

NARRATIVE ADVERTISING COPY WITH HEDONIC AND UTILITARIAN
PRODUCTS: WHEN DOES NARRATIVE PERSUASION ATTENUATE?

BY

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THESIS

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ABSTRACT

The present study aims to test persuasiveness within narrative ads copy. It is suggested that narrative advertisements are better at persuading consumers than non-narrative advertisements because stories transport people into the narrative world, which prevents people from counterarguing and scrutinizing ad copy information. The study tested how product type and argument strength would affect narrative persuasion. A hedonic product and a utilitarian product, along with strong and weak arguments, were used as independent variables in the present study to test their effects on narrative transportation and persuasion.

The study collected a general sample from the US and Canada using an online survey. Qualtrics, an online survey tool, was used to randomly and evenly distribute participants to experimental conditions. A two-way ANOVA analysis showed that narrative advertisements with hedonic products were evaluated more favorably than narrative advertisements with utilitarian products. People were more likely to be transported when exposed to narrative ad copy featuring hedonic products than utilitarian products. People were also more persuaded by strong arguments than weak arguments for both hedonic and utilitarian products. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Nearly 62% of TV commercials have an embedded narrative structure (Escalas, 1998). A narrative advertisement (hereafter, ad) communicates features and attributes of a product in a story-like plot (Deighton, Romer, & McQueen, 1989). For example, a narrative ad for digital cameras may portray a story of how the cameras can capture a wonderful trip. Past research has found that narrative ads copy generate more favorable responses toward the ads copy, the products or/and the brands (Polyorat, Alden, & Kim, 2007; Wentzel, Tomczak, & Herrmann, 2010; Woodside, Sood, & Miller, 2008).

In the present study I want to find whether there are exceptions to these findings regarding the persuasive effects of narrative advertising. I want to investigate the extent to which consumers experience narrative transportation, immersion into the ads copy, when the narrative ads copy feature utilitarian products or hedonic products. Hedonic goods are products that give consumers affective experiences and sensory pleasure. Utilitarian goods are products that consumers evaluate more cognitively (less affectively); they are instrumental and help consumers accomplish functional tasks (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). Utilitarian products are cognition-oriented and the purpose of purchase is based on their functions (Chitturi, Raghunathan, & Mahajan, 2008; Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). On the contrary, hedonic products are affect-oriented and the purpose of purchase is based on the sensory and experiential enjoyment the products bring (Chitturi et al., 2008; Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000).

I am also curious how argument strength will affect narrative persuasion. Some research suggests that narrative ads copy cause people to be immersed into the ads copy so

they are less sensitive to argument strength (Escalas, 2004a, Lien & Chen, 2013).

However, I propose that with hedonic and utilitarian products, people may respond differently to argument strength in the narrative ads copy. I think people are more sensitive to argument strength with narrative ads copy featuring hedonic products than utilitarian products.

This issue is important both in theory and in practice. Theoretically, there is little research directly testing narrative ads copy with hedonic and utilitarian products (Chang, 2012). Practically, it helps advisers decide whether to use narrative ads copy or not by knowing narrative ads copy' effectiveness with different types of products.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Narrative ads and narrative transportation

A narrative is the interpretation of a story in the readers' mind (Laer et al., 2014). There are some essential elements in a narrative (Green & Brock, 2000). A narrative needs a story line with a beginning, a middle and an end. A narrative needs one or more characters. A narrative also needs a story with highs and lows and a climax (Green & Brock, 2000; Phillips & McQuarrie, 2010).

Exposure to a narrative can lead people to experience narrative transportation (Green & Brock, 2000). Narrative leads copy people to engage in transportation. The experience of immersion into the story is called transportation into the narrative world (Green & Brock, 2000). When people are transported by reading a story, they may not notice people enter or leave the room. When people are transported, they forget about their physical surroundings and only feel the story unfolding before them (Green & Brock, 2000; West & Brock, 2004). There are three features of narrative transportation. First, people receive and interpret the story. Second, people experience "empathy and mental imagery" (Laer et al, 2014, p.799), where people try to understand the experience of the character, feel and evaluate the characters' world and imagine the characters' experiences by generating mental images of the situations. Third, people keep away the awareness of their surrounding reality (Green & Brock, 2000; Laer et al., 2014).

Being immersed into a story or being transported by a narrative can be considered as a form of mental simulation, instead of mentally representing events by themselves, people follow the imagination laid out by the story (Green & Donahue, 2009). Mental simulation can be experienced with different perspectives. Mental simulation studies show that third-person perspective (*e.g.*, he or she) creates more psychological distance than

addressing the readers directly with a first-person perspective (*e.g.*, I; Libby, Eibach, & Gilovich, 2005). Narrative ads copy can use other people as the characters (indicated as other-referencing) or make audiences imagine themselves as the characters (indicated as self-referencing; Eacalas, 2007)

2.2 Narrative used in advertising and marketing

Persuasion studies in psychology have distinguished between argument persuasion and narrative or drama persuasion (Bruner, 1986). Wells (1989) was the first one to apply these two kinds of persuasion in advertising. Later research that investigated ads copy as dramas follows Well's (1989) dichotomy of drama and lecture/argument. Lectures need narrators to describe events, while characters perform the events directly in dramas (Wells, 1989).

Deighton and his colleagues (1989) suggest that there is a scale of how dramatic ads copy could be. On the one end of the scale is argument, where there is only a narrator but no plot or characters. On the other end of the scale is drama, where there is no narrator but only a plot and characters (Deighton et al., 1989). By adding a plot, adding characters and taking off a narrator, ads copy transform from argument to drama ad (Deighton et al., 1989).

Narrative ads copy are different from drama ads copy. Drama ads copy are a special form of narrative ads copy (Padgett & Allen, 1997; also see Stern 1994 for vignette vs. classic drama structures). In drama ads copy, all the events unfold before the audiences without a narrator. The ads copy used in the present study were narrative ads copy but not dramatic ads copy. Narrative ads copy communicate information about products or services using a story-format (Deighton et al., 1989). Padgett and Allen (1997)

suggested several elements for an ad to count as a narrative ad, “actors with motives, an event sequence, and a setting that has physical, social and temporal components” (p.53).

Lien and Chen (2013) indicate ads copy can't be purely dramatic because there are differences existing between dramatic narratives (*e.g.*, novel) and advertising narratives. Consumers know the intentions of ads copy and narrative ads copy are restricted in length (Escalas, 1998). So the implications of dramatic narratives are not all applicable to narrative ads copy (Lien & Chen, 2013). Furthermore, Lien and Chen (2013) indicated that if the story in a narrative ad attracts too much attention from consumers, it might inhibit the processing of product information. More research is needed to investigate how dramatic narrative ads copy should be (Lien & Chen, 2013).

2.3 Hedonic and Utilitarian Products

2.3.1 Hedonic and utilitarian products

Consumers shop for utilitarian products because of their functional, instrumental and practical use (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). Consumers shop for hedonic products because of their aesthetic, experiential, and enjoyable nature (Chuttur et al., 2008).

When people are consuming hedonic products they are more likely to experience emotional arousal than when they are consuming utilitarian products (Kempf, 1999). Kempf found people felt more emotional arousal during a hedonic product trial than a utilitarian product trial. When people are using hedonic products, multiple senses are activated and they mainly focus on how they feel about the product (Chuttur et al., 2008). When people are using utilitarian products, they are thinking more about accomplishing a goal or a task, and they think more about how the function of the product can meet their goal (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000).

I propose that existing beliefs of hedonic and utilitarian products will affect transportation, so as to affect narrative persuasion. I include product type (hedonic v. utilitarian) independent variable in this thesis to examine how it interacts with argument quality.

