or culture and religiosity, as there is still a gap in this field in sexual advertising. Another recommendation is to study which role moderators, such as culture and gender, play in a relationship which is mediated by emotions (moderated mediation analysis). This would go a step further and provide insights into more effective sexual advertising.

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7 Appendix

7.1 Online survey

Start of Block: Block 1

D1 Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey for my master thesis.

In this survey, I will ask you some questions and show you an advertisement. It should only take a few minutes to complete. I hope this survey will be interesting for you to fill in.

Be assured that all answers you provide will be kept in the strictest confidentiality. Please click 'Next' to begin.

End of Block: Block 1

Start of Block: Block 2

Q1 What is your gender?

Female (1)

Male (2)



Q2 What is your age? Please write your answer in the box below, indicating your current age in years.

Q3 What is your ethnicity? Please, mind that ethnicity is about where your ancestors come from, not which passport you have.

- Dutch (1)
- Turkish (2)
- Other (please, specify) (7) _____

End of Block: Block 2

Start of Block: Block 3

Q4 Where were you born?

- The Netherlands (1)
 - Turkey (7)
 - Other (please specify) (9) _____
-

Q5 In which country do you currently live?

- The Netherlands (1)
 - Turkey (2)
 - Other (please specify) (7) _____
-

Q6 Do you consider yourself as belonging to a particular religion or religious denomination?

Yes (1)

No (2)

End of Block: Block 3

Start of Block: Block 4

Display This Question:

If Do you consider yourself as belonging to a particular religion or religious denomination? = Yes

Q7 To which religion do you belong? Please answer the question by selecting the right option.

Christian Catholic (1)

Christian Protestant (2)

Muslim/Islam (3)

Jew (4)

Hindu (5)

Buddhist (6)

Other (please specify) (7) _____

Display This Question:

If Do you consider yourself as belonging to a particular religion or religious denomination? = No

Q8 Have you ever considered yourself as belonging to any particular religion or denomination?
Please answer the question by selecting the right option.

Yes (1)

No (2)


Display This Question:

If Have you ever considered yourself as belonging to any particular religion or denomination? Please... =
Yes

Q9 Which one? Please answer the question by selecting the right option.

- Christian Carholic (1)
 - Christian Protestant (2)
 - Muslim/Islam (3)
 - Jew (4)
 - Hindu (5)
 - Buddhist (6)
 - Other (please specify) (7) _____
-

Q10 Using the scale below, please indicate how religious would you say you are? Please use the slider to choose the option which best reflects your opinion.

	Not religious at all	Very religious							
	1	2	3	4	5	7	8	9	10
Intensity ()									

Q11 Apart from special occasions such as weddings, baptisms, funerals and circumcisions, about how often do you attend religious services these days? Please answer the question by selecting the right option.

- Every day (1)
 - More than once a week (2)
 - Once a week (3)
 - At least once a month (4)
 - Only on special holy days (5)
 - Less Often (6)
 - Never (7)
-

Q12 About how often do you pray outside of religious services? Please answer the question by selecting the right option.

- Every day (1)
- More than once a week (2)
- Once a week (3)
- At least once a month (4)
- Only on special holy days (5)
- Less Often (6)
- Never (7)

End of Block: Block 4

Start of Block: Ad1

D2 You will now be asked to watch a short advertisement (about 1 minute long). Please, watch in carefully and till the end, we will ask you some questions about it afterwards.

D2
Advertisement:

End of Block: Ad1

Start of Block: Ad2

D3 You will now be asked to watch a short advertisement (about 1 minute long). Please, watch in carefully and till the end, we will ask you some questions about it afterwards.

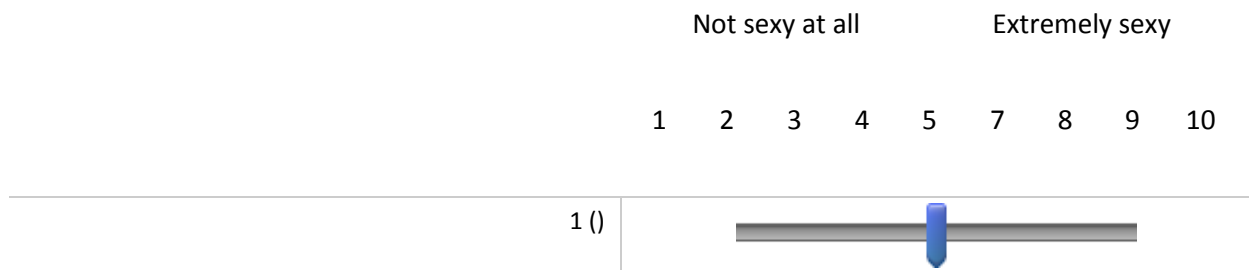
D3 Advertisement:

End of Block: Ad2

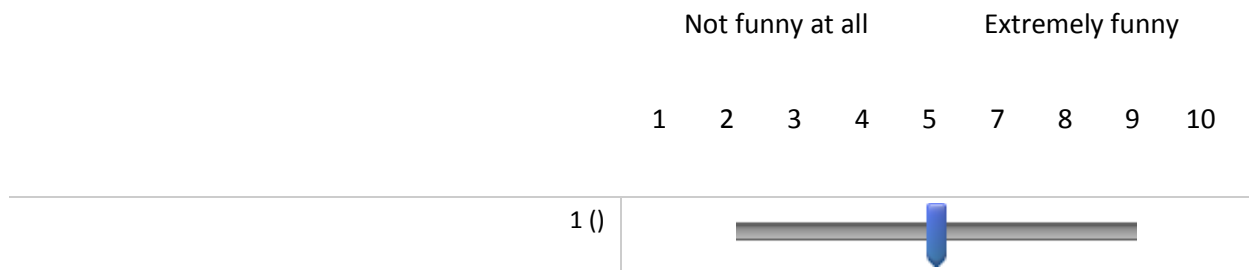
Start of Block: Block 6

D4 The following question refer to the advertisement you have just watched.

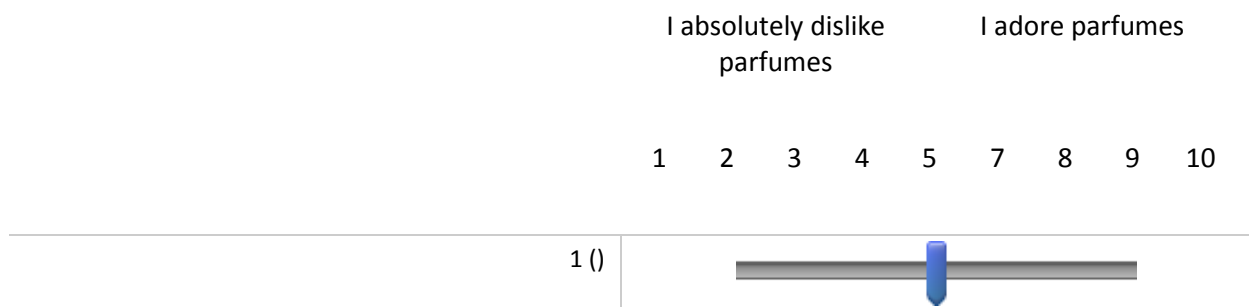
Q13 Measured on a 10-point scale, please indicate how sexy the ad was.



Q14 Measured on a 10-point scale, please indicate how funny the ad was.



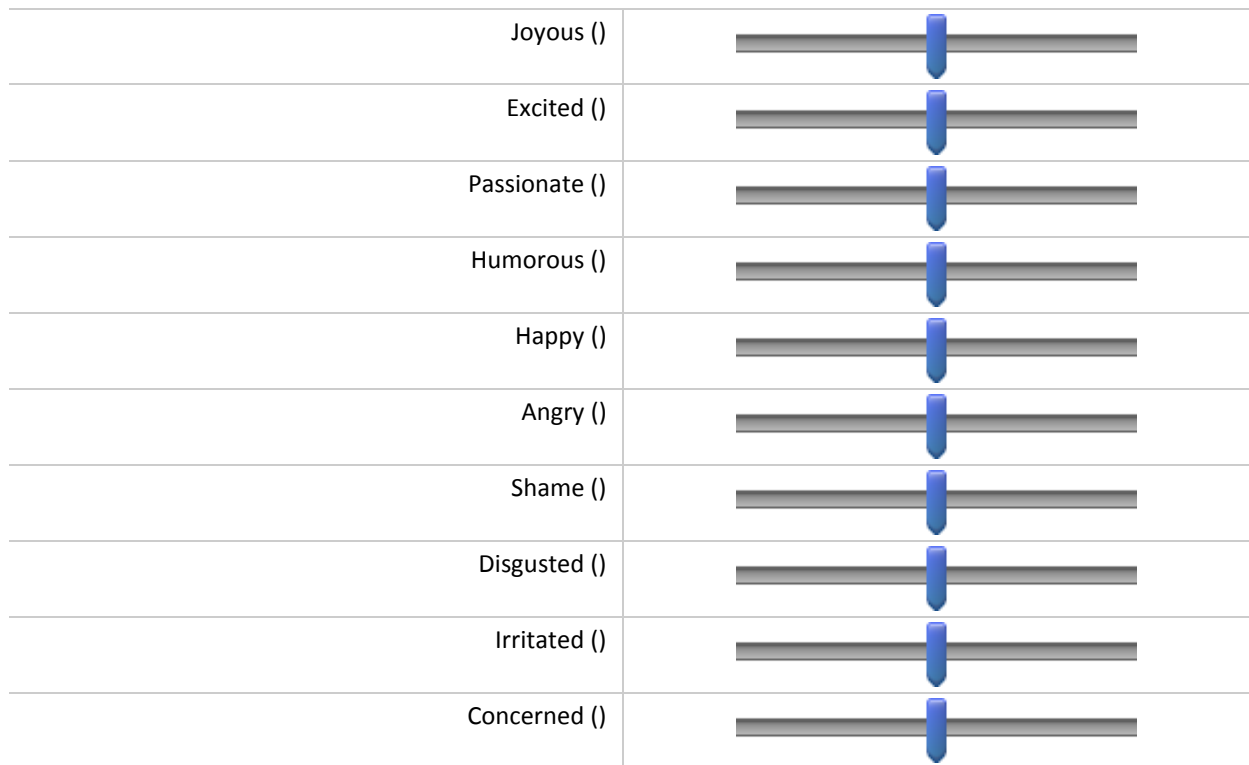
Q15 Measured on a 10-point scale, please indicate how much you like perfumes in general.



