



Research article

Towards a Video Consumer Leaning Spectrum: A Medium-Centric Approach

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Abstract:

Purpose: As TV and digital video converge, there is a need to compare advertising effectiveness, advertising receptivity, and video consumption drivers in this new context. Considering the emerging viewing practices and underlying theories, this study examines the feasibility of the traditional notion of differentiating between lean-back (LB) and lean-forward (LF) media, and proposes a revised approach of addressing video consumption processes and associated advertising effectiveness implications.

Methodology: An extensive, systematic literature review examines a total of 715 sources regarding current lean-back/lean-forward media research and alternative approaches as by (1) basic terminologies, (2) limitations of lean-back/lean-forward situations, (3) advertising effectiveness implications, (4) video-specific approaches.

Findings/Contribution: Key differences between lean-back and lean-forward video consumption are presented. A conceptual integration of video ad receptivity/effectiveness drivers is proposed to guide future media and marketing research and practice. Video consumption today is no longer lean-back or lean-forward, but a “leaning spectrum” with two dimensions: leaning direction and leaning degree. Designing video content today requires focusing on consumption drivers and platform synergies for owning the “leaning spectrum”.

Keywords: Video Consumption; Media Platform Research; Advertising Effectiveness; Advertising Receptivity; Leaning Spectrum.

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1. Introduction

The video landscape has been radically altered with a shift from linear, live TV to time-shifted and on-demand video (Abreu et al., 2017). Facing a proliferation of viewing options, there is increasing competition with regards to audience attention and marketing budgets (Köz & Atakan, 2018). Whilst streaming continues to rise, TV still dominates the video landscape – for broadcast TV and as a device for online TV (Nielsen, 2020). The advantage of TV as a “reach-oriented brand builder” will diminish as the TV audience ages and younger audiences shift their video consumption to digital (Bulgrin, 2019), which is accompanied by a shift of ad expenditures: In 2019, US ad expenditures for TV were four times higher than for online video (OV); by 2021, this lead will have flattened to being only three times higher (Zenith, 2019). Whilst confidence in TV remains to be high, marketers are still somewhat cautious about OV, possibly due to measurement issues of OV ad effectiveness (Bulgrin, 2019).

Hence, there is a great interest in comparing video platform effects. Given both within-media and cross-media synergies (Naik & Peters, 2009), it is vital to find and adjust the optimal media mix, for which TV and digital in combination may be the key ingredients (Snyder & Garcia-Garcia, 2016). To fine-tune this media mix, both video formats should be comparable with regards to ad effectiveness. Besides quantitative measures it is crucial to compare platforms for brand effects (Weibel et al., 2019) and to study antecedents such as platform attributes and perceptions (Köz & Atakan, 2018), platform choice determinants, and ad receptivity (Modenbach & Neumüller, 2020). Thus empirically, there is a need to reconcile a medium-centric and a consumer-centric perspective. There is also a need to revisit the existing assumptions associated with the traditional TV and OV viewing conditions.

Research reveals both similarities and differences for TV and OV ads (Köz & Atakan, 2018): Whilst both formats evoke positive emotions, thereby increasing memorability (Powers et al., 2012), TV may be more effective for brand credibility (Kicova et al., 2020), attitude (cognitive, emotional, conative) and attention (Weibel et al., 2019). Due to different receptive styles, attention is much more easily captured by TV than by online ads (Köz & Atakan, 2018). There are also inconclusive results. For recall and recognition, some studies find TV to be more effective (Roozen & Meulders, 2015), yet Weibel et al. (2019) show differences for implicit ad awareness. For quantitative measures (penetration, uplift, ROI), industry studies find TV to be more effective in the short-run (IAB, 2017; Modenbach & Neumüller, 2020). However, an academic longitudinal study finds OV ads to be highly effective and efficient, yet with quicker saturation (Shaikh et al., 2019).

In 2008, web usability consultant Jakob Nielsen coined the distinction between lean-back (LB) legacy media (print, TV) and lean-forward (LF) digital media to describe contemporary media usage (Deuze, 2016). This dichotomy is widespread in the media industry to study UX design and ad effects. For example, SevenOne Media found that the activation level with LF media was higher than with LB media for genre content, just opposite as found for video ads (Modenbach & Neumüller, 2020).

Yet today, established video usage patterns coexist with new ones (Cha, 2013), as viewers adapt their behaviors based on their needs and prolific options available, giving rise to cross-device usage and multiscreening (Neate et al., 2017). In a converging video landscape, traditional theories of media consumption and ad effectiveness may be insufficient. The LB/LF dichotomy may not capture the novel, more engaging and immersive viewing experience, which may be termed as “laid-back” (Jones et al., 2003) or “lean-in” mode (Vosmeer & Schouten, 2014). In other words, the whole notion of differentiating the LB/LF video consumption experience needs to be re-examined.

Therefore, this study will systematically review conceptual and empirical literature on video consumption and associated ad conditions to assess: (1) how LB and LF video consumption activities differ, (2) what the drivers for LB/LF differences are, (3) how ad effectiveness is explained in the video context, and (4) what the ad implications are from the proposed LB/LF notions.

2. Review of video consumption perspectives

To unearth the characteristics of video consumption holistically, we will first re-contextualize LB/LF in a nexus of theories and alternative approaches through an extensive review of relevant literature. Thereby, single theories are subsumed to general approaches and even broader perspectives. Figure 1 shows the visual classification of the various approaches. Overall, there are media universal approaches rooted in the pre-digital age. Some focus on single medium like TV (silo view), others are also applied to explain digital media usage (general view). Within the digital media sphere, some models take a silo view on one particular channel (e.g. website), others uphold a media dichotomy whilst more recent ones recognize media convergence.

From a consumer perspective, there are three ways to look at media usage. The first aspect is media selection as explained by theories of program choice. The second aspect focuses on media/ad receptivity. The third aspect entails explicit media/ad effectiveness approaches. Notably, this directional categorization is not an absolute condition: models may equally explain medium choice, reception and effectiveness. Figure 1 situates the models in the domain that is most often discussed.

Unlike empirical models, the medium-centric LB/LF paradigm draws a distinction between LB legacy media and new LF media to describe media usage (Dewdney & Ride, 2013). Although the prevalent LB/LF distinction may aid UX design (Gurrin et al., 2010), the medium distinction primarily describes the characteristics of two media formats consumed in a certain receptive state. Thus, LB/LF orients toward a medium-centric model for both ad receptivity and ad effectiveness. Therefore, this study conceptualizes media usage along a passive-active continuum. Specifically, it depicts the overall scholastic perspectives on media usage by assuming video audiences as either passive, active or somewhere in between (Table 1). We will expand on each approach next.

2.1. *Passive audience approach*

First, scholars claiming audience passivity (Elliott, 1974) recognize consumers' passive channel switching (Goodhardt et al., 1987) or online users' passive interaction in a virtual setting (Gilroy et al., 2012). Empirically, the passive media research stream is concerned with context structures (Cooper, 1993) or message structures (Omar et al., 2016).

2.2. *Active audience approach*

Active audience scholars conceptualize audience activity as intentionality and selectivity – posited by uses & gratifications theory (UGT) (Blumler, 1979) or mood management theory (Zillmann, 2000) –, as mental constructivism (Fiske, 2010; Hess et al., 2005; Robert & Dennis, 2005), or as activism in the form of user agency (Van Dijck, 2009) or interactivity (Pavlou & Stewart, 2000).

2.3. *Medium approach*

The medium view encompasses functional cognitive models, which may focus on the individual yet with little emphasis on the activity level (Debue & Van de Leemput, 2014), and also approaches claiming coexistence of audience activity and passivity (Hearn, 1989; Pagani et al., 2011).

Table 1. Scholastic approaches to media consumption, receptivity and effects¹

Passive audience	Active audience	Medium view
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audience passivity: channel switching (Goodhardt et al., 1987); or passive web interaction (Gilroy et al., 2012) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Semiotic: media interpreted as “text” in the consumer’s mind (Cohen, 2002; Fiske, 2010) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Socio-cognitive: individual motivations and social influences (Ajzen, 1991; Gandy, 1984; Zeithaml, 1988)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Message/ ad structures: context (Chun et al., 2014), content, specifics, mechanisms of media messages/platforms (Omar et al., 2016; Köz & Atakan, 2018); complexity (Chun et al., 2014); S-O-R-notion (Tang et al., 2015) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cognitive-constructivist: media arousal (Zillmann, 1983), affect (Forgas, 2001), engagement (Hollebeek et al., 2016), involvement (Perse, 1990), immersion (Hess et al., 2005), flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cognitive: cognitive load/ absorption (Debie & Van de Leemput, 2014); information-processing (Scholten, 1996), brain structures (Vecchiato et al., 2013); attention (Reeves et al., 1999); recall (Lang et al., 1999)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media structures: structural factors, e.g. availability, scheduling, cost, demographics (Cooper, 1993; McCarty & Shrum, 1993) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic (micro): utilitarian view on media effects from a consumer perspective (Ducoffe, 1996; Bellman et al., 2012) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Person-centric: media orientation (Hearn, 1989); dispositions (Preston & Claire, 1994), demographics (Cartocci et al., 2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic (macro): utilitarian view on media from a creator perspective (Kaid, 2002; Sethuraman et al., 2011) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Socio-constructivist: media perceptions formed by social context/experiences (Robert & Dennis, 2005) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Medium-centric: media usage upon media characteristics (Köz & Atakan, 2018), LB/LF (Nielsen, 2008)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media habits: formation of habits/ repertoires (Gandy, 1984; Taneja et al., 2012; Silverstone & Haddon, 1996) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivation: utilitarian/hedonistic motivation (Tamborini et al., 2010), mood optimization (Zillmann, 2000) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media multitasking: multi-device motivations (Lin, 2019), receptivity (Aagaard, 2015), effects (Segijn & Eisend, 2019)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media adoption: medium-centric view on media adoption (Davis, 1989) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses & gratifications: motives and effects of media use (Katz et al., 1973; Rubin, 1981) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media synergies: cross-platform effects (Voorveld, 2011)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generation effects: media generation-dependency (Aroldi & Colombo, 2007; Bolin & Westlund, 2009) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • User agency: consumer’s active role from a sociological or “prosumption” perspective (Van Dijck, 2009) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contingency view: audience activity as variable (Biocca, 1988); contingent UG models (Levy, 1983)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interactive: consumer’s interactive role from a psychological (Pavlou & Stewart, 2000) or UX perspective (Gurrin et al., 2010) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrative models: integrated views, e.g. structural/ individualistic (Heeter, 1985), generation-/medium-centric (Westlund & Gherseti, 2015)

2.3.1. User-centric approach

The *user-centric* perspective is concerned with active vs. passive audience orientation. Focusing the individual, UG theorists – despite their general “active audience” notion – distinguish instrumental vs. ritualized viewing needs, suggesting active vs. passive viewing types. Some scholars study dispositional (Preston & Claire, 1994) or psychographic/attitudinal viewer characteristics (Ferguson & Perse, 2000), both with media general (Hawkins et al., 2005) or digital focus (Pagani et al., 2011), including UG motives for YouTube usage (Khan, 2017; Xu, 2014). Other scholars attribute audience orientation to generation effects (Westlund & Weibull, 2013).