2.3.2 How do product types affect transportation

Transportation has been indicated as a key factor for persuasion through narrative ads copy (Green & Brock, 2002; Slater & Rouner, 2002). Vaughn et al. (2010) have suggested that developing different narratives to vary transportation levels can move forward research on narrative persuasion. Similarly, to understand further how narrative ads copy persuade consumers, researchers could develop different ads copy to vary readers' levels of engagement in and transportation in ads copy. I propose that consumers' engagement in transportation is influenced by whether the ads copy feature hedonic or utilitarian products.

Consumers have greater emotional arousal and affective responses to hedonic products, compared to utilitarian products (Kempt, 1999). Therefore, consumers may more easily process the experience and emotion with hedonic products. Processing fluency leads copy to more transportation (Green & Donahue, 2009). When consumers shop for hedonic products, they think more about feeling, experience and sensory enjoyment so their focus is more on themselves (Chitturi et al., 2008). Therefore, participants will pay more attention to the story, and keep imagining their own experiences and pay less attention to the product attributes with hedonic products than utilitarian products. More attention to the story should lead to more transportation (Laer et al., 2014).

Usually, consumption of utilitarian products isn't accompanied with emotional responses. Therefore, with utilitarian products consumers may feel it harder to process the emotion that the ads copy deliver than hedonic products. When consumers shop for utilitarian products, they think more about how the product attributes will help them accomplish a goal so their focus is on the product, itself (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). Therefore participants will pay more attention to the product attributes and less attention to the story in the ads copy of utilitarian products, which leads copy to less transportation (Laer et al., 2014).

H1: Narrative ads with hedonic products will lead to more transportation than narrative ads with utilitarian products.

2.3.3 How do product types affect product/ad evaluations and purchase intentions

It is suggested that narrative ads copy usually lead to higher product and ad evaluations, and stronger purchase intention than non-narrative ads copy (Adaval & Wyer, 1998; Brenchman & Purvis, 2015; Wentzel et al., 2010). However, there are few studies investigating ad effectiveness within narrative ads copy. If products in the ads copy affect the extent to which people engage in transportation, it's reasonable to hypothesize that whether the ads copy feature hedonic or utilitarian will also affect narrative persuasion. Considering consumers have more transportation with ads copy featuring hedonic products, so they will have more positive evaluations of the products and ads copy and stronger purchase intentions. On the contrary, consumers have less transportation with ads copy featuring utilitarian products, so they will have less positive evaluations to the products and ads copy and weaker purchase intention.

Besides transportation, the reason why people may generate different evaluations to the products is that people are less likely to resort to consumption experience and corresponding emotions of narrative ads copy when they judge utilitarian products than hedonic products. Polyorat et al. (2007) indicate narrative ads copy are able to provide product experiential meanings, which are the self-relevant consequences of using the product. By imagining an experience, consumers may also gain the emotional responses associated with the experience. Pham (1998) suggests that consumer decision-making can be similar to the affect as information, or the “How-do-I-feel-about-it?” heuristic process (see Schwarz & Clore, 1988 for a full account of this heuristic). Specifically, when consumers are making purchase decisions, they may base their evaluations of the products on the feelings elicited when representing their consumption experience in their minds. People may simply ask themselves, “How do I feel about it?” Narrative ads copy usually portray positive consumption experience so consumers generate positive emotions (Woodside et al., 2008). As a result, consumers will evaluate the ads copy positively. Positive consumption experiences can account for positive emotional responses generated from narrative ads copy in several studies (Escalas, 2004a; Padgett & Allen, 1997; Polyorat et al., 2007; Sujjan et al., 1993). However studies found that emotional responses were significant antecedents for people to make evaluations of hedonic products but not utilitarian products (Chang, 2012; Hamby, Daniloski, & Brinberg, 2014; Kempf, 1994).

For example, Chang (2012) tested consumption visions with hedonic/utilitarian products. Consumption visions are visual images of consumers using the products and experiencing psychological consequences of the using the products (Walker & Olson, 1997). Consumption visions are usually in a narrative form with characters, a plot and a

certain setting (Walker & Olson, 1997). Escalas (2004) suggested that consumption vision was a special case of mental simulation and consumer decision making. Chang (2012) found that consumers were more likely to rely on the consumption visions ($\beta=.21$) and attribute expectancy model ($\beta=.43$; e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) to form attitude towards a brand when the product character is of hedonic nature than utilitarian nature. However with utilitarian products, consumers only relied on the attribute expectancy model ($\beta=.59$) to form the brand attitude. Specifically, consumers evaluated every attribute of the product and formed their final brand evaluations with a computational calculation (Chang, 2012). Narrative ads copy usually portray positive consumption visions and positive emotions, which causes consumers to form positive evaluations. If consumers are more likely to rely on consumption visions to form attitudes towards the brand, then it's reasonable to hypothesize that narrative ads copy will be more likely to persuade consumers to form overall positive evaluations with hedonic products than utilitarian products.

H2a: People will have higher product evaluations with narrative ads of hedonic products than utilitarian products.

H2b: People will have higher ad evaluations with narrative ads of hedonic products than utilitarian products.

H2c: People will have stronger purchase intentions with narrative ads of hedonic products than utilitarian products.

2.4 Evaluation of strong/weak product arguments

One of the reasons why narrative ads copy are good at persuading consumers than non-narrative ads copy is that narrative ads copy likely reduce counterarguing. When people are transported by narrative ads copy, they “put away” knowledge gained in real-

life, so they cannot contradict claims in the narratives based on their real-life knowledge (Green & Brock, 2000); that is, transportation prevents people from counterarguing. People automatically accept ideas when they comprehend them (Gilbert, 1991). Rejection comes later if people take the time to consider whether the ideas are untrue, which requires extra effort. However, transported individuals do not have the ability to criticize the provided information. A possible explanation for the lack of ability is that when they focus on the story, their mental resources are occupied by experiencing the story, so they do not have the resources to critically evaluate the information (West & Brock, 2004).

Due to the fact that narrative ads copy prevent consumers from critically scrutinizing ad messages, there are several studies conducted to examine whether consumers are less sensitive to argument strength in narrative ads copy (Escalas, 2004a; Lien & Chen, 2013; Sujan et al., 1993). Escalas (2004a) used ads copy with narrative features to trigger mental simulation and narrative transportation. Participants who read the ad copy encouraging mental simulation and narrative transportation generated less critical thinking and they were more likely to ignore the argument strength in the ads copy.

Lien and Chen (2013) suggest that in narrative ads copy, transported consumers couldn't spend cognitive resources to evaluate product-relevant arguments in the ads copy since they are only focused on the story. Therefore, people's attitude towards the ads copy and products depend on their thoughts about the story instead of thoughts about product-relevant information. Thus, people's evaluations of ads copy that feature strong arguments will not differ from evaluations of ads copy that feature weak arguments.

People who engage in more careful information processing (*i.e.*, higher cognitive elaboration) are more sensitive to argument quality: they respond more favorably to strong

arguments and less favorably to weak arguments (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). Green and Brock (2000) indicate cognitive elaboration as “a divergent process,” in which people rely on multiple resources to evaluate messages, including previous knowledge, experience and existing opinions. However, narrative ads copy lead to transportation, distracting people from critically thinking about ad arguments (Green & Brock, 2000, 2002). Thus, narrative transportation is “a convergent process” (Green & Brock, 2000, p. 702), where cognitive resources and emotional responses are focused on the events developed in the narratives. The transportation effect can have implications for how consumers respond to strong and weak product arguments. I include an argument quality (strong v. weak) independent variable in this thesis to test its interaction effect with product types.

