The Value of Online Advertising: Exploring the effects of advertisements on consumer perceptions of media vehicle value.

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Abstract

In the current media environment, consumers have access to a wide variety of content at little to no monetary cost, with many content providers having adopted advertisement sponsored business models. Indeed, advertising is nearly ubiquitous online, with consumers indirectly paying for website access via their exposure to advertisements. As researchers have demonstrated that consumer negativity towards advertising can spill over onto their perceptions of the media vehicle, content providers must aim to strike a balance between maximising advertisement revenue and providing value to consumers in order to ensure continued visits. Yet, it is argued here that by hosting valuable advertising, for example those advertisements that provide consumers with information or entertainment, it is possible that the negative effect of advertisements identified in the literature is not only negated but that the advertisements themselves could contribute towards consumer value derived from the media vehicle.

This dissertation examines how valuable advertisements can affect consumer perceptions of the value derived from a media vehicle. It proposes that informative or entertaining advertisements contribute to website value, and examines mechanisms by which this can occur, with a particular focus on advertisement exchange value (AEX) and cognitive effort. AEX captures consumer perceptions of the exchange fairness between themselves and advertisers, and is examined in this research as a mediator between advertisement value and consumer perceptions of the value derived from the media vehicle. Similarly, advertisement value is argued to reduce the cognitive effort required in website use through the provision of information and entertainment, and in doing so indirectly influences media vehicle value. Finally, the role of consumer motivations for website use are examined as moderating the effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value perceptions.

This research incorporates two phases, namely an exploratory experiment that leads into a field study. The experiment allowed for controlled testing of the effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value perceptions, as well as the indirect effects through the abovementioned mediators. The results confirms that while irritation with advertising negatively influences the value derived from a media vehicle, the information and entertainment value of an advertisement positively influence the utilitarian and hedonic

value a consumer derives from a website. In addition, the consumer's overall perceptions of the website as a service also benefits from advertisement value. These findings provided a foundation for a field study utilising an online survey to explore consumer perceptions of websites that they have visited and the motivations driving their use of these websites.

The second study contributes towards a more complete understanding of the effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value in a number of ways. Replicating the study in a field setting allows for a more robust overall conclusion that valuable advertising has a positive effect on the value a consumer derives from a media vehicle. Additionally, the inclusion of consumer motivations for website use as a moderator provides insights into the importance of identifying what drives content consumption, and how advertising can aid in fulfilling a consumer's content needs. Across both studies, AEX and perceived cognitive effort are highlighted as significant mechanisms through which advertisement value can influence a media vehicle value.

In conclusion, this research contributes to advertising knowledge by exploring the effects of advertisement value on the media vehicle in a novel manner. With existing literature having an extensive focus on the negative influence of advertisements, this study is unique in examining the specific influence of advertisement information and entertainment value on the value derived from a media vehicle. It is also the first to explore how valuable advertising can have a positive effect on the perceived cognitive effort required in website use, as well as the perceived fairness of exchange. With consumer attention to advertising the currency of the online environment, the importance of valuable advertising is demonstrated in its effects on consumer perceptions of the value they derive from a website. These findings support calls for the need to understand the flow on effects of advertising, as well as provides practical implications for practice by giving managers guidance on the importance of focussing on the quality of advertisements hosted and not just the quantity.

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Declaration

I certify that this work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in my name, in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text. In addition, I certify that no part of this work will, in the future, be used in a submission in my name, for any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution without the prior approval of the University of Adelaide and where applicable, any partner institution responsible for the joint-award of this degree. I give consent to this copy of my thesis, when deposited in the University Library, being made available for loan and photocopying, subject to the provisions of the Copyright Act 1968. I also give permission for the digital version of my thesis to be made available on the web, via the University's digital research repository, the Library Search and also through web search engines, unless permission has been granted by the University to restrict access for a period of time.

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Date: 24th March 2016

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CHAPTER 1 Introduction

1.1 Research Background

Since the first banner advertisements debuted on websites, advertising has been a regular feature of the online environment, with a majority of content providers adopting advertisement-sponsored business models (Casadesus-Masanell and Feng 2010). In acknowledging the symbiotic relationship between advertising and the media vehicle, many researchers have examined how a positive attitude towards the media vehicle and content can enhance consumer perceptions of advertising presented alongside content (Hirschman and Thompson 1997, Calder, Malthouse et al. 2009). In contrast to the positive affect transfer that characterises media context research, studies focusing on the effects of advertising on the media vehicle generally consider advertisements as an annoyance to consumers, or at best a form of wasted space (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013). Indeed, the majority of research examining the influence of advertising on perceptions of the media vehicle have contributed to a large body of work on advertising intrusiveness and clutter (Ha and McCann 2008), remaining separate from research on advertisements that are well received by consumers.

Researchers have acknowledged that advertising can hold value for consumers independent of the advertised brand or product, for example by means of providing information or entertainment (Ducoffe 1996). Indeed, studies have demonstrated the benefits of valuable advertisements for outcomes such as sales and brand image (eg. Galloway 2009, Van-Tien Dao, Nhat Hanh Le et al. 2014). Yet, it remains to be seen whether advertisements can contribute positively towards perceptions of the media vehicle, such as a website. Therefore, this thesis investigates how valuable advertising influences consumer perceptions of the value derived from a media vehicle in order to fill this gap in literature.

As advertisements are an important part of the media landscape (Kim, Hayes et al. 2014), this research explores the benefits of hosting valuable advertising, drawing on exchange theory and cognitive load theory as underpinning mechanisms which can influence the effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value. Additionally, the role of consumer motivations for website use as a moderator is examined, founded in Uses and Gratifications theory. Advertisements can be valuable to consumers through the provision of information or entertainment and are expected to enhance consumer value derived from a media vehicle.

1.2 Research Problem

In order to address the aforementioned gap in knowledge, this thesis explores how individual components of advertisement value influence consumer perceptions of media vehicle value. Advertisement value is posited to comprise three components, namely (i) information, (ii) entertainment value and (iii) level of irritation (Ducoffe 1995). Although consumers perceive informative and entertaining advertisements differently (Olney, Holbrook et al. 1991, Yoo and MacInnis 2005), many studies on advertisement value tend to combine the components of advertisement value to form an overall construct. This thesis examines the three components separately in order to develop a more comprehensive understanding of each individual components' effects.

This research explores exchange theory and cognitive load theory as theoretical mechanisms underpinning the effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value. Consumer attention to advertising is argued to be the currency of exchange in the online content provision environment. Thus, this research examines how perceptions of exchange fairness can influence the proposed association between advertisement value and media vehicle value. In examining attention to advertising, extant literature reveals that

advertisements may act as an additional source of cognitive stress on consumers during content consumption (Anderson and De Palma 2012) and this thesis examines how advertisement value can reduce cognitive load.

There is limited work on how consumer content needs in the online environment may moderate the effects of advertising on perceptions of the media vehicle. Content consumption is driven by the desire to gratify needs, such as information or entertainment (Ruggiero 2000), and this research examines how motivation for website access influences the proposed effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value. This research also explores consumer perceptions of interactive advertising and visual quality as a drivers of advertisement value. Advertisers are increasingly using interactive advertisements with high execution quality to reduce clutter and attract consumer attention (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014) and it is important for academic research to stay abreast of developments in the communication environment.

The primary research question that this thesis addresses is:

How does advertisement value influence consumer perceptions of value derived from a media vehicle? More specifically, to what extent does each individual component of advertisement value, namely information value, entertainment value and level of irritation, affect media vehicle value?

The objectives of this research are to first establish an association between the individual components of advertisement value. The role of exchange fairness and cognitive effort in the effect of advertisement value on media vehicle is subsequently examined, as well as the moderating effects of consumer motivations for website use. Finally, advertisement interactivity and execution quality are investigated as possible drivers of advertisement value.

1.3 Rationale for examining Advertisement Value in the Online Context

While advertisements have subsidised the cost of content for consumers from before proliferation of the internet (Sagarin, Britt et al. 2003), consumers currently have access to a wide variety of content at little to no monetary cost in the online environment (Sun and Zhu 2013). A wide range of websites and increasing ease of access across locations and devices has resulted in the internet becoming one of the most important sources of content to individuals (Jones and Fox 2009). This includes obtaining information in the case of task-oriented consumers, as well as seeking entertainment for casual web-browsers (Stafford, Stafford et al. 2004).

From the content host perspective, there is a high level of competition for consumers in the online environment due to the high number of available alternatives (Anderson and De Palma 2012). The need to provide consumers with superior value in order to retain them and ensure future visits has never been more important (Anderson and De Palma 2012). Hence, the need to understand how advertisements, a key feature of most websites, influence value derived by consumers is pertinent in the online environment. Indeed, the online environment provides marketers with the opportunity to better target consumers with relevant, valuable advertising, a core focus of this research. While technology has facilitated an increased ability to track online behaviour and tailor advertisements to meet consumer needs (Goldfarb and Tucker 2010), potential influence of consumer motivation for website use on the effects of valuable advertisements on perceptions of the media vehicle remains to be explored.

Exploring advertisement value in the online environment allows for examination of advertisement interactivity as a potential driver of advertisement value. Interactivity is a defining characteristic of the online environment (Liu 2003) and interactive advertisements

are becoming increasingly popular (IAB 2014). From an advertisement effectiveness perspective, interactivity is positively received by consumers (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014). However, few scholars have examined how interactivity can affect customer perceptions of advertisement value. As advertising is an applied discipline (Laczniak 2015), it is important for academic research to stay relevant to changes in practice and aid theoretical understanding of how contemporary advertisement formats are perceived by consumers.

1.4 Research Contributions

This research contributes to advertisement value literature by expanding theoretical understanding of its effects from a consumer perspective. While prolific research has established brand-related outcomes of valuable advertising, few have focused on how advertisement value can positively influence consumer perceptions of media vehicle value (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013). As mentioned in Section 1.2, this thesis draws on exchange theory and cognitive load theory to improve understanding of the effects of advertisement value. More specifically, while exchange theory is a foundational theory of marketing (Bagozzi 1975, Vargo and Lusch 2004), there has been limited application in the advertising literature. This thesis contributes to understanding how advertisement value influences consumer perceptions of the fairness of exchange between themselves and the advertiser.

This research also examines the role of cognitive load in the association between advertisement value and media vehicle value. Cognitive load theory has been applied in advertising clutter literature, with intrusive advertisements demonstrated to stress consumer cognitive resources (Cho and Cheon 2004). This thesis contributes to understanding how valuable advertisements can have the opposite effect, reducing cognitive load by facilitating gratification of consumer needs. In line with content

gratification, this research provides insights into how individual components of advertisement value and their interaction with consumer motivations for website use facilitate content consumption and contribute towards value derived from a media vehicle.

Findings from this research offer some insights to practitioners involved in the management of websites and content provision. In understanding how advertising may enhance perceptions of the media vehicle, managers can maximise advertising space, not just in terms of revenue, but also as an important source of information or entertainment to the consumer. This knowledge will help managers in advertisement client selection and pricing, while focussing on meeting consumer needs.

1.5 Thesis Structure

This thesis consists of eight chapters, covering two separate data collection phases. The first phase is an experiment designed to explore the effects of advertisement interactivity and quality on advertisement value, as well as the direct and indirect effect of advertisement value on media vehicle value in a controlled setting. The second phase comprises a field study exploring the role of consumer motivations for content consumption as a moderator of the effect of advertisement value on media vehicle value, drawing on consumers' online experiences. Each chapter is briefly summarised, as follows:

Chapter One introduces study background and outlines motivations and justifications for the research outlined in this thesis. The research problem and questions are presented, followed by the rationale for choosing advertisement value in the online environment as the research context. Contributions to literature and business practice are highlighted, before concluding with a synopsis of the thesis.

Chapter Two provides an overview of advertising literature, starting with current trends in advertising research. A review of media context research exploring how the media vehicle can influence perceptions of the advertisement is subsequently examined, along with literature on advertisement clutter and other effects of advertising on customer perceptions of the media vehicle. Advertisement value is then discussed, with a specific focus on the individual components, namely information value, entertainment value and level of irritation. Literature on cognitive effort and exchange value is then presented as the theoretical foundations for this research. Finally, advertising interactivity and visual quality as drivers of advertisement value are discussed.

Chapter Three discusses the hypotheses formulated to guide phase one of this research and address the core research questions. The primary focus of the first phase is to establish the effects of the three components of advertisement value on media vehicle value and examine mediating effects of exchange value and cognitive effort. Additionally, advertisement interactivity and quality are hypothesised to contribute towards advertisement value perceptions.

Chapter Four discusses methodological issues relating to phase one of this research. An experimental design was selected in order to examine the effects of advertisement interactivity and quality on advertisement value in a controlled setting, along with the overall effects of advertisement value on perceptions of the media vehicle. This chapter outlines the design of the experiment and questionnaire, including a discussion of the scales used to measure the constructs of interest. Sampling method, respondent demographics, and selection of the analysis method follows before the chapter concludes with preliminary analysis conducted on collected data, including tests for data reliability and validity, common method bias and an assessment of the measurement model.

Chapter Five presents the data analysis process and reports experiment results. First, the direct effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value are examined, followed by the introduction of exchange value and cognitive effort as mediating variables. The effects of advertisement interactivity and visual quality on advertisement value are then explored. The chapter concludes with a summary of results to lay the foundation for the field study in phase two. The field study was conducted primarily to examine the moderating effects of consumer motivations for website use on the influence of advertisement value on media vehicle value. This was not tested in the experiment as consumers were directed to the target website instead of being organically driven by their own needs. The field study provides additional empirical evidence for the relationships of interest, allowing for more robust overall findings.

Chapter Six presents a brief review of Uses and Gratifications theory and the related body of literature, laying the foundations for hypotheses relating to the moderating influence of consumer motivations for website use. A field study was conducted to provide robust understanding of the effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value in a real life setting. The design of the survey is discussed, followed by an outline of the sampling method. The respondent profile from the collected data is then presented along with preliminary analyses relating to reliability and validity of the constructs measured and the related measurement model.

Chapter Seven discusses results of the structural model from phase two. Results focussed on the direct effect of advertisement value on media vehicle value and indirect effects by means of exchange value and cognitive effort as mediators. The moderating effects of consumer motivations for website use are then presented, followed by a summary of hypotheses supported in the field study.

Chapter Eight presents key findings from the experiment and field study. With particular emphasis on comparing the two phases of this research in terms of similarities and differences, the discussion provides important theoretical explanations for results diverging from hypothesised relationships. Based on this discussion, contributions to theory are highlighted, followed by practical implications of this research for managers. Study limitations are acknowledged, suggestions for future research are provided and the thesis concludes with final comments.

CHAPTER 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines current literature on online advertising to identify and address gaps in knowledge. It begins with an overview of the current state of advertising research, particularly the more popular topics of interest. Subsequently, literature on how the media vehicle can influence advertising perceptions are examined in order to provide a foundation for this research. The effects of advertising on the media vehicle are also explored. Cognitive effort and exchange theory are used to investigate the influence of advertising on the media vehicle value. Lastly, two potential drivers of advertising value, namely interactivity and execution quality, are discussed.

2.2 Current Advertising Research

Scholars have argued that by nature, advertising is an applied discipline (Laczniak 2015), a variable field which constantly evolves as the environment changes (Nan and Faber 2004). Advertising research has progressed theoretically as an academic field over the last 30 years, with a steady increase in the number of articles published in advertising, marketing, and communication journals (Kim, Hayes et al. 2014). Advertising practice, including management issues such as budgets, reach, sales response and promotions, is one of the most frequently studied topics in this area (Kim, Hayes et al. 2014). This is a reflection of the applied nature of the discipline (Laczniak 2015). Many researchers also focus on advertising effects and outcomes (Ha 2008). Indeed, direct outcomes of advertisements, such as recognition and recall, and the mechanisms behind these effects are frequently studied. These mechanisms include persuasion models, such as the Elaboration Likelihood model (Cacioppo and Petty 1984, Kim, Hayes et al. 2014) and the Hierarchy of Effects model (Smith, Chen et al. 2008). Indirect consequences of advertising are also a topic of

interest to researchers, with prolific research examining the influence of advertising on perceptions of the media vehicle in the form of advertising clutter (Nan and Faber 2004). Outcomes of advertising and the mechanisms driving persuasion are also frequently studied in relation to content of advertisements (Ha 2008). For example, the use of appeals, such as fear, humour (Eisend 2009) or celebrity endorsement (Erdogan 1999), are popular areas of interest exploring how these appeals can influence consumer attitudes towards the brand or product.

The leading forms of media examined in advertising research are print and television, with internet advertising research close behind and rapidly increasing, particularly over the last decade (Kim, Hayes et al. 2014). The increase in online research is indicative of the practical relevance and huge impact the internet has on the field of advertising, since the first banner advertisement debuted on websites in the mid-1990s (Seyedghorban, Tahernejad et al. 2015). Since then, industry expenditure on online advertising has experienced exponential growth, resulting in online advertising becoming one of the most used communication tools to attract and retain consumers (Seyedghorban, Tahernejad et al. 2015). Over $5.3bn was spent on online advertising in the 2014/2015 financial year, which represented a growth of 19.8% over the previous year (IAB 2015).

Reflecting the importance of internet advertising, academic focus on the topic has increased greatly over the past decade, as researchers work to keep pace with, and understand, an ever-changing communication environment (Kim, Hayes et al. 2014). Advertising researchers have focussed on topics such as interactivity (Cho and Leckenby 1999, Wu and Wu 2006), electronic commerce (Childers, Carr et al. 2002, Kim, Kim et al. 2010), and social media/networks, with the latter being the fastest growing area (Brajnik and Gabrielli 2010, Pomirleanu, Schibrowsky et al. 2013). A number of researchers have

focused on comparing and contrasting traditional media formats and the internet. However, many of these studies were conducted in the early stages of internet research when researchers were still attempting to 'place' internet advertising in the context of traditional advertising (Kim and McMillan 2008).

Due to the varying nature of advertisement formats in the online environment, advertisements are classified into three general categories, namely search, classifieds and display advertising (Goldfarb 2014). Search engine advertising is where advertisers pay to be displayed alongside organic, non-sponsored search results (Ghose and Yang 2009). These paid search advertisements run on complex algorithms and require brands to bid on keywords with cost based on popularity and relevance (Katona and Sarvary 2010, Yao and Mela 2011). Classified advertising appears on websites specifically designed for hosting these advertisements, such as Craigslist, Gumtree or online job sites (Goldfarb 2014). Display advertising is the most popular and prominent form of online advertising, being ubiquitous on the internet due to its presence on many websites (Cho and Cheon 2004, Balseiro, Feldman et al. 2014). Display advertisements include banner advertisements in various locations on a webpage, pop-ups, interstitials, and screen-takeovers (Burns and Lutz 2008, Goldfarb and Tucker 2010). This research focuses specifically on display advertising, in particular those that facilitate a high level of consumer interaction, as discussed in Section 2.7.

Advertising in the online and offline environment is frequently presented in conjunction with content, with notable exceptions being outdoor advertisements, such as bus-stop or billboard advertising (Wilson and Till 2011) and spam email (Azeem 2012). In the online environment advertisement-sponsored business models are extremely popular (Casadesus-Masanell and Feng 2010), allowing consumers access to a wide variety of content at little

to no monetary cost (Sun and Zhu 2013). The relationship between advertising and content provision has been studied from an attitude transfer perspective, with researchers exploring the effects of positive attitude towards content influencing consumer perceptions of advertising presented alongside (Dahlén 2005). The positive effects of advertising on perceptions of the media vehicle, however, have received less academic attention as most research focusses on the negative consequences of advertising, such as perceived clutter and consumer irritation (Ha and McCann 2008, Rosengren and Dahlén 2013). Drawing from literature on advertising value, this research examines how advertising can positively influence consumer perceptions of the media vehicle. The following section presents current work on how consumer attitudes toward content influence perceptions of advertising, with a focus on the mechanisms driving attitude transfer.

2.3 Media Vehicle Effects on Advertising

Advertising-based business models have traditionally supported a lower cost of access to magazines, newspapers, and television programs for consumers in the offline environment (Depken and Wilson 2004, Peitz and Valletti 2008). In the online environment, consumers have access to a wide variety of content at no monetary expense as many content providers sell advertising space on their websites to fund content creation and hosting (Ghosh, McAfee et al. 2009, Sun and Zhu 2013). As very few websites host no advertising, consumer attention to advertising is considered the new currency in content consumption (Berthon, Robson et al. 2013).

Many researchers have contributed to a large body of work exploring how consumer attitudes towards the media vehicle and editorial content influence perceptions of advertisements embedded within. One such stream of research examines how thematic congruence between the media vehicle and advertisement influences consumer attitudes

towards advertising (Moorman, Neijens et al. 2002, Dahlén, Rosengren et al. 2008). Congruence facilitates advertising processing, easing consumer comprehension of the message (Goodstein 1993, Moore, Stammerjohan et al. 2005). Memory of target advertisements are affected by the level of congruence (Shen and Chen 2007, Simola, Kivikangas et al. 2013) and the resultant attitude towards the advertisement (Van Rompay, De Vries et al. 2010). The context of the media vehicle makes certain moods more cognitively accessible to consumers and facilitates processing and acceptance of advertising which induce similar moods (Goldberg and Gorn 1987, Dahlén 2005). Congruency effects have been explored in online and offline contexts, with results showing an influence of content and media vehicle on advertising to the point where thematic congruence has become a default criteria in media selection (King, Reid et al. 2004).

In addition to the effects of congruence, priming has provided a theoretical rationale to explain why attitudes toward content can be transferred to advertising (Dahlén 2005). Sherif and Hovland's (1961) seminal research on priming suggests that judgements are affected by contextual factors and these contextual cues are used by individuals to judge people, target objects, groups, and situations (Herr, Sherman et al. 1983, Meyers-Levy and Sternthal 1993). In advertising research, perceptions of the media vehicle and content can act as a cognitive prime, influencing interpretations of the advertisement as the prime increases accessibility of primed attributes and consumer attitudes (Yi 1990, Yi 1993). For example, a credible website was found to positively affect perceived credibility of advertisements presented (Choi and Rifon 2002). As this research examines the positive effects advertising can have on the media vehicle, studies which examine the effects of context on advertising provide a valuable foundation for the process of affect transfer in the content consumption environment.

The body of work exploring the effects of context on advertising focuses on positive affect transfer from the content and media vehicle to the advertisement and brand. The predominant position is that consumers derive enjoyment, or gratification, from content consumption and this positivity spills over to the advertising (Thota, Song et al. 2012), with consumers more highly engaged with the media vehicle being more receptive to advertising messages (Cunningham, Hall et al. 2006, Calder, Malthouse et al. 2009). In contrast, most research examining the influence of advertising on the media vehicle treats advertising as an irritation, negatively affecting consumer perceptions of the media vehicle (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013). Relevant studies are reviewed in the following section to demonstrate the lack of research into potential positive effects of advertising on perceptions of the media vehicle.

2.3.1 Advertising Effects on the Media Vehicle

Negative influence of advertising on the media vehicle

Research exploring the effects of advertising on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle or content tends to focus on negative affect transfer. With many articles exploring the effects of advertising on the media vehicle treating advertisements as a disutility or at best a neutral 'white space' (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013), advertisements are considered irritating and to be avoided or at best tolerated (Ha and McCann 2008). It has been demonstrated that negativity toward advertisements has a spill-over effect on the media vehicle, for example in the case of consumers judging websites based on hosted banners(Thota, Song et al. 2012). Banner advertisements act as a contextual cue for the website and irritating advertisements negatively affect consumer perceptions of the website (Thota, Song et al. 2012). Irritating banner advertisements in the online environment result

in website abandonment and decreased respondent ability to answer questions pertaining to content (Goldstein, Suri et al. 2014).

One of the primary causes of irritation with advertising is disruption of content consumption (Speck and Elliott 1997). Advertising can impair content consumption by hindering consumer search for content or by disrupting the communication process (Speck and Elliott 1997), this is aggravated by the fact that most advertisements are specifically designed to attract attention (Acquisti and Spiekermann 2011). For example, advertisements are commonly designed with bright colours or animation to draw attention away from website content (Yoo, Kim et al. 2004, Lee, Ahn et al. 2015). Location of an advertisement within a webpage also influences the level of distraction and consequently affects consumer attitudes. Advertisements placed in close proximity to content are perceived to be more distracting, in particular those that lack a clear demarcation (Elliott and Speck 1998, McCoy, Everard et al. 2007). In addition to being a distraction, advertisements can completely disrupt content consumption. Examples include pop-up advertisements that obscure a webpage and prevent content access until they are closed (Edwards, Li et al. 2002) and pre-roll advertisements that play before a video on YouTube (Goodrich, Schiller et al. 2015). In advertising literature, the concept of perceived intrusiveness is used to capture the degree to which an advertisement is deemed to be interruptive of, and contrary to, a consumer's content consumption goals (Edwards, Li et al. 2002). Consumer goals can be utilitarian, such as information seeking, or hedonic, such as the search for entertainment and escapism (Edwards, Li et al. 2002).

Intrusive advertising can negatively influence consumer perceptions of the media vehicle by contributing to perceived clutter (Ha and McCann 2008). A cluttered media environment contains an excessive amount of advertising (Speck and Elliott 1997).

Excessive advertising is characterised by the amount of noise created by advertisements competing for attention with content and potentially disrupting content consumption in the communication environment (Elliott and Speck 1998). While advertising clutter is a perceived large amount of non-editorial content in an editorial medium (Ha and McCann 2008), it should be noted that the ratio of advertising to content is not solely reliant on an objective measure of number of advertisements (Goodrich, Schiller et al. 2015). Advertisements perceived as more irritating due to particular attributes, such as being overly animated or otherwise disruptive, result in greater perceptions of clutter (Speck and Elliott 1997, Ha and McCann 2008). For example, an advertisement which pops up in the middle of a webpage and obscures content is more likely to result in perception of website clutter than a less intrusive banner advertisement along the side of a webpage (McCoy, Everard et al. 2007).

Perceptions of clutter as a result of irritating or intrusive advertising negatively affects the advertiser and media vehicle. A cluttered environment not only reduces effectiveness of advertising presented and increases negativity toward the advertised brand (Hammer, Riebe et al. 2009), it also negatively affects future intentions to revisit the media vehicle (Speck and Elliott 1997, Cho and Cheon 2004). Content consumption is hindered by irritating advertisements functioning as irrelevant distractors, applying additional strain on limited consumer cognitive resources resulting in frustration with the media vehicle (Speck and Elliott 1997, Ha and McCann 2008). In examining the effects of advertising on the media vehicle, however, most of these previous studies have not addressed the ability of advertising to provide value (Ducoffe 1996), for example by offering useful information which could in turn have a positive influence on the media vehicle. This research addresses this gap in the literature, as outlined in the following section through an exploration of the positive effects that advertising can have on the media vehicle.

Positive effects of advertising on the media vehicle

Having reviewed negative impacts of advertising in the previous section, this section discusses the few studies that address the positive effects of advertising on the media vehicle. Most research in this area has been conducted in the context of television or movie advertising. For example, ignoring the actual characteristics of the advertisement itself, commercial interruptions during television programs enhance viewer enjoyment of the program by preventing habituation (Nelson, Meyvis et al. 2009). Prior research on the progression of affect has shown that individuals have a tendency to adapt to situations causing positive experiences to become less enjoyable over time through habituation (Frederick and Loewenstein 1999). As such, viewers of television programs with no advertisements steadily enjoy the experience less, but advertising disrupts this adaptation process (Nelson, Meyvis et al. 2009). In the product placement literature, inclusion of actual products and brands within television programs and movies adds realism and increases entertainment value (DeLorme and Reid 1999, d'Astous and Chartier 2000). The same effect was found in the case of computer game brand placement (Nelson, Keum et al. 2004). These studies, however, do not address the characteristics of the advertisement itself, instead focussing on the presence (or absence) of advertising.

There is limited research on how advertising positively influences perceptions of the media vehicle. Two studies examine presentation format by exploring avatar use (Holzwarth, Janiszewski et al. 2006, Wang, Baker et al. 2007) and one examines features advertisements (Rosengren, Dahlén et al. 2013). Holzwarth et al. (2006) and (Wang, Baker et al. 2007) examine the use of avatars in the online shopping environment in terms of influence on perceptions of the website. Avatars are virtual spokes-characters that assist consumers by responding to questions and providing information about products (Holzwarth, Janiszewski et al. 2006). Both Holzwarth et al. (2006) and (Wang, Baker et al.

2007) found that avatars contribute to positive consumer evaluation of website entertainment value (Holzwarth, Janiszewski et al. 2006, Wang, Baker et al. 2007). It should be noted, however, that avatars may be perceived as a website feature as opposed to outright advertising due to their format.

The first attempt to specifically explore the characteristics of an advertisement that can influence media vehicle perceptions was conducted by Rosengren and Dahlen (2013) in the context of magazine advertising. These authors explore the effects of advertisement quality on perceptions of the magazine as a whole. Results indicate that 'better'" advertisements, such as those featuring brands perceived to be more reputable or otherwise having a high execution finish, positively affect consumer perceptions of the magazine (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013). The value of the magazine and consumer willingness to pay was also positively influenced by the value of advertisements presented within (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013).

A valuable advertisement provides a consumer with information or entertainment (Ducoffe 1995) and, in connecting advertising value to consumer perceptions of the media vehicle, Rosengren and Dahlen's (2013) study provides an important foundation for this research to expand upon. It can be argued that the construct of advertisement value was only partially captured in Rosengren and Dahlen's (2013) study as measures consisted of three questions asking respondents if advertisements were 'entertaining', 'interesting' and 'irritating' (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013 p.5). These measures are appropriate for exploring exclusiveness and sophistication of an advertisement, however the informational value of an advertisement was not examined. The informational value of an advertisement a primary driver of advertising value, with researchers positing that it is the factor that correlates most strongly with overall advertisement value (Ducoffe 1995, Abernethy and

Franke 1996, Kim, Cheong et al. 2012). In order improve understanding of how the value of an advertisement can influence consumer perceptions of a media vehicle, this thesis examines individual effects of information and entertainment value provided by an advertisement, as well as level of irritation caused, on media vehicle perceptions.

2.4 Advertisement Value

Advertising value is defined as subjective evaluation of relative worth or utility of an advertisement to a consumer (Ducoffe 1995). Ducoffe (1995) posits that advertising can provide value to consumers in the form of informational and entertainment value which along with level of irritation caused constitute the overall construct of advertisement value. As discussed in the previous section, much research regarding how advertisements influence perceptions of the media vehicle has focussed on irritation caused by advertising, with little attention paid to possible effects of informational or entertainment value of the advertisement. In order to address this gap in the literature, the rich body of work examining the effects of advertising value in general is examined to provide theoretical support for this research.

2.4.1 Informational Value of Advertising

Traditionally, one of the main functions of advertising is to inform consumers about brands, products or sales (Lavidge and Steiner 1961, Norris 1984). According to Resnik and Stern (1977), an informative advertisement permits a viewer to make a more intelligent purchasing decision. Informational content is listed as a primary reason why consumers approve of an advertisement (Bauer and Greyser 1968), with Ducoffe (1995) arguing that the informativeness of an advertisement is the factor that correlates most strongly with overall advertisement value.

Resnik and Stern (1977) introduced an objective method of examining informational content of an advertisement by identifying 14 informational cues that an advertisement may possess, such as references to price, quality, performance, offers or availability. An advertisement is deemed informative if it contains at least one of these informational cues. Furthermore, the extent to which advertisements are deemed informative relates to the type of advertising; for example, comparative advertisements have a higher tendency to be informative (Harmon, Razzouk et al. 1983). This objective method of assessing advertisement value, however, evaluates the advertisement at face value without taking into account truthfulness, quality of information or credibility (Kim, Cheong et al. 2012).

Consumers may be sceptical regarding informational value of an advertisement, particularly if claims are perceived as exaggerated or misleading (Darke and Ritchie 2007). Perceived informational value of an advertisement also depends on relevance of the information to the consumer at point of presentation. For example, an advertisement which supplies relevant product information to a consumer whose goal is to shop for a product can be perceived as valuable as it facilitates the consumer's search behaviour (Ha and McCann 2008). Conversely, information on products not of interest at that point may be deemed irrelevant and not welcome by the viewer, regardless of the number of informational cues. Informative advertisements in social networking sites were negatively evaluated by consumers due to the desired outcome of social networking as pursuit of social or hedonic outcomes, rather than a utilitarian, goal-directed search (Jung, Shim et al. 2015).

It is important to bear in mind that advertisement value perceptions vary between individuals, even holding constant the attributes or cues present in the advertisement itself. This is in line with contemporary definitions of value as unique and phenomenologically

determined by the individual (Vargo and Lusch 2004). While the informational value of an advertisement has been demonstrated to influence advertising effectiveness in terms of recall and attitude towards the advertisement and brand (Abernethy and Franke 1996, Kim, Cheong et al. 2012), its influence on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle remain unexplored. As information seeking is one of the primary drivers of website use in the online environment (Stafford, Stafford et al. 2004), it is possible that an advertisement that delivers relevant information may be considered a valuable component of a website, improving its overall utility. This research contributes to the literature by seeking to understand how informative advertisements positively influence consumer perceptions of the media vehicle by acting as sources of valuable information within a webpage, rather than an annoyance.

2.4.2 Entertainment Value of Advertising

The entertainment value of an advertisement refers to the extent to which the viewer finds the advertisement pleasing or enjoyable (Ducoffe 1996). An entertaining advertisement has the ability to fulfil a need for escapism, diversion, aesthetic enjoyment or emotional release (McQuail 1987). In doing so, it not only attracts and retains user attention, but also promotes a more positive attitude towards the advertised brand (Shimp 1981, Shavitt, Lowrey et al. 1998). These effects are generally attributed to associative learning in pairing of the entertaining advertisement (unconditioned stimulus) with a conditioned stimulus, such as presentation of the brand or product (Mackintosh 1983, Jung, Min et al. 2011).

A common example of an advertisement that could be perceived as entertaining includes one presented in narrative format, which seeks to tell a story about a product, consumption or related experiences (Escalas 2004). This format is commonly utilised by marketers employing a transformational advertisement strategy to associate the advertised product or

brand with psychological characteristics that would not typically come to mind during consumption (Puto and Wells 1984). As compared to informative advertising, entertaining advertisements are usually affect based rather than cognitive based (Aaker and Stayman 1992). However, the two forms are not mutually exclusive. Emotional appeals are frequently used, for example humour or drama, to increase the entertainment value of an advertisement (Woodside, Sood et al. 2008, Eisend 2009).

The perceived level of advertisement entertainment can be influenced by a number of factors, such as creativity displayed in execution (Smith and Yang 2004), novelty, or format in which the advertisement is presented (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014). Creativity in advertising has been a subject of interest to researchers (Smith and Yang 2004, Xiaojing and Smith 2009, Lehnert, Till et al. 2014) and is an important factor influencing advertising effectiveness (Reid, King et al. 1998). In the current literature dealing with creativity, two main components of the construct have been the subject of discussion: divergence and meaningfulness (Smith, Chen et al. 2008, Lehnert, Till et al. 2014). Divergence is the extent to which an advertisement differs from the norm and is most often characterised by novelty (Ang, Lee et al. 2007). Divergence is the component of creativity that separates the advertisement from other communications, moving and differing from the expected presentation (Lehnert, Till et al. 2014). The second component of creativity, meaningfulness, refers to the advertisement's ability to be “meaningful, appropriate, useful or valuable to the audience in some way” (Smith, MacKenzie et al. 2007 p. 820). For example, an advertisement which presents a heartfelt story can connect with consumers and provide entertainment value. The format in which an advertisement is delivered can also influence perceived entertainment value (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014). Advergames, games created with the specific intent to market a brand or product, are an effective advertising format as they leverage the ability to fully engage with a consumer (Tina and

Buckner 2006, Bellman, Kemp et al. 2014). Advergames are typically designed as casual games simple enough for the majority of audiences to play for a few minutes (Tina and Buckner 2006), acting as distractions which provide entertainment to consumers (Goh and Ping 2014).

The effectiveness of entertaining advertising lies in its ability to evoke emotions which are subsequently associated with the advertised brand (Goh and Ping 2014). Consequently, the entertainment value of an advertisement can affect consumer attitudes towards the brand and purchase intentions (Eisend 2009, Jung, Min et al. 2011). Specific to the online environment, researchers have explored the effects of enjoyment derived from entertaining advertisements in relation to advertisement sharing. Entertaining advertisements are more likely to go viral as consumers are more inclined to tag friends or share on social media (Chu 2011, Huang, Su et al. 2013). Porter and Golan's (2006) research suggests that titillating messages are likely to be shared, as are comedic or violent advertisements (Brown, Bhadury et al. 2010).