2.3.2. Medium-centric approach

The *medium-centric* view, capturing the LB/LF distinction, attributes user activity/passivity to the medium itself. First, there is the notion of an audience shift from passive to active (Jenkins, 2006).

¹ Note. Table 1 includes example references. For extended overview see appendix.

New technologies have enabled media users to be more selective and self-directed as consumers or as producers (Livingstone, 2013). Recognizing that TV and digital media coexist, some link passive media usage to TV and active instrumental usage to digital media (Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000).

There are also holistic views: integrative UG models (Webster & Wakshlag, 1983), socio-cognitive models comprising structural/social and individual elements (LaRose, 2010), or a model reconciling the generation-centric and medium-centric view (Ghersetti & Westlund, 2016). Some UG theorists claim audience activity variable (Blumler, 1979). The activity level may vary among viewers, also dependent upon the functionality of the medium in a given situation (Levy, 1983). The contingency view further claims a variable viewing mode (Biocca, 1988): different types of activity as a function of audience orientation and the stage of communication sequence (Levy, 1983). Steiner and Xu (2018) propose a viewer attentiveness spectrum in the context of binge-watching.

Hence, there are several alternative views for addressing today's video consumption behavior and its ad related impacts. With convergent media marked by synergies (Naik & Peters, 2009) and increasing user interactivity (Pavlou & Stewart, 2000), the dichotomous approach of LB/LF related explainers needs a re-examination, considering ad receptivity and effectiveness.

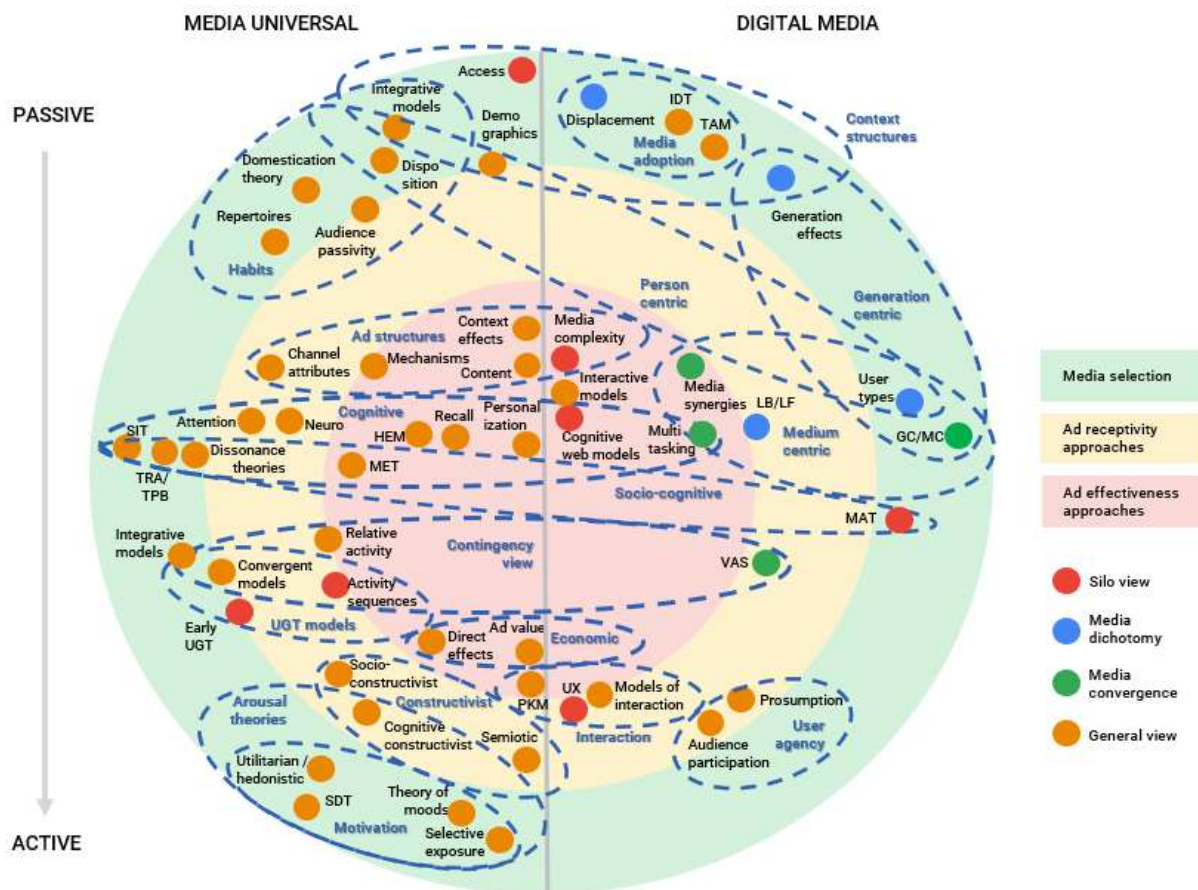


Figure 1. Classification of approaches to media selection, ad receptivity and ad effectiveness²

² Abbreviations. GC/MC (generation-centric/medium-centric); HEM (hierarchical effect models); LB/LF (lean-back/lean-forward); MAT (media attendance theory); MET (means-end theory); PKM (persuasion knowledge model); SDT (self-determination theory); SIT (self-identity theory); TAM (technology acceptance model); TPB (theory of planned behavior); TRA (theory of reasoned action); UGT (uses & gratifications theory); UX (user experience); VAS (viewer attentiveness spectrum)

3. Research method

To address the four research questions, we conducted an extensive, systematic literature review of academic literature (empirical studies, theoretical/conceptual papers) and non-academic sources, mainly from the fields of media/communication, marketing, advertising, psychology, media sociology and UX. The process started with pre-defining relevant themes further clustered in three main areas (general, media specific, ad specific) (Figure 4). Guided by these themes, a keyword analysis was conducted, considering both English and German literature. The consulted databases included Web of Science, PSYNDEX and Google Scholar. For scholarly work, the focus was on peer-reviewed articles.

The initial search phase generated a total of 655 sources, which were reviewed for duplicates and screened by abstract (academic) or by introduction (non-academic). Next, literature was restructured for theoretical integration: Sources were assigned to one (or in the case of integrative approaches to several) of the subcategories under “passive”, “active” and “medium” approaches (Figure 4; Table 1). Except themes specified for video usage only, the collected literature covered media general perspectives. This allowed that for each theme there was a solid base for detailed review, yet those themes with a broad literature base were to be examined further. Hence, for each theme/pre-defined aspect, literature was screened for and prioritized by the topics of video, TV vs. OV comparison, ad effects and LB/LF (Figure 4).

From reviewed articles, secondary references were considered when applicable, resulting in a total of 715 sources from 223 journals and 33 conference papers, published between 1961 and 2020 (Figure 2). The variety of papers employing different quantitative (e.g. survey, experiment) and qualitative methods (e.g. interviews, theoretical/conceptual papers) (Figures 5) as well as additional non-academic literature allowed for synthesizing insights from different perspectives and to gain a holistic understanding of the topic. To address the four research questions, key aspects and drivers of LB/LF consumption, ad receptivity and ad effectiveness were identified. Specific relevant literature to each topic/question informed the corresponding discussion.