I am curious whether consumers are the same sensitive to argument strength with hedonic and utilitarian products. If different products in the narrative ads copy lead to differences in transportation levels, it’s reasonable to further hypothesize that products in the ads copy will also influence how sensitive consumers are to the argument strength. Specifically, consumers are less likely to engage in narrative thinking with utilitarian products, so they will be more sensitive to argument strength in the ads copy. Whereas, consumers are more likely to engage in narrative thinking with hedonic products, so they will be less sensitive to argument strength in the ads copy.

H3 Consumers will be more sensitive to argument strength with utilitarian products and less sensitive to argument strength with hedonic products.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

3.1 Research design

The ads copy used in the experiment are feature ad copying using characteristics of narrative and narrative persuasion. The narrative was created based on Escalas (2004a) narrative representation formats. The ad copy was not in a traditional narrative structure but embedded with narrative features (characters, stories and settings). Escalas's (2004a) study showed that this form of narrative ads copy was able to trigger mental simulation and narrative transportation. In the ads copy, participants are told to imagine that they are using the product. Every sentence addresses participants with second-person pronouns (you). Ads copy that make participants imagine themselves as the characters in the stories are indicated as self-referencing, and it is more likely to cause transportation than non-self-referencing (Escalas, 2004a). The ads copy used in the study contained actors with motives in a certain setting and an event sequence, which fit the definition of narrative ads copy by Padgett and Allen.

The present research used a 2 (argument quality: strong v. weak) x 2 (product type: hedonic v. utilitarian) x 1 (narrative ads copy) between-subjects factorials design. Argument strength and hedonic/utilitarian products were pretested, as discussed below.

3.2 Independent variables

3.2.1 Argument Strength

Strong and weak arguments were created based on Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) samples of strong and weak arguments. The sentences of the strong and weak conditions were almost identical for all ad copy. Minor differences were adverbs (for example, a little bit vs. very, maybe vs. definitely), source factors (the public vs. the authority), etc. For

example, a strong argument (weak argument) is: You remember the Times magazine (your mom) has revealed (told you) that if you can eat fat-free yogurt for a year, you will (might) lose 10 pounds. For a full list of strong and weak arguments see Appendix 1.

3.2.2 Hedonic/Utilitarian Products

The ad included product attributes and a simple story. Product attributes were embedded into the story (adopted from Adaval & Wyer, 1998; Escalas, 2004a, 2007). Product attributes were the common attributes used in real ads copy (online and TV). For example, attributes for yogurt were “real fruit” and “health” and attributes for latte were “creamy flavor” and “freshly toasted”. Hedonic and utilitarian products were chosen from previous research on hedonic and utilitarian products and pretested (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Voss et al., 2003). To avoid other confounding variables, I also assessed the involvement level (Zaichkowsky, 1993), likability, and purchase intention of the products in pretesting (described below).

3.3 Dependent variables

3.3.1 Product evaluation

Product evaluation used affective and cognitive attitude measures based on scales developed by Crites, Fabrigar, and Petty (1994). The affective attitude scale includes sad/delightful, bored/excited, and hateful/love. The cognitive attitude scale includes useless/useful, worthless/valuable, and harmful/beneficial. The scales range from 1 to 5, and higher numbers indicate more favorable responses.

3.3.2 Ad evaluation

Ad evaluation contained 3 questions: Is the advertising information useful? Is the ad persuasive? Is the ad fun to read? The scales range from 1 to 5 and higher numbers

indicate more favorable responses. Instead of asking general questions of the ad evaluation (e.g., favorable/unfavorable), I ask specific questions to measure the ad's effectiveness on different dimensions. Specifically, I want to know whether consumers think the ads copy in a story-format provide useful information. Story-format ads copy are not overtly persuasive (Laer et al., 2014). So I want to test whether consumers still think the ads copy are persuasive with the implicit persuasive intention. The important feature of narrative ads copy is verisimilitude so I want to know whether people think a story-format ad is fun to read.

3.3.3 Purchase intention

My purchase intention question was the general question used in most marketing research (How likely is that you will buy the fat-free plain yogurt/whipped cream vanilla latte?). The scale ranges from 1 (not at all likely) to 5 (very likely).

3.3.4 Transportation level

Transportation level measurements were adopted from Green and Brock 2000 study and Eacalas 2004a study (e.g., While I was reading the ad, I could picture I am using the product in the scene). The scales anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Higher numbers indicated more transportation.

3.4 Instrumentation

3.4.1 Pretest

The pretest questionnaires were created using Qualtrics, an online survey tool. There were two pretests conducted. Participants were all recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an online marketplace where participants sign up to participate in studies to earn monetary compensation. People were paid 20 cents for participating in

the first pretest to judge product nature (average completion time: 4 min 30 second).

People were paid 15 cents in the second test to evaluate argument strength (average completion time: 1 min 15 second).

Pretest One: product type

Sixty participants were recruited. Participants first read and signed the informed consent form. Two questionnaires were tested with each one containing six products. Thirty participants rated laptops, athletic shoes, potato chips, bottled water, beer and batteries. The other 30 participants rated digital cameras, cellphones, toaster ovens, DVD players, whipped cream café latte and fat-free plain yogurt. The products were tested on a 10-item hedonic and utilitarian scale developed by Voss, Spangenberg, and Grohmann (2003). Five items in the scale tested utilitarian features (Effective/ ineffective, Helpful/unhelpful, Functional/not functional, Necessary/unnecessary, Practical/impractical) and five tested hedonic features (Not fun/fun, Dull/exciting, Not delightful/delightful, Not thrilling/thrilling, Enjoyable/unenjoyable). The scale ranged from 1 to 5; following appropriate reverse-coding higher numbers indicate higher hedonic/utilitarian attributes. I also assessed likability, purchase intention, and involvement. The original involvement scale contained 10 items (Zaichkowsky, 1993). I used four of the items (important/unimportant, relevant/irrelevant, involving/uninvolving, needed/not needed) because the other items overlapped with the hedonic/utilitarian scale. All the scales ranged from 1 to 5; following appropriate reverse-coding higher numbers indicate more involvement. People were randomly assigned to see and rate one of two different sets of products.

Pretest two: argument strength

One hundred and twenty participants were recruited to evaluate argument strength. People were randomly assigned to one of the four ad conditions: yogurt strong argument, yogurt weak argument, latte strong argument, and latte weak argument. The questions (e.g., Does the ad have a strong argument?) were adopted from Unnava and Burnkrant's (1989) experiment pretest. The scale anchors ranged from 1 (very weak arguments) to 5 (very strong arguments).

3.4.2 Pretest results

Pretest one results: I have 59 valid answers. I dropped one participant's answer because the completion time was less than 2 minutes. Therefore, there were 29 responses for the questionnaire containing latte and yogurt. I used paired sample t-tests to analyze the data. I compared hedonic and utilitarian evaluations of all the products. I also test the scores of involvement, likability and purchase intention of these products. The hedonic ($\alpha=.95$), utilitarian ($\alpha=.81$) and involvement ($\alpha=.90$) scales, which contain multiple items, presented satisfactory Cronbach's alpha. The ideal products were whipped cream café latte (hereafter, latte) and fat-free plain yogurt (hereafter, yogurt). Latte's hedonic scores are significantly higher than its utilitarian scores, $t(28)=3.90$, $p=.001$, Cohen's $d=.48$, 2-tailed/mean difference=.92, 95% CI: .57, 1.28. Yogurt's utilitarian scores are significantly higher than its hedonic scores, $t(28)=5.31$, $p<.001$, Cohen's $d=.48$, 2-tailed/mean difference=.40, 95% CI: .19, .61. These two products don't differ significantly in these dimensions: involvement, $t(28)=.65$, $p=.52$, Cohen's $d=.13$, 2-tailed/mean difference=.14, 95% CI: -.30, .57; purchase intention, $t(28)=.61$, $p=.55$, Cohen's $d=.09$, 2-tailed/mean difference=.24, 95% CI: -.57, 1.05; likability, $t(28)=0$, $p=1$, Cohen's $d=0$, 2-tailed/mean

difference=0, 95% CI: -.72, .72. Yogurt is tested to be a utilitarian product. Latte is tested to be a hedonic product (See Table 1).

