Hash tag Slogans, Super Bowl Commercials, and Millennial

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Abstract

This study measures brand awareness of Super Bowl commercials using hash tag slogans with survey samples comprised of Millennial. The day after the Super Bowls of 2015 and 2016, participants were given a recognition test and asked to match the slogan with the correct brand from a list of three. Test items included traditional slogans and hash tag slogans. Participants also responded to a survey questionnaire regarding personal electronic device ownership and social media use. Results indicated greater brand awareness of traditional slogans as compared to hash tag slogans. The study also noted high degrees of electronic device ownership and social media use. Implications for researchers and marketers were discussed.

Keywords: Super Bowl commercials, hash tags, online advertising, Millennial

Introduction

The rise of online advertising has generated considerable pressure on all other sectors in the advertising industry. Television has been the traditional gold standard for decades but today broadcast and cable networks are engaged in an ongoing competition with increasingly popular digital platforms. One strategy networks have employed is convergence or merging television and online techniques and technology. This convergence becomes evident when television producers create pop-up ads, computer generated graphics, references to social media, and hash tag slogans. Slogans have been an effective component of broadcast advertising dating back to the Golden Era of radio, 1930—1950’s. Wheaties “Breakfast of Champions” and Coca-Cola’s “Pause that refreshes” exemplified the use of simple catch phrases as essential branding tools. In today’s television marketplace advertisers have introduced hash tag slogans, e.g. Mini’s “#defy labels,” designed to direct users to social media sites such as Twitter, Facebook and Instagram. However, data concerning the effectiveness of hash tag slogans is lacking. The purpose of this report is to measure brand awareness of Super Bowl commercials using hash tag slogans among Millennial.

Under the leadership of Commissioner Pete Rozelle dating back to the 1960’s, the brand equity of the NFL rose dramatically. With his background in public relations, Rozelle realized the importance of television in the branding process. He introduced television programs such as “Monday Night Football” and the “Super Bowl” (originally the “NFL-AFL World Championship Game”) and propelled the NFL into an era of unprecedented success. Super Bowl telecasts have proven to be the most highly watched programs in television history. Aside from the game, the commercials have a high likeability rating among viewers, making commercial availabilities more valuable for networks. With the popularity of the telecast, Super Bowl Sunday has become a de facto American holiday and the commercials have become a part of popular culture. From a survey of over 25,000 households in Nielsen’s Homes can Panel, 51% of respondents enjoy the commercials in the television program more than the game itself (Nielsen Company, 2010). Although many researchers have noted advertising clutter and ad avoidance among television viewers (e.g. Elliot & Speck, 1998; Ha & McCann, 2008), Super Bowl viewers are ad-attracted as opposed to ad-avoidant.

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Prices are extremely high for availabilities, up to $5 million for a 30-second slot in CBS’s telecast of Super Bowl 50, but the reach, pre-game and post-game buzz, and significant online presence still make the platform unmatched in generating brand awareness.

Slogans, or verbal logos, may be defined as catch phrases used in advertising. Brand slogans are a few words that summarize the thrust of the marketing campaign. An essential branding tool, the slogan identifies the brand and is often used with a graphic logo or design, e.g. the Nike “swoosh” and slogan, “Just do it.” Slogans perform several functions. They may create positive affect like McDonald’s “I’m lovin’ it.” Slogans also distinguish the brand from competitors like BMW’s “The ultimate driving machine.” Additionally slogans tap into the impulse buy and purchase intention as seen with Coca-Cola’s “Enjoy life.” Good ones are simple, distinctive, and memorable and increase brand awareness. Although they may be good over time, some evolve as well, “Have a Coke” becomes “Have a Coke and a smile.” Slogans often use humor, e.g. Disney’s “Happiest place on earth” or double entendre as stated in MetLife’s “Have you Met Life today?” Brand names may be used as part of the slogan, e.g. Dick’s Sporting Goods’ “Every season starts at Dick’s.”

Hash tag slogans are recent innovations in response to critics who question the effectiveness of traditional slogans. Attaching the hash tag symbol (#) to a catch phrase signifies online content related to the slogan. Since online hash tag communications are sloganistic in general, consisting of just a few words intended to be a catch phrase, a good fit is made in this application. “Viral” circulation is the goal of many utilizing hash tag communications in social media. For television ads, hash tags may promote a new marketing campaign, e.g. Mountain Dew’s “#puppymonkeybaby.” Colgate’s “#Everydropcounts” performs a public service function. Persil’s “#1Rated Detergent in America” takes advantage of the double entendre of the hash tag also representing “number.” Marketers employing hash tag slogans in television ads target younger viewers and increase online traffic. Measuring whether the traditional slogan or hash tag slogan is more effective in increasing brand awareness is the subject of the paper at hand.