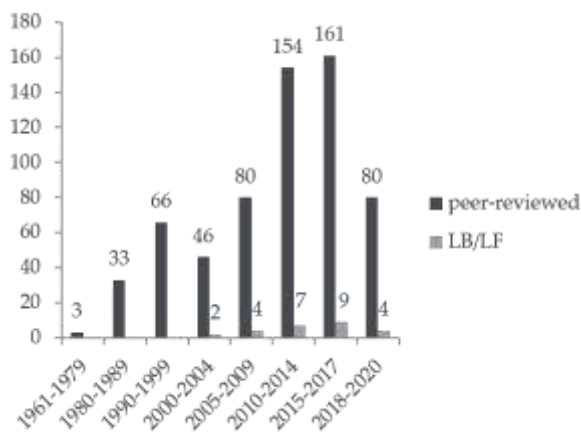


Figure 2. Peer-reviewed articles by year of publication

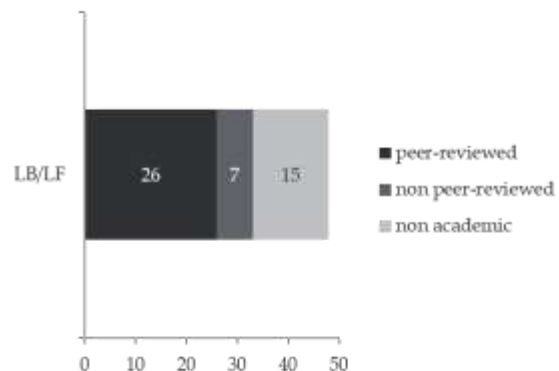


Figure 3. Literature mentioning LB/LF by source category

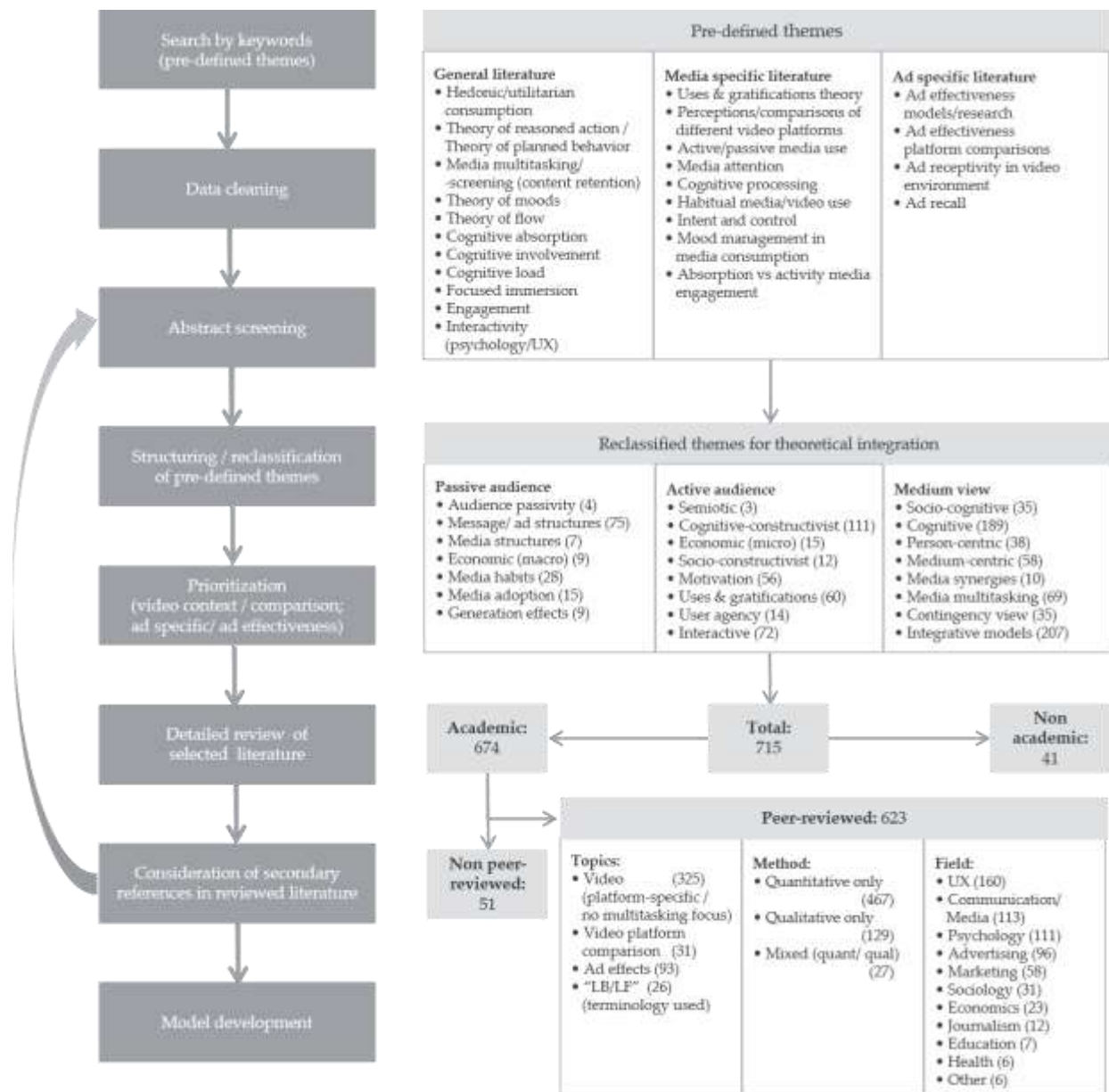


Figure 4. Process of systematic literature review

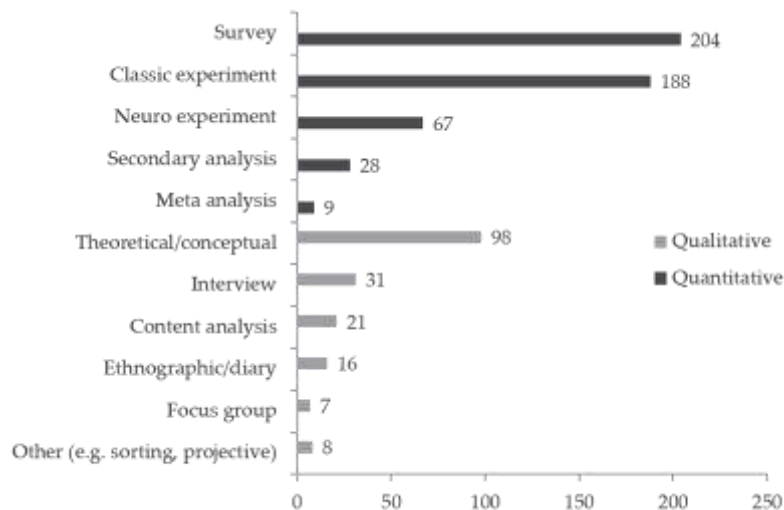


Figure 5. Reviewed literature by methods used

4. Results

4.1. Key differences between LB/LF

Overall, LB media are characterized by a passive consumption mode in a relaxing environment with limited engagement possibilities (Eide et al., 2016). In contrast, LF media is marked by a non-linear structure and interactivity/controllability (Schwan & Riempp, 2004), thereby requiring active decision-making and encouraging active viewer engagement (Eide et al., 2016). The short content format on mobile devices (Eide et al., 2016) means more active control of the information flow for LF media (Groot Kormelink & Costera Meijer, 2020).

The literature review shows that LB and LF video consumption generally varies in the following five aspects: attention (degree of absorption and activity); interaction (degree of active/passive control and engagement); timing (length of use); cognition (load and tempo); and emotion (affective state and intensity). We will elaborate on each aspect next.

4.1.1. Attention

First, LB and LF video consumption demand different levels and amounts of attention. Attention is defined as the amount of “conscious thinking” during ad processing (Heath, 2009). LF media are consumed in shorter time span (Taylor, 2019), often interrupted by switching activities (Cui et al., 2007). This LF scanning mode contrasts with LB consumption mode that comes with a longer attentional span (Eide et al., 2016), resulting in three possible attentional styles: intentional “focused” viewing of scheduled shows; “decompression” viewing for diversionary reasons (relaxing/time-passing); TV “ambient viewing” that enables multitasking (Phalen & Ducey, 2012). As attention levels fluctuate during video viewing (Lang, 1995), we need to differentiate attention amount from attention intensity. Whilst LB experiences might deliver higher attention amount over time, LF experiences might have higher attention intensity in shorter time span.

4.1.2. Interaction

LB and LF viewing styles yield different degrees of activity and control along a reactive-active spectrum of interaction. It is argued that viewers can be passive or active at different points (Rubin, 1984) and that audience activity varies by consumer, context, content (Costello & Moore, 2007) and by genre (Wilson, 2016). Rather than a shift from passive to active viewing (Jenkins, 2006), we find a technology-enabled shift from active consumption to interactivity (Astigarraga et al., 2016).

Interactivity is defined as “responsiveness”, the degree to which the user can influence media form and content (Miller, 2011). Compared to passive LB media (Jones et al., 2003), LF media yield more interactive possibilities (Vosmeer & Schouten, 2014). New interactive devices (iTV) bring the LB and LF experience closer: More choice options come with the burden of finding said content, which contradicts the LB nature of TV (Mitchell et al., 2011). For the “active audience” (Oh & Sundar, 2015), interactivity is enjoyable, but it is also emotionally and cognitively demanding (Bowman et al., 2017). Notably, there is a trend towards integrating content management technologies into the LB environment (Gurrin et al., 2010). Overall, video consumption is rarely simply passive or active, but a degree of interaction between audience and content/platform. Technology advancement may gradually change the experience and expectation of interaction during video use, thereby diminishing LB/LF differences.

4.1.3. Timing

LB and LF video usage vary in length of consumption time. A comfortable LB setting enables a longer consumption period (Eide et al., 2016), whilst LF is linked to quicker, time-bound consumption (Hernandez & Rue, 2015). However, video recording and more recent downloading and streaming

technologies allow for fast-forward content, altering consumers' perception of control and time spent (Bury & Li, 2015; Schwan & Riempp, 2004). Notably, the amount of time spent on consuming certain media (TV or digital) in either LB or LF fashion does not reflect the varying degrees of attention and interest involved (Groot Kormelink & Costera Meijer, 2020).

Moreover, multi-device usage during TV ad exposure is altering time perception (Chinchanachokchai et al., 2015), thereby lessening the LB/LF differences (Lohmüller et al., 2019). With social media video/stories (Taylor, 2019), social media today can quite possibly be experienced as LB, making the time issue become more complex.

4.1.4. Cognition

LB/LF viewing styles differ in two cognitive factors: *cognitive involvement* (the intensity of cognitive activity devoted to an issue/activity) (Matthes, 2011) and *cognitive load* (the amount of cognitive resources required for task performance) (Hinds, 1999). Also, whilst instrumental motivation positively relates to elaboration, ritualistic viewing encourages distracting behaviors. With less required mental resources (LB), viewers are more able/likely to multitask (Sun et al., 2008).

For video design, intrinsic (i.e. perceived enjoyment) and extrinsic (i.e. perceived ease of use) motivators are crucial (Jung & Walden, 2015), the latter being particularly relevant to highly cognitive demanding LF media. Maximizing states of flow and minimizing cognitive load should be the goal (Gurrin et al., 2010). Well-designed content and interactivity can reduce overall cognitive load to facilitate information-processing (Schwan & Riempp, 2004). However, there are also moderating factors such as habitual/binge viewing, or multitasking propensity. Altogether, whilst LF-oriented platforms might generally require more cognitive load, good design could alleviate that deficit, making LB-LF differences less pronounced.

4.1.5. Emotion

There are two aspects of affect: emotions are more short-lived feelings (e.g. happy, sad, ecstatic) as an expressive reaction to external stimuli; moods are diffuse longer-lasting emotional states (either positive or negative) (Siemer, 2005). Due to different motivations, LB and LF video consumption might deliver different emotional states. Whilst relaxation might trigger positive "witness" emotions, more engaging LF experiences allow for "participatory" emotions which may be more intense and satisfying (see Oliver & Raney, 2011). Being present in both leaning orientations, literature is inconclusive regarding the intensity of such emotions in LB/LF contexts. Some suggest that LB leads to more positive emotions, yet it is equally possible that LF experiences are perceived more intense.