Table 1

Means and standard deviations of products' hedonic scores, utilitarian scores, involvement, likability and purchase intention

Variable	Latte			Yogurt		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Hedonic Attributes	29	3.15	0.88	29	2.27	1.04
Utilitarian Attributes	29	2.76	0.75	29	3.19	0.84
Involvement	29	2.53	1.04	29	2.66	1.01
Likability	29	2.31	2.49	29	2.31	2.44
Purchase Intention	29	2.34	2.86	29	2.59	2.83

Pretest two results: I had 119 valid responses. I dropped one participant's answer because the completion time was less than 15 seconds. I used independent sample *t*-tests to analyze the participants' evaluations of strong and weak arguments of yogurt and latte ads copy. For yogurt, strong argument and weak argument manipulations were successful, $t(58)=3.21, p<.05$, Cohen's $d=.88$, 2-tailed mean difference=.85, 95% CI: .32, 1.38. For latte, strong argument and weak argument manipulations were marginally successful, although not as strong as the arguments for yogurt, $t(57)=1.83, p=.07$, Cohen's $d=.48$, 2-tailed/mean difference=.39, 95% CI: -.04, .82. See table 2.

Table 2

Means and standard deviations of strong and weak argument with yogurt and latte

	Yogurt			Latte		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Strong Argument	30	3.10	1.19	28	3.64	0.83
Weak Argument	30	2.37	0.96	31	3.10	1.04

3.4.3 Main Test

The main test was created using Qualtrics and was posted on MTurk. The IRB application is approved with Protocol Number 14894. Participants first read and signed the IRB informed consent form. Then they were redirected to a Qualtrics link to answer the

questionnaires. Qualtrics was set to distribute the four conditions randomly and evenly. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four ad conditions: yogurt strong argument ad, yogurt weak argument ad, latte strong argument ad or latte weak argument ad. Participants read the ad and then answered questions of affective and cognitive attitudes of the product, ad evaluations, transportation level and purchase intention.

CHAPTER 4: RESULT

4.1 Overview

For the main test I recruited 231 participants from Mturk. The average completion time was 4 minutes. I obtained 216 valid responses. Seven participants didn't finish the experiment. I dropped 5 participants' responses because their completion time was less than 30 seconds. Two participants' responses were not recorded because the response time was longer than 30 minutes. The survey window was set to close automatically if participants didn't finish their questionnaires in 30 minutes. The questionnaire didn't ask for any demographic information, which will be discussed as a limitation in the later session.

4.2 Scales reliabilities and descriptive statistics of dependent variables.

Affective attitude ($\alpha=.86$) and cognitive attitude ($\alpha=.88$) scales both had good alpha reliability scores. Descriptive statistics of all the variables of interest are in Table 3 & 4. I included means, standard deviations and ranges of product evaluation (affective attitude, cognitive attitude and combined attitude scores), ad evaluation, purchase intention and transportation level.

Table 3

Means and confidence intervals of transportation of strong and weak arguments with yogurt and latte

Argument Strength	Yogurt Ads			Latte Ads		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% CI	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% CI
Strong Argument	53	3.2 (1.27)	[2.92, 3.47]	55	4.12 (0.86)	[3.85, 4.39]
Weak Argument	54	3.6 (1.07)	[3.33, 3.88]	54	3.84 (0.83)	[3.57, 4.12]

Note. CI=confidence interval

Table 4

Means and confidence intervals of product evaluations, ad evaluations and purchase intention of strong and weak arguments with yogurt and latte

Variables	Yogurt Ads			Latte Ads		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% CI	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% CI
Affective Attitude						
Strong Argument	53	3.40 (0.85)	[3.17, 3.63]	55	3.97 (0.84)	[3.74, 4.20]
Weak Argument	54	3.32 (0.98)	[3.10, 3.55]	54	3.65 (0.73)	[3.42, 3.88]
Cognitive Attitude						
Strong Argument	53	3.81 (0.85)	[3.58, 4.04]	55	3.91 (0.85)	[3.68, 4.14]
Weak Argument	54	3.59 (1.00)	[3.36, 3.82]	54	3.60 (0.67)	[3.38, 3.83]
Combined Attitude						
Strong Argument	53	3.61 (0.80)	[3.39, 3.83]	55	3.94 (0.82)	[3.73, 4.15]
Weak Argument	54	3.45 (0.92)	[3.24, 3.67]	54	3.63 (0.65)	[3.41, 3.84]
Ad Evaluation						
Strong Argument	53	3.40 (1.03)	[3.13, 3.67]	55	3.82 (0.92)	[3.56, 4.09]
Weak Argument	54	2.96 (1.14)	[2.70, 3.23]	54	3.35 (0.86)	[3.08, 3.61]
Purchase Intention						
Strong Argument	53	3.26 (1.44)	[2.93, 3.60]	55	3.98 (1.03)	[3.65, 4.31]
Weak Argument	54	2.89 (1.48)	[2.56, 3.22]	54	3.57 (0.88)	[3.24, 3.91]

Note. CI=confidence interval

Table 5

Grand means for transportation level, product evaluations, ad evaluations and purchase intentions

Dependent Variable	<i>n</i>	Grand <i>M</i>
Transportation Level	216	3.69
Product Evaluation	216	3.66
Ad Evaluation	216	3.38
Purchase Intention	216	3.43

4.3 Correlations

I analyzed the correlations of all the dependent variables because I wanted to combine the scores of all the dependent variables so I wanted to see whether the correlations were higher than .70 (correlation coefficients above .70 indicate highly correlated). There were observed associations of all the dependent variables (See Table 5). There was a positive correlation between affective and cognitive attitude, $r=.76$, $n=216$, $p<.001$. I combined affective and cognitive attitude to combining attitude as the indicator of product evaluation when I ran the ANOVA analysis later since the correlation was above .70. There was a positive correlation between product evaluation (combined

attitude) and ad evaluation, $r=.79, n=216, p<.001$. There was a positive correlation between product evaluation and purchase intention, $r=.78, n=216, p<.001$. There were also positive correlations between transportation and product evaluation, $r=.58, n=216, p<.001$; ad evaluation, $r=.58, n=216, p<.001$; and purchase intention, $r=.53, n=216, p<.001$.

Table 6

Pearson correlation of all the dependent variables

Correlations	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Cognitive Attitude	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Affective Attitude	.764**	-	-	-	-	-
3. Product Evaluation	.937**	.941**	-	-	-	-
4. Ad Evaluation	.710**	.771**	.789**	-	-	-
5. Transportation	.523**	.563**	.579**	.584**	-	-
6. Purchase Intention	.708**	.750**	.777**	.770**	.529**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.4 Test of dependent variables

4.4.1 Transportation level

A two-way ANOVA (product nature x argument strength) with narrative transportation yielded a significant main effect of product nature on participants' transportation scores, $F(1, 212)=17.47, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.076$. Consistent with H1, participants experienced more transportation when reading an ad for a hedonic product (latte, $M=3.98, SD=.85$) than an ad for a utilitarian product (yogurt, $M=3.40, SD=1.18$). There was no main effect of argument strength on transportation level, $F(1, 212)=.213, p=.645, \eta_p^2=.001$. The ANOVA result also indicated an interaction effect, $F(1, 212)=5.98, p=.015, \eta_p^2=.027$. As can be seen in Figure 1, with latte, the stronger arguments encouraged more transportation than the weak arguments. While with yogurt, the weak arguments encourage more transportation than the strong arguments. This result was not predicted;

and I offer on possible reasons why this may have occurred in the discussion section.