The current study is a two-part longitudinal survey administered to two different samples the Mondays following the Super Bowls in 2015 and 2016. Both samples consisted entirely of Millenial.

The first part of the survey consists of test items that list slogans of brands advertised and require the participant to select the correct brand from a list of three. RQ1 seeks to determine if the brand awareness of viewers is greater than non-viewers. RQ2 seeks to determine if brand awareness is greater with hash tag slogans as compared to traditional slogans.

RQ1: Do Super Bowl viewers display greater brand awareness, as measured by scores on a recognition test, than non-viewers?

RQ2: Do hash tag slogans in Super Bowl commercials generate greater brand awareness when compared to traditional slogans?

The second part of the survey is a questionnaire concerning ownership of personal electronic devices and uses of social media by these millenial samples.

RQ3: What are the patterns of personal electronic device ownership and social media use by the survey sample?

Literature Review

A number of media researchers have employed tests of memory developed in cognitive psychology (e.g. Kerr, Ward, & Avons, 1998). Newell and Wu (2003) surveyed viewers of Super Bowl XXXIV (2000) to measure brand and ad recall. The researchers administered questionnaires to college students at a Midwestern university the day after the telecast aired. Results indicated a strong primacy effect. Commercials aired first in a pod were recalled at a significantly higher rate than those positioned in the middle or at the end. Ads aired in the beginning of the game were also recalled significantly higher than those aired in the fourth quarter. Interference of previous ads and ad fatigue were cited as factors in the lowered recall. Li (2010) conducted telephone interviews of 769 randomly selected viewers of Super Bowl XL (2006) during the week following the telecast.
The study tested for serial position effects for pod position and for the entire broadcast. Respondents were asked to recall brands or recognize the correct brand from a list. The results also indicated a strong primacy effect and commercials presented earlier in the game generated better recall and recognition than those presented later. The number of ads per pod negatively affected brand recognition but not recall (Li, 2010). These studies are relevant to the current report in establishing scores on recall or recognition tests as valid measures of brand awareness. Presentational effects such as pod position and point of presentation during the telecast are significant but rather small.

For the purposes of the study at hand, slogans were randomly selected in regard to pod position and point of presentation in the broadcast. Any effects attributable to presentational position should cancel out and not affect the results of this study.

Other researchers have examined viewers’ subjective responses to the commercials. Kelly and Turley (2004) investigated the affective component of viewers’ perceptions of Super Bowl commercials from 1996 to 2002 (Super Bowls XXX through XXXVI). Spot ads from the seven consecutive telecasts were classified into general categories: descriptive; message; and affective. Positive affect was found in commercials for goods rather than services. Emotional appeals and production techniques that include animals and humor also had positive affect. Straight announcements and quality claims produced low affect (Kelly and Turley, 2004). Extending this line of research into the affective component of hash tag slogans may produce some interesting and important findings. Kim and Cheong (2011) analyzed the content of Super Bowl commercials from 2001-2009. The analysis focused on identifying message strategy, brands and likeability. Super Bowl ads have high production values and creative strategies, which were defined as what is said in an advertisement and how it is used. They note the ads provide a unique experience that induces an intense emotional response that makes them inappropriate for many brands. USA Today's Ad Meter results were used as the measure of likeability. Transformational strategies as opposed to informational strategies were more liked. Low-involvement products were more liked than high-involvement products.

Alessandri (2009) examined on-air promotions of the Super Bowl aired by the networks and noted that marketing efforts last the entire football season. Super Bowl Sunday is the largest marketing event between Christmas and Valentine’s Day. The Super Bowl telecast has become a lucrative showcase for advertisers and highly profitable for the networks. Additionally, the telecast has value for the networks in terms of its own promotions, particularly cross-promotion of their primetime line-up, which is their largest revenue generator. The brand equity of the networks is increased when promotional messages are viewed as a flow of indistinguishable media although they advertise in a variety of media such as newspapers and magazines. The study addressed the differences in promotional approaches used by the networks versus their affiliate stations during six consecutive Super Bowl telecasts. Affiliate stations are awarded a small amount of airtime in which they may sell local spots and air their own station promotions. The results indicated no significant difference between the content of network promotions as compared to local affiliate promotions. This approach was attributed to the diverse audience the Super Bowl attracts. However, the author notes that local stations miss an important branding opportunity and would increase their own brand equity with more self-distinguishing promotions.