Q16 Please indicate how much you felt each of these emotions while you were watching this commercial. Please use the slide to choose the option which best reflects your opinion.

Not at all Very strongly

1 2 3 4 5 7 8 9 10



End of Block: Block 6

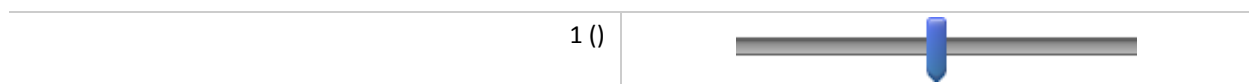
Start of Block: Block 7

Q17 Measured on a 10-point scale, how much did you like the ad? Please use the slide to choose the option which best reflects your opinion.

Dislike

Like

1 2 3 4 5 7 8 9 10



Q18 Measured on a 10-point scale, how likely are you to purchase this fragrance? Please use the slide to choose the option which best reflects your opinion.

Definitely would not buy it Would definitely buy it

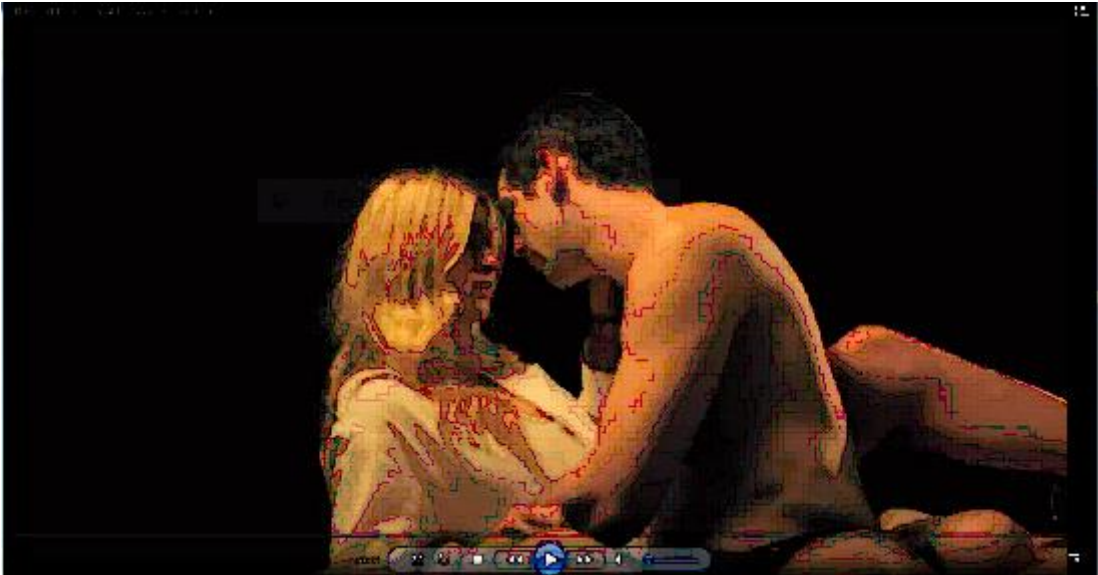
1 2 3 4 5 7 8 9 10

1 ()	
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End of Block: Block 7

7.2 Control and treatment ad

Sexy ad fragment:



Humorous ad fragment:



7.3 Manipulation check tables

Descriptives

Measured on a 10-point scale, please indicate how sexy the ad was. - 1

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Sexy	126	5.3413	2.36360	.21057	4.9245	5.7580	1.00	10.00
Humor	111	2.6306	1.96297	.18632	2.2614	2.9999	1.00	10.00
Total	237	4.0717	2.56755	.16678	3.7432	4.4003	1.00	10.00

ANOVA

Measured on a 10-point scale, please indicate how sexy the ad was. - 1

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	433.599	1	433.599	90.802	.000
Within Groups	1122.181	235	4.775		
Total	1555.781	236			