While studies have explored the effects of entertaining advertising on consumer attitudes towards the advertisement, brand, and behavioural outcomes, such as sharing or purchasing a product, few have examined the influence of an advertisement's entertainment value on perceptions of the media vehicle. Notable exceptions do exist, however, with the most salient being research undertaken by Rosengren and Dahlén (2013) that examines the effect of advertisement value on consumer perceptions of a magazine. These authors found that advertisement value was driven by entertainment (rather than informativeness), as measured by advertisements being considered 'entertaining' and 'interesting' by respondents (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013). This research aims to better understand how

the entertainment value of an advertisement can positively influence the value derived from a media vehicle, along with the other components of advertisement value.

2.4.3 Advertisement Irritation

The last factor influencing the perceived value of an advertisement is the irritation caused by, or annoyance with, the advertisement itself (Ducoffe 1995). While the construct does not capture perceptions of value in itself, irritation with an advertisement negatively influences overall advertisement value (Ducoffe 1996). Consumer negativity towards advertising caused by irritation has been a mainstay of advertising literature and can occur due to perceptions that an advertisement's claims are exaggerated, confusing or talks down to consumers (Bauer and Greyser 1968, Li, Edwards et al. 2002). Similarly, advertising viewed as overly disruptive of content consumption and intrusive has led to consumer complaints about, and negativity towards, advertising and perceived clutter as discussed previously in Section 2.3.1 (Ha 1996, McCoy, Everard et al. 2008).

The effect of advertisement irritation on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle has been well explored in the area of perceived clutter (Ha and McCann 2008). Irritating advertisements negatively influence consumer perceptions of the media vehicle and may result in website abandonment (Goldstein, Suri et al. 2014). Many consumers implement advertisement avoidance strategies to reduce the impact of irritating advertisements, including behavioural, mechanical or cognitive avoidance (Speck and Elliott 1997, Rejón-Guardia and Martínez-López 2014). In the online environment, behavioural avoidance includes scrolling past banner advertisements, quickly closing pop-ups and screen takeovers, or in more extreme cases completely avoiding cluttered websites (McCoy, Everard et al. 2007). Mechanical advertisement avoidance occurs with the aid of installed

devices or software, for example pop-up blockers and spam filters (Cho and Cheon 2004, Truong and Simmons 2010).

Cognitive advertisement avoidance, arguably the most common advertisement avoidance strategy, occurs when a consumer filters out advertising (Chatterjee 2008). This occurs without conscious effort as distracting stimuli is filtered out subconsciously (Cho and Cheon 2004). While cognitive advertisement avoidance may lead to no explicit memory of the stimulus by the consumer, research has shown that cognitively avoided advertisements are still incidentally processed (Janiszewski 1998). The filtering process utilises cognitive resources, adding to the cognitive load of the consumer (Lavie, Hirst et al. 2004). Therefore, it can be argued that irritating advertising contributes to cognitive stress regardless of whether or not advertisements are avoided. However, it remains to be explored if valuable advertising reduces cognitive load requirements. This is discussed in greater detail in Section 2.6.

While the negative effects of advertising on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle are well examined in the literature, advertisement irritation remains a construct of interest in this study as a core component of advertisement value. Its inclusion provides a more complete picture of the effects of advertisement value, in particular while exploring the role of cognitive effort, which is discussed in the following sections. Advertisement irritation has been demonstrated to influence the cognitive resources demanded from the individual (Ha and McCann 2008, Lee and Cho 2010) and this can act as a guide in understanding how the positive aspects of advertising can affect perceived cognitive effort required in content consumption.

2.5 Media Vehicle Value

Creating and delivering consumer value has been, and continues to be, a primary goal of marketing, and as such has been a topic of interest to both practitioners and academics (Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo 2007, Babin and James 2010, Gummerus 2013). Its importance lies in the influence of consumer value perceptions on attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (Johnson, Herrmann et al. 2006, Gummerus 2013), which is discussed later in this section. The concept of value, however, is elusive and a number of scholars have approached consumer value from various perspectives, including examining it as a process or as an outcome (Gummerus 2013, Karababa and Kjeldgaard 2013). Value creation processes examine the activities, resources and interactions that result in the creation of value and tend to be continuous, as opposed to value outcome determination, which approaches value based on consumer assessment and tends to be tied to a specific point in time (Gummerus 2013). If conceptualised as an outcome, value is proposed as subjective and encompassing cognitive judgements of the consumer (Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo 2007). As this research examines how consumers perceive the value derived from website use retrospectively, a value outcomes perspective is adopted, exploring how consumers perceive the outcomes of a consumption activity.

Many definitions of value exist, with one of the most widely accepted definitions being consumer assessment of the product or service based on what is received in exchange for what is given (Zeithaml 1988 p.14). This approach to viewing value as a function of benefit and sacrifice builds on means-end theory, which posits that consumer decision making is goal-directed and consumption takes place as a means of reaching a desired end-state (Gutman 1982). Benefits derived from a product or service are unique to each consumer, based on individual needs and desires, for example utilitarian or hedonic benefits, and in similar fashion, the sacrifice is subjectively perceived (Sweeney and N.

2001, Woodall 2003). Examples of sacrifices in the purchasing environment include not only monetary cost of a product, but also cognitive effort required in the product search process (Mohd-Any, Winklhofer et al. 2014). The nature of the relationship is such that increasing perceived benefits or reducing perceived sacrifices made by the consumer increases the perception of overall value derived from consumption (Cronin Jr, Brady et al. 2000, Brady, Knight et al. 2005). The following sections explore the benefits that consumers derive from content consumption online of interest to this research and subsequently examines the exchange relationship between consumers and the media vehicle.

2.5.1 Consumer Value Derived

In line with the focus on advertising value, this thesis examines consumer perceptions of the media vehicle from a value outcomes perspective by exploring how consumers perceive value derived from content consumption. To better understand consumer value as an outcome, this research draws from literature on consumer Uses and Gratifications (U&G) theory. As part of research on media effects, U&G theory was developed to study gratifications that attract and retain audiences to different media channels and the forms of content that satisfy their needs (Ruggiero 2000). It focuses on consumer choice in content consumption and has been applied in studies of offline and online environments (Stafford, Stafford et al. 2004). Indeed, one of the central foundations to U&G theory lies in its view of consumers as actively seeking, selecting and using media to satisfy specific needs, such as information or entertainment, and deriving gratification from these media channels (Katz, Blumler et al. 1973, Anderson and Meyer 1975). Hence, the theory focuses on what consumers do with media, rather than the influence of media on the individual (Blumler and Katz 1974).

An active audience is motivated by rational self-awareness of their individual needs and duly selects a media channel expected to satisfy these needs (Ruggiero 2000). Each individual source of content is therefore competing with all other sources of potential need satisfaction (Katz, Blumler et al. 1973) and this can range from other content providers or media channels to completely different sources of need gratification. For example, a consumer seeking escape from boredom has the choice of a number of television channels and programs, online content from any number of websites, as well as the option to engage in real world activities with others (Rubin 1983, Wu, Wang et al. 2010). In the current media environment, the number of different content providers is ever increasing and competition for consumer attention is becoming more and more intense (Anderson and De Palma 2012).

Results from existing U&G research suggests that consumers use media either for the content carried, also known as content gratification, or for the experience of media usage process, or process gratification (Cutler and Danowski 1975, Stafford, Stafford et al. 2004). Content gratification is concerned with messages within the media vehicle, while process gratification is derived from actual use of the medium itself, for example the act of random web browsing or website navigation (Hoffman and Novak 1996). As this thesis explores consumer value derived from a media vehicle as opposed to the process of finding and accessing websites, the focus is on content gratification. A consumer whose needs have been gratified can be argued to have derived value from the content consumption.

Much early research on U&G focussed on television (eg. Bantz 1982, Rubin 1983, McIlwraith 1998) and other traditional media, such as radio or magazines (eg. Towers 1985, Armstrong and Rubin 1989), reflective of the popular mass media channels of the time. More recently, U&G theory has been applied to the context of mobile use (Leung and

Wei 2000, Wei and Lu 2014) and in the online environment (Stafford, Stafford et al. 2004, Raacke and Bonds-Raacke 2008, Roy 2009, Curras-Perez, Ruiz-Mafe et al. 2014). With increased consumer control over content consumption online, as compared to traditional media (McMillan and Hwang 2002), the notion of an active, in control consumer is more applicable than ever (Quan-Haase and Young 2010). The interactivity of the internet, discussed in greater detail in Section 2.7.1, is one of its defining features and allows users to more actively participate in content consumption processes as opposed to being a passive receiver of communications (Ha and James 1998).

While several researchers in the online context have proposed differing categorizations of consumer web-use motivations, an examination of these typologies reveals a common underlying core of constructs that differ only in wording. For example, Koraonkar and Wolin (1999) include "To acquire useful information quickly" and "To shop for good prices" in their typology, which is similar to Papacharissi and Rubin's (2000) and Ko et al.'s (2005) information seeking motivation. Similarly, Papacharissi and Rubin's (2000) motivation of "To pass time" can be considered part of the broader entertainment seeking construct described by Ko et al. (2005). While other drivers of use, such as social-seeking behaviour, have been identified as important motivations for consumers in the online environment (Ko, Cho et al. 2005), this research focusses on information and entertainment seeking as the intuitive sources of advertisement value.

Information seeking and utilitarian value

Consumer information search behaviour has been a mainstay of marketing literature as information precedes consumer choice and purchasing behaviour (Peterson and Merino 2003). This includes both internal information search, which involves consumer memory and experiences, as well as external information search, which utilises a secondary source

of information (Punj and Staelin 1983). In the current media environment, the internet is a primary tool that consumers use to search for information (Peterson and Merino 2003, Ji and Wayne Fu 2013). Websites have the ability to carry massive amounts of information, while at the same time providing search utility and similar functions within a website (McGaughey and Mason 1998). In addition, search engines such as Google allow consumers to search for content across a multitude of different information sources including brand websites, forums, social networks, and other content hosts (Brin and Page 2012). Information online is also easily accessible on demand at consumer convenience (Peterson and Merino 2003).

The internet has simultaneously lowered the cost of information access, production and dissemination (Metzger 2007). As consumers are driven by information seeking motivations, the utilitarian value derived from websites is a key gratifications on which this research focuses. An issue of online information stems from the open access nature of the medium. Anyone with access to the internet can easily author a post or article on any topic and authority on the subject is not a prerequisite for content production (Metzger 2007). Consequently, the issue of credibility is raised as much information posted online is not subject to rigour checks (Greer 2003). In order for goal-directed consumers to derive utilitarian value from a website the information obtained must be deemed to be reliable and trustworthy (Babin, Darden et al. 1994, Kim and Niehm 2009).

As evidenced by the popularity of the online medium as an information source, potential unreliability of online information has not deterred consumers. Internet users, in particular more experienced individuals, utilize various cues to make judgements regarding the credibility and reliability of the source and information provided (Flanagin and Metzger 2007, Armstrong and McAdams 2009). For example, product information in the form of

consumer-generated reviews obtained from forums are perceived to less bias than firm-provided information, particularly if the information poster has taken the time to build up a reputation in the forum, which can act as a cue for reliability and credibility (Pan and Chiou 2011). The information source can act as a cue for trustworthiness and expertise, for example information originating from a news organization website is more likely to be considered credible, as compared to a less reputable website (Flanagin and Metzger 2007). Site ownership, contact information, privacy policy statements, references and currency of information have been shown to influence perceived credibility of a website and the information contained within (Sundar 1999, Rieh 2002).

Other elements of a website, such as design features like layout, graphics, font or colours, may also act as value cues, influencing perceptions of information quality (Flanagin and Metzger 2007) directly related to utilitarian value (Kim and Niehm 2009). Perceived source credibility as a function of attractiveness has been explored in other bodies of work, such as endorsement literature, with physical attractiveness of the communicator, such as a celebrity endorser, positively influencing effectiveness of the message (Kahle and Homer 1985, Erdogan 1999). In a similar fashion, the physical layout of a website and how content access is structured influence perceptions of information presented (Greer 2003). Furthermore, advertisements presented within a website have been shown to influence perceptions of credibility (Fogg, Marshall et al. 2001).

Advertisements, a common visual element within most websites, may influence perceptions of the information presented in editorial content (Cho and Cheon 2004). Consumers may question the underlying motives of the content provider and the validity of information presented if content is biased by advertising sponsorship (Fogg, Soohoo et al. 2003, Ahmad, Komlodi et al. 2010). However, advertisements for reputable firms and

those which demonstrate congruence with editorial content do not damage webpage credibility (Ahmad, Komlodi et al. 2010). Ahmad et al.'s (2010) findings lend support to the argument that innate perceived value, in this case with brand reputation acting as a cue, of an advertisement plays a role in influencing subsequent perceptions of the media vehicle, which is explored in greater detail in this thesis. Information value is one of the key components of advertisement value, and by acting as additional sources of information within a webpage, valuable advertising could contribute towards overall utilitarian value of the media vehicle.

Entertainment seeking and hedonic value

In addition to information search behaviour, entertainment seeking is a primary motivation for consumer interaction with both traditional and online media (Finn 1997, Teo, Lim et al. 1999, Vorderer, Klimmt et al. 2004). In the online environment, users seek entertainment experiences in the form of videos, games, music, and editorial content (Jones and Fox 2009), deriving hedonic value from consumption. Online shopping behaviour has also been identified as a common means of entertainment for consumers, particularly if the intention is to browse, rather than purchase (Childers, Carr et al. 2002, Jones, Reynolds et al. 2006). Many consumers utilize the internet as a means of escapism or to procrastinate, some to the point of addiction (Young 1998, Griffiths 2000, Thatcher, Wretschko et al. 2008).

Entertainment experiences can be either passive or active (Nakatsu, Rauterberg et al. 2005). Passive experiences require less interaction from the viewer, for example reading a novel or watching a movie, while active experiences have a higher level of activity involved, for example participating in sport or playing a game (Nakatsu, Rauterberg et al. 2005). In the online environment, the innate interactivity of the medium has allowed for both passive and active entertainment. Online gaming, for example, is a common form of active entertainment, while most web pages that host videos or editorial content provide more passive entertainment (Tjew and Malle 2004, Whitty and McLaughlin 2007). Compelling online experiences were found to be positively correlated with internet use for recreational, experiential purposes with hedonic value derived, as opposed to more utilitarian work-oriented use (Novak, Hoffman et al. 2000).

Consumers who are completely involved in media consumption can become absorbed to the point where enjoyment is at its peak (Csikszentmihalyi 2000, Novak, Hoffman et al. 2003). This state has been conceptualised as online flow, defined as a "seamless sequence

of responses facilitated by machine interactivity" that is intrinsically enjoyable (Hoffman and Novak 1996 p.57). Users seeking entertainment in the online environment who achieve a flow state derive greater hedonic gratification from the interaction (Wang, Baker et al. 2007, Hoffman and Novak 2009). However, intrusive advertising can prevent consumers from reaching a flow state (Rodgers and Thorson 2000, Goldsmith and Lafferty 2002), negatively influencing hedonic value derived from interaction with the media vehicle.

This research examines how valuable advertising can positively influence hedonic value derived from the media vehicle. One of the dimensions of online flow is the extent to which the user finds the interaction intrinsically interesting (Huang, Chiu et al. 2011, Van Noort, Voorveld et al. 2012), and advertisements which provide entertainment value are able hold the attention and interest of consumers. As many consumers go online in search of escapism and entertainment (Luo, Chea et al. 2011), it can be argued that the inclusion of valuable advertising facilitates hedonic gratification by providing a source of entertainment.

While this section has focussed on value gratifications a consumer derives from content consumption, and how this can be directly influenced by advertising value, this research also examines the relationship between advertisement value and media vehicle value from an exchange fairness perspective, which is discussed in the following section.

2.5.2 Exchange Value

Consumer value isdefined in this study as an assessment of benefits derived in exchange for sacrifices (Zeithaml 1988). The theory of exchange is one of the foundational theories of marketing, from the exchange of commodities and goods to services (Bagozzi 1975, Vargo and Lusch 2004). Parties traditionally seek to participate in exchange relationships from which they derive most value through maximization of returns and minimization of

sacrifices (Emerson 1976). In a shopping scenario, for example, an exchange perceived to be beneficial or fair to the consumer positively influences satisfaction and value derived (Darke and Dahl 2003, Chiu, Lin et al. 2009).

An exchange relationship can be classified as either direct exchange between the consumer and firm, or indirect through an intermediary (Vargo and Lusch 2004). A relevant example of a direct exchange is that conducted during processing of an advertisement (Ducoffe and Curlo 2000). A valuable exchange for the consumer is one in which the value of the advertisement, in terms of information or entertainment received, is judged to be worth the effort expended processing the advertisement (Ducoffe and Curlo 2000). This research contributes to a better understanding of the role of advertising in media vehicle value by examining the indirect exchange relationship between advertiser and consumer, with the content host website acting as a middleman (Casadesus-Masanell and Feng 2010).

Websites typically sell advertising space to fund the monetary cost of content creation or hosting, in exchange agreeing to either a set number of impressions, click-throughs or similar measurement metrics of the advertisement hosted (Ghosh, McAfee et al. 2009). This constitutes one half of an indirect exchange between advertiser and consumer. Subsequently, the consumer engages with the website in a second exchange relationship to derive benefits from content access. In return, the consumer sacrifices cognitive resources in the form of attention to advertising (Berthon, Robson et al. 2013, Davenport and Beck 2013). This research argues that perceived sacrifice is dependent on the value of advertising. An advertisement perceived as valuable would be a significantly smaller sacrifice than an advertisement perceived as irritating, to the point where a valuable advertisement could be viewed as an additional benefit source, rather than disutility, thereby increasing overall benefit derived. In exploring the exchange relationship between

advertiser and consumer, Logan (2013) proposed the concept of Advertising Exchange value (AEX).

AEX was developed to explore consumer assessment of the fairness of exchange between themselves and advertisers within a medium (Logan 2013). Consumers determined if both they and advertisers received a good return from investment in the content exchange process. The degree of satisfaction with the exchange from the consumer's perspective was found to influence tolerance of advertising within the medium (Logan 2013). Logan (2013) explored AEX in online and traditional television contexts, finding that consumers attributed online television viewing with greater advertising exchange value than traditional television viewing as respondents indicated greater benefit from online content. Attitude towards an advertisement was found to have a positive correlation with AEX, a point on which this research aims to expand by specifically addressing the components of advertising value. In doing so, this research seeks to understand how advertisement information, entertainment value and irritation affect consumer perceptions of exchange fairness.

Exploring how consumers perceive fairness of exchange between themselves and advertisers facilitates better understanding of the mechanisms behind the influence of advertising on value derived from the media vehicle and how valuable advertising can be perceived differently to irritating advertisements when acting as payment for content access. In addition, this research examines the role of cognitive effort in the relationship between advertising value and media vehicle perceptions, as cognitive load theory has been frequently utilised to underpin the effects of irritating advertising.

2.6 Consumer Cognitive Effort

Advertising in the content environment acts as an additional stimulus that demands attention from consumers, consequently increasing cognitive load (Lavie, Hirst et al. 2004). As individuals naturally aim to conserve cognitive resources (Brehm and Brehm 1987), advertisement avoidance is frequently employed in an effort to reduce cognitive stress (Cho and Cheon 2004). Therefore, consumer attention to advertising has been likened to a new currency demanded in exchange for content (Festré and Garrouste 2012). In line with commodity theory, scarce resources command greater value in an exchange (Lynn 1991, Sharma and Alter 2012) and researchers have argued that an individual's cognitive resources are indeed a scarce resource (Baddeley 1992).

Cognitive psychologists note that individuals have two functioning memory structures, namely long term and working memory, of which working memory has a limited capacity (Baddeley and Hitch 1974). Working memory is used for all cognitive processing activities, such as processing of stimuli through sensory registers (Ericsson and Kintsch 1995). The finite nature of working memory limits the amount of information that can be received and processed at once (Miller 1956). Increasing the amount of visual stimuli, for example, can increase stress on working memory to the point of overload (Burke and Srull 1988, Luria and Vogel 2011). In accordance with reactance theory, individuals naturally seek to avoid cognitive overload by minimising the amount of cognitive stress through strategies such as avoidance of stimuli (Brehm and Brehm 1987). This avoidance manifests itself as advertisement avoidance in a cluttered media environment (Edwards, Li et al. 2002).

The amount of cognitive effort required in content consumption is influenced by a number of attributes of the media vehicle and has been conceptualised as part of a broader ease-of-

use construct. In addition to level of advertising clutter, website elements, such as layout and structure, can influence cognitive effort required in the content consumption process (Flavián, Guinalíu et al. 2006). In the online shopping environment, for example, attributes of the website which affect perceptual fluency, such as text clarity and information intensity, influence perceived cognitive effort associated with goal achievement (Mosteller, Donthu et al. 2014). Perceptual fluency was found to be "an influential antecedent that shaped consumers' cognitive and affective processes in the online shopping context" (Mosteller, Donthu et al. 2014 p. 2491), with a fluent structure facilitating task attendance and as such reducing perceptions of mental effort required. The fluent structure can be distorted by advertisements that distract the consumer or disrupt content flow (Bailey, Konstan et al. 2000, Pieters, Wedel et al. 2007).

This research draws from literature on how advertising irritation increases the consumer's cognitive load with a focus on the role of cognitive effort in the relationship between advertisement value and perceptions of media vehicle value. For example, an informative advertisement may act as a source of relevant information within a webpage, reducing cognitive cost of information search. The ease of obtaining information in the online environment has been demonstrated to positively impact perceived consumer utility (Shankar, Smith et al. 2003), and this could be facilitated by valuable advertising. In the context of online shopping, reducing the cost of searching for information increases enjoyment of the shopping experience and positively affects consumer opinion of featured products (Lynch Jr and Ariely 2000). Similarly, an entertaining advertisement that is enjoyed may not be perceived a pointless distraction or waste of cognitive resources to consumers. As greater perceived cognitive effort negatively influences consumer perceived value derived from the process (Kleijnen, De Ruyter et al. 2007), it is important to understand how the value of an advertisement can reduce cognitive stress brought on by

additional visual stimuli and the overall effect on consumer perception of the media vehicle.

2.7 Advertising Interactivity and Visual Quality

This chapter has presented current literature on the relationship between advertising and media vehicle value, identifying a gap in knowledge regarding the role of advertising value that is addressed in this research. In addition, interactivity of an advertisement is examined as a driver of advertising value. High impact advertisements which allow for greater consumer interaction are becoming an increasingly popular format (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014). This research aims to understand how the high impact advertising format influences perceived advertisement value. As the communications environment is constantly changing and evolving (Nan and Faber 2004), it is important for marketing academia to stay relevant by keeping abreast of current developments, such as new advertising formats (Kim, Hayes et al. 2014).

An increasingly popular use of interactivity in advertising comes in the form of high-impact digital advertisements. High-impact digital advertising has been defined as "any interactive, large-canvas format that accounts for significant real estate of a web page" (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014 p. 287). These include large banner-type advertisements with interactive features, takeover formats which cover the entire webpage within the browser and skins which surround the webpage acting as a background to content (IAB 2014). These high impact formats can increase unaided brand recall in comparison to traditional banner advertisements (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014). Baron et al. (2014) found that full screen takeovers were perceived as most intrusive, however consumers liked it the most and it performed best in terms of brand recall, lending support to the argument that entertainment benefit derived by consumers outweighed the negativity of perceived

intrusiveness. Baron et al's (2014) work is the only published academic article to examine the effectiveness of high impact advertising, likely due to the relative novelty of the format.

This research contributes to a better understanding of how the two core elements driving the effectiveness of high impact advertising, namely interactivity and rich visual format, influence consumer perceptions of advertisement value. The following section examines current literature on interactivity, both in the general online environment and specific to advertising, to provide a foundational understanding of the interactivity construct, while the visual richness of advertisements are discussed in Section 2.7.3.

2.7.1 Interactivity Online

The internet as a communication medium has likened to an amalgamation of print, radio and television due to the ability to host images, audio and video content. However, the interactivity is one of the most defining features of the online environment (Hoffman and Novak 1996, Morris and Ogan 1996). Interactivity has been identified as one of the most popular topics in the field of internet research, with a variety of perspectives adopted by researchers (Kim and McMillan 2008). One of the earliest definitions, proposed by Rafaeli (1988), describes interactivity as a recursive communication exchange between parties, in which transmissions are dependent on previous exchanges. Since this early definition, a number of other definitions have been proposed by various researchers, with Liu and Shrum (2002) synthesising these numerous definitions and conceptualisations in advertising, marketing and communications literature. Thus, Liu and Shrum (2002 p. 54) offer a comprehensive definition of interactivity as “the degree to which two or more communicating parties can act on each other, and on the communication medium, and on

the message and the degree to which such influences are synchronised" (Liu and Shrum 2002 ,p.54).

Three key dimensions of interactivity are included in the definition provided by Liu and Shrum (2002), which is adopted in this research. The first dimension is the ability for two-way communication to occur allowing for reciprocal communication between parties, in the case of the online environment between consumer and firm or between consumers (Liu and Shrum 2002). One of the main differences between the internet and traditional media is the shift from firm-consumer communication to a dialogue between the two parties (Hoffman and Novak 1996). Traditional media was capable of transmitting a brand message to consumers, but was limited in its ability to receive immediate feedback. The internet has facilitated consumer feedback to firms, including both explicit and implicit feedback. Explicit feedback includes sending an email or filling out a form on the website or posting on a forum (Bickart and Schindler 2001). Implicit feedback includes clicking on advertisements or otherwise engaging with features of a website, such as search functions (Liu and Shrum 2002).

The second dimension of interactivity is synchronicity of the medium, which refers to the degree to which consumer inputs are met with a simultaneous response. An example of high synchronicity is a consumer quickly receiving search results from a search engine upon entering the keywords of interest (Brin and Page 2012). Liu and Shrum (2002) posit that a core element of synchronicity is responsiveness of the system itself, as in order to achieve synchronicity the website must be able to respond to user actions quickly. These authors argue that given the limitations of technology there are occasions when synchronicity cannot be achieved due to delays in data relay (Liu and Shrum 2002). However, with advances in technology, including improved internet access and speeds, this

is arguably much less of an issue in the current media environment. Advertisers have since taken advantage of technological advances by creating and implementing increasingly complex advertisement formats, for example high impact advertising (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014).

Active control is the third dimension of interactivity. The concept of active control is characterised by the consumer having voluntary and instrumental control over their actions and the outcomes, and users in more interactive environments have greater freedom in dictating their behaviour (Liu and Shrum 2002). In the online environment, users are more able to control the flow of content as compared to less interactive mediums, such as television (Hoffman and Novak 1996). With the increased number of websites available covering a multitude of topics (Cebi 2013), users have a high amount of choice with regards to content consumption activity. This is voluntary and active control as users act in accordance with individual goals and wills (Liu and Shrum 2002), which is conceptually in line with U&G theory where consumers actively seek out content to fulfil needs.

The nature of the online environment facilitates implementation of interactive technologies which consumers and marketers have embraced (Ghose and Dou 1998). Having presented the foundational dimensions of interactivity, the following section specifically examines the interactivity of online advertisements as a driver of advertisement value, which is one focus of this research.

2.7.2 Advertisement Interactivity

One of the most common elements of online advertisements is the ability for consumers to click through to the product or brand webpage that provides access to more information (Chatterjee 2008). This allows consumers to actively choose to act on the advertisement and receive a response, in line with definitions of interactivity. This default aspect of

online advertising has resulted in the advertising industry frequently referring to all forms of online advertisements as interactive advertising (Kaye and Mendoff 2001). To contribute to current advertising literature, this research focuses on advertisements that have a higher level of interactivity than simply functioning as a hyperlink.

Advertisements offering interactive features have become increasingly popular in the current media environment recently used by brands, such as TippEx, BMW and Marvel. For example, TippEx, a brand of correction fluid, launched an interactive "Tippexperience" video in 2010, hosted on YouTube (Firstbrook and Wollan 2011). In the interactive experience, titled "A hunter *shoots* a bear", a hunter applied TippEX to the word ‘shoots’ and asked viewers to type in alternative words soliciting a range of responses, such as ‘hugs’, ‘dances with’ or ‘plays football with’. Each word change generated a different ending to the video, with over 40 different endings being produced for consumer interaction (Blomström, Lind et al. 2012). The campaign was lauded as a great success, going viral and attracting nearly 10 million clicks within four weeks (Hinz, Skiera et al. 2011).

The campaign above was noted as a success in the academic literature, with i interactivity a key factor driving a positive attitude towards it and making consumers share it so readily (Cova and Saucet 2014). Whilst its novelty was likely to have been a big contributing factor also, highly interactive advertisements are becoming a larger part of the communications environment. For example, BMW's interactive banner advertisement encouraged users to create their own 30 second video by selecting and arranging short four second frames. Similarly, BMW’s Snowchat campaign launched at Christmas allowed consumers to ‘write’ a message on a snow covered car and send it to friends with a limited viewing window (Adweek 2014).

While the TippEx campaign was highly complex and unique, advertisements with less complexity are becoming increasingly prevalent, for example requiring consumers to click of products of interest within an advertisement or otherwise performing simple tasks, such as in the BMW campaigns. In the advertising literature, few researchers have investigated the effects of interactive advertisements on consumer attitudes and behavioural outcomes, with some notable exceptions suggesting a positive effect (Liu and Shrum 2002). For example, advertising interactivity was found to increase consumer behavioural outcomes, such as mouse-overs and click-throughs (Rosenkrans 2010). Rosenkrans (2010) operationalises interactivity utilising a banner advertisement in which viewers are instructed to swipe the mouse cursor to 'erase' a car, which positively influenced the likelihood of consumer interaction with the advertisement.

Going beyond behavioural outcomes, such as mouse-overs or clicks, consumer perceptions of entertainment value derived from an advertisement are also influenced by the level of interactivity, for example inclusion of a puzzle game within an advertisement (Jung, Min et al. 2011). This shows support for the relationship between interactivity and advertisement value, but focuses on the entertainment component of advertisement value. In contrast, this research focuses on identifying the impact of interactivity on consumer perceptions of informational and entertainment value derived from an advertisement, as well as level of irritation. While Jung's study (2011) acts as a foundation for this research, its limitations in experimental design have to be acknowledged. Respondents assigned to the high interactive group were presented with a game advertisement comprised of interactive quizzes about the target product. Thus, the advertised brand and message were the sole focus of the viewer (Jung, Min et al. 2011). However, the low interactive group was tasked to browse a music website with an embedded banner. As the brand message was encoded differently in terms of advertisement construction and presented in different settings, this

can be argued to have influenced perceptions of advertisement entertainment, making it difficult to attribute the differences between the groups solely to the interactive element.

To avoid the possibility of confounding effects, this research maintains similar presentation mechanisms across experimental groups to clearly isolate the effects of advertisement interactivity on perceived advertisement value. In addition to interactivity component, the effect of visual quality of advertising on perceived advertisement value is examined. The rich visual element of high impact advertising has been posited as a driving factor of advertising effectiveness (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014) and this research aims to examine the consequential effect of visual quality on advertising value.

2.7.3 Execution Quality

Early studies on advertising effectiveness found that pictorial messages with text content were better recalled by consumers than plain text (Edell and Staelin 1983, Leong, Ang et al. 1996). Images used in advertising attract consumer attention (Assael, Kofron et al. 1967, Singh, Lessig et al. 2000), are more memorable, and better create an image about products or services in the mind of the consumer (Leong, Ang et al. 1996). This 'picture superiority effect' has been attributed to non-verbal cues and visual reinforcement producing superior learning effects and levels of persuasiveness (Stewart, Hecker et al. 1987). When presented with advertising containing a pictorial element, consumers interpret meaning from the scene or object featured and apply these meanings to the brand or product (Scott 1994, Phillips 1997). A kitten, for example, may bring about perceptions of softness (Mitchell and Olson 1981), while a sunset has connotations of colourfulness (Scott 1994). Consumers automatically associate these perceptions with potential outcomes of the product or service (Hem, Iversen et al. 2003).

In the online environment, the overwhelming majority of banner advertising consists of some form of pictorial representation (Flores, Chen et al. 2014). However, rather than focusing on the type of image used, this research develops understanding of how visual execution quality of an advertisement as a whole influences consumer perceptions of advertisement value. Despite limited research on this topic, the studies that specifically address the effects of advertisement execution quality demonstrate a positive influence on consumer perceptions of advertisement and brand in the online environment (Ambler and Hollier 2004, Rosengren and Dahlén 2013).

The execution quality of an advertisement acts as a signal of brand quality to consumers in the communications environment (Kirmani and Rao 2000, Ambler and Hollier 2004). Research indicates that contemporary consumers are advertising-literate and form impressions of the expense and effort invested in an advertisement, consequently making a judgement regarding the effort invested in creation of the advertisement (Modig, Dahlén et al. 2014). Perceived expense or effort in advertisement creation affects consumer perceptions of the advertisement, brand and product, as it is perceived that only a brand confident in its product is willing incur expense and expend effort in advertising (Dahlén, Rosengren et al. 2008, Rennhoff and Wilbur 2011). In print media, for example, the use of a full page advertisement acts as a signal of brand strength as compared a smaller advertisement space (Kirmani and Wright 1989). Similarly, consumers showed less favourable impressions of brands featured in advertisement videos that had been technically degraded to reduce visual quality (Ambler and Hollier 2004).

While the content of advertising that drives advertisement value, such as presence of information cues or use of emotional appeals, has been well addressed in current literature (Eisend 2009, Kim, Cheong et al. 2012), the influence that execution quality of an

advertisement has on perceptions of advertisement value remains unexplored and is examined in this thesis. It is argued that execution quality can act as a signal of an advertisement's informational or entertainment value to the consumer, independent of the advertised brand or product. By incorporating execution quality, this research contributes to better understanding of advertisement value.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented a discussion of current advertising literature, with a focus of identifying gaps in knowledge addressed in this study. It was revealed that there is a lack of work exploring the positive effect of valuable advertising on the media vehicle in which it is presented, which is the core focus of this research. Drawing from the bodies of work on advertisement value, exchange theory and cognitive load theory hypotheses were designed to address this gap in literature and are presented in the following chapter. In addition, this research examines advertisement interactivity and quality as drivers of advertisement value.

CHAPTER 3 Hypothesis development

3.1 Introduction

Several hypotheses guided this research to address gaps in current advertising literature. This chapter presents these hypotheses, beginning with the influence of advertising value on perceptions of the media vehicle. Integrating the areas of advertising value research and media vehicle value perceptions has received little research attention. This research aims improve understanding of how informative and entertaining advertisements positively influence consumer perceptions of a website. The role of advertisement exchange value (AEX) and cognitive effort as mediators of the relationship between advertisement value and media vehicle value is also presented, as an indirect effect is hypothesised to occur through these constructs. Also, the effects of advertisement interactivity and execution quality are examined as drivers of advertisement value.

3.2 Advertising Value and Perceptions of the Media Vehicle

Chapter Two discussed current advertising literature, highlighting a gap in knowledge with regards to the effects of advertisement value on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle. With most existing work focussing on the negative influence of advertising on the media vehicle (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013), this research explores how informative and entertaining advertisements positively influence the value a consumer derives from a website. To understand the effects of advertisement value, this research draws on literature studying the effects of consumer attitudes towards content influencing advertising presented alongside (Calder, Malthouse et al. 2009).

Consumers who find the content they are viewing interesting and enjoyable have a more positive attitude towards advertising messages (De Pelsmacker, Geuens et al. 2002).

Engagement with the media vehicle results in greater receptivity of advertising messages (Cunningham, Hall et al. 2006, Calder, Malthouse et al. 2009), particularly in scenarios where an advertisement is placed in a congruent context (Moore, Stammerjohan et al. 2005). Consumer attitudes toward content influence perceptions of advertising presented alongside content as a result of cognitive priming (Shen and Chen 2007). Media vehicle content acts as a cognitive prime, influencing perceptions of advertising through activation of feelings and emotions (Yi 1990, Meyers-Levy and Sternthal 1993). For example, Shen and Chen (2007) argue that contextual information may influence how consumers perceive an advertisement and brand, particularly where features of the contextual prime and target stimulus overlap.