Convergence is also evident when online companies advertise on television. Veranica (2016) reports online company, SoFi, decided to purchase a Super Bowl ad instead of online advertising to generate large-scale awareness and buzz. SoFi's budget for TV and online advertising was $20 million and 20% of that budget went for the Super Bowl ad. Super Bowl spot prices have increased 75% over past decade. CBS will charge up to $5 million for 30 seconds in Super Bowl 50. By contrast, a major campaign on YouTube, where an advertiser takes over all the ads on the site's home page and pre-roll ads before videos, costs $500,000 per day. Super Bowls are special and ads have an "impact of that moment" effect which increases brand awareness. Digital outlets require creating customized ads for each digital platform, which adds to costs. Super Bowl ads generate free publicity, the "water cooler" effect, and have a longer life online. Especially for launching new products or new marketing campaigns, the ads jump start brand awareness. Additionally, the brand sticks with consumers for years. Gildan Products saw a 90% increase in retail sales after their Super Bowl ad although they had expected only a 20% increase. Weather Tech's Super Bowl ad was 7% of their ad budget and represented their single largest buy. Pairing a Super Bowl ad with pre-game and post-game digital ads is the most effective approach. Super Bowl ads also act as stimuli to other platforms.
However, Super Bowl ads are not always effective. Last year Bud Light's 90-second Pac-Man ad did not increase sales. Although television advertising has enjoyed enormous success, serious threats to its market share from online advertisers continue to grow. Facebook founder Mark Zuckerberg (2014) envisions a world where everyone will be connected to the Internet. Although 84.2% of the US population is online, only 1/3 of the world's population (about 2.7 billion people) has Internet connections. He hopes to have free basic Internet service worldwide in the next 10 years. The advantages of Internet connectivity include increased personal communication and economic opportunities. Tens of billions of dollars are needed to build Internet infrastructure worldwide. However 90% of the world's population lives within range of cellular networks, which could be beneficial in establishing WiFi. Additionally new delivery systems are being developed using satellites, airplanes, and lasers (Zuckerberg, 2014). Unfortunately for broadcast networks, television is not a central component of this marketing plan.

A direct threat for broadcast networks is also seen with the rise of YouTube. Google acquired YouTube in 2006 for $1.6 billion, hoping to make it a major player in the television marketplace, which is valued at $70 billion annually (Vascellaro, Efrati, & Smith, 2011). Google executives are focusing on creating original content rather than licensing established content. They have undertaken a major overhaul of YouTube with new arts and sports channels, 20 channels of original professionally produced content and investing $100 million for new low-cost web content. Marketers seek a niche between user generated content and high priced full-blown productions. With streaming video increasing, marketers want more users who watch longer (currently 15 minutes per day) to attract ad revenue, which is low. Producers at YouTube are still designing channels in consultation with major talent agencies like Creative Artists and William Morris (Vascellaro, Efrati, & Smith, 2011). With audiovisual content attractive to younger viewers, Google's YouTube is positioned to make a strong challenge to television networks competing for ad revenue targeting Millennials.

With the professionalization of collegiate sport, social media has become a valuable partner. Hipke and Hachtenmann (2014) interviewed athletic department officials to understand how Big Ten Conference athletic departments are using social media and issues associated with its use. University athletic department websites and social media outlets are driven by sports information departments (communication departments) rather than marketing departments. The greatest benefits of social media were fan engagement, instantaneous connection, and increased loyalty. The challenges included dealing with crises and negativity quickly and measuring success. Social media marketing was once considered risky, but is now on rise because it has an interactive community based feel. Social media was beneficial in brand exposure, fan interaction, increased awareness and it was relatively low-cost. There is a “backstage sensation” with social media that gives fans access to behind-the-scenes content and makes a personal connection that traditional media does not. However a self-sustaining revenue model has yet to be found. Website managers are still trying to find a way to include corporate sponsors without interfering with the conversation. They don't want to just throw ads at these college sport fans. The Big Ten Network, on the other hand, is a cable television venture that has increased revenue.

Tanyel, Stuart and Griffin (2013) surveyed Millenial in order to determine their attitudes toward traditional and online advertising. Ten evaluative items were included that addressed ethical dimensions of advertising. Items like “There is currently not enough regulation of advertising;” “Advertising is offensive or in bad taste;” and “Advertising promotes harmful products,” all showed significant effects. Results of the survey indicated an overall more negative attitude toward Internet advertising as compared to traditional advertising. The authors note that historically each generation finds its most popular medium most offensive in advertising. For example, research has shown that Baby Boomers found TV ads more offensive. The researchers advise marketers to consider their online advertising targeting Millenial and avoid generating negative attitude toward the ad and the brand. More positively viewed advertising techniques were informative and entertaining.