7.3 Factorial MANCOVA tables

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
AdType	1	Sexy	125
	2	Humor	111
Gender	1	Female	135
	2	Male	101
Religious	1	Yes	150
	2	No	86
Ethnicity	1	Dutch	114
	2	Turkish	122

Descriptive Statistics

	Ad Type	Gender	Religious	Ethnicity	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Female	Yes	Dutch	2.4444	1.42400	9	
				Turkish	2.7838	1.79714	37	
				Total	2.7174	1.72128	46	
			No	Dutch	3.5600	2.21886	25	
				Turkish	7.0000	.00000	2	
				Total	3.8148	2.32109	27	
			Total	Dutch	3.2647	2.07888	34	
		Turkish		3.0000	1.98680	39		
		Total		3.1233	2.02035	73		
		Male	Yes	Dutch	3.5000	1.99036	14	
				Turkish	3.7819	2.21144	21	
				Total	3.6571	2.09962	35	
			No	Dutch	3.6000	1.91982	15	
				Turkish	7.0000	2.82843	2	
				Total	4.0000	2.23607	17	
			Total	Dutch	3.5517	1.91956	29	
		Turkish		4.0435	2.38324	23		
		Total		3.7892	2.12930	52		
		Total	Yes	Dutch	3.0870	1.83187	23	
				Turkish	3.1379	1.99515	58	
				Total	3.1235	1.93896	81	
	No		Dutch	3.5750	2.08643	40		
			Turkish	7.0000	1.63299	4		
			Total	3.8864	2.26414	44		
	Total		Dutch	3.3968	1.99628	63		
		Turkish	3.3871	2.18306	62			
	Total	Dutch	3.3920	2.08255	125			
		Turkish	3.7600	1.48477	12			
	Humor	Female	Yes	Dutch	3.5000	2.33666	26	
				Turkish	3.5789	2.08789	38	
				Total	3.5789	2.08789	38	
			No	Dutch	4.9048	1.97243	21	
				Turkish	1.3333	.57735	3	
				Total	4.4683	2.20630	24	
			Total	Dutch	4.4848	1.87285	33	
				Turkish	3.2759	2.31295	29	
				Total	3.9194	2.16998	62	
			Male	Yes	Dutch	5.4000	1.81659	5
					Turkish	4.1154	2.04601	26
					Total	4.3228	2.03940	31
				No	Dutch	4.5385	2.25889	13
					Turkish	5.4000	2.07384	5
Total		4.7778			2.18432	18		
Total		Dutch		4.7778	2.12978	18		
		Turkish	4.3228	2.07183	31			
		Total	4.4898	2.08289	49			
Total		Yes	Dutch	4.2353	1.71499	17		
			Turkish	3.8077	2.19660	52		
			Total	3.9130	2.08453	69		
	No	Dutch	4.7647	2.06058	34			
		Turkish	3.8750	2.64237	8			
		Total	4.5952	2.17592	42			
	Total	Dutch	4.5882	1.95117	51			
Turkish		3.8167	2.23600	60				
Total	Dutch	4.1712	2.13573	111				

	Total	Female	Yes	Dutch	3.1905	1.58905	21	
				Turkish	3.0794	2.05019	63	
				Total	3.1071	1.93271	84	
			No	Dutch	4.1739	2.19398	48	
				Turkish	3.6000	3.13050	5	
				Total	4.1178	2.26845	51	
		Total	Dutch	3.8857	2.05895	67		
			Turkish	3.1178	2.11977	68		
			Total	3.4889	2.11557	135		
		Male	Yes	Dutch	4.0000	2.08167	19	
				Turkish	3.9574	2.10545	47	
				Total	3.9897	2.08267	66	
			No	Dutch	4.0357	2.09907	28	
				Turkish	5.8571	2.19306	7	
				Total	4.4000	2.21227	35	
			Total	Dutch	4.0213	2.06933	47	
				Turkish	4.2037	2.19244	54	
				Total	4.1188	2.12738	101	
			Total	Yes	Dutch	3.5750	1.85206	40
					Turkish	3.4545	2.10999	110
Total	3.4867				2.03900	150		
No	Dutch	4.1216		2.14510	74			
	Turkish	4.9167		2.74552	12			
	Total	4.2328		2.23699	86			
Total	Dutch	3.9298	2.05551	114				
	Turkish	3.5984	2.21084	122				
	Total	3.7585	2.13903	236				
Purchase intent	Sexy	Female	Yes	Dutch	2.1111	1.53659	9	
				Turkish	2.9189	2.00525	37	
				Total	2.7809	1.93431	46	
			No	Dutch	3.4800	2.46847	25	
				Turkish	6.0000	1.41421	2	
				Total	3.6667	2.48099	27	
		Total	Dutch	3.1178	2.31941	34		
			Turkish	3.0769	2.08231	39		
			Total	3.0959	2.18050	73		
		Male	Yes	Dutch	3.3571	1.86495	14	
				Turkish	3.6667	2.33095	21	
				Total	3.5429	2.13297	35	
			No	Dutch	2.5333	2.23180	15	
				Turkish	3.5000	3.53553	2	
				Total	2.6471	2.28968	17	
		Total	Dutch	2.9310	2.06901	29		
			Turkish	3.6522	2.34731	23		
			Total	3.2500	2.20405	52		
		Total	Yes	Dutch	2.8698	1.81670	23	
				Turkish	3.1897	2.13949	58	
				Total	3.0988	2.04698	81	
			No	Dutch	3.1250	2.36858	40	
				Turkish	4.7500	2.62996	4	
				Total	3.2727	2.43390	44	
Total	Dutch	3.0317	2.19213	63				
	Turkish	3.2903	2.18330	62				
	Total	3.1600	2.18278	125				
Humor	Female	Yes	Dutch	4.0000	2.41209	12		
			Turkish	3.5385	2.26682	26		
			Total	3.6842	2.29108	38		
			No	Dutch	3.0000	2.23607	21	
				Turkish	1.3333	.57735	3	
				Total	2.7917	2.16653	24	
		Total	Dutch	3.3838	2.31595	33		
			Turkish	3.3103	2.25362	29		
			Total	3.3387	2.26841	62		
		Male	Yes	Dutch	3.8000	2.58844	5	
				Turkish	3.8846	2.55072	26	
				Total	3.8710	2.51319	31	
			No	Dutch	3.0000	1.58114	13	
				Turkish	5.2000	2.68328	5	
				Total	3.6111	2.11824	18	

