

#13438623

UNIVERSITY OF STRATHCLYDE  
DEPARTMENT OF MARKETING

A Study of Target Receivers' Perception of the  
Process of Endorsement in Advertising

Ghalib A Fahad

A Thesis for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

1985

I dedicate this thesis to my late father, Mr. Amin Fahad, and to my mother, Mrs. Mariam Fahad, for the care, love and security they gave me without which this effort might well not have been possible.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In the period I have spent undertaking this research, I have become indebted to a great many people for their encouragement and kindness throughout. So many people spring to mind that it will be impossible for me to list all individually. Hence, only a few names will be mentioned.

Firstly, I would like to thank my colleague cum supervisor, Mrs. J. Drayton, for coming at an opportune time during the research period. Her unselfish nature meant that I was able to get many a "home truth" which, in my opinion, improved the readability and presentation of the thesis, as well as the material. My grateful thanks for the many hours she spent reading and advising on chapters.

Secondly, I am grateful to Professor M.J. Baker and Mr. A.W. Gordon for their confidence and encouragement. To Professor Baker, for ensuring that the "pressure" to complete is ever present; whereas Mr. Gordon, for quoting "Parkinson's Law" to me and for ensuring that my teaching and other commitments were relatively light and manageable. I am indebted.

Thirdly, I must thank my colleague and one time supervisor, Mr. Keith Crosier, for the many useful suggestions he made at the outset of the research. Also, I would like those many people who stood by me during my marital crisis to know that their untiring and unflinching generosity and support did much to see me through the worst period of my life. In this respect, I will single out two people namely, Miss Grace Ali and Mr. Afzal Mohamed, for being there and for their constant reassurance. Many, many thanks!

Fourthly, I would like to express my gratitude to my mother, brothers, sisters and all the family for letting me know year in, year out that I am someone special. That special feeling was to

see me through many hours of loneliness and despair, by-products of a doctoral research!

Finally, I wish to register my appreciation and heartfelt thanks to Mrs. Jean Davidson, for her perseverance and continued interest in the typing of this thesis. I am eternally grateful. Also, I extend my especial thanks to Mrs. June Peffer, Mrs. Ann Clark and the other secretaries of the Department of Marketing for allowing me to continually "impose" on all of them. A valid thank you! And to all others, many thanks.



CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study	1
1.1 A brief history of endorsement/ testimonial in Britain.	1
1.2 Defining endorsement and testimonial.	5
1.2.1 Examples of explicit/implicit endorsements and testimonials.	9
1.2.2 Categories of endorsement.	10
1.3 Objectives of the study.	12
1.4 Organisation.	13
Chapter 2: Social Persuasion: Background of Source Effect Studies	14
2.1 Introduction.	14
2.2 Social persuasion defined.	15
2.2.1 The nature of persuasion.	16
2.2.2 Factors influencing the direction of social persuasion research.	20
2.2.3 Attitudes and social persuasion.	22
2.2.3.1 Theoretical approaches to attitude change.	25
2.2.3.2 Major theories.	25
2.2.3.3 Problems with the concept of attitudes.	30
2.2.4 Characteristics of social persuasion.	38
2.3 Summary	39

	<u>Page</u>
Chapter 3: A Review of the Persuasive Characteristics of the Source in Social Persuasion	41
3.1 Introduction	41
3.2 A typology of source effect studies.	41
3.3 A classification scheme of the characteristics or attributes of the source of a message.	45
3.4 Dimensions of source credibility.	48
3.4.1 Trustworthiness	50
3.4.1.1 Manipulation of trustworthiness effect.	52
3.4.2 Expertise	53
3.4.3 Credibility and the "Sleeper effect".	61
3.5 'Attractiveness' of the source.	63
3.5.1 Similarity.	65
3.5.2 Familiarity.	71
3.5.3 Liking (Likeability).	73
3.5.4 Physical attraction.	77
3.5.5 Other attributes of attractiveness.	80
3.6 Power as a source characteristic.	84
3.7 Shortcomings of the studies.	91
3.8 Summary.	96

	<u>Page</u>
Chapter 4: Endorsement in Advertising	98
4.1 Introduction.	98
4.2 Reasons for borrowing from the findings of other disciplines.	99
4.3 Studies of aspects of endorsement advertising.	102
4.3.1 Commercially oriented studies.	102
4.3.2 Academic based studies of endorsement.	105
4.4 The 'real-world' context of advertising.	113
4.4.1 Characteristics of advertising.	114
4.4.2 Practitioners' implicit framework of endorsement.	116
4.5 Summary.	119
Chapter 5: Gaps Identified, Objectives and Proposed Methodology	121
5.1 Introduction.	121
5.2 Gaps identified.	121
5.3 Rationale for returning to basic principles.	122
5.4 Boundaries for this study.	123
5.5 Research objectives.	124
5.6 Proposed methodology.	125

Chapter 6:	Stage 1 - Group Discussions: Review and Organisation of the Sessions	126
6.1	Introduction.	126
6.2	The nature of group discussions.	126
6.3	Purpose of group discussions.	127
6.4	The advantages and disadvantages of group discussions.	129
6.5	Types of group discussion/focus groups in use.	131
6.6	The requirements for running group discussions.	133
6.7	Operationalising the group discussions: Steps undertaken.	137
6.7.1	Running a number of "dummy" group discussions.	138
6.7.2	Selecting a frame of reference for the sample.	143
6.7.3	Approaches used in recruiting respondents.	144
6.8	Features of the group discussions organised.	145
6.8.1	Format of presentation.	145
6.8.2	The profile of respondents taking part in the group discussions.	146
6.8.3	Details of the group discussions.	147
6.9	Analysis of the group discussions.	148
6.9.1	Basic assumptions of the research.	149
6.10	Stages of the research process.	151

	<u>Page</u>
Chapter 7: Qualitative Findings: Findings of the Group Discussions	153
7.1 Introduction.	153
<u>Findings</u>	
7.2 Descriptions of celebrities and endorsers and grounds for these descriptions.	153
7.2.1 Descriptions of celebrities.	153
<u>ABC1:</u>	
(a) The profession of the celebrity.	154
(b) Physical Make-up.	154
<u>C2DE:</u>	
(a) The profession of the celebrity.	154
(b) Principal attribute of the celebrity.	155
(c) Physical make-up of celebrity.	156
(d) Known background of celebrity.	157
(e) Perceived attitudes and behaviour.	159
(f) "Type of person" celebrity is.	160
(g) The way the celebrity reflects life.	161
7.2.2 Descriptions of endorsers.	161
<u>ABC1:</u>	
Their qualification(s).	161
<u>C2DE:</u>	
(a) Profession of the endorser.	162
(b) Principal/main attribute or character- istic of the endorser (as a celebrity)	162
(c) Physical make-up of the endorser.	162
(d) Known background of the endorser.	162
(e) Perceived attitudes and behaviour of the endorser.	162
(f) The part played by the endorser and what he says in the commercial.	162
(g) Endorser's reasons for being in a commercial.	164

	<u>Page</u>
(h) Endorser's overall qualifications.	165
(i) Theme of the commercial.	166
(j) Attitudinal description of the endorser.	166
7.2.3 Grounds on which respondents based their descriptions.	167
<u>ABC1:</u>	
(a) General interests.	167
(b) Generally advertising is "meant for the working class".	168
(c) Context of a celebrity.	168
(d) Photographs of celebrities shown.	168
<u>G2DE:</u>	
(a) Context of a celebrity.	169
(b) General interests.	169
(c) The advertising context.	170
(d) Attitudinal response to celebrities and endorsers.	172
(e) General "values" of respondents.	
7.3 Attitudinal response to celebrities taking part in advertising.	172
<u>ABC1:</u>	
(a) Celebrities not qualified to endorse products.	173
(b) Celebrities increase prices of products.	173
(c) Other factors more important.	174
<u>G2DE: Positive attitudes</u>	
(a) Effects of celebrities on reception of commercial.	176
(b) Some products have become known because of celebrities.	177
(c) When television programmes are "dull".	177
(d) Celebrities make commercials more entertaining.	178



	<u>Page</u>
(e) Celebrities more familiar with technology involved in making commercials.	181
(f) Celebrities should take part in advertising in order to support charitable organisations and causes.	181
<u>C2DE: Negative attitudes</u>	
(a) Effects on the celebrity.	182
(b) Celebrities take part for the "wrong reasons".	184
(c) Advertising has negative aspects.	185
(d) Experience with the product more important.	186
(e) Celebrities only get in the way of the commercials.	187
(f) Ordinary people more suited.	188
(g) Other commercials preferred.	189
(h) Celebrities make products more expensive.	189
 7.4 Recall of Endorsement advertising and reactions.	 190
<u>ABC1:</u>	
(a) Evaluate the commercial.	190
(b) Ignore the commercial.	191
<u>C2DE:</u>	
(a) Mental reactions.	191
(b) Overt reactions.	193
(c) Other reactions.	194
 7.5 Comparisons of the advertising process and the social persuasion process.	 194
(a) The nature of advertising.	194
(b) The setting in which advertising takes place.	194
(c) The nature of endorsers.	195
(d) The nature of reactions in advertising.	195
(e) Type of respondents.	196
 7.6 Conclusions and guidelines for the quantitative study.	 196

	<u>Page</u>
Chapter 8:      Stage 2. Quantitative Survey: Design and Administration of the Questionnaire	199
8.1 Introduction.	199
8.2 The Questionnaire.	199
8.2.1 Components of a questionnaire.	200
8.2.2 The design of a questionnaire.	201
8.2.3 Types of response desired.	203
8.2.4 Method of questionnaire administration.	207
8.3 The construction and administration of the questionnaire.	209
8.3.1 Questionnaire construction.	209
8.3.2 Pre-testing of the questionnaire.	212
8.3.3 The sampling process.	214
8.3.4 Recruitment of respondents and admin- istration of the questionnaire.	215
8.3.5 Characteristics of respondents of the questionnaire survey.	216
8.4 Analysis of the questionnaire.	216
Chapter 9:      Quantitative Data: Findings of the Questionnaire Survey	220
9.1 Introduction.	220
<u>Findings</u>	
9.2 The mass media	220
(a) Television viewing habits.	221
9.2.1 Discussion	
(b) Respondents' ranking of newspapers, Magazines and television as providers of information about celebrities.	222
9.2.2 Discussion	223



	<u>Page</u>
9.2.3 Frequency of Reading and Rankings: Discussion	223
9.3 Descriptions of celebrities and endorsers, and reasons for the descriptions.	224
(a) Descriptions of celebrities.	224
9.3.1 Discussion	227
(b) Descriptions of celebrities as endorsers.	228
9.3.2 Discussion	232
(c) Grounds for the elicited descriptions.	233
9.3.3 Discussion.	239
9.4 Attitudinal response to celebrities taking part in advertising.	239
(a) Attitudes to celebrities taking part in advertising.	240
9.4.1 Discussion	247
(b) 'Overall' attitudes to celebrities and advertising.	250
9.4.2 Discussion.	255
9.5 Recall of endorsement advertising and reactions.	256
(a) Recently seen an endorsement commercial.	256
9.5.1 Discussion.	257
(b) Reactions to endorsement advertising.	257
9.5.2 Discussion	263
9.6 Knowledge of celebrities field of entertainment: Discussion.	264
9.7 Conclusions.	265
Chapter 10: Conclusions and Contribution of the Study	268
Chapter 11: Learning Experience, Limitations, and Suggestions for Future Research	272

	<u>Page</u>
11.1 Learning experience.	272
11.2 Limitations of the study.	274
11.3 Suggestions for future research.	275
 <b>Appendices:</b>	
Appendix 1	277
Appendix 2	295
Appendix 3	297
 <b>Bibliography:</b>	 298

## LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
2.1 Diagrammatic presentation of the relationship between persuasion and attitudes.	34
3.1 The "VISCAP" Source Effectiveness Classification.	47
3.2 An illustration of the " Sleeper Effect".	61
3.3 "A to B re X" Notion.	74
3.4 Type of Power exercised and individual's reasons for complying.	86
3.5 Kelman's conceptualisation of the power exercised by a source.	88
3.6 Components of Power.	90
6.1 Stages of the Research Process.	152

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
2.1 Variables emphasised in Persuasion Research.	36
6.1 Characteristics of the Dummy Group Discussions.	139
6.2 "BARB" TV Viewing Audience Profile.	143
6.3 Order in which photographs of celebrities were shown.	146
6.4 Profile of Respondents in the group discussions.	147
6.5 Details of the Group Discussions.	148
8.1 Characteristics of Respondents to be recruited for Questionnaire Survey.	214
8.2 Characteristics of Respondents of Questionnaire Survey.	217

ABSTRACT

This study examines a currently popular advertising technique known as endorsement, which involves the use of a third party to give 'support' to an advertiser's product or service. In Britain, the technique has been used in various forms for well over two centuries now.

Notwithstanding this continuous history of practice, there has to date been little documentation of either the major considerations bearing on practitioners' choice of endorsers or the factors likely to explain endorsers' relative 'persuasiveness'. Hitherto, the discussions of practitioners about the endorsement process have been fragmented and seemingly based on "intuition", "speculation", "experience of usage", and so-called "proprietary research" which cannot be made public.

Further, the absence of specific knowledge about endorsement has led both practitioners and academics to 'borrow' from the findings of source effect studies. However, these were conducted in a context, referred to in this study as "social persuasion", that differs markedly from the typical advertising setting. The importance of the differences has recently been underlined by a number of studies which have examined some aspects of the endorsement process. Their overall conclusion is that characteristics proposed by social persuasion studies as explaining the relative persuasiveness of a source, do not appear to be either as relevant or important in endorsers of advertising messages. But, these studies fail to offer any alternative characteristics to those utilised or tested.

To fill this gap in the present knowledge a two-stage methodology was developed in the 'real world' setting. Stage one consisted of 8 group discussions in which general perceptions of target receivers were elicited about the process. Stage two involved a questionnaire survey, in which 500 questionnaires were administered.

Several significant results were obtained. The most significant is that tentatively suggesting that target receivers perceive endorsers mainly in terms of their "celebrity context". Further, contrary to the 'credibility' mechanism suggested by social persuasion studies, results indicate that endorsers produce effects, if any, on a mechanism largely predicated on the identified celebrity context.

The main conclusion of the study is that the social persuasion framework must now be abandoned in favour of one developed in the endorsement advertising setting.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction to the Study

## CHAPTER 1

### Introduction to the Study

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the advertising technique generally referred to as endorsement, to state the purpose of the study, and to provide an overview of how the study is being organised.

In order to place the subject matter in its proper perspective, the chapter begins by tracing briefly the historical development of endorsement, also sometimes called testimonial advertising. In so doing, it will be apparent that the technique has been in use in Britain for over a century now.

Explanations of endorsement advertising have been based, by and large, on studies generally known as either source effect or source credibility studies. However, these studies were conducted in a non-advertising context, which for this study is termed as "social persuasion". Given that social persuasion has only provided guidelines as to effects likely to result from the use of different sources of persuasion, it is felt necessary to propose definitions for the terms endorsement and testimonial. This is so as to delineate the topic of the study. Examples showing the differences between endorsement and testimonial are also made.

Finally, the objectives and the way the study is to be organised are discussed.

#### 1.1 A brief history of Endorsement/Testimonial Advertising in Britain

An examination of the general advertising literature, particularly that which has documented the development of advertising, suggests that the use of a third party to support one's wares or "cause" has been in use for a long time. In a



detailed account of the development of advertising, Turner (1965) observed that "testimonials" of various kinds were a large feature of that development. Specifically, between the 15th to 19th Centuries, when patent medicine was by far the largest advertising contributor, testimonial advertising became a major means by which advertisers could get their messages to their target audience.

According to Turner, testimonial advertising went through several stages. First, there was the age of 'titles' when everyone who thought up, for example, a remedy called himself a "doctor". This stage was followed by the age of the 'blast of puffery', whereby endorsers were required to testify to some of the most gruesome conditions or diseases and attributed their 'miraculous recovery' to the advertiser's product. This period has been regarded as most notorious, because in the search for someone who would testify to the claims desired, advertisers became increasingly "bold", often making claims that could not be substantiated and sometimes naming as testifiers individuals who did not exist.

The bandwagon effect was to lead to a search by advertisers for new kinds of individuals to give testimonials. Thus, Turner commented, emerged the age of the 'nobility' when anyone with even a remote connection to a title became a candidate for a testimonial. Hence throughout the Victorian age, the crowned heads of Europe, and many of the lesser nobility of the period, gave testimonials for an agreed sum to patent medicines. The more notorious examples of that period include the Pope, who appeared in an advertisement in Punch magazine (March 25, 1871) to testify to the qualities of "Barry's Ravalenta Arabica Food", and items said to be in use at Queen Victoria's household. In one advertisement for "Cockles Antibilious Pills" were featured ten Dukes, five Marquises, seventeen Earls, eight Viscounts, sixteen Lords, one Archbishop, fifteen Bishops, the Adjutant-General and Advocate General (both of Scotland).

By the late 1890s it was the turn of members of "high society" to be recruited for testimonials. Because almost every advertiser of the period used testimonials of sorts, and the credulity of the public was near saturation, it became necessary for those giving testimonials to sign their name. Unfortunately for the lady of high society, Lillie Langtry, who testified to the "holy" and cleansing qualities of Pears Soap, her signature, was forged by an unknown individual, who then gained access to some £40,000 worth of her jewels.

At about this time also, some advertisers of other products were beginning to refuse to advertise in the same newspapers as the medicine vendors. Many began to see advertising not only with distaste but came to regard it as a "flag of distress". Thus the period between 1890-1914 marked the start of changes in the way testimonial advertising was used. Between 1909 and 1912, the British Medical Association joined in the attacks that had been specifically directed at the vendors of patent medicines, by publishing two pamphlets which argued that the most widely used specifics of the day were a complete sham. This greatly influenced the House of Commons Select Committee on Patent Medicine in its deliberations between 1912-1914.

Within the industry itself, some advertisers took initiatives that were to lead eventually to the present day self-regulatory system. For instance, in the 1890s the consortium of the owners of poster advertising sites produced a self-regulatory code of standards to be complied with as a condition of acceptance of advertisements. In the 1920s "Truth in Advertising" was being emphasised and was to lead to the setting up of voluntary bodies to monitor abuses.

Notwithstanding these developments, testimonial advertising continued to remain popular. An example of this popularity is illustrated by the issue of the Daily Mail in 1922 (June 1st),

which featured the entertainer, George Robey, for twelve different products, all of which were endorsed. Another example, was Lux soap which at this time almost exclusively featured celebrity testifiers in its advertisements. Little wonder that the 'Truth in Advertising' campaign had such minimal impact on the industry.

The emergence of cinema was to extend the scope of endorsement as an advertising technique, although its present day popularity owes much to the development of commercial television in the 1950s, and to commercial radio in the 1970s. In turn, these advertising media had been preceded by cinema, which extended the concept of the theatre and made personalities known to a far wider audience than ever before. A consequence of these developments, was to make personalities or celebrities of these media more attractive to advertisers as candidate endorsers for their advertising.

But, the present use of endorsement differs markedly because of the combination of legislation and self-regulatory codes which impinge upon the behaviour of members of the advertising industry. Television and radio, for example, are governed by the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA) in conjunction with various self-regulatory associations. Codes of practice provide guidelines as to what types of advertising, for example, are permissible and failure to observe these may result in expulsion from the respective bodies, or some other action.

Observation of current practice suggests that endorsement has once more become a major advertising technique. It seems to be more popular on television than any other media possibly because of the features of television's sound, movement and colour. On the whole, however, it seems that the likelihood of being confronted by endorsement advertising is far higher in Britain today than at any previous time.

## 1.2 Defining endorsement and testimonial

Although in the discussion so far undertaken the terms endorsement and testimonial were used interchangeably, in this study the two are seen as being very different.

However, before showing the differences between the two terms, it seems worthwhile to state that an examination of current literature indicates that there is no satisfactory definition of either term as used in advertising practice. Therefore, a useful starting point is to examine the explanations offered in a dictionary. Collins Concise Dictionary (1982) defines the terms thus:

Endorse: To give approval or sanction to; to write (a qualifying comment, etc) on the back of a document.

Testimonial: a recommendation of the character, ability, etc, of a person or of the quality of a product or service; a formal statement of truth or fact; a tribute given for services or achievements.

These two definitions do show some differences and tend to suggest that a testimonial is more positive in its claim than an endorsement.

The IBA Code of Advertising Standards and Practice (1979) does not give any definition but uses the term testimonial. In addition to specifying when testimonials may or may not be used, the code pays attention to celebrities as follows:

"Actors may not purport to be chairmen, directors, officers or other employees of an advertiser. No one may appear to give independent professional advice on any investment offer. Celebrated entertainers, writers or sportsmen may not present, endorse or recommend any investment or savings offer."



Though referring specifically to financial advertising, the two terms may be inferred from these guidelines. In much the same way as the dictionary definition, it appears that the IBA regards a testimonial as almost a statement of fact or anything resembling that, whereas an endorsement appears to be a weaker form of claim.

The Independent Television Companies Association (ITCA) Handbook (1979) also uses the term testimonial advertising, which is defined as:

"Any expression of view or statement of experience of a real person, whether made by that person or by somebody else, is regarded as a testimonial."

Much later in the handbook, the term endorsement (or more precisely to endorse) appears and is viewed as a support given by a third party that is less specific than a testimonial.

In America, the Federal Trade Commission (1972), which is the overseer of advertising practice, uses the term endorsement in its guidelines to cover all forms of support given by third parties. The FTC defined endorsement as:

"An ingredient of an advertising message which consumers are likely to believe reflects the opinions, beliefs, findings, or expertise of a party other than the advertiser."

Given the lack of clear distinctions between the two terms, definitions are now proposed to show the differences. These definitions are based on both practical usage and inferences from the general literature. They are as follows:

// Endorsement is a generic term used for an advertising strategy whereby an identifiable sponsor uses a non-related third party, whom it is hoped will benefit the advertising as a result of both the 'characteristics' they are perceived to possess and their explicit or implicit support. //

Testimonial is a specific kind of endorsement whereby the action and/or verbal statement of the non-related third-party clearly and explicitly supports the overall claims being made or projected in the advertising.

It may not, at first sight, be too apparent why these distinctions seem necessary or are important at all. But a number of recent developments, particularly in America, have made the distinctions an important consideration because of the way they have been viewed in the courts of law. For example, Advertising Age (1974) reports a case where the Federal Trade Commission challenged the claims made by endorsers of milk in California. The FTC ruled that while endorsers might use their experience, etc, in support of a product, they may not from that conclude that "milk is good for everybody", since there are likely to be some people who are allergic to it. Therefore, the claims then made were regarded as "misrepresentations".

Taylor (1979) cites another case involving the FTC in America which challenged the claims made by the actor Pat Boone and his daughter that the product, Acne Station, cured all forms of acne. The FTC ruled that "all forms" could not be substantiated, and as such the endorsers together with the manufacturers of the product are liable for damages to consumers who have not been cured of acne.

So far in Britain there has not been a case to test whether the distinctions could be upheld by the courts. Nevertheless, the ITCA (1979) Independent Television Companies Association Handbook makes a distinction between 'playlet' and reality indicating the possibility of the role played by the actor being challenged. Indeed, observation of the roles played by various endorsers in commercials tentatively suggests an appreciation of the possible distinctions because only a few seem to give outright claims that could be construed as a testimonial. Many endorsers seem content with merely projecting one or other of their well-known routines, leaving the receiver to draw their own inference.

But even these so-called routines are now being questioned and is likely to lead to the test case of 'liability'. At the time of writing, a number of television programmes (such as Channel 4's consumer programme "Which"; BBC1's Sunday family programme "That's Life") have already touched on this subject, with one ("That's Life") advising a dissatisfied consumer of a microwave oven product to sue the endorser (Jimmy Tarbuck, the entertainer).

Therefore, for this study clear differences are perceived to exist between the two terms. // Endorsement is seen here as an umbrella term covering the many different kinds of third party support likely to be found in practice. The variants tend to be either explicit or implicit, as the discussion that follows illustrates. // In general, however, all forms of endorsement are characterised by the belief that the third party has attributes which, with the support given, contributes toward producing the response desired by the sponsor. // A testimonial, on the other hand, while also possessing these characteristics is more distinct in so far as the third party is more explicit about his support for the product or service. In either case, the receiver of the advertising message is left in doubt as to the position of the third party.

### 1.2.1 Examples of Explicit/Implicit endorsements and testimonials

Examples of explicit and implicit endorsements can be inferred from some recent and current commercials and advertisements. The ones below are mentioned only for illustration purposes rather than as a reflection of all the available examples.

- Leyland Cars : A recent commercial for Leyland cars featured the television comedians, The Two Ronnies. They performed one of their comedy routines but said nothing about the product. This is an implicit endorsement.
- Sony Products : The celebrity John Cleese features in a commercial for Sony Hi-fi's. Although he plays one of his better known roles, he does support in a mild way the claims being made for the product. This is an explicit endorsement.
- Goodyear Tyres : The former London Metropolitan Police Commissioner, Sir Robert Mark, appears in the commercial for Goodyear Tyres. He categorically states that the range of tyre being featured has made "a major contribution to road safety". This is an explicit testimonial.
- Others : There are commercials and advertisements for products or services which have featured celebrities known for activities closely related to that of the product. Examples include the scientist-celebrity, Dr Magnus Pike talking about the advantages of a particular "method of rotation" for a washing machine; the tennis celebrity John McEnroe talking about a tennis racket's shape, etc. These are implicit testimonials.



### 1.2.2 Categories of endorsement

In addition to the distinctions between endorsement and testimonial advertising, individuals who become endorsers of advertising messages tend to differ also. Friedman (1977) has argued that in general, endorsement falls into one of three categories or types which he defines as:

- (1) Professional expert: an individual, group or institution possessing as a result of experience, study or training, knowledge of a particular subject, which knowledge is superior to that generally acquired by ordinary individuals;
- (2) Celebrity/Personality: an individual who is known to the general public (e.g actor, entertainer, athlete, etc) for his achievements in an area other than that of the product class being endorsed;
- (3) Typical consumers: an ordinary individual who has no special expert knowledge beyond normal use of the product.

These categories appear to have been borrowed from the guidelines provided by the FTC. Overall they cover most of the endorsements found in everyday practice. However, sometimes an advertisement or commercial becomes difficult to classify because the endorser appears to be playing several roles at the same time and as such cannot be classified under any specific category.

In Britain there has emerged over the last few years a type of endorsement that does not fit into any of the above categories. This basically involves the 'owner' or the 'head' (Managing Director, Chairman, etc) of a given business endorsing their own companies or products. Recent famous examples include Sir Freddie Laker for Laker Airways, Bernard Matthews for Matthews products and Victor Kiam for Remington Shavers. Therefore, it seems reasonable to add a fourth category to those suggested by Friedman, thus:

- (4) Owner/Head of organisation: an individual who has made a name for himself in the particular field being endorsed but who is not a celebrity though fairly well-known to the public.

Since the introduction of Channel 4 in Britain, a variant of the suggested category above seems to have developed whereby even lower level management appear to be endorsing their company's products. The increase in this particular variant may have been spurred by the continuing dispute between Equity, the actors' Union and C4 about the matter of "repeat fees".

Advertising agencies seem to have endorsement categories of their own. Fahad's (1981) study, for example, found that one agency had the following categories:

- (1) Presenter - "anonymous", or not chosen for being well-known;
- (2) Presenter - "anonymous", but acting as "indicator" of some aspect of the product relevant to its proposition;
- (3) Presenter - known personality, presenting but not testifying, as such, the brand or product concerned;
- (4) Presenter - known personality in a specific field, endorsing but not testifying the brand or product;
- (5) Presenter - actually giving a testimonial, and it can be either an expert or a personality;
- (6) Personality - "in the story" where personality (usually an actor) appears in action of the commercial but not testifying;
- (7) Personality - giving testimonial on product ("I have used this product for X years and I can safely say that ....");
- (8) Testimonial - from typical consumers, or where reality is held to substitute for fame (e.g 20 people in Glasgow said that ....).

Despite the different labelling these categories can be seen to match closely those by Friedman. Nevertheless, the importance of this suggested list of categories is its ability to reflect the

various sources that are used in practice as endorser. Additionally, it is interesting to note that the practitioner who suggested this list seemed to imply that the mere appearance of so-called ordinary individuals or consumers in commercials can be regarded as testimonials. In the other cases it seems the individual has to testify explicitly to the attributes of the product or service before he can be considered to have given a testimonial.

### 1.3 Objectives of the study

The purpose of this study can be specified in the following objectives:

- (1) To review the literature of social persuasion, particularly those on source effect studies.
- (2) To ascertain the shortcomings underlying source effect studies as a basis for determining the extent to which their findings are generalisable to other contexts.
- (3) To identify aspects of endorsement advertising which have been investigated to date.
- (4) To determine from target receivers factors which they perceive as essential or important in a consideration of the endorsement advertising process.
- (5) To ascertain whether or not receivers perceive differences between endorsement and testimonial advertising.

In essence, the study can be considered as an attempt to develop a conceptual framework of the process of endorsement. Such a framework, it is expected, will provide the foundation for evolving a more systematic and a more comprehensive guideline of the subject for use both by academics and by advertising practitioners.

#### 1.4 Organisation of the study

Having set objectives for the study, the next step in the research process is to develop a framework or an overall plan for the attainment of these objectives. However, a study such as this has imposed upon it a number of considerations all of which combine to influence the direction the research follows.

For this study, important considerations include the requirements for the submission of a thesis for a higher degree, time and financial constraints, and the researcher's own limited resources. As a result of these, the study is being organised in three distinct but related phases, as follows:

##### Phase 1

This phase consists generally of a review of the literature. This centres on social persuasion, defined loosely as the "context" of source effect studies, and on the characteristics identified by these studies as explaining the relative persuasiveness of sources. Explanations of endorser effect have been based, by and large, on these findings because advertising is viewed as another form of social persuasion.

##### Phase 2

Basically, this phase will set out the steps that were developed so as to achieve the set objectives. The factors influencing the design of the research and the choice of research instruments will be discussed: problems encountered in implementing the study will also be outlined.

##### Phase 3

In this final stage, the findings of the study will be presented. From these, conclusions will then be drawn for the whole study and will include a retrospective view of the study itself. Recommendations for future research will be made.

CHAPTER 2

Social Persuasion: Background of Source Effect Studies



## CHAPTER 2

### Social Persuasion: Background of Source Effect Studies

#### 2.1 Introduction

As the title suggests, the purpose of this chapter will be to describe the background of studies that have reported on the effects produced by different sources of persuasive communication. These reported findings, it was suggested in the previous chapter, have been used as the basis for explaining the effects of endorsers in advertising.

The literature in which these studies are reported encompasses several disciplines which include communication as a field of study and research. This field is loosely referred to as "social communication" and generally deals with both persuasive and non-persuasive kinds of communication and settings.

However, interest in the effects of the source has been characterised by persuasive kinds of studies, rather than non-persuasive communications. In addition, these studies treated the source as a major determinant of the effects said to have been produced by participants of the studies. Finally, an underlying assumption of these studies was that the communication of interest was one sent by and intended for human use. This latter point in effect set the boundary of consideration of these studies.

Given these distinguishing features, the term "social persuasion" was coined so as to refer to these studies and, more specifically, to their overall background. The chapter, therefore, begins by defining the term social persuasion. To do so, the nature of persuasion is examined because it is the determinant characteristic of social persuasion.

Following this, the chapter considers some of the major factors which have directly or indirectly influenced these studies and the aspects of the source which were then examined.

The study of attitudes and how they can be changed has provided both the impetus and the conceptual framework for these studies, since persuasion was regarded as a major means by which attitude change could be achieved. Given the scope of this area, however, discussion will be confined merely to showing the various theoretical frameworks or schools of the subject and how these have guided research.

The final sections of the chapter consider the other elements of the persuasive communication process and the characteristics of social persuasion. However, given the range, depth and sheer number of studies which have examined these other elements of persuasion, the discussion will be confined to identifying those threads of the research that have had an influence on source effect studies.

## 2.2 Social Persuasion Defined

It was noted earlier that the term social persuasion was coined especially for this study to refer to studies which have reported on some aspects of the source of a persuasive communication. This is because an examination of the literature revealed that these studies tend to be reported in the social communication literature with little or no attempt made to distinguish them from studies utilising non-persuasive types of communication.