Twitter is a micro blog that has become widely used in sport communication. Hambrick (2012) studied the importance of Twitter in the sport industry. Athletes use Twitter to acquire followers, e.g. Lance Armstrong has 10.3 million followers. Leagues use the social network to announce game results and news of athlete performances. Teams use this micro blog to provide team information and promote ticket sales. Twitter reported 175 million users worldwide in 2011 and this large user base has helped make the social network influential in the way the sport industry communicates. The study found that sport organizers optimize Twitter's capacity by using quick messages and increasing the variety of message content helped sustain user interest. Hull and Lewis (2014) presented a model that examined fans preferences to use Twitter to follow local sports instead of local broadcast television.
The Internet is viewed as a disruptive technology for television and Twitter's connectivity with users makes it particularly effective. Twitter's brevity and public-private blending of athletes are factors, along with others, that have contributed to Twitter's popularity among connected fans. Hambrick, Simmons, Greenhaigh and Greenwell (2010) analyzed the content of 1,962 tweets from professional athletes. Direct communication and unique insight into personal lives of athletes help make this social media site popular with fans. Results of the analysis revealed the interactivity category accounted for the largest percentage of tweets (34%) followed by the diversion category with 28%. Only 15% of tweets were team or game related.

The success of Twitter has inspired a number of researchers to investigate the social media network and hashtags in sport communication. Moore, Hesson and Jones (2015) investigated Twitter users' responses to NBC's editing of the Russian gymnastic team's performance in the broadcast of the 2012 Olympics. Editing was viewed as an attempt to build suspense. Many viewers were aware of the editing from information gathered online and did not prefer the edited version. Social media users created the hash tag #NBC fail to go online and discuss their disappointment. Hull (2014) conducted a case study on efforts of a college swim and diving team to use Twitter in an attempt to prevent the elimination of the team. He used interviews and a content analysis of 1,775 tweets. The efforts were interpreted in terms of the Two-Step Flow of Information theory where opinion leaders disseminate information to the general public. The team’s Twitter campaign, using the hash tag #Fight4UNCWSwimandDive, helped raise awareness of the issue and generated an online petition that flooded administrators’ email inboxes. The plans to eliminate the team were rescinded although administrators denied the email was a factor in reversing their initial decision. Blazska et al (2012) performed a content analysis of 1,450 tweets during the 2011 World Series using #World Series. Results showed fans were motivated to use the hash tag by a desire to express fanship and to increase interactivity with other fans.

Oh, Sasser and Almahmoud (2015) noted the lack of sufficient measurement tools in determining the effectiveness of advertising on social media. They developed a Social Media Analytics (SMA) method and examined social media word-of-mouth surrounding 2014 Super Bowl commercials. They focused on Twitter and collected over 660,000 tweets sent during the game. Tweets were filtered, categorized and counted in terms of positive or negative message content. Results were correlated with USA Today's Ad Meter likeability ratings. Positive tweets correlated with high likeability and negative tweets correlated with low likeability. The results were interpreted as support for the SMA method with its capture, identify, and understand approach (Oh, Sasser and Almahmoud, 2015). This method holds promise in designing measurements tools that are currently lacking. Increased brand awareness on Twitter resulting from TV commercials may be leveraged by networks if it is accurately measured.

Boehmer and Tandoc (2015) investigated factors relating to intentions of sharing sport news by Twitter users. They found three categories of factors, characteristics of the user, content and source. The user's personal interest in the content of the topic was the principle predictor of retweeting. Gibbs and Haynes (2013) interviewed sport media professionals regarding their use of social media. Twitter was found to be the most widely used and influential platform for sport media relations. The social media site has flattened the sport hierarchy by instantly bypassing traditional gatekeepers. The directness of communications between athletes, coaches and fans is a major reason for the popularity of Twitter. Controversial tweets may go viral and have disruptive effects. For sport media relations, Twitter is unfiltered, offers two-way interaction, and represents the next step in transforming sport communication (Gibbs and Haynes, 2013). Despite early successes, Twitter is currently facing challenges with flat user growth and solidifying leadership positions.