4.2. Key LB/LF consumption drivers and associated theories

The literature review identifies five key drivers of LB or LF video behaviors: physicality, ritualism, intent, content, and engagement (P.R.I.C.E.) (Figure 6). Each factor will be explained next drawing on constructs/frameworks that offer insights about the relationships between these factors and the video consumption behaviors.

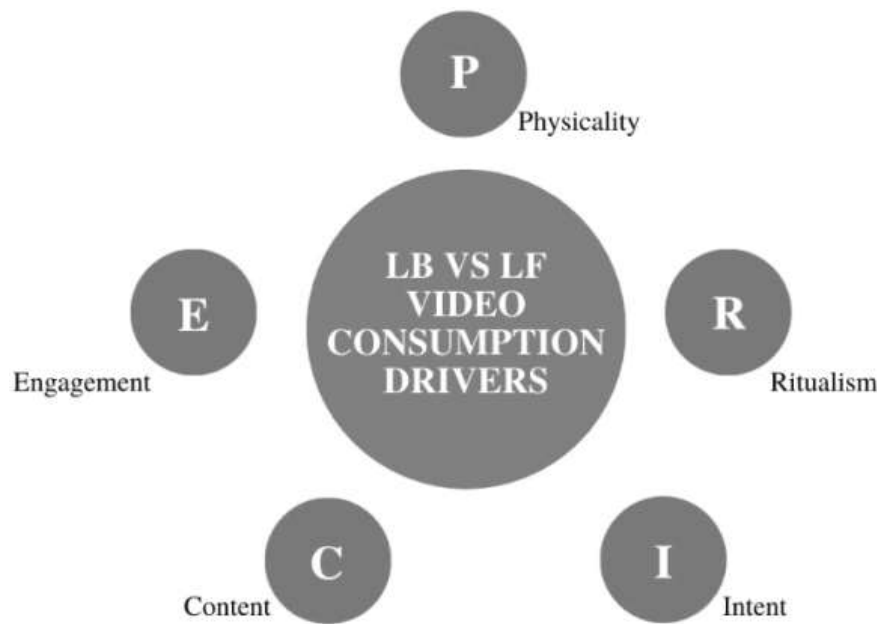


Figure 6. LB vs. LF video consumption drivers (P.R.I.C.E.)

4.2.1. Physicality

Literature shows that physical orientation and interaction with the platform/device, physical setting and interaction level, physical interface, and spatial distance may affect the leaning direction and degree. First, LB/LF differ in terms of body postures (Dewdney & Ride, 2013). LB physical postures are comfortable since LB is intended as passive consumption, often associated with certain places and appointment times; smartphone usage is often leisurely, snackable, unplanned, and in “stand-up” consumption mode (Hernandez & Rue, 2015).

In terms of posture and activity level, some define an intermediate viewing style as with the tablet (Eide et al., 2016). Notably, the physical consumption mode relates to a certain cognitive mode (Hernandez & Rue, 2015), formed by the physical demands of the medium/content enabling different degrees of physical control (Bowman et al., 2017): By manipulating controllers, viewers can develop mental models that associate their movements with on-screen actions, potentially decreasing the perceived physical demands.

Platform may determine the likely engagement level, in terms of spatial distance (Li et al., 2016) and screen size (Rigby et al., 2016). Whilst larger screens are favored for an immersive LB viewing experience (Rigby et al., 2016), this is also possible with mobile TV when placed in a cradle and wearing sound headphones (Cui et al., 2007). Usually, small mobile devices are used for watching short videos (Ley et al., 2013). Although smaller screens attract more focused viewing (Phalen & Ducey, 2012), they elicit less emotional and cognitive arousal (Reeves et al., 1999). This effect generally occurs regardless of content, yet it may be increased by highly arousing content (Reeves et al., 1999).

Overall, physical environment and sensory interactions dictate the LB/LF orientation/effects through certain mental modes. However, there might be generational differences as a higher degree of interactivity might become ritualistic for the younger generation of video users.

4.2.2. Ritualism

A viewer's preference for ritualized media use will impact LB/LF platform choice. Habitual consumption is a passive form of media usage that refers to stable usage patterns formed by social contexts (Wood et al., 2002). Habit formation is initially goal-driven, being consciously based on previous activities' outcome; once formed, habitual media usage occurs automatically (Ghersetti & Westlund, 2016). Theory of media attendance holds that people facing an abundant media choice will likely resort to viewing patterns rather than choosing new media requiring active thinking (LaRose & Eastin, 2004). Ritualized viewing is medium-oriented and associated with LB TV (Rubin, 1983), reducing the weight of intent and cognitive load. Yet, ritualized viewing continues to be different for younger video generations (Im et al., 2019).

4.2.3. Intent

Being essential for the LB/LF tendency, intentionality is associated with goals/gratifications sought from media consumption, as posited by UGT or mood management theory. Both frameworks offer useful insights on video consumption "intent" as discussed in the following.

4.2.3.1. Uses & gratifications theory

According to UGT (Katz et al., 1973), people select media upon certain needs or gratifications. There are two types of TV/video viewing (Phalen & Ducey, 2012): Ritualistic viewers are medium-oriented, watching video content on their favored screen available (TV), often for time consumption, relaxation, escape and entertainment. Instrumental, content-oriented viewers seek a specific content/genre regardless of medium, driven by non-escapist, information-seeking or learning motivations, thus being more actively engaged. Whilst online usage is said to be motivated by information-seeking and essentially goal-directed, TV in the form of channel surfing is "curiously unplanned" (Taylor & Harper, 2003).

UGT offers support for the assumption of TV as a passive LB medium. Content-driven users might see gratifications in using LF video sources with more options. Yet, this linkage could not be empirically confirmed as an absolute dichotomy (Astigarraga et al., 2016). Motives for TV and for internet are to some degree similar (Ferguson & Perse, 2000). Mobile video usage is often for unplanned time-filling, whilst the LB TV setting is also associated with "appointment viewing" (with others or with oneself) (Phalen & Ducey, 2012; see Hernandez & Rue, 2015). Particularly with media convergence, the media/user dichotomy may no longer be valid: YouTube video consumption is also found to be motivated by actual LB motivations, i.e. relaxation, entertainment and time-passing (Khan, 2017; Xu, 2014). Apparently, the Internet has become a more balanced medium to gratify both instrumental and ritualistic motives (Metzger & Flanagin, 2002).

4.2.3.2. Mood management theory

According to mood management theory (Knobloch-Westerwick, 2007), media selection (e.g. LB/LF) is motivated by affect optimization goals: Stressed individuals may lean towards soothing media stimuli; bored individuals may favor arousing content. In contrast, the mood-congruence approach posits that individuals select media reflecting their current mood (Greenwood, 2010). Here, selective-exposure theory (Zillmann, 2000) assumes that viewers will seek media aligned with their attitudes. As there is empirical support for both mood-congruence effects (Chen et al., 2007) and for mood management theory, it is possible that viewers in a bad mood may vary or combine their mood regulation strategies (Knobloch-Westerwick, 2007).

Applying mood management theory to video consumption suggests that: 1) video consumption can be used as a means for mood regulation, 2) there are inconsistent findings about what kind of content is chosen for mood adjustment (affect optimization vs. congruence), 3) there are gender differences in media usage for mood management, and 4) meaningfulness, besides hedonic motivators, might also play a role.

Intentionality, either motivated by gratifications or mood regulation, may drive video platform choice. Yet, it is too simplistic to associate certain gratifications or mood regulation strategies with only a LB or LF platform. Both types of intent can be present in both LB/LF media, albeit LF behavior may yield a higher degree of intentionality. The amount of attention paid to both types of content is the same, but the intensity of attention varies (Yao, 2018), potentially influencing further psychological and behavioral outcomes. Overall, intent is said to be more important than attention nowadays (Yao, 2018).

4.2.4. Content

The nature of video content directly affects an audience's cognitive load and intent/goal attainment. For example, sports have LF content but may be viewed on LB TV. One way to explain a viewer's leaning degree/direction during video usage is through the construct of *cognitive absorption*: the state of being consciously involved in an interaction with almost complete attentional focus (Oh et al., 2010). Specifically, in a state of *focused immersion*, all attentional resources are focused on a particular task, reducing the level of cognitive burden of task performance (Agarwal & Karahanna, 2000). Individuals are highly engaged so as to lack temporal and spatial awareness (Zha et al., 2018).

Oh and Sundar (2015) hold that medium-based interactivity may enhance cognitive absorption due to immersive entertainment, which enriches the UX and stimulates participatory emotions. Hsu and Lin (2017) note that media content needs to be built to fit users' needs in order for cognitive absorption and repeated use to occur. Overall, literature on "video content" as a driver of cognitive absorption suggests that: 1) a video content's ability to offer an immersive state would reduce cognitive load, 2) a video content's ability to heighten enjoyment could increase its consumption time, and 3) both sensory and cognitive aspects (e.g. control) contribute to cognitive absorption.

4.2.5. Engagement style/propensity

Within the interaction mechanism offered by different video platforms, an audience's engagement propensity might affect the degree in which they interact with the media. Scholars have negated the notion of an audience's orientation as a dichotomy between passive TV viewers and active internet users (Astigarraga, et al., 2016; Van Dijck, 2009). Rather, users may exert a specific behavior upon the context, thus make their selection upon the functionality of each medium in that particular situation (Costello & Moore, 2007). This suggests that the engagement style/propensity might influence one's LB/LF tendency. Engagement is defined as the amount of "subconscious feeling" during ad processing (Heath, 2009).

Consumers with high "activity" engagement style might lean toward LF video consumption, whereas those with "absorption" engagement style would prefer LB use. The engagement factor, along with differences in intent and content, have the potential to turn a typically LB video platform into a more LF experience. Furthermore, Will (2012) suggests that LF and LB are not "different media" per se, but different engagement styles which viewers will exhibit under certain conditions and cues. LF media are associated with high-activity engagement styles (i.e. frequent task-switching) and low sustained attention (Cui et al., 2007). LB media have a high-absorption engagement style, with concentrated and long-term sustained attention. Notably, such a typically LB high-absorption engagement style is also evident in binge-viewing behavior (Phalen & Ducey, 2012). Absorption and activity can be considered engagement style dimensions, each conceptualized as a continuum.