Furthermore, the disciplines covered by the term social communication are so varied and wide that to date there has been no integration between the different disciplines nor a systematic presentation of the findings on related issues or aspects. This is very pronounced in studies of source effect, where the tendency

is often to limit discussion specifically to findings within the discipline of the given researcher. This partly explains why so many studies of source effect appear to have replicated one another though they may have originated from different disciplines.

Therefore, the term social persuasion is in its simplest form, intended to reflect the background of studies of source effect which have been used as the basis for explaining the relative persuasiveness of sources of communication. At the same time, the term is intended to emphasise the fact that though these studies may have originated from different disciplines, they had common characteristics. The word 'social' is intended to act as the boundary for the term, with humans being the main feature.

However, before a list of common characteristics for the term could be proposed, it will be necessary first of all to examine the nature of persuasion since this aspect is the core element.

### 2.2.1 The Nature of Persuasion

Persuasion as a form of communication has been in use for centuries now. Texts on the subject almost invariably cite the works of earlier philosophers, such as Aristotle, who had set themselves the task of explaining the nature of persuasion.

But, as Bettinghaus (1973) has argued, persuasion as an alternative form of communication to violence is a recent phenomenon. He summarised it thus:

"Wars have been fought, men have been slain ... Man is different from dogs, cats, lions ... Over the centuries, man has come to depend more and more on persuasion as the basic tool for accomplishing change. Persuasion is an alternative to war; a uniquely human alternative."



Despite this adoption of persuasion as an alternative means of communication, the different schools of thought on the subject have only emerged in the last three decades or so.

In the 1950s, theorists of persuasion were still attempting to provide explanations that would be accepted by other researchers. This school of thought derived its view mainly from earlier traditions, which regarded persuasion as a process of manipulating a given recipient. Brembeck and Howell (1952), proponents of this school, thus explained persuasion as:

"The conscious attempt to modify thought and action by manipulating motives of men towards a pre-determined end."

Motives were regarded by this school as the element to be manipulated.

At the same time, other proponents of this school were arguing that what was important was specifying the characteristics which made persuasive communications different from others. This argument is reflected in Minnick's (1957) definition, as follows:

"A discourse, written or oral, in which the communicator controls all appropriate communication variables in an attempt to determine the response of the receiver toward a particular choice of belief or conduct."

Thus, the characteristics included control of all the communication variables by the communicator, influencing the belief or behaviour of the receiver toward that determined by the communicator, and that such manipulation may take the form of a written or an oral presentation.

In the 1960s, a new school of thought of persuasion emerged, arguing that for the desired response(s) to be achieved, the communicator had to ensure that his message was in accord with the expectation of the receiver. Bauer's (1964) study at this time

had led him to caution other researchers about the reactions of receivers to persuasive attempts. More specifically, Bauer argued that contrary to normal expectations, receivers of a persuasive communication were not as susceptible to simple manipulation as had been widely assumed.

Others within this school argued that if the desired response resided in the receiver then the process of persuasion consisted in major part of evaluation by the receiver, or total avoidance of the message. Messages perceived as incongruent with their views could be avoided by receivers.

Cronkhite (1969) represented this latter section of theorists and described persuasion as:

"The evaluative or approach-avoidance behaviour of those who interpret the symbols."

Hence, definitions of this period attempted to recognise the part played by receivers in the persuasive attempt. Fotheringham's (1966) definition was typical of this school, viewing persuasion as:

"The body of effects in receivers, relevant and instrumental to source-desired goals, brought about by a process in which messages have been a major determinant of those effects."

Thus for the first time it came to be accepted that responses resided with the receivers and that for persuasion to achieve its intended effects it must be relevant.

By the early 1970s, still another school of thought emerged, which argued that though the communicator of a persuasive message may have predetermined goals, these may not necessarily be achieved because the receiver interprets the message in his own way. Thus some of the effects of persuasive communication may have been

unintentional, or at least may not be those anticipated by the communicator of the message. This school of thought is ably represented by, for example, Applbaum and Anatol (1974) who defined persuasion as:

"One individual or group elicits, intentionally or unintentionally, by non-verbal and/or verbal means a specific response from another individual or group."

However, this school has caused controversy because some of the proponents, especially those mentioned above, have chosen to interpret "non-verbal means" of communication more widely than had been anticipated by many. For example, the threatened use of force if the receiver did not comply with the response required by the message was regarded by some proponents as persuasion (albeit of an extreme kind).

More recent definitions appear to view the intent of the communicator as still an important common factor of persuasion. But this has been counter-balanced by the role said to be played by the receiver in the process. Thus, this view is mainly a carry over of the school that emerged in the 1970s, although tending to stress the exchange or transactionary nature of persuasion.

Bettinghaus (1980), for example, represents this role of the receiver in terms of a "balance" concept, a mechanism employed by the receiver whereby incoming information is weighed up against his or her attitudes.

For Bettinghaus, this concept has made persuasion into a two-way process in which communicator and receiver are continually responding to each other, often involving the flow of information in both directions. However, the process is still initiated by an individual who wishes to produce some predetermined response, since it is this attribute that distinguishes persuasion from other kinds

of communication. In the end, Bettinghaus offers the following definition as a minimum consideration for the term persuasion:

"A conscious attempt by one individual to change the attitudes, beliefs, or behaviour of another individual or group of individuals through the transmission of some message."

### 2.2.2 Factors influencing the direction of social persuasion research

Though persuasion now constitutes a large segment of communication research, the factors that have contributed to that development have not received as much attention in the literature.

Sereno and Mortensen (1970) found that persuasion formed an integral part of some 20 academic disciplines all of which provide content and method for research, but without an integration between them.

According to Smith (1968), a major development at the turn of this century was the emergence of the concept generally known as "attitude". In the 1920s and 1930s, attitudes became the key focus of social psychology. At this time, the central aim of most research was the discovery of evaluation techniques by which attitudes could be measured. Thus, social psychologists came to investigate under this rubric favourable or unfavourable dispositions of receivers toward certain defined social objects and issues. It was then left to specialists in personality research to conceptualise and study man's deeper and more idiosyncratic attachments.

It is striking that advertisers, or rather academics of the subject, have not to date undertaken their own research into man's various attachments. Rather, they have borrowed from the work of others, which as will be shown may not always be applicable or



adequate because of the marked differences in the contexts in which the findings were obtained.

Oskamp (1977) has argued that the interest in attitude research coincided with a number of developments in the 1920s and 1930s. Specifically, this period saw the rise to power of notorious demagogues, whose success was credited to their use of persuasion techniques: propaganda and oratory. At the same time, researchers felt that the emergence of radio, particularly in the United States, was likely to increase the persuasive powers of some individuals and may contribute to the "break up of free and democratic societies".

Thus, research into persuasion became an attractive area of study for many researchers, who by virtue of their background, felt they were better able to monitor the effects presumed to occur as a result of transmitting messages to audiences. Smith (1968) implies that this contributed largely to the development of methods of examining attitude change, and grouped the main ones as follows:

- (a) Sample surveys and polling: this made it possible for researchers to "escape" from the restricted world of the earlier questionnaire studies carried out with readily accessible college student respondents. The large majority of the studies, however, involved the persuasive impact of mass communications on ordinary individuals, especially in terms of their voting behaviours.
- (b) Small group research, which tried to investigate social realities in an experimental setting, in the tradition of research of small-group dynamics began by Lewin and his students. Studies centred on the influence of memberships and participation in groups.
- (c) Psycho-analytic formulations, which investigated the complexity of attitudes and how they might act as part of the defence mechanism adopted by individuals in order to resolve

deep-seated inner conflict. From this framework, the psychology of attitude formation and change became an integral part of the study of personality dynamics.

- d) Experimental studies of communications: which controlled the characteristics of the source, of the audience, and of the content of the message in order to study their direct and interactive effects on attitudes.

But it must be borne in mind that social persuasion was only one of the means by which the centre of focus, namely attitude, could be examined. This is an important factor because the impression is often given that persuasion is the only way by which attitude could be studied. Such a view narrows the perspective of the issues that have influenced the area of study.

### 2.2.3 Attitudes and Social Persuasion

It will be necessary before going on to examine the relationship presumed to exist between attitude and social persuasion, to discuss briefly the concept of attitude.

Given the extent of the literature dealing with the subject, however, only a few definitions will be discussed. For example, McGuire's (1969) review of the subject and its development up to 1967 was able to cite over 800 studies, each offering its own definition. Fishbein and Ajzen (1972) reviewed about 790 articles published between 1968 and 1970.

Despite terminological differences, however, most of these definitions have common elements, or belong to one of the main schools of thought in this area.

One definition that would appear to have survived intact over the years is that offered by Allport (1935) who described it thus:



"An attitude is a mental or neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related."

Allport's view of attitude may seem complex but when carefully examined it makes a specific contribution to understanding the concept. // Firstly, the central feature of the definition is the idea of "readiness for response". This suggests that attitude is not behaviour, but rather that it is a predisposition to respond in a particular way to the "attitude object" (things, people, places, etc). Another feature of the definition is that attitude acts as a driving force and is not just a passive result of past experience. It is seen as impelling behaviour as well as guiding its form and manner. Also, implied in the definition is the suggestion that attitudes have a relatively enduring nature. Finally, an important feature is that indicating that an attitude has an "evaluative" aspect, as evidenced by the statement of it being organised through experience. //

Another definition of attitude, that was popularised by theorists of the cognitive school, was offered by Krech and Crutchfield (1948) who described it thus:

"An enduring organisation of motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world."

// These authors were the first to suggest that attitude may be made up of three components: the cognitive or knowledge component; the affective or emotional component; and the conative or behavioural-tendency component. In later years, these authors were to add some qualifying terms to their conception of attitude: "Enduring systems of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action-tendencies with respect to social objects", (Krech, Crutchfield, and Ballachey 1962). //

According to Loudon and Della Bitta (1979), behaviourists have given more attention to a new definition of attitude which has generated much research and has been useful in predicting behaviour. // This definition treats attitudes as being multi-dimensional in nature, as opposed to the unidimensional viewpoint taken by earlier definitions. Briefly, this view sees attitudes as being a function of the strength of each of several beliefs a person holds toward an object and the value or importance he gives to each belief as it relates to the object. A belief is the probability of truth a person attaches to a given piece of knowledge. //

Finally, another definition that has received frequent attention, is that proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975):

"A learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object."

The novel concept here is that attitude arises from predisposition which itself was a learning process, and like all learning situations that give rise to a predictable response.

Given that attitude is intangible and abstract, it can only be inferred from the study of responses which are observable. This has led Campbell (1963) to restate the view that:

"A social attitude is (or is evidenced by) consistency in response to social objects."

But as will be shown in a later section, it is this feature of attitude that has underlined much of the controversy which has continued to dominate discussion of the concept.

### 2.2.3.1 Theoretical Approaches to Attitude Change

The approaches developed by the different disciplines to the study of attitude and attitude change have tended to vary. In sociology, the most frequently used framework to the study of attitude is specifying demographics as key variables, whereas attitude measurement plays a secondary part only. In political science, the most common approach has been polling, though some researchers have used other methods of research. The aim in such studies is to reach the desired respondents since attitudes are presumed to correlate with their voting behaviour.

In psychology, the most common way of studying attitudes has been by experimentation, though the use of other methods are not unknown. Usually the focus of experiments has been an attempt to change an attitude by manipulating one or more situational factors and/or measuring individual differences (such as personality dimensions) which are related to attitude change.

### 2.2.3.2 Major theories

According to Oskamp (1977), theoretical approaches to the study of attitude, in all its facets, have tended to emerge from the three major disciplines of sociology, political science, and psychology. Although consumer behaviour is often cited as another discipline, a close examination of the literature tends to suggest that by and large consumer behaviourists have borrowed heavily from the theoretical frameworks provided by psychology and social psychology.

From these different disciplines have emerged various theories about how attitudes are changed (and by implication formed). Smith (1968) summarised these theories under the following headings.

1. Learning theories: learning theories regardless of their propositions, believe that learning is a relatively permanent

change in behaviour occurring as a result of experience. The consensus among theorists is that nearly every type of behaviour an individual exhibits has been learned and that the three ways by which behaviour is learned are:

- Physical behaviour: an individual learns many behaviour patterns that are useful to him in responding to a variety of situations faced in every day life.
- Symbolic learning and problem-solving: an individual learns symbolic meanings that enable highly efficient communication through the development of languages. The process of thinking (the mental manipulation of symbols of the real world) and insight (a new understanding of relationships involved in the problem).
- Effective learning: an individual learns to value certain factors in his environment and at the same time also learns to dislike others.

All these variants of learning theory have been applied to the study of attitude and how it can be changed. But, as Smith contends, contribution of learning theories to an understanding of attitude change has come mainly from researchers who have taken its relevance for granted, and applied its categories to stimulus-response analysis, reinforcement, and other related concepts to empirically derived problems of persuasive communication and attitude change.

2. Cognitive approaches: Instead of the conditioning effect of stimuli and response, cognitive interpretations contend that much learning occurs not as a result of trial and error or practice, but through the discovery of meaningful relationships. It is these that enable the individual to solve problems, and are generally referred to as "gestalts".

Controversies between the cognitive approaches and those of learning theories were carried over into the social psychology of



attitude change, particularly with respect to interpretation of the processes of social influence. As a result of the controversy, two issues have been confounded: one relates to the importance of cognitive as compared with affective factors in attitude change. The central debate is whether people change their feelings about an object because they have come to see it differently, or whether they have changed their beliefs in order to match prior alterations in their feelings. The second issue centres on the way factors are to be seen, that is whether they are to be regarded as being related to one another or are to be treated separately. The debate appears to have dissipated as many researchers have now come to see their differences as more a matter of linguistic or semantic preference and conceptual strategy and less a question of right or wrong, true or false.

3. Judgemental processes and attitude change: The tradition of this school has been to regard attitudes as inferred dispositions, elicited by acts of judgement based on agreement or disagreement with provided statements of opinion. In addition it is assumed that behaviour is largely the result of the influence of attitude and that for the behaviour to occur further acts of judgement would have been involved. That is, the individual would have placed the issue or object in an evaluative framework, and then assigned it a specific category. Concepts and principles drawn from the general psychology of judgement were felt to be adequate for understanding the processes of attitude change.

One way, for example, in which some of the theories in this group have been researched was to examine an individual's attitude on a controversial issue. In this way it was possible to determine the range of opinion positions that he finds acceptable. Further the individual's latitude of acceptance will typically be narrower than the accompanying latitude of rejection, particularly when the issue involves high ego-involvement or when his position is extreme. Thus, // in responding to a persuasive communication

that advocates a specific position on the issue, the individual is likely to place it on a subjective pro-con scale of favourability. The effects of the communication on the recipient, it is argued, will depend largely on the individual's stand and the position advocated by the communication. //

4. Consistency or balance theories: These theories were popular in the 1950s, and basically viewed the individual as thoughtful and rational, adjusting attitudes and behaviour in accordance with incoming information. The key feature of such theories is the principle that people try to maintain consistency among their beliefs, attitudes and behaviours. Awareness of one's inconsistency is viewed as an uncomfortable situation from which one tries to escape. // Thus, attitude change should result if an individual receives new information inconsistent with previous viewpoints, or if existing beliefs and attitudes are shown to be inconsistent with one another. "

" These theories have been widely used to explain an individual's liking for the source of a persuasive communication and the effect of this on attitude change. Specifically, it has been suggested that the more a source is liked, the more it is likely that the attitude would change in the way advocated (see, for instance, the study by Abelson and Miller, 1967). But the evidence is not conclusive in so far as other studies have reported findings contradicting this suggestion. The most cited study is that by Zimbardo, Weisenberg, Friestone and Levy (1965), which showed that there was likely to be more acceptances of unpopular messages if communicated by a disliked rather than a liked source. //

It is this contradiction that has led McGuire (1969) to comment that consistency theories have been heuristically provocative but not distinguished for their empirical validity.



5. Approaches based on theories of personality: in the main personality theories trace their origin to the clinic and consulting room, where rigour and precision tend to be sacrificed in favour of relevance to human experience and problems.

Smith (1968) suggests that the approaches may be grouped as follows:

- Psychoanalytic theory: has its own concepts, categories, and hypotheses which researchers of attitude change can apply. The most famous of the theories is that proposed by Freud, which viewed individual personality as the product of a struggle among three interacting forces, namely the id, the ego and the super-ego.
- Self theories: though not of themselves giving rise to formal theories of attitude change, have emphasised the self, self-image, and identity of the individual as the basis for understanding resistance to a change in attitudes. Researchers using these frameworks have attempted to identify relationships between the "self" of the individual and their attitudes. Early work, for example, by Hovland and his associates sought to determine to what extent persuasibility is a general personality trait which holds across various topics and situations.

6. Functional approaches to attitude change: the key feature of functional theories of attitudes is their stress on the functions which attitudes serve in satisfying the personality needs or motivations of the individual. These theories hold that attitudes cannot be adequately understood without considering the needs that they serve for a particular individual. This viewpoint has had important practical and theoretical consequences. Nevertheless, functional approaches to attitude change have not been widely accepted nor frequently studied by researchers. Two bodies of

opinion have proposed several different kinds of needs which attitudes may serve, though the suggested lists are quite similar. A fundamental idea is that the different types of attitudes will be aroused by different situations and will be changed by different types of influences. Thus, for instance, the conditions which would lead an individual to change an "understanding-oriented" attitude (such as, the presentation of new information) would be quite different from the conditions necessary for changing an "ego-defensive" attitude (such as the removal of anxiety or threat).

### 2.2.3.3 Problems with the concept of attitudes

It may have become obvious from the preceding discussions that one benefit resulting from an interest in the concept of attitude has been an understanding of the process of persuasion and, more specifically, some of the effects produced by its various elements, such as the source. At the same time, the underlying problems associated with the concept have had repercussions on the studies that have been carried out, particularly those investigating aspects of social persuasion. This itself provides an explanation as to why there are so many studies researching what often seems like very similar aspects or issues.

Possibly the problem that is most confounding concerns the nature of attitude itself. "It is generally agreed that there are three components to attitudes, namely a cognitive, an affective and a behavioural component." However, there are two schools of thought about the relationships between these components: the school that suggests a tripartite relationship between the components, and the more recent school suggesting that the components represent different but related concepts.

An examination of the research evidence shows the extent of the problem and its implications for social persuasion.

McGuire's (1969) review concluded that the school regarding the components as being different facets of attitudes was very

much steeped in tradition despite the fact that there is still an important question about its empirical validity and usefulness. His review highlights the conflicting results that have been reported and leads him to suggest that perhaps only one or more of the components is really important, and has any relationship to events in the real world. Though he does not specify the relationship, McGuire finds the three components to be so closely interrelated as to be indistinguishable when measured.

Even before McGuire's review, Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962) had undertaken a review of the literature on the components of attitude, and had concluded that only a moderate relationship seemed to have been established by the different studies. These, it appears, tended to vary between +.2 to +.5 especially between the cognitive and behavioural components.

The more recent school, investigated by Fishbein and Ajzen (1972) has argued that the term "attitude" be reserved solely for the affective dimension, indicating evaluation or favourability toward an object. The cognitive dimension, argued Fishbein and Ajzen, could be labelled as "beliefs", and defined as the aspect showing the subjective probability that an object has a particular characteristic. The behavioural dimension they refer to as "behavioural intentions", defined as indicating an individual's subjective probability that he will perform a particular behaviour toward an object.

The central thesis of the latter school is that a person has various beliefs about the same object and that these beliefs are not necessarily related. For instance, if someone believes "This book is interesting", that person may or may not also believe that "This book is well printed" or "That this book is inexpensive". The same situation also holds true, it seems, for behavioural intentions. However, Fishbein and Ajzen (1972) note further that all measures of a person's affect toward a particular object should

be highly related. Thus, "I like this book" does imply "I enjoy reading it", and such responses should be quite consistent with the same person's answers to an attitude scale evaluating the book.

Oskamp's (1977) examination of the evidence led him to suggest that studies using Fishbein and Ajzen's theoretical framework have improved upon previous studies, particularly as regards the relationship between the different components. A major reason lies in the fact that the conditions under which certain attitudes are said to occur tend to be more strictly specified than in previous studies. Thus, measures for the attitude scale tend to be carefully constructed from several well-chosen belief or intention items that are expected to correlate highly with other standard attitude measures.

Another major problem relates to the methodological and theoretical frameworks used in the various investigations seen as a tenable basis of the conflicting findings. It was seen earlier that various formats for the study of attitudes have been developed over the years. An early critic of this development was Hovland (1959), who concentrated on providing an explanation for the different results being obtained from experimental and survey studies of attitude. The more important differences between the two settings were summarised as follows:

1. In an experiment, the audience on whom effects are being evaluated is one which is fully exposed to the communication. On the other hand, in naturalistic situations with which surveys are typically concerned, the outstanding phenomenon is the limitation of the audience to those who expose themselves to the communication.
2. The factors being examined. In the majority of survey studies the unit evaluated is an entire programme of communication, whereas in the typical experiment, the interest is usually in some particular variation in the content of the communications.

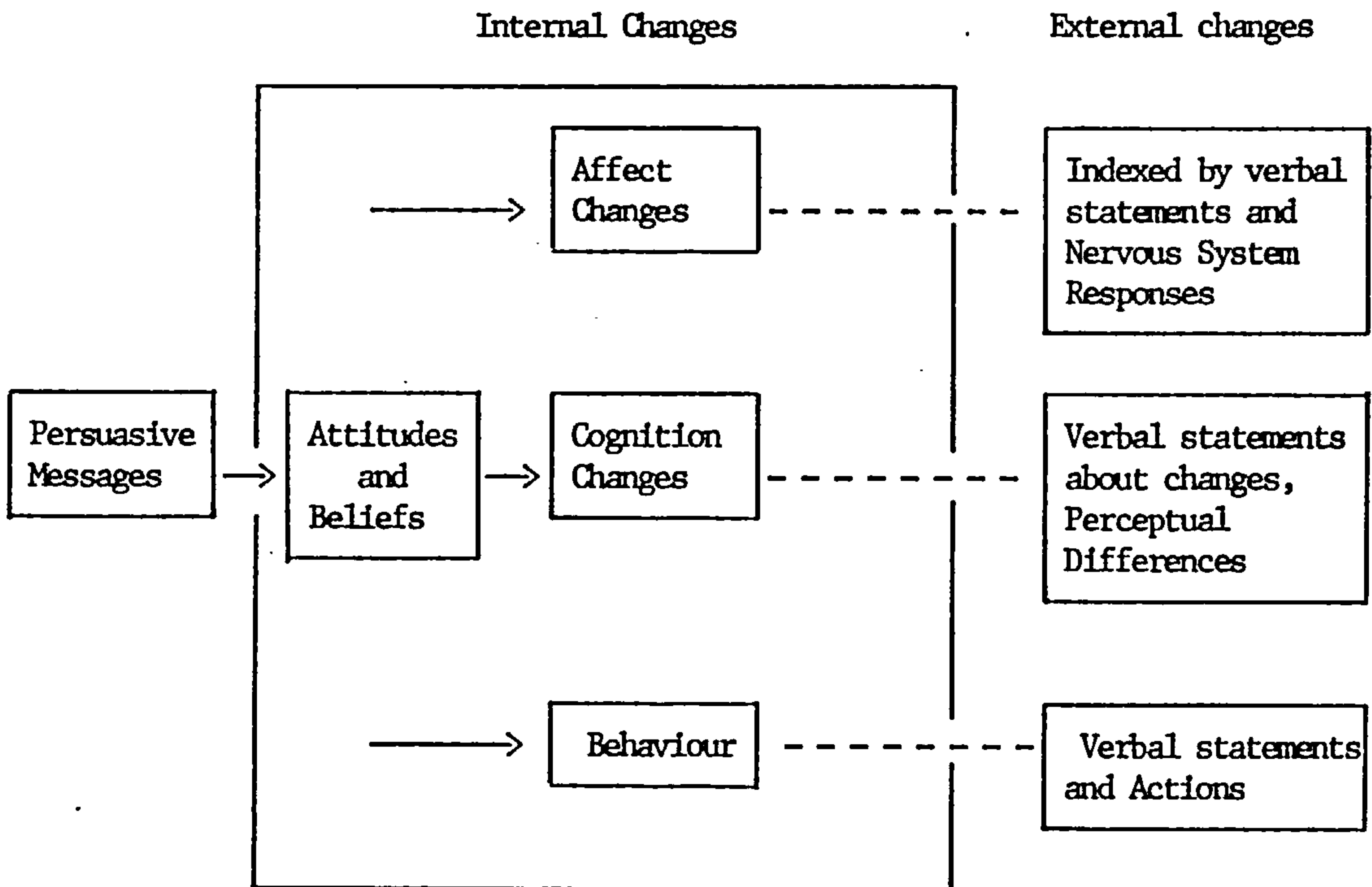


3. In the typical experiment the effect produced is usually observed soon after exposure to the communication, whereas in the survey study, the time perspective is such that much more remote effects are usually evaluated.
4. In experimental studies communications are frequently presented in a classroom setting, often involving quite different types of factors from those with which the survey researchers are concerned.
5. Communications of the type studied by survey studies usually involve reaching the individual in his natural habitat, with consequent supplementary effects produced by discussion with friends and family. In the laboratory studies a classroom situation with low post-communication interaction is more typically involved.
6. In the survey design there is, typically, considerable emphasis on a random sample of the entire population whereas in the experimental setting, there is a consistent over-representation of students, primarily on the basis of their greater accessibility.
7. In the typical experiment, the interest is in studying a set of factors or conditions which are expected on the basis of theory, to influence the extent of the effect of the communication. The survey procedures typically involve socially significant attitudes which are deeply rooted in prior experience and involve much personal commitment.

Anderson and Clevenger (1963), and also McGuire (1969), have mentioned differences and commented upon their lack of emphasis when reporting the findings. This led Sereno and Mortensen (1970) to conclude that the researcher is left with the impression of a field of study that is in "total disarray and lacking any theoretical integration between disciplines". Their criticism seemed directed particularly at the role of persuasion and its contribution in attitude change research.

On the basis of the foregoing discussion, the postulated relationship between attitude and social persuasion can be represented diagrammatically. While many formulations have been offered as an explanation of the relationship, the one offered by Bettinhaus (1980) is preferred because it reinforces the previous discussions and also provides a better overview of the existing relationship. The relationship is presented thus by Bettinhaus:

Figure 2.1: Diagrammatic presentation of the relationship between persuasion and attitudes





Certain factors incorporated or implied in this diagram demand emphasis, particularly those related to the elements of the process. Firstly, persuasion is, like other forms of communication, composed of four basic elements: source, message, channel and receiver. These can be seen in the diagram above, although in discussions of effects produced, the other elements tend to be underplayed. Secondly, the effects produced can be seen to be the result of several factors interplaying with one another rather than the result of any single component. Finally, effects produced may take one of three forms as shown in the diagram, although social persuasion studies have tended to use only certain types of measure of the effects.

Oskamp (1977) has discussed the nature of persuasion at some length, and more specifically the elements of the process. In discussing these elements, he was able to show the complex nature of the variables and their interacting effects. His examination of the major reviews led him to develop a table showing the diversity of the variables that have been thus far examined by social persuasion studies. The range of variables studied and the reviews in question are shown in Table 2.1.

McCroskey's (1969) review of the literature on the effects of using "evidence" by a source led him to propose that the effect of evidence in a persuasive message seems closely related to the perceived credibility of the source. "A less credible source seems to gain credibility by the inclusion of evidence supporting his argument, while a more credible source does not seem to benefit from it." Kline's (1969) study, on the other hand, revealed that the effect of evidence varied with the intelligence of the audience. That is, the inclusion of factual evidence and the specificity of that evidence appear to make more difference for receivers of high intelligence than those of low intelligence.

Table 2.1: Variables Emphasised in Persuasion Research

Variables emphasised	Recent reviews of research				
	Insko (1967)	McGuire (1966)	Sears & Abeles (1969)	Fishbein & Ajzen (1972)	Kiesler & Munson (1975)
<u>Source variables</u>					
Prestige	X			X	
Credibility	X		X	X	X
Similarity to audience (race vs. belief)	X	X	X	X	
Intent to persuade vs. objectivity (forewarning vs. distraction effects)		X	X	X	X
Attraction				X	X
<u>Message variables</u>					
Fear appeals	X	X	X	X	
Size of discrepancy (from audience attitude)	X	X	X		
Order effects (primacy vs. recency; forgetting; set)	X	X			
Informative vs. interpretive messages	X				
Immunisation against persuasion	X	X			
Types of defensive arguments included	X				
Wording effects			X		
Victim's degree of responsibility for own injury				X	X
Effects of mere exposure				X	X
Stimulus incongruity					X
<u>Medium variables</u>					
Resolution of controversy in natural groups		X			
Interpersonal contact				X	
<u>Audience variables</u>					
Ego-involvement	X	X	X	X	X
Latitudes of acceptance & rejection	X				
Post-decision processes	X			X	
Forced compliance (Counterattitudinal advocacy; insufficient justification; effects of effort; effects of threats)	X	X	X	X	X

Table 2.1 (Cont'd)

Variables emphasised	Recent reviews of research				
	Insko (1967)	McGuire (1966)	Sears & Abeles (1969)	Fishbein & Ajzen (1972)	Kiesler & Minson (1975)
<u>Audience variables (Cont'd)</u>					
Active vs. passive participation	X	X	X		
Social support	X				
Commitment & choice	X		X		X
Personality & persuasibility	X	X	X	X	X
Syllogistic reasoning	X			X	
Consistency in inferences	X		X	X	X
Judgement processes (use of cues; adding vs. averaging information)	X		X	X	
Disconfirmation of expectancies		X			
Selective exposure			X		
Multiple modes of attitude change			X		X
Actor vs. observer (self vs. other attribution)				X	X
Previous salience of attitude					X
Illusion of uniqueness of attitude					X
Arousal & motivation					X
Perceived freedom					X
Self-awareness					X

Thus, studies of the effects produced by given sources have tended, more often than not, to be examined with other variables. Consequently, it is reasonable to argue that an understanding of the literature on the effects of the source can only be more complete if the overall background in which the studies were undertaken are more explicitly stated.

#### 2.2.4 Characteristics of social persuasion

From the discussion thus far, it is now possible to suggest a number of characteristics for the term social persuasion. These are as follows:

1. ✓ It is a form of communication comprising four main elements: a source, message, channel and a receiver.
2. ✓ The source is the initiator of the act of communication.
3. ✓ In initiating the communication, the source hopes that the receiver will comply as desired.
4. The "message" is perceived by the source as one of the major means by which the receiver can be induced to respond as desired.
5. ✓ The source in sending the communication believes that in addition to the message, the receiver will also be partly influenced by the perceived characteristics of the source.
6. ✓ The source believes that for the receiver to respond, the message must affect one or more of his attitude components: cognitive, affective, and behaviour.
7. The means by which the message is transmitted can vary from a laboratory or classroom setting to the mass media.
8. The response desired is presumed to follow soon after the presentation of the message by the source.
9. The message tends to vary but generally concerns an issue with which the receiver is known to be either moderately or highly involved, as evidenced by his expressed attitude.
10. Unlike other kinds of communication, such as advertising, social persuasion is little affected by extraneous forces like

money, or money in exchange for some good. The issues tend to be "social" in nature, requiring the receiver only to make a verbal or written statement of his attitude or behavioural intentions.

11. The source in transmitting his message hopes that it will be attended to by more than one receiver, often by a specific audience in a specific setting.
12. The characteristics of the audience are regarded as being another major factor determining whether or not the desired response is produced.

These then are some of the more important characteristics of social persuasion, which distinguish it from other kinds of communication. While some of these characteristics are not unique to social persuasion, others are, and help to set the boundary of consideration for the term.

### 2.3 Summary

There is a tendency to refer to studies that have examined various aspects of communication as falling under the heading of "social communication" but this is so broadly conceived as to include any kind of communication, be it persuasive or non-persuasive.

The term social persuasion has been coined to indicate that the studies with which we are concerned are those that have used persuasive kinds of communication. In addition, the term is intended to signify the fact that studies were characterised by a source intending to produce some desired response from a specific audience through the transmission of a message.

Research into attitudes has led to the development of different theories and methods, all of which have had their effects on social persuasion studies. For example, the different methodological developments have been cited by some researchers as likely



to account for the conflicting findings that tend to characterise both attitude and social persuasion studies.

But these differences have been either ignored or underplayed, particularly by researchers from other disciplines such as advertising who have borrowed from these findings. In consequence, important problems and limitations of those studies, which would have underlined the extent to which they are generalisable, have gone unmentioned, or not even publicly recognised.