It is argued here that priming effects can be reversed, with advertisements acting as a prime for attitudes towards the media vehicle. By design, advertisements aim to attract attention either through placement strategies or attributes, such as animation and bright colours (Yoo, Kim et al. 2004, Pasqualotti and Baccino 2014). In addition, advertisements generally contain content that is designed to be processed easily by consumers (Rosengren 2008). Therefore, the advertisement may act as a priming mechanism as it is processed more quickly than website content, either deliberately or incidentally (Rosengren 2008). Furthermore, an increasingly popular advertisement insertion point in the online environment is before the display of content with little viewer option to skip, for example pre-roll advertisements on YouTube shown prior to the video of interest (Goodrich, Schiller et al. 2015). In these situations, the first stimulus acting as a priming mechanism a consumer encounters during content consumption is the advertisement. Thus, it is argued here that perceptions of an advertisement, reflected by informational or entertainment value, act as a prime for perceptions of the media vehicle and the value derived from it.

While the role of advertising value as a priming mechanism for perceptions of a media vehicle has yet to be explored in literature, support can be drawn from studies indicating that advertisements for reputable brands are not as irritating as those of lesser-known brands (Brown and Stayman 1992, Thota, Song et al. 2012). Although not explicitly stated in the literature, it can be argued that an attribute of the advertisement (in this case the brand featured) affects overall perception of the advertisement, similar to how advertisement value is perceived with inclusion of informational cues or entertaining elements. Reputable brands result in a more positive evaluation of an advertisement as a whole as compared to unknown brands, and in turn has less negative impact on perceptions of the media vehicle (Thota, Song et al. 2012). Similarly, consumers who derive benefits from advertising videos providing information or videos that are humorous perceive these advertisements as being less intrusive (Goodrich, Schiller et al. 2015). As higher levels of intrusiveness are associated with less favourable attitudes towards the website (Goodrich, Schiller et al. 2015), this research builds on these findings as valuable advertising may have a positive effect on consumer perceptions of a website. It is therefore hypothesised that advertisement value positively influences media vehicle value perceptions.

The informational value of an advertisement is proposed to positively influence utilitarian and hedonic value derived from the media vehicle and overall perceptions of the website as a service. Information and entertainment seeking are main drivers of website use (Stafford, Stafford et al. 2004), and as such utilitarian and hedonic value derived from a website are important factors that determine satisfaction and intention to revisit a website (Ko, Cho et al. 2005). In addition to utilitarian and hedonic value derived, this research also examines the influence of advertisement value on perceptions of the website as a service. The construct of service value encompasses consumer perceptions that value derived from a website is worth the time or effort invested, and compares favourably to other websites,

which provides an understanding of how consumers perceive the website as a whole (Ruiz, Gremler et al. 2008).

Advertisements with relevant information have informational value and are less likely to be perceived as intrusive (Edwards, Li et al. 2002) and a hindrance to search behaviour. More importantly, an advertisement can act as an additional source of information within a webpage, fulfilling consumer informational needs (Ducoffe 1996, Janiszewski 1998). The informational value of an advertisement is also proposed to affect hedonic value derived from a website as enjoyment of the content consumption process is increased when advertisements are not perceived as pointless distractions (Cho and Cheon 2004). Advertisements also prevent habituation during the content consumption process, increasing consumer enjoyment (Nelson, Meyvis et al. 2009), and an informative advertisement is hypothesised to do so without the disutility and negativity associated with an irritating advertisement. Thus, the first hypothesis addresses the information value component of advertisement value:

H1a: Advertisement information value positively influences overall perceptions of the website as a service (H1a1), including utilitarian value (H1a2) and hedonic value (H1a3).

The entertainment value of an advertisement is proposed to positively influence consumer enjoyment of a website, characterised by the outcomes of hedonic value and positive overall service value. As discussed in Chapter Two, flow state is important for consumers seeking escapism and enjoyment in the online environment (Koufaris 2002). However, advertising disrupts the online experience and prevents consumers from achieving flow state (Rettie 2001, Korgaonkar and Wolin 2002). An entertaining advertisement may be less disruptive by acting as an additional source of entertainment and a positive distraction,

facilitating consumer flow achievement. The second hypothesis concerns the entertainment component of advertisement value:

H1b: Advertisement entertainment value positively influences overall perceptions of the website as a service (H1b1), including utilitarian value (H1b2) and hedonic value (H1b3).

The last component of advertisement value, level of irritation, has been shown by a number of researchers to negatively influence consumer perceptions of a media vehicle (c.f. Edwards, Li et al. 2002, McCoy, Everard et al. 2008). Perceptions of advertising intrusiveness are considered analogous to the level of irritation caused by advertisements, and intrusive advertisements have a detrimental effect on consumer enjoyment and perceptions of the content and media vehicle (Truong and Simmons 2010, Goodrich, Schiller et al. 2015). Irritating advertisements can distract and disrupt information processing (Speck and Elliott 1997), preventing consumers from achieving flow state and thereby reducing hedonic value (Van Noort, Voorveld et al. 2012). As a proposed component of advertisement value (Ducoffe 1995), albeit a negative element, this research examines the influence of advertisement irritation on value perceptions of the media vehicle, as expressed in the following hypothesis:

H1c: Advertisement irritation negatively influences overall perceptions of the website as a service (H1c1), including utilitarian value (H1c2) and hedonic value (H1c3)

3.3 Advertising Exchange Value Perceptions

Consumers in the online environment have a predominant "free mentality", with the perspective that content at no monetary cost is abundant and easily accessible to them (Dou 2004). Instead of financial cost, attention to advertising is the primary form of currency in the online communication environment (Davenport and Beck 2013). This is reflected in

consumer acceptance of targeted advertising as an alternative form of voluntary payment to a website for benefits received (Schumann, von Wangenheim et al. 2014). While the implicit exchange between consumers and advertisers may be a core part of the current media environment, there is limited work exploring how consumer perceptions of the fairness of exchange influences value derived from the media vehicle.

The concept of advertising exchange value (AEX) was introduced by Logan (2013) to explore consumer perceptions of the fairness of exchange between consumer and advertiser in the content provision environment. Based on the theory of exchange (Bagozzi 1975), consumers evaluate the value received in access to content in relation to value received by the advertiser. Consumer satisfaction with the exchange positively influences receptivity of advertising within the medium (Logan 2013). Advertisement value is hypothesised to positively influence AEX as valuable advertising signals greater effort on the part of the advertiser (Ambler and Hollier 2004), while simultaneously being perceived as less of a disutility by consumers.

It is hypothesised that the perceived fairness of exchange, as captured by AEX, influences consumer perceptions of the media vehicle. Drawing from literature on consumer purchasing, the fairness of an exchange positively influences consumer satisfaction and value derived in a shopping scenario (Darke and Dahl 2003). Similarly, price fairness positively influences perceptions of a retailer or service provider, resulting in increased loyalty in the offline (Chiao 2001, Xia, Monroe et al. 2004) and online shopping environments (Chiu, Lin et al. 2009). Thus, it is hypothesised that fairness of exchange between consumers and advertisers, captured as AEX, influences consumer perceptions of value derived from the media vehicle, functioning in a similar fashion to price fairness.

The perceived fairness of exchange is hypothesised to mediate the relationship between advertisement value and media vehicle perceptions. The AEX construct captures consumer assessment of whether the exchange between themselves and advertisers is of equal or unequal value in a specific medium (Logan 2013), and advertiser effort plays a role in perceptions of fairness. This research hypothesizes that valuable advertising can contribute to perceptions of a fairer exchange. Part of the effect that valuable advertising may have on perceptions of the media vehicle is hypothesised to be an indirect effect through an increase in perceived fairness. Three hypotheses related advertising exchange value are presented below:

H2a: Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement informational value and overall perceptions of the website as a service (H2a1), utilitarian value (H2a2) and hedonic value (H2a3).

H2b: Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and overall perceptions of the website as a service (H2b1), utilitarian value (H2b2) and hedonic value (H2b3).

H2c: Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between the level of advertisement irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service (H2c1), utilitarian value (H2c2) and hedonic value (H2c3).

3.4 Cognitive Effort and Media Vehicle Perceptions

During content consumption, advertisements in a webpage act as additional stimuli that demand cognitive attention from consumers (Burke, Hornof et al. 2005, Van Reijmersdal, Rozendaal et al. 2012). (Burke, Hornof et al. 2005, Van Reijmersdal, Rozendaal et al. 2012)Indeed, even advertisements which are not fixated upon influence consumer content

consumption (Burke, Hornof et al. 2005). Research on the cognitive cost of advertising has shown that stress placed on the limited cognitive capacity of individuals can have negative outcomes such as irritation, reduced ability to recall content or website abandonment (Goldstein, Suri et al. 2014). Attention is a scarce resource that marketers seek to capture in the online environment (Davenport and Beck 2013) and attention scarcity is exacerbated by advertising that serves as an irrelevant distraction (Brajnik and Gabrielli 2010). In turn, the cognitive effort required in website use during the content consumption process has been linked to website usability and acts as a direct influence on consumer satisfaction with the media vehicle (Flavián, Guinalíu et al. 2006).

This research adopts the perspective that consumer value is defined by benefits and sacrifices of the exchange process (Zeithaml 1988, Gummerus 2013). Cognitive effort has been conceptualised as a sacrifice in the exchange relationship and an increased level of effort required in the content consumption process negatively influences perceived value derived from a website (Zins, Dolnicar et al. 2012, Mohd-Any, Winklhofer et al. 2014). While the effects of advertisement value on cognitive effort have not been directly examined in the literature, the consequences of advertisement value provide a foundation for the hypothesis of this research that advertisement value can reduce cognitive effort required in website use. For example, informational value provided by an advertisement can facilitate consumer search efforts (Ducoffe 1996, Schmidt and Spreng 1996), thus reducing overall effort required in the information search process. Similarly, an entertaining advertisement can provide enjoyment to consumers (Brown, Bhadury et al. 2010), facilitating the escapism process.

A reduction of cognitive effort during content consumption positively influences perceived value of the media vehicle. In accordance with reactance theory, individuals naturally seek

to reduce cognitive load as much as possible (Brehm and Brehm 1987). As advertising value facilitates the content consumption process, the amount of cognitive resources consumed may be reduced, which in turn results in a more positive attitude towards perceived value of a website (Kleijnen, De Ruyter et al. 2007). The influence of advertisement value on media vehicle value perceptions is therefore hypothesised to be indirectly due to a reduction in cognitive stress. The hypotheses related to cognitive effort and advertisement value are listed as follows:

H3a: Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement information value and overall perceptions of the website as a service (H3a1), utilitarian value (H3a2) and hedonic value (H3a3).

H3b: Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and overall perceptions of the website as a service (H3b1), utilitarian value (H3b2) and hedonic value (H3b3).

H3c: Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service (H3c1), utilitarian value (H3c2) and hedonic value (H3c3).

3.5 Advertising Interactivity

Interactivity, one of the more popular topics in the field of internet research, is a defining feature of the medium as compared to more traditional formats (Kim and McMillan 2008). In terms of advertising, interactivity on the internet allows for consumers to actively participate by controlling messages, amount of information, and order of presentation in accordance with their needs and preferences (Hoffman and Novak 1996). This research contributes to better understanding of consumer interaction with messages presented and

the human-message interaction as opposed to human-human interaction (Ko, Cho et al. 2005) by exploring how advertisement interactivity influences consumer perceptions of advertisement value. More specifically, this study employs a full-screen interactive takeover format of a high impact advertisement covering a large portion of the webpage with interactive functionality (Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014). High impact formats allow consumers to actively engage with the advertisement, for example rearranging elements or selecting a topic or product of interest, and are increasingly being adopted by advertisers as well as beginning to attract attention from academics (eg Baron, Brouwer et al. 2014). This research contributes improved understanding of how level of interactivity influences consumer perceptions of advertising value.

While advertisement interactivity has been shown to influence behavioural outcomes, such as click-throughs (Rosenkrans 2010), few researchers have explored how interactivity influences perceptions of advertisement value. Interactivity is a defining feature of the online environment (Ha and James 1998) which influences consumer perceptions of websites. Interactive websites are perceived to be more effective and efficient as consumers derive greater satisfaction and value from use (Teo, Oh et al. 2003). Similarly, initial research into interactive advertising indicates positive findings. Consumers have a positive attitude towards interactive advertisements (Cova and Saucet 2014) as they are perceived more enjoyable and entertaining (Jung, Min et al. 2011). Jung et. al's (2011) study provides an important foundation for this study by demonstrating that interactivity influences entertainment value of an advertisement. However, different treatment groups in Jung et. al's study were presented with differing advertisement formats in different contexts which could have influenced results. Therefore, this research explores the specific influence of interactivity on perceived entertainment value while holding constant other variables such as presentation context.

This research extends extant research on the relevance of interactivity for advertising value by empirically investigating the influence of interactivity on perceived informational value. Interactivity creates cognitively involving experiences through active consumer control, facilitated by two-way communication (Liu and Shrum 2002). Indeed, interactivity increases cognitive elaboration and in doing so enhances information transfer and learning (Tremayne and Dunwoody 2001). This increased level of information processing due to interactivity is hypothesised to positively influence perceived informational value derived from advertising. Interactivity is also argued to positively influence the entertainment value of an advertisement due to the novelty of the format (Berlyne 1970) as well as through engaging consumers in the process (Teixeira, Wedel et al. 2012). As a whole, consumers have a more positive attitude towards interactive advertising (Campbell, Wright et al. 2010) and interactivity is therefore hypothesised to reduce the level of irritation caused by an advertisement. The following hypotheses are related to advertising interactivity and advertisement value:

H4a: Advertising interactivity positively influences informational value of an advertisement.

H4b: Advertising interactivity positively influences entertainment value of an advertisement.

H4c: Advertising interactivity negatively influences level of irritation with an advertisement.

3.6 Advertisement Execution Quality

The execution quality of an advertisement acts as a signal to consumers in the communications environment, influencing perceptions of an advertisement and brand

(Kirmani and Rao 2000, Ambler and Hollier 2004). Consumers perceive high quality of an advertisement as a cue for a better product, as advertisers are judged to have invested more effort and expense in advertisement production (Modig, Dahlén et al. 2014). Consequently, execution quality of an advertisement positively affects persuasiveness, with brand quality acting as a mediator (Ambler and Hollier 2004). Advertisement quality has also been demonstrated to influence advertising value (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013), however the effects on individual components of advertisement value have not been examined in the literature to date.

In order to contribute towards a better understanding of how visual quality of an advertisement influences perceptions of advertisement informational and entertainment value, this research draws from literature on website appeal and attractiveness. Studies examining perceived credibility of websites have shown that aesthetic design quality of a webpage positively influences perceptions of the information presented, for example perceived trustworthiness, as quality acts as a visual cue used to judge a website (Cugelman, Thelwall et al. 2009, Lindgaard, Dudek et al. 2011). In line with these findings, the visual quality of an advertisement is hypothesised to influence consumer perceptions of informational value. An advertisement with high visual quality is argued to be better received by consumers as the execution quality acts as a cue for the information being presented.

The visual quality of an advertisement is also hypothesised to positively influence advertisement entertainment value. Website design research indicates that aesthetics of a webpage have a positive effect on consumer enjoyment (Cai and Xu 2007). Visual quality adds hedonic value to products and stores in the online shopping environment (Im, Lennon et al. 2010), as the positive affect experienced while visually attending to a stimulus can

evoke favourable assessments (Schwarz 1990, Mosteller, Donthu et al. 2014). Similarly, execution quality of an advertisement can positively influence perceived entertainment value due to its aesthetic appeal. In line with this, execution quality of an advertisement is hypothesised to reduce consumer irritation, as more positive assessments are evoked. Thus, the hypotheses related to execution quality and advertisement value are:

H4a: Advertising execution quality positively influences informational value of an advertisement.

H4b: Advertising execution quality positively influences entertainment value of an advertisement.

H4c: Advertising execution quality negatively influences level of irritation with an advertisement.

3.7 Conceptual Model and Summary of Hypotheses

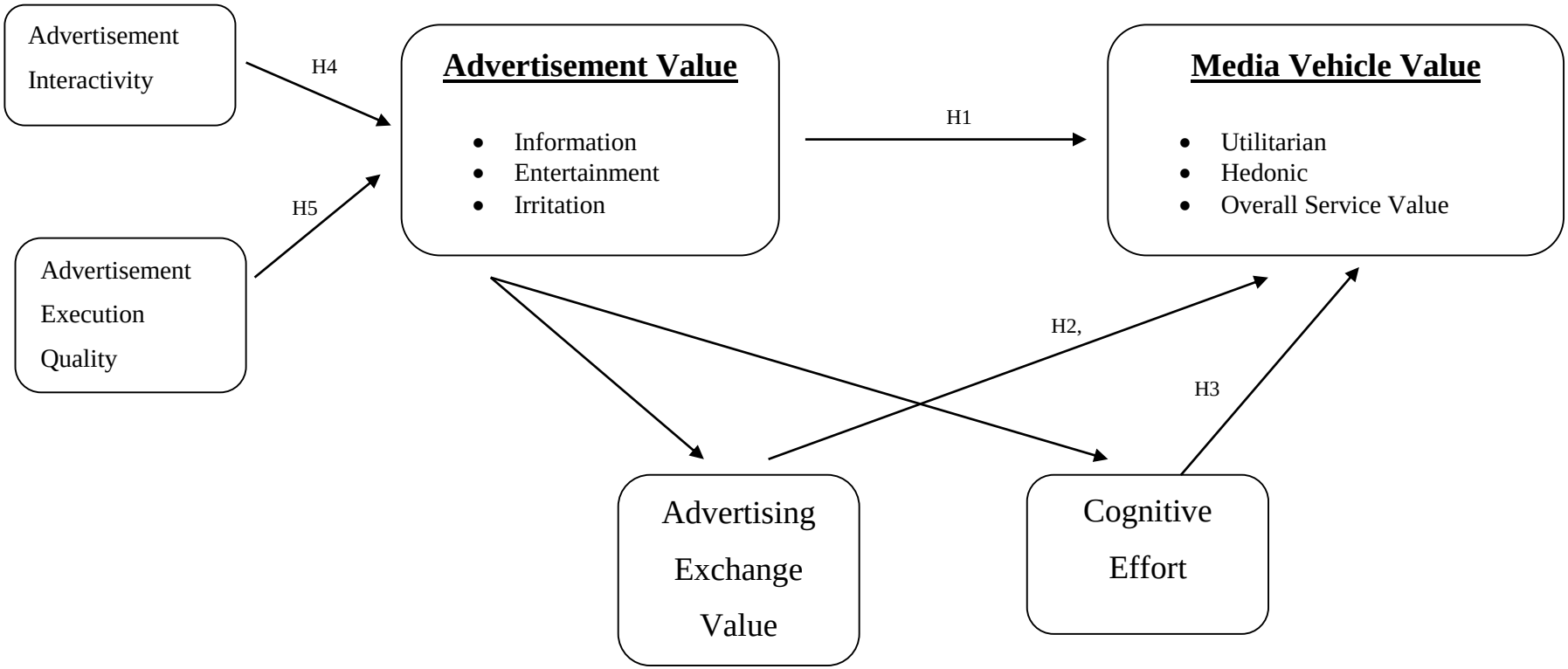


Table 3.1: List of hypotheses	
H#	**Hypothesis**
H1a1	Advertisement information value positively influences overall perceptions of the website as a service.
H1a2	Advertisement information value positively influences utilitarian value derived from the website.
H1a3	Advertisement information value positively influences hedonic value derived from the website.
H1b1	Advertisement entertainment value positively influences overall perceptions of the website as a service.
H1b2	Advertisement entertainment value positively influences utilitarian value derived from the website.
H1b3	Advertisement entertainment value positively influences hedonic value derived from the website.
H1c1	Advertisement irritation negatively influences overall perception of the website as a service.
H1c2	Advertisement irritation negatively influences utilitarian value derived from the website.
H1c3	Advertisement irritation negatively influences hedonic value derived from the website.
H2a1	Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement information value and overall perceptions of the website as a service.
H2a2	Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement information value and utilitarian value.
H2a3	Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement information value and hedonic value.
H2b1	Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and overall perceptions of the website as a service.
H2b2	Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and utilitarian value.
H2b3	Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and hedonic value.
H2c1	Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service.
H2c2	Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement irritation and utilitarian value.
H2c3	Advertising exchange value mediates the relationship between advertisement irritation and hedonic value.
H3a1	Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement information value and overall perceptions of the website as a service.
H3a2	Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement information value and utilitarian value.
H3a3	Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement information value and hedonic value.
H3b1	Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and overall perceptions of the website as a service.
H3b2	Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and utilitarian value.

H3b3	Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and hedonic value.
H3c1	Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service.
H3c2	Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement irritation and utilitarian value.
H3c3	Cognitive effort mediates the relationship between advertisement irritation and hedonic value.
H4a	Advertisement interactivity positively influences information value of an advertisement.
H4b	Advertisement interactivity positively influences entertainment value of an advertisement.
H4c	Advertisement interactivity negatively influences level of irritation with an advertisement.
H5a	Advertisement execution quality positively influences informational value of an advertisement.
H5b	Advertisement execution quality positively influences entertainment value of an advertisement.
H5c	Advertisement execution quality negatively influences level of irritation with an advertisement.

3.8 Summary and Conclusion

This chapter presented the hypotheses and conceptual model developed to examine the effects of advertisement value on perceptions of the media vehicle. The three individual components of advertisement value of interest are informational value, entertainment value and level of irritation caused. With current literature primarily focussing on the negative consequences of advertising on media vehicle perceptions (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013), this research explores how value derived from a website can be positively influenced by individual components of advertisement value. The informational and entertainment value of an advertisement are hypothesised to positively influence consumer perceptions of the utilitarian and hedonic value derived from the media vehicle, as well as resulting in a more positive overall perception of the website as a service provided.

This chapter introduced two constructs as mediating variables of the influence that advertisement value can have on perceptions of the media vehicle. As consumers indirectly

pay for content access by allowing exposure to advertising, the exchange relationship between themselves and the advertiser is examined as a mediating variables, captured by the AEX construct. Valuable advertising is hypothesised to indirectly influence consumer perceptions of the media vehicle through the perception of a fair exchange between consumer and advertiser. Similarly, the role of cognitive effort was presented as a theoretical mechanism that influences the effect of advertisement on the media vehicle. Valuable advertising is hypothesised to facilitate website use and result in greater value derived by the consumer. The interactivity and visual quality of an advertisement as a driver of advertisement value was also presented.

The following chapter discusses methodology used in the first study to address the formulated hypotheses. Research design is presented, including the experiment and questionnaire design, along with the sampling method employed. Respondent demographics are detailed, as well as results from preliminary analysis of the measurement model.

CHAPTER 4 Phase One – Method

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the approach used to collect data and test hypotheses detailed in Chapter Three. While two stages of data collection were conducted throughout the course of this research, this chapter focuses on the experiment used in the first data collection stage. The research design is presented, followed by a description of the data collection method employed. Specifically, the steps taken in creating and pre-testing experiment stimuli are discussed, followed by the measurement instrument and questionnaire design. The operationalisation of constructs and measurement scales used is also presented, as well as sampling and data collection. The latter part of the chapter examines the data collected, beginning with steps taken in data cleaning. Respondent profiles are outlined, and lastly the measurement model is presented, including analyses conducted to determine reliability and validity of indicators and constructs in the measurement model.

4.2 Research Design

Two primary research paradigms, positivism and interpretivism, stem from an extensive debate in social sciences on research philosophy starting in the early 1980s (Hunt 1991). This debate was driven by differing perspectives on ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions, and the researcher's role in scientific inquiry. A positivist approach is adopted for this research, in which reality is viewed as objective and singular, or separate from the researcher (Chouliaraki and Fairclough 1999). Perceiving reality as a concrete structure from the positivist perspective means that it is apprehensible and objectively measurable, in contrast to the interpretivist position that the world exists as a projection of human imagination and is therefore dependent on the researcher (Morgan and Smircich 1980).

These differing ontological positions are also reflected in differing epistemological perspectives. The positivist approach adopted for this research positions the researcher as independent from the research, as compared to the interpretivism position of the researcher interacting with it (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Indeed, this research employs a positivist approach by testing hypotheses based on observations of the world, formed through experimental conditions and a-priori theoretical backing (Straub, Boudreau et al. 2004). Specifically, a research question was formulated based on identified gaps in the literature, with an overall focus on examining causal relationships between constructs of interest, primarily advertising value and consumer perceptions of the media vehicle.

A quantitative method is employed in this research, with a focus on statistical models, an approach in line with the positivist research paradigm (Carson, Gilmore et al. 2001). This allows the researchers to remain distanced and independent of the research, enabling greater control for bias, more systematic sampling, and objectivity. In contrast, an interpretivist approach would lead to a closer position to the research, taking a more interactive role with individual subjects, rather than searching for regularities amongst the population.

A criticism of positivism is the claim of being akin to viewing the world via a "one way mirror" (Guba and Lincoln 1994 pg. 110) due to a lack of the researcher's direct involvement with the phenomenon. Conversely, the counter argument is that qualitative research used by interpretivists is inadequate as a scientific method of inquiry (Locke, Spirduso et al. 2013). In order to improve overall reliability of this research and offset biases introduced by any one particular research method, a triangulation approach was employed (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe et al. 2012). Easterby-Smith et al. (1991) present four triangulation categories: theoretical, data, investigator and methodological. Methodological triangulation is a key feature of the mixed methods approach, with both qualitative and quantitative data collection being utilised.

Theoretical triangulation involves a researcher utilising theories or models from other disciplines to explain phenomenon in another situation, and data triangulation includes data collected through different sources or time frames. Finally, investigator triangulation compares data collected by different researchers on the same topic. For this research, theoretical and data triangulation were both employed. To achieve theoretical triangulation, broader cognitive and exchange based theories were applied in the advertising context, while data triangulation was employed through collection of data on two separate occasions, with different respondent pools.

4.3 Online Experimental Design

In order to test for the influence of advertising value on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle, an online experiment was selected. Experiments involve manipulation of independent variables and are an effective way to explore causal relationships between constructs (Perdue and Summers 1986, Shadish, Cook et al. 2002). To test for varying effects resultant from two factors, interactivity and quality, a multi-factorial experiment was selected as it allows for manipulation of multiple independent variables (Neuman 2011). Specifically, a 2 x 2 experiment design was utilised to accommodate the manipulation of advertisement interactivity (interactive and non-interactive) and execution quality (high and low). These manipulations are discussed in greater detail in Section 4.4.2. Respondents were randomly assigned to a treatment group, as randomised experiment design is generally recognised as being the strongest in exploring cause-effect relationships with respect to internal validity as compared to quasi-experiments with no randomisation (Malhotra, Hall et al. 2007, Neuman 2011).

The experiment was conducted online, where respondents were presented with a website which acted as the treatment stimulus and a questionnaire designed to explore perceptions of

the website. An online experiment was chosen for a number of reasons. First and foremost, an online experiment was the logical choice given the web-context of the study. Secondly, online experiments provide access to a wide variety of respondents, including a greater diversity than can be feasibly achieved in a laboratory experiment setting (Reips 2000). Lastly, one of the biggest criticisms of experimental design is that it places the respondent in an unfamiliar environment, which can potentially bias results (Martin 2007). In a web experiment, however, respondents remain in a familiar environment, as the experiment is brought to the subject rather than vice versa (Reips 2000). This allows for a more natural response to stimuli presented (Germine, Nakayama et al. 2012).

In conducting the experiment online and presenting a web questionnaire, responses were automatically recorded and translated into a usable format compatible with common analysis software such as SPSS or SmartPLS. This eliminated the need for a data entry stage, thus reducing the risk of human error in entering results (Schmidt 1997). Researchers have found that data collected from online questionnaires are similar to offline data collection methods (Deutskens, de Jong et al. 2006), especially when socio-demographic factors are controlled for (Schillewaert and Meulemeester 2005, Hines, Douglas et al. 2010). Indeed, both offline and online questionnaires share similar disadvantages, for example a limited ability to include unstructured or open ended questions, restricting the depth of the data collected (Hair, Wolfinbarger et al. 2008). Additionally, the truthfulness of responses cannot be controlled for, as verification is highly impractical. Concerns of using online surveys include the lack of a clear sampling frame and that online users might not be representative of offline users (Fielding and Thomas 2008). These concerns, however, are less relevant to this research as the focus is on website users. Hence, given the advantages, an online data collection method was deemed most appropriate.

4.4 Experiment and Questionnaire Design

Respondents participating in the experiment were sent a direct link to Qualtrics, an online survey platform. Upon clicking through to the survey, respondents were presented with an information page which provided brief background to the research. They were tasked to place themselves in a position where they were going on holiday and were reading a travel blog on Santorini, the destination of choice. At this point, they were directed to a website that had been created specifically for this experiment, which is discussed in greater detail in Section 4.4.1 below. Advertisements to which respondents were exposed were manipulated depending on the treatment group to which they had been randomly assigned. Instructions were provided to browse for a few minutes before proceeding to the next stage, whereby they were presented with the questionnaire, which is discussed in Section 4.4.3. In the information page, respondents were not specifically instructed to focus on the advertising present, but rather that the research was being conducted to explore web-browsing habits. This was done in order to ensure that respondents would behave in a natural manner, rather than possibly having results biased by highlighting the advertising.

4.4.1 Website Design

The website, as shown in Appendix A, was created specifically for this experiment. A professional web designer was contracted to create the website in order to stimulate a realistic web browsing situation. The website consisted of three pages, a "Welcome" page, "Travel Tips", and "Spotlight on the World", and was written in a blog format. Previous research has shown that in the travel context, consumers find blogs to be a trustworthy source as they are not perceived to be biased or have a commercial agenda (Mack, Blose et al. 2008) and are more relatable than traditional website formats (Kelleher and Miller 2006, Pan, MacLaurin et al. 2007). The "Welcome" page acted as a landing page, while the other two pages were

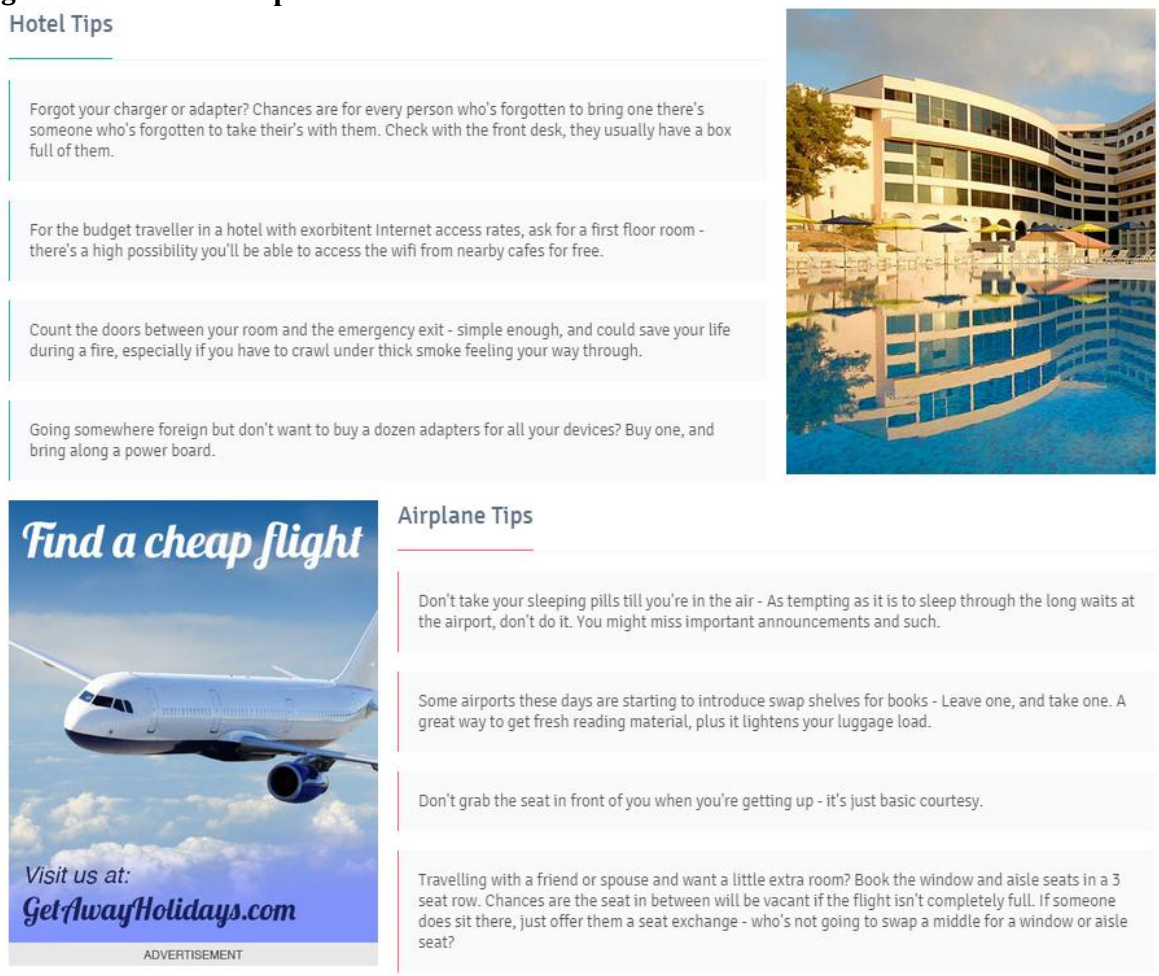
accessible through clickable tabs on the top and presented content such as a trip review, following a common format for blogs (Pan, MacLaurin et al. 2007, Xiang and Gretzel 2010). Respondents were specifically told to browse through all three pages, in order to ensure that they did not only view the "Welcome" page, and that questions would be asked about the content.

The website was designed based on extant online travel research, created to simulate a realistic travel blog. An uncluttered layout was selected to facilitate ease of reading (Lin and Huang 2006), and the first page presented respondents with a brief background of the website and authors (fictitious). Photos of destinations were included in this welcome page as well as on the other two pages, as prior research has shown that travel photographs are the most popular content (Hanna and Millar 1997, Lin and Huang 2006). The first banner advertisement for the target brand "Get Away Holidays" was also presented close to the bottom of the "Welcome" page as this is one of the most common locations within a website for banner advertisements (Hussain, Sweeney et al. 2010). The banner advertisements that were used across the various webpages are presented in Appendix B

The second page that respondents could access via a tab was a "Travel Tips" page. Clicking through to this page opened up an advertisement in a screen-takeover format, which had to be navigated and closed before the content could be accessed (See Appendix C). Respondents in the interactive group had to interact with the advertisement before it could be closed, while the advertisement shown to the non-interactive group played itself out before allowing respondents to close it. Design of the advertisements used is discussed in further detail in Section 4.4.2. After the advertisement was closed, a series of travel tips divided into broad categories of hotel, airplane, and packing tips were presented together on the page. Images of a hotel, plane, and a person packing were inserted next to each section. The image of the

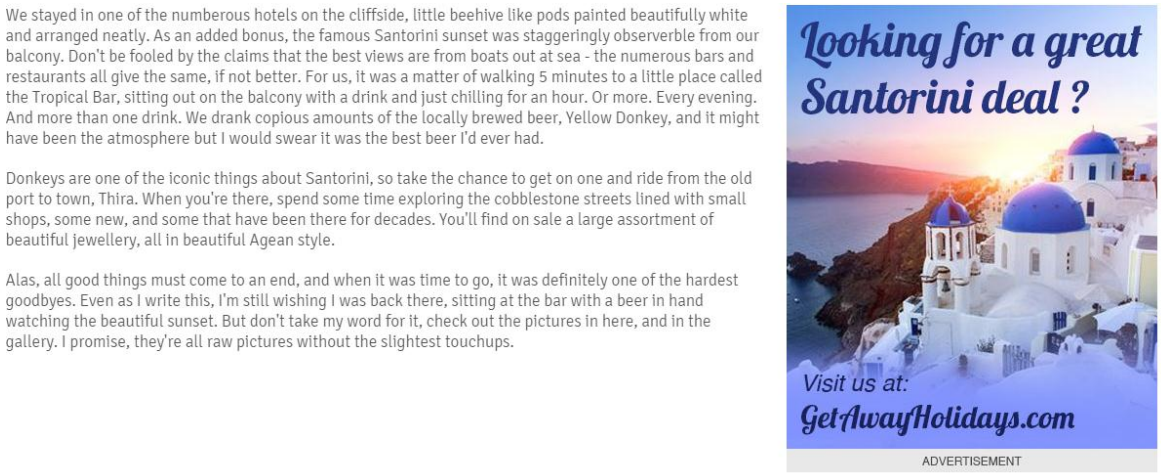
plane acted as a banner advertisement with a simple message and the brand's website, as shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4. 1: "Travel Tips" banner advertisement



Clicking through to the remaining page, "Spotlight on the World", opened up another takeover advertisement, which also had to be navigated before the content could be accessed. The page featured a first-person account of a visit to Santorini, some photos and a slideshow. Similar to the previous page, one of the photos acted as a banner advertisement, as shown in Figure 4.2 below. While the banner advertisements were not the main focus of the experiment, they were included to maintain realism as a majority of websites are expected to host banner advertising (Hussain, Sweeney et al. 2010, Resnick and Albert 2014).