4.3. Ad receptivity and ad effectiveness in the context of video consumption

To understand the implications of ad effectiveness in the context of LB/LF video consumption re-examination, this section discusses the factors that are relevant to both ad receptivity and ad effectiveness, particularly in video consumption scenarios.

4.3.1. Ad receptivity

Ad receptivity is defined as “the extent to which consumers pay attention to and are favorably disposed and responsive to advertising” (Bailey et al., 2014). Receptivity has a direct link to attention (Ducoffe & Curlo, 2000) and viewer immersion (Buchanan, 2006). Therefore, it is crucial to determine when users will be more receptive towards ad content. Along with video consumption mindsets and motivations, ad receptivity shifts throughout the day (IAB, 2019). Overall, literature suggests six factors of video ad receptivity: mood, needs/goals/motivators, platform/device, interactivity, multitasking, and relevancy in terms of content, location, situation, and timing (Magna Global, 2019; IAB, 2019; Duff & Segijn, 2019).

4.3.2. Ad effectiveness

Ad responsivity is said to follow a hierarchical process (Scholten, 1996): cognitive, affective, and behavioral. Within the cognitive step, attention to and elaboration of ad content is influenced by characteristics of the ad, of the viewer, and of the situation (physical setting; characteristics of the medium and media/program context; number, sequence and placement of the ad) (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002).

A meta-analysis of literature on online ads (Liu-Thompkins, 2018) identifies positive ad effects, but also moderation effects by product category, customer segment, and ad format. It also notes the attention-deficit disadvantage of online ads (LF). For a virtual environment, there are generational differences regarding ad integration and interactivity. Brand interactivity may enhance memory and brand attitude, whilst integration of ads in online content may impair memory with no effect on brand attitude among heavy online users (Daems et al., 2019).

Overall, literature suggests four factors to impact the cognitive, affective and behavioral level: content, context, consumer, and product (Duff & Segijn, 2019). We will consider each factor as an essential driver of ad effectiveness/recall next.

4.3.2.1. Content

From the perspective of content, research shows that video format, congruency, certain emotional appeals, message elaboration, and creativity might play a role in the process. Li and Lo (2014) show that long ads drive recognition; mid-roll ads lead to better brand recognition than pre-roll and post-roll ads due to attention spillover; post-roll ads may enhance brand recognition in an incongruent context, yet the opposite holds true for mid-roll ads. Hence, different strategies should be employed for long-form vs. short-form video content. TV exposure may increase brand opinion and purchase intent, whilst mobile/digital drive unaided awareness (IAB, 2017). Users can be targeted with different ad purposes for LB/LF contexts to benefit from the prevalent user preferences and behavioral effects in each consumption style.

The mood congruency-accessibility hypothesis assumes that congruency between the evoked mood and the ad content ad may be conducive for ad processing, recall and brand/ad attitude. The effect is generally proven, yet with some boundary conditions. Congruence effects on recall are particularly strong for an involving program (see review Chun et al., 2014) due to carry-over effects

towards the ads (Arrazola et al., 2013). However, incongruent ad content may appear more original and generate higher recall through contrast effects (Arrazola et al., 2013; De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). Moreover, congruence effects may not accrue in an online environment, considering that ad integration has a negative effect on memory (Daems et al., 2019). The congruency effect shows also generational differences, as ad recall is higher for older audiences in a congruent context and for younger people in a contrast context (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). Finally, with second-screen usage during TV consumption, congruency effects might be less substantial.

Furthermore, effective emotional appeals tend to generate high arousal and feature more complex emotions like humor (Campbell et al., 2017). It is found that humor may influence message recall, possibly because the persuasive power is higher for humorous messages than for serious content, mediated by processes such as the reduction of counter-argumentation or social presence (Zhang & Zinkhan, 1991). Yet, humor distracts attention from context information, which manifests in impaired explicit memory (recognition) whilst implicit memory remains unaffected, thus humor might well increase brand evaluations or purchase intentions (Strick et al., 2009).

Lord and Burnkrant (1993) propose that TV viewing processing is impacted by a “triad of viewer involvement”: program involvement, viewer involvement in the ad, and the ad's inherent attention-engaging capacity. The more a consumer is engaged/interacts with a message, the higher the processing level. This might contribute to higher brand recognition (Hang, 2016). Moreover, ad-context congruence may encourage message elaboration due to priming effects (Stipp, 2018).

Finally, a previous review on ad creativity by Lehnert et al. (2013) finds positive effects on ad receptivity for attention, processing motivation and intensity, and positive outcomes on recall, recognition, ad attitudes, product evaluation, or emotional reactions. Mixed results are found for brand attitudes and purchase intention. The authors themselves provide further empirical findings: Whilst creative ads exhibit higher recall, repeated exposures may reduce this advantage. The novelty in the ad can enhance encoding and create a distinctive memory trace for easier recall. However, creativity has less influence on long-term recall. Additionally, attention-getting elements enhance brand recognition and recall, yet they are more intrusive and annoying (Goldstein et al., 2014).

4.3.2.2. Context

Various contextual factors might also affect the outcome of advertising during video consumption. For example, co-viewing is found to reduce ad effectiveness (Bellman et al., 2012): The “mere presence” effect may distract each co-viewer’s attention from the screen. The social presence creates extra demands on limited cognitive resources that might otherwise be used for ad encoding and storage. However, conversing about an ad may aid processing and recall.

Mood can also be a driver of ad receptivity and recall (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002): According to the feelings-as-information theory, people in a positive mood tend to avoid all stimuli that may alter their mood. This lower attention to mood-incongruent ads for a positive context will lead to less ad recall. The opposite effect is found for negative or neutral moods.

Besides the level of emotions, viewers are influenced by the dynamic variation of emotions in an ad (Teixeira et al., 2012). Pavelchak et al. (1988) show that recall is negatively related to emotional intensity and highest in neutral mood, and that unpleasant feelings decrease motivation. Yet, highly arousing content (i.e. sports) may shift attention to content and away from ads.

4.3.2.3. Consumer

There might be individual differences in how viewers react to ads. For instance, audience propensity to ad-skipping and channel-zapping may reduce ad effectiveness (Bellman et al., 2012). Zapping may be affected by perceived negativity of the ad, value of the ad, media usage, and demographics (Chan-Olmsted et al., 2019). Ad avoidance is also likely induced externally by interstitial in-stream ads that evoke an experiential flow, which leads to low recall (Clark et al., 2018). Ad processing in such highly immersive settings is more complicated due to limited cognitive capacity (Roettl & Terlutter, 2018): The more attentional capacity is needed for the media activity, the less capacity will be left for ad processing. Cognitive capacity may also vary among individuals. In contrast, it has been argued that multitasking may prevent viewers from switching during commercial breaks, and that while another device keeps them engaged, viewers might still be able to pay attention to peripheral ad cues (Duff & Segijn, 2019).

4.3.2.4. Product

Product category involvement might mediate ad receptivity/effectiveness (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). That is, the level of involvement influences processing motivation centrally or peripherally, which will yield different ad recall levels for highly involved (contrast effect) vs. lowly involved viewers (congruent contexts facilitate ad processing). It has been found that high personal relevance (i.e. involvement) leads to voluntary selection of the ad, whilst little personal relevance would have to be encountered by employing attention-getting devices (Lord & Burnkrant, 1993). Whilst highly arousing content (i.e. sports) may shift attention to content and away from ads, it has been argued that ads placed in a sports program could trigger immediate search when the advertised product fits viewer needs (e.g. pizza delivery) (Duff & Segijn, 2019).

4.4. *An integrated video consumption spectrum and its ad effectiveness implications*

Literature holds that ad effectiveness is affected by mood, attention, ad receptivity (general/contextual), content (cognition/absorption), interaction, and physical environment (platform/device/co-viewing). To better capture the whole ecosystem, it is along these six basic ad effectiveness drivers and their interactions that LB/LF video consumption needs to be examined.

4.4.1. Mood

In both video consumption experiences, mood and emotion play a role regarding ad awareness effects. Strong brand/ad attitude and recall can be achieved through engaging ads (Wang, 2006) – here, LB behavior will more likely leverage absorption engagement. Generally, intense video-evoked emotions are not conducive for ad effectiveness. Only negative emotions, albeit eliciting less attention (due to avoidance tendencies), may generate higher recall (Reeves et al., 1991). Whilst mood might help viewers be more receptive, it might not enhance recall – content and context would carry the weight for ad effectiveness.

4.4.2. Intent

Intent affects all aspects that differentiate LB from LF consumption: attention, interaction, time, cognition, and emotion. Here, LF media haven often been studied with respect to sharing intention, which may be influenced by the perception of locus of control, usefulness, ease of use, altruism and attitudes towards video content (Yang & Wang, 2015). More generally, cognitive processing is a matter of individual cognitive load, being related to viewing intention, content and context. To achieve high recall, content and context need to be matched with viewer intent. Ad effectiveness is not simply a

question of cognitive load as by platform, but depends on the interactions between intent, content, and context (Duff & Segijn, 2019).

4.4.3. Attention

Attention is the first gate to cross for ad effectiveness, whereby context is an important factor (Hawkins et al., 2005). LB-style ads, embedded in an immersive movie context, are mostly viewed entirely (Hemdev, 2018). There is consensus that the narrative, cognitively absorbing TV format garners longer attention spans, whilst OV formats are built for shorter attention spans and higher cognitive activity. Here, we propose differentiating attention amount from attention intensity. Despite longer attention spans for TV, there is also unfocused “ambient” viewing (Phalen & Ducey, 2012). Besides, there might be less a need for attention with high immersion (as immersion reduces attentional demand). For TV, recall is higher than attention (Lang et al., 1999), as memorization is more easily rendered when immersion reduces cognitive load. In contrast, immersion is found to impair brand recall for OV ads (Van Langenberghe & Calderon, 2017). Here, information-processing might be slowed by the enjoyment (Nelson et al., 2004), which might be more intense due to a higher activation and absorption level in OV viewing mode. Although attention is the key to enter the cognitive space, attention along with engagement do not necessarily lead to memory (Rossiter et al., 2001). Ad effectiveness may be more affected by the immersive power of the video or the sensory, cognitive absorption (e.g. control and interaction) enabled by the ad.