Interest in social persuasion has been the direct result of interest in finding out how attitudes develop and how they can be changed. One means by which this is assumed to take place is through the transmission of a persuasive message. Therefore, researchers have come to conceptualise persuasion as one of the means by which attitude can develop and change and tends to underline most configurations of the existing relationship.

Based on the various discussions, a number of characteristics were then suggested for social persuasion. These, it is argued, are sufficient to make social persuasion different from other kinds of communication.



CHAPTER 3

A Review of the Persuasive Characteristics  
of the Source in Social Persuasion

### CHAPTER 3

#### A Review of the Persuasive Characteristics of the Source in Social Persuasion

##### 3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present those attributes of the source, which social persuasion studies have suggested as making for their relative persuasiveness. Before examining these characteristics the chapter first considers a 'typology of the studies'. In addition to their methodological differences, studies differ in terms of the way they have viewed the characteristics of the source, often labelled "ethos" or "source credibility". The typology offered by Andersen and Clevenger (1963), some two decades ago, is used as a framework because it illustrates the diverse nature of studies and the reasons why so many studies have reported different source attributes or used different factor labels.

Given the number of studies to be found, the classification proposed by Percy and Rossiter (1980) in regard to source characteristics is used. This scheme discusses source attributes under the following headings: visibility, credibility, attractiveness and power.

Finally, the chapter considers the major shortcomings of the studies.

##### 3.2 A typology of source effect studies

Apart from their theoretical and methodological differences, source effect studies in social persuasion are also characterised by differences in the way they view the attributes of the source. These differences tend to be understated in the literature which explains the assumption that source effect studies are systematic, that is built upon previous research, and that differences in the findings can be explained entirely by respondents' perceptions of

what they regard as important.

Andersen and Clevenger (1963) categorise source effect studies into the following types:

(1) "Fixed Ethos" versus "Congruity Hypothesis"

Studies within this category regard the ethos of the source, simply defined as those characteristics which the audience perceives in the source of the message to be either "fixed" or "flexible".

Studies regarding the ethos of the source as fixed, view the persuasion process as involving the linking of a proposition with a desired source. If a positive effect was desired, then the proposition was linked to an "approved" source. Conversely, if a negative effect was desired then the proposition had to be linked to a "disapproved" source.

Those using the flexible approach, on the other hand, view ethos of the source as dependent on the other elements of the persuasive communication process, such as the proposition, content, and even situational factors. This approach has never been popular, because it involves the researcher in trying to measure several variables at the same time.

(2) "Ethos assumed" versus "Ethos measured"

Most early studies were interested in measuring attitude change resulting from the use of different sources rather than in determining what attributes, if any, the audience perceives in the source. In such cases, it was the researchers themselves who selected the sources and assumed differences in credibility or prestige.

In contrast, some studies have attempted to measure ethos itself, with sources selected on the basis of tests of credibility.

An examination of recent studies of source credibility suggests that a large majority have measured the ethos or credibility of the source prior to undertaking their study. However, there are wide variations in the way that ethos is measured.

(3) "Topic oriented" versus "Topic not relevant"

A common assumption is that source characteristics vary from one topic to another.

Other studies have however conversely assumed that the credibility of the source is not determined by topic and therefore can be generalised to most situations. The contribution of the topic or issue to the overall effects produced is inevitably neglected in these studies.

(4) "Average" versus "Individual" measure

Many studies have assumed that the experimental group perceive the source attributes at the same level. So fundamental is this view that little or no attention has been given to the variations in the perceptions of individual members and the possible effect of these on the responses obtained.

This assumption has been questioned, proposing that data should be treated separately for such variables as sex, occupation, educational level or political affiliation. At the extreme are studies that assume source credibility to be individual and therefore perceived differently by each member of the group.

(5) Audience characteristics measured versus characteristics not measured

Source attributes have been assumed to be the major determinants of the effects desired with the audience seen as passive, there merely to prove or disprove the hypothesis of the researcher. Consequently, no attention was paid to the characteristics of the

audience nor the extent to which these had a bearing on the results being obtained.

More recently, however, attempts have been made to measure audience characteristics to provide a basis for the understanding both of an important factor contributing to the effects, and of the kind of effects produced. Thus, these studies set out to assess the effect of such audience characteristics as sex, age, education, etc, on attitude change and, at the same time, provide a conceptual framework for further analysis of the interaction of ethos with the different audience characteristics.

(6) "Extrinsic" versus "Intrinsic" studies

Though Andersen and Clevenger view these as separate dimensions of the same concept; it is equally reasonable to suggest that these studies are concerned with different but related concepts.

Extrinsic studies see the audience as holding a specific image of the source prior to the speech. Thus to change the ethos of the source partly involved changing the basis of "receiver perception", which included their learning experience, peer influence, and so on.

Intrinsic studies, on the other hand, assume that the ethos of the source is generated during the presentation of the speech. Thus what is important is not so much the image of the source held prior to the speech, but the one portrayed during and soon after the speech. Factors such as style of dress, intonation, voice, style of delivery, etc, then contribute to the final image held of the source.

(7) Measuring instrument primary concern versus secondary concern

Given that many of the early studies were the result of interest in how attitudes developed and changed, it is not



surprising that many of them were more interested in finding suitable means of measuring this process than in the individual elements, such as the source, audience, etc. Consequently, the source was often commented upon only in passing, or more for methodological completeness than interest in the effects produced.

Alternatively the measuring instrument was merely of secondary concern in those studies focused upon finding out the extent to which one or more of the elements of persuasion contributed to producing the desired response and interest being confined to whether or not the instrument measured what it was supposed to.

This typology shows the diverse and conflicting nature of the studies of source effect and provides a balanced perspective of the reported findings. A further category added by Percy and Rossiter (1980) is that of "molar" vs "atomic" studies. The former attempts to explain attitude toward source credibility, in terms of the characteristics of the source, whilst the latter develops methodological frameworks underlined by the belief that responses to a source can be explained by basically understanding the general processes found in attitudinal behaviour.

### 3.3 A classification scheme of the characteristics or attributes of the source of a message

As a result of the differences noted in the theories and methodologies source effect literature is diverse, not integrated and sometimes confusing to the reader. The major confusion arises from presentation of findings and, more especially, the "labelling" of attributes accounting for the relative persuasiveness of the sources.

Therefore, researchers differ in their discussions of the source's attributes and the heading under which each can be grouped. For example, DeLozier (1976) classifies all the attributes of a source under the heading "source credibility" extending the traditional school's view of the concept of

credibility. Others prefer that credibility should be limited to certain attributes. Bettinghaus (1980), a proponent of this view, classifies "source credibility" mainly in terms of "safety, qualification and dynamism"; "status" or perceived role difference; and "opinion leadership", including the "charismatic leader".

There is no single universal classification scheme, choice being dependent upon the researcher's own position or theoretical standing and the use or purpose of the scheme adopted. Given that the aim of this chapter is to present and to synthesise source effect studies, a classification scheme has been adopted which reflects the diverse nature of the studies and provides a perspective in keeping with the aims of this study. That classification is the one offered by Percy and Rossiter (1980) although a number of attributes have been added to it by the researcher. The modified classification is shown over.

Figure 3.1 indicates that studies can be grouped under three main headings: credibility, attractiveness, and power.

Visibility in this context has been included under the heading of credibility, due to the link made between visibility and prestige in the selection of source for research purposes. Bettinghaus (1980) commented that many of the early studies suggested "prestige" to be the single most important factor in the believability of the source.

Prestige thus came to be regarded as part of the attributes of trustworthiness and expertise with the concept of credibility being regarded as multidimensional. Aronson (1969) drew attention to another important source attribute, namely "attractiveness" that was beginning to cause researchers to question the definition of credibility. The reason for this seems to have been the feeling

Figure 3.1: The "VISCAP" source effectiveness classification

Source Characteristic	Psychological Mechanisms	Response Measure
<u>Visibility*</u>	Attribution of who is responsible for, or who is endorsing the message.	Perception, initial comprehension.
<u>Credibility</u> a) Expertise b) Objectivity/ trustworthiness	Internalisation of the message as true and sincere.	Comprehension, cognitive believability and acceptance.
<u>Attractiveness</u> a) Similarity b) Familiarity c) Liking d) Physical attractiveness** e) Other attributes of attractiveness**	Identification with the source.	Evaluation-effective reaction.
<u>Power</u> Reward or punishment.	Compliance with the message because of source's status.	Yielding-behaviour intention.

\* For this study, this aspect will be considered as part of credibility since Percy and Rossiter seem to view this in much the same way as "prestige".

\*\* These attributes are discussed by Percy and Rossiter but not included in their listed attributes.

that: "in a democracy we would like to feel that, with hard work and a good deal of motivation, a person can accomplish almost anything". In the same vein Mills (1969) offers the explanation that though some researchers were beginning to find attributes that appeared to be different from either expertise or trustworthiness, they were ignored because they were "irrelevant" to the content of the communication being delivered.

The concept of power is basically the result of differences in the theoretical approaches of studies. Even before the credibility school became established, researchers had assumed that a source who exercised "power" over an audience was likely to obtain the effect desired. This was termed by Raven and French (1958) as "social power", but much of the early conception of power was underlined by the belief that it was predicated on the ability of the source to reward or punish the recipient of his message. However, it was not until Kelman (1961) proposed his processes of power that it came to be accepted fully that power need not be seen solely in terms of reward or punishment.

By the late 1960s some researchers were reporting attributes of attractiveness, although still viewing these as "irrelevant". To borrow Mills' (1969) own observation these attributes were reported but in a way that clearly demonstrated that they had "little objective relevance" to the topic of communication.

#### 3.4 Dimensions of source credibility

An examination of the social persuasion literature suggests that the concept of credibility has its origins in the teachings of early philosophers such as Aristotle, who attempted to explain "qualities" that helped speakers achieve the responses they desired. Bettinghaus (1980) discusses this origin in some detail and argues that it is this that led researchers to view the concept of credibility in much the same way as the variable gender. That is, people were either credible or not credible.

Credibility research was popularised by researchers at Yale University, led by Hovland and his associates. The texts resulting from these researchers' various studies, especially that by Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953), provided the guidelines for later research. Moreover, this group were the first to attempt to provide a systematic framework of studies and to suggest that credibility was a multidimensional concept consisting of



trustworthiness and expertise. As Percy and Rossiter (1980) have noted, these two dimensions have generally received the most attention in the literature.

However, there were dissenters to the view recognising only two dimensions. Giffin (1967), for example, argued at some length that credibility consists of expertise, reliability, intentions, activeness, personal attractiveness, and the majority opinion expressed by the group members of the listener. Others, such as Berlo, Lemert and Mertz (1970), were suggesting still different attributes. These studies were criticised by Applbaum and Anatol (1973) for failing to recognise that the setting or situation in which the message is presented, such as in a classroom, church, etc, affected the underlying factor structure. Their study, for example, uncovered the dimensions of expertise, trustworthiness, dynamism and objectivity, although their conclusion was that trustworthiness seems to contain several attributes.

Credibility was a term used synonymously for "believability". As Karlins and Abelson (1970) have argued all studies of credibility have been underlined by the assumption that the attitude or opinion change produced are the result of the receiver perceiving the dimensions of the source as reinforcing the principle of believability. It seems hardly surprising that, for example, Rogets' International Thesaurus (1976) lists over 100 synonyms for the concept of believability that includes among other things "trust", "confide", "rely on".

Finally, the concept of believability became recognised as the mechanism through which a desired response is produced (Hovland and Weiss (1951)). These researchers found that there was greater opinion change when sources were perceived as believable than when the sources were perceived as not believable.



### 3.4.1 Trustworthiness

Chambers Students' Dictionary (1977) defines a trustworthy person as: "worthy of trust or confidence, dependable, honest, strong, firm".

Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953) propose that trustworthiness should be conceptualised in terms of the degree of confidence a receiver places on the source's "intent" to communicate the assertions he believes in. This intention of the source to communicate had been formulated as a result of a study conducted a year earlier by Hovland and Mandel (1952) involving a message about the devaluation of the dollar; two sources namely the head of an importing firm, who stood to gain from a devaluation, and an economist, delivered the message. Respondents seemed less convinced of a devaluation when they had a suspicion of the source, even though the source presented evidence in support of his views. The overall conclusion was that an "unsuspicious" source achieved more opinion change than a source perceived as "suspicious" (untrustworthy).

DeLozier (1976) supports this view. If the audience believes that the source has underlying motives, especially ones likely to benefit him personally, he will be less persuasive than a source viewed as having nothing to gain, or who is objective. This suggests overall that trustworthiness is anchored mainly on "honesty and objectivity".

Following Hovland, Janis and Kelley, one of the first studies to operationalise trustworthiness, was that by Walster, Aronson and Abrahams (1966). These researchers had hypothesised that what mattered to respondents was their perception of "motives" and "intent" in the source. These researchers used a criminal to argue for and against giving police more power to two groups of respondents. The findings indicated that the group which had heard the communication for more police power, expressed more attitude change in the way desired by the source. It seems that

the group which heard the case against, expressed less opinion change.

Studies of trustworthiness have examined similar types of issues, using similar kinds of manipulations. In short, many still were replication of others and as such will not be discussed here. The interested reader may, however, like to refer to the review article by McGuire (1969).

However, a number of studies investigated different aspects of trustworthiness. One such study is that by Powell and Miller (1967) who used the Red Cross and the matter of donating blood as their issue of study. The chairman of a local American Red Cross branch and a doctor of a large, private hospital were used as the sources of the message, urging respondents to donate blood. The results suggested that respondents evaluated the arguments not so much in terms of the competence of the sources but on the basis of their perceived trustworthiness. The chairman of the local Red Cross branch was able because of this mechanism of evaluation to produce more attitude change than the doctor.

Zogona and Harter (1966) used not so much "real" sources, as messages credited to various sources namely: Surgeon General's Report on Smoking and Health, an article by "Times" magazine on smoking, and an advertisement by the American Tobacco Company. Their trustworthiness ratings were high, medium, and low respectively. The findings led the researchers to conclude that the Surgeon General's Report produced the most opinion change because it was perceived as being more trustworthy than either of the two other sources. This study was the first to suggest that the trustworthiness of a source may still produce an effect even if the source is not present to deliver his message. Also for the first time a source came to include organisations rather than single identifiable individuals.

### 3.4.1.1 Manipulation of trustworthiness effect

While many studies concentrated on determining the extent of the effects produced by a trustworthy source, others focused on the ways by which trustworthiness as an attribute can be manipulated.

In one of the earlier manipulations, Walster and Festinger (1962) deceived respondents into believing that they were 'overhearing' a conversation between two people, one of whom was discussing the harmful effects of smoking. The treatment for another group was varied so that the respondents and the speakers were aware of the presence of the other. The findings indicated that respondents who thought that they had 'overheard' the conversation rated the speaker supporting an anti-smoking position as being more honest than the other group who heard the conversation in an ordinary way. Notwithstanding, the effect on opinion change was limited only to smokers, as against non-smokers.

A few years later, Brock and Becker (1965) used a similar kind of manipulation leading them to conclude that "the power of 'overheard' propaganda is restricted to moving persons in a direction they want to go anyway". As a result of this conclusion, generalisations of studies within this category became strictly limited.

Sereno and Hawkins (1967) however suggest that trustworthiness is of all the attributes, the least likely to be affected by manipulations. These researchers had selected sources that were perceived to be high in one of the credibility dimensions of dynamism, competency (expertness), trustworthiness. The manipulations entailed the presentation of a message by a source, who affected by what was labelled as "non-influencers", such as stuttering, slip-of-the-tongue, constant twitching, etc. The communication dealing with the issue of the Negro cause and the help of the Black Muslims to this cause, was administered to five groups of respondents. The results suggested that other

dimensions were affected, whereas trustworthiness was not. That is, the credibility rating of the trustworthy source seemed to be unaffected by the manipulation. Their conclusion was that trustworthiness might well be the most "critical" factor of source credibility that affected opinion change toward the message.

The overall conclusion of studies which have manipulated trustworthiness is that where a source is perceived to be low in trustworthiness, other attributes may not be sufficient to compensate. The study most often cited in support of this conclusion is that by Smith (1973) who uncovered four credibility factors, namely: trustworthiness, objectivity, competence and dynamism. Smith found that when a source was perceived to be low in trustworthiness, but high in other attributes, this was not sufficient to produce the required attitude change.

The importance of trustworthiness in the credibility rating of a source was demonstrated by Miller and Basehart (1969). Through a number of manipulations, these researchers found that when a source was perceived as trustworthy, respondents rated his message as being fairer and more justified. The fact that respondents had been warned that the message of the trustworthy source contained "opinionated statements" made little impact on their attitude. However, the source perceived as untrustworthy had his message rates as being biased and containing unjustifiable statements not based on facts.

#### 3.4.2 Expertise

An expert is someone said to have been "taught by practice, based on, showing, special knowledge or skill". Or as Bettinghaus (1973) puts it: "the impression the receiver has of the source's competency or training, as it relates to the topic with which the source has been associated". For Bettinghaus, a source perceived as an expert (or to use his term "qualification") would be described as "trained, experienced, skilful, informed,



authoritative, able and intelligent", presumably on a semantic differential scale.

DeLozier (1976) supports Bettinghaus' view but then goes on to emphasise that for the expert source to exercise influence, the topic of the message must be within his field of knowledge. It is this aspect that led McGinnies (1974) to comment that the expert source is perceived by the Listener as processing "accurate and authoritative knowledge of his subject matter".

The researchers who first recognised expertise as the next most important characteristic of credibility were Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953). Based both on their review of the evidence and on their research they conclude that the amount of attitude change produced by a communication can be varied by identifying it to sources that vary on "desirable" dimensions, such as knowledge, education, intelligence, social status, professional attainment, and even age.

However, the effect of an expert source was not confined to credibility studies alone. In an early formulation of the concept of power, Raven and French (1958) found that "expert power" was a significant force in achieving attitude change. Also, Kelman's (1961) proposition of the underlying processes of power recognised that the expertise of a source produced the response required as a result of "internalisation" of the message.

Even before Hovland and his associates at Yale had drawn attention to the influence of expertise, one or two studies had been carried out. The most well-documented is that of Haiman (1949), who investigated the topic of "socialisation medicine". Using students as respondents, the researchers presented three speeches credited to Dr Thomas Parran, the then Surgeon General of the United States, Eugene Dennis, Secretary-General of the Communist Party of the US, and an anonymous University student.



The result of this study showed that the group who thought they had heard the Surgeon-General produced the most attitude change, thus clearly showing the effect of expertise on the listener.

Coleman, Katz and Menzel (1960) also found results similar to those of Haiman. These researchers were investigating the sources of information which influenced physicians' adoption of a new product just being introduced into the market. These researchers found that in general physicians were more influenced by technical journals on the topic than journals aimed at the entire medical profession. The technical journals were seen as covering the topic in more depth and presenting a clear analysis of the evidence for and against the drug.

Criticism has been levelled at the Haiman study, in that it failed to control for any single factor of credibility, like expertise. Therefore by implication, the findings could not be claimed to be the result of any single characteristic. Thus the results could equally imply a lack of trust rather than a lack of perceived expertise.

In order to avoid this shortcoming, other studies have attempted to determine or control the credibility of the source of the communication. Hovland and Weiss (1952), for example, defined credibility in terms of trustworthiness and expertise and selected sources of communication accordingly. The messages were for the following issues: antihistimine drugs, atomic submarines, steel shortage, and the future of the cinema. For each issue, two sources varying on the credibility dimensions defined were used to deliver the message. The results showed that sources varied in their ratings but those perceived as high in credibility tended to produce the most opinion change.

In addition, while studies have generally concentrated on the cognitive component of attitude change, some fairly recent studies

have utilised persuasive measures based on behaviour (including behavioural intentions). One such study is that by Crisci and Kassinove (1973), who hypothesised that an expert source was likely to effect more opinion change than a non-expert. The issue pertained to the way a child should be brought up, with actual parents acting as subjects. On each visit, a parent was introduced to the psychologist who was referred to as either "Mr ..." or "Dr ...". After consultation, the parent was told by the psychologist to post a card with a specified amount of money for a book that explained in detail a child's psychology. Their results showed that parents who had heard the psychologist being introduced as "Dr" were the most likely to have sent in their card. The researchers concluded that the title "Dr" was associated with an expert and as such may have been viewed as "sound and authoritative"; and someone whose recommendation was to be treated as important.

Weick, Gilfillan and Keith (1973) anchored the persuasiveness of expertise to actual behaviour of the respondents. Music students belonging to an orchestra were asked to play a number of scores and divided into groups. Before each score was played, the researcher informed students that it was written either by an expert or a non-expert, referred to as "amateur" or a "non-serious" musician. An analysis of the results indicated that respondents who believed that they were playing the score written by the expert tended to commit less errors than those believing they were playing the score of the amateur. The music score had been the same in all cases. In later rehearsals, however, respondents were informed that the music had been written by the same person and the researchers reported that the differences between the groups disappeared.

At this point, it should be noted that though some studies alleged that they had uncovered new attributes or characteristics, often also labelled differently, a closer inspection suggests that

this is not the case. Applbaum and Anatol (1972) have analysed the situations or contexts in which studies were conducted, hypothesising that they could explain so-called factor differences. Using 31 scales previously tested by other studies, these researchers presented respondents with three types of speaking situations and asked them to rate their "ideal" source in each speaking situation. The results confirmed their hypothesis because in each situation, factors perceived to be important varied.

This finding is important not only to the discussion here but for all the other source characteristics. The study by Berlo, Lemert and Mertz (1969/70) for example uncovered three main dimensions labelled "safety", "qualification" and "dynamism". The first two factors are trustworthiness and expertise respectively because all the scales that were analysed to formulate the new labels were the same. McCroskey (1969) also identified two characteristics which he called "authoritativeness" and "character", which are to all intent and purpose the same as expertise and trustworthiness.

Other studies of credibility, particularly on expertise, have concentrated on the effects of the other elements of the persuasive communication process. Mill and Harvey (1972), for example, using Kelman's (1961) conceptualisation of power, especially expert power, tested their hypothesis that an expert source's arguments would be scrutinised more closely than those of a non-expert. Their treatments included introducing the expert sources before or after the communication has been delivered. The findings suggest that on the whole the expert source's message was more closely scrutinised than that of, say, an "attractive" source. Moreover, it seems that the persuasive impact of the expert source was decreased when introduced after exposure to the communication. These researchers' overall impression was that an expert source produced the desired response through respondents evaluating the

content of their message, which does not apply in the case of an "attractive" source.

Norman's (1976) study extended the argument by hypothesising that an expert source would only be more effective than an attractive source if he provided supporting arguments. The manipulations include partly varying the source's characteristics and the presence versus absence of supporting arguments. Norman found that an attractive but non-expert source generally produced more agreement with his view whether or not supporting arguments were provided. On the other hand, the expert source's effectiveness was greatly determined by the inclusion of what were considered as justifiable arguments in support of his position.

Nevertheless, criticisms have still been levelled at some of these studies because they only attempted partial manipulations. In Horai, Niccari and Fatoullah's (1974) view, studies using only partial treatments can, at best, only be seen as providing "half" the answer to the problem. Combined with the proposition of Applbaum and Anatol (1972) about the effect of context upon the factor structure, this presents a powerful argument about the way these results are interpreted and the extent of their generalisation.

To test for the possibility of only partial answers, Maddux and Rogers (1980) attempted to replicate some of the effects of the source's expertise. First, these researchers argued that, contrary to previous assumptions, an expert source need not necessarily be unattractive. Secondly, they argued that evidence was not always necessary particularly in cases where the topic under discussion was one in which the source was expert. Their findings supported their propositions. On the second argument their findings indicated that a positive relationship emerged between expertise and persuasion. Therefore the presence or absence of



arguments, contrary to Mills and Harvey (1972) was not as impinging upon effectiveness as had been suggested.

Before any firm conclusion can be made about the evidence on expertise, and also by implication other credibility dimensions, it might be useful to examine what Johnson and Scillepi (1969) have said on the subject. These researchers undertook a review of the issues which studies used in their persuasive communication. Their main conclusion was that the large majority of studies were typically characterised by "low ego-involvement" situations on the part of the receivers. Their argument was that in many cases subjects were not sufficiently motivated and thus could not scrutinise the high credibility source. As a result they accepted their messages more readily than they did those of low credibility sources.

To support their review, Johnson and Scillepi conducted a study involving a "high ego-involvement" situation, with sources perceived to be either high or low in credibility, defined in terms of trustworthiness and expertise. On the other hand, ego-involvement was defined in terms of written evaluation to be presented by the subjects (who were students) on the messages presented by the sources. Their results suggested that in a situation where the communication was perceived by subjects as "plausible", there were no significant differences in the attitude change obtained between the high and low credibility sources. This result led the researchers to conclude that respondents generally perceive the message rather than the source as the evaluative set influencing acceptance or rejection of what is being desired.

Support for these researchers comes from Rhine and Severance (1970). Using a similar kind of framework to Johnson and Scillepi, these researchers found that credibility varied in importance in line with the degree of ego-involvement. That is,



the higher the ego-involvement the more important the content of the message became. Moreover, the results also indicated that the discrepancy between the message and the receiver's point of view dictated the extent to which the attributes of the source played a part in the influence process.

Extending the argument further, Birnham and Stegner (1979) sought to determine the extent to which, in a high ego-involving situation, the effect of expertise was minimised. Purchasers of second-hand cars were used as subjects and were confronted by either an expert source who clearly stated his neutrality in the purchase decision or an expert source who identified himself as a friend of the seller. The researchers observed that the expert source who was perceived to be neutral was far more effective than the expert perceived to have an interest in the purchase decision. The researchers concluded that respondents may have regarded the message of the expert source with interest in the purchase decision to have included biased statements not based on his experience or training.

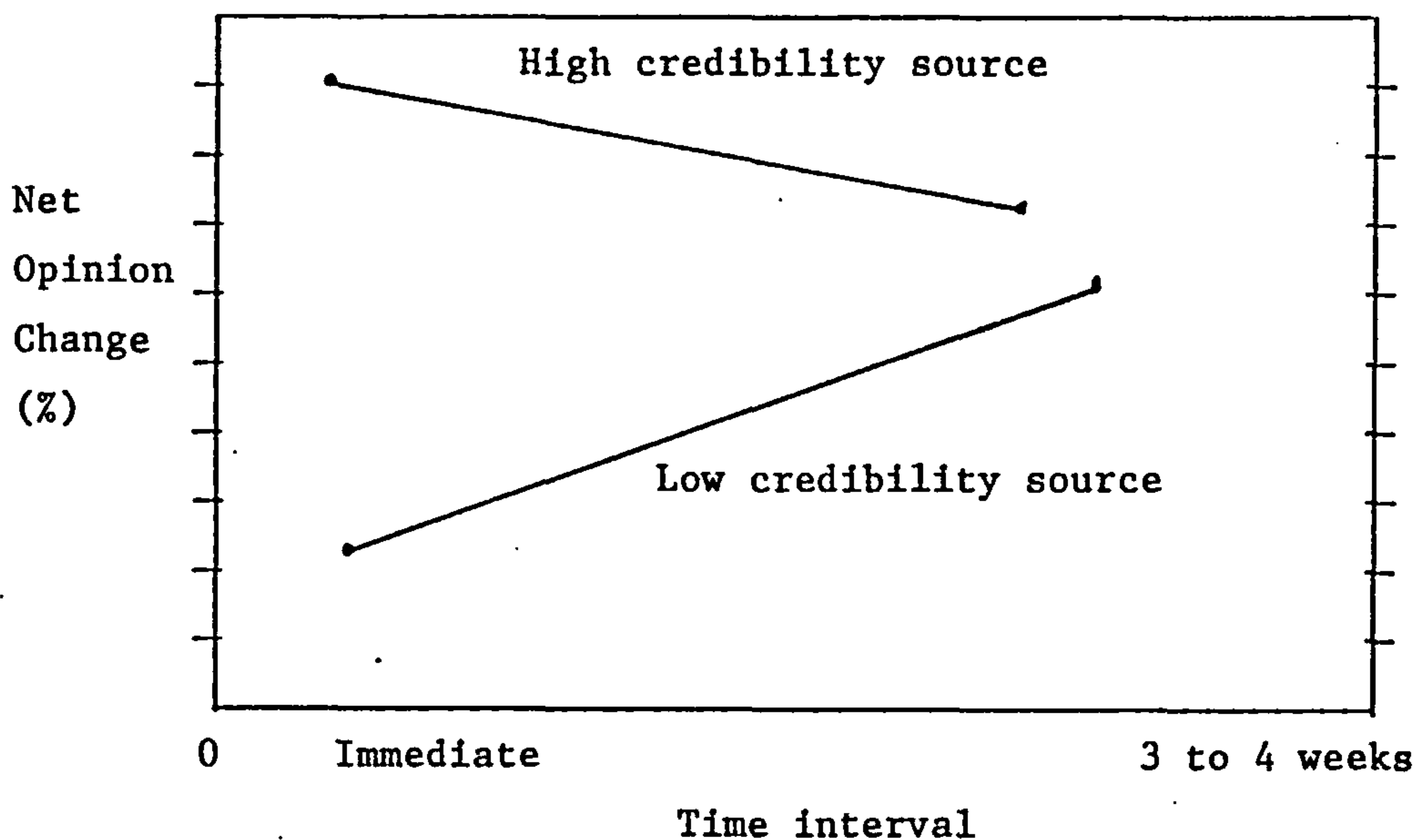
Finally, Plax and Rosenfeld (1980) expressed concern about the absence of any mention of the characteristics of the receivers in the effects produced. To demonstrate the hypothesis that the characteristics of receivers play an equally important part in what attributes of the source are perceived as significant, these researchers set up a small study. Levels of the source's credibility were varied in relation to controlled receiver variables, such as sex, age, etc. An analysis of the results showed that the effects produced between groups tended to vary according to the level of the credibility of the source. While the researchers did not obtain any significant results, they commented that overall sources perceived to be credible were more effective in all the groups. They then suggest that future research will have to determine the extent to which the receiver's characteristics

interact with the degree of credibility possessed by a source to produce different kinds of responses.

### 3.4.3 Credibility and the "sleeper effect"

The sleeper effect concept was the result of the study by Hovland and Weiss (1952) discussed earlier. In addition to the responses produced by sources perceived as high and low in credibility, these researchers were interested in finding out the durability of the effects produced. After a period of four weeks, respondents (students) who had taken part in their study were approached once again about the topic of the message. The results indicated that respondents who had heard the communication from the high credibility source had shown a decrease in their attitude change, whereas those who had heard the message from a low credibility source had shown a slight positive change, an increase, in their opinion. This was illustrated as follows:

Figure 3.2: An illustration of the "Sleeper effect"



Hovland and Weiss put forward the explanation that there had been equal learning of the content by the two groups of respondents, despite the fact that the arguments of the credible source were more readily accepted. It seems that after a period of time there was a "disassociation of source and content", so that the initial resistance shown toward the low credible source had disappeared and allowed a greater acceptance of the remembered message.

Several other studies have obtained similar results. However, one is worthy of special mention because of its modification of the original treatment. This study, by Kelman and Hovland (1953), presented identical communication on the treatment of juvenile delinquents to 330 secondary school students. The presentations were varied, mainly in the "introduction" given by the moderator to the source. The introduction took one of the following forms: the source was "well informed and fair"; the source was "informed but neutral"; and the source was "poorly informed and biased". Opinion questionnaires were administered before the communication, immediately afterward, and three weeks later. Those answering the questionnaire three weeks later were divided into two groups, with one hearing the original transcription of the message, whereas the other did not.

The analysis of the results obtained indicates that the group which had the message of the source "reinstated" continued to show the same kind of opinion change, whereas those who had not had a reinstatement showed less opinion change. The conclusion reached by Kelman and Hovland was that the absence of reinstatement may have increased the effects of forgetting. Hence, the implication was that reinstatement of the source had the effect of improving the respondent's memory.

Triandis (1971) however offers a word of caution in respect of the way the findings on the sleeper effect are interpreted.

Citing Kelman and Hovland's study above as a special case in point Triandis went on to comment:

"Yet there are doubts that the effects are anything more than what one might expect from the demand characteristics of the experimental situation. When the audience is reminded of the high prestige guy who delivered the talk, this is not like a suggestion that they better show greater attitude change."