Figure 4. 2: "Spotlight on the World" banner advertisement



As discussed earlier, respondents were instructed to access all three pages as questions would be asked relating to content presented. The instructions were to spend a minimum of three to five minutes on the website, as pre-testing had demonstrated that this was the approximate amount of time required to quickly go through the advertisements and content. This was used as one of the filter criteria in obtaining the final data set, as respondents who had not spent at least three minutes on the website before attempting to proceed were automatically directed to the end of the survey and removed. On average, respondents in the final dataset spent seven minutes on the website, with a median time of four minutes thirty seconds.

4.4.2 Advertisement Design

Literature on advertising avoidance highlights the prevalence of cognitive avoidance strategies subconsciously employed by consumers, leading to no immediate recall of any advertising that may have been present (Walsh 2010, Rejón-Guardia and Martínez-López 2014). Increasing the number of advertisement exposures is an effective way of attracting attention (Cacioppo and Petty 1979, Nordhielm 2002), however too many advertisements results in an overly cluttered website and leads to website abandonment (Ha and McCann 2008). In the case of this data collection, had there been too many advertisements the number of non-completes would have been higher as respondents abandon the experiment. As such, a

balance regarding the number of advertisements that each respondent saw had to be achieved in website design.

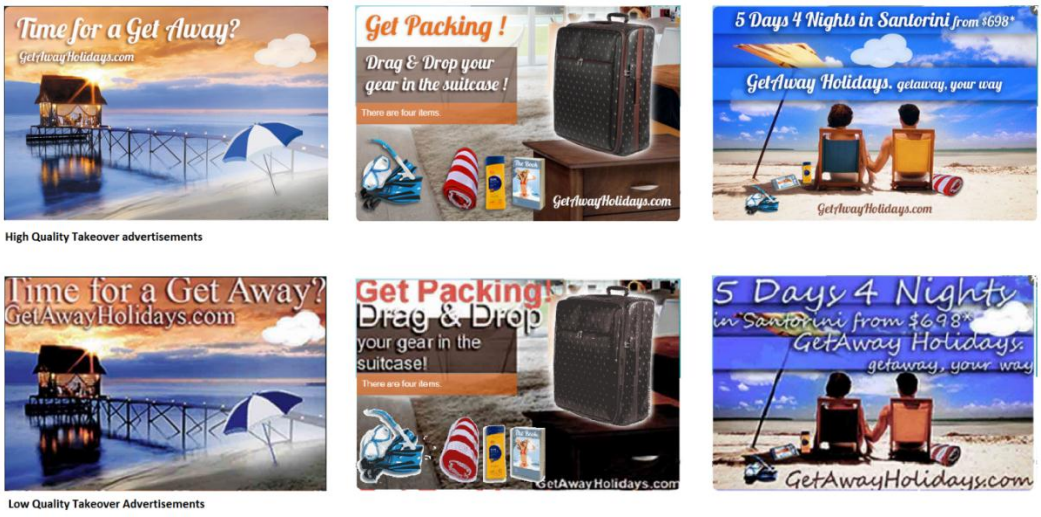
Each respondent was presented with three banner advertisements in total, as one per page was deemed appropriate and reflective of common website formats (Hussain, Sweeney et al. 2010, Laczniak 2015). A varied-execution strategy was employed, which involved elements such as images used in banners differing between copies as this has been shown to be more effective in capturing attention and increasing recall (Yaveroglu and Donthu 2008). In addition, two screen-takeover advertisements were presented to respondents. The screen-takeover advertisements were presented each time respondents transitioned to a different page within the website, as advertising that deploys between pages is received more positively by consumers as opposed to a mid-page delivery (McCoy, Everard et al. 2008). Respondents therefore had multiple opportunities to view the screen-takeover advertisements, however frustration with intrusiveness was minimised to ensure respondents did not exit the survey. Quality manipulations were conducted on both the banner and screen-takeover advertisements, while interactivity was only included in the latter. The following sections discuss the steps taken to differentiate the advertisements for different treatment groups.

Visual quality manipulation

In order to create a difference in advertisement quality, the high quality copy was technically degraded to create a low quality variant using a procedure that has been employed by researchers such as Ambler and Hollier (2004). The desired effect was achieved by first changing colour saturation and increasing the graininess of the advertisements, producing less aesthetically pleasing images. In addition, font was also manipulated for the low quality advertisements. Firstly, inconsistent typefaces (font types and sizes) were introduced, which has been shown to reduce overall cohesiveness of the advertisement and make it feel

unbalanced (McCarthy and Mothersbaugh 2002). The spacing of the text was also reduced to increase perception of clutter, which has been shown to negatively affect perceptions of an advertisement (Finn 1988, also see McCarthy and Mothersbaugh 2002). An example of the difference in advertisement quality is presented in Figure 4. 3. Prior to use, these images were pre-tested and respondents were clearly able to differentiate between the different sets of advertisements. Twenty-five respondents rated the advertisements on perceived execution quality, with the average score of the high quality copy 6.1 and the average for the low quality version 2.6. Pairwise comparison was found to be significant ($p < .01$).

Figure 4. 3: Advertisement visual quality manipulations



Advertisement Interactivity manipulation

Each respondent was presented with two different screen-takeover advertisements, which were the focus of interactivity manipulations. Four versions of the screen-takeover advertisements were created, of which two included interactive elements and two did not. These four advertisements were subsequently subjected to quality manipulations, as detailed previously, bringing the total number of screen-takeovers used to eight.

The first screen-takeover that respondents were presented with had three frames, as shown earlier in Figure 4. 3. The interactive element was embedded within the second frame for the

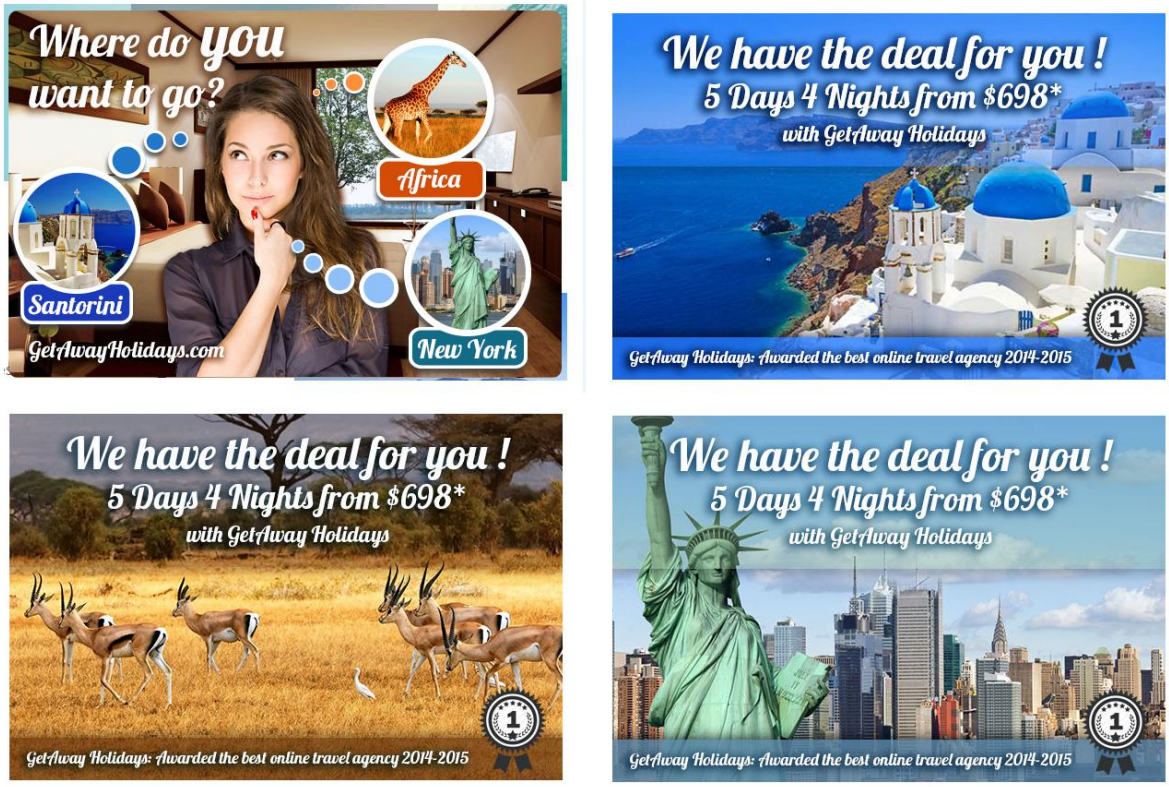
interactive treatment group. As shown in Figure 4.4 below, respondents in the interactive treatment group were required to drag and drop four items into a suitcase before the final advertisement frame was displayed and the advertisement could be closed by the respondent. Respondents in the non-interactive group were presented with an image of an already packed suitcase, which automatically transitioned to the final frame after four seconds.

Figure 4. 4: First screen-takeover advertisement

The second screen-takeover advertisement was created with two frames, of which the interactive element was embedded within the first frame. For the interactive treatment, respondents were instructed to click on a destination, given a choice of Santorini, Africa or New York. The second frame displayed differed based on the choice they had made and was presented as soon as they clicked on a destination. As presented in Figure 4.5, the text for the second frame was kept consistent throughout, with only a change in image used which corresponded with the destination selected in frame one. The advertisement for the non-interactive treatment group automatically transitioned between frames after a four second delay to the frame with the Santorini image. Similar to quality manipulations, the advertisements were pre-tested with clear results between the two different presentations. Twenty-five respondents rated interactivity of the advertisements based on the perceived interactivity scale developed by McMillian and Hwang (2002). Results showed an average

score for the high interactive advertisements of 6.4, as compared to 3.1 for the non-interactive treatment, with a significant pairwise comparison ($p < .01$).

Figure 4. 5: Second screen-takeover advertisement



4.4.3 Questionnaire design and operationalisation of constructs

The questionnaire was developed on Qualtrics, a web-based survey platform. Design of the questionnaire was completed through a web interface which facilitated easy manipulation of elements, such as question wording, typeset and response format. This allowed immediate assessment of the look and feel of the survey as respondents would see it and incorporation of visual elements, such as progress bars, which guided respondents through the survey and encouraged completion (Couper, Traugott et al. 2001). Respondents who agreed to participate were first presented with an information sheet, randomly assigned one of the four treatment website links and instructed to browse for at least three to five minutes. Subsequently, they were presented with the scale items that measured the constructs of interest in this study.

Existing measures were used for all constructs of interest, drawing from pre-established scales. For constructs that had multiple existing scales in current literature, for example elements of consumer value, the most appropriate and widely used scales were selected in order to maintain comparability with prior studies. Some scales were modified slightly to suit the research context and ensure linguistic flow. However, care was taken to maintain the original purpose and meaning (Clark and Watson 1995).

The main constructs of interest in this study are advertising value, consumer perceived value from the media vehicle, perceived cognitive effort required and advertisement exchange value. Constructs were measured using multi-item indicators to minimise issues commonly linked to single item measurement (Malhotra, Hall et al. 2007). In particular, multi-item measures are critical for the use of structural equation modelling, the method of analysis for this study (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). Multi-item scales enhance reliability, minimising measurement error while simultaneously increasing specificity of the composite construct measurement through each individual item (Churchill Jr 1979).

Consistent with extant studies, a seven point Likert scale response format was utilised as it provides sufficient range for varying responses (Dawes 2008). Some items were worded in reverse which, in addition to the abovementioned filter questions, reduces systematic response bias (Churchill Jr 1979, Baumgartner and Steenkamp 2006). These questions were subsequently recoded in the data cleaning phase to ensure consistency across measurement scales. A copy of the full questionnaire used is included in Appendix D.

Advertising value

Advertising value and its operational scale was first introduced by Ducoffe (1995) to explore consumer reactions to an advertisement. Elements of advertisement value were proposed based on consumer perceptions of how informative, entertaining, or irritating an

advertisement was (Ducoffe 1995). The scale was subsequently modified and tested in the online environment where it was found to be internally consistent and reliable (Ducoffe 1996). As the items were already designed for use in the online context, no changes were made to the scale for the purpose of this study.

Media vehicle value

Empirical research on consumer value to date has mainly examined perceptions at the dimensional level (Sweeney and N. 2001, Gallarza and Gil Saura 2006). A consensus has not been achieved regarding a mutually exhaustive set of dimensions (Bradley and Sparks 2012, Walsh, Shiu et al. 2014) which could be due to the phenomenological nature of value (Vargo and Lusch 2008). Nevertheless, an examination of literature demonstrates that across a number of scales and studies in the online environment, two core dimensions are present consistently, namely utilitarian and hedonic value (Ko, Cho et al. 2005).

The utilitarian value a consumer derives from a consumption activity refers to the acquisition of tangible or intangible benefits, such as products or information, and is often viewed as a task oriented, cognitive and non-emotional (Babin, Darden et al. 1994, Jones, Reynolds et al. 2006). While many studies explore the notion of utilitarian value in a variety of contexts, such as shopping online (Childers, Carr et al. 2002), interactivity of websites (Wu, Wang et al. 2013) or mobile services (Sigala 2006), standardised scales are lacking. This could be due to the variable nature of the utilitarian value construct which is not only subjective, but situation specific.

Sigala (2006) explores the utilitarian value derived by consumers in the mobile service context as ‘functional-convenience value’, conceptualised as a function of task fulfilment through effective service delivery. As this fits with the context of content consumption

online, Sigala's (2006) scale items were modified for use in this research, in line also with Mohd-Any et al.'s (2014) work on consumer use of e-travel services.

Hedonic value has been described as the emotional worth of consumption, derived from experiential benefits, such as escapism and entertainment (Babin, Darden et al. 1994, Overby and Lee 2006). Hedonic value is recognised as an important part of the consumption process in a number of contexts, such as online shopping (Babin, Darden et al. 1994), tangible product consumption (Chitturi, Raghunathan et al. 2008) or mobile service consumption (Sigala 2006, Kim, Chan et al. 2007). This research adopted, and slightly modified, the scale utilised by Agarwal and Karahannal (Agarwal and Karahanna 2000) who explored user interaction with technology, in particular engagement with the internet. Their conceptualisation explored hedonic value as the intrinsic and affective benefits that a consumer derives through direct interaction with a website, in line with the focus of this research on consumer perceptions of the content consumption experience.

Overall service value

The overall value of a service can be seen as a retrospective assessment of benefits derived weighed up against sacrifices made in terms of time, money or effort (Ruiz, Gremler et al. 2008). A global measure of service value was included in the study in order to provide a general overview of consumer perceptions of the value derived from a website. Similar to work by Ruiz et al (2008), a reflective service value construct was utilised for this purpose, with wording modifications for the context.

Advertising exchange value

Advertising exchange value (AEX) refers to the "consumer's assessment of the fairness of exchange between advertisers and consumers in a specific medium" (Logan 2013 p. 7). Consumers perceive the presentation of advertising as part of a trade-off in exchange for

content, an exchange of cognitive resources through attention to advertising for the desired information or entertainment. This research adopts the advertising exchange value scale developed by Logan (2013) which consists of five scale items based on questions used in professional tracking surveys. The scale was built around questions regarding perceived mutual value derived by both consumer and advertiser, or content provider. Logan (2013) tested the scale in the context of television and online television, however this research is the first time the scale will be tested in a web-browsing situation.

Cognitive effort

Several scales have been used to operationalise a user's cognitive effort required in technology use, stemming from the complexity of technology, ease of use, and acceptance (Davis 1985, Rodgers and Chen 2002). The cognitive effort construct captures the negativity associated with technology usage, for example the energy and effort required in understanding how to use a piece of technology or technology-based services such as websites. Aside from "cognitive effort", conceptualised by authors such as Kleijnen et al (2007), researchers have also addressed cognitive effort with terminology such as "complexity" (Meuter, Bitner et al. 2005) and ease of use (Dabholkar and Bagozzi 2002). Four items were chosen for use in this research, drawing from the works of Metuer et al (2005), Kleijnen et al (2007) and Dabholkar and Bagozzi (2002), as these scales had many items that overlapped.

In summary, measurement scales were carefully selected to accurately represent the constructs of interest, while at the same time maintaining a manageable questionnaire length for respondents to minimise frustration (Hair, Wolfinbarger et al. 2008). The constructs and items used are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4. 1: Measurement of constructs	
Scale (Reference)	**Final measure**
Advertising Value (Ducoffe 1996)	The advertisements you saw on the website:
Informativeness	Provides timely information on products or services.
	Tells people about the products or services when they need the information.
	Supplies relevant information.
	Are a good source of up-to-date product information.
	Makes product information immediately accessible.
	Are a convenient source of product information.
	Supplies complete product information.
Entertainment	Are entertaining.
	Are enjoyable.
	Are pleasing
	Are fun to use.
	Are exciting.
Irritation	Are irritating.
	Insults people's intelligence.
	There is too much advertising.
	The advertisements are deceptive.
	The advertisements are confusing.
Media Vehicle Value	
Utilitarian Value (Sigala 2006)	The website enabled me to accomplish my task quickly.
	The website enhances my task effectiveness.
	The website makes it easier for me to do tasks.
Hedonic Value (Agarwal and Karahannal 2000)	I had fun interacting with the website.
	Using the website provided me with a lot of enjoyment.
	I enjoyed browsing the website.
	The website was boring (RC).
Overall Service Value (Ruiz et al. 2008)	The value I receive from this websites services is worth the time, effort or money I have invested
	I am happy with the price of, or effort required for this websites services.
	The value of this website's services compares favourably to other websites.
	This website makes me feel like it's worth my time.
	This website offers good value for what I give up.
Advertising Exchange Value (AEX) (Logan 2013)	Both parties benefit in proportion to the effort put in.
	The user of the website benefits more than the advertiser.

	Even if the costs and benefits are not evenly shared by the advertiser and user, they'll balance out over time.
	If this site didn't have advertising, I'd have to pay to view the content.
	If a company is making it possible for me to access content, it is fair for them to advertise in it.
Cognitive Effort (Meuter et al. 2005, Kleijnen et al. 2007, Dabholkar and Bagozzi 2002)	The website was difficult to use.
	It takes a lot of effort to understand how to use the website.
	The website is cumbersome to use.
	The website is easy to use (RC).

4.5 Sampling

The population of a study refers to the entire group of interest to the study (Fields 2009), in this case users of free websites with both advertising and content. In today's media environment, this covers a very large portion of individuals (Couper, Traugott et al. 2001). One of the best uses of an online survey is when the research has access to a good sample list, particularly through a market research firm with a proven online panel (Evans and Mathur 2005). A respondent panel was purchased directly from Qualtrics. This eliminated biases introduced from alternative methods, such as convenience sampling, providing a more representative sample. Purchasing a panel also significantly reduced the time frame required to collect an adequate number of respondents.

Incentivised online panels have been popular in social science research due to the relative ease of obtaining responses in a short amount of time (Couper, Traugott et al. 2001, Goritz 2004). These panels consist of panellists who have agreed to receive invitations to participate in research projects (Vocino, Polonsky et al. 2015), usually in return for a small compensation (Göritz, Wolff et al. 2008). Research has shown that while some respondents participate because of these incentives, others participate for altruistic reasons (Tishler and Bartholomae 2003, Kaufmann, Schulze et al. 2011). Buhrmester, Kwang and Gosling (2011)

explored the effects of changing compensation rates, finding that data quality as not affected and data obtained was as reliable as that obtained via traditional methods. Purchasing a panel through Qualtrics was therefore deemed to be the best way of obtaining respondents for the experiment.

A total of 3500 invitations were sent to potential respondents, with 454 responses collected over four days. Data collection was terminated upon reaching an agreed upon number of responses, with 880 potential respondents having opened the invitation during that period. As it is not possible to identify if respondents saw the invitation but chose not to open the email, an accurate response rate cannot be calculated. Of the 880 respondents who opened the invitation, 143 did not attempt to complete the survey, while 283 were not included in the final data set of 454 respondents as they failed to meet one or more of the filter criteria in place. These filter criteria are discussed in detail in Section 4.7.1.

Non-response bias testing was conducted to ensure there were no considerable differences between early and late respondents (Armstrong and Overton 1977). The early response group consisted of respondents who completed the survey within the first day of receiving the invitation (n=133, 29% of usable responses), while the late response group consisted of those who completed it on the last day (n=94, 21%). Independent samples t-test and Levene's test for equality of variances was employed to examine if there was difference (Coakes and Ong 2011). Results indicated that no constructs were significantly different between the early and late response groups ($p > .05$), thus indicating that non-response bias is unlikely.

4.6 Respondent Demographics

Table 4.2 outlines characteristics of respondents that made up the final dataset in Phase One. Both genders were well represented, with 47.8% male and 52.5% female. The data set was skewed towards older respondents, with those aged between 45-49 and 50-60 making up the

biggest groups at 26.2% and 28.9%, respectively. The gender split is representative of the Australian internet user profile, however the age groups are not, as data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics indicates that the older an individual, the less likely they were to be on the internet frequently (ABS 2013). In order to explore this further, a comparison of means and test for quality of variances was conducted to identify differences between various age groups. Both age and gender were not found to have an influence on the mean scores of constructs of interest (p >.05). The different occupational categories were well represented in the sample, with the top seven presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4. 2: Phase One respondent demographics

Variable	Description	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	217	47.8
	Female	237	52.2
Age	18 - 24	28	6.2
	25 - 29	28	6.2
	30 - 34	35	7.7
	35 - 39	27	5.9
	40 - 44	29	6.4
	45 - 49	119	26.2
	50 - 60	131	28.9
	60 +	57	12.6
Income range	No income	16	3.5
	$1 - $10,399	22	4.8
	$10,400 - $15,599	17	3.7
	$15,600 - $20,799	33	7.3
	$20,800 - $31,199	65	14.3
	$31,200 - $41,599	34	7.5
	$41,600 - $51,999	36	7.9
	$52,000 - $64,999	50	11.0
	$65,000 - $77,999	34	7.5
	$78,000 - $103,999	46	10.1
	$104,000 - $129,999	24	5.3
	$130,000 or more	34	7.5
	I'd rather not say.	43	9.5
Occupation	Management: professional or related occupations	50	11.0
	Office or administrative support	60	13.2
	Education, training, or library	44	9.7
	Student	36	7.9
	Personal care or service	32	7.0
	Sales or related occupations	31	6.8

	Management: business or financial operations occupations	19	4.2
Treatment Group	Group 1	100	22.0
	Group 2	100	22.0
	Group 3	101	22.2
	Group 4	153	33.7

4.7 Preliminary Analysis

4.7.1 Data Preparation and Cleaning

As data was collected online, responses were available for immediate download in an SPSS format, eliminating the need for a data entry stage and associated data entry errors. In addition, as it was a purchased panel, all responses were complete with no missing values. Responses which took an extremely short amount of time, under six and a half minutes as determined in pilot testing, were removed from the dataset as this could indicate that the respondent was rushing through with a lack of thought (Meade and Craig 2012). Five responses that took over 18 minutes were flagged for further analysis, as a longer period of time taken to complete could indicate that the respondent was distracted (Meade and Craig 2012). These responses were assessed for inconsistencies in responses with checks for high variance among indicators of individual constructs, as well as low variance amongst indicators for distinct constructs (Meade and Craig 2012). No problems were identified and these responses were retained in the final dataset.

The time taken to complete the survey was one of five filter criteria included in data collection. Respondents who spent less than three minutes on the website itself were filtered out, as this could indicate that they had not browsed the website properly. Prior to website access, participants under the age of 18 were removed, as per ethics guidelines of the university. The device used to access the survey from was also used as a filter criterion. As prior research suggests that consumers browse differently on computers as compared to

mobile devices (Kim, Chan et al. 2007, Cui and Roto 2008), only respondents who were on a laptop or desktop were allowed to proceed, and those on mobile devices were filtered out in order to maintain consistency.

At various stages through the survey a number of questions requiring respondents to give a specific response, for example "Please answer Strongly Agree for this question", were inserted. Respondents who did not answer these questions correctly were removed from the final dataset, which aided in eliminating or at least reducing the likelihood that respondents were simply clicking through the survey. Three of these instructed response items were included as they have been found to be effective in reducing careless responding (Meade and Craig 2012). While these attention checks reduced the number of responses with response patterns and minimal variance, the data was still subsequently assessed for these issues. Two responses were flagged as being potentially problematic in accordance with this criterion and were subsequently removed from the pool (Malhotra 2008). In total, 283 respondents were filtered out of the final dataset for reasons presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Reasons for removing respondents	
Insufficient time spent on website	46
Survey completion time too long	52
Survey completion time too short	17
Under 18 years old	13
Accessing from a mobile device	116
Failed at least one of the “specific response” questions	37
Minimal variance in response	2
Total	283

4.7.2 Common Method Variance

Having removed appropriate respondents from the dataset, an analysis for common method bias was conducted. Common method bias refers to the variance that can be attributed to the measurement method rather than constructs of interest (Fiske 1982). As the data was derived from a common source, there is potential for an artificial correlation between items through a

false internal consistency (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn et al. 2010), which in turn can lead to the erroneous conclusion that relationships exists between constructs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003). In order to reduce the likelihood of common method bias occurring, several procedural and post-hoc remedies recommended by researchers (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003, Chang, Van Witteloostuijn et al. 2010) were adopted for this research discussed below.

Controlling for common method bias

Two procedural remedies were applied during the first phase of data collection, namely reduction of evaluation apprehension and careful selection of scale items. Evaluation apprehension occurs when respondents edit answers to be more socially desirable or consistent with how they think the researcher wants them to answer (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003). In order to obtain more accurate and honest answers, respondents were assured of anonymity at the start of the survey and were not required to provide any personal information that could be used to identify them individually. This was also facilitated by the innate anonymity provided by the online data collection method (Granello 2004). In addition, respondents were assured that there were no right or wrong answers and that they should answer the questions as honestly as possible. Again, this was facilitated by online collection as respondents were not pressured by the presence of a researcher, reducing evaluation apprehension and the likelihood of social desirability or acquiescent biases (Winkler, Kanouse et al. 1982, Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003).

Scale items were carefully worded to reduce ambiguity and simple terminology was used throughout the questionnaire. This aided in respondent comprehension of the questions, along with inclusion of verbal labels of scale points. Bipolar numerical scale values were avoided, which has been suggested to reduce biases, and care was taken to avoid double-barrelled questions (Tourangeau, Rips et al. 2000). In addition to these procedural remedies, two post-

hoc statistical tests were conducted to determine if common method bias was a problem in the data collected.

Post-hoc statistical tests

While the use of procedural remedies can reduce the likelihood of common method variance, it is possible that some common method bias still existed in the data (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003). Two post-hoc statistical tests were applied for this study, namely Harman's single factor test and Liang's unmeasured latent methods construct. Multiple tests were used in conjunction as all techniques have their own limitations and it is common for researchers to assess the effects of common method bias using more than one method (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003, Liang, Saraf et al. 2007).

Harman's single factor test involves loading all items in the study into a factor analysis (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn et al. 2010). The resultant un-rotated factor solution was examined to determine the number of factors required to explain variance in variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003). A single factor that accounts for the majority of covariance amongst measures can indicate the presence of common method bias. According to the un-rotated factor solution, six distinct factors emerged from the 38 items, which accounted for 78% of total variance. The highest loading accounted for 26% of variance and it was concluded that there was no significant evidence of common method bias based on Harman's single factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003).

The unmeasured latent method introduced by Liang et al. (2007) was used to test for common method bias. A latent 'method construct' was generated in SmartPLS which incorporated all individual items used to measure the various constructs of interest. These indicators were simultaneously used to form sub-constructs with single indicators. The PLS algorithm was subsequently run to obtain substantive variances, which is the degree to which each

indicator's variance is explained by the principal construct (Liang, Saraf et al. 2007). An average substantive variance score of .68, with the average variance of the method construct of .023, supports the conclusion that common method bias was unlikely to be a problem in the dataset.

4.7.3 Assumptions for Multivariate Analysis

Before multivariate analysis can be conducted, the normality, homoscedasticity and linearity of the data must be ascertained (Hair 2010). These fundamental assumptions should be considered when selecting analysis method for the structural model.

Normality

As multivariate analysis utilizes the *F* and *t* statistics for model estimation, normality of data is a fundamental assumption that must be considered in selection of an analysis method (Hair 2010). Non-parametric data can result in distortion of the standard error of path coefficients between constructs and test statistic (Krzanowski 2000). The skewness and kurtosis of observed variables can be examined to establish normality of the data (Hair 2010) and a skew index over three and kurtosis over ten indicates severe non-normality (Kline 2010). In addition, as structural equation models are based on variances and covariances, the multivariate kurtosis figure is important for assessment of multivariate normality. As presented in Appendix E, results indicate that while the scores for skewness and kurtosis are well below the critical thresholds of three and ten, the multivariate kurtosis figure is above the desired value of five and therefore the assumption of normality cannot be made (DeCarlo 1997).

Homoscedasticity and linearity

The homoscedasticity, or homogeneity of variance, is the assumption that observed variables exhibit similar variances across a range of values, while linearity similarly explores the

relationship between constructs (Hair 2010). In order to assess homoscedasticity and linearity, SPSS 22 was used to generate a scatterplot of standardised residuals against standardised predicted values, as well as a histogram and normal probability plot of residuals (Hair 2010), as presented in Appendix F. The scatterplot does not reveal a random pattern of dots spread around the zero point indicating a likely issue of heteroscedasticity (Hair 2010). Similar to the assumption of normality, the assumption of homoscedasticity was not met and had to be taken into account during selection of analysis method, which is discussed in the following section.

4.7.4 Selection of Analysis Method

Multivariate analysis involves the application of statistical methods that simultaneously analyse multiple variables, as opposed to univariate and bivariate analysis which examine specific independent relationships (Krzanowski 2000). Two commonly employed multivariate analysis techniques are covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) and variance based partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) (Hair 2010). It is important to view these two methods as complementary rather than competitive (Jöreskog 1970). Two factors should be considered when choosing the method to employ in a study, namely research goals and data characteristics such as sample size and data distribution (Hair, Sarstedt et al. 2012).

CB-SEM is recommended if research objectives are to test and confirm theory, while PLS-SEM is appropriate if objectives are prediction and theory development (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011). More specifically, variance-based PLS-SEM uses data to estimate path relationships in the model, estimating coefficients that maximize variance explained (R^2) of target constructs (Reinartz, Haenlein et al. 2009). As the objective of this research is to explore potential drivers of media vehicle value, such as advertising value, the predictive capability of PLS-

SEM was preferred in order to examine the influence that advertisement value can have on the media vehicle. In addition, data characteristics were taken into account while making the decision to utilize PLS-SEM over CB-SEM.

As compared to CB-SEM, PLS-SEM has the ability to work more efficiently with a wider range of sample sizes and is less restrictive regarding data assumptions (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011). CB-SEM requires all assumptions of multivariate analysis to be met, for example multivariate normality, as the covariance matrix used is maximum-likelihood based (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011). Conversely, PLS-SEM makes no assumptions about data distribution (Cassel, Hackl et al. 1999). The data was not found to have met assumptions of normality and this was taken into account. Similarly, homoscedasticity assumptions failed to be met which impacted the ability to utilize CB-SEM.

A key disadvantage of PLS-SEM in theory testing is lack of a global goodness-of-fit index which is provided in CB-SEM (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011). Therefore, the structural model in this research was assessed based on a number of other indices. The significance of path coefficients between constructs was tested using bootstrapping, with a critical t-value for a two-tailed test set at 1.96 (significance level 5%) (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011). In addition, R^2 values of endogenous latent variables and Q^2 values which indicate predictive relevance were also examined (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). Table 4.2 on the following page presents a summary of the key criteria taken into account in the method selection process.

Table 4.2: Analysis method selection criteria				
Selection Criteria		**Current research**	**Variance based PLS-SEM**	**Covariance based SEM**
Research objectives	Predicting key target constructs or identifying key 'driver' or influencing constructs and theory development	Yes	✓	
	Theory testing, confirmation, or comparison of alternative theories	No	✓	✓
Measurement model	The latent constructs are reflective	Yes	✓	✓
	If error terms require additional specifications such as covariation	No	✓	✓
Structural model	Structural model is complex	No		✓
Data characteristics	Data does not meet the assumptions of minimum sample size	No	✓	✓
	Data does not meet the assumption of multivariate normality	Yes	✓	
	Residuals demonstrate heteroscedasticity	Yes	✓	
	Data meets CB-SEM assumptions exactly with respect to sample sizes and distributional assumptions	No	✓	
Overall model evaluation	A global goodness-of-fit criterion is required	No	✓	✓

4.8 Measurement Model Assessment

The measurement model, also known as the outer model in PLS-SEM, is used to establish latent variables from a set of indicator variables (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). The constructs of interest in this study were all measured reflectively and to evaluate the measurement model it is recommended that an assessment of indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity be conducted (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011).

4.8.1 Indicator Reliability

Indicator reliability, measured through the indicator's outer loadings, represents the amount of variation in an item explained by the latent construct of interest, also known as variance extracted (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). A full table of loadings is presented in Appendix G. Of the 42 items used to measure the nine constructs of interest, 41 exhibited outer loadings of 0.70 or higher, with only two items just under the threshold at 0.573 (AEX 4 – "If the website didn't have advertising, I'd have to pay to view the content.") and 0.690 (AEX 5 – "If a company is making it possible for me to access content, it is fair for them to advertise in it").

Indicators with outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 should be considered for deletion only if deleting this indicator leads to an increase in composite reliability (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011). Deleting these two items (AEX 4 and 5) result in a minor increase in composite reliability from 0.849 to 0.863, which in most circumstances should not warrant their removal. However, these two items were also problematic in the second study, presenting even lower outer loading (refer to Section 6.6.1). The decision was therefore made to remove them from both studies to maintain comparability. In further support of this decision, the original scale by Logan (2013) indicates that these two scale items were included to assess respondent awareness of the monetary value of media content, as compared to the three retained items which addressed mutuality between respondent and advertiser. As the focus of this study is on mutuality in exchange, removal of the two underperforming items was not deemed to impact overall intentions of the AEX construct.

4.8.2 Internal Consistency, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity

The traditional criterion used for assessment of internal consistency is Cronbach's alpha (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). However, this criterion does have limitations and as such it has been argued that the use of composite reliability provides better estimates (Raykov 1997). While

Cronbach's alpha assumes that all indicators are of equal reliability, composite reliability takes into account different outer loadings on indicators, in line with PLS-SEM prioritising indicators according to individual reliability (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). Both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability are generally interpreted in the same way with scores varying between 0 and 1 and values greater than 0.70 desirable (Chin 1998). In order to maintain comparability with existing studies, both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were applied for all latent constructs (Table 4.3). All constructs were found to meet the required critical thresholds of 0.7 or higher, demonstrating high construct reliability.

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which an indicator, or item, correlates with alternative measures of the same construct (Gefen and Straub 2005). In order to establish convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) and outer loadings of indicators, are considered. An AVE value of 0.5 or higher indicates a construct explains more than half the variance of its indicators, greater than the error terms derived (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). All of the latent constructs, as presented in Table 4.5, demonstrate an AVE over the required threshold, and are thus deemed satisfactory.