		Total	Dutch	3.2222	1.88470	18
			Turkish	4.0668	2.57365	31
			Total	3.7755	2.35842	49
	Total	Yes	Dutch	3.9412	2.38408	17
			Turkish	3.7115	2.39558	52
			Total	3.7681	2.37725	69
		No	Dutch	3.0000	1.98479	34
			Turkish	3.7500	2.88608	8
			Total	3.1429	2.15917	42
		Total	Dutch	3.3137	2.14933	51
			Turkish	3.7187	2.43625	60
			Total	3.5315	2.30738	111
Total	Female	Yes	Dutch	3.1905	2.24987	21
			Turkish	3.1748	2.12162	63
			Total	3.1788	2.14080	84
		No	Dutch	3.2609	2.35169	48
			Turkish	3.2000	2.88328	5
			Total	3.2549	2.35883	51
		Total	Dutch	3.2388	2.30342	67
			Turkish	3.1785	2.14388	68
			Total	3.2074	2.21628	135
	Male	Yes	Dutch	3.4737	2.01021	19
			Turkish	3.7872	2.43110	47
			Total	3.8970	2.30698	66
		No	Dutch	2.7500	1.93649	28
			Turkish	4.7143	2.75162	7
			Total	3.1429	2.22477	35
		Total	Dutch	3.0428	1.97787	47
			Turkish	3.9074	2.48690	54
			Total	3.5050	2.28308	101
	Total	Yes	Dutch	3.3250	2.11693	40
			Turkish	3.4364	2.26876	110
			Total	3.4067	2.22281	150
		No	Dutch	3.0878	2.20417	74
			Turkish	4.0833	2.71221	12
			Total	3.2093	2.29124	86
		Total	Dutch	3.1579	2.16807	114
			Turkish	3.5000	2.31149	122
			Total	3.3347	2.24514	238