### 3.5 'Attractiveness' of the source

It was noted earlier that though credibility studies had identified attributes that are now regarded as part of attractiveness, they either ignored their contribution to the effects produced or simply labelled them as "irrelevant aspects" of the source. The term irrelevant reflected the underlying assumption that the concept was not a suitable topic for academic study. Moreover, to have accepted that an "attractive" source could produce opinion change would have required the reformulation of the mechanism by which attitude change is achieved.

However, there were other reasons, the most important of which relates to determining what exactly attractiveness stands for to the average receiver. Chambers Students' Dictionary (1977) lists the word "attract" which it defines as: "to draw (to): to cause to approach: to allure: to draw forth". In short, somebody described as attractive would, by implication, have the "power" to draw others to him. However, determining what it is that draws others into the attractive source is not only totally subjective and often difficult to specify in precise terms (hence possibly the adage: "Beauty is in the eyes of the beholder") but seems likely to draw researchers into undefined areas of research. Indeed, it is this possibility that may have caused so many researchers to investigate aspects of attractiveness, such as similarity, familiarity and liking, more amenable to being specified.



The first researchers to draw attention to the concept of attractiveness, which they called "irrelevant characteristics of the source", were Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953). However, their proposition was that these characteristics served as an extra element in the respondent's rating of the credibility level of the source. This gave credence to the traditional view that the underlying mechanism by which attitude change was effected by the source, was by "believability". Hence, for example, the characteristic known as "similarity", was defined mainly in terms of the "educational level", "background", "interests", etc, of the source, all of which increased their trustworthiness or expertise rating.

Aronson and Golden (1962) were the first to argue that researchers should rethink their conceptualisation of so-called irrelevant characteristics. Further, that the part these played to credibility was much more than had been acknowledged and moreover by failing to recognise the role played by attractiveness (however defined), researchers were unwittingly contributing to the proposition that "audiences were composed of reasonable people" who were responsible solely to "objectively relevant" aspects of the source.

A few years later Aronson (1969) reviewed the literature to determine the extent to which their recommendation had been heeded by other researchers. Aronson observed that researchers had continued to ignore several aspects of attractiveness, especially physical attraction, because of the continuing axiom that in a democratic society, all that matters is "hard work and a good deal of motivation".

Triandis (1971) sees the mechanism producing attractiveness as a "circular process", containing three attributes namely, similarity, familiarity and liking. Triandis' argument is that this circular relationship is one that should be emphasised in any investigation of attractiveness. In doing so, he gives credence



to Mills' (1969) proposition that attractiveness basically consists of "those attributes of the source that are not directly and objectively material to the topic under consideration".

Others have taken a much narrower view of attractiveness. Stone and Eswara (1969), for example, conclude that attractiveness is composed largely of the attribute labelled "likeable". Moreover in situations where the source was not being evaluated in terms of either trustworthiness or expertise, then respondents evaluate him in terms of the degree to which he was likeable. This process itself they argued was predicated on the perceived "self interest" of the source.

Percy and Rossiter (1980) review the literature to date and suggest that the evidence supports Triandis' proposition that there are basically three components to attractiveness; but this support only manages to maintain the traditional school of thought, particularly in choosing not to mention the evidence to date on "physical attractiveness". Moreover, as Dion and Berscheid (1974) point out, it seems curious that so important an aspect of the source could be ignored when, in the absence of any other information, physical appearance is one of the "first bits of information which can be obtained about him, even before actual interaction is initiated".

### 3.5.1 Similarity

One of the first identified attributes of attractiveness was similarity. It was seen as that element that made the receiver recognise that he has something in common with the source. Therefore, though not directly material to the content of the source's message, it helps to produce the attitude change desired by the source.

Ewing's (1942) study was perhaps the first to mention that similarity appeared to have some effect on respondents' attitude.

During his communication to two groups of students, he told one group that the source's background was the same as theirs, and the other group that the source was from a different background. Respondents hearing the source said to have a similar background produced more attitude change than those who thought they had heard communication from a source with a different background. However, Ewing concluded that similarity as an irrelevant aspect seemed to act as an aid to the perceived expertise of the source.

The same approach was followed by Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953) who were interested in identifying factors which led receivers to perceive sources as being similar. They identified a range of factors including the educational level, age, sex, status, etc, of the source. Their various studies led them also to conclude that similarity increased the credibility of the source and hence effectiveness.

Rogers (1969) formulated a principle known as "homophily", defined as the state of being similar. His results indicated that when a source was perceived as being similar he was more acceptable and his message more effective. The opposite, "heterophily", where a source was perceived as dissimilar, led to the source being less accepted and to a careful scrutiny of his message. Simons, Berkowitz and Moyer (1970) confirmed Rogers thesis, adding also that similarity leads to the source being perceived as "personally attractive", which in turn influences attitudes.

Several factors said to make a source similar to a receiver have been investigated over the years. Weiss (1957) for example manipulated the content of the message so that the source would include views known to be supported by the respondents. Another source delivered the same message but without including such similar views. The results indicate that receivers who perceived the source to hold similar views to theirs were more likely to accept the remainder of their communication than the source who did

not share similar views. Berscheid's (1966) study obtained similar results.

Another similarity aspect between the source and the receiver that has received some attention is that related to personality. Byrne and Griffitt (1969), for example, selected respondents on the basis of personality traits and had sources varying on these personality traits deliver the messages. The results showed that receivers were responsive to both similar and dissimilar source personality traits. The researchers observed that response seemed to occur independently of verbalisations concerning the similarity between the source and receiver. Moreover, they concluded that personality similarity seems to be independent of the accuracy with which it is perceived in the experimental setting. There was, they noted, a relatively automatic mechanism whereby the receiver's response was determined by a series of cues associated with the source.

Mills and Kimble (1973) obtained similar results. These researchers used personality differences to determine the extent to which these would influence female students' ranking of poetry. Individual ranking scores said to have been made by other groups of students were also made available to these respondents. Their findings indicated that respondents were more influenced by the judgements of the other group of students than with the supposedly different personality traits of the source. The reason advanced for this was that respondents were more interested in what others similar to themselves have said about the poetry than what the source who is dissimilar has said.

Earlier, Weiss (1957) was discussed and it was seen that inclusion of views shared by receivers increased the effectiveness of the source. However, other studies have operationalised views in terms of specific attitudes and have then gone on to examine the effects of the interaction of attitude similarity on other factors

such as expertise, physical attractiveness, race, etc, on producing the desired response. Attitude was generally defined in terms of the topic of the communication.

One study that investigated this aspect, was that by Byrne, London and Reeves (1968). This study hypothesised that liking for a source (regarded as the end product of attractiveness), was determined more by attitude similarity than by "physical attractiveness". Respondents were shown photographs of a total stranger, being either physically attractive or unattractive, and were told that the stranger's attitudes were similar or dissimilar. The results were not clear cut because they suggested both physical attractiveness and attitude similarity seemed to have influenced respondents' liking for the source (stranger).

Hendrick, Stikes and Murray (1972) sought to identify the extent to which attitude similarity and the race of the source acted as determinants of attitude change. Using sources who varied in attitude and race, the researchers asked 22 white students to indicate, on provided rating scales, the degree to which they agreed with each source, their degree of liking for each and their general favourability toward them. The results showed that respondents regarded attitude similarity as more important than either racial or ethnic membership. Furthermore, "original" views held by respondents were changed more by attitude similarity than by racial considerations.

However, Singh (1973) hypothesised that attractiveness was determined largely by attitude and personality similarity of the source and receiver. His focus was the extent of the effects of attitudes and personality traits on "interpersonal attraction" and the degree to which their relative weighting properties could be inferred. The results did not confirm the hypothesis because they suggested that, on the contrary, attitude similarity played a greater part in the response produced than personality similarity.



Therefore, Singh argued, attitude similarity played a far more important role in interpersonal attraction because of "the relative magnitude of its reinforcement components".

Other researchers have concentrated on the "economic" similarity of the source and receiver. Byrne, Clore and Worchel (1966) for example sought to determine the effects of economic similarity on the attractive ratings of various sources. Respondents heard communications from sources who were supposedly similar or dissimilar economically to the respondents. The researchers concluded that a source perceived as similar economically to the respondents was more effective and obtained higher attraction rating than the dissimilar source.

Earlier, Brock (1965) attempted to determine the influence of similarity on the purchase decision. Buyers of paint were approached by a salesman who informed them that his consumption rate of paint was either higher or similar to theirs. The results indicated that respondents changed their minds about which brand to buy more when told by the salesman that his paint consumption was similar, than by the salesman with a dissimilar paint usage. The reason for this, argued Brock, was because customers perceived the salesman, with a similar paint consumption, as having the same kind of economic background as themselves.

Grush, Clore and Lostin (1975) however suggest that not all similarity attributes are important, regardless of the reported findings. Using Byrne's (1971) study, which had shown that similarity functions mainly by the principle of "reinforcement", Grush et al designed a study to show that perceived dissimilarity does not necessarily lead to the source being regarded as less attractive. Students were used as respondents and were asked to evaluate a number of sources (teachers) who varied on "role-relevant traits" (defined mainly in terms of their positions and personal relations). The researchers concluded from their



findings that far from being perceived as less attractive, sources who were dissimilar to respondents on "role-relevant traits" obtained higher scores in the degree to which they are liked, than sources similar on these traits. In addition, it was found that those who were similar or dissimilar to respondents on "irrelevant" traits (mainly sociability and cautiousness) were not regarded differently in terms of the degree to which they were liked.

Before the above study, however, Berscheid (1966) had offered an explanation as to which type of similarity attribute influenced the source's personal attraction and in turn produces the desired attitude change. Unlike other findings which had inadvertently fostered the assumption that any similarity between the source and receiver was likely to result in attitude change, Berscheid's study determined similarity attributes which were important and the extent to which similarity, with physical attractiveness controlled, increased the source's effectiveness; and also, the extent to which similarities regarded as relevant to the source's influence attempt were more effective than similarities considered as irrelevant. The first conclusion was that a specific similarity attribute was only of importance or significance if seen as relevant by the source and the receiver. Secondly, a dissimilarity attribute of the source only reduced attractiveness if it was perceived by the receiver as relevant to the influence attempt. Finally, the findings indicated that only a source with a dissimilarity attribute that was regarded as irrelevant to the persuasion attempt produced the least opinion change.

Secord and Backman (1974) support the above qualification and argue also that similarity should be seen in terms of "rewards and costs" as the basis for determining why a given similarity attribute produces the required response. These authors draw on three factors for their view: firstly, that a similarity attribute should produce a "balanced state" in a receiver, in line with Heider's (1946) proposition; secondly, that a similarity attribute

should produce a "reward" for both the source and receiver; and finally, a similarity attribute should produce an "anticipation" of being liked. These requirements are, argued Secord and Blackman, present in most of the studies that have examined aspects of similarity between the source and receiver.

### 3.5.2 Familiarity

Simply put, to be familiar with someone (or something) means to be well acquainted with them. In the words of the dictionary: "showing the manner of an intimate, unceremonious: having a thorough knowledge of". Therefore, to be familiar with someone means to know him reasonably well.

In his extensive review of the literature, McGuire (1969) commented that the evidence suggests that familiarity between the source and receiver is a major factor contributing to the liking of the source. In addition, McGuire concluded that the evidence suggests that there was a positive relationship between familiarity and liking.

Zajonc (1968) also argued that sources used tended to be those who were familiar, in some respects, to the receivers. Further, familiarity seems to result even after one exposure and is sufficient to produce liking. Byrne (1969) has added that a standard practice, in all studies, was to introduce the source as having come from the same background or population as the respondents.

Saegert, Swap and Zajonc (1973) examined the effects of mere exposure and used both human and non-human stimuli. The results of this study showed that exposure of a stimulus object was likely to lead to liking, once it had become familiar. Furthermore, these researchers found that such effects applied equally to both human and non-human stimuli.

Though exposure was assumed to be the single most important way of making the source familiar to the receiver, other

researchers examined other ways by which it could be achieved. Brickman, Meyer and Fredd (1975), for example, investigated the extent to which an unknown source's (stranger) thought processes influenced the acceptance or rejection of a message, when those thought processes were either familiar or unfamiliar to the receivers. Sources presented messages varying on thought processes that had easier associations and those having difficult associations. The findings suggested that a source with thought processes that were familiar and had easier associations, was far more liked than the source with thought processes that were not familiar. In addition, it seems that repeated exposure of the source with the unfamiliar thought processes caused their being evaluated positively because they come to be regarded by the receivers as having something similar.

Triandis(1971) argues that familiarity is only important because of its part as a factor influencing liking for the source. This view has wide support in the general literature.

Even the recent text by Percy and Rossiter (1980) has acknowledged that familiarity is an important factor producing liking for the source. Consequently, it is suggested that this attribute cannot be treated in isolation and that it has generally been investigated with the other attributes of attractiveness. Moreover, it appears that the issues said to influence the effects produced by similarity would also apply to familiarity. Hence, like similarity, the underlying problem of familiarity is determining which type of familiarity of the source is most effective. The suggestion that familiarity varied from one setting to the next, only serves to make it more complex to understand.

### 3.5.3 Liking (Likeability)

Triandis (1971), as was noted earlier, has argued that liking is the end product of a circular process and that it is the mechanism by which attractiveness produces the desired response.

This view is also shared by McGuire (1969), whose review confirms that liking is the end result of similarity and familiarity.

DeLozier (1976) discussed the concept of liking in more detail. Briefly, he posits that liking is affected by four factors, namely: initial impressions, from which "people tend to make broad generalisations about others on the basis of very little information"; familiarity, with constant interaction, people get to like each other; rewards; and similarity to the receiver. All these factors lead to a source becoming liked.

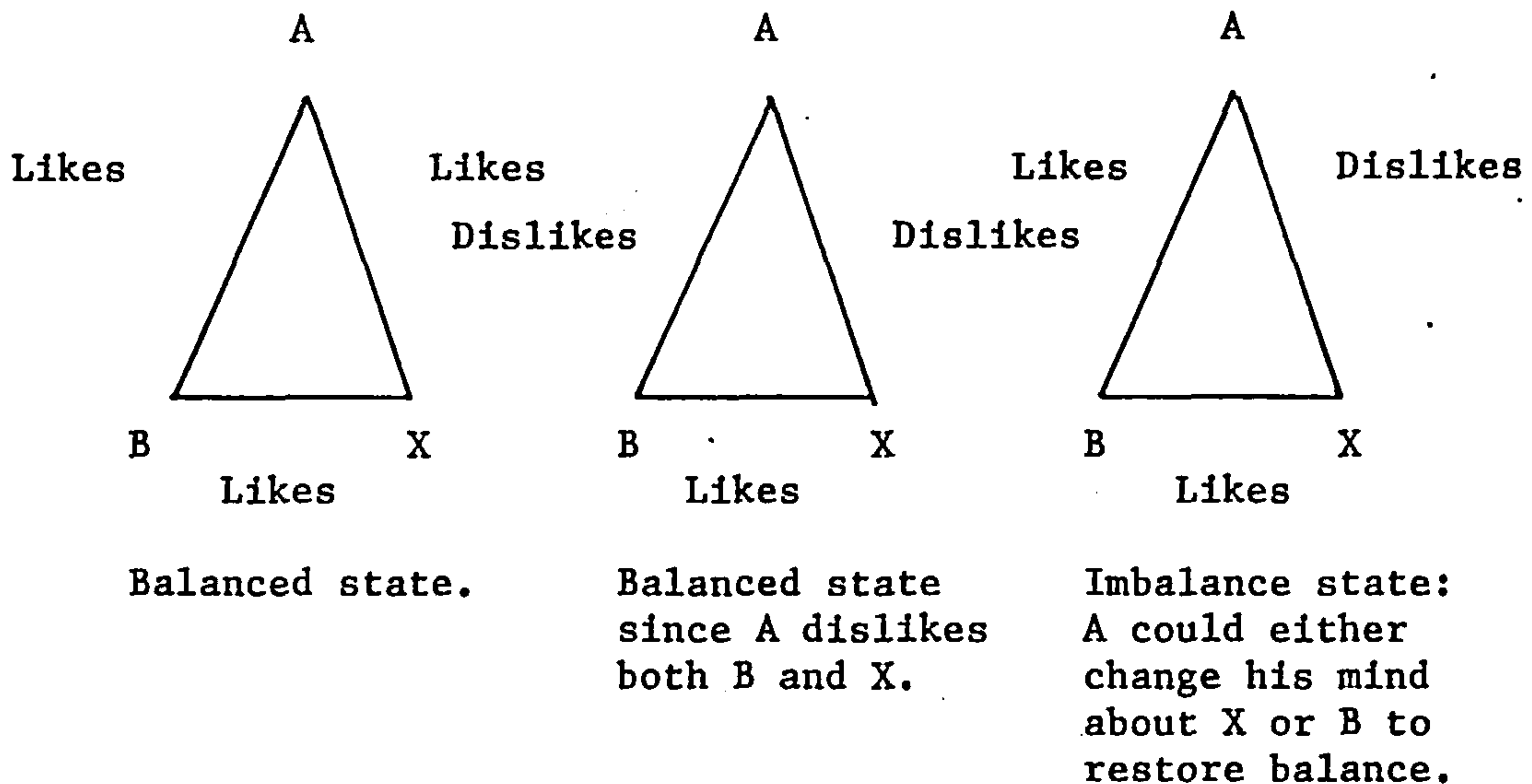
Heider's (1946) balance theory is one of the earliest formulations about the process leading to source being liked. Briefly, the underlying proposition of the theory is that every human being strives to achieve a balanced state (be it mental or physical). A state of imbalance causes an individual some discomfort, which he then tries to eliminate by means that are generally known.

However, it was Newcomb (1963) who extended Heider's theory leading to what is now known simply as the "A to B re X" notion. Newcomb simplified the proposition to the relationship between two individuals and an "object" (broadly defined to include both animate and inanimate objects). If individual A likes individual B, who likes object (or person) X, then individual A also has to 'like' X for there to be a balanced state. This has often been presented as shown overleaf.

A similar proposition has been proposed by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955), known as the "congruity principle". This suggests that a similar mechanism to that of Heider's comes into play whenever an individual is confronted by something, or someone who is different. In such a case, the individual is faced with an incongruous situation. Therefore, to restore congruity the individual, using the above analogy, would have to either downgrade his opinion of individual B or to upgrade his opinion of X.



Figure 3.3: "A to B re X" Notion



However, a qualification seems to be where the individual perceives the other individual (or his message) to be unbelievable. In such an instance, he can simply reject the other individual or what he has to say without necessarily changing his attitude. Where there is only partial disbelief (or broadly translated also, dislike) then the individual may modify his attitude slightly so as to accommodate the other individual or his message.

In a review of the available evidence, Mills (1969) concludes that liking for the source was the single most important attribute of attractiveness influencing attitude change. In general, there is support for the common sense notion that a liked source is more effective than a disliked source in a variety of formal and informal circumstances (see the following studies, for example: Schachter, Ellerston, McBride and Gregory, 1951; Tannenbaum, 1956; Charters and Newcomb, 1958; Newcomb 1961; Cohn, Yee and Brown, 1961).

One study that seems to be regarded by most researchers as a standard piece of work on the effects of liking is the study by Zimbardo, Weisenberg, Firestone and Levy (1965). This study is



worthy of special mention because it has provided the framework for other research on the attitudes of attractiveness.

The respondents of this study were army reservists and the source of the message, a brigade commander, who was trained to act according to a particular set of role requirements. As a liked source, he was to be polite, informal, considerate and pleasant, whereas as a disliked source he was to be "snobbish", demanding, tactless, bossy, cold and formal. In both cases, however, the source was to be seen as "conscientious, capable, well organised, industrious, and concerned" about respondents' reactions.

During the experiment, respondents were asked by the source to eat a highly disliked food, namely fried grasshoppers. The degree to which they conformed and their liking for the food was measured both before and after the 'experience'. The result indicated that those who complied with the request of the source not liked seemed to increase their liking for the food much more than those who complied with the request of the liked source. The conclusion of the researchers was that "cognitive dissonance" theory could account for this behaviour, given that respondents could only account for their behaviour by claiming to have changed their mind about grasshoppers rather than about the source (disliked).

Eagly and Chaiken (1975) examined the evidence on liking, and hypothesised that it played a major role in attraction, particularly in conditions where respondents had "no choice", but that in situations of choice its importance decreased markedly. Their hypothesis was upheld by their results which also suggested that both liked and disliked sources were persuasive when advocating positions that were perceived as desirable by respondents. Further, liked sources were more persuasive than disliked sources when the positions being advocated were not desirable ones.

In a review of the literature, Eagly, Wood and Chaiken (1978) showed why there was so much conflicting evidence on liking. Using "attribution theory", which basically argues that instead of attributing effects of liking to cognitive dissonance it could be attributed to the individual's observation and analysis of his own behaviour, these researchers sought to identify why disliked sources were more persuasive than liked sources. The first conclusion was that the theories that had been used were inadequate as a framework for the results obtained. An example of a study under this heading is that by Walster, Aronson and Abrahams (1966). A criminal, also said to be disliked, had been used to argue against, what seemed like, his own self-interest and was very effective in obtaining the desired response (attitude change). The only explanation provided was that the lack of "motive" on the part of the source caused respondents to perceive him as being genuine or trustworthy. But, argue Eagly et al, the discrepancy could not be explained and had these researchers used attribution theory they would have been able to see the response in terms of the respondents own perspective. Moreover, any explanation of discrepancy resides almost entirely on analysing the context of the situation in which the communication is presented. Specifically, such an analysis should concentrate on whether respondents were presented with a choice in their response since a number of studies, such as those by Jones and Brehm (1967), and Himmerlfarb and Arazi (1974), had shown that choice acted as a "mediating factor" in whether or not the desired response results.

Finally, there is some evidence suggesting that a disliked source is not so much ineffective as causes the respondent to move in a direction opposite to that intended by the message, referred to as the "boomerang effect". In a study by Abelson and Miller (1967), for example, respondents were recruited in the park. A member of the research team, made to appear like any other park visitor, became involved in a debate with another individual at the instigation of a supposedly "roving reporter". The confederate

was required to make disparaging remarks about the opinions expressed by selected participants. Measures obtained before and after the debate indicated that, unlike many laboratory studies, insulted participants shifted their attitudes in a direction opposite to that of the influence attempt. Consequently, this has been cited by many researchers as indicative of the suggestion that the effect produced by a disliked source is in direct contrast to that he may have been desiring.

#### 3.5.4 Physical Attraction

Physical attraction as an attribute has not been fully integrated into the overall framework of 'dimensions of attractiveness'. Some of the reasons have already been briefly mentioned, although it should be noted that researchers' own academic backgrounds have played an important part in this present state of affairs. Aside of the difficulties of ascertaining what attributes exactly constitute the term, there is the view that the subject borders on "sexual" matters.

Attraction is defined as: "appeal; allure; having the power to cause to approach"; and many others. Given this, a physically attractive person would be regarded as someone who on the basis of his physical make-up (his size, weight, height, body posture, etc) is able to cause others to find him desirable or likeable. This illustrates part of the overall problem underlying the attribute.

Despite these problems, a warning was voiced by Giffin (1967) over a decade ago that researchers should not ignore it as an important attribute of "personal attraction" of the source. His argument was based on the fact that the difficulty in measuring the attribute was not a sufficient reason for ignoring it given that most measuring instruments are themselves "totally subjective". This point has also been raised by Aronson (1969) who noted that the problem was finding out what qualities to include when measuring the attribute, given that it is individually-based, and



that it is unlikely for any two individuals to perceive the same qualities when agreeing that a source is physically attractive.

However, there have been efforts to provide understanding of the concept, especially by Berscheid and her associates. Nevertheless, such efforts have been treated as outside the mainstream of the social persuasion literature and cited only infrequently in general discussions of "attractiveness", per se.

Byrne, Loudon and Reeves (1968) conducted a study to find out the factors influencing respondents to perceive a given source as physically attractive. Attitude questionnaires supposedly completed by strangers were given to respondents (college students), who were then asked to form an opinion about each stranger based on the attitudinal responses they had provided. The researchers hypothesised that similarity played an important part in the way a physically attractive source was perceived, and thus varied the scales so that the stranger would be attitudinally similar or dissimilar. Respondents were shown photographs of male or female strangers who were physically either attractive or unattractive. The responses showed that when the stranger was attitudinally similar and physically attractive, he/she was generally described as more likeable than when the stranger was dissimilar but physically attractive. Furthermore, it was found that a source who was both physically attractive and attitudinally similar was perceived to be more likeable than one perceived as attitudinally similar but physically unattractive.

Berscheid and Walster (1974) posit that the underlying problem of studies purporting to examine aspects of physical attraction has been their own acceptance that a given source is physically attractive. More often than not, respondents were not asked as to whether they regarded sources to be used in the study as physically attractive or unattractive. Moreover, these researchers observed that, though there is generally a high degree of agreement about

who is attractive or unattractive, there were, undoubtedly, individual differences in the way one appearance was judged against another. In short, they conclude that the attribute is in many ways a "homely" variable and that furthermore:

"Psychologists cannot be given credit for the discovery of a hitherto unknown factor which may have important consequences for an individual's life opportunities, for his personality, and for his modes of interaction with other people."

Zimbardo, Weisenberg, Firestone and Levy (1965) ensured that the source of the communication to the army reservists was one that was "physically attractive (likeable)". Despite the fact that this had been an underlying feature of the study, many researchers have deliberately failed to mention it as a factor contributing to the response that resulted (particularly in the case where respondents adhered to the wishes of the so-called "likeable" source). The original researchers themselves had clearly specified the fact that the source's attractiveness was varied in terms of his kindness, his "appearance", manner, etc.

Recently, Cavior and Doeckki (1973) investigated the extent to which respondents' ratings of physical attraction were consistent or reliable. In examining the qualities listed, the researchers found that overall there was consistency in "body type" of ratings. This finding has been supported by a number of other researchers, such as McCullers and Stoa (1974), and also Terry (1975), who conclude that body cues such as height, physique, facial make-up, appear to be more generalisable particularly when judging a physically attractive source.

However, a review of the evidence by Maruyama and Miller (1981) led them to conclude that in many of the studies judgement of physical attraction was influenced by the individuals who were being rated. The issue that seems to have caused disagreement concerns the terms to be included in a rating scale of attractiveness. The problem is complicated by the evidence suggesting that



qualities or terms included would be determined largely by respondents using the rating scale. This in turn is influenced by the extent to which respondents perceive themselves as being attractive or unattractive. Finally, the evidence suggests also that the physical attractiveness of the source acts as a sort of "reinforcer".

Other evidence about the effects of personal attraction include the suggestions that it makes a "powerful" and "favourable" impression on the receiver (see, for example, Krebs and Adolfini, 1975; and Landy and Sigall, 1974); that it causes a source to be better remembered (Kleck and Rubenstein, 1975); that its influence on respondents is itself determined by the extent to which the source is familiar with the respondents (Berscheid and Walster, 1974); and finally, that sources with "highly valued" physical characteristics tend to be rated as more sociable and pleasant than sources without such valued characteristics; and such sources tended to be regarded by respondents as individuals with whom they would prefer to interact (see for instance Stroebe, Insko, Thompson and Layton, 1971; Kleck and Rubenstein, 1975).

These studies are yet to be fully organised and integrated into the general social persuasion literature, especially on source effect. Personal attraction has yet to be considered as an important attribute of attractiveness.

### 3.5.5 Other attributes of attractiveness

A review of the general literature indicated that there were other attributes that do not fall into any one of the above but which can be legitimately considered as part of attractiveness. DeLozier (1976), for example, has loosely referred to these as the "other dimensions of source credibility", which he argues are "factors which are not very obvious".

In an earlier discussion of source credibility, it was observed that many researchers had identified characteristics which were either said to enhance the credibility dimensions of trustworthiness and expertise or were simply regarded as "irrelevant aspects" of the source. This had the implication that these aspects or attributes could not on their own effect the desired response nor make the source "credible" (believable).

Much later, some of these aspects or attributes came to be considered as different aspects of "attractiveness", as shown earlier. Others, however, like personal attraction have remained on the periphery of the discussion.

An example of this trend is the classic study by Aronson and Golden (1962). These researchers set out to examine the relative effectiveness of relevant and irrelevant attributes of the source upon attitude change. Irrelevant aspects were defined in terms of such things as sex, age, race, appearance, dress, accent, etc. Sources were varied along these attributes. The results indicated that in general all sources produced some attitude change in receivers. However, receivers who were, for example, racially biased regarded black sources as being less attractive and low in credibility.

The assumption of this study had been that any effects produced would be the result of the credibility (believability) of the source. This explains why the researchers then went on to interpret the findings, particularly on irrelevant attributes, in terms of the extent to which they could be compared to the dimensions of trustworthiness and expertise. It was this study that led to the proposition that a trustworthy or expert source was relatively more effective than a source who had neither of these attributes, and relied almost entirely on his "skin colour", age, sex, etc.

Friggens (1974) has reviewed the literature of attractiveness and noted that things like voice, accent, dress, mannerism of the source act as "relevant signs" to the receiver on which they can be evaluated. This suggestion had also been earlier confirmed by Triandis (1971) who posited that these aspects had been regarded as part of the source's status but which had been implicitly assumed to increase the "attractiveness" (likeability) of the source.

France (1973) hypothesised that the voice of a source influenced respondents, particularly those who thought that it was indicative of having come from a different background. A tape-recorded message was presented to respondents, who consisted of 128 white and 124 black school children. Two sources, with different voices, gave instructions on how a given task should be carried out. The voices were clearly distinguishable as those of a white person and that of a black man. The findings indicated that the black respondents performed their tasks equally well, whereas the white respondents performed badly on the instructions given by the black source. However, these respondents performed well on the voice identifiable with the white source.

Page and Balloum (1978) slightly varied this treatment. These researchers hypothesised on the basis of correlational studies and "anecdotal" evidence, that the source's voice "volume and intonation" would lead listeners to infer various personality characteristics about him such as aggressiveness, dominance, etc. 63 male and female students were made to listen to a taped interview of a female respondent who answered questions in low, moderate or high voice volume. Respondents indicated that they regarded the source with the loud voice as "aggressive" and lacking in "self-assurance". On the other hand, the source with the low voice was perceived as self-assured and "sociable".

McGinley, Le Feure and McGinley (1975) have also argued that there are other attributes of attractiveness, varying in importance

and likely to be exhibited in some, rather than all, situations. In general, they argue that these attributes may include all factors that make a given source more attractive but that these have yet to be systematically identified and studied. Subsequently these researchers found that the body posture, for example, of the source influenced the extent to which their message was accepted. In addition, it was found that the source who adopted what was called the "open body position" (that is, moving slightly while delivering the speech/message) was more successful in obtaining agreement than the source who adopted the "closed body position" (no movement). Finally, it was found that the source with the "open body position" had been described as attitudinally similar by respondents, who also described him as "active, evaluatively positive and more potent" than a source who had maintained a closed-body position.

DeLozier (1976), on the other hand, argues that there are broad attributes which serve to increase the persuasiveness of the source. Some of these attributes are similar to others discussed earlier. They include the following:

- (a) A source having a similar view as the audience.
- (b) A source who expressed a similar position to that of the audience.
- (c) A source who had something in common or similar with the audience.
- (d) The source's image in relation to his message.
- (e) The source's attitude toward himself, his message, and his audience.

Though DeLozier discusses these and other attributes in terms of the contribution they could make to the relative persuasiveness of the source, he discussed them separately from the main credibility dimensions of trustworthiness and expertise. Moreover, overall discussion seems to indicate that these attributes make a



source more likeable or attractive. This can also be inferred from the discussion suggesting that they are considered as "irrelevant aspects" of the source.

In summary, it appears that there are other attributes that do not fall into any one of the other attributes of attractiveness but which nevertheless may be considered as aspects of attractiveness. These attributes of attractiveness have yet to be fully identified and integrated into the general literature of attractiveness. The loose evidence as it now exists, suggests that they may play a part, albeit of secondary importance, in the extent to which a source is perceived as generally attractive or unattractive. The fact, for example, that the large majority of studies, particularly the earlier ones, had ensured that their sources were not in any way out of the "ordinary" attests to the fact that some attributes (such as skin colour, race, etc) may influence the final response of the receiver.

### 3.6 Power as a source characteristic

Before the emergence of Hovland and his associates at Yale, and their promulgation of the concept of credibility, there was in existence a school of thought that basically argued that effects of a source resided in the "power" they exercised. This was generally referred to as "social power".