4.4.4. Interaction

Interactivity, control, and engagement are relevant dimensions of OV experiences. Controllability like allowing viewers to actively click on the ad enhances viewing time and recall (Clark et al., 2018). However, interaction may lead to less cognitive absorption, thus being less conducive for ad effectiveness. There are two issues here regarding ad effectiveness. First, the assessment of effectiveness depends on the metrics. An active audience might offer more holistic brand benefits than simply recall (Pavlou & Stewart, 2000). Most studies on LF-oriented ad effectiveness focus short-term effects like recall (Cauberghe & De Pelsmacker, 2010; Van Langenberghe & Calderon, 2017). However, carryover and long-term ad effects also need to be assessed (Sethuraman et al., 2011). Besides, factors like ease of use, UX, and flow might lessen the cognitive load of active decisions and control. This may change over time as younger media consumers are conditioned to multitask and to engage with content/platform, gradually reducing LB/LF differences.

4.4.5. Physicality

Physicality matters in two ways: spatial relationship and interaction efforts. LF video consumption tends to have more intimate spatial relationship with the content but higher level of interaction efforts. Future research on the spatial issue of ad effectiveness should consider content and product type. Regarding interaction effort, ad interactivity can be divided into structural and experiential dimensions (Liu & Shrum, 2002). The structural aspect addresses the physical interaction and the cognitive efforts of the interaction. The experiential aspect concerns the UX of physical interaction, also considering engagement propensity to affect ad effectiveness (Liu & Shrum, 2002). No significant linkage between LB/LF video consumption and ad effectiveness regarding physicality is identified. The key is the design of physical device, space, and interface.

4.4.6. Content

Content affects people’s goal/intent attainment of the LB/LF video experience and contributes to ad effectiveness in two aspects: cognitive processing and mood/emotion. However, there is no clear evidence on which consumption style works best. Examining ad content from the perspectives of

attention-getting strategies, engagement tactics, and creative cross-ad coordination, LF-oriented platforms may offer more flexibility. As emotional appeals can enhance ad effectiveness, it is vital how the ad video content arouse (variation of) emotions. Again, literature does not suggest that either LB or LF video experience delivers a superior environment for emotion arousals or variation.

Research suggests that consumers are less tolerant of intrusion in an online environment (Logan, 2013), given mental avoidance and a reluctance to engage (Rejón-Guardia & Martínez-López, 2013). Hence, a LF video environment faces more content challenges. Next, there are positive synergistic effects of cross-media strategies (Khajeheian & Ebrahimi, 2020; Snyder & García-García, 2016; Voorveld, 2011). Finally, ad congruity reduces perceived ad intrusiveness given interactive video experiences (Daems et al., 2019).

4.4.7. Context

Regarding ad-context congruence, early studies find congruent ads superior to incongruent ads; recent ones show nuanced effects for interactions with arousal and goal relevance (Van't Riet et al., 2016). Contextual program involvement may positively impact memory and attitudes (Tavassoli et al., 1995). Context is becoming more complex with the fragmentation of devices and content options (Liu-Thompkins, 2018). Co-viewing and multitasking impact ad receptivity, especially in LB situations. Hence, examining LB/LF differences is less important than examining how contextual factors affect ad effectiveness, and how different platforms, with their engagement and context propensity, may maximize synergistic effects.

5. Discussion

5.1 Theoretical implications

This study aims to explore the traditional assumptions between LB and LF video media and ad effectiveness implications. With converging video media platforms, changing video use behavior, and increasing interactivity, the literature reviewed shows potential alternative views in addressing today's video consumption and its ad related impacts. In particular, the current study systematically reviews conceptual and empirical literature on video media consumption and associated ad conditions to investigate: (1) how LB and LF video consumption activities differ, (2) what the drivers for LB/LF differences are, (3) how ad effectiveness is explained in the video use context, and (4) what the ad implications are from the proposed LB/LF notions.

Five major differences between LB and LF video consumption styles are identified: attention, interaction, timing, cognition, emotion. Notably, these differences might be generational, becoming less pronounced as interactivity develops through multiplatform usage/experience and technological advances.

Our analysis suggests that video consumption is not simply passive or active, but a degree of interaction between audience and content/platform. The differences between LB and LF video usage are increasingly blurry as video/platform technologies continue to advance and consumers adapt their behaviors. As living rooms are being transformed into digital media hubs with multiple screens and easy-to-navigate interfaces, there will be different shades of LB/LF behaviors depending on the mode of attention and interaction. The use of mobile platforms further complicates the process as a dichotomous condition. Devices may be LB and LF at the same time, allowing for shifting modes during consumption (Eide et al., 2016). Video consumption is no longer passive or active, but a "leaning spectrum".

Regarding ad effectiveness, attentional style is crucial. However, there is no linear relationship between attention and memory (Rossiter et al., 2001). There has been evermore literature on the importance of intent vs. attention and proposing better ad effectiveness measures than attention-based metrics (Duff & Segijn, 2019). Rather than attention, intent seems to be crucial to influence the leaning direction; physicality, content, ritualism, and engagement propensity may affect the leaning degree. On the other hand, ad receptivity is not constant but affected by demographics, moods, contextual relevance, mindsets, and motivations (Magna Global, 2019; IAB, 2019; Taylor et al., 2011). Ad effectiveness is affected by attention, mood, ad receptivity, physicality, content/absorption, and interaction (Duff & Segijn, 2019). Well-designed video content and interactive UX can reduce cognitive load, facilitating information-processing. Context is the all-encompassing crucial factor.

This research contributes to the discourse on video platform comparison based on LB/LF and related approaches. From an extensive interdisciplinary overview, a new integrative conceptual framework appropriate for video platform management is proposed. The assumed LB and LF dichotomy should be moving toward a leaning spectrum affected by intent, experience, and context. In addition to existing contingent models, it is of theoretical importance to recognize such interdependencies and to build and empirically test models integrating all four factors. The literature review indicates that more research is needed on the issue of emotions differentiated by user intention and intensity during video consumption. Research should also address whether and under which conditions interactivity leads to deeper or rather shallow processing (Oh & Sundar, 2015). A meta-analytic investigation could be a fruitful avenue.

In terms of limitations, to obtain a broad topical overview, this study encompasses academic literature and nonacademic practical sources due to the high relevance of LB/LF in media practice. Academically, this may raise some quality concerns in conceptual elaboration and empirical rigor.

5.2 Practical implications

Whilst there are already some fluid theoretical conceptualizations of viewing behaviour (Steiner & Xu, 2018), the LB/LF dichotomy is still widespread within UX literature. Practitioners designing viewing content or technologies must note that a clear distinction might not be realistic. For ad effectiveness, in the digital video era marked by cross-platform fluidity and message fragmentation, it is less meaningful to compare between LB and LF consumption styles. On a macro-level, it has been argued that too many marketers focus on (absolute) brand awareness measures instead of (relative) relationship measures (Esch et al., 2006). Therefore, neither is it valuable to emphasize a metric like recall, as focused in many LB/LF-related ad studies. Notably, there is no significant positive or negative linkage between LB/LF video consumption and ad effectiveness.

For an ad to be effective, it needs to enter information-processing through the gate of “sense of presence” and “attention”. Firstly, exposure is not attention, which varies in amount and intensity. In terms of presence or exposure in a TV setting, most models neglect that lower cognitive load is conducive to distraction (multitasking). The challenge is to achieve active viewability in a multiscreen environment (Segijn, 2017). Therefore, marketers need to consider new viewer expectations for device- and context-specific ad experiences. LB-style spots will not work on LF media which can rather benefit from capabilities such as interactivity or precise targeting to enhance ad relevance and engagement. Here, social TV is a new format that unites former LB and LF watching styles through experiential engagement (Pagani & Mirabello, 2011). Stated negative effects on ad effectiveness by social TV (just as with covieing) (Bellman et al., 2017) might be outweighed by optimized integration of interactive features to enhance viewer experience (Pynta et al., 2014). Moreover, internet-enabled devices allow for emotional-targeted advertising (algorithm-driven targeting advertising as by users’ emotions), being an unexplored academic field, but potentially an effective strategy to match content and creative

elements with consumer. Overall, there are greater design and content challenges for the LF-style due to the inherent cognitive load and ad avoidance tendency.

For marketers to see how particular platforms contribute to their marketing objectives, it is vital to understand contextual factors such as media multitasking and the interaction of intent, mood/emotion, and other fundamental video consumption drivers. The key is to see how single platforms contribute to the long-term brand benefits synergistically. The point should be about owning the “leaning spectrum”, by creating/marketing content and context to cover the range of needs by contexts and consumer segments.

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³ If not quoted in the text, example references from Table 1 are marked with *.