Table 4.3: Composite reliability, Cronbach's alpha and Average Variance Extracted

Construct	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Advertising Exchange Value	0.863	0.765	0.678
Advertising Entertainment	0.981	0.976	0.913
Advertising Informativeness	0.969	0.963	0.818
Advertising Irritation	0.903	0.866	0.652
Cognitive Effort	0.895	0.849	0.681
Hedonic Value	0.938	0.911	0.793
Utilitarian Value	0.957	0.932	0.880
Overall Perceived Value	0.970	0.962	0.867

Discriminant validity demonstrates the distinctiveness of constructs, empirically showing that they are different from each other (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). Two methods are predominantly used to assess discriminant validity: examination of indicator cross loadings and, more conservatively, the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Fornell and Larcker 1981). However, more recently the hetrotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations method to assessing discriminant validity has been proposed as a superior method, particularly for variance-based SEM (Henseler, Ringle et al. 2015). Henseler et al. (2015) examined the Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loadings in a series of simulations, citing low sensitivity as a problem these authors introduced HTMT criteria. This was derived from the multitrait-multimethod (MTMM) matrix of Campbell and Fiske (1959), drawing on the monotrait-heteromethod and heterotrait-heteromethod correlations and comparing the two.

The HTMT method is of particular importance in the use of variance-based PLS-SEM, as PLS-SEM utilizes composites of indicator variables as substitutes for underlying constructs and therefore requires additional sensitivity in exploring relationships amongst indicators and correlations between latent constructs (Henseler, Dijkstra et al. 2014). To facilitate comparability with previous studies, both the Fornell-Larcker criterion, as a more traditional method, and the HTMT method were conducted. Full tables are presented in Appendix H. All constructs were found to be under a conservative 0.85 level for both the Fornell-Larcker criterion and HTMT method, indicating that the constructs as measured demonstrate discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle et al. 2015).

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter presented research methodology and design utilised in the first phase of data collection. More specifically, details on the data collection instrument, experiment and questionnaire design, as well as measures used, sampling procedure and data analysis

techniques were presented. A measurement model analysis found the data to uphold requirements for indicator reliability and consistency, as well as convergent and discriminant validity, conducted using SmartPLS 3.0. Having satisfied all the requirements of the measurement mode, the following chapter presents results of structural model analysis.

CHAPTER 5 Phase One - Results

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Four discussed the experiment that was used in phase one of the data collection and the analysis of the measurement model. This chapter presents the results of the structural model constructed to address the hypotheses formulated for this research. The chapter begins by discussing the key criteria used in the analysis of the structural model. Subsequently, the direct effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value are presented, followed with the indirect effects with advertisement exchange value, and cognitive effort, as mediators. The chapter concludes with a summary of results and outlines the focus for the second study.

5.2 Structural Model Analysis

The path coefficients between constructs was the primary criteria used in the analysis of the structural model, along with R^2 values and effect sizes in the form of an f^2 value (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). These values were obtained by running the PLS algorithm using SmartPLS 3.0. Bootstrapping was also run to test for path coefficient significance as the basic algorithm uses fixed-point estimation which does not provide a *t*-statistic (Henseler, Ringle et al. 2009). Bootstrapping tests the null hypothesis against the alternative hypothesis by creating bootstrap samples at random based on the data provided, replacing cases from the dataset in order to simulate the population of interest (Henseler, Ringle et al. 2009). In order to confirm results, 5000 bootstrap samples were selected for the final stage of model testing as this number has been deemed sufficient to ensure stability of results (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013).

In addition to the PLS algorithm and bootstrapping, blindfolding was also conducted to obtain cross-validated redundancy measures for each construct. This allowed for the assessment of the predictive relevance of the model (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). Blindfolding repeatedly omits cases from the dataset, estimates the model parameters based off the

remaining cases and predicts based on the removed case values relative to the remaining parameters (Wold 1985, Chin 1997). The resultant Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value is thereby a measure of how well observed values can be reconstructed using the model's parameter estimates (Geisser 1974, Stone 1974, Chin 1998). Q^2 values larger than zero indicate that the "exogenous constructs have predictive relevance for the endogenous construct under consideration" (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011 p. 145).

5.3 Advertising Value and Media Vehicle Value Perceptions

Hypothesis H1 address the influence that advertisement value can have on consumer value perceptions of the media vehicle. The three individual components of advertisement value were explored, specifically the impact of advertisement informativeness, entertainment and irritation on media vehicle value. Dimensions of media vehicle value include the utilitarian and hedonic value derived, as well as the consumer's overall value perception of the media vehicle as a service. It is hypothesised that valuable advertising, characterised by informational and entertainment value and low irritation has a positive impact on value perceptions of the media vehicle.

As presented in Table 5.1, results indicate that the combined effects of advertisement informativeness, entertainment and irritation are together able to account for a significant amount of variance in the components of media vehicle value. The R^2 value for overall service value is the highest at .428, followed by hedonic value and finally utilitarian value, at .379 and .343 respectively. Predictive relevance is also demonstrated, as evidenced by the Q^2 values, all of which were significantly above zero.

Table 5.1: Advertising value and perceptions of media vehicle value

Construct	R^2	*t*-statistic	*p* value	Q2
Hedonic Value	0.379	7.902	.00	0.297
Utilitarian Value	0.343	10.009	.00	0.296
Overall Service Value	0.428	7.321	.00	0.369

The R^2 and Q^2 values for the three media vehicle constructs lend support to the positive influence of advertisement value on media vehicle value perceptions. One of the primary contributions of this research is the examination of how the individual components of advertisement value influence perceptions of the media vehicle, rather than an aggregated advertisement value construct that is commonly applied in literature. Table 5.2 presents the individual path coefficients between the three components of advertisement value and the media vehicle value constructs, which is the primary focus of this research.

All three path coefficients between advertisement information value and components of media vehicle value are statistically significant. The strongest relationship exists between advertisement informativeness and the overall value of the service derived from the website (β = .539, p =.00), followed by utilitarian value (β=.463, p = .00). The path coefficient for hedonic value is smaller at .298, but still statistically significant (p = .00). The effect size is found to be small for utilitarian and hedonic value, represented by f^2 values of .101 and .44 respectively, and moderate for overall service value (f^2 =.157). These results suggest that the more informational an advertisement is perceived to be, the higher the derived utilitarian and hedonic value is likely to be along with a more positive perception of the overall service. It can be concluded that all three sub-hypotheses of H1a (H1a1 to H1a3) are supported.

Advertisement entertainment value is not shown to influence overall perceptions of the service and the utilitarian value derived (p >.05). Hypotheses H1b1 and H1b2 are therefore not supported. Conversely, H1b3 is supported as advertisement entertainment value is shown to positively affect the hedonic value derived, with a path coefficient of .247 (p = .01). An f^2 of .028 indicates the presence of a small effect.

The last component of advertisement value, the level of irritation, is not demonstrated to influence the consumer's perception of overall service value, with a p value over .05.

Advertisement irritation is found to negatively influence both utilitarian and hedonic value. Hedonic value is more strongly influenced than utilitarian value, with a negative path coefficient of -.136 (p = .01) for hedonic value as compared to -.107 (p = .05) for utilitarian value. In summary, support was found for H1c2 and H1c3, but not H1c1.

Table 5.2: Advertisement value components and media vehicle value perceptions

Structural Path	*Std. path coefficient (β)*	*t*-statistic	*p* value	f^2
Advertisement Information				
AdInfo -> Hedonic Value	0.298	3.573	.00	.044
AdInfo -> Utilitarian Value	0.463	5.167	.00	.101
AdInfo -> Overall Service Value	0.539	7.099	.00	.157
Advertisement Entertainment				
AdEnt -> Hedonic Value	0.247	2.747	.01	.028
AdEnt -> Utilitarian Value	0.061	0.594	.55	.001
AdEnt -> Overall Service Value	0.072	0.955	.34	.003
Advertisement Irritation				
AdIrritate -> Hedonic Value	-0.136	2.477	.01	.017
AdIrritate -> Utilitarian Value	-0.107	1.987	.05	.010
AdIrritate -> Overall Service Value	-0.084	1.623	0.11	.007

5.4 Mediating Effect of Advertisement Exchange value

The perceived fairness of exchange has been shown to influence the perceptions of value derived from a transaction (Bagozzi 1975). Logan's (2013) Advertising Exchange Value (AEX) scale was created with this in mind, aiming to capture the exchange relationship between consumers and advertisers in a content provision context. As a vast number of websites have adopted advertisement-sponsored business models, consumer attention to advertising acts as currency in exchange for desired content (Casadesus-Masanell and Feng 2010, Berthon, Robson et al. 2013). However, the role of exchange fairness as a mediator in the relationship between advertisement value and media vehicle value has yet to be explored in literature.

In order for mediation to occur, the independent variable must have a significant direct effect on the mediator variable, which in turn must have a significant direct effect on the dependent

variable (MacKinnon, Fairchild et al. 2007, Zhao, Lynch et al. 2010). Based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) seminal work, some academics argue for the necessity of a significant effect of the independent variable on the outcome variable without the inclusion of the mediating variable, also known as a zero-order effect or "the effect to be mediated" (Bolger 1998, Collins, Graham et al. 1998). This, however, has been argued to be a false requirement, as outright rejection of the possibility of mediation due to a lack of significant zero-order effects discounts the possibility of two significant mediating variables that have contrasting effects (Zhao, Lynch et al. 2010, Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). While one mediator might be complementary (having the same direction), the other might be a suppressor or competitive mediator, which results in a negation of overall effects (Zhao, Lynch et al. 2010). In order to test for the significant of mediation in PLS-SEM, it is therefore recommended that bootstrapping be conducted to provide a t-statistic for the indirect effect rather than applying Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). A significant indirect effect ($p < .05$) indicates the presence of mediation, with the type of mediation determined based on the significance of the direct effect as well as directionality (Zhao, Lynch et al. 2010).

In exploring AEX as a mediator, the first step was to establish an association between the advertisement value components and AEX, followed by the effect of AEX on components of media vehicle value. Advertisement information and entertainment value both emerge as positively influencing AEX, with path coefficients of .407 and .314 ($p = .00$ for both). Advertisement irritation was not found to affect AEX ($p > .05$). In turn, results indicate that AEX positively affects both hedonic and utilitarian value derived, as well as perceptions of overall service value. Service value has the highest path coefficient ($\beta = 0.417$, $p = .00$), with an f^2 value of .166. Utilitarian and hedonic value are both influenced by AEX, with path coefficients of .304 and .330 respectively, and f^2 values of .09 and .71. The basic requirements of mediation, having an association between the independent variable and

mediator as well as between the mediator and outcome variable, are therefore fulfilled, allowing for further analysis of the indirect effect.

Table 5.3: Advertisement value, AEX, and media vehicle value				
Structural Path	*Std. path coefficient (β)*	*t*-statistic	*p* value	f^2
AdInfo -> AEX	0.407	5.829	.00	0.108
AdEnt -> AEX	0.314	4.700	.00	0.061
AdIrritate -> AEX	-0.041	0.772	.44	0.004
AEX -> Hedonic Value	0.330	5.434	.00	0.090
AEX -> Utilitarian Value	0.304	4.989	.00	0.071
AEX -> Overall Perceived Value	0.417	5.896	.00	0.166

As presented in Table 5.4 below, the indirect effects between advertisement informativeness and all three dimensions of media vehicle are statistically significant ($p < .05$), which indicates that a mediation effect is present. More specifically, a complementary mediation effect is evident, in which both the direct and indirect effects are significant ($p < .05$) with the same directionality (Zhao, Lynch et al. 2010). This complementary mediation classification overlaps with Baron and Kenny's (1986) definition of partial mediation. Of the three indirect associations between advertisement information and media vehicle value, the strongest is with overall service value ($\beta = 0.170$), followed by hedonic and utilitarian value ($\beta = 0.134$ and 0.124 respectively). All the sub-hypotheses of H2a are therefore supported, as AEX has a mediating effect on the relationship between advertisement information value and value perceptions of the media vehicle.

Significant indirect effects are also demonstrated in the case of advertisement entertainment's influence on media vehicle perceptions ($p < .05$). Indirect path coefficients of .104 for hedonic value, .095 for utilitarian value and .131 for overall service value indicates that AEX mediates the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and these constructs. This mediating effect can be argued as indirect only, given that the direct effects are not significant ($p < .05$), showing support for Hypotheses H2b1, H2b2 and H2b3. As

advertisement irritation does not have a significant influence on AEX, a mediation effect cannot exist. Hypothesis H2c is therefore not supported.

Table 5.4: Mediating effect of AEX

Structural Path *Advertising Informativeness ->*	*Std. path coefficient (β) - Total Effect*	*p* value	*Std. path coefficient (β) - Direct Effect*	*p* value	*Std. path coefficient (β) -* Indirect Effect	*p* value
AEX	0.407	.00	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	0.298	.00	0.163	.04	0.134	.00
Utilitarian Value	0.463	.00	0.339	.00	0.124	.00
Overall Service Value	0.539	.00	0.369	.00	0.170	.00
Advertising Entertainment ->						
AEX	0.314	.01	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	0.247	.01	0.145	.09	.104	.00
Utilitarian Value	0.057	.54	-0.035	.70	.095	.00
Overall Service Value	0.072	.33	-0.059	.94	.131	.00

5.5 Mediating Effect of Cognitive Effort

In order to explore cognitive effort mediating the association between advertisement value and media vehicle value, the direct influence effects of advertisement value on cognitive effort are first examined. Advertisement information value is demonstrated to negatively influence cognitive effort, with a path coefficient of -.366 (p = .00), indicating that the information provided by an advertisement reduces the cognitive effort required in the website usage process. Conversely, both advertisement entertainment value and irritation have a positive relationship with cognitive effort (β = 0.227 and 0.375 respectively). While advertisement irritation was expected to increase the level of perceived cognitive effort, advertisement entertainment had been anticipated to reduce the level of cognitive effort. This effect will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Eight.

In line with literature on advertising clutter (Cho and Cheon 2004, Ha and McCann 2008), the perceived cognitive effort required in website use negatively influences perceptions of the value derived. Utilitarian value is the most strongly impacted, with a path coefficient of -

0.497 (p = .00), followed closely by hedonic value (β = -0.465, p = .00). Overall service value was also negatively influenced (β = -.247, p = .00). As all components of advertisement value had a significant relationship with cognitive effort, which in turn influenced all three dimensions of media vehicle value, the conditions for mediation analysis are met.

Table 5.5: Advertisement value, cognitive effort and media vehicle value perceptions

Structural Path	*Std. path coefficient (β)*	*t*-statistic	*p* value	f^2
AdInfo -> Cognitive Effort	-0.366	4.023	.00	.056
AdEnt -> Cognitive Effort	0.227	2.515	.01	.022
AdIrritate -> Cognitive Effort	0.375	5.646	.00	.110
Cognitive Effort -> Hedonic Value	-0.465	10.161	.00	.356
Cognitive Effort -> Utilitarian Value	-0.497	11.565	.00	.394
Cognitive Effort -> Overall Service Value	-0.247	5.276	.00	.088

The indirect effect of advertisement information value is significant on all three media vehicle value components with the inclusion of cognitive effort as a mediator, as presented in Table 5.6. The indirect effect is the largest for utilitarian value (β = .182, p = .00), followed by hedonic value (β = .170, p =.00) and finally overall service value (β =.090, p = .00). The direct effect on utilitarian and overall service value remains significant (p = .00), indicating a complementary mediation effect. With the inclusion of cognitive effort in the model, the direct effect of advertising information value on Hedonic value becomes non-significant (p >.05), indicating indirect-only mediation. It can be concluded that all three sub-hypotheses of Hypothesis H3a are supported.

Cognitive effort also mediates the association between advertisement entertainment value and media vehicle value. The indirect path coefficient for utilitarian and hedonic are similar, with values of -.113 and -.106 respectively, both statistically significant (p < .05). Results also indicate a significant direct effect of advertisement entertainment value on utilitarian and hedonic value (p < .05). The path coefficients are positive, with .173 for utilitarian value and .352 for hedonic value. As both direct and indirect effects are significant but have different

directionalities, a competitive mediation effect is present, also known as a suppression effect (Zhao, Lynch et al. 2010, Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). In the case of cognitive effort as a mediating the relationship between advertisement entertainment value and overall service value, an indirect-only association was found, as demonstrated by a significant indirect effect (β = -.056, p = .02) and non-significant direct effect (p < .05). Hypothesis H3b, hypothesising cognitive effort as a mediator of the relationship between advertisement Entertainment value and media vehicle value perceptions, is supported.

With the inclusion of cognitive effort as a mediator, the effects of advertisement irritation on all three components of media vehicle value is indirect only. Overall service value is the most negatively influenced with an indirect path coefficient of -.186 (p =.00), followed by hedonic value (β = -.174) and finally utilitarian value (β = -.093). The level of advertisement irritation can therefore be concluded to increase the perceived cognitive effort required in website use, resulting in decreased value derived by consumers. Hypothesis H3c1, H3c2, and H3c3 are supported.

Table 5.6: Mediating effect of cognitive effort

Structural Path *Advertising Informativeness ->*	*Std. path coefficient (β)* - Total Effect	*p* value	*Std. path coefficient (β)* - Direct Effect	*p* value	*Std. path coefficient (β)* - Indirect Effect	*p* value
Cognitive Effort	-0.366	.00	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	0.298	.00	0.125	.09	0.170	.00
Utilitarian Value	0.463	.00	0.279	.00	0.182	.00
Overall Service Value	0.539	.00	0.447	.00	0.090	.00
Advertising Entertainment ->						
Cognitive Effort	0.227	.01	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	0.247	.01	0.352	.00	-0.106	.02
Utilitarian Value	0.057	.54	0.173	.03	-0.113	.03
Overall Service Value	0.072	.33	0.129	.07	-0.056	.02
Advertising Irritation ->						
Cognitive Effort	0.375	.00	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	-0.138	.01	0.034	.30	-0.174	.00
Utilitarian Value	-0.109	.04	0.078	.06	-0.093	.00
Overall Service Value	-0.083	.10	0.005	.69	-0.186	.00

5.6 Advertisement Interactivity and Execution Quality

Advertisement interactivity has been argued to be an important factor in the online environment, with consumers having a more positive attitude towards interactive advertising (McMahan, Hovland et al. 2009, Cova and Saucet 2014). Execution quality has also been shown to influence advertisement effectiveness, acting as a signal for brand or product quality (Ambler and Hollier 2004). It was therefore hypothesised that advertisement interactivity and execution quality positively influence perceived advertisement value. Results on the contrary are not found to support these hypotheses, as all path coefficients between the advertisement attributes and advertisement value are not statistically significant ($p > .05$). Hypotheses H8 and H9 are not supported.

Table 5.7: Interactivity and execution quality effects on advertisement value

Structural Path	*Std. path coefficient (β)*	*t*-statistic	*p* value
Advertisement Interactivity			
Interactivity -> Informational Value	-0.055	1.133	.30
Interactivity -> Entertainment Value	-0.05	1.048	.30
Interactivity -> Advertisement Irritation	0.076	1.598	.11
Advertisement Entertainment			
Quality -> Informational Value	0.067	1.535	.13
Quality -> Entertainment Value	0.036	0.779	.44
Quality -> Advertisement Irritation	-0.061	1.381	.17

5.7 Summary of Results and Foundations for Phase Two

Table 5.8 presents a summary of results for the hypotheses tested in Phase One of this study. While these results will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Eight, a brief overview is presented here in order to lay the foundations for the second study. The primary aim of the first phase was to explore the positive effects of advertisement value on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle. Support for 21 of the 33 hypotheses and sub-hypotheses

was found, demonstrating that advertisement value can positively influence consumer perceptions of the value derived from the media vehicle.

Of the three advertisement value components, advertisement information value was found to have the strongest influence on value perceptions of the media vehicle. This includes not only the highest direct effects, but also a positive association with advertisement exchange value as well as reducing perceived cognitive effort. In doing so, a mediated effect is shown to be present. While advertisement entertainment value is also demonstrated to positively affect media vehicle value, the influence is not as high. This can be attributed to the association between advertisement entertainment value and cognitive effort, whereby entertaining advertisement demands more cognitive resources from consumers which in turn negatively influences media vehicle value perceptions. Advertisement irritation also has a direct and indirect negative impact on the utilitarian and hedonic value derived, as well as overall perceptions of the website as a service.

One of the plausible reasons for the relatively higher impact of advertisement information value as compared to entertainment value or irritation could lie in the experiment conditions. Respondents were given a scenario whereby they were about to go on holiday, and were accessing the website in order to find out more about their destination. This can be interpreted as a relatively goal-directed task, as compared to a casual browsing scenario where the primary goal is entertainment, which consequentially could have increased the relative importance of advertisement information value. Due to the nature of the experiment, it was not possible to include respondent motivations for website use in the study as they were specifically directed a website designed for this research. In order to examine if the stronger influence of advertisement information value on media vehicle value as compared to entertainment value and irritation is due to the task at hand, the second study examines the effects of consumer motivations for website use.

Research in consumer uses and gratifications online argues that consumer motivations for use play a role in determining the value derived from a media vehicle (Ko, Cho et al. 2005, Quan-Haase and Young 2010). As consumers frequently visit websites for specific purposes such as information and entertainment seeking, these motivations could influence the associations between advertisement value and media vehicle value. The association between informative advertising and utilitarian value, for example, could be strengthened by consumer need for information due to the relevance of the advertising to the consumer at the time. Similarly, entertaining advertisement could increase the overall service value perceptions of the website or the hedonic value derived for consumers who are seeking entertainment. In addition, revisiting the associations between advertisement value and media vehicle value in a field setting can provide additional empirical support for the potential positive influence of advertising.

Table 5.8: Phase One summary of results

H#	Hypothesis	Supported/ Not supported
H1a1	Advertisement Information value positively influences the overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H1a2	Advertisement Information value positively influences the Utilitarian value derived from the website.	Supported
H1a3	Advertisement Information value positively influences the Hedonic value derived from the website.	Supported
H1b1	Advertisement Entertainment value positively influences the overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Not Supported
H1b2	Advertisement Entertainment value positively influences the Utilitarian value derived from the website.	Not Supported
H1b3	Advertisement Information value positively influences the Hedonic value derived from the website.	Supported
H1c1	Advertisement Irritation negatively influences the overall perception of the website as a service.	Not Supported
H1c2	Advertisement Irritation negatively influences the Utilitarian value derived from the website.	Supported
H1c3	Advertisement Irritation negatively influences the Hedonic value derived from the website.	Supported
H2a1	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported

H2a2	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information value and Utilitarian value.	Supported
H2a3	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information value and Hedonic value.	Supported
H2b1	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H2b2	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and Utilitarian value.	Supported
H2b3	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and Hedonic value.	Supported
H2c1	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Not Supported
H2c2	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and Utilitarian value.	Not Supported
H2c3	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and Hedonic value.	Not Supported
H3a1	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information value and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H3a2	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information and Utilitarian value.	Supported
H3a3	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information value and Hedonic value.	Supported
H3b1	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H3b2	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and Utilitarian value.	Supported
H3b3	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and Hedonic value.	Supported
H3c1	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H3c2	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and Utilitarian value.	Supported
H3c3	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and Hedonic value.	Supported
H4a	Advertisement Interactivity positively influences the Informational value of an advertisement.	Not Supported
H4b	Advertisement Interactivity positively influences the Entertainment value of an advertisement.	Not Supported
H4c	Advertisement Interactivity negatively influences the level of Irritation with the advertisement.	Not Supported
H5a	Advertisement execution quality positively influences the Informational value of an advertisement.	Not Supported
H5b	Advertisement execution quality positively influences the Entertainment value of an advertisement.	Not Supported
H5c	Advertisement execution quality negatively influences the level of	Not Supported

	Irritation with the advertisement.	

5.8 Conclusion

Results from the structural model analysed with data from study one were presented in this chapter, with support found for the positive influence advertisement value can have on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle. The mediating effect of AEX and cognitive effort was also highlighted as important constructs in the relationship between advertisement value and media vehicle value. Advertisement information value was found to have the biggest influence on perceptions of the media vehicle, however as discussed in Section 5.7, this could be due to the consumer's task-oriented motivation during website use. The following chapter presents additional hypotheses designed for the second study to examine the influence of consumer motivations, and outlines the design of the data collection method.

CHAPTER 6 Phase Two – Hypotheses Development and Method

6.1 Introduction

Results from phase one demonstrated support for the positive influence of advertisement value on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle, as well as the mediating role of advertisement exchange value and perceived cognitive effort required in website use. This chapter presents additional hypotheses that were developed for the second phase of data collection, designed to explore the effects of consumer motivations for website use on the relationship between advertisement value and media vehicle value in a field setting. The hypotheses will be discussed in Section 6.2, followed by an outline of the steps taken in designing the survey instrument. Subsequently, results from the preliminary analysis of the data collected will be presented, including respondent demographics, assessment of common method variance, and assumptions for multivariate analysis. Finally, the measurement model assessment is examined, including results for reliability, internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity.

6.2 Hypotheses for Phase Two

In order to explore the effects of advertising on media vehicle perceptions in a field setting, the first three hypotheses from Phase One of data collection were retained. Hypothesis One and its sub-hypotheses explore the relationship between advertisement value components and perceptions of the value derived from the media vehicle. Support for Hypotheses One was demonstrated in an experimental setting and in addition, the relationship between advertisement value and media vehicle value was shown to be mediated by Advertisement Exchange value (Hypothesis Two) and the perceived level of cognitive effort required in website use (Hypothesis Three). These hypotheses were re-examined in a field setting in

order to provide a more robust understanding of the association between advertisement value and media vehicle value.

One of the primary reasons for conducting an experiment in phase one was the ability to control for and explore the effects of advertisement interactivity and execution quality on advertisement value. Support was not found for these effects however, and consequentially the decision was made to remove the hypotheses that related to advertisement interactivity and quality for the second study. In addition, the second study focussed on popular websites that had a fairly consistent standard of advertising in terms of interactivity and quality. For example, YouTube advertisements undergo a rigorous quality check to ensure that they all meet a similar format and standard (O'Reilly 2015), making an investigation of the effect of quality and interactivity challenging.

Additional hypotheses are introduced in Phase Two of this research with the aim of contributing towards a better understanding of the impact advertisement value can have on media vehicle value by examining the influence of consumer motivations driving web-browsing behaviour. Indeed, it is hypothesised that consumer motivations for use can strengthen the effects of advertisement value components on media vehicle value derived. As discussed in Chapter Two, consumer motivations driving website use have been demonstrated to be closely related to the gratifications derived from content consumption, in line with Uses and Gratifications (U&G) theory (Ruggiero 2000).

In accordance with U&G theory, consumers actively seek fulfilment of needs through content consumption (Ruggiero 2000). Different consumers can use the same media vehicle for very different purposes, as the decision to engage is determined by the individual's motivations (Severin and Tankard 2010). This is particularly true in situations where individuals engage in the repeated use of a media vehicle, as it can indicate that underlying motivations driving

use are being gratified, justifying revisitation each time the same need arises (Joines, Scherer et al. 2003). Two of the most common motivations for internet use are information and entertainment seeking (Vorderer, Klimmt et al. 2004, Thatcher, Wretschko et al. 2008, Ji and Wayne Fu 2013), with consumers deriving gratification in the form of utilitarian and hedonic value from consumption activities. While consumer needs can motivate them to engage with a media vehicle (Ruggiero 2000), it is argued that these needs can also strengthen or weaken the relationship between components of the media vehicle, in this case advertising, and the value derived from content consumption.

For example, when presented with an informative advertisement, a consumer who is seeking information is hypothesised to be more likely to deem it as a useful component of the website as it is relevant to the consumer's task at hand. Consequentially, the relationship between advertisement value and value derived is strengthened by the information need a consumer has. Conversely, a consumer who is not motivated by information search might still perceive an advertisement as being informative due to the presence of informational cues; however as this information is not required at the time, its contribution to media vehicle value is diminished in that instance. Information seeking behaviour is therefore hypothesised to moderate the influence of advertisement information value on media vehicle value.

Consumer motivations for use are not only hypothesised to moderate the direct effect of the advertisement value components on media vehicle value, but also on the consumer's perception of exchange fairness as well as cognitive effort required from website use. Again using advertisement information as an example, an informative advertisement can aid in the gratification of informational needs and as such its inclusion in the website can be seen as less of a disutility to an information-seeking consumer. The positive relationship between advertisement information value and exchange value is thereby strengthened for consumers

who are searching for information. In addition, consumers seeking information from a website could have their search cost (in terms of cognitive effort required) reduced, as advertisements facilitate information acquisition. Information seeking is therefore hypothesised to moderate the influence of advertisement information value on both AEX and cognitive effort.

Similarly, entertainment seeking is hypothesised to influence the effects of advertisement entertainment value on perceptions of the media vehicle. As consumers engage with a media vehicle for escapism or distraction, the effects of an advertisement entertainment value on media vehicle value is argued to be strengthened. Likewise, advertisement entertainment value are hypothesised to more strongly influence AEX for consumers who are entertainment seeking. In phase one, results unexpectedly showed that advertisement entertainment value increased the perceived cognitive effort required in content consumption. It is hypothesised that in the case of consumers who are entertainment seeking, this relationship will be weakened as entertaining advertisements are perceived to facilitate needs gratification.

Lastly, the effects of advertisement irritation on media vehicle value is hypothesised to be moderated by the motivation driving consumer website use. More specifically, irritating advertisements are posited to negatively influence media vehicle value more strongly for consumers who are information driven as compared to entertainment seeking. As argued by Ha and McCann (2008), consumers who are information-oriented have stronger directional goals than those who are entertainment-oriented, and consequentially react more negatively towards advertisement irritation. While advertisement exchange value was not found to be influenced by advertisement irritation in the first study, cognitive effort was. It is therefore hypothesised that the negative association between advertisement irritation and cognitive effort is also moderated by consumer motivations for website use. More specifically, the

association is strengthened for consumers who are information search driven as compared to entertainment search driven.

Table 6.1 as follows presents the additional hypotheses that will be examined in Phase Two of this research.

Table 6.1: Additional hypotheses for Phase Two	
H#	**Hypothesis**
H6a1	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on website service value. The association between advertisement information value and overall perceptions of the website as a service is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.
H6a2	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on utilitarian value derived from the website. The association between advertisement information value and utilitarian value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.
H6a3	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on hedonic value derived from the website. The association between advertisement information value and hedonic value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.
H6b1	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on website service value. The association between advertisement entertainment value and overall perceptions of the website as a service is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.
H6b2	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on utilitarian value derived from the website. The association between advertisement entertainment value and utilitarian value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.
H6b3	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on hedonic value derived from the website. The association between advertisement entertainment value and hedonic value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.
H6c1	The effect of advertisement irritation on website service value of the website is moderated by the consumer's motivation for use. The association between advertisement irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service is strengthened for consumers motivated by information search as compared to entertainment search.
H6c2	The effect of advertisement irritation on utilitarian value derived from the website is moderated by the consumer's motivation for use. The association between advertisement irritation and utilitarian value is strengthened for consumers motivated by information search as compared to entertainment search.
H6c3	The effect of advertisement irritation on hedonic value derived from the website is moderated by the consumer's motivation for use. The association between

	advertisement irritation and hedonic value is strengthened for consumers motivated by information search as compared to entertainment search.
H7a1	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on advertisement exchange value. The association between advertisement information value and advertisement exchange value as a service is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.
H7a2	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on advertisement exchange value. The association between advertisement entertainment value and advertisement exchange value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.
H8a1	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on perceived cognitive effort. The association between advertisement information value and cognitive effort is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.
H8a2	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on perceived cognitive effort. The association between advertisement entertainment value and cognitive effort is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.
H8a3	The effect of advertisement irritation on perceived cognitive effort is moderated by the consumer's motivation for use. The association between advertisement irritation and cognitive effort is strengthened for consumers motivated by information search as compared to entertainment search.

6.3 Questionnaire Design

A self-administered survey was developed, hosted and distributed through the online platform Qualtrics (a full copy of the survey is presented in Appendix I). The advantages of this data collection method are the same as those outlined in Chapter Four for the first phase of data collection, including ease of access to respondents, time and cost efficiency, as well as eliminating the need for a data entry stage. The decision was made to focus on three commonly-used websites in the data collection, namely YouTube, Flickr and Urbanspoon. For example, YouTube is one of the most commonly-used and prominent websites in the current online environment, being consistently ranked amongst the most visited websites (Alhabash, Baek et al. 2015). Selecting these websites with broad appeal allowed for a wide coverage of potential respondents, as there was a higher likelihood that a majority of respondents would be familiar with them. In addition, these websites have a broad possible scope of use, allowing consumers to potentially derive utilitarian or hedonic value from them

(Oh and Syn 2015), as compared to websites that more strongly focus on one or the other such as a translation service website.

After an introduction page, respondents asked if they had used any of the three websites in the last six months and were presented with a set of questions relating to one of the websites they had used based on their response. For respondents who had visited more than one of the three websites, the survey was set up to randomly present only one relevant set of questions. Those who had no visited any of the three websites in the timeframe were automatically directed to the end of the survey and filtered out.

Each question set for the websites included frequency of visits and the average length of each visit. The average length was measured both in terms of time spent, as well as an alternative measure relevant to the website itself, for example number of videos watched for YouTube or number of pictures viewed for Flickr. These questions were include in order to explore and control for any possible influence on the outcome variables of interest. Subsequently, the measures for the constructs of interest were presented. These included measures for motivations for use which will be discussed in the following section as well as the same measures of advertisement value, advertisement exchange value, cognitive effort and media vehicle value that were used in study one and presented previously in Chapter Four.

6.3.1 Consumer Motivation Measures Used

The scale used in phase one to measure advertising value, advertisement exchange value, perceived cognitive effort and media vehicle were demonstrated in Chapter Four to be reliable and valid. Hence, they were retained for the second phase to enable comparison of results. To measure consumer motivations, Ko, Cho and Robert's (2005) scale was adopted to this research, as it was specifically developed to address consumer motivations for internet

use. As presented below in Table 6.2, the scale for information seeking consisted of three items, with entertainment seeking consisting of five items.

Table 6.2: Measures for information and entertainment seeking motivations	
Scale (Reference)	**Final measure**
Information Seeking (Ko, Cho and Roberts, 2005)	I use this website:
	To learn about unknown things.
	As it's a good way to do research.
	To learn about useful things.
Entertainment Seeking (Ko, Cho and Roberts, 2005)	To pass time.
	As I simply like to surf the internet.
	As it's enjoyable.
	As it's entertaining.
	As it's a habit.

6.4 Respondent Profile

Similar to the first data collection phase, a number of filters were employed in the survey. Respondents under the age of 18 were automatically removed, as well as those that failed to answer filter questions embedded in the survey that required a specific response such as "Please select strongly disagree". Response time was also included as a filter criteria. As pre-tests indicated that the survey would take between 10 to 12 minutes to complete, responses which took under 7 minutes or over 17 minutes were automatically flagged for deletion by Qualtrics. Respondents who had not used any of the three websites in the last six months were also directed to the end of the survey and filtered out, along with those that indicated that they had never seen an advertisement on the websites. As consumer response to advertising was one of the key factors of interest, not having seen an advertisement posed a problem as it was not possible to accurately gauge their perceptions of the advertising on these websites. In addition, as the websites do in fact host advertising, not having seen any

advertisements could indicate the presence of advertisement blocking software (Cho and Cheon 2004), which could potentially bias results.

In total, 367 usable responses were collected. YouTube users emerged as the largest group with 264 responses, in line with its popularity as one of the most frequently used websites (Yang, Yang et al. 2014). In comparison, 74 and 29 responses were collected in regards to Urbanspoon and Flickr respectively. An analysis of means shows no significant differences between the groups for the key constructs of interest. Similarly, subsequent multi-group analysis showed no statistical differences between the different groups in terms of the structural model (p >.05).

Females make up the majority of respondents at 69.8%, compared to 30.2% of male respondents. This gender distribution poses a potential problem as usage statistics demonstrate that both males and females access the internet at a similar rate in Australia (ABS 2013). An independent samples test demonstrates no significant differences between the gender groups across the constructs of interest (p >.05). In addition, a multi-group analysis was conducted using SmartPLS, with results indicating no significant differences in the structural model between the two groups. All age groups are represented in the study, as presented in Table 6.2. The age distribution is similar to that of YouTube's user demographics (Blattberg 2015). However, a multi-group analysis was conducted to explore potential differences in the structural model between the age groups, with age emerging as not significantly influencing the relationships between constructs (p >.05).