Although prospects for success in online advertising are positive, problems still remain. Perlberg (2014) reports Smartphone's and tablets, although less than 10 years in existence, will draw more ad revenue than newspaper or radio in 2014. However, the ad spending has not kept pace proportionately with time spent with the device. For example, consumers spend 25% of their total media time with mobile devices but mobile ad spending is only 9.8% of total ad spending. The reason is that advertisers are slow to change. They are dissatisfied with mobile ad formats and have questions over effectiveness. Location ads that target shopping Smartphone users near the store are driving sales. Experts rate mobile display ads B-, while location targeted ads are elevated to A-. The mobile ad audience is difficult to measure in comparison to traditional outlets. Marketers say that improving measurement tools will cause the ad spending to increase (Perlberg, 2014).
Established advertising agencies may also advise clients to spend greater percentages of ad budgets on traditional platforms because of impression quality. The quality of the impression is stronger from a wide screen, high definition television set than a tiny image on a Smartphone screen. Additionally, ad agents are accustomed to crafting television deals with partners at broadcast networks, which may discourage venturing into the digital domain. Overall, dependability has leverage in the advertising industry and online advertising has yet to compile an extensive track record.

**Methodology**

The methodology employed for this study was a two-part longitudinal survey. The survey was administered twice to different samples one year apart, the Mondays following Super Bowl Sundays of 2015 and 2016. The survey form was a two-sided single sheet. Participants answered one side that inquired of their personal electronic device ownership and social media use. The other side was used for marking responses to the slogan/brand recognition test. Students were shown test items one-by-one with the aid of a projector. Each item consisted of a slogan and three possible brands from which to choose, e.g. You’re not you when you’re hungry, a. Hershey’s, b. Snickers, c. Reese’s or #MakeItHappy, a. Coca-Cola, b. Dr. Pepper, c. Pepsi. Administration of the survey was to groups of 15 to 25 students. All responses were completed Monday morning or early afternoon. The entire administration procedure lasted approximately 20 minutes per group. The longitudinal aspect of the study allowed changes in response structure to be examined and an opportunity to check the reliability of this approach. Differences between the two samples may be investigated in terms brand awareness, electronic device ownership, and social media use. Additionally gender related differences may be calculated as well. The 2016 study yielded a similar pattern of primary data fields to the 2015 study, which supports the reliability of the procedure.

The sample consisted of students at a private business college in Silicon Valley, California. Although the college is small, the students, faculty and staff are racially diverse with ethnic representation well above national averages. These mid-level students from several business courses reflected a high degree of diversity. Total sample size was n=170 with 59 women (35%) and 111 men (65%). The 2015 sample size was n=92 with 40 women and 52 men while the 2016 sample size was n=78 with 19 women and 59 men. Total mean age of the entire sample was 20.7 with women averaging 20.1 and men averaging 21.2. The sample avidly watched the program with a viewership rate of 84% and 62% of those responded to the “About all of it” category when asked, “How much did you watch?” Many of the students are athletes with over half the student body playing on college sports teams. Results showed little gender related difference in correct responses with women 63% and men 67% for traditional slogans. For hash tag slogans, women scored 52% and men scored 50%.

The study had some elements of a field or natural experiment. From that perspective the Super Bowl telecast would function as the independent variable and responses on the recognition test would act as the dependent variable. One problem is assigning a causal relationship with no control over the delivery of the stimulus given the variety of viewing situations participants had. Another problem is the lack of random selection of participants or assignment of stimuli. However, the lack of control may also be seen as positive in that the viewing that occurred is actually how consumers experience the commercials. These measures of brand awareness may be more accurate than those taken under the unusual conditions of a controlled experiment. If this were the case, the external validity would be higher in the field experiment. Nonetheless, the lack of randomization precludes tests of significance and the inability to manipulate levels of the independent variable hinders internal validity. For these reasons, the analysis was conducted as a survey that seeks more narrowly to compare groups rather than propose causal relationships. Overall, the naturalness of the viewing experience and the prompt testing of the subjects after viewing (within 24 hours) bode well for internal validity. The design is robust in potential to accurately measure short term increases in brand awareness.

**Results**

The results of the study are displayed in the following tables. The first two research questions of the study are addressed in Table 1.

RQ1: Do Super Bowl viewers display greater brand awareness, as measured by scores on a recognition test, than non-viewers?

RQ2: Do hash tag slogans in Super Bowl commercials generate greater brand awareness when compared to traditional slogans?
The first research question seeks to determine if there is any increase in brand awareness if the participant watched the telecast. Much has been said of the impact of Super Bowl commercials and the current study seeks to measure that impact. Lack of randomization disallows tests of significance. Simple percentages offer only a broad view, which is the scope of the study at hand, an initial broad view of the use of hashtag slogans.