One of the most clear explanations of social power has been offered by Secord and Backman (1974) as follows:

"Social power is a property of a relationship between two or more persons and is best understood in terms of exchange theory. A tentative definition of social power is that the power of person P over person O is a joint function of his capacity for affecting the outcomes of person O relative to his own outcomes."

This conceptualisation of power underlines most of the discussions to date by researchers in this field.

An alternative view, however, sees power in a narrower sense, being dependent almost entirely on the ability of the person to "force" (no matter how defined) others to do what he wishes. Mills (1969), for example, is a proponent of this school and describes it as: "the ability to restrict our freedom of action, to induce us to do things we do not like to do". Consequently, power is perceived as the obverse of persuasion and more similar to "coercion".

Making a case for the view that power is socially derived, Secord and Backman (1974) review the evidence and argue that power of the individual is determined by three "properties", as follows:

- (a) "Resource" - a conditional state of an individual (a possession, an attribute of appearance or personality, etc) which enables him to modify the "rewards and costs" experienced by another person.
- (b) "Dependency" - the dependency of the other person on him which is likely to vary with the situation.
- (c) "Alternative" - the availability of alternative sources of reward and alternative means of reducing costs.

In identifying these properties, researchers of the inter-dependency school hoped that the concept would be viewed in less negative terms and as a possibility of explaining the relative persuasiveness of a source.

Emerson's (1962) earlier examination of the context in which power was exercised, observed that the situation in which it took place, as well as the relationship between the source and receiver, determined its effect. Furthermore, for there to be power, the receiver must perceive the source to possess it and to have the ability to reward or punish for compliance or non-compliance. Finally, Emerson found that the receiver may elect to opt out of the influence attempt, thereby constraining the extent to which the source can exercise his power.

Bettinghaus (1980) has reaffirmed some of the views above. However, his central argument was that power must be seen in specific terms because one individual's power over another is usually not a universal relationship. The example he uses is of a teacher who is able to exert power over his student by his ability to reward or punish performance in class: but that power may only exist in the classroom or school setting, because the teacher may find himself unable to exert the same kind of power on activities outside of that domain.

The first researchers to identify the types of power exercised by various sources were Raven and French (1958). They delineate power in terms of the resources on which it is based and argue that each has certain rewards and costs. The main types of power proposed are summarised in the figure below.

Figure 3.4: Type of power exercised and individual's reasons for complying

Type of Power	Reason for Individual Complying
Reward	Individual expects "reward" for compliance.
Coercive	Individual expects "punishment" for non-compliance
Legitimate	Individual "believes" influencer has <u>right</u> to exert power
Referent	Individual "believes" he is <u>similar</u> to the influencer
Expert	Individual "believes" influencer <u>possesses</u> superior knowledge, training, etc.

In addition, Raven and French show how types of power vary in such matters as the kinds of behaviour, and the degree to which the exercise of power changes the balance of power between individuals. Their overall conclusion is that the types of power listed above are not entirely independent and are rarely found in pure form in actual situations: most acts of influence involve a combination of these powers.

Over the years researchers have elaborated upon Raven and French's proposition, particularly in persuasive or influence situations. Collins and Raven (1969), for example, reviewed studies using power of the source as the basis of the effects produced and went on to single out reward and coercive powers for special comment. They noted that the effectiveness of rewards and punishments depend on how accurately a source can gauge what behaviours are rewarding or costly to the person being influenced. They suggest that this process is a difficult one given the evidence suggesting that individuals are apt to display behaviour that could be rewarded, while hiding behaviour likely to be punished (see, for instance, Thibaut and Kelley, 1959).

Brigante (1958) examined the extent to which reward power makes a source more attractive. Sources were varied in terms of their ability to reward or punish respondents for various tasks set. The researcher found that reward power made a source more attractive as evidenced by their favourable rating, compared with a source who had no power or those whose power was based solely on punishment.

Referent power, for example, would seem to have been included in many of the studies on attractiveness because the underlying assumption had been that the source produced the desired response as a result of the receiver identifying with him.

Referent power, it was seen in Figure 3.4 above, is the result of the receiver believing that he is in some respect similar to the



source. Here, similarity was conceived broadly to include idiosyncratic factors of the individual being influenced. Nevertheless, some researchers were interested in finding out the extent to which the referent power of the source triggered an effect opposite to that desired. This has come to be termed as "negative referent power".

There is some evidence to suggest that a receiver is likely to act differently from what the source desires. Collins and Raven's (1969) review has many examples of studies supporting the proposition of negative referent power. However, the extent to which a referent source produces a negative effect is determined by the degree to which he is "unattractive" to the receiver (see, for instance, Osgood and Tannenbaum, 1955).

However, the researcher whose conceptualisation of the processes underlying power has provided the most guideline to other researchers is Kelman (1961). He identified three main processes, which differ slightly from those proposed by Raven and French. These are shown in Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5: Kelman's conceptualisation of the power exercised by a source

Type of influence	Reason for Complying
Compliance	Individual seeks a reward or avoids punishment.
Identification	Individual derives satisfaction from being like the influencer
Internalisation	Individual adopts influencer's view as part of his own

Kelman's compliance influence is similar to Raven and French's reward, coercive, and legitimate types of power; identification to referent power; and internalisation to the expert power of the source. However, internalisation power seems to transcend the definition offered by Kelman because it is likely that complying

with a specific viewpoint or attitude is not so much based on the expertise of the source, or with identification, but more that it is the most plausible thing to do, or at least the most agreeable with their views.

It was suggested earlier that a closer inspection of some of the so-called credibility studies reveals that many used the assumptions, albeit implicitly, of the processes of power.

In many of the studies, the source used was assumed to have some sort of power over the audience. For example Zimbardo, Weisenberg, Firestone and Levy (1965) used a brigade commander as the source of the communication. Though the researchers were interested in determining the effects of attractiveness on the source's persuasiveness, it is clear that the audience (army reservists) may have been reacting to the source because they had perceived him to possess "legitimate" power. This was never acknowledged by the researchers who credited the effects produced instead to the attribute (likeability) of the source.

Mill and Harvey (1972), and also Norman (1976) mentioned that Kelman's power base had been supported by their findings. In addition, these studies, respectively, found that in several situations of influence, either identification or internalisation, rather than compliance, accounted for the effects produced.

Furthermore, Romer (1979) argues that the source characteristics of trustworthiness and expertise seemed to be mediated by the process of internalisation; the characteristic of attraction, on the other hand, seemed to have been mediated by the process of identification, although internalisation may have also had a bearing on the results generally obtained. In addition, Romer suggests that internalisation produces more lasting effects than those produced through identification with the source. The source who achieves influence through identification can only continue to

do so if the receiver maintains his perception that he is someone with whom he would wish to identify.

An earlier review by McGuire (1969) highlights three main components in the effects of power:

- (a) The receiver's perception of the extent to which the source is able to "administer positive or negative sanctions".
- (b) The receiver's "estimation" of the extent to which the source "cares" as to whether he conforms or not.
- (c) The receiver's judgement of the extent to which the source is able to monitor whether he has accepted his position or not.

More recently, Percy and Rossiter (1980) suggest three components that closely match those of McGuire. The components are shown in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6: Components of power

Components of power	Reason for individual complying
Perceived control	Source has power to reward or punish.
Perceived concern	Perceived concern of source in getting compliance
Perceived scrutiny	Source has capability of monitoring receiver's conformity

Percy and Rossiter do not provide any explanation as to whether the components work separately or whether they function interdependently. These researchers own review led them to comment that the components of power tend to be perceived by respondents as being related to such factors as occupational status, prestige, etc, of the source.

Earlier conceptions of power confined power to only selected members of a society. This possibly explains why so many of those

studies used judges, members occupying important roles, and so on as sources. Later, the emphasis shifted to include members of groups with special skills, knowledge, etc. The process of identification was to broaden the base of the concept, as it came to be recognised that some individuals exercised power from being liked or from the receiver wanting to identify with them.

However, it was not until researchers began to realise that many of the assumed processes of power could be acquired, that it came to be considered as another characteristic or attribute of the source. This is particularly evident in expert power, which was broadly conceived and was assumed to differ with various contexts, issues, and so on. Given that skills, education and other related factors which make up an expert source can be acquired by any member of a society, this came to underline the studies that followed.

Bettinghaus (1980) has argued that studies of the processes of power of the source were popular with researchers throughout the 1960s, but that by the early 1970s this popularity had diminished. The reason for this is because of the difficulties encountered in identifying which type of power may have produced the results obtained. The potential shown by the concept of credibility has also influenced many researchers to use this as a theoretical framework. As noted earlier, many studies reported under the general heading of credibility have a striking similarity with studies of type of power. In some cases, researchers have borrowed from studies of power as evidenced by such things as the source selected, message presentation, and so on.

### 3.7 Shortcomings of the studies

Collin's (1970) review of source effect studies led him to argue that a major shortcoming of these studies was their failure to accept the possibility that a given situation could produce "judgements" not likely to be repeated in other situations.



Therefore credibility was unlikely to be the only mechanism by which the source produced the desired response. His own study had indicated that a receiver is likely to be faced with one of the following situations:

- (a) a "problem solving" orientation.
- (b) an "identity" orientation.
- (c) an "authority" orientation.
- (d) a "consistency" orientation.

Collins noted that each of these orientations was likely to trigger a different "cognitive set" and also a different type of judgement of the source and, more specifically, the attributes that are then considered appropriate or significant.

Delia (1976) focused his attention on those studies that purported to have examined the underlying shortcomings, but which do "little more than summarise the state of a problem". Importantly, Delia argues that studies have explained the concept of credibility without attempting to provide a theoretical framework for this explanation. The evidence calls therefore for a reconceptualisation of the concept of credibility so that it comes to include the "pre-selected and pre-interpreted world" of the receiver, as well as to whether a given situation was perceived as "rhetorical" by the receiver.

Liska (1978) supports Collins' argument that the receiver is likely to be confronted by different situations, requiring different kinds of judgement of the source. Consequently, the major problem with the studies of source effect was to be found in their interpretation of credibility. She found that the term credibility was used so randomly as to have lost its original meaning. The findings of her own study indicated that receivers' judgements about the amount of each characteristic a "believable" source should possess differed significantly from one topic to the

next. Her conclusion was that research findings of a credible source should be interpreted mainly in terms of believability and concentrate on identifying the perceived characteristics of a believable source and how these vary across topics and situations.

The most powerful configure of the studies of source effect is that of Conkhite and Liska (1976). These researchers identified four methodological shortcomings with the studies, as follows:

(a) Scale selection and factor naming

Many studies simply adopted scales because they had been used by previous studies. Little or no attention was paid to the context in which the scales had been obtained. Consequently, "inbreeding" is endemic with many studies doing no more than constantly re-analysing similar scales.

An example cited is the study of Berlo, Lemert and Mertz (1970) which set out to identify different characteristics of sources that were perceived as important by respondents. However, instead of generating descriptions from the respondents the researchers merely provided scales that had been used by previous studies; and which were then said to describe characteristics that were markedly different from those studies from which the scales were derived.

Importantly, researchers are also criticised for arbitrarily ignoring scales which showed similarities between the source and receivers. These were not fully integrated until after 1972, and even then scales tended to be those selected by the researchers. This raises questions about the findings obtained, particularly in respect of the importance of the characteristics observed and whether these were the result of the inclusion of similar scales at the expense of those which may have shown different dimensions.

Compounding the problems of haphazard scales is the tendency of studies to use similar names for factors that contain different

scales. The study by McCroskey, Jensen and Valencia (1973) is cited as an example because this had performed factor analyses on six different subject samples, which were all found to contain a "competence" factor, despite the fact that not one single scale had met their criteria for that factor across all six samples. In addition, the "competent-incompetent" scale which was expected to load on any "competence" factor, fulfilled the criteria for only three sample groups.

Notwithstanding all these factors, studies which used factor analysis have not seen the contradiction of using scales from previous studies and then labelling these factors differently.

(b) Statistical procedures

The statistical procedures used in most studies were correct but the context of usage was not, given that the aim of almost all the studies was to identify characteristics of the source likely to explain their relative persuasiveness.

The statistical technique frequently used was factor analysis, employing "varimax" rather than "quartimax" rotation. Cronkhite and Liska contend that varimax rotation is useful to a researcher whose purpose is to conceptualise credibility more clearly in terms of factors. Quartimax, on the other hand, concentrates on "simplifying" or "purifying" the scales at the expense of factor purity, and would have been more appropriate for the majority of studies, given their objectives.

This methodological error may have been encouraged by reputable researchers such as Triandis (1971) making out a case in support of the generalisability of the findings across topics. Hence, many studies did not perform the basic procedures for validating the appropriateness of the scales to their specific sources and respondents. As Cronkhite and Liska observe:

"It may appear we are making too much of this point, considering the extensive evidence from other studies demonstrating rater-scale interaction. We would agree, were it not for the fact that, in the face of all this evidence, researchers continue to recommend standard sets of scales for use across populations, and other researchers to adopt these 'standard' scales."

(c) Conceptualisation of the process

Like Collins (1970) these researchers criticise the way studies have perceived the role of source credibility in the persuasion process. Studies have come to the conclusion either that the manipulations produced opinion change but had no significant effect on credibility; or that the manipulations improved credibility but had no significant effect on opinion change.

Cronkhite and Liska are here supported by Sternthal, Phillips and Dholakia (1978) who argue that despite the prevailing view to the contrary, credibility effects were neither well documented nor understood, and that there had not yet been a systematic review of the literature concerning the joint effects of source credibility and other variables that affect the communication process.

Instead of a narrow view of the credibility process, Cronkhite and Liska call for the inclusion of other factors proposing the following:

- (1) The physical characteristics of the source and the message construction. The source is of a certain shape and size, has distinguishable physical features, vocal characteristics and postures. The message components such as language, arguments, and so on, tend to be seen as part of the source.
- (2) Attributes inferred about the source. These must include such factors as apparent education level, occupation, race, intelligence, intent, organisational ability, and ability to reason. They are little understood because studies have



- generally concentrated on analysing scales of semantic differential rather than on eliciting these from respondents.
- (3) The function of the source in different topic situations. The argument is that in different situations or circumstances, the role of the source changes.
  - (4) The criteria for accepting a source. Receivers choose different criteria for judging sources depending on their functions in different situations, yet source effect studies have generally assumed that credibility is sufficiently justifiable to make a source suitable to perform any function.
  - (5) Receivers' cognition and behaviour. Receivers respond to sources messages in a variety of ways. Citing McGuire's (1973) hierarchical model as an example, a receiver is said to: receive a message; attend to it; comprehend it; yield to it; retain it; and act upon it. Yet, studies have treated the steps in much the same way and failed to recognise the implications of such a practice. The major implication is that the measure used would vary from one step to the next.

### 3.8 Summary

Studies of source effect have been characterised by both their theoretical and methodological differences. These differences have necessitated the development of typologies to reflect them adequately. For this chapter the typology suggested by Andersen and Clevenger (1963) is used because it covers all the different types of studies that have been carried out to date on source effect.

In the same way, characteristics said to make for the relative persuasiveness of a source have varied. Using the classification scheme suggested by Percy and Rossiter (1980), the chapter discussed the source's characteristics under the following headings: dimensions of source credibility, consisting of trustworthiness and expertise; attractiveness, conceived originally to include similarity, familiarity and liking, but for

this chapter seen as consisting also of physical attractiveness and other attributes of attractiveness; and finally, power.

Evidence for these characteristics is discussed and it is generally shown that many of the early studies were concerned with identifying so-called "relevant" characteristics of the source. Hence, dimensions of attractiveness were for the most part regarded as "irrelevant" aspects of the source and perceived as acting only to help the relevant aspects: credibility dimensions. This view has underlined most of the studies of source credibility.

Power exercised by the source has also formed a central area of research. Though not as popular as credibility research, studies of power have managed to produce different explanations of the power that sources can exercise. The difficulties encountered in conceptualising the process possibly explains why recent studies have come to focus on source credibility as a more appropriate framework for research on source effect.

Notwithstanding, source effect studies are generally characterised by a number of shortcomings, which suggest that their generalisation is severely limited. But this would seem to have been largely ignored as evidenced by the repeated studies which have continued to use the conceptual framework of previous studies. In consequence, the evidence as exists can be said to be not systematic and possibly to have ignored a great many other attributes which could account for a source's persuasive effect.

CHAPTER 4

Endorsement in Advertising

## CHAPTER 4

### Endorsement in Advertising

#### 4.1 Introduction

The use of endorsement in advertising has been a major technique in Britain for well over a century now. During that period, however, the technique has undergone marked changes, particularly in respect of the regulations and codes of conduct governing its use and in the individuals who are now used as endorsers.

Notwithstanding this long history of use, understanding of the process is severely limited. Hitherto, the tendency has been to use the findings of source effect studies as the basis for explaining the effects likely to result from different endorsers. For this reason, the context of source effect studies, referred to as social persuasion, as well as the persuasive characteristics of the source have been examined in detail.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the process of endorsement in the context of advertising. To do so, the chapter begins with a discussion of the reasons explaining the dependency on the findings of source effect studies.

Next, the chapter examines studies of endorsement advertising. In discussing the findings of these studies, attention is drawn to the shortcomings of source effect studies which ought to have been recognised by researchers in the advertising setting.

Finally, in addition to the shortcomings identified, a number of factors within the advertising context are considered because they lend credence to the argument that the advertising context is markedly different from that of social persuasion.



#### 4.2 Reasons for borrowing from the findings of other disciplines

Though the practice of marketing has existed since the first exchange relationship, as a discipline it is comparatively recent. Consequently, its development has been marked by extensive borrowing from other disciplines, particularly economics, psychology, social psychology, sociology and anthropology (see Runyon, 1980).

Borrowing of concepts and hypotheses is not unique to marketing but a regular feature of disciplines within the social sciences. Runyon (1980), however, argues that the way concepts have been borrowed was "extensive although not systematic". It would seem that in an effort to gain a better understanding of human behaviour there was a period of "sporadic discovery" with a "flurry" of interest in psychology, social psychology, etc, and indiscriminate borrowing of concepts. Runyon concludes:

"Far too often, marketers had an imperfect understanding of the fields from which they were borrowing. As a consequence, untested concepts and misapplications of valid concepts led to marketing failures as often as they led to marketing successes. Further, marketing is, in many respects, a 'me too' business. That is, someone would discover a concept or a technique within the social sciences ... a dozen marketers would seize on the same concept or technique with little regard as to whether it was equally appropriate ... Thus, the history of the use of the social sciences in marketing has been a history of both progress and disillusion."

Baker (1983) reviews the development of marketing to date and, more specifically, how well borrowed concepts have been synthesised. His observations were much the same as those of Runyon above. On the debate as to whether marketing is an art or a science, Baker contends

that this is a matter dependent upon a specific author's perspective and approach. What seems required, however, is the development of marketing theory, which is yet to be achieved. One comment he makes seems appropriate for our discussion:

"Perhaps marketers lack sufficient humility to get back to first principles and collect raw data as the basis for developing their own theory, or perhaps we place too much reliance upon the theories which we have borrowed from other disciplines without validating them."

In the same text, Baker also reviews other researchers observations, with advertising being singled out for comment. The impression given is that the lack of success in determining the effects (in this case, the success) of advertising has been due to "speculative theorising which fails to observe the rules of the scientific method, and especially its failure first to observe and describe the phenomenon".

While the fact that the development of marketing helps to explain why so many concepts have been borrowed without validation, in the case of endorsement advertising there is another reason. This relates to the perceived similarity between the source in social persuasion and the source (or endorser) in advertising. It is generally argued that regardless of the setting, a communication consists of: source, message, channel and receiver (see, for instance, DeLozier, 1976). These are the elements that researchers in social persuasion have been investigating, and the fact that the underlying theme has been to understand the persuasion process has made these findings attractive to those in advertising.

Furthermore, the fact that some source effect studies incorporated one or more aspects of advertising (such as the issue of the message) was for many authors sufficient justification for generalisa-

tion to endorsement advertising. As a result many of the factors that make advertising different from social persuasion were either not recognised or perceived as not important. This explains why studies that have thus far examined aspects of endorsement, ignored these factors. Had these factors been recognised they might have prompted researchers either to abandon the suggestions of source effect studies in favour of eliciting perceptions in the advertising setting, or to have explicitly set out to validate the various source effect findings, particularly those said to account for sources relative persuasiveness. For reasons difficult to ascertain, many researchers have elected to give scant attention to these factors.

In addition, the continuing lack of discussion from advertising practitioners, on most aspects of advertising, has meant that both discussion and research resulting have tended to be "academic-led". In the case of endorsement advertising the discussion to date has been fragmentary, often in conflict, and seemingly not based on any type of empirical and systematic research. It is possible that this may have caused researchers not to have incorporated vitally important factors reflecting what may be described as the "realities" of the advertising setting, with which practitioners are more familiar.

At the same time, those discussions of the endorsement process by practitioners which ought to have received attention have not, because they have been generally underlined by "secrecy" - that is, claims are not backed by evidence because of proprietary interest and hence cannot be made known publicly. The implication is that a lot of their propositions can only be treated as "intuitive" judgements and therefore are almost entirely subjective.

Finally, another reason that may provide part of the explanation can be found in the background of authors of general marketing, and hence advertising texts. These tend to be the works of academics many of whom may have been trained in disciplines other than marketing. In the 1950s and 1960s the major contributors to the develop-

ment of marketing as a discipline of study came from the disciplines of sociology, psychology and social-psychology which had traditional and well-founded guidelines for research of concepts. Consequently, it was much easier to borrow from the social persuasion research available than to determine or ascertain factors of significance in the marketing environment (see, for example, Baker 1983).

These then are some of the more important reasons explaining why source effect findings were so easily used as the basis for examining endorsement advertising.

#### 4.3 Studies of aspects of endorsement advertising

To date there has not been any study which has set out specifically to generate attributes or characteristics likely to explain the relative 'effectiveness' of endorsers. Rather, studies have been prompted by the belief that source characteristics identified in social persuasion would explain endorsers' relative effectiveness. Others have been prompted more by "commercial interest".

##### 4.3.1 Commercially oriented studies

The first identifiable type of study is the commercially-orientated. The majority of these studies had other objectives in addition to examining aspects of the endorsement process. A cross section of these studies can be set out as follows:

- Rudolph (1947) carried out a study in which he compared the effects of six types of advertising copy, some of which featured celebrity endorsers, on readership. He found that advertisements featuring celebrity endorsers tended to have the highest readership score. No attempt was made to study which factors, if any, may have made such advertisements more effective.
- Freeman (1957) examined the effects of different advertisements on "noting and reading". He found that, on average, consumers see and read more endorsement advertisements than other types. No explanation was provided as to what may have made the endorsement advertisement relatively more effective.



- Dichter (1966) examined 488 purchases resulting from word-of-mouth communication. His results showed that almost 7.5% of the purchases were attributed directly to celebrity endorsement advertisements. This study has been widely used to make the point that a celebrity endorsement is relatively more effective. The original purpose of the study has, as a consequence, become obscured.
- Forkan (1975) reviewed the study by Gallup and Robinson showing that all "prime time" advertisements featured endorsement advertising, particularly ones with celebrities. The Gallup and Robinson study was interested basically in finding out the overall composition of prime-time advertisements.
- Business Week (1978) was interested in finding out the percentage of advertisements which featured endorsers in America. It found that whereas in 1968 1 in 6 advertisements featured an endorser, by 1978 the figure stood at 1 in every 3 advertisements. Furthermore, it appeared that in 1978 the top American actor earned some 44 cents out of every dollar from advertising. This study was intended merely to show the increase in the popularity of endorsement as an advertising technique and how top American actors have increasingly come to view it as a source of revenue.
- Ray (1982) cites examples of studies which show that endorsement may not be as popular as practitioners often make out. For example, four Gallup and Robinson studies showed the following: that celebrity endorsement commercials are recalled 12% more than other commercials; that 47% of the total commercials featuring celebrities fared badly in comparison with other kinds of commercials; that an average 30 seconds commercial communicated "2.4 copy points" per respondent whereas an endorsement commercial communicated only 1.4 copy points. Ray cites also the study by Saveried (1975) which showed that contrary to the belief that celebrities as endorsers generated "favourable disposition", they were perceived by most television viewers as "exasperating".

These only provide an overview of the studies reported in the general literature. At this stage, it will be useful to examine in some detail a study which combined the efforts of academics and practitioners. That study was by Kamen, Azhari and Kragh (1975) and was for Amoco Oil which had intended to use a celebrity endorser (the country singer Johnny Cash) for its advertising messages.

Amoco Oil had been conducting quarterly surveys since 1970 with the aim of monitoring their customers' attitudes toward the company, brand and grade patronage. Therefore, from the start the researchers had information on which to make comparisons.

Prior to using Johnny Cash as the endorser, labelled "spokesman", the company conducted a study to determine how customers would feel about using the endorser. Results indicated: "some polarisation of motorists toward him", and that "some motorists would be antagonistic toward him regardless of his familiarity and popularity". Despite this finding, however, the company felt undeterred and used the endorser.

Soon after using the endorser, the company carried out a study with the aim of finding out the following: associations of Johnny Cash with Amoco Oil; his "believability" as a spokesperson; changes in motorists' attitudes toward the company that might be "statistically related to Johnny Cash"; extent of brand switching attributable to Johnny Cash; changes in the overall satisfaction levels of customers; and the perception of the intensity of the company's advertising. The researchers report, however, that only broad implications would be reported given that "most of the conclusions were of proprietary interest only".

The findings can be summarised as follows: that customers did not consider believability of the endorser to be an important attribute; that belief as a judgement was only meaningful if it is relative, that is anchored to other endorsers; that customers seemed

more likely to state that the endorser was believable than non-customers; that those expressing disbelief in the endorser did so because he was perceived as inappropriate, there was "incongruence" between his professional status and technical competence, and because many perceived him to be a dislikeable person; and that brand switching remained the same, although awareness of the company's advertising was heightened, so much so that motorists could recall advertisements even at a time when the company had reduced its advertising.

Overall, this study provided nothing new in terms of the attributes of an endorser likely to influence their effectiveness. However, it was the first and perhaps most clear study from the "real" advertising world indicating that believability was not considered an important attribute.

The impact of such a result seems to have been lost on both academics and still a substantial number of practitioners who persist in discussing the endorsement process in terms of believability, also sometimes described as "credibility" of the endorser. Even at the time of writing, evidence of this view of the endorser still persists in the commercial literature.

#### 4.3.2 Academic based studies of endorsement

Brock (1965) and Woodside and Davenport (1974) measured the influence on purchase behaviour of a salesman's "similarity" to his prospect, yet their findings have been applied to advertising with particular reference to source (endorser) effect. Wilding and Bauer (1968) investigated the effect of consumers' behavioural goals on their perceptions of sources of commercial messages, hypothesising that 'problem solvers' would react positively to perceived competence and trustworthiness, and 'psycho-socialisers' would react positively to power and likeability. Their findings, though inconclusive, have likewise been taken as an explanation of endorser effect.

Many similar studies are reported in the general literature which on close inspection turn out to be less clear in their aims and in the way their findings are to be interpreted.

However, a number of studies have been conducted in an advertising context which, instead of aiming to explain the relative effectiveness of endorsers, set out to measure how the previously identified source characteristics increased an endorser's effectiveness.

Finn's (1977) study in America is perhaps the first of its kind to hypothesise that trustworthiness and expertise of the endorser served as the basis of the consumer's evaluation of the product, and that this in turn influenced their purchase of the brand. Finn developed this hypothesis from Bauer's (1967) argument that the relative effectiveness of the different source characteristics depend in part upon whether the consumer was at the time involved in a psychological or problem-solving game.

Finn carefully set up his experiments to show the effects of his hypothesis. However, his manipulations failed to support his hypothesis because endorsers without the specified characteristics produced the same kind of involvement from receivers as endorsers with the specified characteristics. In analysing his results Finn also found that receivers did not perceive either trustworthiness or expertise to be important attributes of endorsers of advertising messages. His conclusion was that while this finding was important, his study had a number of limitations. Specifically, no attempt was made to pretest the element of 'involvement' which was used as the measure of effectiveness; different 'cover stories' were used for the different experiments; receivers may have perceived the advertisements to be unreal; students (of business administration) acted as respondents; and finally, the experimental setting was somewhat different from what might have obtained in the real advertising setting.



To the list of shortcomings identified by Finn himself can be added a number of others. The first relates to the appropriateness of using involvement particularly in light of his own discussion about the difficulties associated with the concept. Furthermore, Finn appeared to have ignored the argument of consumer behaviour theorists that purchase is the result of several complex variables acting together, of which advertising is but one influence (see, for example, Engel, Blackwell and Kollatt, 1978, for a review; and also Kassarian and Robertson, 1981).

In addition, Finn had misconceived the nature of advertising as implied in his use of involvement as the measure of effectiveness. Had he examined the evidence more carefully, he would have found that advertising is generally of low-involvement (Krugman 1965, 1966). Robertson (1976) has argued that the majority of consumer decisions are "fairly unimportant and non-committing". Finally, Finn's manipulations may have been constrained as a result of his complete dependence on his so-called "cover story" to introduce his endorsers.

Another American study that has examined endorsement is the study by Friedman (1977). Unlike Finn, Friedman argued on the basis of his literature review that theory of "risk" was likely to explain the effectiveness of the endorsers. Using Jacoby and Kaplan's (1972) conceptualisation of perceived risk, Friedman hypothesised that the five types of risk (namely financial, performance, physical, psychological and social) inherent in a product would determine whether an expert, a celebrity or a typical consumer is appropriate as an endorser. His findings supported his hypothesis because the various manipulations indicated that each risk perceived determined which endorser was appropriate. This led him to conclude that where brand name and advertisement recall are desired, the advertiser should use a celebrity endorser; and to give "careful thought" where the aim is to make the advertisement believable, improve the overall attitude toward the advertised product or to increase the intent to purchase the product.

This study also suffered from several constraints. Firstly it utilised a laboratory setting as against a commercial setting. Secondly, subjects were shown the advertisement only once during the interview, thus ignoring such advertising factors as "wear out", "saturation", etc, all of which have a bearing on the effects produced. Thirdly, the effects observed, as Friedman himself noted, would only be generalisable to the printed media. Fourthly, as only one product for each type of risk was tested it is difficult to ascertain whether other products with a similar kind of risk would produce the same effect. Finally, the study had not pre-tested what attributes of the endorser respondents were perceiving but assumed that they would perceive the endorser as being either expert, a celebrity or a typical consumer in line with the "cover story".

Consequently, Friedman's study has not provided us with any additional information as to which attributes of the endorser seemingly enhance his effectiveness.

Nevertheless, this study provides partial empirical evidence for the proposition that in advertising there are other factors, such as the type of product and the type of endorser, which would have to be fully incorporated in any study of endorser effect in advertising. Moreover, the fact that Friedman used other measures (overall attitude toward the advertised product, intent to purchase the advertised product, perceived worth of the product, etc) in addition to believability, is tacit acceptance that in advertising other considerations may be equally, if not more important.

Notwithstanding the problems identified by these studies, researchers have continued to pursue the same line of investigation and to use the same type of conceptual framework of endorser effect. Swartz (1981) followed much the same methodological framework as Finn. Using what he termed as "social influence theory", Swartz hypothesised that two source attributes namely expertise and similarity would determine the effectiveness of endorsers. Advertisements were

developed for three products (cosmetics, colour television, and macaroni and cheese dinner) with four versions of the advertisements for each product (that is, high expertise versus high similarity; high expertise versus low similarity; low expertise versus high similarity; and low expertise versus low similarity). These treatments were anchored to belief and behavioural intention measures and were developed in terms of tasks to be completed. The central hypothesis was that under a "psycho-social task" situation similarity would be important, whereas under a "problem-solving task" situation expertise would be more effective.

However, the results did not support his hypothesis because the differences in the effects of the endorsers were almost negligible. Swartz concluded from this that respondents had clearly perceived both expertise and similarity as not important in endorsers of advertising messages. In addition Swartz also concluded that what is required is the generating of attributes of endorsers in the advertising context which can then be tested for effectiveness.

As before, several shortcomings characterised this study particularly in respect of its operationalisation of the concept of similarity. In the study, similarity was operationalised in terms of so-called "ordinary people", that is everyday persons not known for anything significant. However, the story line of the advertisement was basically similar to those for endorsers with one of the determinant attributes. The fact that the so-called ordinary individual was given such an introduction may have itself served to minimise the extent to which he was perceived as ordinary. Evidence of this effect exists in the literature (see Bettinghaus, 1980; McQuail, 1975; and Oskamp, 1977); and also in practice where the mere fact that the general mass media have given attention to an individual or his problem(s), puts them almost on a celebrity status.