Table 6.3: Survey respondent demographics			
Survey 1	**n=367**	**Total Number**	**Percentage**
Website Used	YouTube	264	71.9
	UrbanSpoon	29	7.9
	Flickr	74	20.2
Age	18 - 24	53	14.4
	25 - 29	45	12.3
	30 - 34	39	10.6
	35 - 39	41	11.2
	40 - 44	40	10.9
	45 - 49	45	12.3
	50 +	104	28.3
Gender	Male	111	30.2
	Female	256	69.8
Occupation	Management	34	8.5
	Education	41	10.2
	Personal care or service	33	8.2
	Sales	22	5.5
	Office or Administrative	52	12.9
	Students	60	14.9

6.5 Preliminary Analyses

The data was downloaded from Qualtrics, and items that were presented in reverse were re-coded in SPSS 22. The dataset was then assessed for response patterns or responses with minimal variance, for example those with 20 or more similar responses in a row (Malhotra, Hall et al. 2007, Meade and Craig 2012). None of the responses were found to present any issues. Subsequently, the data was tested for common method variance, normality, and homoscedasticity, which will be presented in the following sections.

6.5.1 Common Method Variance

As detailed previously in Chapter Four, common method bias is a potential problem for behavioural research which can falsely provide an explanation for observed relationships

between constructs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003). The same procedural remedies that were utilised in Phase One were employed for Phase Two, namely respondent anonymity and a careful selection of scale items. After the data was collected, Harman's single-factor test was applied to explore the data for common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 2003). All the construct items were entered into a principal components analysis, and run with varimax rotation, from which nine distinct factors emerged from the 46 items. Results indicated that factor 1 accounted for 27.1% of covariance, while all nine factors accounted for 71% of total variance. Hence, no significant evidence of common method bias was found through Harman's single-factor test.

The unmeasured latent methods construct was also applied using the procedure introduced by Liang et al. (2007) as a secondary measure of common method variance assessment. A latent method construct which included all the items belonging to the constructs of interest in the model was generated in SmartPLS. The PLS algorithm was run to obtain substantive variances for each of these indicators, which indicates the degree to which each construct explained the individual indicator's variance. Results indicated that the average substantive variance was .70, while the average variance of the method construct was .012 (see Appendix J). Most of the path coefficients for the latent method construct were not statistically significant (p >.05). This allows for the conclusion that common method bias is unlikely to be a critical issue in the assessment of the conceptual model.

6.5.2 Assumptions for Multivariate Analysis

In order to assess the suitability of the data for multivariate analysis, normality, homoscedasticity and linearity of the data had to first be ascertained (Hair 2010).

Normality

As discussed in Chapter four, multivariate analysis utilizes the *F* and *t* statistics and the normality of the therefore data is critical. Normality was tested by assessing the skewness and kurtosis of the data, whereby mean scores of 0 indicate that the data is normal while a skew index greater than 3 and kurtosis greater than 10 indicates severe non-normality (Kline 2010). The skewness and kurtosis scores as presented in Appendix K indicates that the data cannot be assumed to be normal (Kline 2010). This, however, was not a problem for analysis as normality is not a requirement for PLS-SEM.

Homoscedasticity and linearity

Homoscedasticity and linearity were assessed by using SPSS 22 to generate a scatterplot of standardised residuals (*ZRESID) against standardised predicted values (*ZPRED), as well as a histogram and normality probability plot. As presented in Appendix L, the plot of *ZRESID and *ZPRED indicates the assumption of homoscedasticity was not met. The histogram presented in Appendix L demonstrates a bell-shaped curve, while the normal probability plot suggests that the points are fairly close to a straight line. Heteroscedasticity in the data does not pose a problem for PLS-SEM which was used in the analysis. Lastly, collinearity checks were conducted to assess the correlation between indicators using the variance inflation factor (VIF). A VIF score under 10 is tolerable (Fields 2009), and the data was not deemed to have a problem of multicollinearity. Similar to the first phase of this research, the data was found to fail the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity, however as PLS-SEM was used to analyse the data, this was not a problem.

6.6 Measurement Model Assessment

The measurement model was run in SmartPLS to assess indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity was conducted (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011), as presented in the following sections.

6.6.1 Indicator Reliability

Indicator reliability was assessed through the individual indicator's outer loadings in SmartPLS 3.0. Of the 46 items across the ten constructs, 42 were found to meet the ideal threshold of .70 or above (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). Two of the items which had a loading under .70 were both related to the advertising exchange value construct. As discussed in Chapter four, both these items were added in the original scale by Logan (2013) to assess a respondent's awareness of the monetary value of the media content rather than addressing the degree of mutuality.

It is recommended that items with outer loadings under .04 be removed, while those between .40 and .70 be considered for removal if doing so improves the composite reliability of the construct (Hair, Ringle et al. 2011). As AEX4 was close to the lower bound of .40, and removing it along with AEX5 which was under the .40 level, improved the composite reliability from .739 to .802, the decision was made to do so. From a theoretical perspective, the remaining items for the AEX construct solely explored the perceived mutuality between consumer and advertiser, which is the focus for this study. Two items from the advertisement irritation construct fell between the .40 and .70 range. "The advertisements insult people's intelligence had an outer loading of .618, while "The advertisements are confusing", had an outer loading of .589. Removing both, however, did not significantly improve the construct's composite reliability (from .821 to .825), and the decision was therefore made to retain them as part of the construct. A full table of loadings is presented in Appendix M.

6.6.2 Internal Consistency, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity

Tests for internal consistency determines if the items measuring a construct are similar in their scoring (Streiner 2003). Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were both used to assess the internal consistency of the constructs measured (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). As presented in Table 6.5, all items were shown to surpass the ideal threshold of .70 for both tests, except for the advertising exchange value score for Cronbach's alpha. However, the composite reliability score for advertising exchange value of .80 indicated that the construct was internally consistent. As composite reliability prioritizes the indicators according to their individual reliability instead of assuming all indicators are equally reliable, it is more in line with PLS-SEM and the construct was therefore deemed to be satisfactory. In order to test for convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) was used to examine the correlation between items. All items were found to meet the .50 threshold (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013), and were deemed satisfactory.

Table 6.4: Internal consistency and convergent validity

Construct	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Advertising Exchange Value	0.80	0.65	0.58
Advertising Entertainment	0.96	0.95	0.83
Advertising Informativeness	0.95	0.94	0.74
Advertising Irritation	0.83	0.74	0.49
Cognitive Effort	0.88	0.82	0.65
Hedonic Value	0.90	0.84	0.58
Utilitarian Value	0.97	0.95	0.68
Overall Service Value	0.95	0.93	0.76
Entertainment Seeking	0.87	0.83	0.79
Information Seeking	0.91	0.84	0.91

Both the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations were used to assess discriminant validity, demonstrating that the constructs measured were distinct from one another. As discussed in Chapter Four, the Fornell-Larcker criterion was included as a measure employed in much of the extant literature, with the HTMT method shown to provide a more appropriate assessment of discriminant validity in variance based structural equation modelling (Henseler, Ringle et al. 2015). Results presented in Appendix N show that all items were found to be under the conservative .85 level, indicating that discriminate validity is achieved (Henseler, Ringle et al. 2015). Similarly, the results for the Fornell-Larcker criterion test, as presented in Appendix N indicates all constructs to be distinct.

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented the additional hypotheses that were formulated for the second phase of data collection, as well as the research methodology and results from the measurement model analysis. In total, a dataset of 367 responses was obtained from the survey, covering respondent opinions of three websites. No evidence of common method bias was found, and the data was demonstrated to be suitable for PLS-SEM analysis. The measurement model revealed that the indicator reliability and consistency as well as convergent and discriminant validity is not a problem, allowing for further analysis of the structural model which will be presented in the follow chapter.

CHAPTER 7 Phase Two – Results

7.1 Introduction

Having presented the measurement model analysis for Phase Two in Chapter Six, this chapter focuses on the structural model used to test the hypotheses of interest in the second study. The direct effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value perceptions are presented, followed by the introduction of advertisement exchange value and cognitive effort as mediators. Subsequently, consumer motivations for website use are examined as moderators of the effects of advertisement value.

7.2 Advertising Value and Media Vehicle Perceptions

Table 7.1 presents the path coefficients between the three components of advertisement value and media vehicle value perceptions. Results indicate that advertisement information value positively influences both hedonic value (β=.236, p = .04) and overall service value (β=.335, p = .00), however no significant effect is found on utilitarian value derived (p > .05). The effect size on hedonic value and overall service value are both small, represented by f^2 values of .24 and .037 respectively. These results suggest that an informative advertisement most strongly influences a consumer's overall perceptions of the website as a service. Both hypotheses H1a1 and H1a3 are supported, however H1a2 is not.

As the entertainment value of an advertisement is not found to significantly influence any of the components of media vehicle value, all the sub-hypotheses of H1b are not supported. Likewise, no support is found for H1c2 and H1c3, as advertisement irritation is not demonstrated to have a significant influence on hedonic and utilitarian value. Advertisement irritation, however, significantly influences overall service value perceptions, with a path coefficient of -.124 (p = .05). An f^2 value of .023 indicates a small effect size, and it can therefore be concluded that Hypothesis H1c1 is supported.

Table 7.1: Advertisement value and Media vehicle value				
Structural Path	*Std. path coefficient (β)*	*t*-statistic	*p* value	f^2
Advertisement Information				
AdInfo -> Hedonic Value	0.236	2.007	.04	0.024
AdInfo -> Utilitarian Value	0.131	1.182	.24	0.006
AdInfo -> Overall Service Value	0.335	3.712	.00	0.037
Advertisement Entertainment				
AdEnt -> Hedonic Value	-0.212	1.622	.11	0.013
AdEnt -> Utilitarian Value	0.169	1.672	.10	0.008
AdEnt -> Overall Service Value	-0.135	1.552	.12	0.006
Advertisement Irritation				
AdIrritate -> Hedonic Value	-0.143	1.016	.31	0.016
AdIrritate -> Utilitarian Value	0.021	0.341	.73	0
AdIrritate -> Overall Service Value	-0.124	1.943	.05	0.023

7.3 Mediating Effect of Advertisement Exchange Value

In Phase One, advertisement information and entertainment value are found to positively influence AEX, which was in turn positively associated with media vehicle perceptions. Results for Phase Two likewise indicated that advertisement information and entertainment value have a positive relationship with AEX, with path coefficients of .239 and .355 respective (p = .00 for both). AEX was demonstrated to have the highest influence on utilitarian value (β=.183, p = .01), followed by overall service value (β=.150, p = .05). No significant relationship with hedonic value was found (p >.05). The significant relationships between advertisement value and AEX, as well as AEX and media vehicle perceptions lay the foundations for subsequent mediation analysis.

Table 7.2: Advertisement value, AEX, and Media vehicle perception				
Structural Path	*Std. path coefficient (β)*	*t*-statistic	*p* value	f^2
AdInfo -> AEX	0.239	2.888	.00	0.025
AdEnt -> AEX	0.355	4.081	.00	0.047
AdIrritate -> AEX	0.017	0.268	.79	0.000
AEX -> Hedonic Value	0.029	0.330	.74	0.001
AEX -> Utilitarian Value	0.183	2.606	.01	0.026
AEX -> Overall Perceived Value	0.150	1.932	.05	0.017

Of the association between advertisement information value and the three components of media vehicle value, AEX is found to mediate only the effects on utilitarian value. A significant indirect path coefficient of .044 (p =.04) indicates that a mediation effect exists. Hypothesis H2a2 is therefore supported while H2a1 and H2a3 are not. AEX is also demonstrated to mediate the influence of advertisement entertainment value on utilitarian value as well as overall service value, with indirect path coefficients of .065 and .053 respectively (p <.05 for both). Hypothesis H2b1 and H2b2 are therefore supported, however evidence was not found to support H2b3. In line with results from the first phase, advertisement irritation was not found to influence AEX, and hypothesis H2c and its subcomponents are therefore not supported.

Table 7.3: Mediating effects of AEX.

Structural Path *Advertising Informativeness ->*	*Std. path coefficient (β)* - Total Effect	*p* value	*Std. path coefficient (β)* - Direct Effect	*p* value	*Std. path coefficient (β)* - Indirect Effect	*p* value
AEX	0.239	.00	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	0.268	.06	0.261	.06	0.007	.75
Utilitarian Value	0.131	.23	0.087	.43	0.044	.04
Overall Service Value	0.337	.00	0.302	.00	0.036	.13
Advertising Entertainment ->						
AEX	0.355	.00	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	-0.115	.42	-0.126	.35	0.01	.75
Utilitarian Value	0.166	.11	0.101	.34	0.065	.03
Overall Service Value	-0.133	.18	-0.186	.07	0.053	.04

7.4 Mediating Effect of Cognitive Effort

Table 7.4 presents the influence of advertisement value on cognitive effort along with the effects of cognitive effort on media vehicle value. The directionalities of the path coefficients are the same as that demonstrated in Phase one, as follows. Advertisement information is the only advertisement value component to have a negative influence on cognitive effort, with a path coefficient of -.219 (p = .02). Increased levels of advertisement information can

therefore be said to reduce the perceived cognitive effort required. Conversely, both advertisement entertainment and irritation have a positive influence, and thereby increase, the cognitive effort required in website use. Advertisement entertainment has a higher positive influence on cognitive effort than advertisement irritation, with a path coefficient of .396 as compared to advertisement irritation's path coefficient of .266 (p = .00 for both).

Increased cognitive effort consequentially has a negative influence on all three components of media vehicle value. The highest negative impact is on hedonic value (β= -.603, p =.00), followed by overall service value (β= -.369, p =.00). Utilitarian value also has a negative path coefficient (β= -.143, p =.02). With all path coefficients between advertisement value, cognitive effort and media vehicle value statistically significant, the indirect effects are examined to determine the presence of mediation.

Table 7.4: Advertisement Value, Cognitive effort and Media vehicle value

Structural Path	*Std. path coefficient (β)*	*t*-statistic	*p* value	f^2
AdInfo -> Cognitive Effort	-0.219	2.432	.02	0.016
AdEnt -> Cognitive Effort	0.396	4.607	.00	0.049
AdIrritate -> Cognitive Effort	0.266	4.087	.00	0.063
Cognitive Effort -> Hedonic Value	-0.603	17.017	.00	0.535
Cognitive Effort -> Utilitarian Value	-0.143	2.261	.02	0.021
Cognitive Effort -> Overall Service Value	-0.369	6.824	.00	0.158

Advertisement information value is found to have a significant indirect effect on hedonic value (β= -.132, p =.02) with the inclusion of cognitive effort as a mediator, along with an insignificant direct effect (p >.05). This indicates that the relationship is one of complementary mediation. In the case of advertisement information value on overall service value, both the direct and indirect effects are significant (p <.05) with path coefficients of .25 and .08 respectively. It can be concluded that cognitive effort partially mediates the association between advertisement information value and overall service value. Hypothesis

H3a1 and H3a3 are supported, however as an indirect effect on utilitarian value was not found to be significant, H3a2 is not supported.

With the inclusion of cognitive effort, advertisement entertainment is found to indirectly effect hedonic and utilitarian value, as well as overall service value (p <.05 for all three). Hedonic value has the highest path coefficient at -.239, followed by overall service value (-.146) and utilitarian value (-.057). The direct effects are not significant for all three constructs (p <.05), indicating that the effects of advertisement entertainment on media vehicle value are indirect only. Hypotheses H3b1, H3b2 and H3b3 are supported. Advertisement irritation is also demonstrated to have significant indirect only effects on hedonic, utilitarian and overall service value (p <.05). The path coefficient for hedonic value are again the highest at -.16, followed by overall service value at -.098 and utilitarian value (-.038). These significant indirect effects allow for the conclusion that hypotheses H3c1, H3c2 and H3c3 are supported.

Table 7.5: Mediating effect of cognitive effort

Structural Path *Advertising Informativeness ->*	*Std. path coefficient (β)* - Total Effect	*p* value	*Std. path coefficient (β)* - Direct Effect	*p* value	*Std. path coefficient (β)* - Indirect Effect	*p* value
Cognitive Effort	-0.219	.02	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	0.227	.01	0.095	.22	0.132	.02
Utilitarian Value	0.132	.17	0.101	.30	0.031	.13
Overall Service Value	0.331	.00	0.25	.01	0.081	.02
Advertising Entertainment ->						
Cognitive Effort	0.396	.00	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	-0.223	.01	0.016	.83	-0.239	.00
Utilitarian Value	0.168	.06	0.224	.02	-0.057	.05
Overall Service Value	-0.126	.15	0.02	.81	-0.146	.00
Advertising Irritation ->						
Cognitive Effort	0.266	.00	-	-	-	
Hedonic Value	-0.18	.00	-0.02	.68	-0.16	.00
Utilitarian Value	0.026	.64	0.064	.30	-0.038	.05
Overall Service Value	-0.132	.03	-0.034	.59	-0.098	.00

7.5 Consumer Information Seeking as a Moderator

The effects of advertisement information value on media vehicle value as well as AEX and cognitive effort are hypothesised to be moderated by the level of information seeking. A moderation effect occurs when the association between an independent variable (in this case advertisement information value) and an outcome variable (media vehicle value) is not constant but rather depends on the values of a moderating variable (information-seeking) (Henseler and Fassott 2010). In moderation analysis, the effect of the independent variable on the outcome variable when the moderating variable has a value of zero is known as the simple effect (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). If a significant moderating effect is present, the simple effect is changes as the moderator variable increases or decreases by one standard deviation (Henseler and Fassott 2010). In the case of information-seeking as a moderator however, zero is not an existing value on the measurement scale, and this can complicate interpretation of the simple effect (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). In order to facilitate moderation analysis, it is recommended that the variable be mean-centred (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013).

Mean-centring is conducted by subtracting the latent variable's mean from each observation (Dawson 2014). Doing so shifts the mean of the variable from the original mean score to zero, facilitating interpretation of moderation effects (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013). While modelling continuous moderation effects in SmartPLS, the option to automatically mean-centre the moderating variable is available, and was selected in the analyses for this research. Results from SmartPLS are presented as an interaction effect which reflects the relevant change in the association path coefficient with each increment or decrement of the moderator variable by one standard deviation point (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013).

As presented in Table 7.6, information seeking is demonstrated to moderate the effects of advertisement information value on overall service value as well as utilitarian value derived.

The moderation effect is higher for utilitarian value at .096 (*sd* = .053, *p* =.04) as compared to overall service value at .047 (*sd* = .045, *p* =.04). This indicates that as the level of information seeking increases, the stronger the effects of advertisement information value on overall service value as well as utilitarian value.

Table 7.6: Moderating effect of information seeking

Structural Path Independent variable: Advertisement Information value	*Interaction effect (β)*	*Standard Deviation (sd)*	*t*-statistic	*p* value
Moderator: Level of information seeking				
AdInfo -> Overall Service value	0.047	0.045	2.006	.04
AdInfo -> Utilitarian value	0.096	0.053	1.949	.04
AdInfo -> Hedonic value	0.017	0.049	0.325	.75

In addition to analysing the interaction effect between the moderator and independent variable, PLS-SEM multi-group analysis (PLS-MGA) is also used to compare respondents who are more highly motivated against those that are less motivated. PLS-MGA is a non-parametric approach which evaluates the observed distribution of the bootstrap outcomes for two or more different groups and compares them to determine the probability of a difference (Henseler 2012). Comparing respondents who are highly motivated against those who are less so presents additional insights into the differences between the groups.

The first step was to divide the sample into a high and low subgroups for comparison. To obtain two mutually exclusive subgroups, a hierarchical cluster analysis was first conducted and subsequently used to execute a polar extremes approach (Hair 2010). Hierarchical clustering is one of the most commonly used cluster analysis methods, which divides a sample into subgroups on the basis of their similarity with respect to specified characteristics (Ward Jr 1963), in this case information seeking behaviour. This was conducted in SPSS to identify three groups, corresponding with a high, medium and low level of information seeking behaviour based on their responses, as presented in Table 7.7 below. For the PLS-

MGA analysis, a polar extremes approach was adopted with the removal of the middle cluster, leaving the extremes for comparison to determine if there are any moderator effects (Hair Jr, Hult et al. 2013).

Table 7.7: Cluster analysis results for information seeking subgroups		
Information seeking	Mean score	*n* =
Group 1	6.53	108
Group 2	4.27	157
Group 3	1.98	102

Having dichotomised the sample based on information search motivation, the results from the PLS-MGA analysis are presented in Table 7.8. The effects of advertisement information value on all three components of media vehicle value are presented for both groups separately, followed by a comparison between the groups. Results indicate that advertisement information value has a significant influence on both overall service value as well as utilitarian value for the high information seeking group (p <.05), however the path coefficients are non-significant for the low information seeking group (p >.05). The path coefficient difference between the two groups for advertisement information value's effects on overall service value is statistically significant (p = .01). Likewise, the difference is also significant for the effects on utilitarian value (p = .03). This allows for the conclusion that information seeking motivation moderates both these relationships, with advertisement information value not influencing overall service value and utilitarian value for consumers who are low on information search behaviour. Results from both the tests for continuous moderation as well as PLS-MGA demonstrate support for the hypothesis that information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement value on website service value (H6a1) and utilitarian value (H6a2). Hypothesis H6a3 was not supported.

Table 7.8: PLS-MGA results for Information seeking high vs low						
Structural Path: PLS-MGA Advertisement Information Value	Path Coefficients (β) Info Seek High	Path Coefficients (β) Info Seek Low	t-Values Info Seek High	t-Values Info Seek Low	p-Values Info Seek High	p-Values Info Seek Low
AdInfo -> Overall service value	0.432	0.139	2.509	0.771	.01	.44
AdInfo -> Utilitarian value	0.344	0.103	1.938	0.585	.05	.56
AdInfo -> Hedonic value	0.173	0.156	0.644	0.57	.50	.57
	Path Coefficients Difference	p-Value				
AdInfo -> Overall service value	0.293	.01				
AdInfo -> Utilitarian value	0.241	.03				
AdInfo -> Hedonic value	0.017	.52				

7.6 Consumer Entertainment Seeking as a Moderator

Consumer entertainment seeking behaviour was hypothesised to moderate the effects of advertisement entertainment value on media vehicle value components. Entertainment seeking was first analysed as a continuous variable, with results of the interaction effect presented in Table 7.9. The effect of advertisement entertainment value on overall service value as well as hedonic value is demonstrated to be moderated by the level of entertainment seeking. Both relationships are strengthened as entertainment seeking increases, with interaction effect values of .098 for overall service value (*sd* = .058, *p* =.02) and .072 for hedonic value (*sd* = .035, *p* =.05). The effect of advertisement entertainment value on utilitarian value is not found to be affected.

Table 7.9: Moderating effect of entertainment seeking				
Structural Path Independent variable: Advertisement Entertainment value *Moderator: Level of entertainment seeking*	*Interaction effect (β)*	*Standard Deviation (sd)*	*t*-statistic	*p* value
AdEnt -> Overall Service value	0.098	0.058	2.291	.02
AdEnt -> Utilitarian value	0.004	0.063	0.925	.36
AdEnt -> Hedonic value	0.072	0.035	1.984	.05

Cluster analysis was also used to split the sample into subgroups in order to run a PLS-MGA analysis to compare respondents who are highly motivated by entertainment search against those who are not. Three subgroups were obtained from the analysis, as presented in Table 7.10. A multi-group analysis was subsequently performed, comparing Group One (highly motivated) to Group Three (low motivation).

Table 7.10: Cluster analysis results for entertainment seeking subgroups

Entertainment seeking	Mean score	*n* =
Group 1	6.77	112
Group 2	3.74	134
Group 3	1.62	121

Results from the multi-group analysis comparing high and low entertainment seeking provides a better understanding of the influence of advertisement entertainment value on media vehicle value. For the highly motivated group, advertisement entertainment is demonstrated to have a positive effect on overall service value (β=.122, p = .00), however for the low motivation group this effect is negative with a path coefficient of -.194 (p =.05). The difference between these two groups is statistically significant (p =.00), indicating that entertainment seeking does moderate the influence of advertisement entertainment value on overall website service value. Similarly, a significant moderating effect is present in the association between advertisement entertainment value and hedonic value. For the high motivation group, the path coefficient is positive and significant (β=.101, p = .03), however for the low motivation group the effect is non-significant (p > .05). The difference between the two groups is also significant, indicating a moderation effect. Hypothesis H6b1 and H6b3 are therefore supported, however hypothesis H6b2 is not.

Table 7.11: PLS-MGA results for entertainment seeking high vs low						
Structural Path: PLS-MGA Advertisement Entertainment Value	Path Coefficients (β) Ent Seek High	Path Coefficients (β) Ent Seek Low	t-Values Ent Seek High	t-Values Ent Seek Low	p-Values Ent Seek High	p-Values Ent Seek Low
AdEnt -> Overall service value	0.122	-0.194	3.434	1.944	.00	.05
AdEnt -> Utilitarian value	0.291	0.064	1.414	0.316	.16	.75
AdEnt -> Hedonic value	0.101	-0.242	2.825	1.191	.03	.23
	Path Coefficients Difference	p-Value				
AdEnt -> Overall service value	0.316	.00				
AdEnt -> Utilitarian value	0.355	.21				
AdEnt -> Hedonic value	0.342	.00				

7.7 Consumer Motivations Moderating the Effects of Advertisement Irritation

It was hypothesised that consumers who are motivated by information search will react more negatively to irritating advertisement as compared to those who were entertainment driven. PLS-MGA was used to compare respondents who were highly motivated by information search to those who were entertainment seeking. Results as presented in Table 7.12 demonstrate that a statistically significant difference exists between the two groups with regards to the effects of advertisement irritation on overall service value (β difference = .118, p =.01). Support for hypothesis H6c1 is therefore supported, however as results show no significant difference between the groups for advertisement irritation's effects on utilitarian and hedonic value, hypothesis H6c2 and H6c3 are not supported.

Table 7.12: Consumer motivations moderating the effect of advertisement irritation						
Structural Path: PLS-MGA Advertisement Irritation	Path Coefficients (β) Info Seek	Path Coefficients (β) Ent Seek	t-Values Info Seek	t-Values Ent Seek	p-Values Info Seek	p-Values Ent Seek
AdIrritate -> Overall service value	-0.210	-0.092	1.964	2.718	.04	.03
AdIrritate -> Utilitarian value	-0.117	-0.102	1.246	0.895	.21	.37
AdIrritate -> Hedonic value	-0.422	-0.367	1.184	1.2	.24	.23

Structural Path: PLS-MGA Advertisement Irritation	Path Coefficients Difference	p-Value
AdIrritate -> Overall service value	0.118	.01
AdIrritate -> Utilitarian value	0.015	.46
AdIrritate -> Hedonic value	0.055	.43

7.8 Advertisement Value on AEX and Cognitive Effort Moderated by Consumer Motivations

The influence of advertisement information value on AEX and cognitive effort was hypothesised to be moderated by information seeking. Results indicate that a moderation effect is present, demonstrated by a significant interaction effect. The relationship between advertisement information value and AEX is strengthened by .084 with each standard deviation increment (*sd* = .044, *p* <.05). The effect of advertisement information value on cognitive effort is negatively influenced by the level of information seeking, with an interaction coefficient of -0.148 (*sd* = .038, *p* <.00). This indicates that the higher the level of information seeking, the greater the negative influence of advertisement information value on cognitive effort. Hypothesis H7a1 and H8a1 are therefore supported.

Entertainment seeking is demonstrated to moderate the association between advertisement entertainment value and AEX, with an interaction effect of .234 (*sd* =.066, *p* = .00). The influence on cognitive effort, however, is not demonstrated to be moderated by the level of entertainment seeking (*p* >.05). Hypothesis H7a2 is therefore supported, however support was not found for H8a2.

Table 7.13: Moderating effect of consumer motivations of AEX and cognitive effort

Structural Path Independent variable: Advertisement Information value *Moderator: Level of information seeking*	*Interaction effect (β)*	*Std. Deviation*	*t*-statistic	*p* value
AdInfo -> AEX	0.084	0.044	2.039	.04
AdInfo -> Cognitive Effort	-0.148	0.038	3.809	.00

Structural Path Independent variable: Advertisement Entertainment value *Moderator: Level of entertainment seeking*				
AdEnt -> AEX	0.234	0.066	3.561	.00
AdEnt -> Cognitive Effort	.010	0.053	0.182	.85

PLS-MGA was conducted to contrast the effects of information and entertainment seeking on influence advertisement irritation has on perceived cognitive effort. Results of the multi-group analysis showed no significant differences between the two groups, indicating that the type of motivation for website use is not found to moderate the relationship between advertisement irritation and cognitive effort. Hypothesis H8a3 is not supported.

7.9 Conclusion

This chapter presented the analyses that was conducted in phase two to address the hypotheses developed in the previous chapters. The direct effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value was explored, as well as the inclusion of AEX and cognitive effort as mediators. In addition, consumer motivations for use, specifically their level of information and entertainment seeking, were introduced as moderators of the effects of advertisement value. It emerged that support for 22 of the 41 hypotheses was found, as presented in Table 7.14, and these results will be discussed in detail in the following section, along with findings from the experiment in phase one.

Table 7.14: Summary of hypotheses supported in Phase two

H#	**Hypothesis**	**Supported/ Not supported**
H1a1	Advertisement Information value positively influences the overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H1a2	Advertisement Information value positively influences the Utilitarian value derived from the website.	Not Supported
H1a3	Advertisement Information value positively influences the Hedonic value derived from the website.	Supported
H1b1	Advertisement Entertainment value positively influences the overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Not Supported

H#	Hypothesis	Supported/ Not supported
H1b2	Advertisement Entertainment value positively influences the Utilitarian value derived from the website.	Not Supported
H1b3	Advertisement Information value positively influences the Hedonic value derived from the website.	Not Supported
H1c1	Advertisement Irritation negatively influences the overall perception of the website as a service.	Supported
H1c2	Advertisement Irritation negatively influences the Utilitarian value derived from the website.	Not Supported
H1c3	Advertisement Irritation negatively influences the Hedonic value derived from the website.	Not Supported
H2a1	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Not Supported
H2a2	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information value and Utilitarian value.	Supported
H2a3	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information value and Hedonic value.	Not Supported
H2b1	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H2b2	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and Utilitarian value.	Supported
H2b3	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and Hedonic value.	Not Supported
H2c1	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Not Supported
H2c2	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and Utilitarian value.	Not Supported
H2c3	Advertising Exchange Value mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and Hedonic value.	Not Supported
H3a1	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information value and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H3a2	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information and Utilitarian value.	Not Supported
H3a3	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Information value and Hedonic value.	Supported
H3b1	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H3b2	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and Utilitarian value.	Supported
H3b3	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Entertainment value and Hedonic value.	Supported
H3c1	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service.	Supported
H3c2	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and Utilitarian value.	Supported
H3c3	Cognitive Effort mediates the relationship between Advertisement Irritation and Hedonic value.	Supported

H#	Hypothesis	Supported/ Not supported
H6a1	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on website service value. The association between advertisement information value and overall perceptions of the website as a service is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.	Supported
H6a2	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on utilitarian value derived from the website. The association between advertisement information value and utilitarian value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.	Supported
H6a3	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on hedonic value derived from the website. The association between advertisement information value and hedonic value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.	Not Supported
H6b1	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on website service value. The association between advertisement entertainment value and overall perceptions of the website as a service is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.	Supported
H6b2	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on utilitarian value derived from the website. The association between advertisement entertainment value and utilitarian value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.	Not Supported
H6b3	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on hedonic value derived from the website. The association between advertisement entertainment value and hedonic value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.	Supported
H6c1	The effect of advertisement irritation on website service value of the website is moderated by the consumer's motivation for use. The association between advertisement irritation and overall perceptions of the website as a service is strengthened for consumers motivated by information search as compared to entertainment search.	Supported
H6c2	The effect of advertisement irritation on utilitarian value derived from the website is moderated by the consumer's motivation for use. The association between advertisement irritation and utilitarian value is strengthened for consumers motivated by information search as compared to entertainment search.	Not Supported
H6c3	The effect of advertisement irritation on hedonic value derived from the website is moderated by the consumer's motivation for use. The association between advertisement irritation and hedonic value is strengthened for consumers motivated by information search as compared to entertainment search.	Not Supported
H7a1	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on advertisement exchange value. The association between advertisement information value and advertisement exchange value as a service is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.	Supported

H#	Hypothesis	Supported/ Not supported
H7a2	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on advertisement exchange value. The association between advertisement entertainment value and advertisement exchange value is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.	Supported
H8a1	Information seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement information value on perceived cognitive effort. The association between advertisement information value and cognitive effort is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by information search.	Supported
H8a2	Entertainment seeking behaviour moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on perceived cognitive effort. The association between advertisement entertainment value and cognitive effort is strengthened for consumers who are highly motivated by entertainment search.	Not Supported
H8a3	The effect of advertisement irritation on perceived cognitive effort is moderated by the consumer's motivation for use. The association between advertisement irritation and cognitive effort is strengthened for consumers motivated by information search as compared to entertainment search.	Not Supported

CHAPTER 8 Discussion and Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses study findings in relation to the literature, and provides insights regarding how this research advances existing knowledge of advertisement value and its effect on media vehicle value. Results are first summarised and placed in the context of prior studies, with a particular focus on unexpected results, such as the effects of advertisement entertainment value on media vehicle value. Possible theoretical explanations for these findings are presented. Subsequently, the theoretical contributions of this study are addressed.

This research contributes to a better understanding of the effects of individual components of advertisement value on perceptions of media vehicle value. By incorporating exchange theory and cognitive load theory, this research also examines mechanisms underlying the positive association between advertisements and media vehicle value. In addition, examination of the moderating role of consumer motivations for website use highlights the importance of understanding consumer needs in advertisement research. Lastly, the effects of advertisement interactivity and quality as drivers of advertisement value are discussed.

This chapter concludes by outlining managerial implications on how content providers can maximize the value from available advertising space on their website. This guidance is important in the current media environment where consumers have access to a wide variety of content consumption options. Study limitations and directions for future research are also presented in this chapter.

8.2 Summary of Findings

A unique contribution of this research lies in examination of individual components of advertisement value and their effects on consumer perceptions of the media vehicle. This section first discusses direct effects of three advertisement value components on the utilitarian, hedonic and overall service value derived by the consumer from using a website, taking into consideration the moderating effects of consumer motivations for website use. The mediating effects of exchange value and cognitive effort are subsequently presented as theoretical mechanisms that underpin emergent effects. Lastly, the effects of advertisement interactivity and execution quality are discussed.

8.2.1 The Effects of Advertisement Information Value and Information Search Motivations

The provision of information has traditionally been a key role of advertising and is cited as one of the main reasons behind consumer acceptance of advertisements within media channels (Bauer and Greyser 1968, Norris 1984). Indeed, advertisement information value is argued as the strongest contributor to the overall advertisement value construct (Ducoffe 1996). Results from the experiment used in the second phase support this argument, revealing that advertisement information value is the only component to positively influence all three constructs of media vehicle value and it has the strongest associations with dependent variables. Similarly, results of the field study demonstrate advertisement information value is a positive influencer of overall service value and hedonic value. However, no direct effect was found on utilitarian value. By empirically demonstrating that advertisement information value positively influences both the consumer's perception of the service value derived and hedonic value from the website, this research shows that informative advertisements contribute towards a more positive consumer evaluation of the website, rather than acting as a

disutility to be tolerated which has been the default position in much of advertising literature (Ha and McCann 2008, Rosengren and Dahlén 2013).

While advertisement information value was not found to directly influence utilitarian value in the field study as hypothesised, an examination of consumer motivations for use reveals an interesting moderation effect. Comparing consumers with high and low information needs in the field study, advertisement information value indeed has a significant direct effect on utilitarian value for individuals motivated by information search. Conversely, the effect of advertisement information value on utilitarian value is not significant for individuals with low information needs. This moderation effect is a possible explanation for the lack of a significant effect across the entire sample. Similarly, information search needs moderate the relationship between advertisement information value and overall service value, reinforcing the importance of understanding consumer motivations for website use.

In line with Uses and Gratifications (U&G) theory, consumers actively seek content to satisfy needs and thereby derive gratifications from content consumption (Stafford, Stafford et al. 2004). In the case of consumers driven by information search behaviour it can be argued that informative advertisements act as an important component of the media vehicle by aiding in gratifying needs. This moderation effect is reflected in the strengthened relationship between advertisement information value and both utilitarian and overall service value. With increased focus on targeted advertising in the current media environment, which aims to display relevant advertisements to consumers based on browsing behaviour (Johnson 2013), the benefits of being able to match the type of advertisement (informative) to consumer needs (information search) is highlighted in these findings.