Totals from the data indicate that the Watching (n=142) group produced 59% correct responses to the slogan/brand recognition test and the Not Watching (n=28) group scored 50% correct on the same test. Therefore, the answer to RQ1 is yes, viewers displayed greater brand awareness than non-viewers. (Table 1) Totals also displayed in Table 1 address RQ2 and are derived from compiling the collective correct responses to a slogan/brand recognition test. By examining the data, the Traditional Slogans scored 65% correct responses versus the Hash tag Slogans scoring 50%. Therefore, the answer to RQ2 is no, hashtag slogans did not generate greater brand awareness compared to traditional slogans.

The second part of the survey addressed RQ3 and used a questionnaire that asked for age, gender and ownership of personal electronic devices and uses of social media. The survey also asked viewers to report how much of the telecast they watched: Less than 1 hour; 1-2 hours; More than 2 hours; or about all of it. Respondents also reported the type of viewing: On television 95%; On computer 3%; On Smartphone 2%; or On e-pad 0%. Additionally, participants were asked to indicate their use of text messaging (100%) and ownership of an automobile (64%) for comparison measures.

RQ3: What are the patterns of personal electronic device ownership and social media use by the survey sample?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Overall Percentage</th>
<th>Traditional Slogan</th>
<th>Hash tag Slogan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>2015</strong></td>
<td>Watching (n=77)</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Watching (n=15)</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2016</strong></td>
<td>Watching (n=65)</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Watching (n=13)</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td>Watching (n=142)</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Watching (n=28)</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Correct responses on slogan/brand recognition test.

The results of the research addressing the first part of RQ3 are displayed in Table 2. Compilation of the data showed ownership of Smartphone's to be the highest at 97%. Ownership of a laptop was close behind at 95%.

E-pads and e-tablets were owned by 44% of sample respondents. This medium competes with the near-universal laptop with more preferring the laptop keyboard and other features. With only 25% of participants owning a Personal Computer, the popularity of the laptop may be seen here as well. Results showed 10% of the sample owns an E-reader and 79% of those owners were female. Smart watch owners comprised 5% of the sample.

One of the owners was from the 2015 sample and 8 were from the 2016 sample reflecting the period containing the launch of Apple Watch. Of smart watch owners, 89% were male. Cell phone ownership plus Smartphone ownership comprised 100% of the sample. For comparing these new consumer patterns to traditional purchases, ownership of Automobiles was 64%.
The second part of RQ3 addresses the issue of the patterns of use of social media by these Millennials. As seen in Table 3, use of social media, like Smartphone’s and laptops, is near ubiquity as well with 96% of the entire sample stating they used social media. Use was highest with women reporting 98% and men using at the rate of 92%. The use of text messaging was universal with 100% of the sample reporting using the medium.

**Personal Electronic Device Ownership**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of Sample</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>97%</td>
<td>Smartphone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95%</td>
<td>Laptop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44%</td>
<td>E-pad/E-tablet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25%</td>
<td>Personal Computer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>E-reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5%</td>
<td>Smart watch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3%</td>
<td>Cell Phone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64%</td>
<td>Automobile</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: Personal electronic device ownership with automobile ownership for comparison**

Respondents reported many sites they used, typically several per respondent, but Facebook with 86% usage and Instagram with 75% were the most popular with this demographic. Mean age for the entire sample was 20.7 years with women 20.1 years and men 21.2. Twitter with 52%, proves to be a major player in the social media site landscape as well. Both Linked In with 37% and Snapchat with 25% offer particular qualities that attract significant portions of the demographic. Tumblr 4%, Pinterest 4%, We Chat 3%, Vine 2% and WhatsApp 1% rounded out minor players in this market for this sample.

**Social Media Use**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of Sample</th>
<th>Social Media Platform</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>86%</td>
<td>Facebook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75%</td>
<td>Instagram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52%</td>
<td>Twitter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37%</td>
<td>LinkedIn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25%</td>
<td>Snapchat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4%</td>
<td>Tumblr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4%</td>
<td>Pinterest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3%</td>
<td>WeChat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2%</td>
<td>Vine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
<td>WhatsApp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Texting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Social media use with texting comparison**

Therefore, the answer to RQ3 is that the sample reported high degrees of ownership of personal electronic devices, particularly Smartphone’s and laptops and high degrees of usage of social media sites, particularly Facebook and Instagram.