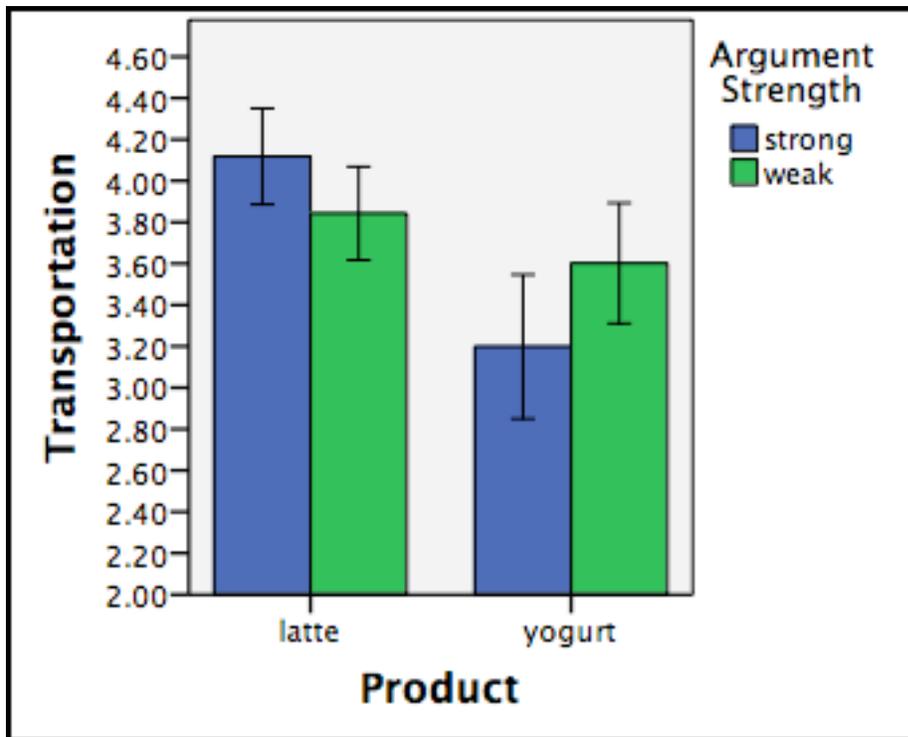


Figure 1. Transportation as a function of argument strength and product type. Error bars show standard errors of the mean.

4.4.2 Product Evaluation

A two-way ANOVA (product nature * argument strength) with product evaluations as the dependent variable yielded a significant main effect of product nature on participants' attitudes toward the products, $F(1, 212)=5.33, p=.022, \eta_p^2=.025$. Consistent with H2a, participants generated more favorable attitude to latte ($M=3.78, SD=.76$) than yogurt ($M=3.53, SD=.86$). The two-way ANOVA yielded a significant main effect of argument strength, $F(1, 212)=4.54, p=.034, \eta_p^2=.021$. Participants had higher evaluations to the strong arguments ($M=3.78, SD=.83$) than weak arguments ($M=3.54,$

$SD=.80$) Inconsistent with H3, which suggests that people are more sensitive to argument strength with hedonic ads than utilitarian ads, the two-way ANOVA failed to indicate an interaction effect, $F(1, 212)=.53, p>.1, \eta_p^2=.003$. Participants were sensitive to argument strength for both latte and yogurt (See Figure 2). This result was also not predicted, and I discussed the results in the discussion section.

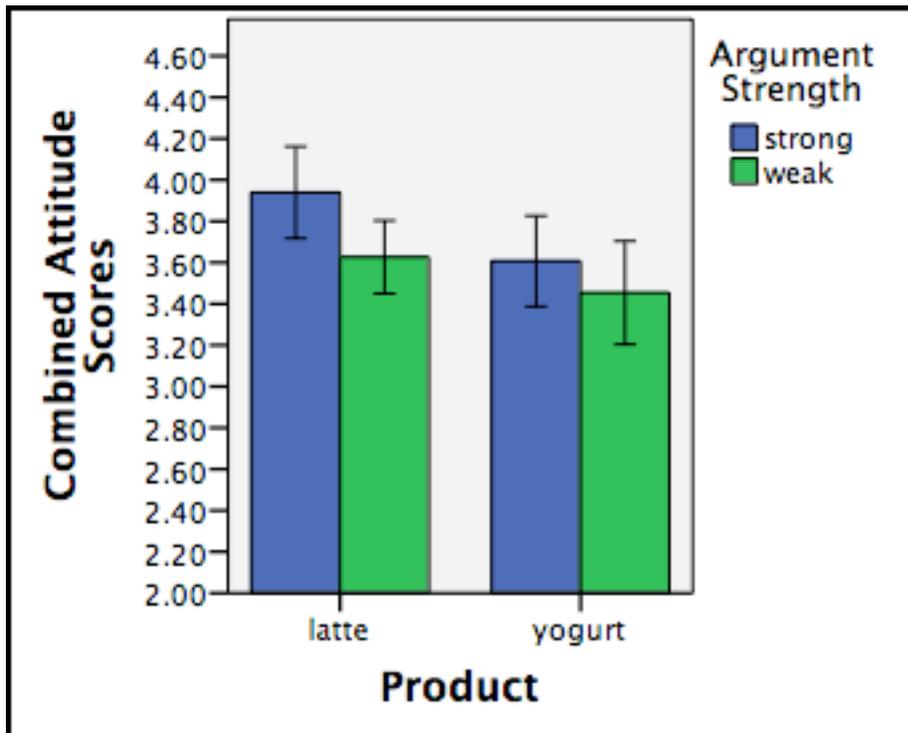


Figure 2. Product evaluation as a function of argument strength and product type. Error bars show standard errors of the mean.

4.4.3 Ad Evaluation

A two-way ANOVA (product nature * argument strength) yielded a significant main effect of product nature on the ad evaluations, $F(1, 212)=9.01, p=.003, \eta_p^2=.041$.

Consistent with H2b, people had higher evaluations for latte ads copy ($M=3.59, SD=.91$)

than yogurt ads copy ($M=3.18$, $SD=1.10$). The two-way ANOVA yielded a significant main effect of argument strength on the ad evaluations, $F(1, 212)=11.40$, $p=.001$, $\eta_p^2=.051$. Participants had higher evaluations to the ads copy with the strong arguments ($M=3.61$, $SD=1.00$) than weak arguments ($M=3.15$, $SD=1.02$). Inconsistent with H3, the ANOVA fails to generate an interaction effect, $F(1, 212)=.03$, $p>.1$, $\eta_p^2=.000$ (see Figure 3). People liked the ads copy with strong arguments for both latte and yogurt. This result was also not predicted, and I discussed the results in the discussion section.