8.2.2 Effects of Advertisement Entertainment Value and Entertainment Search Motivations

In comparison to advertisement value, study results indicate a less prominent effect of advertisement entertainment value on media vehicle value. Indeed, across the experiment and field study, results show no significant direct effect on overall service value or utilitarian value. While advertisement entertainment value significantly predicts hedonic value in the experiment, this direct effect was not replicated in the field study. These findings are unexpected, as entertaining advertisements have been demonstrated to be well received by consumers (Eisend 2009, Jung, Min et al. 2011). Rosengren and Dahlén's (2013) study exploring advertising value effects on magazine value perceptions reveal its positive effects on media vehicle perceptions. It should be noted, however, that while advertisement entertainment value did not directly influence media vehicle value constructs, significant indirect effects emerged which are further discussed in Sections 8.3 and 8.4.

The importance of understanding consumer motivations for website use are highlighted by the moderating effects of entertainment seeking needs on the association between advertisement value and media vehicle value. Entertainment seeking moderates the effects of advertisement entertainment value on hedonic and overall service value. More specifically, these associations were found to be significant for consumers motivated by entertainment search, but not for the group low on entertainment seeking. As a large number of consumers browse websites for entertainment purposes (Stafford, Stafford et al. 2004), entertaining advertisements can aid in fulfilling hedonic needs and improve overall perceptions of a website.

8.2.3 Effects of Advertisement Irritation and Consumer Motivations for Use

The effects of advertisement irritation in the media environment have been a central focus of previous research, with general findings that increased levels of irritation negatively influence consumer perceptions of the media vehicle, manifesting in feelings of intrusiveness and clutter (Ha and McCann 2008, McCoy, Everard et al. 2008). Yet inconsistent results emerged between the two studies in this research as irritation negatively influenced utilitarian and hedonic value in the experiment, but not in the field study. Conversely, advertisement irritation did not influence overall service value in the experiment, but emerged as a significant predictor in the field study. Two possible explanations are put forward as to why these effects might have occurred.

Firstly, memory research posits that when questioned about an event or item immediately after the initial encounter, individuals are more able to recall specific details (Brady, Konkle et al. 2008). However, over time these memories are reduced and individuals are consequently only able to recall the "gist of things", or an overall impression (Phillips 1974, Brady, Konkle et al. 2008). Hence, it is likely that in the case of the experiment, respondents were able to recall details of how specifically hedonic and utilitarian value are negatively affected as they had just seen the target website and related advertisement. However, in the field study respondents were instructed to think back on their browsing experience which may have happened some time ago, so the overall impression, rather than details, that was recalled. In addition to memory recency effects, it is also possible that in an experiment scenario respondents pay more attention to advertisements and therefore are more able to link advertisement irritation with value derived. Conversely, in a normal browsing scenario advertisements may be cognitively avoided (Cho and Cheon 2004) and therefore affect the media vehicle in a broader way.

Building on these findings, this research explores the role of consumer motivations for website use as a moderator of the effects of advertisement irritation on perceptions of the media vehicle. It is posited that information oriented consumers have stronger directional goals than entertainment oriented consumers, and consequently may react more negatively towards advertisement irritation (Ha and McCann 2008). This research provides empirical evidence that consumer motivations for use moderate the relationship between advertisement irritation and overall service value derived from the media vehicle. More specifically, while advertisement irritation was found to negatively influence overall service value for all respondents, the effects were strengthened for the information seeking group as compared to those browsing for entertainment purposes.

8.3 Mediating Effects of Advertisement Exchange Value

Exchange fairness, conceptualised as advertisement exchange value (AEX), was examined in this research as a potential mechanism underpinning the effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value. Results indicate that, across field and experimental studies, advertisement information and entertainment value both positively influenced AEX as hypothesised. However, the same effect did not emerge for advertisement irritation which did not influence AEX. This finding is in line with Logan's (2013) work which posits that the AEX construct does not capture perceived intrusiveness of an advertisement. Additionally, consumer motivations for website use were found to moderate the influence of advertisement information and entertainment value on AEX. The association between advertisement information value and AEX is moderated by information seeking behaviour, and similarly the effects of advertisement entertainment value and AEX is strengthened by entertainment seeking behaviour. Thus, advertising relevant to consumer needs is perceived to contribute more strongly to exchange fairness.

In the experiment, both advertisement information and entertainment value were found to have a significant indirect effect on all three constructs of media vehicle value through AEX. In line with literature on exchange fairness, consumers derive more value from an exchange perceived to be fair (Chiao 2001, Darke and Dahl 2003). However, in the field study only some indirect associations were demonstrated to be significant. AEX mediated the influence of advertisement information value on utilitarian value, and the effect of advertisement entertainment value on both overall service value and utilitarian value. This difference in findings between the field and experimental studies could be due to familiarity of respondents with the website. In the experiment scenario respondents were completely unfamiliar with the website meaning that cues, such as perceived fairness, are more likely to be used to judge the value derived. Conversely, in the field study respondents were more familiar with the website and had less need to utilize cues to make judgements of the value derived (Sengupta, Goodstein et al. 1997).

8.4 Mediating Effects of Cognitive Effort

In addition to exchange theory, cognitive load theory was adopted in this research to facilitate understanding of the relationship between advertisement value and media vehicle value. Results from both the experiment and field study support the role of cognitive effort as a mediator in this relationship. Across both phases, findings are consistent with literature in that advertisements influence cognitive effort required in website use, which in turn influences consumer perceptions of the media vehicle (Burke, Hornof et al. 2005, Yoo 2008). This effect can be explained by consumer cognitive stress as a result of irritating advertisements during the web-browsing process, increasing cognitive load and negatively influencing perceptions of the media vehicle (Lee and Cho 2010, Goldstein, Suri et al. 2014). This research aimed to further understand how irritating advertisements affect cognitive effort by examining consumer motivations for use as a moderator, hypothesising that the

effects of advertisement irritation on cognitive effort would be strengthened by information seeking consumers, as compared to those with entertainment needs. Results, however, did not support this hypothesis.

This research examined whether advertisement information and entertainment value can have the opposite effect to advertisement irritation by reducing perceived cognitive effort required in website use. The hypothesis that advertisement information value negatively influences the level of cognitive effort required in website use was supported in both the experiment and field study. This indicates that the level of cognitive effort required in website use is reduced with increased levels of advertisement information value. This effect was also demonstrated to be moderated by information seeking needs, indicating that the negative effect of advertisement information value on required cognitive effort is stronger for consumers who are highly motivated by information needs.

With cognitive effort as a mediator, the indirect effects of advertisement information value on all three media vehicle value constructs were significant in both the experiment and field study. It can therefore be argued that informative advertisements are perceived to be a valuable website component by facilitating consumer information search and reducing cognitive resource expenditure in content consumption.

Data from both the experiment and field study revealed that while advertisement entertainment value has a significant influence on cognitive effort, the effect is positive rather than negative as initially hypothesised. Rather than decreasing perceived cognitive effort required in website use, advertisement entertainment value increases cognitive load on consumers. In the field experiment, the effects of advertisement entertainment value on cognitive effort emerge as even greater than the effect of advertisement irritation. Significant indirect effects on media vehicle value were also found, indicating that advertisement

entertainment value negatively influenced media vehicle value through an increase in cognitive effort. These results hold across respondents, as no moderating effects of consumer motivations were found.

The finding that advertisement entertainment value has a negative indirect effect on media vehicle value through cognitive effort is in contrast to the initial hypotheses. Advertisement entertainment value was expected to decrease cognitive effort required of consumers, in particular for consumers driven by entertainment seeking needs. A possible explanation for advertisement entertainment value increasing perceived cognitive effort lies in the ability of entertaining advertisements to attract and retain consumer attention (Ching, Tong et al. 2013). As consumers engage with entertaining advertising, cognitive resources are allocated to processing the message. In the field study, advertisement entertainment value was found to have a stronger influence on cognitive effort than advertisement irritation. This effect is likely due to the effects of advertisement avoidance. With irritating advertisements consumers subconsciously employ avoidance strategies to reduce cognitive load (Edwards, Li et al. 2002). However, with entertaining advertisements consumers are more willing to engage rather than simply dismiss the advertisement as irrelevant.

8.5 Advertisement Interactivity and Execution Quality

It was hypothesised that interactivity and execution quality of an advertisement positively influences consumer perceptions of advertisement value. Interactivity is a key element in the online environment that differentiates it from more traditional media formats (Pomirleanu, Schibrowsky et al. 2013), with interactive advertisements previously shown to be positively evaluated by consumers (Goh and Ping 2014). However, results of the experiment do not confirm a significant positive effect of interactivity on advertisement value. Similarly, advertisement execution quality was hypothesised to positively influence consumer

perceptions of advertisement value by acting as a visual cue (Ambler and Hollier 2004). However, no significant association between the two emerged in this research. It is possible that in an experimental scenario respondents paid more attention to the message of the advertisement itself rather than relying on cues, such as interactivity and execution quality.

8.6 Theoretical Contributions

This research contributes to the literature on advertisement effects and media context research by demonstrating that advertisements can have a positive effect on the media vehicle. Researchers have long acknowledged that advertising on its own can be valuable to consumers independent of the advertised brand or product (Ducoffe 1995, Cunningham and Haley 2000). However, there is limited work integrating literature on advertisement value with the effects that advertising can have on the media vehicle. Extant literature investigating the associations between advertising and the media vehicle have a tendency to either focus on negative influences of advertisements, as in the case of clutter research (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013), or conversely, on the positive effect transfer from content to advertising in media context research (De Pelsmacker, Geuens et al. 2002). This research therefore draws from both bodies of literature to demonstrate that valuable advertising can have a positive effect on, and be a valuable component of, the media vehicle.

This study is unique in that it examined the effects of all three components of advertisement value individually, and in doing so offers a more detailed and in-depth understanding of individualised effects of these components. While studies on advertisement value have focussed on multiple components aggregated to form an overall advertisement value construct (eg Haghirian, Madlberger et al. 2005, Rosengren and Dahlén 2013), this research demonstrates that individual components can affect outcomes in different ways. This

highlights the possibility that aggregating the three components of advertisement value into an overall construct may limit our understanding of the effects of valuable advertising.

As a further contribution, this research demonstrates the importance of understanding consumer motivations driving website use, given the significant moderating effect these motivations have on the effects of advertisement value on media vehicle perceptions. While Uses and Gratifications theory is well established in communications literature (Ruggiero 2000, Stafford, Stafford et al. 2004), it has only been sporadically applied in advertising literature (e.g. O'Donohoe 1994, Ko, Cho et al. 2005). Hence, with increased focus on targeted advertising in the current media environment (Johnson 2013), this research sheds light on how relevant advertising can be beneficial, not only to the consumer and the advertised brand, but also to the website.

An important contribution of this research lies in the examination of two mechanisms that underpin the association between advertisement value and media vehicle value, namely advertisement exchange value and cognitive effort. As consumer attention to advertising has been proposed as the new currency in the online environment (Berthon, Robson et al. 2013, Davenport and Beck 2013), this research offers important insights to improve our understanding of how consumers perceive the exchange relationship between themselves and the advertiser. More specifically, perceptions of a fair exchange mediate the influence of advertisement value on media vehicle value, providing empirical evidence that consumers view themselves as partaking in an exchange relationship for content.

While the role of cognitive effort in advertising is well established in the literature (Goldstein, Suri et al. 2014), this research is the first to demonstrate that informative advertising can reduce the cognitive effort required in website use, rather than increasing it. By facilitating information search, in particular for consumers with information seeking

needs, informative advertisements can indirectly influence media vehicle value by reducing demands on limited cognitive resources (LaRose and Eastin 2004). Furthermore, the results provide novel insights into the increasing effect of entertainment value on required cognitive effort, in turn negatively influencing media vehicle value. While advertising literature has highlighted the positive effects of entertaining advertisements from the brand perspective (Galloway 2009), this research posits that the consequences for the media vehicle may be negative rather than positive due to additional cognitive stress placed on consumers.

8.7 Managerial Implications

This research provides valuable guidance for website managers employing advertisement sponsored business models. One of the main challenges faced by website managers is striking a balance between maximising advertisement revenue and delivering value to consumers to ensure future visits (Dewan, Freimer et al. 2002). Choices must be made as to the amount of real estate within a webpage allocated to advertising, optimising revenue yet ensuring that advertisements do not negatively affect consumer value. This research shows that, rather than focussing on advertisement to content ratio, the types of advertisements displayed should be carefully considered. Thus, website managers should actively manage hosted advertising content as benefits can arise from doing so, or failing that problems can arise (Rosengren and Dahlén 2013).

Understanding direct and indirect effects of individual advertisement value components can be beneficial for making managerial decisions regarding the types of advertisements to display. This research shows that informative advertisements have the most positive influence on overall assessment of the website by consumers. Advertisement information value also affects consumer perception of utilitarian value derived and is recommended for websites with a primarily utilitarian focus. Conversely, entertaining advertisements contribute to

hedonic value derived by consumers. However, this research demonstrates that entertaining advertisements can increase cognitive load demands on consumers, increasing the cognitive effort required in website use. This can have a negative influence on perceptions of the website and should therefore be taken into consideration when assessing the advantages and disadvantages of displaying entertaining advertisements.

The need to understand consumer motivations for website use is also highlighted in this research. For example, positive effects of informative advertisements on utilitarian value derived is significant only for consumers driven by information seeking needs. Similarly, advertisement entertainment value was only found to positively influence hedonic value and overall perceptions of website service value for consumers driven by entertainment seeking needs. Therefore, website managers should carefully consider motivations of consumers in visiting their websites and tailor the type of advertisement value delivered accordingly.

The concept of advertisement exchange value is also an important factor for website management to consider, albeit a more abstract one. Consumers desire a fair exchange and this influences value derived from a website. Advertisement value can positively influence consumer perceptions of exchange fairness. Thus, it can be argued that within a given tolerance more advertisements could be presented to a consumer when perceived as valuable. Managers need to understand the value of their own content and website to consumers in order to optimize the types of advertisements they are willing to tolerate.

These managerial implications are arguably even more pertinent for websites that are relatively new or unknown. It can be argued that the high influence of advertising on website value demonstrated in the experiment is due to relative unfamiliarity with the website. As consumers have no prior experience of the website they are more likely to utilize cues to form judgements and draw conclusions (Sengupta, Goodstein et al. 1997). Advertisements act as

an important cue, in particular if they are prominent within the webpage (Kim and Sundar 2010), and managers should ensure that advertisements are projecting the right image.

These recommendations highlight the importance of carefully managing the types of advertisements presented to consumers, both in terms of advertisement value and matching advertisements to consumer needs. With the increased ability to target consumers based on criteria such as prior search behaviour, demographics or geographic location, this research supports the importance of targeting effectively and matching the types of advertisement value with motivations driving consumer use.

8.8 Limitation and Directions for Future Research

The contributions offered by this study to theory and practice should be viewed in light of several limitations which may be used to guide recommendations for future research. First, as with many advertising related studies, this research is cross-sectional in nature. Both the experiment and field study capture consumer impressions of a website at a single point in time. Therefore, it was not possible to examine if the effects of valuable advertising change over time, such as in accordance with the consistency in which valuable advertisements are presented. It remains to be explored if a valuable advertisement has greater influence on website value for websites that consistently host valuable advertising due to a consistency effect, as compared to a website that only occasionally hosts valuable advertisements as a consequence of novelty. Furthermore, researchers argue that cross-sectional studies cannot and should not be used to determine causality (Chandler and Lyon 2001), a limitation which could be addressed in future studies by utilising alternative data collection approaches, such as panel data, or by employing longitudinal study design.

While brand and product were controlled in the experiment, this was not possible for the field study. Advertisements can have value independent of the advertised brand (Cunningham and

Haley 2000) and it is possible that certain factors, such as consumer familiarity with the brand, level of involvement, or attitudes, may moderate the influence of advertisement value. This research did not focus on these factors which present as an important topic that a future study might address. Similarly, it is likely that consumer optimal stimulation level (OSL) could play a role in determining the effects of advertisement value on cognitive effort required and the influence of cognitive effort on media vehicle value. Extant literature argues that individuals that have high optimal stimulation levels require greater sensory input to achieve maximum pleasure from consumption activities (Bello and Etzel 1985). It is a possibility that the inclusion of OSL as a construct in this study may have resulted in better understanding of the unexpected influence of advertisement entertainment value on cognitive effort. For example, individuals with high OSL could derive greater resultant value due to the increased cognitive effort required from the presentation of entertaining advertisements. Future studies could address these effects of consumer OSL.

The context of this research acts as a study limitation and opportunity for future research. Both the experiment and field study were conducted in the online context, with no coverage of offline communication channels. Future studies are required to explore if findings of this research hold across different media contexts. It would be valuable to compare results in the online and offline environments, in particular for media brands which have cross-platform vehicles, such as a magazine with a physical copy and electronic version. Additionally, this research was restricted to examining websites with a content provision focus where consumer interaction with the website is minimal beyond basic content consumption activity. Social interaction online is an important part of the current media environment, evidenced by the growth and proliferation of social networking sites (Whiting and Williams 2013). Future studies are needed to address the influence of advertisement value on social media for consumers driven by social seeking behaviours.

This research highlights the importance of understanding consumer perceptions of exchange fairness in the content consumption environment. However, the measures used focussed solely on the fairness component without the individual's assessment of content value. Logan's (2013) scale proposed two measures to explore consumer understanding of monetary value of the content they were assessing. However, they were removed from the study due to validity issues, as discussed in Chapter Four. Consequently, interaction effects of valuable advertising with the value of content to the consumer were not examined in this research. As content value contributes greatly to consumer value derived, future research should explore this interaction effect. For example, consumers who place greater value on the content they are accessing could possibly react differently to valuable advertising as compared to those who deem the content less important to their needs.

Contrary to expectations, increased advertising interactivity was not found to influence advertisement value in the experiment, and was thus not a focus in the field study. As advertisers start to utilize interactive advertisements in the communication environment, the need for academia to understand how interactive advertisements influence consumers is pertinent. Therefore, it is recommended that future studies explore interactivity in more detail. For example, matching varying levels of advertisement interactivity with consumer OSL could prove to be a fruitful topic of research..

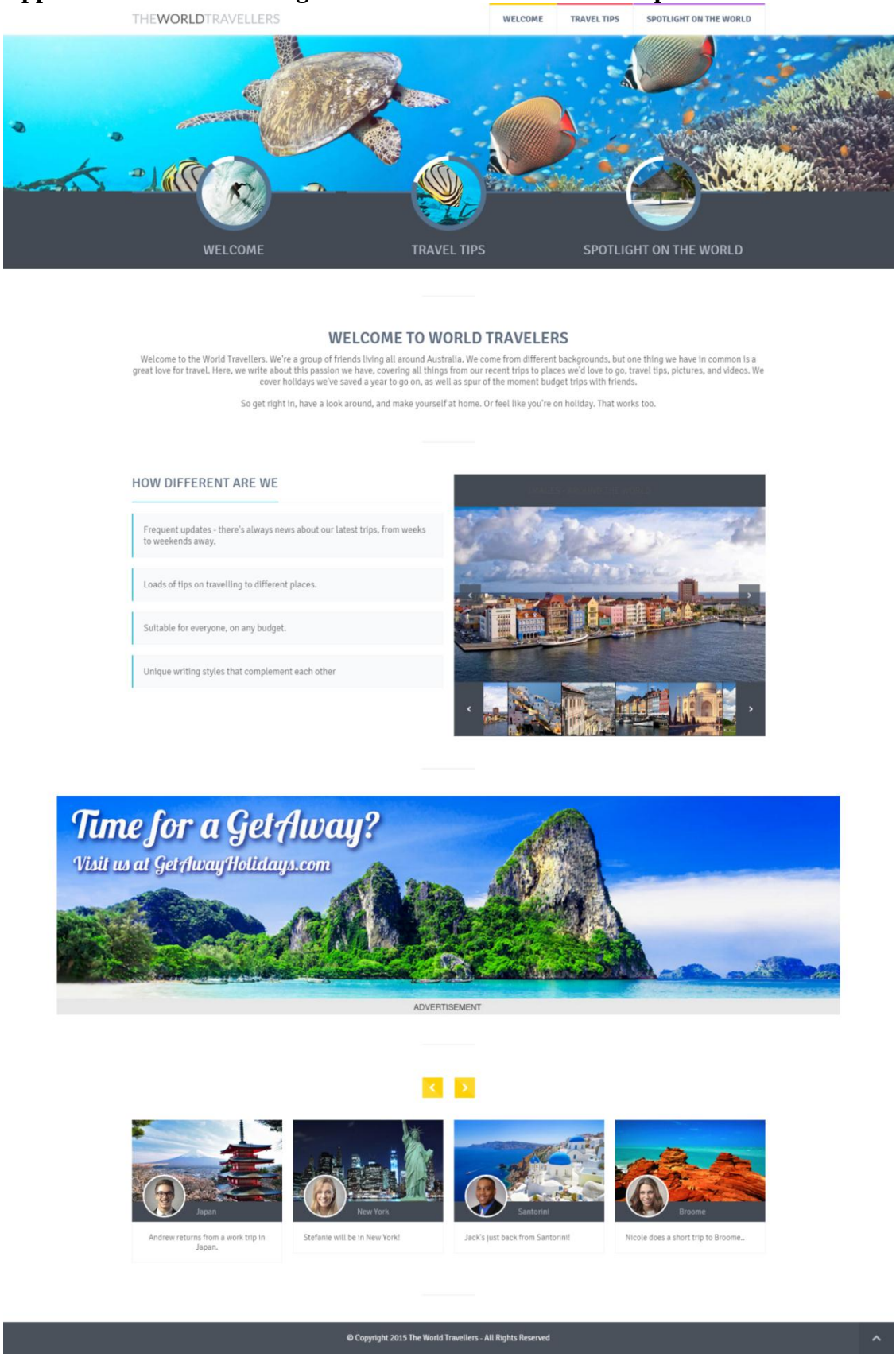
8.9 Concluding Remarks

In conclusion, findings from this research support the core proposition of the study that advertising can positively influence consumer perceptions of media vehicle value. Two proposed mechanisms, advertisement exchange value and cognitive effort, were determined to function as mediators in this relationship. Additionally, this research highlights the importance of understanding consumer motivations driving website use as an influencer of

the effects of advertisement value on media vehicle value. This study makes important contributions to advertising and media context literature, and provides notable recommendations for practice. Indeed, findings contributes to a better understanding of how advertisements can act as a valuable component of a media vehicle, as opposed to being a disutility as frequently portrayed in literature. In the interest of advancing knowledge, recommendations for future research are provided. As advertising is a central feature of the content consumption environment, scholars should strive to develop better conceptual understanding of how advertisements interact with the media vehicle in which it is presented.

Appendices

Appendix A – Website designed for use in the Phase One Experiment



TRAVEL TIPS

This is where we jot down tips that we've picked up on our trips, from how to travel light, to the best way to get to know the locals.

Hotel Tips

Forgot your charger or adapter? Chances are for every person who's forgotten to bring one there's someone who's forgotten to take their's with them. Check with the front desk, they usually have a box full of them.

For the budget traveller in a hotel with exorbitent Internet access rates, ask for a first floor room - there's a high possibility you'll be able to access the wifi from nearby cafes for free.

Count the doors between your room and the emergency exit - simple enough, and could save your life during a fire, especially if you have to crawl under thick smoke feeling your way through.

Going somewhere foreign but don't want to buy a dozen adapters for all your devices? Buy one, and bring along a power board.

Airplane Tips

Don't take your sleeping pills till you're in the air - As tempting as it is to sleep through the long waits at the airport, don't do it. You might miss important announcements and such.

Some airports these days are starting to introduce swap shelves for books - Leave one, and take one. A great way to get fresh reading material, plus it lightens your luggage load.

Don't grab the seat in front of you when you're getting up - it's just basic courtesy.

Travelling with a friend or spouse and want a little extra room? Book the window and aisle seats in a 3 seat row. Chances are the seat in between will be vacant if the flight isn't completely full. If someone does sit there, just offer them a seat exchange - who's not going to swap a middle for a window or aisle seat?

Packing Tips

Zipper storage bags (Ziplock, Glad and the like) are great to help you squeeze clothes in a small suitcase - Fold your clothes, sit on the bag and zip it up.

A small powerboard in your handcarry can be a lifesaver at airports, especially during flight delays.

A packing list not only helps you to ensure that you don't forget anything, it also serves to help you and airline staff out if your checked baggage gets lost. Also, leaving a tag with your contact information inside the bag can increase your chances of getting it back if it gets lost en route.

Make your luggage stand out with tags, stickers or duct tape - This will not only make it easier for you to spot it on the baggage carousel but also reduce the likelihood that someone else will accidentally pick it up.

Reduce "deadspace" in your bags such as those in shoes by stuffing your socks, underwear or other small items in them.

Santorini!

Santorini. Before this trip the only impression I had of the Greek Islands came from a couple of postcards I'd seen of beaches with amazingly clear water, and white buildings with blue roofs on the cliffside. And I must admit, I'd always thought those postcards had to be photoshopped or at very least touched up. Boy was I wrong. For 5 days on the island everywhere I looked was a view that made you just sigh and wish you could live there forever. But I get ahead of myself.

Santorini. A Greek Island in the Aegean Sea, about a 200 km southeast of the mainland. A volcano island, it's what remains of a volcanic caldera after it erupted thousands of years ago. Probably due to this same eruption (I should look this up), a giant lagoon was created surrounded by 300m high steep cliffs on 3 sides. This has resulted in a topography that leaves one breathless.

Santorini Close-Up Shot

Santorini Hill

But the volcano's not all there is on this amazing island. With multicoloured beaches (Red, black, white and stone-y), amazing waters, it is a mediterranean paradise. The island itself isn't huge, you can drive from one end to the other in under an hour. We rented quad bikes (all you require is a driver's license) and happily zoomed around from one place to another. They seat up to 2 people per bike, and easy to drive around. Pro tip - If you or your friend are.. ahem.. slightly bigger, do consider forking out just a couple of euros more and getting a more powerful bike; the terrain does mean that half the roads are going uphill.

As expected, there's plenty of spots to swim, snorkel or dive. When we rented our quad bike (you can get your hotel to recommend a shop), we grabbed a map from them and asked for tips on where to go. I'd definitely recommend you do the same as we were pointed to a little known cove off the beaten trail, where we literally walked to the edge of an old pier, jumped into the water and swam to a little spit of land. With the sun shining and the water perfect, it was a little slice of heaven. Places like these inspire great quotes (well "great" quotes), to be exact: "If I were a fish I'd definitely swim here".

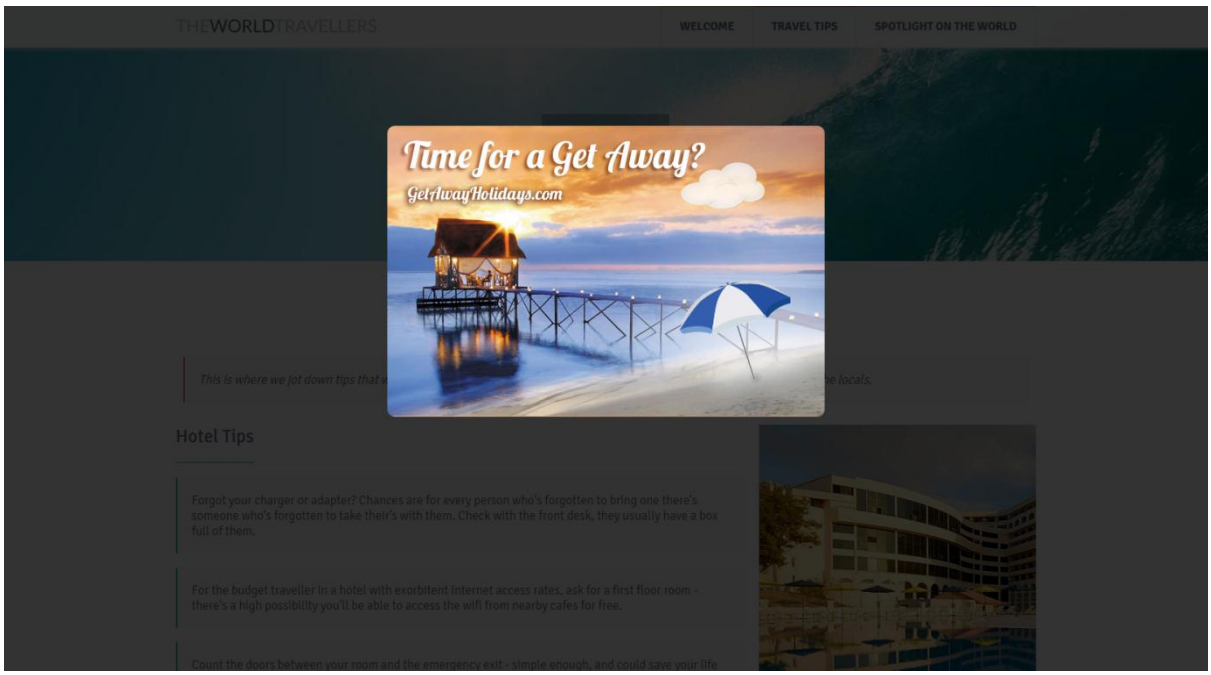
We stayed in one of the numberous hotels on the cliffside, little beehive like pods painted beautifully white and arranged neatly. As an added bonus, the famous Santorini sunset was staggeringly observerble from our balcony. Don't be fooled by the claims that the best views are from boats out at sea - the numerous bars and restaurants all give the same, if not better. For us, it was a matter of walking 5 minutes to a little place called the Tropical Bar, sitting out on the balcony with a drink and just chilling for an hour. Or more. Every evening. And more than one drink. We drank coplous amounts of the locally brewed beer, Yellow Donkey, and it might have been the atmosphere but I would swear it was the best beer I'd ever had.

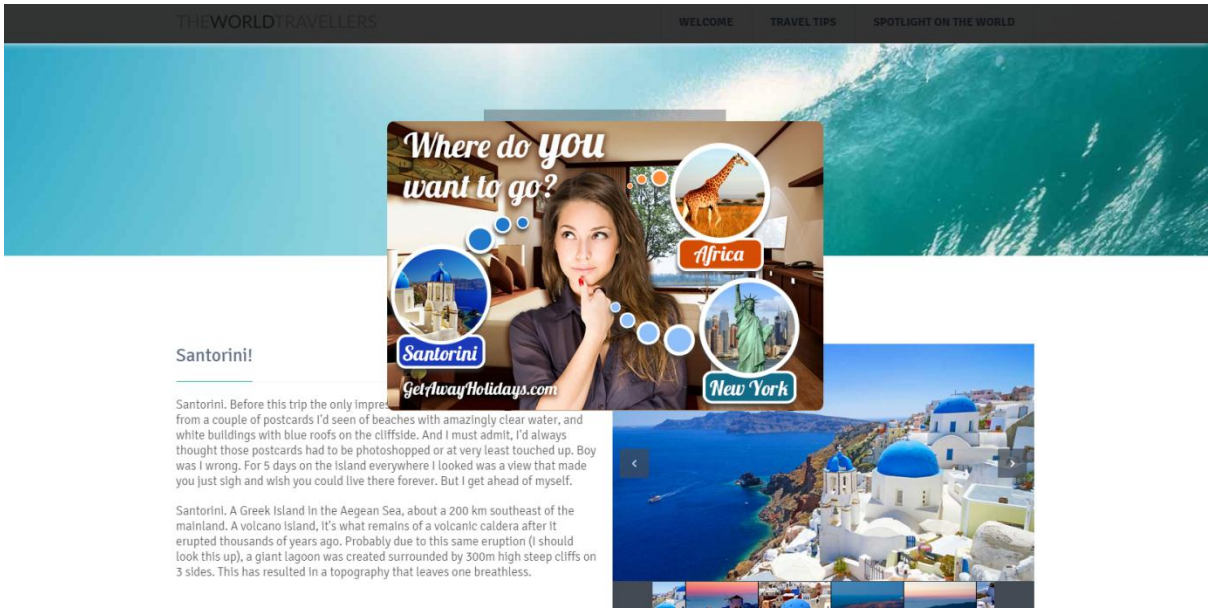
Donkeys are one of the iconic things about Santorini, so take the chance to get on one and ride from the old port to town, Thira. When you're there, spend some time exploring the cobblestone streets lined with small shops, some new, and some that have been there for decades. You'll find on sale a large assortment of beautiful jewellery, all in beautiful Agean style.

Alas, all good things must come to an end, and when it was time to go, it was definitely one of the hardest goodbyes. Even as I write this, I'm still wishing I was back there, sitting at the bar with a beer in hand watching the beautiful sunset. But don't take my word for it, check out the pictures in here, and in the gallery. I promise, they're all raw pictures without the slightest touchups.

Appendix B – Banner Ads for the Experiment, high and low visual quality

Appendix C – Screen Takeover ads for the Experiment





Appendix D: Questionnaire used in Phase one

Introduction

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this quick survey. Please be assured that all information will be kept strictly confidential. This survey has been approved by the University of Adelaide Human Research Ethics Approval Committee (HREC). You are free to leave this survey at any time - although you would help us greatly if you take it through right to the end. We are interested in how people use websites on a day to day basis as well as their opinions of the value derived over time. We will ask you questions about the entire page, but there are no right or wrong answers. We are interested your opinions of certain websites, but none of your individual responses will be analysed in any great detail. You are helping a University of Adelaide PhD student in an important data collection stage of his thesis. Please contact Ervin (ervin.sim@adelaide.edu.au) with any questions, or his supervisor Dr. Steve Goodman (steve.goodman@adelaide.edu.au).

Thank you.

Before we proceed, we need your consent for the following:1) I, the respondent, agree to participate in this survey and research project. 2) I have had the project, so far as it affects me, fully explained to my satisfaction by the researcher. My consent is given freely. 3) Although I understand that the purpose of this research project is to improve the understanding behind webpage usage, it has also been explained that my involvement may not be of any benefit to me. 4) I have been informed that, while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will not be divulged. 5) I understand that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time. Once again, should any questions arise, please feel free to contact Ervin (ervin.sim@adelaide.edu.au) with any further questions. If you wish to discuss with an independent person matters related to making a complaint, or raising concerns on the conduct of the project, or the University policy on research involving human participants, or your rights as a participant contact the Adelaide University Human Research Ethics Committee's Secretary by phone at:

(08) 83036028

- ❍ I agree to the abovemention conditions.
- ❍ I do not agree with the abovementioned conditions

Which age range do you fit into?

- ❍ Under 18
- ❍ 18 - 24
- ❍ 25 - 29
- ❍ 30 - 34
- ❍ 35 - 39
- ❍ 40 - 44
- ❍ 45 - 49
- ❍ 50 - 60
- ❍ 60 +
- ❍ I'd rather not say.

What sort of device are you currently on?

- ❍ Laptop
- ❍ Desktop
- ❍ Tablet
- ❍ Mobile Phone

How often do you read reviews online, for:

	Never (1)	(2)	(3)	Sometimes (4)	(5)	(6)	All the time (7)
Products	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Services (e.g: Restaurants)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

How often do you travel internationally?

- ❍ Less than once a year
- ❍ Once a year
- ❍ Every 6 months
- ❍ Every 3 months
- ❍ Every 2 months
- ❍ Monthly
- ❍ Fortnightly or more

Have you ever been to Santorini, Greece?

- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

Imagine you were travelling to Santorini in the next fortnight. You've decided to read a couple of travel blogs and reviews, in order to get a better idea of the place, what to expect, and what to pack. After a Google search, you come across a website, with travel tips and a post on Santorini. Please visit the following Website: The World Travellers. Please take some time to read through the 3 different tabs, the "Welcome page", "Travel Tips" and "Spotlight on the World". We'll ask you a few questions on the content after that, and would appreciate you taking 3 to 5 minutes or so with it, and only click through to the question when you've done so.

Have you spent at least 3 minutes on the website?