**Discussion**

One factor for consideration in the interpretation of the findings is the fact that Super Bowl 50 occurred in close proximity to the college where this study took place. Two students attended the game and two others visited Super Bowl City in San Francisco. Whereas Bazilian (2014) reported that 40% of Millennials surveyed in New York City watched the Super Bowl telecast, 83% of this sample were viewers, which is about the same as the 2015 sample. Of course, the entire Bay Area was saturated with publicity for months leading up to a grand crescendo at the game itself. Whether there was a proximity effect is unclear. Comparing the results to 2015, the Super Bowl sample showed a decline in awareness in Overall and Hash tag Slogan categories but an increase in Traditional Slogans. This increase in Traditional Slogans may be due in part to proximity to the event.
The extensive marketing plan of Super Bowl 50 auxiliary sites demonstrates that the NFL planned to maximize exposure and sponsorships. The plan included three cities, San Francisco, San Jose, and Santa Clara and spanned seven counties in the Bay Area. The entire enterprise was supervised by the San Francisco Bay Area Super Bowl 50 Host Committee, which consisted of Bay Area government officials and sponsoring corporate representatives. The two main attractions were constructed in San Francisco, Super Bowl City presented by Verizon and NFL Experience Driven by Hyundai, an interactive theme park. These targeted youth and opened nine days before the game, “Hometown Weekend,” so local residents could enjoy them before thousands of visitors arrived. Super Bowl City was the main attraction with concert stages, interactive displays and exhibits as well as the Media Center that housed a variety of live broadcasts.

One display was a fan photo wall where fans could submit photos from Instagram and Twitter with the hash tag #SuperBowlCity. The fact that this Super Bowl was the fiftieth provided marketers with a historical cornerstone around which to base their efforts. A 50th anniversary, or Golden Anniversary, is a milestone event worthy of commemoration by any business. This “50” theme was repeated in a variety of promotions and initiatives. Fifty days before the actual game, promotions began with a large lighted sign displaying “50” on the Ferry Building. Marketers also erected large Super Bowl 50 insignias, well-suited for selfies and posed portraits, around town. “50 Perfect Hours” was a promotion of 50 scenic spots in San Francisco for visitors to enjoy. The “50th Mile” was a mile long exhibit of NFL history along Market Street. The “Road to 50 App” was a fan’s guide to all festivities and history of Super Bowl 50. San Francisco as the “Golden Gate” made a well-matched setting for the Golden Anniversary extravaganza.

In regard to RQ1, the results indicated that viewers displayed greater brand awareness than non-viewers. The net difference in brand awareness between the two groups is 15%. For a single exposure, that is a large difference. This large difference is exactly what television networks have been selling to advertisers so successfully, a large increase in brand awareness. The results of this study suggest the telecast partners’, i.e. networks, NFL and advertisers, Super Bowl marketing strategies to increase brand awareness do work. The study’s use of non-randomized volunteer samples disallows statistical tests of significance and the assignment of “effects” to the interpretation of the data. Analyses of variance or t-tests would not be appropriate due to lack of randomization. Since subjects self-selected to be a viewer or a non-viewer, the “Not Watching” sub-sample is not even a control group. The “Not Watching” results are only meant for comparison and not designed to be an experimental control group. Subsequent experimental studies in this area may be able to establish “effects,” per se. Rather, the current study seeks to broadly determine differences between groups.

In regard to RQ2, respondents showed less brand awareness of brands using hash tag slogans as opposed to traditional slogans. The net percentage difference in this case is 23%, also a sizable difference. If marketers introduced hash tag slogans, as opposed to traditional slogans, to immediately increase brand awareness among Millennials, the results of this study indicate otherwise. Marketers may have more long-term goals, which this paper does not address. Marketing executive, Amy Martin of Digital Royalty, a digital branding agency, advises professional sport entities in social media marketing and framed the issue in an interview (Ballouli and Hutchinson, 2010).