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of		Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
		Squares	df				
Corrected Model	Attitude towards ad	241.700 ^a	17	14.218	3.718	.000	.225
	Purchase intent	213.004 ^b	17	12.530	2.811	.000	.180
Intercept	Attitude towards ad	42.542	1	42.542	11.126	.001	.049
	Purchase intent	3.114	1	3.114	.699	.404	.003
Age	Attitude towards ad	1.753	1	1.753	.458	.499	.002
	Purchase intent	4.868	1	4.868	1.092	.297	.005
Attitude towards fragrances	Attitude towards ad	61.414	1	61.414	16.062	.000	.069
	Purchase intent	117.070	1	117.070	26.269	.000	.108
Ad Type	Attitude towards ad	.478	1	.478	.125	.724	.001
	Purchase intent	.035	1	.035	.008	.929	.000
Gender	Attitude towards ad	43.508	1	43.508	11.379	.001	.050
	Purchase intent	13.517	1	13.517	3.033	.083	.014
Religious	Attitude towards ad	31.335	1	31.335	8.195	.005	.036
	Purchase intent	1.004	1	1.004	.225	.635	.001
Ethnicity	Attitude towards ad	2.699	1	2.699	.706	.402	.003
	Purchase intent	6.158	1	6.158	1.382	.241	.006
Ad Type * Gender	Attitude towards ad	11.674	1	11.674	3.053	.082	.014
	Purchase intent	22.902	1	22.902	5.139	.024	.023
Ad Type * Religious	Attitude towards ad	28.879	1	28.879	7.553	.006	.033
	Purchase intent	9.934	1	9.934	2.229	.137	.010
Ad Type * Culture	Attitude towards ad	53.196	1	53.196	13.913	.000	.060
	Purchase intent	6.368	1	6.368	1.429	.233	.007
Gender * Religious	Attitude towards ad	.071	1	.071	.019	.891	.000
	Purchase intent	.988	1	.988	.222	.638	.001
Gender * Culture	Attitude towards ad	3.403	1	3.403	.890	.347	.004
	Purchase intent	1.242	1	1.242	.279	.598	.001
Culture * Religious	Attitude towards ad	8.159	1	8.159	2.134	.146	.010
	Purchase intent	2.421	1	2.421	.543	.462	.002
Ad Type * Gender * Culture	Attitude towards ad	9.994	1	9.994	2.614	.107	.012
	Purchase intent	52.206	1	52.206	11.714	.001	.051
Ad Type * Gender * Religious	Attitude towards ad	6.423	1	6.423	1.680	.196	.008
	Purchase intent	20.807	1	20.807	4.669	.032	.021
Ad Type * Culture * Religious	Attitude towards ad	27.698	1	27.698	7.244	.008	.032
	Purchase intent	2.491	1	2.491	.559	.456	.003
Gender * Culture * Religious	Attitude towards ad	11.817	1	11.817	3.091	.080	.014
	Purchase intent	1.629	1	1.629	.365	.546	.002
Ad Type * Gender * Religious * Culture	Attitude towards ad	17.880	1	17.880	4.676	.032	.021
	Purchase intent	14.691	1	14.691	3.296	.071	.015
Error	Attitude towards ad	833.533	218	3.824			
	Purchase intent	971.552	218	4.457			
Total	Attitude towards ad	4409.000	236				
	Purchase intent	3809.000	236				
Corrected Total	Attitude towards ad	1075.233	235				
	Purchase intent	1184.555	235				

a. R Squared = .225 (Adjusted R Squared = .164)

b. R Squared = .180 (Adjusted R Squared = .116)

Estimated Marginal Means

1. Grand Mean

Dependent Variable	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Attitude towards ad	4.173 ^a	.189	3.801	4.545
Purchase intent	3.474 ^a	.204	3.072	3.875

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Age. = 29.4110, Attitude towards fragrances. = 7.3008.

2. Ad Type * Gender

Estimates

Dependent Variable	Ad Type	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Female	3.924 ^a	.403	3.130	4.717
		Male	4.556 ^a	.405	3.757	5.355
	Humorous	Female	3.127 ^a	.352	2.433	3.820
		Male	5.086 ^a	.356	4.385	5.787
Purchase intent	Sexy	Female	3.596 ^a	.435	2.739	4.452
		Male	3.388 ^a	.438	2.526	4.251
	Humorous	Female	2.630 ^a	.380	1.881	3.379
		Male	4.282 ^a	.384	3.525	5.038

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Age. = 29.4110, Attitude towards fragrances = 7.3008.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	Ad Type	Gender	Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Attitudes towards ad	Sexy	Female	Male	-.632	.572	.270	-1.759	.495
			Female	.632	.572	.270	-.495	1.759
	Humorous	Female	Male	-1.960 [*]	.507	.000	-2.959	-.960
			Female	1.960 [*]	.507	.000	.960	2.959
Purchase intent	Sexy	Female	Male	.207	.617	.737	-1.009	1.424
			Female	-.207	.617	.737	-1.424	1.009
	Humorous	Female	Male	-1.652 [*]	.547	.003	-2.731	-.573
			Female	1.652 [*]	.547	.003	.573	2.731

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable	Ad Type		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Attitudes towards ad	Sexy	Contrast	4.674	1	4.674	1.222	.270	.006
		Error	833.533	218	3.824			
	Humorous	Contrast	57.136	1	57.136	14.943	.000	.064
		Error	833.533	218	3.824			
Purchase intent	Sexy	Contrast	.504	1	.504	.113	.737	.001
		Error	971.552	218	4.457			
	Humorous	Contrast	40.606	1	40.606	9.111	.003	.040
		Error	971.552	218	4.457			

Each F tests the simple effects of Gender within each level combination of the other effects shown. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

3. Ad Type * Culture

Estimates

Dependent Variable	Ad Type	Culture	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Attitudes towards ad	Sexy	Dutch	3.377 ^a	.264	2.856	3.897
		Turkish	5.103 ^a	.507	4.104	6.102
	Humorous	Dutch	4.652 ^a	.313	4.035	5.269
		Turkish	3.561 ^a	.382	2.808	4.313
Purchase intent	Sexy	Dutch	3.009 ^a	.285	2.446	3.571
		Turkish	3.976 ^a	.547	2.897	5.054
	Humorous	Dutch	3.460 ^a	.338	2.794	4.126
		Turkish	3.452 ^a	.412	2.639	4.265