- ❍ Yes

Thank you for spending time on the website. Which of the following pages and categories did you read through? (Please tick as many the relevant categories as you like)

- ❑ Hotel Tips
- ❑ Airplane Tips
- ❑ Packing Tips
- ❑ Budget Travelling Tips
- ❑ Spotlight on the World
- ❑ Local Travel
- ❑ Environment Saving
- ❑ Twisted Travelling
- ❑ Hidden Gold
- ❑ About Us
- ❑ Safety Tips

Now that you've spent some time on the website, we'll like to ask you a couple of questions regarding your impressions of it. The website:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The website enabled me to accomplish my task quickly.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The website enhances my task effectiveness.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The website makes it easier for me to do tasks.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I had fun interacting with the website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using the website provided me with a lot of enjoyment.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I enjoyed browsing the website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The website was boring.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using the website allowed me to make a lot of decisions on my own.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have a lot of input into what happens during website use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have flexibility when using the website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have control when using the website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The website was difficult to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

It takes a lot of effort to understand how to use the website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Please select "Somewhat Disagree" for this row.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The website is cumbersome to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The website is easy to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
People will be impressed that I used this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website will help me to feel accepted by others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website improves the way I am perceived by others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website will make a good impression on others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

There was advertising hosted on the website, what did you think of it? The Ads:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Provides timely information on products or services.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Tells people about the products or services when they need the information.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Supplies relevant information.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are a good source of up-to-date product information.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Makes product information immediately accessible.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are a convenient source of product information.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Supplies complete product information.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Please select "Agree" for this row.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are entertaining.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are enjoyable.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are pleasing	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are fun to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are exciting.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are irritating.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Insults people's intelligence.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
There is too much advertising.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The advertisements are deceptive.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The advertisements are confusing.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

The advertising you saw:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Enabled two-way communication.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Retained my attention.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Was interactive.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Was unable to keep my attention.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
There was variety in terms of advertising content	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

With regards to yourself, the advertiser and advertising hosted on the website, what are you views on the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Both parties benefit in proportion to the effort put in.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The user of the website benefits more than the advertiser.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Even if the costs and benefits are not evenly shared by the advertiser and user, they'll balance out over time.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If this site didn't have advertising, I'd have to pay to view the content.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If a company is making it possible for me to access content, it is fair for them to advertise in it.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

The advertising that you see on this website is:

- ❍ Distracting
- ❍ Disturbing
- ❍ Forced
- ❍ Interfering
- ❍ Intrusive
- ❍ Invasive
- ❍ Obtrusive

Can you remember what site the advertisements were for?

- ❍ GetAwayHolidays.com
- ❍ GoingAwayHolidays.com
- ❍ SantoriniTravel.com
- ❍ WorldTravellerHolidays.com
- ❍ WorldTravelling.com
- ❍ SantoriniHolidays.com
- ❍ Do not recall

What was the cost of a trip to Santorini advertised?

- ❍ $588
- ❍ $649
- ❍ $698
- ❍ $748
- ❍ $798
- ❍ $848
- ❍ Don't recall seeing a price.

Which award did the travel agency win?

- ❍ Best Online travel agency 2014/2015
- ❍ Best Mediterranean Agency 2014/2015
- ❍ Most "Value for Money" tour packages 2014/2015
- ❍ "Local agency of the year" 2014/2015
- ❍ No awards.
- ❍ Don't recall seeing an award.

What is your opinion of the advertised travel agency, Get-Away Holidays?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good:Bad	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Likable:Dislikeable	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Unpleasant:Pleasant	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
High Quality:Low Quality	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Thinking about this website,

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I like to use as many features as possible.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I believe I have used the full potential of the features on this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I think I have used only a minimal amount of features available on this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I think I have significantly used the features on this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I am happy with the website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Overall I am pleased when I used this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using the website is a satisfying experience.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
My choice to use this website was a wise one.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Please select "Somewhat Disagree" for this statement.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Overall I am satisfied with this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I think I did the right thing in deciding to use this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would probably use this website again.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would recommend this website to others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If I had to, I would choose this website again.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Thinking about the website again,

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The value I receive from this website's services is worth the time, effort or money I have invested	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I am happy with the price of, or effort required for this website's services.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website makes me feel like it's worth my time.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The value of this website's services compares favourably to other websites.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website offers good value for what I give up.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Thanks, just a few more questions to help us get to know you better.

On average, how many hours a day do you spend on the internet?

_____ Hours per day

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall I consider advertising a good thing.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
My general opinion of advertising is unfavourable.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Overall, I like advertising	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

What's your gender?

- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female

What is your annual income range?

- ❍ No income
- ❍ $1 - $10,399)
- ❍ $10,400 - $15,599
- ❍ $15,600 - $20,799
- ❍ $20,800 - $31,199
- ❍ $31,200 - $41,599
- ❍ $41,600 - $51,999
- ❍ $52,000 - $64,999
- ❍ $65,000 - $77,999
- ❍ $78,000 - $103,999
- ❍ $104,000 - $129,999
- ❍ $130,000 or more
- ❍ I'd rather not say.

Which occupational category best describes your employment?

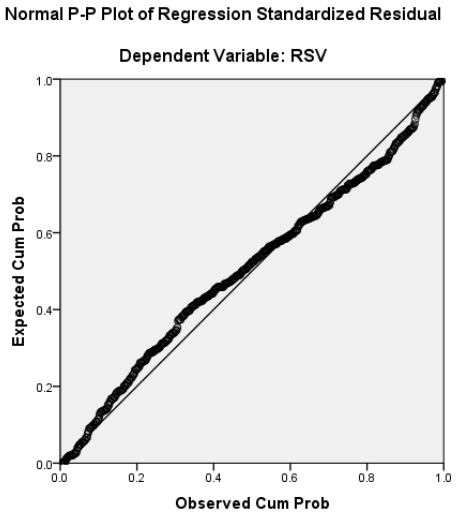
- ❍ Management: professional or related occupations
- ❍ Management: business or financial operations occupations
- ❍ Management occupations, except farmers and farm managers
- ❍ Farmers and farm managers
- ❍ Business and financial operations
- ❍ Business operations specialists
- ❍ Financial specialists
- ❍ Computer or mathematical
- ❍ Architects, surveyors, cartographers, or engineers
- ❍ Drafters, engineering, or mapping technicians
- ❍ Life, physical, or social science
- ❍ Community and social services
- ❍ Legal
- ❍ Education, training, or library
- ❍ Arts, design, entertainment, sports, or media
- ❍ Health diagnosing or treating practitioners & technical occupations
- ❍ Health technologists or technicians
- ❍ Health care support
- ❍ Fire fighting, prevention or law enforcement workers, (including supervisors)
- ❍ Other protective service workers (including supervisors)
- ❍ Food preparation or serving-related
- ❍ Building, grounds cleaning or maintenance
- ❍ Personal care or service
- ❍ Sales or related occupations
- ❍ Office or administrative support
- ❍ Farming, fishing, or forestry
- ❍ Supervisors, construction or extraction
- ❍ Construction trades workers
- ❍ Extraction workers
- ❍ Installation, maintenance, or repair occupations
- ❍ Production
- ❍ Supervisors, transportation or material moving
- ❍ Aircraft or traffic control
- ❍ Motor vehicle operators
- ❍ Rail, water or other transportation
- ❍ Material moving
- ❍ Student

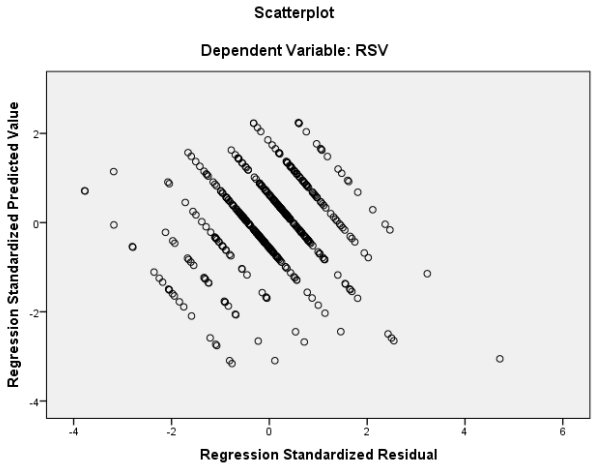
Thank you for completing the survey. Please feel free to get in touch should you have any questions, again my email is ervin.sim@adelaide.edu.au.

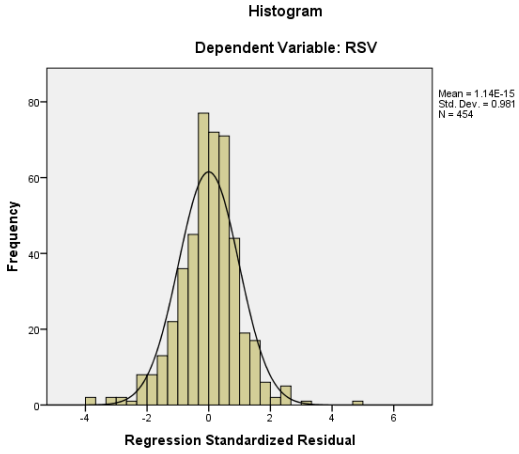
Appendix E– Phase One data analysis: Skewness and Kurtosis

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis	Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis	Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis
InfoSeek1	-0.279	0.066	AdInfo1	0.708	-0.212	CE1	0.827	0.711
InfoSeek2	-0.400	0.545	AdInfo2	0.095	-0.053	CE2	0.038	-0.888
InfoSeek3	0.353	-0.854	AdInfo3	0.504	-0.959	CE3	-0.335	0.269
EntSeek1	-0.242	0.800	AdInfo4	0.367	-0.615	CE4	0.244	-0.067
EntSeek2	-0.960	-0.257	AdInfo5	0.125	-0.542	UV1	-0.595	-0.104
EntSeek3	0.221	-0.639	AdInfo6	-0.031	0.975	UV2	0.399	-0.933
EntSeek4	0.057	-0.311	AdInfo7	0.595	-0.931	UV3	-0.526	-0.397
EntSeek5	0.043	0.592	AdEnt1	0.707	0.297	HV1	0.622	-0.830
AdIrritate1	-0.296	0.924	AdEnt2	-0.003	0.734	HV2	-0.557	-0.023
AdIrritate2	0.553	-0.300	AdEnt3	-0.539	0.099	HV4	-0.978	0.943
AdIrritate3	-0.546	0.377	AdEnt4	-0.564	-0.123	HV3	0.633	-0.845
AdIrritate4	0.581	-0.629	AdEnt5	0.299	0.232	OPV1	0.349	0.369
AdIrritate5	0.177	0.189	AEX1	0.682	-0.821	OPV2	-0.201	0.632
			AEX2	-0.378	0.069	OPV3	-0.084	0.771
			AEX3	0.510	-0.102	OPV4	0.366	0.644
						OPV5	0.499	-0.056

Appendix F – Phase One data analysis: Homoscedasticity and Linearity







Appendix G – Phase One data analysis: Outer Loadings of Constructs

Construct	Item	Outer Loading	T-Statistics	P Values
Advertising Exchange Value	AEX1	0.820	50.162	.00
	AEX2	0.729	19.677	.00
	AEX3	0.809	34.733	.00
	AEX4	0.573	12.498	.00
	AEX5	0.690	17.365	.00
Advertisement Entertainment	AdEnt1	0.961	194.014	.00
	AdEnt2	0.971	263.911	.00
	AdEnt3	0.972	299.688	.00
	AdEnt4	0.954	104.017	.00
	AdEnt5	0.918	94.376	.00
Advertisement Irritation	AdIrritate1	0.785	34.391	.00
	AdIrritate2	0.795	27.646	.00
	AdIrritate3	0.816	34.130	.00
	AdIrritate4	0.811	34.274	.00
	AdIrritate5	0.829	40.122	.00
Advertising Informativeness	Adinfo1	0.903	77.914	.00
	Adinfo2	0.917	89.887	.00
	Adinfo3	0.903	65.062	.00
	Adinfo4	0.949	164.663	.00
	Adinfo5	0.904	64.620	.00
	Adinfo6	0.922	92.241	.00
	Adinfo7	0.830	37.967	.00
Cognitive Effort	CE1	0.864	40.825	.00
	CE2	0.743	16.164	.00
	CE3	0.806	26.568	.00
	CE4	0.881	73.988	.00
Hedonic Value	HV1	0.920	109.004	.00
	HV2	0.921	101.111	.00
	HV3	0.933	127.565	.00
	HV4	0.778	27.138	.00
Utilitarian Value	UV1	0.915	81.465	.00
	UV2	0.948	104.816	.00
	UV3	0.952	184.365	.00
Overall Perceived Value	OPV1	0.932	111.418	.00
	OPV2	0.908	73.305	.00
	OPV3	0.948	151.132	.00
	OPV4	0.934	115.610	.00
	OPV5	0.934	91.724	.00

Appendix H – Phase One data analysis: Discriminant Validity

Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	AEX	AdEnt	AdInfo	AdIrritate	CE	HedonicV	OPV	SocialV	UtilitarianV
AEX	0.824								
AdEnt	0.697	0.955							
AdInfo	0.707	0.826	0.905						
AdIrritate	-0.495	-0.629	-0.599	0.807					
CE	-0.320	-0.312	-0.405	0.450	0.825				
HedonicV	0.593	0.577	0.582	-0.469	-0.610	0.890			
OPV	0.642	0.569	0.648	-0.451	-0.466	0.686	0.931		
SocialV	0.603	0.607	0.586	-0.335	-0.200	0.541	0.622	0.885	
UtilitarianV	0.566	0.508	0.575	-0.422	-0.630	0.776	0.648	0.520	0.938

Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	AEX	AdEnt	AdInfo	AdIrritate	CE	HedonicV	OPV	SocialV	UtilitarianV
AEX									
AdEnt	0.798								
AdInfo	0.811	0.851							
AdIrritate	-0.595	-0.675	-0.649						
CE	-0.333	-0.296	-0.403	0.506					
HedonicV	0.696	0.611	0.62	-0.531	-0.656				
OPV	0.735	0.587	0.672	-0.492	-0.477	0.732			
SocialV	0.718	0.645	0.627	-0.372	-0.173	0.593	0.668		
UtilitarianV	0.660	0.532	0.606	-0.467	-0.662	0.839	0.683	0.568	

Appendix I – Questionnaire used in Phase Two

Welcome.

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this quick survey. Please be assured that all information will be kept strictly confidential. This survey has been approved by the University of Adelaide Human Research Ethics Approval Committee (HREC). You are free to leave this survey at any time - although you would help us greatly if you take it through right to the end. We are interested in online behaviour, how people use websites on a day to day basis as well as their opinions of the value derived over time. We will ask you questions about the entire page, but there are no right or wrong answers. We're interested your opinions of certain websites, but none of your individual responses will be analysed in any great detail. You're helping a University of Adelaide PhD student in an important data collection stage of his thesis. Please contact Ervin (ervin.sim@adelaide.edu.au) with any questions, or his supervisor Dr. Steve Goodman (steve.goodman@adelaide.edu.au).

Thank you.

Before we proceed, we need your consent for the following:

1) I, the respondent, agree to participate in this survey and research project.

2) I have had the project, so far as it affects me, fully explained to my satisfaction by the researcher. My consent is given freely.

3) Although I understand that the purpose of this research project is to improve the understanding behind webpage usage, it has also been explained that my involvement may not be of any benefit to me.

4) I have been informed that, while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will not be divulged.

5) I understand that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time.

Once again, should any questions arise, please feel free to contact Ervin (ervin.sim@adelaide.edu.au) with any further questions. If you wish to discuss with an independent person matters related to making a complaint, raising concerns on the conduct of the project, the University policy on research involving human participants, or your rights as a participant, please contact the Adelaide University Human Research Ethics Committee's Secretary by phone at:

(08) 8303 6028

- ❍ I agree to the abovementioned conditions.
- ❍ I do not agree with the abovementioned conditions.

Which of these following sites have you used in the past 6 months?

- ❑ YouTube
- ❑ Flickr
- ❑ Urbanspoon
- ❑ None of the above.

Which age range do you fit into?

- ❍ Under 18
- ❍ 18 - 24
- ❍ 25 - 29
- ❍ 30 - 34
- ❍ 35 - 39
- ❍ 40 - 44
- ❍ 45 - 49
- ❍ 50 - 60
- ❍ I'd rather not say

A1 How often do you visit YouTube?

- ❍ Less than once a month
- ❍ Once a Month
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Month
- ❍ Once a Week
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Week
- ❍ Daily
- ❍ Twice a day
- ❍ More than twice daily

A2 How long on average do you spend on YouTube per visit?

- ❍ 2 Hours or more
- ❍ Between 1 and 2 Hours
- ❍ 1 Hour
- ❍ Half hour to an hour
- ❍ 15 minutes
- ❍ 10 minutes
- ❍ 5 minutes
- ❍ Less than 5 minutes

A3 How many videos, regardless of length, do you watch per visit on average?

- ❍ More than 10
- ❍ 8 to 10
- ❍ 5 to 7
- ❍ 4
- ❍ 3
- ❍ 2
- ❍ 1

A4 Do you have a YouTube account?

- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

A5 Do you log in when you use YouTube?

- ❍ Always
- ❍ Most of the Time
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Never

A6 Which of the following features do you utilize on Youtube? Do you...

	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Watch suggested videos on the home page.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Use the "Watch Later" feature.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
"Like" videos.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Comment on videos.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Utilize the Subtitles feature.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Upload videos.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Subscribe to channels.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Watch the "Recommended videos" AFTER my initial video.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Search for videos.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Filter video searches by criteria such as uploaded time and length.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Download videos or audio tracks from YouTube, either directly or using a third party software.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Others:	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

B1 How often do you visit Flickr?

- ❍ Less than once a month
- ❍ Once a Month
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Month
- ❍ Once a Week
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Week
- ❍ Daily
- ❍ Twice a day
- ❍ More than twice daily

B2 How long on average do you spend on Flickr per visit?

- ❍ 2 Hours or more
- ❍ Between 1 and 2 Hours
- ❍ 1 Hour
- ❍ Half hour to an hour
- ❍ 15 minutes
- ❍ 10 minutes
- ❍ 5 minutes
- ❍ Less than 5 minutes

B3 How many images on average do you view per visit?

- ❍ More than 25
- ❍ 20 to 25
- ❍ 15 to 19
- ❍ 10 to 14
- ❍ 5 to 9
- ❍ 2 to 4
- ❍ 1

B4 Do you have a Flickr account?

- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

B5 What sort of Flickr account do you have?

- ❍ Basic account.
- ❍ Previous "PRO" account.
- ❍ Ad Free account.
- ❍ Doublr account.
- ❍ Not sure

B6 Do you log in when you use Flickr?

- ❍ Always
- ❍ Most of the time
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Never

B7 Which of the following features do you utilize on Flickr? Do you...

	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
View recommended images on the home page.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Comment on images.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Add images to my "Favourites".	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Comment on videos.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Connect to friends.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Follow other posters.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Upload images.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Use the "Explore" feature.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Search for images.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Use Geotagging.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Download or save images.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Use third party sites such as Hivemind to connect, search or aggregate pictures from Flickr.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Others:	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

C1 How often do you visit UrbanSpoon?

- ❍ Less than once a month
- ❍ Once a Month
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Month
- ❍ Once a Week
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Week
- ❍ Daily
- ❍ Twice a day
- ❍ More than twice daily

C2 How long on average do you spend on UrbanSpoon per visit?

- ❍ 2 Hours or more
- ❍ Between 1 and 2 Hours
- ❍ 1 Hour
- ❍ Half hour to an hour
- ❍ 15 minutes
- ❍ 10 minutes
- ❍ 5 minutes
- ❍ Less than 5 minutes

C3 How many restaurants do you look at per visit on average?

- ❍ More than 10
- ❍ 8 to 10
- ❍ 5 to 7
- ❍ 4
- ❍ 3
- ❍ 2
- ❍ 1

C4 Do you have an UrbanSpoon account?

- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

C5 Do you log in when you use UrbanSpoon?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Most of the Time
- ❍ Always

C6 Which of the following features do you utilize on UrbanSpoon? Do you...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always
Vote for restaurants.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Upload reviews of restaurants.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Add restaurants to my wishlist.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
"Favourite" restaurants.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
"Share" restaurants.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Make bookings.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Upload pictures.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Search for restaurants by location.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Search for restaurants by cuisine.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
View suggested similar restaurants.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Read reviews of restaurants.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Look up opening hours of the restaurant.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Others	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q4-1 Thinking about your average visit to the website...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The website enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The website enhances my task effectiveness.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The website makes it easier for me to do tasks.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have fun interacting with this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Please select 'Strongly Disagree' for this row.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using this website provides me with a lot of enjoyment.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q4-2 Still thinking about your average visit to the website,

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Using this website allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I enjoy using this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have a lot to say about what happens during website use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have flexibility when using this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have control when I use this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website is difficult to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It will take a lot of effort to understand how to use this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using this website bores me.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Please select 'Strongly Agree' for this row.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website is cumbersome to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website is easy to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
People will be impressed that I used this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using this website helps me to feel accepted by others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using this website improves the way I am perceived by others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using this website makes a good impression on other.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q5 Have you ever paid anything to the website?

❍ Yes
❍ No

Q6 I am happy with the price(s) of the service(s) charged by the website

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q7 The service(s) purchased were / are expensive

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q67 The services that were on sale were reasonably priced.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q8 How often do you see advertising on this website?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Most of the Time
- ❍ Always

Q9 Think specifically about the advertising you usually see on this website. The advertisements usually:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Provides timely information on the product.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Tells people about the product when they need the information.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Supplies relevant information on the product.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are a good source of up-to-date product information.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Makes product information immediately accessible.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are a convenient source of product information.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Supplies complete product information.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are entertaining.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are enjoyable.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are pleasing.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are fun to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are exciting.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Are irritating.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Insults people’s intelligence.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
There is too much advertising.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The advertisement is deceptive.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The advertisement is confusing.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q10 With regards to the advertiser and advertising you might see while using this website,

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Both parties benefit in proportion to the effort put in.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The user of the website benefits more than the advertiser.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Even if costs and benefits are not evenly shared by the advertiser and user, they balance out over time.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If there are too many advertisements, I'll be willing to pay for an ad-free version.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If this site didn't have advertising, I would have to pay to view the content.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If I access a similar website online I'd probably see advertising.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If a company is making it possible for me to access content, it would be fair for them to advertise.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If I pay for content, there should not be any advertising.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would be more tolerant of advertising if it were about products that interest me.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Even if a company is making it possible to access free content, there should be a limit to how many advertisements they can show.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Thinking about the website again,

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The value I receive from this website's services is worth the time, effort or money I have invested	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I am happy with the price of, or effort required for this website's services.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website makes me feel like it's worth my time.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The value of this website's services compares favourably to other websites.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This website offers good value for what I give up.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q11 The advertising that you see on this website is:

- ❍ Distracting
- ❍ Disturbing
- ❍ Forced
- ❍ Interfering
- ❍ Intrusive
- ❍ Invasive
- ❍ Obtrusive

Q12 I use the website:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
To learn about unknown things.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As it's a good way to do research.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
To learn about useful things.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As it's convenient to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As I can get what I want for less effort.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As I can use it anytime, anywhere.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As it's easier to use.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
To pass time.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As I simply like to surf the internet.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As it's enjoyable.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As It's entertaining.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As it's a habit.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
As I wonder what other people said.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
To keep up with what's going on.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
To express myself freely.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
To meet people with similar interests.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q13 Thinking about this website,

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I like to use as many features as possible.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I believe I have used the full potential of the features on this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I think I have used only a minimal amount of features available on this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I think I have significantly used the features on this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I am happy with the website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Overall I am pleased when I used this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using the website is a satisfying experience.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
My choice to use this website was a wise one.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Overall I am satisfied with this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I think I did the right thing in deciding to use this website.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would probably use this website again.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would recommend this website to others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If I had to, I would choose this website again.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q14 In general, do you like advertising?

- ❍ Dislike Extremely
- ❍ Dislike Very Much
- ❍ Dislike Slightly
- ❍ Neither Like nor Dislike
- ❍ Like Slightly
- ❍ Like Very Much
- ❍ Like Extremely

Q15 Most advertising is informative.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q16 I like to look at most advertisements I'm exposed to.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q17 How often do you use advertising to help make your purchase decisions?

- ❍ Never
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ All the time

Q18 In general, how confident do you feel using information you see in an ad to make a purchase decision?

- ❍ Very Unconfident
- ❍ Unconfident
- ❍ Somewhat Unconfident
- ❍ Undecided
- ❍ Somewhat Confident
- ❍ Confident
- ❍ Very Confident

Q19 Most advertising insults my intelligence.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q20 How often do you feel offended by advertisements?

- ❍ Never
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ All the time

Q21 How often do you feel mislead by advertisements?

- ❍ Never
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ All the time

Q22 In general, I feel I can trust advertising.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q23 Products that I have used usually live up to the promises of quality and performance made by their advertisements.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q24 How comfortable are you about purchasing an item directly through the link, address or phone number provided in an advertisement?

- ❍ Not at all comfortable
- ❍ Not very comfortable
- ❍ A little uncomfortable
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ A little comfortable
- ❍ Somewhat comfortable
- ❍ Very Comfortable

Q25 In general, advertising results in lower prices for the products I buy.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q26 I usually get better value for my money in advertised brands of products than in unadvertised brands.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q27 What effects do you think advertising has on the prices of advertised products.

- ❍ Greatly decreases
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ No effect
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ Greatly Increases

Q28 I think the government should put less effort into regulating the content of advertising I see.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q29 Advertising regulation should be done by the advertising industry through its member associations rather than by the government.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Q30 How do you feel about the amount of regulation which the government currently places on advertising?

- ❍ Far too Little
- ❍ Too Little
- ❍
- ❍ About right
- ❍
- ❍ Too much
- ❍ Far too Much
- ❍ No idea

D1 Thank you. Now just some basic demographic questions (which will be kept confidential of course), and we're done.

D2 Are you:

- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female

D4 What is your annual income range?

- ❍ Below $20,000
- ❍ $20,000 - $29,999
- ❍ $30,000 - $39,999
- ❍ $40,000 - $49,999
- ❍ $50,000 - $59,999
- ❍ $60,000 - $69,999
- ❍ $70,000 - $79,999
- ❍ $80,000 - $89,999
- ❍ $90,000 - $99,999
- ❍ $100,000 or more
- ❍ I'd rather not say

D5 Which occupational category best describes your employment?

- ❍ Management: professional or related occupations
- ❍ Management: business or financial operations occupations
- ❍ Management occupations, except farmers and farm managers
- ❍ Farmers and farm managers
- ❍ Business and financial operations
- ❍ Business operations specialists
- ❍ Financial specialists
- ❍ Computer or mathematical
- ❍ Architects, surveyors, cartographers, or engineers
- ❍ Drafters, engineering, or mapping technicians
- ❍ Life, physical, or social science
- ❍ Community and social services
- ❍ Legal
- ❍ Education, training, or library
- ❍ Arts, design, entertainment, sports, or media
- ❍ Health diagnosing or treating practitioners & technical occupations
- ❍ Health technologists or technicians
- ❍ Health care support
- ❍ Fire fighting, prevention or law enforcement workers, (including supervisors)
- ❍ Other protective service workers (including supervisors)
- ❍ Food preparation or serving-related
- ❍ Building, grounds cleaning or maintenance
- ❍ Personal care or service
- ❍ Sales or related occupations
- ❍ Office or administrative support
- ❍ Farming, fishing, or forestry
- ❍ Supervisors, construction or extraction
- ❍ Construction trades workers
- ❍ Extraction workers
- ❍ Installation, maintenance, or repair occupations
- ❍ Production
- ❍ Supervisors, transportation or material moving
- ❍ Aircraft or traffic control
- ❍ Motor vehicle operators
- ❍ Rail, water or other transportation
- ❍ Material moving
- ❍ Student

D6 What is your country of origin?

- ❍ Australia / New Zealand
- ❍ USA
- ❍ Europe _____
- ❍ Africa _____
- ❍ Asia _____

Q74 Thank you for completing the survey. Please feel free to get in touch should you have any questions, again my email is ervin.sim@adelaide.edu.au.

Appendix J: Phase Two data analysis: Common Method Bias

Total Variance Explained									
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.466	27.1	27.1	12.466	27.1	27.1	9.745	21.185	21.185
2	7.23	15.718	42.818	7.23	15.718	42.818	4.436	9.645	30.829
3	3.158	6.866	49.685	3.158	6.866	49.685	3.882	8.438	39.268
4	2.396	5.21	54.895	2.396	5.21	54.895	3.859	8.389	47.657
5	2.212	4.809	59.704	2.212	4.809	59.704	3.241	7.045	54.702
6	1.623	3.528	63.232	1.623	3.528	63.232	2.375	5.163	59.865
7	1.357	2.951	66.182	1.357	2.951	66.182	2.141	4.655	64.521
8	1.208	2.627	68.809	1.208	2.627	68.809	1.591	3.459	67.98
9	1.13	2.456	71.265	1.13	2.456	71.265	1.511	3.285	71.265
10	0.947	2.059	73.323						
11	0.839	1.825	75.148						
12	0.739	1.606	76.754						
13	0.706	1.534	78.288						
14	0.648	1.409	79.698						
15	0.588	1.278	80.976						
16	0.558	1.213	82.189						
17	0.533	1.158	83.347						
18	0.521	1.132	84.48						
19	0.444	0.966	85.446						
20	0.429	0.933	86.379						
21	0.423	0.919	87.298						
22	0.412	0.897	88.194						
23	0.373	0.811	89.005						
24	0.362	0.787	89.792						
25	0.351	0.763	90.555						
26	0.34	0.74	91.295						
27	0.319	0.695	91.99						
28	0.308	0.67	92.66						
29	0.285	0.619	93.279						
30	0.28	0.609	93.888						
31	0.264	0.573	94.461						
32	0.254	0.553	95.014						
33	0.234	0.51	95.524						
34	0.222	0.482	96.006						

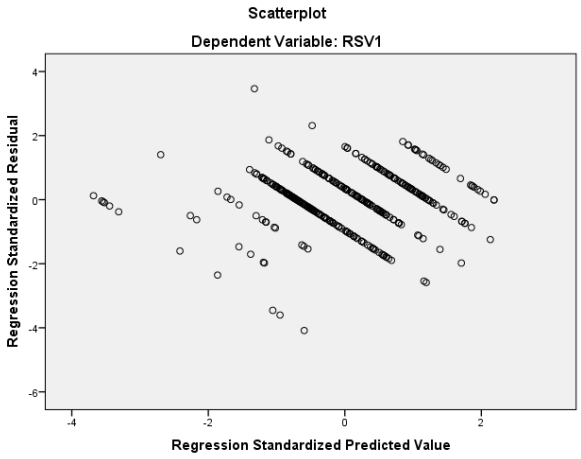
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
35	0.218	0.473	96.479						
36	0.204	0.443	96.922						
37	0.187	0.407	97.329						
38	0.174	0.378	97.707						
39	0.158	0.342	98.05						
40	0.154	0.336	98.385						
41	0.144	0.314	98.699						
42	0.138	0.3	98.999						
43	0.133	0.29	99.289						
44	0.128	0.277	99.566						
45	0.11	0.238	99.804						
46	0.09	0.196	100						

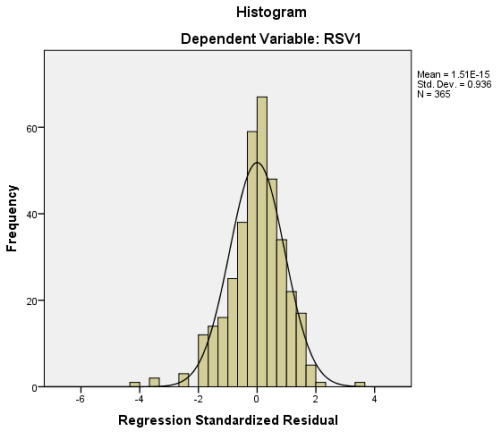
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

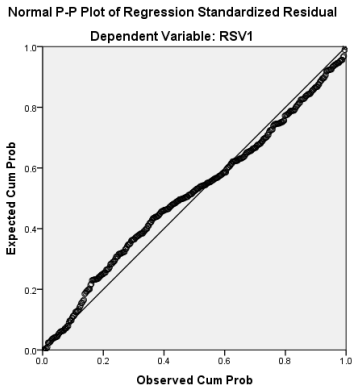
Appendix K: Phase Two data analysis: Skewness and Kurtosis

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis	Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis	Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis
InfoSeek1	-1.057	1.502	AdInfo1	-.408	-.001	CE1	.798	.425
InfoSeek2	-.860	.822	AdInfo2	-.345	-.283	CE2	.715	-.136
InfoSeek3	-.995	1.202	AdInfo3	-.338	-.215	CE3	.216	-.743
EntSeek1	-.717	-.130	AdInfo4	-.470	-.026	CE4	.533	-.146
EntSeek2	-.580	-.246	AdInfo5	-.529	.194	UV1	-.842	1.455
EntSeek3	-.583	.406	AdInfo6	-.250	-.419	UV2	-.776	1.017
EntSeek4	-.831	.879	AdInfo7	-.176	.063	UV3	-.718	.711
EntSeek5	-.072	-.784	AdEnt1	-.080	-.655	HV1	-.776	1.440
AdIrritate1	-.546	-.515	AdEnt2	.074	-.629	HV2	-.520	.125
AdIrritate2	.054	-.293	AdEnt3	.055	-.505	HV4	-.724	-.063
AdIrritate3	-.503	-.422	AdEnt4	.134	-.595	HV3	-.531	.719
AdIrritate4	.089	.561	AdEnt5	.097	-.349	OPV1	-.542	.912
AdIrritate5	-.042	.500	AEX1	-.400	.751	OPV2	-.443	.697
			AEX2	-.155	-.025	OPV3	-.547	.944
			AEX3	-.569	1.382	OPV4	-.562	.657
						OPV5	-.513	.943

Appendix L: Phase Two data analysis: Homoscedesticity and Linearity







Appendix M: Phase Two data analysis: Outer Loadings of Constructs

Item loadings										
	AEX	AdEnt	AdInfo	AdIrritate	CE	EntSeek	HV	InfoSek	OSV	UV
AEX1	0.846									
AEX2	0.724									
AEX3	0.794									
AdEnt1		0.914								
AdEnt2		0.922								
AdEnt3		0.912								
AdEnt4		0.893								
AdEnt5		0.922								
AdInfo1			0.892							
AdInfo2			0.844							
AdInfo3			0.854							
AdInfo4			0.872							
AdInfo5			0.825							
AdInfo6			0.875							
AdInfo7			0.862							
AdIrritate1				0.758						
AdIrritate2				0.618						
AdIrritate3				0.718						
AdIrritate4				0.788						
AdIrritate5				0.589						
CE1					0.846					
CE2					0.775					
CE3					0.738					
CE4					0.859					
EntSeek1						0.698				
EntSeek2						0.74				
EntSeek3						0.875				
EntSeek4						0.871				
EntSeek5						0.592				
HV1							0.777			
HV2							0.895			
HV3							0.908			
HV4							0.71			
InfoSeek1								0.884		
InfoSeek2								0.834		
InfoSeek3								0.9		
OSV1									0.844	
OSV2									0.883	
OSV3									0.905	
OSV4									0.902	
OSV5									0.898	
UV1										0.952
UV2										0.96
UV3										0.952

Appendix N: Phase Two data analysis: Results for analysis of Discriminant Validity

Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	AEX	AdEnt	AdInfo	AdIrritate	CE	EntSeek	HV	InfoSek	OSV	UV
AEX	0.76									
AdEnt	0.55	0.91								
AdInfo	0.53	0.74	0.86							
AdIrritate	-0.23	-0.48	-0.41	0.70						
CE	0.07	0.10	0.01	0.16	0.81					
EntSeek	0.13	0.18	0.19	-0.07	-0.28	0.76				
HV	0.06	0.07	0.13	-0.13	-0.56	0.68	0.83			
InfoSek	0.24	0.23	0.30	-0.15	-0.25	0.46	0.48	0.87		
OSV	0.24	0.21	0.27	-0.20	-0.37	0.52	0.57	0.52	0.89	
UV	0.28	0.27	0.26	-0.11	-0.11	0.31	0.42	0.44	0.36	0.96

Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	AEX	AdEnt	AdInfo	AdIrritate	CE	EntSeek	HV	InfoSek	OSV	UV
AEX										
AdEnt	0.67									
AdInfo	0.62	0.79								
AdIrritate	-0.25	-0.52	-0.45							
CE	0.15	0.13	0.04	0.24						
EntSeek	0.16	0.22	0.23	-0.05	-0.24					
HV	0.04	0.07	0.14	-0.18	-0.65	0.73				
InfoSek	0.29	0.26	0.33	-0.17	-0.28	0.50	0.57			
OSV	0.27	0.22	0.29	-0.22	-0.40	0.53	0.63	0.59		
UV	0.34	0.28	0.28	-0.11	-0.10	0.32	0.48	0.49	0.37	

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