In addition, the study was conducted in a controlled setting, focusing respondents' attention on aspects of the advertising and the endorser not likely to have been noticed.

✓ A more recent American study by Atkin and Block (1983) purports to have studied the effects of celebrity endorsers on the use of alcohol. Based on the literature, these researchers hypothesised that a ("celebrity source will have a greater impact than a non-celebrity on responses to the advertisement and to the advertised product".) The experimental manipulation varied the status of the endorser, so that each product used in the study had one advertisement with a celebrity and the other featuring a non-celebrity. The measures consisted of a semantic differential scale consisting of 18 items derived from the general literature; a "believability" rating scale (0 to 10); a "character rating" anchored to: "trustworthy, attractive, and competent"; and a behavioural intention (0 to 10). 196 respondents were used, half of whom were 13 to 17 year olds.

The results of this study indicated that advertisements featuring celebrities produced consistently more favourable "impact" than the non-celebrity advertisements. But, the researchers make the following point: "the difference is small and non-significant on the scale measuring believability of the message". Despite all their hypotheses being upheld, (the researchers concluded that the use of celebrities as endorsers is highly effective with teenagers, but had only a "limited impact" with the older age groups.) Most of the differences occurred in the younger age groups, and although the older age groups rated celebrities favourably this apparently did not transfer to evaluations of the advertising message or the endorsed product.

This study has all the shortcomings of its predecessors, particularly in respect of the respondents used as subjects of the study, half of whom were secondary school students. Park and Lessig (1977) found significant differences between "students" and



"housewives" regardless of the response setting, which led them to argue that studies using students had limited generalisation. Several other academics, notable of whom is Bettinghaus (1980), have drawn attention to this practice so endemic in academic based studies.

In addition, Atkin and Brock used manipulations that were less than fair or uniform. For example, one of their advertisements featured the international filmstar Telly Savalas, whereas the non-celebrity featured, to use their expression: "an unfamiliar middle-aged man"; another featured a former basketball player as the celebrity, whereas the non-celebrity advertisement features "an unfamiliar tall black man"; and so on.

Finally, the researchers did not give the prominence that was due to a number of their findings particularly in the responses of the older age groups. For example, the mean ratings showed that the older age groups more consistently rated the non-celebrity as believable than they did celebrities.

While all of these studies have been carried out in America, a few have also been carried out in Britain. Again, these studies are not significantly different from those of their contemporaries in America because they have used a very similar conceptual framework.

One of the first British studies on endorsement is that of Taylor (1979). This study, though severely constrained, set out to investigate what it termed as the "leverage" effect provided by an endorser to an advertising message. On the basis of his literature review and his discussion with advertising practitioners, Taylor hypothesised that the "self-image" of the endorser was a major determinant of effectiveness. Using a semantic differential scale to measure the image of the endorser with ideal self and the image of the product, Taylor found support for his hypothesis. Later Crosier and Taylor (1980) commented that the results can only be regarded as tentative in light of the constraints associated with the manipulations employed,

the composition and representativeness of the respondents used, and other methodological aspects.

A follow-up study was conducted by Fahad (1981) who, on the basis of the literature review undertaken, argued that the credibility of the endorser determined effectiveness. This being so, it was hypothesised that the more products a given celebrity endorsed the less likely they were to be perceived as being credible. Credibility was operationalised in terms of scales provided on a semantic differential, with respondents required to rate the endorser and the products he was endorsing at the time. The results showed differences in the way respondents evaluated the endorser and the endorsed products. These therefore led the researcher to conclude that in general there were few instances in practice where the image of the endorser closely matches that of endorsed products and the greater the discrepancy between these images, the less credible will be the endorser.

As before, this study had severe shortcomings related mainly to the methodology employed. For example, the study used (much as the American studies did) final year undergraduate students as subjects for the study; the scales or adjectives were derived from a limited discussion with other students; and effectiveness, the basis of the study, was never measured aside of the inference that because the images did not match it suggested or implied less effectiveness of the endorser. This study like that of Taylor's, has only managed to extend the framework of source effect studies rather than to show the endorser characteristics influencing their relative effectiveness.

The recent study by Goldstein (1983) departed from the previous approaches because it set out to examine reasons why practitioners use endorsement as an advertising strategy, and the basis for selecting a specific celebrity. Despite similar constraints as the previous two studies, this study manages to throw light on a subject still dominated by non-conclusive suggestions.

On the matter of endorser selection, Goldstein found that practitioners claimed that this was based in large part on the "creative" process. That is, the decision of whether or not to use an endorser emanates from the creative department. Other factors of influence included whether the product area is of low interest, in markets where there are no brand loyalties, introduction of a new product to the market, so-called 'life-style' products, high technology products, and where a product has received bad publicity.

On what an endorser can do for a product, and hence by implication characteristics he should possess, the following were mentioned: adding a "human face" to the product; brings "cohesion" and "consistency" to the advertising; and adding "warmth" and "entertainment". These attributes are illuminating because they are far removed from those suggested by source effect studies, and suggest a new set of factors to be considered by any future study of endorsement advertising.

These are the aspects of the endorsement process that have thus far been examined. Clearly, much of the non-systematic development of studies in social persuasion is apparent in endorsement advertising. Instead of starting from the basics, studies have simply borrowed a framework from social persuasion as the basis for explaining the effects of a given endorser. As a result, there has been a tendency both to ignore the shortcomings of source effect studies and to minimise the fact that a great many of the theoretical frameworks borrowed have never been tested or validated in the advertising context. In addition, many of the factors that distinguish advertising from social persuasion have not been either incorporated into methodologies deployed or recognised as sufficiently important. It is to these factors that make advertising different that we now turn.

#### 4.4 The 'real-world' context of advertising

The setting of the classic experimental studies in social persuasion was much different from the 'real-world' context of

advertising, and the experimental subjects were far removed from being typical of advertising audiences.

The purpose of this section is to show the realities of the advertising context. However, given the range of factors that can be covered under such a heading, it is intended here to confine the discussion to two headings only: characteristics of advertising and realities implied in advertising practitioners' discussion of the endorsement process.

#### 4.4.1 Characteristics of advertising

Advertising, though admittedly a persuasive kind of communication which can also be seen to have a social element, has a number of characteristics which make it different from social persuasion. The list of characteristics now presented are not intended to be comprehensive but rather to show the distinguishing elements, as follows:

- (a) Advertising is a paid form of communication in which the advertiser is clearly distinguishable as the sponsor of the message.
- (b) It is non-personal in nature, being dependent for its transmission upon one or more of the available mass media. Thus, the advertiser is distanced or separated from the receiver thereby making the relationship between them non-interactive.
- (c) The audience consists of collectivities rather than individuals and their behaviour is collective in nature.
- (d) On transmission, the advertiser loses control of who attends to his advertising message. Consequently, the message may be attended to both by the target audience and those it was not intended for.
- (e) Unlike social persuasion, an advertising message may be competing with several other messages for the attention of the audience.
- (f) The audience in the advertising context have a choice of either attending to the message or simply ignoring the message.



- (g) The distance between the advertiser and the audience tends to minimise the effects of such factors as "power exercised", "degree of response monitoring", etc.
- (h) The effects likely to result from advertising take longer to materialise.
- (i) The effects resulting are not always easy to determine because of the many uncontrollable variables within the environment.
- (j) The advertiser, though the sponsor, may elect a third party (endorser) to speak on his behalf about his product or service.
- (k) Advertising is repetitive by nature and may not be attended to within one time period.
- (l) Whereas in social persuasion the aim of the source is to persuade, in advertising there may be many other aims all of which have consequences on the form it takes.
- (m) Advertising is an element of marketing and thus may be found either on its own or in conjunction with the other mix-elements. The effect of this is that advertising cannot be the sole claimant to the effects resulting in the market place.

Any attempt to replicate source effect studies must take cognisance of the differences between advertising and social persuasion. This is not to suggest that elements of advertising cannot be studied under a controlled environment, but rather to do so while incorporating as many of the factors listed as possible. In this way results obtained can be expected to be generalisable to the real-world setting.

Also, the fact that advertising is transmitted by the mass media requires that a researcher has an understanding of the effects of these since they are likely to "superimpose" on the advertising. Thus, research on the general mass media may be of some importance in this respect and also helps to reinforce the argument of differences. Klapper's (1960) extensive study of the mass media is still regarded today as applicable, particularly in their influences. Briefly, he found the following:

- (a) That the influence of mass communication is mediated by factors such as personal predispositions, personal selective processes, group memberships, etc.
- (b) That mass communication serves to reinforce existing attitudes and opinions, though occasionally it may serve as an agent of change.
- (c) That when it does produce attitude change, minor change in the extremity or intensity of the attitude is much more common than is "conversion" from one side of an issue to the other side.
- (d) That the mass communication can be "quite effective" in changing attitudes in areas where existing opinions are weak.
- (e) That it can also be "quite effective" in creating opinions on new issues where there are no existing pre-dispositions to reinforce.

Krugman's (1966) study of the effects likely to result from advertising reflects the relationship between advertising and the mass media. He observed that advertising by nature is of "low involvement" and hence may be expected only gradually to shift the perceptual structure of the consumer, aided by repetition, activated by behavioural choice situations, and followed at a later stage by attitude change.

#### 4.4.2 Practitioners' implicit framework of endorsement

In addition to the characteristics of advertising, the way practitioners view the advertising process and, more specifically, endorsement suggests a different conceptual framework. At this stage in the discussion, two points seem in order. // Firstly, it was observed in earlier discussions that practitioners' expressed viewpoints have been in conflict with one another and often based on either "intuition" or so-called "proprietary research" not generally made public. // Secondly, in Britain the gap between academics and practitioners has begun to be eroded by the emergence of journals and magazines that meet the requirements, albeit halfway, of both parties. // For example, the recent emergence of the "International Journal of Advertising" has provided a forum for practitioners to discuss issues

based on their experience and intuitive judgements that were not possible before.

At the same time, some of the studies mentioned earlier together with these commercial magazines provide an insight into how endorsement is viewed by practitioners. That view is arguably an important one because it reflects the underlying realities of advertising.

// Fahad (1981) undertook a preliminary discussion with practitioners and showed that the basis for selecting an endorser varied from "intuition", "pure hunch" to "personal knowledge of a given endorser". Others claimed to select an endorser based on no preconception other than the fact that a specific celebrity was available to act as an endorser. The implication of all this is that contrary to the assumption in source effect studies that the source must be selected on the basis of some predefined attribute, practitioners seem to be doing almost the opposite. Their action, in addition to reflecting the real-world of advertising, suggests that any factor that can be thought of may be of significance to endorsement advertising. More realistically, however, they seem to imply considerations not hitherto incorporated in studies. Goldstein (1983) confirms this view. //

✓ Inferring a framework from the viewpoints expressed in the commercial magazines also lends credence to the argument that practitioners on the whole view endorsement markedly differently from academics. //

✓ Campaign (1979a), for example, observed that the single most important claim that can be made for endorsement is "recognition" of the product endorsed. This is the most frequent claim that is made by practitioners. Rawsthorn (1983) reports the claims of an advertiser that the use of the filmstar Telly Savalas as an endorser increased "awareness" for the product, "reinforced" the product to first-time buyers, made the appeal for the product "sharper", and

resulted in "gains" against competitors' products. These claims are not substantiated but are commonplace in the commercial magazines.

∟ Fahad (1981) elicited responses from well-known practitioners in Britain, one of whom stated that the major claim to be made for the technique lies in the "associations" that a product derives from the endorser, particularly from a celebrity. In the main, the associations were those concerned with the acting repertoire of the celebrity endorser which itself contributes to the "mechanistic" nature of the technique and its reliance upon advertising recall as a "measure of effectiveness".//

Pitcher (1981) reports that a cider company had selected the well-known BBC1 radio disc-jockey, Peter Powell because he was the "closest to the young image desired". Though Powell himself is not so young, being in his early thirties, his "image" was because as a radio disc-jockey he was constantly interacting with the young age groups and his overall repertoire makes him a "trend setter".

Campaign (1979b) reports that a Japanese manufacturer of menswear and accessories had selected the singer Dean Martin as an endorser for its product range because he more than anyone was able "to attract the over 30s market at whom the range of product is aimed". The footballer George Best is said by Campaign (1980a) to have been chosen to endorse the clothes of a major Scottish tailoring chain because as an Englishman, then playing for a Scottish team, he was less likely to "cause offence" to the target market who might be supporters of either Celtic or Rangers Football Club. The former world heavyweight boxing champion was, according to Campaign (1980b) chosen by the Japanese car manufacturer Toyota to endorse their cars in the Middle East because Ali is a well-known Muslim.

The most telling viewpoint comes from McCormack in an interview with Range (1982). // McCormack is world-renowned for exclusive contracts with the most famous celebrities for use as endorsers in



advertising. In 1982 he was said to have had an annual turnover in excess of £100 millions. ✓ According to McCormack, endorsement is about "creating international brands, market muscle, heighten hype, and transform fantasies into trademarks". When pressed further by Range he replied that he sees celebrities mainly as a way of promoting lifestyle "or marketing images, not athletes; of selling not a person but a personality and a life-style". //

Many of these views have been expressed by other practitioners and are indicative of the underlying differences to be found between advertising and social persuasion. Indeed while these views do not lead to the compilation of a systematic inventory of factors of significance in endorsement advertising, they provide a powerful argument for seeking a new line of investigation.

#### 4.5 Summary

Explanations of endorsement advertising have until now been based almost entirely on the findings of source effect studies in social persuasion. The reasons for this borrowing are best explained in terms of the evolution of marketing as a discipline, particularly in respect of the large scale borrowing of concepts and hypotheses from other disciplines within the social sciences, and on the basis of the similarities to be found between the source of a social persuasion message and the endorser of an advertising message. The latter was strengthened by virtue of the fact that a number of source effect studies incorporated one or more aspects of endorsement advertising.

The few studies that have examined aspects of endorsement in advertising can be grouped into two categories: commercially oriented studies, reporting mainly on frequency of usage and comparative aspects, and academically-based studies of endorsement, which set out to examine one or more aspects of endorsement but using mainly a social persuasion framework.

Because of the framework adopted, many of the important factors in the real-world context of advertising have been ignored. The characteristics of advertising make it very different from social persuasion. To reinforce the argument of differences and how these limit the findings of source effect studies, practitioners expressed viewpoints about the process of endorsement are considered. Though not based on any systematic research, these viewpoints illustrate practitioners' conception of endorsement advertising and suggest that it is markedly different from the conceptualisation of the source of a social persuasion message.

CHAPTER 5

Gaps Identified, Objectives and Proposed Methodology

## CHAPTER 5

### Gaps Identified, Objectives and Proposed Methodology

#### 5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter will be to set out the major gaps identified in the literature particularly in respect of explanations offered for the process of endorsement in advertising. Having set out the gaps, the chapter discusses the case for returning to basic principles as the basis for developing a systematic framework for endorsement and testimonial advertising.

Following this the boundaries for this study are then determined. Such a discussion is considered essential in order that the perspective of the study may be ascertained. Finally, the objectives of the research are set out and the proposed methodology for achieving these objectives discussed.

#### 5.2 Gaps identified

The literature review of academic studies and the few explanations that have to date been offered by advertising practitioners about endorsement advertising, both show major gaps in their framework.

Academic studies, as was seen in Chapters 2 and 3, examined the source of a persuasive message in a context markedly different from that which confronts an endorser of an advertising message. This context was referred to as social persuasion. Differences centre on such factors as the types of sources used, setting of the studies, kinds of issues used, composition of respondents, and types of measures and analyses utilised. In short, source effect studies have been characterised by major shortcomings which severely limit the generalisability of their findings to other settings.



Evidence for the above has come from a number of recent studies which have examined some aspect of endorsement advertising. Invariably these studies used the conceptual framework suggested by source effect studies. Results obtained, though inconclusive, seem to give credence to the proposition that many of the factors said to be of major importance in social persuasion are either not relevant or not as important in advertising. Hence, for example, characteristics of the source said to determine their relative persuasiveness were found not to be important in endorsers.

//At the same time, explanations of advertising practitioners, when not derived from the findings of source effect studies, seem to suggest an absence of formal and systematic research. Claims, for example, made in commercial journals tend often to be accompanied by either totally subjective viewpoints or statements implying that they are based on "proprietary research" which cannot be made public.//

//In addition, successive research at Strathclyde University into the use of endorsement by practitioners suggest that by and large most have idiosyncratic views based on 'experience'. Experiences differ so that views expressed were often in conflict. Furthermore, those practitioners who claim to have done "research" on endorsement advertising used very 'narrow' boundaries. Generally, research seems to have been confined to ascertaining whether a chosen endorser fulfilled certain specified objectives, related mainly to execution. In other words, such research only provided answers to specific questions of interest to the practitioner or the advertiser, rather than on target receivers' perception of the process.//

### 5.3 Rationale for returning to basic principles

From the discussion above, it can be seen that existing knowledge about the process of endorsement advertising is both inadequate and severely limited. Furthermore, it seems certain

that this situation is likely to remain the same if studies attempting to examine aspects of endorsement advertising, continue to use the traditional line of investigation suggested by source effect studies.

Therefore, the argument is that research on the process of endorsement advertising must abandon such a traditional line in favour of one that incorporates some of the realities that exist in the advertising context. However, because research to date has neither incorporated these realities nor been systematic, the need is to return to basic principles. Such a process necessarily involves returning to target receivers at whom endorsement advertising, and for that matter all marketing activities, are directed in order to obtain their perceptions of the endorsement process. In this way, it will then be possible to develop a conceptual framework that is able to direct future research and to provide a systematic body of knowledge.

#### 5.4 Boundaries for this study

Having broadly outlined the areas which future research should consider, it is necessary to specify the boundaries of this study.

Firstly, this study is concerned with both endorsement and testimonial advertising. The differences between the two were, it will be recalled, fully discussed in Chapter 1 and are considered important. Therefore, an attempt will be made as far as possible to discuss the findings in terms of the two, particularly the relevance of such findings to one or the other.

Secondly, given that some 90% of endorsers are celebrities, this study will be confined to this group. Therefore consumer endorsers and others will be excluded from the considerations.

Thirdly, this study attempts to identify the underlying perceptions of target receivers to the process of endorsement

advertising in general. In other words, the study is considered to be largely exploratory in nature seeking to answer the basic question of how the audience views endorsement advertising.

Fourthly, no attempt will be made to examine specific examples of endorsement in current use although some were cited in the introductory chapter (1) of this study.

Fifthly, this study is concerned more with generating views from target receivers about endorsement advertising than with testing either specific issues or factors identified by source effect studies or what practitioners have offered in explanation.

Finally, this study makes no attempt to incorporate advertisers' viewpoints because it is generally assumed that the views expressed by agencies tend to be representative of those of advertisers. In short, the framework to be developed may be seen as moving from the consumer towards the advertiser.

### 5.5 Research Objectives

Given the specified considerations above, the objectives of this research may be listed as follows:

- (1) To elicit descriptions of celebrities from target receivers.
- (2) To elicit descriptions for endorsers.
- (3) To identify the feelings and attitudes of receivers to celebrities taking part in advertising.
- (4) To elicit reactions to endorsements.
- (5) To explore and identify other factors affecting the endorsement process.
- (6) To provide a base and a direction for future research aimed at establishing a conceptual framework of the endorsement process.

## 5.6 Proposed Methodology

The research consists of two stages, as follows:

Stage 1: This stage consists of a number of group discussions. 10 or more group sessions are to be organised. Prior to the actual group sessions, it is expected that a number of "dummy" sessions will be organised with a view to familiarising the researcher to the technique. This will be fully discussed in Chapter 6.

Stage 2: This stage consists of a questionnaire survey. The purpose of this stage, as will be seen in Chapter 8, is basically to ascertain the extent to which issues identified in the group sessions are perceived as important by a more representative sample. The questionnaire survey was carried out in the city of Glasgow and it is planned to distribute the questionnaire to some 500 respondents.

This two-stage methodology is widely reported in the general literature. Cooper (1977), for instance, has argued that group discussions followed by a questionnaire should be regarded as "complementary" rather than as opposites. Cox, Higginbotham and Burton (1976), on the other hand, posit that a questionnaire can only deal with issues and elicit the desired response if, in the first instance, the issues and concepts being examined are ones that subjects "think, feel, use and talk about". To do this, they suggest that a questionnaire must be preceded by group discussions.



CHAPTER 6

Stage 1 - Group Discussions: Review and  
Organisation of the Sessions

## CHAPTER 6

### Stage 1 - Group Discussions: Review and Organisation of the Sessions

#### 6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter will be to review the literature on group discussions and to set out the steps taken to organise the required group sessions.

The chapter begins by first of all showing some of the differences between the set of techniques generally referred to as group discussions or focus groups. Following these distinctions, the discussions will centre on the features of the technique particularly its advantages and disadvantages. In addition, some of the more important requirements for running a group discussion will also be discussed.

Next, the chapter considers the steps taken to organise the group sessions. The discussions centre on ways in which respondents were selected, venues of the sessions and other related issues. However, the requirements for successfully organising a group discussion led the researcher to organise a number of "dummy" group discussions. Given that these dummy sessions were intended to identify any possible shortcomings and to familiarise the researcher with the technique, these aspects are fully discussed.

#### 6.2 The Nature of Group Discussions

Kinnear and Taylor (1979) argue that a group discussion is a form of interview and as such comes under the heading of "unstructured-direct" method of communication. An interview, according to Denzin (1970), is "a face to face conversational exchange where one person elicits information from another".

Given that it is a form of interviewing, it is necessary to consider some of its more important characteristics. Black and

Champion (1976) have argued that the main features of an interview may be summarised as follows:

- (a) Questions are asked and responses given verbally.
- (b) Information is recorded by the investigator rather than the respondent.
- (c) The relationship between the interviewer and interviewee is structured in several specific ways, such as its transitory or temporary relationship where participants are often unknown to one another, etc.
- (d) There is considerable flexibility in the format of the interview.

In addition to possessing the above, a group discussion according to Sampson (1978) has the following specific attributes:

- (a) The group varies in number but has anything between 8 to 12 persons.
- (b) Persons in the group are known to have knowledge about the topics or issues being discussed.
- (c) The moderator's duty is basically to guide the direction and depth of discussions.
- (d) The group is encouraged to freely express their opinions, beliefs and attitudes on the issues being discussed.
- (e) The group situation is characterised by the need of the researcher "to learn about" the issues being discussed based on the perspective of the members of the group.

### 6.3 Purpose of Group Discussions

Many reasons are provided in the general literature for using group discussions as a research technique. Smith (1972), for example, contends that a group discussion can be used for the following purpose:

- (a) For research concerned with motives, attitudes and opinions where social status and acceptance are involved.
- (b) For bringing out ideas in the dynamic group situation which cannot be elicited by other methods.
- (c) For attempting to answer the question 'why' in relation to behaviour.
- (d) Valuable in the preliminary or exploratory stage of a research project.
- (e) It enables a questionnaire to be constructed for piloting and pre-testing which should include all the possible lines of enquiry.
- (f) It is useful for indicating the actual language people use when discussing the topic informally, thus ensuring that when a questionnaire is being constructed, the wording of the actual questions asked will be meaningful.

Other reasons for using group discussions, cited by Kinneer and Taylor (1979), include:

- (a) To generate hypotheses that can be further tested quantitatively.
- (b) To provide overall background information on a product category.
- (c) To get impressions on new product concepts for which there is little information available.
- (d) To generate ideas for new creative concepts.
- (e) To interpret previously obtained quantitative results.

The above seem to cover most of the reasons for using group discussions. In the main, it can be seen that the underlying purpose of a group discussion is to identify issues related to a specific concept about which little is generally known. Therefore, it can be argued that it is perhaps the most appropriate technique for this research given the nature of the problem being examined.



#### 6.4 The Advantages and Disadvantages of Group Discussions

Like any other data collection method, a group discussion has advantages and some shortcomings. However, some of these advantages and disadvantages are not peculiar only to group discussions but often to interviews in general.

Gorden (1969) has mentioned the following advantages:

- (a) It enables the researcher to obtain the desired information more quickly.
- (b) It ensures that respondents understand the questions being asked.
- (c) It is very flexible, thereby allowing the researcher to adjust his line of questioning.
- (d) Much more control can be exercised over the context within which questions are asked and answers given.
- (e) Information can be more readily checked for its validity on the basis of non-verbal cues by the respondent.

Other advantages claimed for the technique include:

- Synergism: combined effect of the group produces a wider range of information, ideas, etc.
- Snowballing: a comment by an individual often triggers a chain of responses from other respondents.
- Stimulation: respondents become more responsive after initial introduction and more likely to express their attitudes and feelings as the general level of excitement increases.
- Security: most respondents find comfort in a group that shares his feelings and beliefs.
- Spontaneity: as individuals are not required to answer any specific questions, their responses are likely to be more spontaneous and less conventional.
- Serendipity: the ease of the group is likely to produce wider ideas and often when least expected.

- Specialisation: allows a more trained interviewer to be used and minimises the possibility of subjectivity.
- Scientific scrutiny: allows a closer scrutiny of the technique by allowing observers or by later playback and analysis of the recorded sessions.
- Structure: affords more flexibility in the topics that can be covered and in the depth in which these are treated.
- Speed: given that a number of individuals are being interviewed at the same time, this speeds up the process of collecting and analysing the data.

(For a discussion of the above, see for instance Wells, 1974; May, 1978; Kinnear and Taylor, 1979; and also De-Almeida, 1980).

Disadvantages include:

- (a) The validity of verbal responses particularly in relation to behaviour.
- (b) Interviewer variability means that the type and depth of information elicited can vary markedly.
- (c) Variability of interviewers on the same study.
- (d) Variations inherent in the interviewing contract.
- (e) Interviews usually take much more time to complete than is at first envisaged, especially when it comes to transcribing the content and analysing the information.
- (f) Recording of information tends to vary between interviewers.

Other disadvantages mentioned in the general literature include:

- The sample size is often too small and limits the generalisation of data obtained.
- Sample is often not representative.
- Responses may be biased as a result of the interaction of the participants.

- Data are "too soft" to be reliable.
- Results are often not reliable.
- Results cannot be extrapolated to the whole population.
- Self-appointed leaders may influence the opinions of the rest.

Other minor shortcomings can also be found in the general literature. (For a review, see for instance Twyman, 1973; Black and Champion, 1976; Rosenstein, 1978; Reynolds and Johnson, 1978; and also De-Almeida, 1980).

Despite some of the disadvantages of the technique, it is generally considered as an important data collection method. Moreover, as will be shown in a later section, it is possible for a researcher to minimise, if not eliminate, such shortcomings.

#### 6.5 Types of Group Discussions/Focus Groups in use

Although the discussions thus far have referred to group discussions as a single technique, a number of researchers have argued that the technique consists of several variants, which have differences between them.

Sampson (1978) has argued that the main variants may be summarised as follows:

- (a) The group interview or group discussion. In this format individuals are brought together under the direction of a "group leader" or "moderator", who plays a more passive role than that in the individual depth interview.
- (b) The elicitation interview, whereby the interviewer makes use of a battery of open-ended questions in the belief that salient attributes elicited may be more reliable measures of consumer behaviour.
- (c) The repertory or "Kelly" Grid Technique, in which stimuli are presented to respondents in the form of word labels, written statements, drawings, etc, and responses sought to these.

De-Almeida's (1980) state of the art review led him to observe that though group or focus groups are the most used techniques in marketing research, they seem also to be the most misunderstood. The major reason for such misunderstanding is the failure of researchers to recognise fine differences between the family of techniques. In summary, he identified the following variants:

- (a) Group discussions, these tend to be mainly unstructured types of investigation of given topics, using small groups with a basically non-directive moderation.
- (b) Group interviewing, whereby questions are posed to a group (instead of a single individual), more or less using the same format as in interviews with single individuals.
- (c) Focused Group interviewing, in which the individuals in the group are asked to focus their responses on past subjective associations and emotions.
- (d) The 'Delphi' group interviewing involving the group being asked to develop new ideas and insights based on knowledge of prior ones from other individuals, groups, or even from the same group.

However, not everyone agrees that there are differences between the variants. Those who disagree argue that the purpose of assembling a group of individuals is not so much so that they can "ramble on" about everything or anything but to focus their minds on given topics or issues. Mostyn (1976), for example, a supporter of this contention, thus concluded that focus group interview is synonymous with group discussion.

For this study, differences are recognised. Although it is intended to use the group discussion format discussed above, certain sections of the format of presentation will incorporate the focus group variant. This will be discussed in the section on presentation format.



## 6.6 The Requirements for running group discussions

A review of the literature of group discussions indicates that there are two schools of thought about the running of group discussions. The first school argues that the technique is largely determined by the specific issue being investigated and that as a result, it is almost impossible to specify hard and fast rules or requirements for effectively running group discussions (Axelrod, 1975/1976).

The second school, on the other hand, seems agreed that although the technique is influenced to a great extent by specific situations, there are certain requirements that should be taken into account. These requirements, it is generally argued, are not meant to be rules as much as steps likely to increase the chances of conducting and running a successful group discussion.

The discussion of requirements that now follows is based largely on Dickens' (1982) review of the literature and his experience of using the technique. In general, requirements are discussed under the following headings:

(a) Planning the group discussions. Regardless of the situation in which the technique is used, the researcher needs to have tentative answers to the following questions:

- To whom do we want to talk and which market or consumer characteristics will primarily guide the sample design.
- The type of discussion that is to be undertaken.
- The size and structure of the sample and the extent to which these fulfil set goals or objectives.
- The issues that are to be covered in the discussions.

(b) The recruitment of respondents. Collective experience suggests that recruitment of respondents must be carried out by "trained field workers" rather than by the researchers.

This ensures that selection be made on the basis of door-to-door interviewing conducted within the vicinity of the interviewer's home; and that respondents selected satisfy specific characteristics desired.

(c) The characteristics of the moderator. It is generally agreed that the success of a group discussion is determined in large part by the moderator and, more specifically, by the skills he possesses. The Market Research Society's Sub-Committee Report (1979), for example, lists the following skills and characteristics:

- He must have intellectual ability and yet be able to show common sense and be "down to earth".
- He must be able to show imagination and yet be logical.
- He must show empathy and yet be able to project himself "naturally".
- He must be able to identify the "typical", yet think beyond stereotypes.
- He must be able to articulate himself and yet be a good listener.
- He must be able to think analytically and yet must tolerate "disorder".

Many other characteristics have also been suggested by other researchers. (The reader is referred to the following for characteristics perceived as essential: Merton and Kendall, 1946; Smith, 1972; Cox, Higginbotham and Burton, 1976; and Kinnear and Taylor, 1979).

(d) The venue of the group discussions. While there are many advantages to recruiting near the interviewer's home, there are also certain disadvantages. To minimise the effects of the latter, Dickens (1982) suggests that a number of steps be

carried out in respect of the venue where the sessions are to be held. The more important steps include:

- Preparing the room and ensuring adequate chairs and an informal arrangement.
- Ensuring that refreshments are available and ready to serve so as to avoid interruptions later.
- Testing equipments to be used and the general acoustics.
- Checking the exact composition of the group.
- Taking a last look at the topic guide to refresh one's memory.

Others, however, have argued that generally a venue must not be in the home but in a specifically designed room or laboratory, which would allow researchers to observe the sessions in progress often through one-way mirrors attached to these rooms (Wells, 1974; also Payne, 1976).

- (e) The format or presentation. This concerns the way the session is started and includes things like a personal introduction, self-introduction by each respondent, and so on. Dickens (1982) comments that the format of presentation is very much a matter of personal style, since there are other researchers who feel that any sort of "beginning" to a group must be avoided.
- (f) The running of the group discussion. This centres on the specific roles to be carried out by the moderator to ensure that members are stimulated and to avoid conflicts between members. Moreover, it seems that the moderator's job is made the more difficult because he has the predominant function of listening and thinking, and deciding when to interject with a question or a probe. In addition, it has to be decided which visual and verbal stimuli will be used for running the group discussion.

Smith (1972), on the other hand, has argued that the running of a group discussion requires the moderator to identify the types of respondents in the group and to take action to minimise their possible effects. Three types of respondents are identified, as follows:

- The Monopolist: an individual who wishes to do all the talking. The moderator must take up a convenient discussion point from one of his remarks, and put it to the rest of the group.
- The Silent-Shy: this individual cannot bring himself to participate at all. Factional questions are likely to produce co-operation.
- The Silent-Aggressive: generally has plenty to say but believes that he is no good at saying it. His grievances should be probed and discussed by others in the group.