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Age. = 29.4110, Attitudes towards fragrances= 7.3008.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	Ad Type	Culture	Culture	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Dutch	Turkish	-1.727 [*]	.572	.003	-2.854	-.599
		Turkish	Dutch	1.727 [*]	.572	.003	.599	2.854
	Humorous	Dutch	Turkish	1.092 [*]	.494	.028	.118	2.065
		Turkish	Dutch	-1.092 [*]	.494	.028	-2.065	-.118
Purchase intent	Sexy	Dutch	Turkish	-.967	.617	.119	-2.184	.250
		Turkish	Dutch	.967	.617	.119	-.250	2.184
	Humorous	Dutch	Turkish	.008	.533	.988	-1.043	1.059
		Turkish	Dutch	-.008	.533	.988	-1.059	1.043

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable	Ad Type		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Contrast	34.850	1	34.850	9.115	.003	.040
		Error	833.533	218	3.824			
	Humorous	Contrast	18.672	1	18.672	4.883	.028	.022
		Error	833.533	218	3.824			
Purchase intent	Sexy	Contrast	10.935	1	10.935	2.454	.119	.011
		Error	971.552	218	4.457			
	Humorous	Contrast	.001	1	.001	.000	.988	.000
		Error	971.552	218	4.457			

Each F tests the simple effects of Culture within each level combination of the other effects shown. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

4. Ad Type * Gender * Culture

Estimates

Dependent Variable	Ad Type	Gender	Culture	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Female	Dutch	2.994 ^a	.381	2.243	3.745
			Turkish	4.853 ^a	.711	3.453	6.254
		Male	Dutch	3.759 ^a	.367	3.035	4.483
			Turkish	5.353 ^a	.724	3.926	6.780
	Humorous	Female	Dutch	4.096 ^a	.359	3.389	4.803
			Turkish	2.157 ^a	.600	.975	3.339
		Male	Dutch	5.208 ^a	.519	4.185	6.231
			Turkish	4.964 ^a	.480	4.018	5.911
Purchase intent	Sexy	Female	Dutch	2.779 ^a	.411	1.968	3.590
			Turkish	4.412 ^a	.767	2.900	5.924
		Male	Dutch	3.238 ^a	.397	2.456	4.020
			Turkish	3.539 ^a	.782	1.998	5.080
	Humorous	Female	Dutch	3.183 ^a	.387	2.419	3.946
			Turkish	2.077 ^a	.647	.801	3.353
		Male	Dutch	3.737 ^a	.560	2.633	4.841
			Turkish	4.827 ^a	.518	3.805	5.849

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Age = 29.4110, Attitude towards fragrances = -1 = 7.3008.

□

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	Ad Type	Gender	Culture	Culture	Mean Difference (I-J)			95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a		
					J	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Female	Dutch	Turkish	-1.859 [*]	.807	.022	-3.450	-.268	
			Turkish	Dutch	1.859 [*]	.807	.022	-.268	3.450	
		Male	Dutch	Turkish	-1.594	.813	.051	-3.197	.009	
			Turkish	Dutch	1.594	.813	.051	-.009	3.197	
	Humorous	Female	Dutch	Turkish	1.939 [*]	.693	.006	.572	3.306	
			Turkish	Dutch	-1.939 [*]	.693	.006	-3.306	-.572	
		Male	Dutch	Turkish	.244	.703	.729	-1.141	1.630	
			Turkish	Dutch	-.244	.703	.729	-1.630	1.141	
	Purchase intent	Sexy	Female	Dutch	Turkish	-1.633	.872	.062	-3.351	.085
				Turkish	Dutch	1.633	.872	.062	-.085	3.351
Male			Dutch	Turkish	-.301	.878	.732	-2.032	1.429	
			Turkish	Dutch	.301	.878	.732	-1.429	2.032	
Humorous		Female	Dutch	Turkish	1.106	.749	.141	-.370	2.581	
			Turkish	Dutch	-1.106	.749	.141	-2.581	.370	
		Male	Dutch	Turkish	-1.090	.759	.152	-2.586	.406	
			Turkish	Dutch	1.090	.759	.152	-.406	2.586	

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable	Ad Type	Gender		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Female	Contrast	20.276	1	20.276	5.303	.022	.024
			Error	833.533	218	3.824			
		Male	Contrast	14.695	1	14.695	3.843	.051	.017
			Error	833.533	218	3.824			
	Humorous	Female	Contrast	29.899	1	29.899	7.820	.006	.035
			Error	833.533	218	3.824			
		Male	Contrast	.461	1	.461	.121	.729	.001
			Error	833.533	218	3.824			
Purchase intent	Sexy	Female	Contrast	15.644	1	15.644	3.510	.062	.016
			Error	971.552	218	4.457			
		Male	Contrast	.525	1	.525	.118	.732	.001
			Error	971.552	218	4.457			
	Humorous	Female	Contrast	9.722	1	9.722	2.181	.141	.010
			Error	971.552	218	4.457			
		Male	Contrast	9.189	1	9.189	2.062	.152	.009
			Error	971.552	218	4.457			