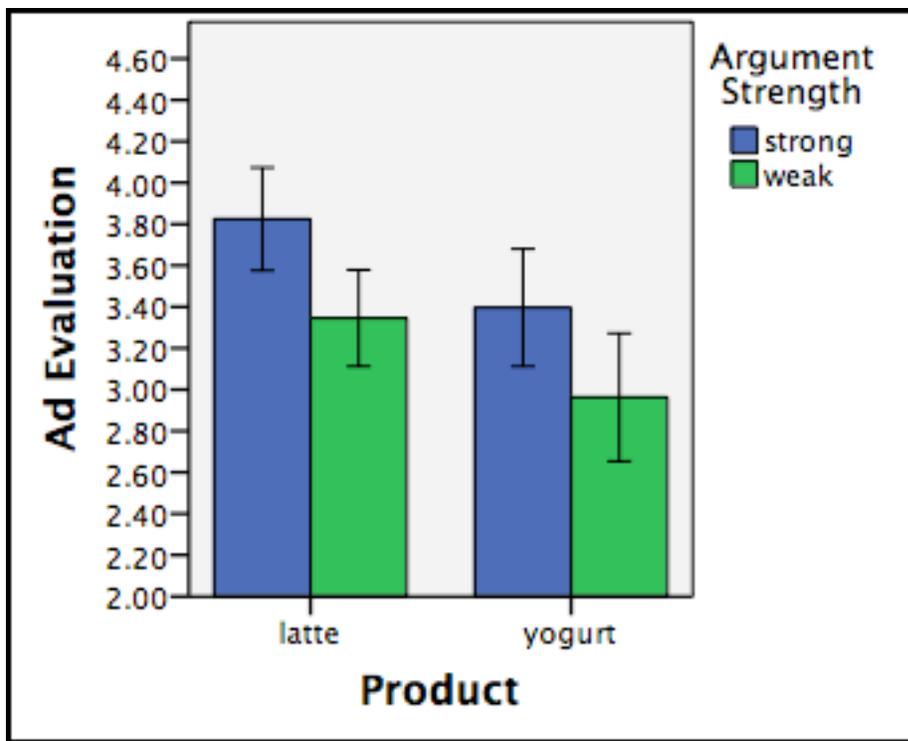


Figure 3. Ad evaluation as a function of argument strength and product type. Error bars show standard errors of the mean.

4.4.4 Purchase Intention

A two-way ANOVA (product nature * argument strength) yielded a significant main effect of product nature on purchase intentions, $F(1, 212)=17.50$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.076$. Consistent with H2c, participants have stronger purchase intention for latte ($M=3.78$,

$SD=.98$) than yogurt ($M=3.07, SD=1.47$). The two-way ANOVA yielded a significant main effect of argument strength on purchase intention, $F(1, 212)=5.45, p=.020, \eta_p^2=.025$. Participants had stronger purchase intention with the strong arguments ($M=3.63, SD=1.30$) than the weak arguments ($M=3.23, SD=1.26$). Inconsistent with H3, the ANOVA failed to yield an interaction effect, $F(1, 212)=.01, p>.1, \eta_p^2=.00$ (see Figure 4). People's purchase intentions differed between strong and weak arguments for both of the products. This result was also not predicted, and I discussed the results in the discussion section.

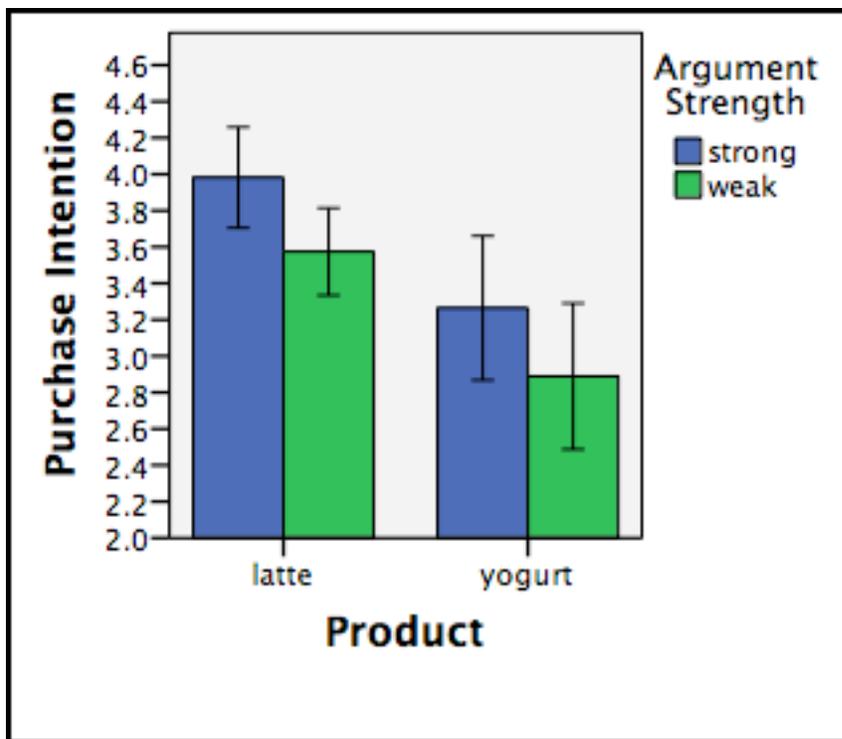


Figure 4. Purchase intention as a function of argument strength and product type. Error bars show standard errors of the mean.

4.5 Ad persuasiveness

Since all the evaluative dependent variables were highly correlated with each other. I combined product evaluation, ad evaluation and purchase intention scores together

to get a mean as the indicator of ad persuasiveness ($r > .70$). I ran an ANOVA to test ad persuasiveness. There was a main effect of product nature on ad persuasiveness, $F(1, 212)=12.87, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .057$. Latte ads copy ($M=3.72, SD=.81$) are more persuasive than yogurt ads copy ($M=3.26, SD=1.06$). There was a main effect of argument strength on ad persuasiveness, $F(1, 212)=8.13, p = .005, \eta_p^2 = .037$. Stronger argument ads copy ($M=3.67, SD=.96$) are more persuasive than weak argument ads copy ($M=3.31, SD=.94$). There was no interaction effect, $F(1, 212)=.098, p > .1, \eta_p^2 = 0$. See Table 7 & Figure 5.

Table 7

Ad persuasiveness in the main test

Argument Strength	Yogurt Ads			Latte Ads		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% CI	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% CI
Strong Argument	53	3.42 (1.02)	[3.17, 3.67]	55	3.92 (0.85)	[3.67, 4.16]
Weak Argument	54	3.10 (1.09)	[2.85, 3.35]	54	3.52 (0.71)	[3.27, 3.76]

Note. CI=confidence interval

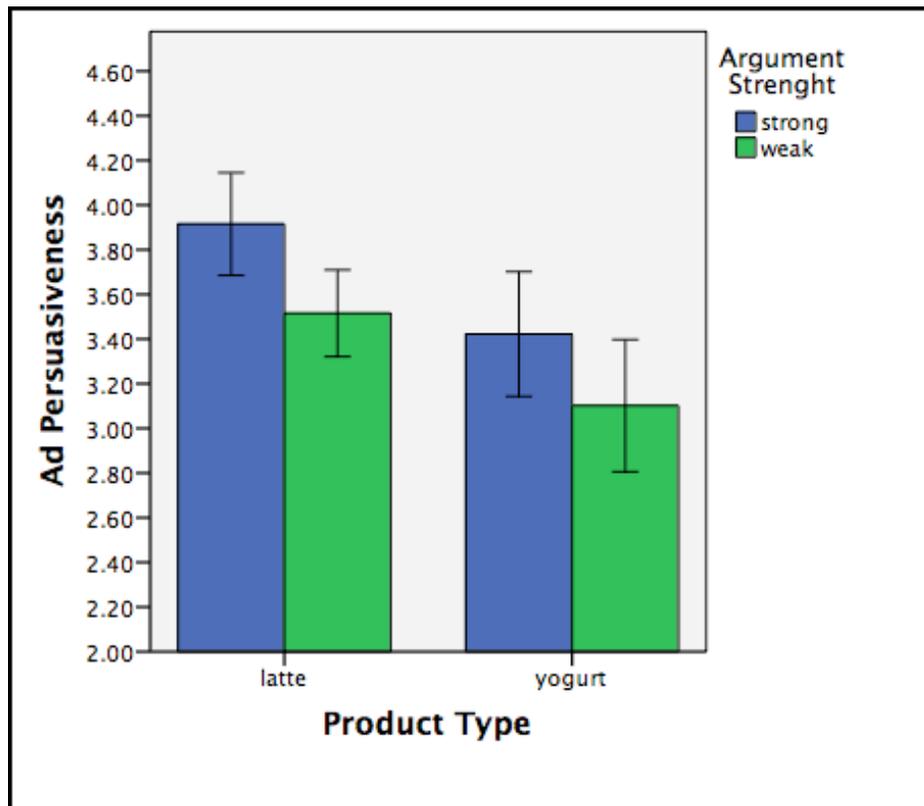


Figure 5. Ad persuasiveness as a function of argument strength and product type. Error bars show standard errors of the mean.