(g) Analysis of the group discussions. After undergoing all the basic steps, a point is reached when the researcher has to decide how he is going to analyse the data. If this is considered at the earlier stages, it eases analysis and makes for easier identification of relationships.

Dickens (1982) argues that analysis involves two processes which can occur concurrently rather than consecutively. These are:

- A system analysis of the tape recorded discussions.
- A conceptual analysis of the data.

Despite this seemingly straightforward explanation, some researchers have argued that analysis entails a large element of subjectivity. Szybillo and Berger (1979) argue that the findings obtained greatly rely on the involvement of the moderator and that



such a reliance often results in depending less on psychological themes for the interpretative analysis. Templeton (1976) has also argued that the data obtained from group discussions cannot be literally interpreted because the broader implications of what was not said may also have to enter into the equation when analysing the data. In other words, analysis of the data has to be carried within a given framework or with certain assumptions in mind in order that it may become more scientifically based.

The summary discussion above of some of the requirements for running group discussions constitute a large part of the available literature on the subject. Those who support the requirements school, as it were, often give the impression that only by adhering to these can a researcher ensure that some of the shortcomings discussed earlier be minimised.

#### 6.7 Operationalising the Group Discussion: Steps undertaken

After reviewing the general literature of group discussions, it became clear to the researcher that the guidelines thus far provided are, by and large, directed at "professional" rather than postgraduate researchers. This is a significant point that is often either ignored or underplayed by those postgraduate researchers who have used the technique. For example, the fact that interviewers are assumed to be different from researchers, as was seen earlier, represents a major problem because in a postgraduate researcher's case he is required to play or undertake both parts. Also, given that the large majority of the target receivers required for the study could not be recruited in the University, there was a need for the researcher to recruit from the "real world", as it were. This meant acquiring "other skills" in addition to those deemed to be essential qualities of the moderator.

This realisation led the researcher to develop the steps that are now discussed.

### 6.7.1 Running a number of "Dummy" group discussions

By and large, endorsements are for consumer rather than industrial products. The composition of the population means that many of these endorsed products are bought and consumed by C2DE respondents. These target receivers it was appreciated were going to possess many different characteristics with which the researcher may not be familiar.

Consequently, the first step carried out was to organise a number of group discussions as dummy runs. Prior to undertaking these, however, the researcher contacted 10 agencies in Scotland with a view to obtaining a list of celebrities they would consider as candidate endorsers. In addition to the names, agencies were asked to specify the product(s) for which each celebrity would be selected to endorse. Eight agencies responded and the following list of celebrities was obtained:

Pat Phoenix	Ricki Fulton	Judith Chalmers
David Bellamy	Anna Ford	Spike Milligan
Glenda Jackson	Una Stubbs	Isla St.Clair
Moira Anderson	Jimmy Saville	Stanley Baxter
Felicity Kendall	Billy Connolly	Ian Ogilvy
Rod Hull		

The researcher contacted the BBC librarian in London and obtained the photographs of these celebrities. With the kind co-operation of the Glasgow Art Galleries, the photographs were enlarged and mounted so that they could be visible to the respondents.

Recruitment and running of the dummy sessions took place at Strathclyde University, which has a large number of manual workers who may be classed as C2DEs. Contact was made through the elected work supervisors in each of the campus buildings in the beginning

of May 1983. In the end, four sessions were organised, details of which are shown in Table 6.1 below

Table 6.1: Characteristics of the Dummy Group Discussions

Session Number	No. of Respondents	*Sex		*Age		Morning	Afternoon	Duration of the session
		Males	Females	16-34	35+			
1	7	1	6	3	4	✓		1 hour
2	9	2	7	3	6	✓		1½ hours
3	10	1	9	4	6		✓	2 hours
4	9	2	7	2	7	✓		1½ hours

\* The selection of sexes and age group was guided by the "BARB TB Viewing Figures".

The format of presentation developed for the dummy sessions is as follows:

- Stage One: Introduction, specifying the purpose of the discussions.  
Photographs of celebrities shown and respondents asked to describe each of the celebrities.
- Stage Two: Respondents are asked to discuss how they feel about celebrities taking part in advertising.
- Stage Three: Respondents re-shown photographs of celebrities and asked to describe these as endorsers.  
Respondents are asked to give reasons for their descriptions of endorsers.
- Stage Four: Respondents are asked to recall endorsement commercials or advertisements they had seen.  
Respondents are asked to recall their actions or the "sort of things" that went through their minds while or after having seen the endorsement.

Stage Five: Respondents are asked to discuss any other issues they feel are of importance to the discussion at hand.

Summarising overall discussions.

The dummy sessions were useful in several respects, not least because of the insight they provided in regard to the complex number of factors involved in a group discussion. More specifically, the dummy sessions identified a number of problem areas which the researcher had to resolve if the actual group discussions are to be successful. These included the following:

(a) Language used by the researcher. The dummy sessions indicated that academic language, even at its most basic, was totally unsuitable for use in groups that are composed mainly of C2DE respondents. An example will perhaps illustrate the point better. In the format no problem was assumed to relate to the word "describe" since this is a basic term. However, in each of the dummy sessions, respondents indicated verbally to the researcher that they could not describe any of the celebrities. Probing revealed that firstly to describe someone or something is generally seen as something one does when a "crime" has been committed. Secondly, a few revealed that they did not use the word in their normal conversation. Instead, it was suggested that the researcher should use some of the following: "What do you think of him or her?", "what do you make of him?", "What do you think he is like", and so on.

Consequently, the researcher through trial and error was able to adjust his language.

(b) Format of presentation. The sessions indicated that while it is essential to have a set format, the moderator needs to be very flexible because of the way, for example, C2DEs "reason" and articulate themselves. For example, when asked to express their feelings towards celebrities taking part in advertising, a few of



the respondents attempted to recall an endorsement commercial and how they had felt.

Therefore, the approach required is to pursue the idea elicited and then gradually to introduce the topic that should have been discussed. In this way, respondents are not made to feel that they have to confine themselves to what is being specifically asked.

(c) Degree of control exercised by the moderator. From the dummy sessions, it became apparent that the moderator needs to be both "firm" and flexible. Invariably, it seems that any group consisting of eight or more members is likely to have "a monopolist", discussed earlier, and "a distractor". The latter is similar to the "silent aggressive" discussed earlier and seems intent on distracting others from what is being discussed. This required firm action from the moderator, such as saying: "Now I know that you might have something to say about what I am now going to ask". This ensured that other respondents were brought into the discussions as they also attempted to put their views across.

(d) Number of photographs shown. Originally, the intention was to show as many photographs of celebrities as seemed required. This was, however, shown to be a distraction as some respondents asked to see one or more of the photographs shown or yet to be shown.

Therefore, it was necessary to adopt a more systematic format and to assign a specific number of photographs to be shown. This would ensure that there is no bias introduced as a result of the way celebrities' photographs are shown, and it would be less likely to distract if a respondent then asked to see one of the photographs already shown.

In the end, six photographs were deemed to be the most appropriate to be shown in any group session. This ensured that

enough photographs were shown and for the discussions to progress to other issues.

(e) Stating the purpose of the discussions. Language used led many respondents initially to misunderstand the purpose of the introduction. A few said later that they had assumed that they were going to be given some sort of a mental test requiring them to write the answers.

The language was thus modified so that the introduction became more a way of welcoming a group of people to an evening for tea and biscuits. Furthermore, the introduction had to be very brief since under each issue the moderator could interject with a small introduction. This made it easier for members to follow the discussion.

(f) Time of day in which the session is held. Although only one session was organised in the afternoon, it appeared to be much more productive than the morning sessions. Several reasons can be advanced for this observation, not least because volunteers worked early in the morning and may not have had a rest before attending the session. At the same time, questioning revealed that many respondents would have preferred to have attended at "teatime" and would have considered it almost as "an evening out with the girls".

Also, the sessions provided an insight as to the time limit of the topic. That is, beyond a certain time period, in this case between 1 and 3 hours, respondents are likely to become bored and to lose concentration on the topic being discussed.

(g) The venue where the group discussions are held. Some respondents indicated that for them a University environment was not conducive to a free discussion. Furthermore, a few said when asked that they would be unable to recruit people from their areas, be they friends or neighbours, because they were likely to see the discussions as being more formal and a form of mental test "of the

working classes". A few respondents pointed out that a University is all about being "serious" so that no attempt can get rid of that image.

This completes some of the more important issues that were identified by the dummy group discussions. Overall, they justified the researcher's view that there were likely to be differences in approach when dealing with C2DEs.

#### 6.7.2 Selecting a frame of reference for the sample

Before respondents could be recruited for the group discussions, it was essential that a sample frame be selected. The process followed is that suggested by Tull and Hawkins (1980), who specify a number of steps to be followed.

The frame was developed as follows:

1. Population definition of the study: all television viewing adults of Great Britain.
2. Sample frame of the study: the "BARB" Television Viewing Audience Profile for May 1983, which provided the following breakdown:

Table 6.2: "BARB" TV Viewing Audience Profile

Socio-Economic Grouping	As a % of total viewing audience
AB	9.5%
C1	15.7%
C2DE	74.9%
Breakdown by:	
1. <u>Age</u>	
16-34	28.9%
35+	71.1%
2. <u>Sex</u>	
Males	41.7%
Females	58.3%

3. Method of sample selection: it was decided for the group discussions to use a combination of Quota and Judgemental sampling methods. An attempt was made to recruit respondents so as to satisfy the sample frame and at the same time, using personal judgement when it is not possible to satisfy the requirements.
4. Sample size of the discussions: it was decided to recruit respondents for 8 group sessions, with each group having between 8 to 10 individuals. In total, it was anticipated that some 80 persons will take part in the discussions.

#### 6.7.3 Approaches used in recruiting respondents

Prior to organising the dummy group discussions the researcher had been in contact with three parish priests in the South and West sides of Glasgow, with a view to obtaining permission to recruit respondents and to be allowed to use a room in the parish. However, these parishes seemed likely to be composed mainly of ABs and Cls.

After the dummy sessions, the researcher decided to use his own home as the venue for the sessions composed of C2DEs. In order to satisfy the requirements about recruitment, contact was made with the Queen Elizabeth Tenants Association. This association, based in the South Side of Glasgow, has a membership of over 2,000. In the beginning of May 1983 the president of the association agreed to make announcements at their fortnightly meetings which were attended by the researcher. During these meetings names and addresses of respondents were taken down, as were the times they felt they would be able to attend the group discussions.

In the beginning of June 1983 it became apparent that only one parish priest was prepared to give permission to recruit from his congregation and to the use of a parish room. At this point it



became necessary to approach fellow colleagues in the department known to reside in areas composed of AB and C1 social classes. A colleague agreed to help and to the use of her house as a venue for the discussions. Thus, recruitment of ABs and C1s both at the parish and the colleague's area (Helensburgh) commenced in the middle of June 1983.

In the beginning of July 1983, the arrangements were finalised and the sessions commenced. The sessions were organised over a period of 4 weeks and took place at weekends, mainly Saturdays and Sundays. As will be seen in the section that follows, in the end 2 sessions were organised for ABC1s (who were grouped together for convenience of analysis) and 6 sessions for C2DEs.

## 6.8 Features of the group discussions organised

Having examined the steps that were developed to recruit respondents, it now seems appropriate to discuss the characteristics of the group discussions organised. Basically this centres on the format of presentation, and the profile of respondents who took part as well as the group discussions themselves.

### 6.8.1 Format of presentation

For the two sessions consisting of ABC1s the format outlined in Section 6.7.1 above was followed. However, for the sessions composed of C2DEs the format was modified so that no formal introduction took place, nor were there any conclusions. The latter had been shown by the dummy sessions to be unsuitable since it only served to reinforce the "serious nature" of the discussions. Rather, when it appeared that a given issue had been exhausted the researcher would attempt to repeat some of the things that had been said.

In addition, a more systematic way of showing the photographs was developed as shown in the table overleaf.

Table 6.3: Order in which photographs of celebrities were shown

Name of Celebrity	Group Session Number							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Order of Presentation							
Pat Phoenix	1	-	-	6	-	3	-	-
Ricki Fulton	-	1	-	3	-	4	-	-
Judith Chalmers	-	2	-	4	-	-	1	-
David Bellamy	2	-	4	-	-	6	-	-
Anna Ford	-	-	1	-	3	-	5	-
Spike Milligan	-	3	-	5	-	-	6	-
Glenda Jackson	5	-	-	-	1	-	-	4
Una Stubbs	-	4	-	2	-	-	3	-
Isla St.Clair	3	-	-	-	5	-	-	6
Moira Anderson	-	-	3	-	-	5	-	2
Jimmy Saville	-	-	2	-	6	-	-	5
Stanley Baxter	-	5	-	1	-	-	4	-
Felicity Kendall	-	6	5	-	-	2	-	-
Billy Connolly	6	-	-	-	4	-	2	-
Ian Ogilvy	-	-	6	-	2	-	-	1
Rod Hull	4	-	-	-	-	1	-	3

This order ensured that photographs were rotated and that in each session the photographs of 3 males and 3 females would be shown. Also, no celebrity would appear in more than three of the sessions.

#### 6.8.2 The profile of respondents taking part in the group discussions

The table below shows the characteristics of the respondents who took part in the group sessions. It can be seen that instead of the 80 anticipated there were only 71 respondents in total.

This means that there were some differences between the "BARB" profile and the group discussions held. However, these differences are not considered to be of sufficient importance to affect the results obtained.

Table 6.4 Profile of Respondents in the group discussions

Socio-economic grouping	Details of respondents:			
	Sex		Age Group	
	Male	Female	16-34	35+
ABC1	6	12	7	11
C2DE	15	38	21	32
As a percentage of total number of respondents	30%	70%	39%	61%
Comparison with BARB TV viewing figures	-11%	+12%	+10%	-10%

### 6.8.3 Details of the group discussions

Table 6.4 below shows the details of the group discussions, particularly in respect of the number of sessions organised and duration. The table shows that the average duration of the sessions composed of ABC1s is 2½ hours, whereas the average for C2DEs is about 3 hours. All times are inclusive of short breaks for tea and biscuits, etc.

Table 6.5 Details of the group discussions

Socio-economic grouping	No. of sessions	Total No. of respondents	Period in which session was held		Average duration of the sessions	% of total number of respondents
			Afternoon	Evening		
ABC1	2	18	-	2	2½ hours	25%
C2DE	6	53	2	4	3 hours	75%
Total	8	71	2	6	-	100%

### 6.9 Analysis of the group discussions

It was seen in the review of the literature of group discussions that a major weakness of the technique lies in the way the data is analysed. The analysis becomes less subjective if "content analysis" is used.

Briefly, content analysis is a method of data analysis as well as a method of observation. The process involves taking the communications that people have produced and asks questions, as it were, of the communications. Therefore, the content of communication serves as the basis of inference. Procedures involve:

- (a) Describing the attributes of the message.
- (b) Analysing the text in order to make inferences about the sender of the message and about the causes of the message.
- (c) Inferring aspects of culture of social class.
- (d) Inferences derives about the effects of messages on the recipients.

For a review of the technique and the procedures involved, the reader is referred to the text by Nachmias and Nachmias (1976) and also that by Kassarian (1977).



Therefore, the group discussions will be analysed using content analysis, in a varied form. The variation will be in terms of examining the content in relation to the issue or the questions posed. However, it was argued in an earlier section that analysis of the discussions can be said to be more scientifically based if done with certain assumptions in mind (see Section 6.6.8). So, it is perhaps now appropriate to discuss the framework within which the discussions will be analysed.

#### 6.9.1 Basic assumptions of the research

From the academic literature and what advertising practitioners have said about the process of endorsement in advertising, together with observation of current endorsements, a number of basic assumptions can be made.

The large majority of current endorsers (observation of current endorsements suggest up to 90%) are celebrities. As used in this study, a celebrity is someone who as a result of his activity or activities has been brought to the public's attention, often through the medium of television. The frequency of such attention varies between individuals, with some drawing the public's attention much more frequently than others, although invariably for an activity or activities that have nothing to do with the products endorsed.

In general, a celebrity has an acting or a stage persona which determines the extent of his "popularity" with the general public. It seems likely that some members of the general public may "approve" of the celebrity's persona, while others may "disapprove" or even be indifferent. Regardless of the specific feeling or view, that celebrity would have a sort of relationship with each member of the public.

Contrary to the often proffered argument by practitioners that the general public like to see celebrities in commercials, for this

study it is assumed that there will be different views with some approving while others disagreeing to celebrities taking part in advertising. It is assumed that approval or disapproval to taking part in advertising is largely determined by the extent of the popularity of the celebrity, extent to which the celebrity's persona is "liked" or "disliked" and personal factors relating to the individual member of the public, such as their socio-economic status, occupation, values, etc.

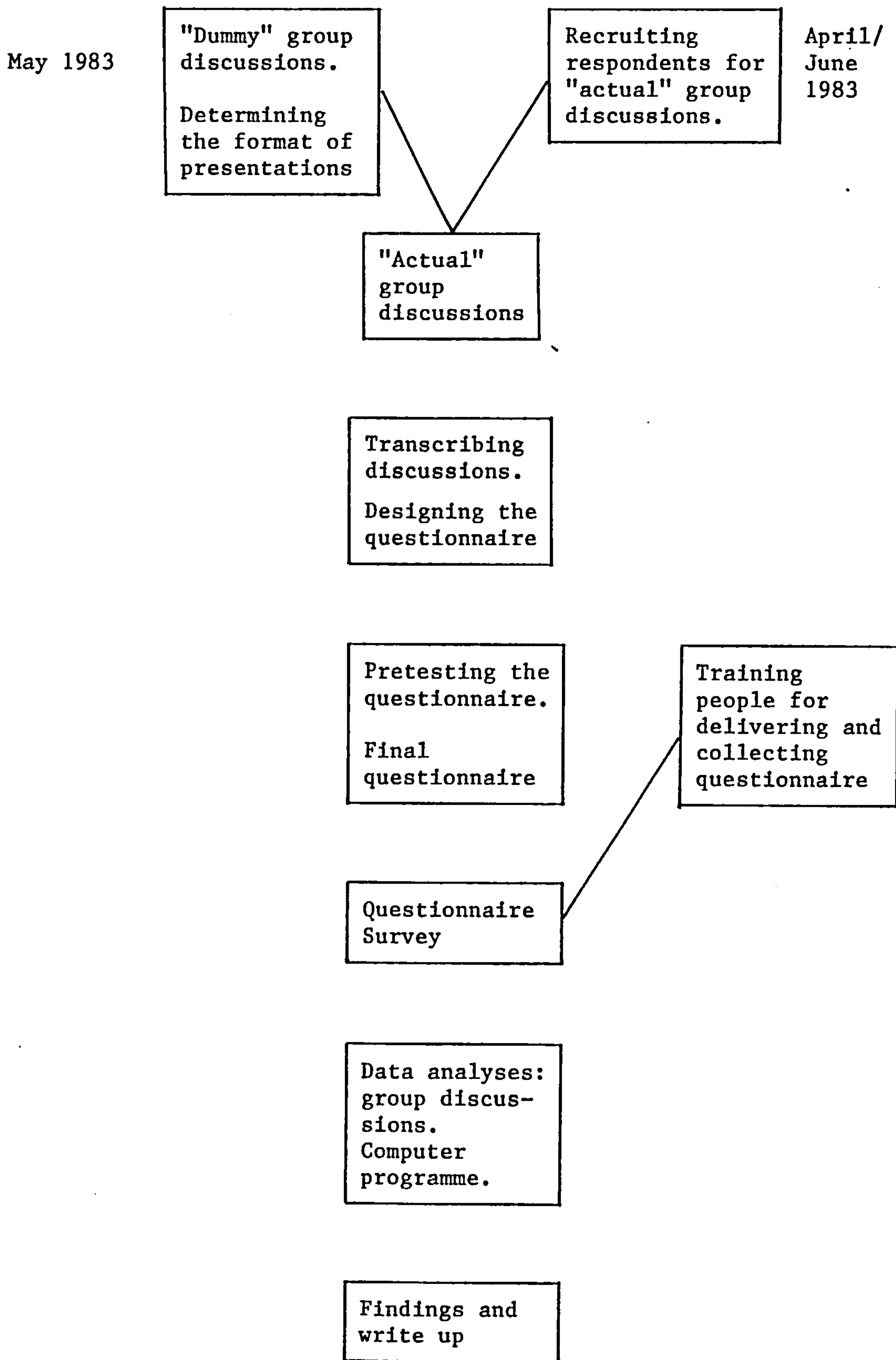
On becoming an endorser, a celebrity is assumed to affect the relationship he has with the general public. Some are likely to re-assess their valuation of the celebrity, particularly in terms of the attributes which may have made them popular or likeable, while others may continue to hold the same relationship regardless. The extent to which an endorser still maintains his stage and other persona is assumed to reflect the degree of his popularity.

It is assumed that only a few endorsement commercials are seen and attended to on their first showing. Rather, it is likely that a given endorsement commercial may be viewed over several showings. The more popular or approved a celebrity the more likely it is that a receiver will attend to what is being said over a shorter period. However "interference" by other factors it is assumed will have a marked effect, so that even a popular or a likeable endorser may only marginally get his message across.

Finally, it is assumed that the process of attending to an endorsement commercial is, in addition to the popularity of that endorser, influenced by "personal" considerations of the receiver. These may include any factors which the receiver considers to be important.

#### 6.10 Stages of the Research Process

Given that the group discussions are the first stage in the research process, there is a need to conceptualise the development of the second stage. The different stages of the research process are illustrated in the figure shown overleaf and will need no further elaboration at this stage.

Figure 6.1: Stages of the Research Process



CHAPTER 7

Qualitative Data: Findings of the Group Discussions

## CHAPTER 7

### Qualitative Data: Findings of the Group Discussions

#### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of the group discussions, using the objectives of the research and the format of presentation as the framework for analysis. Based on this framework, the findings are reported and discussed under four main headings, namely:

- descriptions of celebrities and endorsers and the grounds on which respondents based these descriptions.
- attitudinal response to celebrities taking part in advertising.
- recall of endorsement advertising and reactions.
- comparisons of the advertising process and the social persuasion process.

Following these findings, a summary discussion is undertaken setting out the main themes which form the basis of the questionnaire design and construction.

### FINDINGS

#### 7.2 Descriptions of celebrities and endorsers and grounds for these descriptions

This section consists of three sub-headings. Such a treatment has been necessary in order to ease the flow of the discussion and to illustrate more clearly the similarities and differences in the descriptions elicited.

##### 7.2.1 Descriptions of celebrities

The discussions of ABC1 respondents indicated that, by and large, many could not identify the selected celebrities and, as a result, were unable to offer descriptions based on knowledge of these celebrities. Descriptions that were elicited were based

almost entirely on the photographs shown in the group sessions, and generally covered two headings:

- (a) The profession of the celebrity: most ABC1 respondents said that they would describe a celebrity as an "entertainer". Many admitted that they could not say precisely what field of general entertainment a celebrity is in but that a "safe guess" would be to describe him or her as an "actor" or "actress".
- (b) Physical makeup: based on the photographs, most ABC1 respondents were able to offer descriptions of the appearance of the celebrity. Thus, a celebrity would be described as: "he looks handsome", "he seems well-built", "he looks rather tall", and so on.

On the other hand, C2DE respondents were able to correctly identify each celebrity whose photograph was shown and offered descriptions encompassing a very wide context. From the various discussions, the following descriptions were identified:

- (a) The profession of the celebrity: most C2DE respondents said that a celebrity can be described in terms of profession and, more specifically, in respect of their field of entertainment. It appears from the discussions that these respondents categorised entertainment as follows:

- (1) Actor, Actress, Comedian, Singer and all other "acting parts".
- (2) Sports personalities, athletes and athletic-related activities.
- (3) Newscaster, Presenter, Show presenter and other related activities.
- (4) An 'outsider' to the entertainment industry, such as Freddie Laker, David Bellamy, and so on.

In addition, the discussions indicate that celebrities who were categorised mainly as actors were further described as being one of the following:

- (1) A "serious" actor. A celebrity described in this way was generally seen as someone who plays "meaningful" acting parts, often depicting aspects of their own life. The discussion of one respondent summarised this aspect as follows:

"You see Pat's had a tough life and that's why she can act her parts so well. I think she sees the camera as just telling her story."

(Female, C2DE)

- (2) "Not a serious actor". This description was reserved for those celebrities who played what may be described as "light-hearted" roles that are different from those generally associated with comedy. In general, this included athletes and sports personalities as well as show presenters. Examples include celebrities like Jimmy Saville, David Bellamy and Judith Chalmers.

- (3) A "Comedy actor"/Comedian". Some celebrities though not comedians or what is generally referred to as "stand-up comedians", were seen as playing acting roles mainly related to comedy or "funny parts". A celebrity seen as a comedian or playing comedy parts is generally seen as having a complementary private life. One respondent discussing this aspect commented:

"See that Billy, he's a right lad. He's always playing and not serious. He's like that in real life. He doesn't care and he's just left his wife."

(Female, C2DE)

- (b) Principal attribute of the celebrity: a number of C2DE respondents said that in view of the fact that nowadays many celebrities play several parts, it is necessary to describe each in



terms of their "main" or "principal" attribute or characteristic. In the words of one respondent:

"You see them doing all sorts. You see boxers and that acting. You can't tell. So I say you've got to say that 'I know him for that'. You can't see her doing anything can you because she's the sort who is like your neighbour. She's down to earth and lovely."

(Female, C2DE)

The discussions indicate also that the principal attribute perceived for a celebrity led a few of the respondents to express their like or dislike for the celebrity. This aspect was discussed thus by one respondent:

"That --- Spike whatever-his-name. He is a comedian but I don't think he's funny. He's just stupid and looks rubbishy. He's a disgrace to other comedians and needs shutting away!"

(Retired Female, C2DE)

Overall the principal or main attribute of a celebrity was discussed in terms of the categories of entertainment above. A few respondents used descriptions based on their every day language. For example, one respondent said that David Bellamy can be described as a "plantman"; another said that Judith Chalmers was "Miss World Presenter".

(c) Physical make-up of celebrity: most C2DE respondents said that they would describe a celebrity in terms of their "build", "appearance", etc. Though only broad attributes seem to have been discussed, such as "He's sexy", "He's a big man", "She's like a man", (a reference to Glenda Jackson!), it appears that the totality of such a make-up led a celebrity to be classed as: "good looking", "not bad looking", and "not good looking". However, there was disagreement as to how some celebrities can be classed, this being more a matter of personal liking and preference.

In addition, the discussions indicate that the elements which constitute physical make-up varied markedly between respondents. While some respondents concentrated on the strict physical make-up or build of a celebrity, other respondents concentrated on what may be described as "aesthetic" values. Thus, for some of the latter, clothes worn by a celebrity was an important part of his physical characteristics, as was, for example, his general posture. This subjectivity is best illustrated by a respondent who acknowledged that a celebrity was not good looking but:

"Stanley Baxter's not good looking. But mind you, he's elegant and has such lovely body movements. In the advert where he acts as that woman, he's got such a nice movement. I'd say he's sexy, just like that Paul Newman."

(Female, C2DE)

(d) Known background of celebrity: for some C2DE respondents, a celebrity can be described in terms of his "known background". From the discussions it appears that such known background centred on the following:

(1) Past background of the celebrity. Most respondents, it appears, are familiar with the past backgrounds of a large majority of celebrities gleaned from either newspapers, magazines or television programmes, or from stories told by friends and neighbours. Such a past, it seems, leads to a celebrity being described as having had: "a good background", "a hard background" and "a spoilt background". To illustrate the differences, the discussions of two respondents went as follows:

"See that Russell Harty. It's people like him that make me sick because he's had a good background. He uses it to put other people down. He's always throwing his weight about, talking about when he was at Oxford. He should realise who the people are watching his show."

(Male, C2DE)

"Billy's one of the lads. He was in the docks and was working with tough lads. He's had to fight for everything he's got. He is successful just now but not because some fancy title got him there."

(Female, C2DE)

(2) Present background. The discussions indicate that, given that many celebrities change or assume a "new background" on becoming celebrities, there was a need to specify this "new background". Some respondents gave examples of celebrities who, on attaining celebrity status, preserved their past backgrounds or abandoned these almost immediately. Thus, the former were described as "he's still one of us", "he's never forgotten his roots", etc, while the latter were referred to "he's become a right snoot", "he's now in with them", "he's a traitor to the working class", and so on.

In discussing the general background of celebrities, some C2DE respondents indicated that their descriptions would centre on the "known private life" led by such celebrities. As before, the discussions centred on the information that was available on various celebrities and the sources of the information discussed. It appears that in general a celebrity may be perceived to lead either "a good life" or "a bad life". The latter referred to those celebrities known to be drug addicts, drunks, or whose general life style was not approved. But the extent to which the known private life of a celebrity affects the way they are perceived was in doubt as evidenced by one respondent's remark:

"I've always liked Larry Grayson. He always makes me laugh and I think he's funny. It doesn't bother me at all that he fancies other men. That's private, ain't it? I can't see what it's got to do with his shows anyway."

(Female, C2DE)

But as another respondent also observed:

"You've got to look at their backgrounds, these famous people. See that Val Doonican, he's got a good life, his background is good - no fancy things. That's what I like about him."

(Female, C2DE)

(e) Perceived attitudes and behaviour: most C2DE respondents indicated that in describing celebrities they would have to account for these celebrities' perceived attitudes and behaviour. From the various discussions, it appears that the following were regarded as the more important considerations:

(1) Principles or issues for which the celebrity is known. The discussions suggest that the principles or issues for which a celebrity is known was reflected in the descriptions. This is in evidence, for example, in part of a respondent's discussion as follows:

"I like that Bellamy. He's got strong principles about so many things. He is for things that can't speak for themselves, like animals, plants and that."

(Retired Female, C2DE)

In addition, it appears that celebrities who have no known principles or who are perceived to espouse activities or events that are not valued by respondents seem to lose their "standing". The discussions of two respondents illustrate this point, as follows:

"I can't say I like Angela Rippon. She's too stuck up and cheeky. She behaves as if though she's something special. She says she doesn't believe in giving money to charity and that. She's a 'look-after-number-one' type of person."

(Male, C2DE)

"I didn't know about what he thinks about young girls. I can't believe it. It's sickening to think that Oliver Reed can be such a good actor and all that. It makes you wonder whether you know these people at all."

(Female, C2DE)



- (2) Celebrity's known attitudes to people, events, etc. It appears that in addition to principles for which a celebrity stands, a celebrity may be described also in terms of his or her general attitudes to family life, marriage, and so on. Thus, for one respondent the issue was about values, as follows:

"I can't say I like Moira Anderson. She's a selfish cow. All she cares about is herself and her career and that. She thinks children will get in the way, so she's not having any of it."

(Female, C2DE)

- (3) Known public behaviour, manners, respect for others, etc, of the celebrity. The discussion of some C2DEs suggest that describing a celebrity had to take account of his known public behaviour, his manners and other related issues. As a result, a celebrity might be described as; "he's a nice man", "he gives respect to people older than he is", "he's always so well-behaved in public", and so on.

- (f) "Type of person" celebrity is: it appears that a celebrity is perceived as someone who has a given "disposition", which makes and shapes them into a specific type of person. Although the discussions did not identify how many types of persons respondents perceived, it appears that celebrities may be either "easy going" or "has no time for small talk". This description is best explained by two respondents' discussions, as follows:

"You can tell the type of person they are. I like that Glenda Jackson because she's not a nonsense type of person. You can tell that she won't have time for blether (chat) or lazing round gossiping. She'd get on with it."

(Retired Male, C2DE)

"You've either got it or you haven't. The type of person you are soon shows, star or no star. You can be Lord so-and-so and still be rubbish and do disgusting things. It all boils down to the person."

(Female, C2DE)

(g) The way the celebrity reflects life: some C2DE respondents said that, despite the many different parts performed by a celebrity, each has a way of reflecting "real life". Consequently, some are seen as portraying life in a way that "looks real" while others make such parts "look unreal, false", and so on. Therefore, it appears that the way the celebrity reflects life determines the way he will be described.

However, the discussions also indicated that this description seems to be related to other attributes. This is summarised by the following discussion by a respondent:

"I can't say I'm keen on all celebrities. Some make you think that it's worth living because they show what true life's like. They're good at it and if you look at their private life it's the same. They're well-behaved and even when they're acting you think: 'I can see that happening in real life.'"