Each F tests the simple effects Culture within each level combination of the other effects shown. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

□

5. Ad Type * Religious

□

Estimates

Dependent Variable	Ad Type	Religious	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Yes	3.179 ^a	.248	2.689	3.669
		No	5.301 ^a	.514	4.287	6.314
	Humorous	Yes	4.086 ^a	.295	3.504	4.668
		No	4.127 ^a	.397	3.344	4.909
Purchase intent	Sexy	Yes	3.090 ^a	.268	2.562	3.619
		No	3.894 ^a	.555	2.800	4.988
	Humorous	Yes	3.664 ^a	.319	3.036	4.293
		No	3.247 ^a	.429	2.403	4.092

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Age. = 29.4110, Attitude towards fragrances = 7.3008.

□

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	Ad Type	Religious	Religious	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Yes	No	-2.122 [*]	.571	.000	-3.247	-.996
		No	Yes	2.122 [*]	.571	.000	.996	3.247
	Humorous	Yes	No	-.041	.496	.935	-1.018	.937
		No	Yes	.041	.496	.935	-.937	1.018
Purchase intent	Sexy	Yes	No	-.804	.617	.194	-2.019	.411
		No	Yes	.804	.617	.194	-.411	2.019
	Humorous	Yes	No	.417	.535	.437	-.638	1.472
		No	Yes	-.417	.535	.437	-1.472	.638

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

□

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable	Ad Type		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Attitude towards ad	Sexy	Contrast	52.781	1	52.781	13.804	.000	.060
		Error	833.533	218	3.824			
	Humorous	Contrast	.026	1	.026	.007	.935	.000
		Error	833.533	218	3.824			
Purchase intent	Sexy	Contrast	7.577	1	7.577	1.700	.194	.008
		Error	971.552	218	4.457			
	Humorous	Contrast	2.701	1	2.701	.606	.437	.003
		Error	971.552	218	4.457			

Each F tests the simple effects of Religious within each level combination of the other effects shown. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

□

7.4 OLS regression output

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.413	.188		18.155	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.758	.275	.177	2.761	.006

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.103	.192		16.177	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.663	.280	.152	2.364	.019

a. Dependent Variable: Joyous

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.952	.184		16.017	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	-.340	.269	-.082	-1.261	.208

a. Dependent Variable: Excited

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.143	.210		15.000	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	-.296	.306	-.063	-.967	.335

a. Dependent Variable: Passionate

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.349	.198		11.860	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	1.489	.289	.318	5.143	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Humorous

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.889	.197		14.688	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.453	.287	.102	1.578	.116

a. Dependent Variable: Happy

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.944	.152		12.755	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	-.062	.223	-.018	-.276	.783

a. Dependent Variable: Angry

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.754	.191		14.404	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	-.763	.279	-.175	-2.731	.007

a. Dependent Variable: Shame

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.595	.200		12.971	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	-.433	.292	-.096	-1.481	.140

a. Dependent Variable: Disgusted

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.984	.229		13.036	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	-.290	.334	-.057	-.868	.386

a. Dependent Variable: Irritated

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.087	.163		12.828	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	-.186	.238	-.051	-.784	.434

a. Dependent Variable: Concerned

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.612	.221		7.305	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.374	.224	.087	1.667	.097
	Joyous	.580	.052	.590	11.236	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.928	.237		8.135	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.929	.240	.217	3.867	.000
	Excited	.503	.058	.487	8.669	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.012	.229		8.795	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.890	.239	.208	3.720	.000
	Passionate	.446	.051	.490	8.759	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.297	.206		11.139	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.051	.251	.012	.204	.839
	Humorous	.475	.054	.520	8.846	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.747	.208		8.397	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.497	.221	.116	2.252	.025
	Happy	.576	.050	.597	11.567	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.441	.245		14.041	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.758	.275	.177	2.752	.006
	Angry	-.014	.081	-.011	-.178	.859

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.599	.258		13.954	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.707	.279	.165	2.535	.012
	Shame	-.067	.064	-.069	-1.052	.294

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.875	.242		15.992	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.681	.272	.159	2.509	.013
	Disgusted	-.178	.060	-.187	-2.952	.003

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients		
1	(Constant)	4.298	.231		18.641	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.672	.257	.157	2.615	.009
	Irritated	-.297	.050	-.356	-5.927	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients		
1	(Constant)	3.580	.245		14.608	.000
	Ad Type Dummy	.744	.275	.174	2.704	.007
	Concerned	-.080	.075	-.068	-1.061	.290

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards ad