4.6 The mediation analysis

Studies of narrative usually test transportation as a mediator variable for belief changes (Green & Brock, 2000). I did a mediation analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986) to further test my proposal that product types and argument strength affected narrative persuasion. For the first model, I wanted to see whether the relationship between argument strength and ad persuasiveness were mediated by transportation level. For the first mediation model, I used argument strength as the independent variable, ad persuasiveness as the dependent variable and transportation as the mediating variable. I found argument strength didn't predict transportation level ($\beta=.03, p>.1$). So the independent variable was not correlated with the mediator variable. However, for the second mediation model, I used product type as the independent variable. I found the relationship between product type and ad persuasiveness was partially mediated by transportation level because the effect of product type on ad persuasiveness controlling for transportation is not zero (see Figure 6).

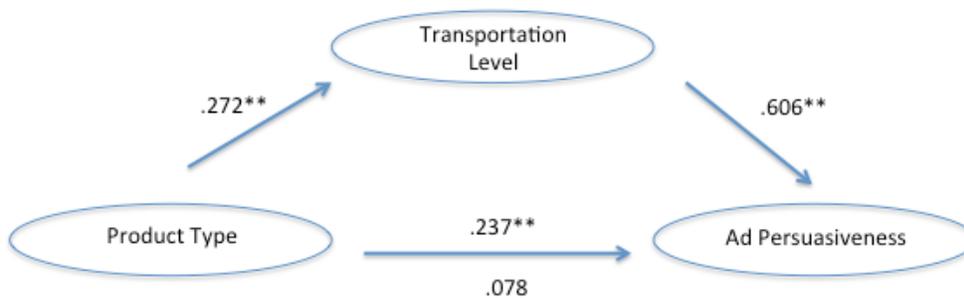


Figure 6 Mediation of the relationship between product type and ad persuasiveness by transportation. The beta above the arrow is the direct effect of product type on ad persuasiveness. The coefficient below the arrow is the strength when transportation is included. The effect of product type on ad persuasiveness is attenuated when transportation level is included in the regression, which indicates that transportation is a partial mediation variable. $**p<.05$.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1 Test of hypothesis

5.1.1 Transportation level

Participants' transportation level was higher for the hedonic product than the utilitarian product. With latte, participants indicated that they were more likely to imagine they were consuming the product and their emotions were more affected by the ad than yogurt. This is consistent with what I hypothesized.

I did not hypothesize an interaction effect of transportation level. Past research has not hypothesized anything about how argument strength can affect transportation level and they found strong/weak arguments didn't moderate transportation level (Escalas, 2007; Lien & Chen, 2013). My study results were different; I found an interaction effect between argument strength and product type. For hedonic products, strong arguments led to more transportation than weak arguments. One possible reason may be that strong and weak arguments make the narrative differ in narrative quality. Participants may evaluate the ads copy containing strong arguments as high quality narratives than the ads copy containing weak arguments, so they engage in more transportation. Based on Green and Donahue (2009), high quality narrative triggered more transportation.

It's another story for utilitarian products. Strong arguments caused less transportation than weak arguments. One possible reason was that strong arguments make product features stand out. Past research showed that people pay more attention to product features when they were making purchase decisions about utilitarian products (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000; Chang, 2012). Participants were involved in less transportation when the product features distracted their attention. In the stronger argument copy, products' features were more outstanding. So participants' attention was further distracted from the

story, so they had even lower transportation level than weak arguments. Attention was an important factor to affect narrative transportation (Laer et al., 2013). Consumers who read the yogurt ads copy might pay more attention to the product, so they were less likely to catch up in the narrative thinking.

5.1.2 Product, ad evaluation and purchase intention

Participants had higher evaluations of hedonic products with narrative ads copy than utilitarian products. They had higher evaluations of the ads copy and stronger purchase intention with hedonic products. The hypothesis was supported.

Participants had more transportation with the latte ad than the yogurt ad. More transportation led to more positive evaluations. Past studies have shown that narrative ads copy have an advantage of persuading people more effectively than non-narrative ads copy (Polyorat et al., 2007; Wentzel et al., 2010; Woodside et al., 2008). The present study found that ad effectiveness could also vary within narrative ads copy. Specifically, hedonic products benefited more than utilitarian products when the ads copy contained narrative features.

When participants evaluated hedonic products, the ones who engaged in more transportation showed higher evaluations to the products and the ads copy. However, when participants evaluated utilitarian products, the ones who read the stronger arguments had higher evaluations of the products and ads copy, even though transportation level was lower in strong argument condition than weak argument condition. The implication here is that hedonic products benefit more from narrative ads and people are more likely to resort to critical thinking when they are judging utilitarian products

5.1.3 Sensitiveness to argument strength

I expected to find an interaction effect of argument strength and product type. Based on Escalas's (2004a) and Chen and Lien's (2013) studies, I hypothesized that in narrative ads copy people would be more sensitive to argument strength with utilitarian products, and people would be less sensitive to argument strength with hedonic products because the extent of transportation differs between hedonic and utilitarian products. However, I found that participants had higher evaluations when they read strong arguments, compared to weak arguments with both utilitarian products and hedonic products.

Even though the participants responded to strong and weak arguments differently with both utilitarian and hedonic products, the possible reasons of the sensitiveness may differ between utilitarian and hedonic products.

For utilitarian products, it may have been harder for people to generate the affective feelings that the ad aims to trigger (Kempf, 1994). People also may have paid more attention to the product (Chitturi et al., 2008). Perhaps as a result, they had less transportation than hedonic products. Therefore, participants remained sensitive to argument strength.

For hedonic products, participants had more transportation than the utilitarian products but they still preferred strong arguments. The reason for it might be that stronger arguments led to even more transportation (the results confirmed that the latte ad generated more transportation for strong arguments than weak arguments). It seemed that participants regarded narrative ads copy with strong arguments as high quality narratives. Therefore, participants transported more with strong arguments. Past research has suggested that transported individuals will stay less sensitive to argument strength

(Escalas, 2004a, 2007; Lien & Chen, 2013). However these studies failed to explain whether strong and weak arguments would affect narrative quality, which would in turn affect narrative transportation. I didn't have any narrative quality measures so I couldn't test my proposal in this study, which is one of the limitations that I discussed below.

The ideas I proposed here were the possible reasons that caused the results I found. There is a possible way to test the ideas. I could create a 2 (hedonic/utilitarian products) x 2 (narrative/non-narrative ads copy) x 2(strong/weak argument) experiment. Such an experiment would be able to test the extent of sensitivity to argument strength with narrative or without.