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Appendix

Passive Audience				
	Approach	Description	General references	Digital references
Audience passivity	Absolute audience passivity	passive “flowing” from program to program; or passive interaction in a web environment	Goodhardt et al. (1987); Elliott (1974)	Gilroy et al. (2012)
	Media context	Media access	structural factors, e.g. availability, scheduling, cost	Cooper (1993); McCarty & Shrum (1993)
Generation effects		varying needs, interests, habits within and across generations	Aroldi & Colombo (2007); Poalses et al. (2015)	Bolin & Westlund (2009); Bondad-Brown et al. (2012)
Economic (macro) view	Direct effects	quantitative analysis of viewer behavior: channel traffic/ exposure, willingness-to-pay, ad elasticities; ROI	Kaid (2002); Sethuraman et al. (2011)	De Lara et al. (2017); Holz et al. (2015); Ley et al. (2014); McKenzie et al. (2017); Nam et al. (2013); Shaikh et al. (2019); Upreti et al. (2017)
	Media adoption	Technology acceptance model	technology is accepted upon perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use	Davis (1989)
Displacement		cannibalism of older by newer media		Cha (2013a,b,c); Cha & Chan-Olmsted (2012); Dimmick et al. (2000); Ferguson & Perse (2000); Greer & Ferguson (2001); Lowenstein-Barkai & Lev-On (2018)
Innovation diffusion theory		factors on innovation adoption: relative advantage, complexity, compatibility, trial ability, observability	Rogers (1995)	Cha (2013a)
Niche theory		different forms of media serve different gratification opportunities		Cha (2013b); Dimmick, et al. (2000, 2004)

	Approach	Description	General references	Digital references	
Media habits	Media repertoires	media consumers hold certain media or channel repertoires	Gandy (1984); Lundy et al. (2008); Taylor & Harper (2003)	Luthar & Crnic (2017); Taneja et al. (2012); Sin & Vakkari (2017)	
	Domestication theory	how media habits are formed on an individual level	Silverstone & Haddon (1996)	Courtois et al. (2014); Hjorth (2008)	
	Conditioning theory	underlying stimulus-organism-response-assumption (S-O-R)	Mehrabian & Russell (1974)	Hossain et al. (2012); Omar et al. (2016); Tang et al. (2014)	
Ad structures	Context effects	ad-context congruence	De Pelsmacker et al. (2002); Hawkins et al. (2005); Norris & Colman (1993); Pavelchak et al. (1988)	Arrazola et al. (2016); Belanche et al. (2017); Chun et al. (2014); Daems et al. (2019); Li & Lo (2017); Rumpf et al. (2015); Stipp (2018); Van't Riet et al. (2016)	
		location effects		Fang et al. (2013); Nelson et al. (2004); Van't Riet et al. (2016)	
	Content	content (emotional vs. Informative), genre, creativity, or structural features (e.g. edits, size, format, pacing and animation)	Bellman et al. (2019); Lang (1990, 1995); Lang et al. (1993, 1996, 1999, 2000, 2007); Lehnert et al. (2013); Reeves et al. (1999); Stanca et al. (2012)	Bruce et al. (2017); Bulgrin (2019); Goldstein et al. (2014); Kuisma et al. (2010); Lee & Hong (2016); Li & Lo (2017); Omar et al. (2016); Quesenberry & Coolsen (2019); Smith et al. (2012); Southgate et al. (2010); Sundar & Kim (2005)	
	Mechanisms	mere-exposure effect		Grimes & Kitchen (2007); Kwak et al. (2015); Zajonc (1968)	Lim et al. (2015)
		wear-out effect		Calder & Sternthal (1980); Lehnert et al. (2013)	Chen et al. (2014); Lee et al. (2015)
		engagement effect		Wang (2006)	Bruce et al. (2017); Teixeira et al. (2012)
	Complexity	message/channel complexity, ease of use	Lang et al. (2007); Pieters et al. (2010); Chun et al. (2014)	Cauberghe & De Pelsmacker (2010)	
Channel attributes	perceived characteristics of a certain message channel		Danaher & Rossiter (2009); Köz & Atakan (2018)		

Active Audience				
	Approach	Description	General references	Digital references
User agency	Pro-sumption	user agency defined in terms of economic production	Te Walvaart et al. (2019)	Sparviero (2019)
	Audience participation	user agency defined in terms of production from a cultural point of view (audience engagement)	Holmes (2004); Jenkins (2006); Livingstone (2013)	Deuze (2016); García-Avilés (2012); Gjoni (2017); Li (2016); Moe et al. (2015); Selva (2016); Vaccari et al. (2015); Van Dijck (2009)
Interactive		consumer's interactive role as opposed to a stimulus-response model or media-focus		Pavlou & Stewart (2000); Fortin & Dholakia (2005); Liu & Shrum (2002)
	Interactive advertising model	integrates structural (ad elements) and functional (UG) perspective	Rodgers & Thorson (2000)	
	Persuasion knowledge model	interactional relationship between agents (marketers) and targets (consumers): knowledge of ad persuasion tactics affects consumers' responses	Bolatito (2012); Friestad & Wright (1994)	Omar et al. (2016)
	User Experience (UX)	factors affecting UX: sensory, emotional, cognitive, and social	Bosshart & Macconi (1998); Reeves et al. (1999)	Gilroy et al. (2012); Gurrin et al. (2010); Omar et al. (2016); Park et al. (2011); Paterson (2017); See-To (2012); Sutcliffe & Hart (2017)
Economic (micro) view	Advertising value model	derived from UGT; ad value as the perception of "relative worth or utility of advertising" (Ducoffe, 1995)	Ducoffe (1995); Ducoffe & Curlo (2000)	Ducoffe (1996); Logan (2013); Logan et al. (2012)
	Direct effects: behavioral	ad avoidance/ ad skipping practices due to message intrusion	Bellman et al. (2012)	Arantes et al. (2016); Chan-Olmsted et al. (2019); Clark et al. (2018); Hussain & Lasage (2014); Libert & Van Hulle (2019); Logan (2011, 2013); Rejón-Guardia & Martínez-López (2013); Tang et al. (2014)

	Approach	Description	General references	Digital references
Semiotic	Interpretive	media are interpreted as "text"	Cohen (2002); Fiske (2010)	Reinhard (2011); Sharma & Gupta (2015)
	Arousal	bodily energization for psychological and motor activity; antecedent to engagement	Broach et al. (1995); Lang (1990); Lang et al. (1995, 1999); Mattes & Cantor (1982); Perse (1996); Reeves et al. (1999); Singh & Churchill (1987); Zillmann (1983)	Bulgrin (2019); Im et al. (2015)
Cognitive-Constructivist	Engagement	"psychologically based willingness to invest in the undertaking of focal interactions with particular engagement objects" (Hollebeek et al., 2016, p. 2)	Heath (2009); Hernandez et al. (2013); Hollebeek et al. (2016); Kuvykaite & Taruté (2015); Peacock et al. (2011); Smith & Gevins (2004); Wang (2006)	Dhoest & Simons (2016); Gómez et al. (2019); Guo & Chan-Olmsted (2015); Li et al. (2016); Pagani & Mirabello (2011); Pynta et al. (2014); Selva (2016); Steele et al. (2013); Teixeira et al. (2012)
	Involvement	"cognitive, affective, and behavioral participation during and because of exposure" (Rubin & Perse, 1987, p. 247)	Greenwood & Long (2009); Lord & Burnkrant (1993); Matthes (2011); Perse (1990); Perse (1998); Putrevu & Lord (1994); Rubin & Perse (1987); Sundar & Kim (2005); Tavassoli et al. (1995)	Belanche et al. (2017); Oh et al. (2018); Park & Goering (2016); Stewart et al. (2019); Sun et al. (2008); Tukachinsky & Eyal (2018); Wang et al. (2009)
	Focused immersion	fully immersed state that people experience when they act with total involvement, e.g. media usage	Hess et al. (2005); Kim et al. (2017)	Buchanan (2006); Cypher & Richardson (2006); Mazzoni et al. (2017); Oh et al. (2017); Pynta et al. (2014); Tan et al. (2015); Zha et al. (2018)
	Theory of flow	state of optimal experience through total engagement and absorption	Csikszentmihalyi (1990); Daft & Lengel (1986)	Daems et al. (2019); Danaher & Rossiter (2011); Huskey et al. (2018a, b); Hsu et al. (2012); Jin (2012); Kim & Han (2012); Liu & Shiue (2014); Mollen & Wilson (2010); Nakatsu et al. (2005); See-To (2012); Yang et al. (2017)
	Affect Infusion model	integrative theory of mood: effects on cognition and judgments	Forgas (2001)	Lowry et al. (2014)

	Approach	Description	General references	Digital references
Socio-Constructivist	Social presence theory (SPT)	media differ in their ability to convey the psychological perception of other peoples' physical presence		Hwang & Lim (2015); Perse & Courtright (1993); Robert & Dennis (2005)
	Media richness theory	extends SPT: media differ in their ability to facilitate understanding by "information richness"	Daft & Lengel (1986)	Robert & Dennis (2005); Yangyin & Changbin (2016)
	Channel expansion theory	"richness perceptions" for a media channel are influenced by specific experiences	Carlson & Zmud (1999)	Robert & Dennis (2005)
Uses & gratifications	Early UGT/ general papers	(1) how do people use media to gratify their needs; (2) what are the motives for media use; (3) what are positive/ negative consequences of media use	Katz et al. (1973); Papacharissi & Mendelson (2007); Rubin (1981)	Papacharissi & Rubin (2000)
Motivation	Self-determination theory	utilitarian vs. hedonistic medium content chosen upon motivation (extrinsic vs. intrinsic)	Deci & Ryan (1985); Tamborini et al. (2010)	Wu & Lu (2013); Zimmer et al. (2018)
	Utilitarian vs. hedonistic	hedonic (image/value-expressive) vs. utilitarian (functional) ad appeals	Sirgy & Johar (1992); Chang (2004); Oliver & Raney (1988); Olney et al. (1991)	Cai et al. (2018); Kazmi & Abid (2016); Lai et al. (2009); O'Brien (2010); Wang et al. (2009); Yang et al. (2015)
	Theory of moods	media selection for mood optimization	Chang (2004); Chen et al. (2007); Dillman Carpentier et al. (2008); Hess et al. (2006); Knobloch (2003); Knobloch-Westerwick (2007); Roe & Minnebo (2000); Siemer (2005); Tafani et al. (2018); Zillmann (1988, 2000)	Bowman & Tamborini (2015); Greenwood (2010)
	Selective exposure theory	incorporates theory of moods; utilitarian (information) vs. hedonic (diversary) motivation	Norris et al. (2003); Perse (1998); Zillmann (2000)	Bowman & Tamborini (2015); Trilling (2014)