The essential problem is bridging the gap between marketing promotion and social media. Marketers must deliver value associated with the brand when, where and how fans want to receive it. The recommendation is to integrate traditional marketing and social media strategies to increase brand influence. People make social media into something it isn’t. It is a new form of communication that was not invented to be a marketing tool. Social media is a two-way communication channel that defies the traditional one-way techniques. The tonality of marketing has been sales focused but online consumers want communication with them, not to them. The term “social” indicates the paradigm shift. Marketers should consider a tonality suitable for a social setting as opposed to a hard sell. Social media is a branding form that involves relationships and followers. Building the relationship requires listening to followers and listening naturally guides the next step. When marketers notice trends, have fun, and promote the brand’s personality they may monetize a digital presence with sponsorships. Social media measuring tools need key performance indicators and consistent tracking of those indicators. Organizations need social media training for employees. Future trends point toward live video streaming and geo-tagging components (Ballouli and Hutchinson, 2010).
Predicting which newly emerging Twitter hash tags will go viral becomes a matter of considerable economic importance (Ma, Sun & Cong (2013). The researchers investigated methods to predict the popularity of new hash tags on Twitter. Trending topics become popular in a very short time among the 140 million active Twitter users who post 340 million tweets per day. Hash tags are a means for users to define a context that can be shared. The popularity of hash tags may rise and fall over time. Apple's #apple rises in popularity with each new product release. The study analyzed the contents of 31 million tweets for content versus context related features. Their method determined that contextual features were more effective in predicting hash tag success than content features. Their prediction technique was more robust in predicting burst hash tags as opposed to continuous hash tags (Ma, Sun & Cong (2013). Hur, Ko, and Claussen (2012) examined factors that influence online sports fans choice of portal, e.g. www.espn.go.com or www.foxsport.com.

Their survey and measurement method indicated that perceived enjoyment was more important than information in determining users’ choices of portals. In regard to the first part of RQ3, the sample reported high degrees of personal electronic device ownership, particularly Smartphone's and laptops. The near universal ownership of Smartphone's and laptops among members of the sample indicates a strong component of the consumption patterns of these Millennials. These mobile devices fit their lifestyles, lightweight and on-the-go. The devices offer an instant portal into cyberspace and enhance personal communication options. This degree of ownership and time spent with the medium are principle causes of concern for broadcast networks. This generation is wired to the Internet and advertisers are turning their efforts to these new platforms. Another factor broadcasters should consider is the fact that the devices, especially the Smartphone’s, are addictive. This professor's classroom observations support the proposition. The interactivity of the devices enables a type of use and gratification that television is incapable of delivering.

In regard to the second part of RQ3, the sample reported high degrees of social media use, particularly Facebook and Instagram. Social media acts as the software connecting these devices and offers communication capabilities seen historically for the first time. Although social media, Smartphone's and laptops were near universal with this group, Texting at 100% was universal. The ability to get immediate responses to one or several text conversations silently and unobtrusively, in appropriate situations, positions text messaging as a unique and powerful communication channel. Texting, social media, Smartphone's and laptops, along with email, comprise the fundamental tools and means of Millennials electronic communication. As the first generation to primarily use digital media, they have adopted this technology with a perspective that Baby Boomers and Generation X can only imagine. Determining effective advertising techniques and platforms for Millennials and their devices is an on-going challenge for marketers trying to reach this demographic.

Summary

This study employed a two-part longitudinal survey administered to separate samples of Millennials. Relevant research literature on Super Bowl ads, online advertising, hash tags and Twitter was reviewed. Surveys were taken the Mondays following Super Bowl Sundays for the Super Bowls of 2015 and 2016. The first part of the survey measured brand awareness of Super Bowl advertisers among viewers and non-viewers and using traditional slogans versus hash tag slogans. Results indicated greater brand awareness for viewers and traditional slogans. The second part of the survey addressed personal electronic device ownership and social media use of this Millennials sample. Electronic device ownership was high particularly with Smartphone’s and laptops. Social media use with the sample was also high, particularly with Facebook and Instagram. Results of the study were discussed in terms of the competition between television and online advertisers for market share and convergence as a consequence of this competition.

Conclusion

Although some analysts predict the demise of television in the near future, some analysts predicted the imminent demise of radio in the 1950’s when television became popular. However, radio adapted to changing times and maintained a reduced but viable market share. The convergence described in this report suggests merging of television and digital systems rather than displacement. One example of convergence is the use of hash tag slogans in television advertising. Production techniques need refinement in order to maximize hash tags in TV ads. Measurement of user responses needs refinement as well. Recognition rate is a valid operational definition of brand awareness but “awareness” is a complex psychological construct, more than mere memory. There is an active “thinking” component of awareness.
When the cognitive enhancement of interactivity is integrated into awareness as evidenced by hash tags, overall brand awareness may be of a deeper quality than the brand awareness engendered by passively watching television ads. Nonetheless, the results of this study support the observation that although usage of digital platforms is high, marketers have yet to develop advertising utilizing these platforms to effectively increase brand awareness among Millennials.

References


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