In the psychology and communication domains, narrative stimuli were usually long and complicated stories (Adaval, Isbell, & Wyer, 2007; Green & Brock, 2000). However, in the advertising domain, the narrative stimuli are supposed to be short and aim to persuade consumers. Consumers also know the purpose of ads copy (Lien & Chen, 2013). In dramatic narrative, transportation might be strong enough to make readers less sensitive to argument strength. But narrative ads copy usually cannot generate as much transportation as dramatic narrative. Even though the story was written in a narrative format, the advertising stimuli might not be able to get people fully immersed into the story, so they still responded differently to strong and weak arguments. Effects generated by dramatic narrative might not be applicable to advertising narrative.

The present study was not able to control how familiar people are with the product attributes used in the ads copy. Familiarity could affect whether readers adopt holistic or piecemeal processing. When people were familiar with product information, they may adopt holistic or category-based processing (Adaval & Wyer, 1998; Fiske, 1982; Sujan,

1985). When people adopted holistic processing, they evaluated the incoming information as a whole, and focus on relationships of elements in the messages (Monga & John, 2007). Therefore they were more likely to focus on the whole storyline. However, when people were not familiar with the information, they would process analytically, also called piece-meal processing, in which people evaluated every attribute separately (Adaval & Wyer, 1998). In this case, readers examined every piece of information separately and integrated the evaluations with a computational procedure (*e.g.*, Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Therefore people would more likely pay attention to the product attributes instead of the story. Whether people adopted holistic or piece-meal processing affects how much people engaged in the narrative (Green & Donahue, 2009). Participants might not be familiar with the product attributes, so they adopted piece-meal processing and they evaluated the ads copy analytically. As a result, they were sensitive to argument strength with each advertising copy.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1 Limitation

First, the present study only used narrative ads copy. I don't have a control group (non-narrative ads copy) so I am not able to investigate the attitude change within a single product. Narrative ads copy was suggested to cause consumers to be immersed into the ads copy cognitively and emotionally and encourage consumers to generate affective responses. As a result, they would have higher evaluations to the products. Based on the current design, I could only compare among strong and weak arguments for hedonic and utilitarian products. Yet, I could not compare differences of ad effectiveness within hedonic or utilitarian products by varying formats (narrative/non-narrative) in the ads copy.

Second, I did not ask demographic questions in the test. I use MTurk, where everyone who is above age 18 and living in the US or Canada can participate in the study. Demographic differences can cause participants to respond to narrative ads copy differently (Laer et al., 2014). For example, women tend to empathize and generate emotional responses. Men are more descriptive and distant (Laer et al., 2014). Green and Brock (2000) found that women engaged in more transportation by stories than man. Future studies could test gender differences and narrative transportation and persuasion.

Third, the ad copy stimuli had several issues. First, the settings were different. One was Sunday morning at home alone with a dog and the other was a weekday at a café shop waiting for friend. These two settings gave people different feelings, which might lead to a potential confounding variable to affect dependent variables. Second, it was controversial whether "the Times Magazine" was a more authoritative source than "mom". Third, the dominant verb used in the latte ads copy was "feel", while the dominant verb used in yogurt was "think". These verbs were used unevenly, which might push people to either

generate affective responses and cognitive responses. Fourth, latte's hedonic scores were significantly higher than its utilitarian scores, which made it a hedonic product. In the same way, yogurt was judged as a utilitarian product. However, latte's utilitarian score (M=2.76) was higher than yogurt's hedonic score (M=2.27). Latte was relatively higher in both hedonic and utilitarian scores, which made these two products unbalanced in hedonic and utilitarian dimensions.

Fourth, the experiment lacked measures of emotional responses and perceived narrative quality. Narrative ads copy was suggested to make readers generate affective responses. And the affective responses were one of the reasons for narrative persuasion. I should measure emotional responses to see whether people generated different amount of emotional responses with latte and yogurt, which could further explain the different effects on narrative persuasion. I also should measure perceived narrative quality to test whether strong and weak arguments affect transportation is due to perceived narrative quality.

6.2 Implications

The experiment had implications on advertising copy testing. It is useful for practitioners to decide whether the ad copy was effective at persuasion with hedonic and utilitarian products. The experiment was also a first step to test narrative ads copy with hedonic and utilitarian products directly. The study found that hedonic products benefited more from narrative ads copy than utilitarian products. Later studies could be conducted to further test the reasons and mechanisms for such results to occur.

6.3 Future research

In the present study I asked consumers to imagine themselves as the character in the ads copy (self-referencing). I would like to use another character in the ads copy

(other-referencing) to test how other-referencing affects how people process and are persuaded by narrative ads copy. Other-referencing narrative ads copy can also encourage narrative transportation, even though self-referencing is more likely to trigger narrative transportation (Escalas, 2004). I would like to test whether self-referencing ads copy have more persuasive effects than other-referencing ads copy.

Self-referencing messages are suggested to obtain the same effect as self-relevance manipulations are used to induce elaboration (Burnkrant & Unnava, 1995). Escalas and Luce (2004) found that under low to moderate involvement, argument strength was more likely to affect behavioral intentions when the ad message was focused on process (goal-directed activities) than outcome (favorable outcomes). Under high involvement, argument strength was more likely to influence behavioral intentions under outcome focus than process focus. I would like to test the effects of self-referencing v. other-referencing and process focus v. outcome focus to see whether under other-referencing, argument strength is more likely to affect behavioral intentions when the ad message is focused on process than outcome and under self-referencing, argument strength is more likely to influence behavioral intentions under outcome focus than process focus.

It's indicated that processing fluency can cause people to generate higher evaluations to whatever is being processed (*e.g.*, Anand & Sternthal, 1991). I would like to further test whether more positive evaluations generated from narrative ads copy with latte is due to more transportation or processing fluency itself. By separating the persuasive effects of transportation and processing fluency, I can provide further support for the idea that hedonic products benefit more from narrative ads copy.

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Appendix: Advertising Copies

Yogurt-Strong Copy

Imagine it is a beautiful Sunday morning, you are eating fat-free plain yogurt. It is tasty and you think it is definitely healthier than other high-calorie snacks. You taste the fresh, juicy and real fruit in the yogurt while your dog walks around you. You think that yogurt is the best choice for you to keep fit. You remember the Times magazine has revealed that if you can eat fat-free yogurt for a year, you will lose 10 pounds. You taste another spoonful and start to enjoy your weekend magazine. The sunshine goes through your window. You think it's a nice day to take a walk with your dog outside. (110 words)

Yogurt-Weak Copy

Imagine it is a beautiful Sunday morning, you are eating fat-free plain yogurt. It tastes not bad and you think it might be healthier than other high-calorie snacks. You taste some fruits in the yogurt while your dog walks around you. You think that the yogurt is a good choice for you to avoid gaining weight. You remember your mom has told you that if you can eat yogurt for a year, you might lose 10 pounds. You take another spoonful and start to enjoy your weekend magazine. The sunshine goes through your window. You think it's a nice day to take a walk with your dog outside. (108 words)

Latte-Strong Copy

Imagine you are drinking a whipped cream vanilla latte. You feel a very rich creamy flavor and best taste. You feel a very smooth texture. You feel a custard-y taste and it has the perfect amount of sweetness you want. You feel really refreshed and calm with the latte. You think it helps your alertness a lot and you can definitely think better at

work. You think the coffee is freshly toasted and the cream is natural and organic, which enhances the flavor. Now your old friend comes to join you in the café shop. You guys really want to chat and catch up on things. (106 words)

Latte-Weak Copy

Imagine you are drinking a whipped cream vanilla latte. You feel it tastes not bad and has creamy flavor. You feel the texture is smooth. You feel a custard-y taste and it has the right amount of sweetness you want. You feel a little refreshed and calm with the latte. You think it helps your alertness to some extent and you are able to think better at work. You think the vanilla syrup and cream are natural and organic, which guarantee the quality. Now your old friend comes to join you in the café shop. You guys really want to chat and catch up on things. (106 words)