Medium view

Approach	Description	General references	Digital references	
Cognitive approaches	Neural processes	brain related and physiological functions to explain media consumption behavior	Lang (1990); Nakano et al. (2013); Peacock et al. (2011); Reeves et al. (1999); Singh et al. (1988); Smith & Gevins (2004); Vecchiato et al. (2013)	Astolfi et al. (2008); Cartocci et al. (2016); Huskey et al. (2018a, b); Im et al. (2015); Pynta et al. (2014); Steele et al. (2013)
	Personalization	personalized ad messages		Kim & Han (2014); Pavlou & Stewart (2008)
	Cognitive ad effectiveness models	empirical structural models that incorporate various cognitive elements (attitude/information processing) and antecedents	Olney et al. (1991)	Bigne et al. (2019); Brettel et al. (2015); Cohen & Lancaster (2014); Hamouda (2018); Rossiter & Bellman (1999)
	Cognitive absorption	one of the operational terms for flow; the state where an individual is consciously involved in an interaction with almost complete attentional focus in the activity (Oh et al., 2010)		Agarwal & Karahanna (2000); Barnes et al. (2019); Debue & Van de Leemput (2014); Hsu et al. (2012); Hsu & Lin (2017); Lin (2009); McNiven et al. (2012); Oh & Sundar (2015)
	Cognitive load	amount of the information-processing system required to satisfy task performance expectations		Debue & Van de Leemput (2014); Hinds (1999); Homer et al. (2008); Roettl & Terlutter (2018); Xie et al. (2017)
	Hierarchical effect models	stepwise information-processing from unawareness to action (e.g. Information processing model, McGuire, 1978)	see review Scholten (1996), e.g. Lavidge & Steiner (1961)	Omar et al. (2016); Yoo et al. (2004)
	Elaboration likelihood model (ELM)	dual-process model: central (elaborative) vs. peripheral (emotional) route; applied to media multitasking/cross-channel	Petty & Cacioppo (1986)	Angell et al. (2016); Jeong et al. (2012); Lim et al. (2015); Robert & Dennis (2005); Voorveld (2011); Wang et al. (2009); Zha et al. (2018)
	Recall	general empirical findings	Lang et al. (1995, 1999); Pavelchak, et al. (1988); Reeves et al. (1991)	Arrazola et al. (2013, 2016); Eisend & Tarrahi (2016); Roozen & Meulders (2015); Van Langenberghe & Calderon (2017); Weibel et al. (2019)

	Approach	Description	General references	Digital references
Cognitive		general empirical findings	Hawkins et al. (1997); Krugman et al. (1995); Lang et al. (1999); Lord & Burnkrant (1993); Reeves et al. (1991, 1999); Thorson et al. (1985)	Brasel & Gips (2008); Hawkins et al. (2005); Kim (2011); Li et al. (2016); Wolf & Donato (2019)
	Attention	Theory of attention	Kahneman (1973); Bergen et al. (2005)	Angell et al. (2016); Duff & Sar (2015); Duff & Segijn (2019); Kazakova et al. (2015); Segijn et al. (2017a,b)
		Multiple resource theory	Basil (1994); Hawkins et al. (1997); Smith & Gevins (2004)	Garaus et al. (2017)
		Limited capacity model	Lang et al. (1995, 1999); Bergen et al. (2005); Smith & Gevins (2004)	Bellman et al. (2014); Chinchanchokchai et al. (2015); Duff & Segijn (2019); Garaus et al. (2017); Jeong & Hwang (2012); Segijn et al. (2017a,b)
Socio-cognitive	Dissonance theories	program choice explained upon beliefs and values	Gandy (1984)	
	Theory of reasoned action	media choice upon behavioural intention, influenced by subjective norm	Fishbein & Ajzen (1975); Golan & Banning (2008)	Choi et al. (2015); Ham et al. (2014); Kim et al. (2015); Lee & Lee (2011); Lee et al. (2014)
	Theory of planned behavior	media choice upon behavioural intention, influenced by subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control	Ajzen (1991); Nabi & Kremer (2009)	Leung & Chen (2017); Lin et al. (2015); Sanne & Wiese (2018); Tefertiller (2011); Troung (2009); Yang & Wang (2015)
	Media attendance theory	integrates UGT and Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1984)	LaRose & Eastin (2004)	LaRose (2010); LaRose & Eastin (2004); Courtois et al. (2014)
	Social identity theory	the individual's various social identities influence media usage	Tajfel & Turner (1979)	Hu et al. (2017); Pagani et al. (2011); Tang et al. (2015)

	Approach	Description	General references	Digital references
Person-centric	Audience orientation	passive vs. active audience orientation, viewers select a particular channel yet engage to different degrees	Hearn (1989)	Bigne et al. (2019); Metzger & Flanagin (2002); Li (2016); Pagani et al. (2011); Pagani & Malacarne (2017)
	Dispositions	psychological dispositions that determine media usage	Greenwood & Long (2009); Hawkins et al. (2005); Kremar & Greene (1999); Perse (1996); Preston & Clair (1994)	Guo & Chan-Olmsted (2015); Langstedt & Atkin (2013); Pagani et al. (2011); Shim et al. (2017)
	Demographics	specific media/content preferences and receptivity due to age and gender	Cartocci et al. (2016); Hess et al. (2005); Uva et al. (2014)	Choi et al. (2009); Lin (2011); Logan et al. (2012); McMahan et al. (2009)
	Medium centric	legacy media (i.e. newspapers, radio and TV) vs. digital media		Köz & Atakan (2018); Wilson (2016)
Medium centric (excl. UGT)	Lean-back/ Lean-forward	LB: consumed in a relaxed state, less engagement opportunities (TV) vs. LF: consumed in an active manner, e.g. for information-seeking (newer media)	Nielsen (2008); Wickramasuriya et al. (2007)	Bartsch & Viahoff (2010); Cui et al. (2007); Deuze (2016); Dewdney & Ride (2013); Eide et al. (2016); Faltner & Mayr (2007); Groot Kormelink & Costera Meijer (2020); Gurrin et al. (2010); Hernandez & Rue (2015); Jansz (2005); Jones et al. (2003); Lohmüller et al. (2019); Mitchell et al. (2011); Moe et al. (2015); Park & Kim (2016); Schwan & Riempp (2004); Segijn & Eisend (2019); Shin et al. (2015); Strover & Moner (2012); Taylor (2019); Vaccari et al. (2015); Vanattenhoven & Geerts (2015); Vosmeer & Schouten (2014); Wilson (2016); Yu et al. (2016)

	Approach	Description	General references	Digital references
Media multi-tasking	Means end theory	ad content (means) must lead consumers to a desired end state	Zeithaml (1988)	Omar et al. (2016)
	Information processing	Dual-coding theor	Paivio (1986)	Christensen et al. (2015); Kazakova et al. (2015); Lui & Wong (2012)
	Attention			Jensen et al. (2015); Jeong & Hwang (2015)
	Dimensions			Aagaard (2015); Angell et al. (2016); Brasel & Gips (2011); Hassoun (2014); Holmes et al. (2012); Phalen & Ducey (2012); Vatavu & Mancas (2015); Yap & Lim (2013)
	Effects			Segijn (2017); Wang et al. (2015)
				Chinchanachokchai et al. (2016); Duff & Sar (2015); Duff & Segijn (2019); Garaus et al. (2017); Guo (2016); Jensen et al. (2015); Jeong & Hwang (2012, 2016); Segijn & Eisend (2019); Segijn et al. (2017a,b); Van Cauwenberge et al. (2014)
Media synergies	Economic approach	identifying the optimal media mix and determining the uplift effect of certain channels		Bollinger et al. (2013); McPhilips & Merlo (2008); Snyder & Garcia-Garcia (2016); Wakolbinger et al. (2009)
	Multiple source effect	cross-platform synergies	Naik & Raman (2003)	Kicova et al. (2020); Lim et al. (2015); Lowenstein-Barkai & Lev-On (2018); Zantedeschi et al. (2016)
	Synergy model	within-media and cross-media synergies		Naik & Peters (2009)
	Encoding variability theory	exposure to the same ad in multiple media leads to more complex information encoding, and a stronger information network	Stammerjohan et al. (2005)	Voorveld (2011)
	Repetition variation theory	multi-media messages trigger more positive affective reactions than repetitive single-medium exposure	Schumann et al. (1990)	Voorveld (2011)
	Differential attention theory	people pay less attention to a message when seen repeatedly	Unnava & Burnkrant (1991)	Voorveld (2011)

	Approach	Description	General references	Digital references
General contingency approach (excl. UGT)	Relative audience activity	audience activity as a variable concept as opposed to an absolute condition	Biocca (1988)	Adams (2000); Astigarraga et al. (2016); Bardoel (2007); Bury & Li (2015); Costello & Moore (2007); Svoen (2007); Van Dijck (2009)
	Viewer attentiveness spectrum	viewers exhibit different levels of attention, developed on VOD		Steiner & Xu (2018)
UGT contingency approach	Activity sequences/modes	viewers exhibit different viewing styles upon the stage of the communication sequence and viewing mode	Blumler (1979); Gantz & Wenner (1995); Levy (1983); Levy & Windahl (1984)	Godlewski & Perse (2010); Lin (1993); Park & Goering (2016)
	Convergent view	no clear distinction between viewing types (e.g. Bantz, 1982; Rubin, 1984); similar motives for the web as for TV (e.g. Dias, 2016); new gratifications for new media (Sundar & Limperos, 2013); alternative viewing types (Abelman & Atkin, 2010)	Bantz (1982); Hearn (1989); Levy (1983); Kim & Rubin (1997); Rubin (1984); Rubin & Perse (1987)	Abelman et al. (1997); Abelman & Atkin (2010); Billings et al. (2018); Cha (2013c); Dias (2016); Ferguson & Perse (2000); Hwang, et al. (2014); Khan (2007); Lin et al. (2018); Metzger & Flanagin (2002); Sundar & Limperos (2013); Rosenthal (2017); Xu (2014)

Approach	Description	General references	Digital references	
Integrative models	integrate several theories (e.g. structural and individualistic view, or media availability)	Cooper & Tang (2009); Heeter (1985); Owen et al. (1974); Ramaprasad (1995); Webster & Washlag (1983)	Cha (2013a); Courtois et al. (2014); Gómez et al. (2019); Guo & Chan-Olmsted (2015); Hautz et al. (2013); Kim & Han (2014); Mollen & Wilson (2010); Omar et al. (2016); Roozen & Meulders (2015); See-To (2012); Wang et al. (2009); Yang & Wang (2015)	
	Integrative UGT models	integrate UGT and other theories/approaches (e.g. dispositions, TPB) or extended UG models	Bagdasarov et al. (2010); Kremar & Greene (1999); Perse (1996)	Choi et al. (2015); Dimmick et al. (2004); Ham et al. (2014); Hwang & Lim (2015); Kavanaugh et al. (2016); Kwak et al. (2015); Perse & Courtright (1993); Shao (2008); Shim et al. (2015); Yangyin & Changbin (2016); Yuan (2011); Zimmer et al. (2018)
	GC-/MC-model	integrates generation-centric and medium-centric view		Ghersetti & Westlund (2016); Westlund & Ghersetti (2015)

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