#### 7.2.2 Descriptions of endorsers

The large majority of ABC1 respondents said that they were unable to offer descriptions for endorsers because they could not recall any commercials or advertisements which featured endorsers known to them. However, a few respondents said that if compelled to describe an endorser, they would concentrate on:

Their qualification(s): most respondents agreed with those discussing this description. However, the overall consensus was that an endorsement commercial with a celebrity was likely to lead to the celebrity being described as "lacking any formal education or training". The discussions were aptly summarised by one respondent as follows:

"I would have to say that I will describe each one individually. I reckon that by that yardstick I would have to describe a celebrity as someone with no formal training to speak on the qualities of the products being endorsed. That is fair since that would describe who they are, I think."

(Professional Female, ABC1)

The discussions of C2DE respondents, contrary to those of ABCIs, indicate that endorsers can only be described in terms of their celebrity context. Hence, many resorted to earlier descriptions of celebrities, as follows:

- (a) Profession of the endorser (acting and related repertoire).
- (b) Principal/main attribute or characteristic of the endorser (as a celebrity).
- (c) Physical make-up of the endorser.
- (d) Known background of the endorser. However, in recalling the known (and present) background of the endorser most respondents seemed to have used it as a way of judging him in his new role as endorser. The issue was put thus by a respondent:

"These famous people can't run away from the folks who put them there. We know a lot, how they grew up and that. You see them in the adverts and I say 'he's so and so and this is the way he lives and that'. That's how I see them and that's what makes me say 'rubbish' or to listen to them."

(Retired Female, C2DE)

- (e) Perceived attitudes and behaviour of the endorser

However, in addition to the descriptions above, a number of C2DE respondents said that they would describe an endorser in terms of the advertising context. Main descriptions identified from the discussions include:

- (f) The part played by the endorser and what he says in the commercial:

- (1) Part played by an endorser. It appears that each endorser is seen to play a part in a commercial which fits in with other well-known acting parts or departs from them. An endorser seen to be doing the latter, is regarded as "putting himself down" or demeaning himself. As one respondent commented:

"What I know is this. I'm watching these adverts and that, and I see a famous star advertising. In my mind, I know that he's going to do something I know doesn't go really with him. If he's not funny and he tries it in the advert, I'd say: 'He's trying to be funny but he isn't'. That's how I'd describe them."

(Male, C2DE)

In general, it appears that only comedians are seen to play parts in commercials similar to their other acting parts. They are described broadly as "good and funny". One respondent summarised the description thus:

"See the Two Ronnies, I'd say they're funny. The adverts they're in is funny. If you said to me tell me about them, I'd say 'They're funny'. That's how I see them. You can't take them seriously. The advert's funny and you know they're not serious."

(Female, C2DE)

This respondent's comment was echoed in many of the other discussions, in which respondents seemed to be pointing to the difference between endorsement and testimonial advertising. Specifically, it seems that endorsers seen to be playing "serious" parts, instead of some of their better known stage or acting persona, are considered as departing from what they are known for. The discussion of one respondent aptly summarises the issue, as follows:

"See that Nanette, in the hands lark. Now she's playing a part that makes her look ridiculous. You can't see it, can you? She doesn't come out. Now that part is just like her. The advert's nonsense. I just say: 'Hell with her and the lot of them'."

(Female, C2DE)

- (2) What an endorser says in the commercial. Some C2DEs said that in addition to describing an endorser in terms of their part in the commercial, they would also describe them in terms



of what each says in the commercial. In general, an endorser is seen as either saying things that he might have said in one of his well-known acting parts or saying "something new and different". The discussions indicate that endorsers described as saying something new and different were generally those perceived to be testifying to the qualities of the product. This, it appears, caused the endorser to be seen and described differently from those seen to be saying things for which they are known.

(g) Endorser's reasons for being in a commercial: it appears that reasons known to respondents for an endorser being in a commercial are regarded as legitimate candidates for describing them. Reasons given by respondents varied, these seemingly influenced by news item read in newspapers or magazines or heard on radio or television. In the main, however, endorsers are seen to take part in commercials for monetary gains. Some respondents perceived endorsers as trying to earn money for some charitable cause whereas others did so mainly for personal wealth. The discussions of two respondents illustrate this point succinctly, as follows:

"I don't mind Jimmy Savile. He's a good man. He's in those adverts so that he can get money for his hospital and that. Now when you know that, you say 'well, it's got to be done', and so you don't mind. His sort should be in it. There's no denying it, he's a good man and that's how I see him - advert or no advert!"

(Female, C2DE)

"I like Barbara Woodhouse. But she's in the advert for eggs for what she can get. I'd say: 'That's greed, because others haven't got half what they've got'. It's greed. I see her like the rest in it, for what she can get. Selfish, that is."

(Retired Male, C2DE)

Furthermore, the discussions indicate that the perceived commitment of an endorser may also act as part of the

description of an endorser. For example, an endorser perceived not to be committed because of his part in the commercial or because of what he says may be described as a "greedy person". On the other hand, an endorser perceived to be committed may be described as "he's good at what he does". This aspect was seen in the following manner by two respondents:

"You see that boy Sebastian Coe. Now he's got his heart in what he's doing. That's his life. You don't mind that sort getting money and that from adverts. They're committed. Seb is a committed boy."

(Female, C2DE)

"Some of them are good at their jobs. So you can't blame them too much if they're in adverts. They're good performers and so they'd just do it. I know they get money and all these free gifts, but you've got to realise that it's because they're committed. They're good at what they're doing."

(Retired Female, C2DE)

(h) Endorser's overall qualifications: the discussions show that an endorser may be described in terms of their level of education and training. It appears that an endorser may be perceived as being either "educated" or "not educated". The latter, some argued, were not qualified to attest to a product's qualities or performance.

The various aspects related to this description were adequately summarised by the following respondents:

"I'd say: 'What's it about, and whether they know what they're talking about'. I ask you, that girl who's in the coffee advert, what does she know about the taste of coffee and that? How old is she to talk as if she's got experience. No, I can't see that she knows what it's all about. She's not got it."

(Female, C2DE)

"I'd say Dr Pike is a clever man. He knows what he's talking about. But he's making fun and that, and so I don't know what to think. I'd say that's not the whole story, and that's how I see it. You can see that. He needs the money like the rest of us. So he's in adverts and that."

(Male, C2DE)

(i) Theme of the commercial: the discussions indicate that C2DE respondents regard the "theme" of a commercial as something which has to be included when describing an endorser. A theme is said to be either "a soft sell" or "a hard sell". Thus, an endorser would be described as: "he's that person trying to flog-off ---", "he's in the advert for --- You wouldn't think he's trying to sell you something". Overall, the theme of a commercial seems to have been discussed mainly in respect of its "intention to sell". This aspect was discussed thus by a respondent:

"You'd think we don't know what some of these adverts are trying on. You know they're after money, that's what. When I see a star in that sort of advert I'd say: 'he's in it too!' He's trying to get my money also. They all are and that makes me angry."

(Male, C2DE)

(j) Attitudinal description of the endorser: most C2DE respondents said that describing an endorser involved their expressing their feelings for them. Overall, the discussions centred on two issues, namely:

(1) Whether an endorser was liked or disliked. The various discussions indicate that an endorser may fall into one of the following descriptions: "I can't stand him", "I don't care much for him", "I like him", "I like him, I think he's super". One respondent discussing a disliked endorser went on to comment:

"I'd say you're right. You can't say much about these famous people except the way you feel about them and that. It's the way you like them. So

when I say to you 'I like Jimmy Savile like my own', you'd understand. That's telling you what he's like. You'd know that's the way us folks see him. He's that kind of person. You'd know you'll like him."

(Retired Female, C2DE)

- (2) Aspects for which an endorser is liked or disliked. From the different discussions, it appears that an attitudinal description may encompass aspects for which the endorser is liked or disliked. Generally, such aspects are those related to the celebrity context and includes the endorser's field of entertainment, known public behaviour, etc. In other words, respondents brought feelings from the celebrity context to the endorsement advertising context. This description was portrayed thus by one respondent:

"I saw Stanley Baxter in the advert for that drink. Now, he's a first class comedian. He's a great one for acting like a woman. That's his best part. I'd say that's why I like him. That's him, you can take him or leave him. He's the sort who likes to act as a woman. He can't help it."

(Female, C2DE)

### 7.2.3 Grounds on which respondents based their descriptions

ABC1 respondents' descriptions of celebrities and endorsers were based, at least in the group sessions, almost entirely on photographs of celebrities shown. Their discussions suggest that a number of reasons may help to explain their lack of knowledge, as follows:

- (a) General interests: most ABC1s said that by and large their interests revolved around their professions and their "lifestyles", which preclude celebrities and endorsers. Most claimed that they rarely watched television, viewing being confined to "special interest" programmes on BBC2 and Channel 4. Such programmes, it seems, are confined to those on nature and "operas".



Furthermore, it appears that newspapers and magazines read rarely cover activities of celebrities and endorsers. Consequently, many said that there were very few celebrities that they would be able to identify or about whom they have information.

(b) Generally, advertising is "meant for the working class": from the various discussions, it appears that ABC1 respondents perceive advertising, and therefore all activities related to it, as being generally directed at the so-called "working" or "lower" classes. This, it was consistently pointed out, explains why all advertising are of such "low standards", "are an insult to someone intelligent", and "lack all sense of reality". Respondents said that evidence for their views can be found by looking at advertisements and commercials which are largely directed at centres or programmes viewed by the working classes.

(c) Context of a celebrity: most respondents said that because they were unable to ascertain the extent to which celebrities act as endorsers, and because they were unable to identify them in general, they could not be described as endorsers.

However, part of the discussions centred on the fact that as entertainers, celebrities were perceived not to be either "suitable" or "competent" enough to endorse a product. Many said that they could not understand the relationship between entertainment and advertising, given that the latter is intended basically to inform about and sell the product.

(d) Photographs of celebrities shown: the large majority of ABC1 respondents said that their descriptions were based largely on what they have seen in the photographs. These descriptions were standard and may be used in many other situations and settings.

However, a few respondents also pointed out that standard types of descriptions are often used in situations where their

knowledge of the topics being discussed are generally limited. These respondents claimed that the present research was one such situation where they know little of the topic being discussed.

On the other hand the grounds on which C2DE respondents based their descriptions of both celebrities and endorsers encompassed a variety of factors. Although some of these would have already been inferred from the descriptions themselves, respondents mentioned the following:

(a) Context of a celebrity: it appears that regardless of the activities being performed by a celebrity, he is still largely seen in terms of his celebrity status or repertoire. This explains why so many of the descriptions of endorsers were largely derived from the celebrity context.

The discussions indicate that for many respondents a celebrity is someone who is in his present position because he entertains the general public or at least a segment of the general public. Consequently, any activity he undertakes must be underlined by that consideration. Hence the expression of one respondent that: "no matter what they do, they're still stars and that, aren't they?"

Importantly, it appears that the celebrity context is used as the basis of judging a celebrity's activities, no matter what these are. It appears from the discussions that by recalling the celebrity context many of the respondents were attempting to ascertain the extent to which certain attributes that are "valued" or considered important have been affected.

(b) General interests: the discussions suggest that many respondents had interest in celebrities and their activities. It appears that respondents generally considered themselves as fans of some celebrities because of their acting and other parts.

Consequently, many said that they closely followed the progress of such celebrities.

The discussions show that because many of the respondents were unemployed or perceived their lives to be "uninteresting" and "dull", they attempted to liven up their lives by following the "activities of other people". Celebrities, aside of neighbours and relations, tend to form the large part of such people. Hence, in addition to their entertainment roles, respondents made a positive attempt to know such celebrities by reading about them in newspapers and magazines, or listening to news items on radio and television. In short, many respondents claimed to know a great deal about some celebrities and that such knowledge is applied in their descriptions.

Finally, it appears that for many of these respondents, television is a major source of entertainment. As a result, a by-product is an interest in celebrities. This perhaps explains why some of them emphasised the acting roles for which a celebrity is known as their overriding concern and which they looked for on becoming an endorser.

(c) The advertising context: it appears that most respondents have a certain perception of advertising and that this influenced their descriptions of endorsers. The discussions generally centred on the following:

- (1) Advertising as a form of entertainment. Some respondents perceived advertising to be on the periphery of entertainment whereas others regarded it as a completely different line of activity. Those who said advertising was a field of entertainment mentioned examples of commercials which sought to entertain, including endorsements. The latter pointed to the fact that advertising was trying to get them to buy the products being endorsed and due to the "serious" nature of the

tone. In short, when an endorser continues to entertain (endorsement), the advertising is seen as being part of entertainment. On the other hand, when an endorser is "serious" (testimonial), the advertising becomes a different field of activity.

- (2) An endorser is more like a salesperson. The discussions indicate that for many C2DE respondents, advertising is seen as a selling activity. By becoming an endorser, a celebrity comes to be seen in much the same way as a salesperson despite, some claimed, his attempts to entertain.
- (3) Advertising does not involve "much acting". Many respondents claimed that advertising does not involve very much acting so that in describing an endorser, they had to account for the changes they see as happening to the endorser. The emphasis was on the fact that an endorser may have been described in much the same way as when he is a celebrity but that some of these attributes were affected by the advertising.
- (4) Advertising consists of "exaggerated claims". A few C2DE respondents said that by endorsing the claims of an advertisement or commercial, an endorser becomes a party to the exaggerated claims perceived. Thus for these respondents, describing an endorser meant having to reflect this aspect of advertising and its perceived effect on the endorser.

Moreover, some said claims were not often backed by their experience of using the product and that this influenced their descriptions of endorsers. The discussions suggest that factors such as the music of the commercial, the setting in which the product is presented, people appearing in the commercial, and so on, all contribute to the disbelief and to expectations not being fulfilled. Hence, phrases such as: "liar", "it's all lies", "can't listen to a word they say", etc, were used in these discussions.



(d) Attitudinal response to celebrities and endorsers: most C2DE respondents said that their descriptions of celebrities and endorsers were meant to reflect their attitudes and feelings towards them. The discussions indicate that such feelings centred on:

- (1) Whether the celebrities were liked or disliked.
- (2) Whether a celebrity's role as an endorser affects previous feelings.
- (3) Whether as an endorser, a celebrity is likely to cause a respondent to change his general interest in him.

Therefore, for most respondents describing celebrities and endorsers meant having to reflect feelings of like or dislike towards them, and approval or disapproval towards their activities, both their acting repertoire and other activities including advertising.

(e) General "values" of respondents: part of C2DE respondents' discussions suggest that by describing celebrities and endorsers they were pointing out things or attributes which they consider as important. Such attributes, it seems, underline their values and things they consider celebrities should also value, given that their popularity and status was dependent on their continued patronage.

From the discussions, it seems that values are derived largely from people known and with whom respondents interact in their daily lives. Thus, impressions of real people, such as neighbours, friends and relations, were influential in the descriptions elicited.

### 7.3 Attitudinal response to celebrities taking part in advertising

ABC1 respondents expressed mainly negative feelings to celebrities taking part in advertising. But, it seems that such

negative expressions were meant generally to be concern for "the lower order who are less able to take care of themselves in matters relating to commerce". The discussions centred on the following:

(a) Celebrities not qualified to endorse products: as before, respondents said that celebrities were neither qualified nor trained to speak on the qualities of products being endorsed. Therefore, they were "totally unsuitable" and were as a matter of fact "abusing their standing". Two respondents adequately portrayed the feelings of others on this matter, as follows:

"It is really too much to imagine that people from the theatre, or what have you, can be expected to know that one product is better than another. These aspects have made me into a more cynical chap, so much so that when I encounter an advertisement of any kind, my first reaction is to totally dismiss it."

(Professional Male, ABC1)

"People need to be protected, nowadays. It seems to one that there is an urgent need to do something to stop people taking advantage of their positions, or in this case their popularity, for selfish purposes. If people cannot take their responsibilities seriously, then there ought to be a way of regulating their actions."

(Housewife, ABC1)

(b) Celebrities increase prices of products: it appears that the large majority of ABC1 respondents in the group sessions are of the opinion that the use of celebrities in advertising increases the prices of those products. Many argued that price increases for many items are the result of such "wasteful" activities, particularly in advertising. This negative feeling was summarised by the following discussions:

"I think that most advertising is wasteful, and the use of famous people, celebrities and others in their league, can only make the product more expensive. I am convinced that cost to the

consumer could be reduced by reducing total advertising and luxuries like celebrities!"

(Professional Male, ABC1)

"This wasteful activity seems to be reflected in most aspects of our daily lives. Advertising represents the height of what seems unacceptable. It is wasteful and I think it's mostly self-gratification by those people involved with them. Celebrities are the new breed, who seem not to know the meaning of responsibility."

(Professional Female, ABC1)

(c) Other factors more important: most respondents said that other factors made the presence of celebrities in advertising "totally" unnecessary. These factors include:

(1) Experience of consumer. The discussions centred on the belief that the experience of a consumer should act as the basis of whether a product is purchased or not. As one respondent commented:

"People should be allowed to make their own judgements and experience of using the product is probably one of the best ways of doing so. Advertising and all that rubbish won't then have to 'catch up' in the way that they do at present. It will be simply a matter of sustaining experience with the product."

(Professional Male, ABC1)

(2) Personal considerations of consumer. Most respondents said that the personal circumstances of a consumer ought to be the basis on which advertising is assessed. Therefore, given such circumstances, celebrities should not be used in advertising.

(3) Consumer more suitable than a celebrity to endorse. The discussions clearly show that most ABC1s are of the view that a consumer would be more suited to endorse many of the products currently endorsed by celebrities. In addition,

many said that celebrities were unsuitable to talk to "ordinary consumers" because more often than not they are from totally different social backgrounds. This was put this way by one respondent:

"I really can't say I speak from experience but my common sense tells me that a working class chap talking to working class people would be more appropriate than some of these celebrities, surely? I know I'm right. The presentation, the accent, and what have you, will make sense. All of it. People can then relate, because I'm sure they would say to themselves: 'Well, he's a working class too!'"

(Housewife, ABC1)

- (4) Other factors. ABC1 respondents felt that there were many other reasons which made celebrities unsuitable for advertising. These are covered by the discussions of respondents that now follows:

"I cannot imagine that many of these people use the products they seem to be giving support to. Well, how can they living as they do. It makes one wonder where it will all end. My own simple solution is to ban them from taking part in advertisements and what have you. Some should be prosecuted for misrepresentation."

(Professional Female, ABC1)

"As a housewife, I certainly take quite an exception to the implication that the mere appearance of some famous person, or someone like that, should get me to listen, or whatever, to what they have to say, especially in advertisements. I can't see myself ever taking celebrities seriously because, quite frankly, I don't see any of them (how shall I put it) 'being sufficiently qualified to voice their opinions'."

(Housewife, ABC1)

"I am not against the use of celebrities for certain things and on certain occasions. Advertising, for me, is not one of them. It has all become emotional when all that's required is to let the shopper know in basic English where he



can buy the product, the price, and what it is supposed to do."

(Professional Male, ABC1)

The discussions of C2DE respondents, on the other hand, identify both positive and negative attitudes and feelings to celebrities taking part in advertising. From the various discussions, the following positive attitudes were mentioned:

(a) Effects of celebrities on reception of commercial: most C2DE respondents were agreed that the use of celebrities as endorsers had a number of effects on their response to the commercials in which they feature. The discussion concentrated on the following:

(1) Celebrities are easier to recognise. It seems that, because celebrities are easier to recognise than ordinary people, respondents said that this allowed them to concentrate on either what he has to say or on the rest of the commercial. One respondent commented:

"They're famous. Everyone knows them. So when you see them, you say straight away to yourself: 'That's so and so'. Sometimes they're a load of rubbish and you can't stand them."

(Housewife, C2DE)

(2) Attract attention. It seems that, by and large, many respondents "switch-off", as it were, mentally when there are commercial breaks on television. However, many claimed that the presence of a celebrity in the commercial caused them to pay attention. However, it seems that there are two sides to this attraction as the following discussions illustrate:

"I'm home tired after a hard day's work. Some of the programmes on telly are rubbish! I get angry. I think sometimes it's nice to see some of these people in adverts. Sometimes even if I am angry, I look and see what they're trying to do."

(Female, C2DE)

"It's all right in the beginning, you think: 'Ah, there's someone I like'. Then you see them again and again. I think to myself: 'Flaming heck! There he goes again!' I see the advert and I go like that ----" (twitch of the hand, signifying losing interest/not paying attention).

(Housewife, C2DE)

(b) Some products have become known because of celebrities: allied to the above, part of the discussions indicate that some respondents have only come to know some products because of the presence of celebrities. It would appear that many respondents concentrate on doing other things when commercials are on. However, the presence of some celebrities caused respondents to pay attention, as a result of which some products have become known. This process according to one respondent goes like this:

"You see these programmes and I'm always trying to do something else. They're a load of rubbish! I see these famous people and it helps me. I remember some of the things they're talking about and that. Some products I can't remember. Now I know some of them. It's the same people in it."

(Housewife, C2DE)

(c) When television programmes are "dull": the discussions suggest that most C2DEs welcomed the presence of celebrities in commercials when television programmes are said to be dull. However, it seems that this applied only to endorsement commercials that were entertaining rather than those that were serious. Therefore, once more it seems that reception was determined by whether a commercial featuring a celebrity was an endorsement or a testimonial.

Two respondents discussed this attitude as follows:

"Sometimes the adverts are more funny than the programmes. I don't mind seeing celebrities. Not all though. I like to see the funny ones

like Joan Collins and that, the Two Ronnies. It makes you laugh."

(Housewife, C2DE)

"Sometimes the programmes on telly are boring. I sit down and just look for something. These adverts take my mind away. The happy ones with the children - Oh yes! There's that one with the dog. Some of these famous people I like also. Ah! it doesn't matter when the programme on telly is rubbish."

(Retired Female, C2DE)

(d) Celebrities make commercials more entertaining: most respondents seem agreed that the presence of celebrities increased the entertainment level of the commercial. In general, the discussions indicate that celebrities that increase the entertainment value are:

(1) Celebrities that "entertain". These consist mainly of comedians and others who make "people laugh", who act "funnily", and who are "not too serious". Two respondents commented on this aspect as follows:

"Some are great. They make me laugh. I can remember them. I see them and say to myself: 'Isn't it nice. They're at it again!' You'd think you were watching them doing their telly programmes."

(Housewife, C2DE)

"Life's too serious. You go to work and all you hear is this or that going bust. It's dreary. You come home and you're tired and want to put your feet up. Some adverts are entertaining. Some famous people like those Two Ronnies make me laugh. That's the way it's got to be, ain't it?"

(Male, C2DE)

(2) Celebrities continuing to play roles that are liked. It seems that celebrities who may have played acting parts that were popular, are seen as increasing the entertainment value of a commercial if they portrayed those popular roles.

Examples given in the discussions include characters from the popular series "Brideshead Revisited", "Soap", and so on. But, as one respondent who could not remember specific names commented:

"It's difficult to remember all their names, the ones I like. Some are good. They're actors and that. You see them in good plays and that, and you don't want it to finish. These are people I don't mind seeing in adverts; pretending they're in the programme. That's what I'd like to see."  
(Retired Female, C2DE)

- (3) Celebrities who may have retired or are no longer popular. The discussions show that celebrities who may have retired, such as Henry Cooper, or are no longer popular may increase the entertainment of the commercial by their presence. However, in such cases, it seems they should continue to "entertain rather than be serious". There were exceptions to these suggestions, as the discussions which now follow illustrate:

"It's a shame but some of these famous people are now out of it. Some of them can't even get an ordinary job now. I think they should let them be on adverts and that. I like seeing people like Henry Cooper. Well, he's finished now. They should let people like that."  
(Retired Female, C2DE)

"These older actors and that are different. I'd say they are because they know when not to be greedy. Adverts will suit them alright. They need the money. It'll be nice for folks who used to remember their shows and that. Anyhow, that's what I think should happen."  
(Housewife, C2DE)

"You can't be too strict. Some are good and some are rubbish. Some of these old celebrities are useless.



"See that comedian Harry Worth. It's good he got the chop. It's useless. They should give the young ones a chance. They've got young families and that. Live and let live, that's what I say!"  
(Female, C2DE)

- (4) Celebrities supporting other activities. It seems that many respondents favoured the use of celebrities who are seen as trying to support other activities. These tend to include mainly athletes who have achieved celebrity status but require finance to support them in their sports. Also, the discussions indicate that celebrities who are less popular or less well-known, are favoured providing their aim, for example, is to build a name in the theatre or some other approved activity. These aspects are illustrated by the following two respondents:

"I think people like Seb Coe, Allan Wells and that, should make money. They need it because the government wouldn't give them a penny more. They need money to train. Adverts pay good money. They should be given a chance, shouldn't they? It makes sense."

(Male, C2DE)

"There's an actor, I've seen him in the advert for margarine. He's not good. The other time I saw him in a play on telly. He can't be making a lot. You feel sorry for them. I think they need the money from advertising. You've got to give these ones a chance. Fair's fair."

(Housewife, C2DE)

(e) Celebrities more familiar with technology involved in making commercials: the discussions indicate that the large majority of C2DE respondents perceived the process involved in making a commercial as a complex one. Consequently, many said that only celebrities were familiar with "all the technology involved". But, the technology was seen also as another reason excluding the use of so-called ordinary people. These aspects were summarised as follows:

"You've got to give it to them. They're natural, some of them aren't they? Some of them forget the cameras and they're blethering away. I can't see me doing that. I'd be frightened to do half the things. I'd say they're good for adverts and that. They're used to it."

(Housewife, C2DE)

"Of course they're good actors and that. They use it, don't they? You tell me how many adverts and that's got poor folks? Not a handful. I'll tell you why, because they're all in it. They make sure the poor folks haven't a chance to learn all the tricks and that. You can't say they're many ordinary folks in it, can you?"

(Housewife, C2DE)

(f) Celebrities should take part in advertising in order to support charitable organisations and causes. Most C2DEs said, or agreed with, the suggestion that the popularity of most celebrities make them ideal candidates for earning "good" money which can then be donated to charities. From the discussions, it appears that earnings from commercials are a means by which a celebrity can increase their popularity and create more favourable impressions. The basic issues are discussed as follows by one respondent:

"That's why I like that Terry Wogan. He's always on the telly trying to get money and that for handicapped kiddies, you know. I think they'd be good for that. People will like them. I say if they can't do it, who can I ask you?"

(Female, C2DE)

The discussions of C2DE respondents also show the following negative attitudes:

(a) Effects on the celebrity: most respondents said that advertising has several damaging effects on a celebrity. Specifically, the discussions centred on the following:

(1) Celebrity's established image. Most respondents said that advertising by its nature involved very little acting and that this fact was likely to affect the way a celebrity is perceived. It seems that the more popular and well-known a celebrity, the more likely advertising is seen to affect their image. Respondents discussed this issue in the following manner:

"Adverts haven't got acting, have they? All you do is stand, smile and blether some rubbish. I can't see the acting. Some of them are lousy. I think to myself: 'I can do better'."

(Retired Female, C2DE)

"They're actors, aren't they? I can't see that in them adverts and that. It's way out. You can see it the moment you see them in it. They stand out a mile. I think it's not on. Some of these famous people you like, and you don't want to think they're trying to sell you something."

(Housewife, C2DE)

(2) Celebrity's perceived standing. It appears that for quite a few respondents, a celebrity is certain to lose his perceived standing. Reasons discussed include:

- advertising invariably makes a celebrity act, do and say things not in keeping with what they are generally known for. One respondent perceived the issue thus:

"See those adverts for coffee. Shaking their hands and that, it's daft and I think those people

shouldn't have done it for the money. They look stupid and you know they wouldn't do half the things they say and do on the telly."

(Male, C2DE)

- advertising tends to portray a celebrity as someone who cares only for himself and "what he can get from it". The different issues under this general heading are summarised in the following discussions:

"Some of these people live a fancy life, and become rough. The people who made them famous take a back seat. They forget. You see them on telly shows, and you think: 'Well, there's nothing I can do to bring him down'. They're all in it."

(Male, C2DE)

"Don't think that I'm being hard. No, it's just that some of them aren't reasonable and don't have the sense to see what they can or can't do. Some have the cheek to tell you you've got to do this. I don't think it's right. I can't say I like it, every time I see someone I like. And, I don't think I'm being hard."

(Housewife, C2DE)

- the presence of the celebrity increases the unreal aspects of the commercial. Most celebrities are seen to increase the unreality of a commercial because of the associations they bring with them. This was put in the following way by one respondent:

"It's all glamour nowadays. It's not that I mind. It's just that the way they show the working classes. It's an insult; I can't believe it. Then they put these famous people to talk to us. They're unreal, some of them haven't even been to a working class home."

(Housewife, C2DE)

- celebrity's presence increases expectations. It seems that by featuring a celebrity, a product comes to be perceived



as possessing "something extra" as one respondent's comment illustrates:

"I see the stars and famous people in adverts and I always say well, we'll see. Sometimes you'd like the actor and that, and so you'd listen a bit. I say if you live today, you might live tomorrow, so I try the product. You know what, I'm always disappointed because these things don't do half the things they say it'll do. We're fools that's why. The whole lot of us."

(Housewife, C2DE)

- (3) Taking part in an activity that has far too many celebrities. The discussions indicate that many respondents are of the view that there are far too many celebrities in advertising. Consequently, a celebrity valuing his image ought not to take part in advertising. One respondent, for example, commented:

"There's a place for everything, and it's not as if though I'm saying they shouldn't take part. It's just that there are too many of them: Tom, Dick and Harry. That shouldn't be. There should be a few. Folks won't be annoyed then. I can't see that as bad."

(Housewife C2DE)

- (b) Celebrities take part for the "wrong reasons": most respondents it would appear, perceive celebrities to take part in advertising for the wrong reasons. The discussions identified the following reasons:

- (1) As a way of keeping themselves in the "limelight". Some respondents argued that, a large number of celebrities use advertising as a means of keeping themselves in the "limelight". The discussions resulting identified a number of issues, summarised by the following quotations:

"They're used to attention and all that. Well, you can't blame them because they've got to. They're used to the attention and that. Adverts

gets them money. It's like entertainment and so people, us folks can remember them. That's what it's all about, ain't it? You keep saying: 'Ah, that's so and so who used to be so and so in the film'. That's what keeps some of them going."

(Male, C2DE)

"I can't see that it's right for them to jump from one place and that. No, they're actors and that, and they've got no right to be in the adverts. Adverts are for folks who want to buy from shops and that. I can't see what it's got to do with them. They should do something else. I don't think it's right somehow. They shouldn't let them."

(Female, C2DE)

- (2) As a way of "making more money": Celebrities, it seems, are perceived to earn "more than enough", so that taking part in advertising is seen as a way by which they can earn more money. A respondent summarised this view, as follows:

"They're all the same. They're selfish and couldn't give a damn. See when they start, you'd think they're angels. Then they become snooty. Next, they're even telling us, the people, what we should and shouldn't buy. What a nerve!"

(Retired Female, C2DE)

- (c) Advertising has negative aspects: for many C2DEs, advertising is an activity that has negative attributes. The discussions, in much the same way as previous ones on advertising, centred on what were perceived as the exaggerated nature of claims made and advertising's unbelievable nature. These attributes, therefore, are seen to reflect on a celebrity taking part in advertising. Other aspects can be inferred from the selection of quotations below:

"Adverts and that, it's all about money, ain't it? You the housewife know they're trying to get your money. You can see it and that's why they sing and dance and that. You can't say that's what celebrities and that do, can you? No, they're

actors and that. The two aren't the same, are they? I can't believe they're the same."

(Housewife, C2DE)

"I keep saying, give me half the money they're getting and I'd get the wife and children to dance limbo in George Square. They're in it for the money they can take to the bank. I read about them the other day going to Jamaica to make an advert. You'd think we're daft. We can suss it out, what's in it for me Jimmy?"

(Male, C2DE)

"Nowadays, you can't switch the telly on without seeing some famous star. They're all rushing to make money from these adverts. It's greed. They make money and more money. As far as I am concerned, they can well keep it. You lose respect for people like that."

(Retired Male C2DE)

"I can't see it. What gives these people the right to tell us working class what is good and isn't good, eh? They're actors and entertainers, aren't they? What's that got to do with advertising? As I keep saying, they shouldn't expect me to believe that they're in it 'cause they know what they're talking about. That's rubbish."

(Housewife, C2DE)

"The other day, I read in the 'Record' about this celebrity and the money he was getting for these adverts. It's thousands. They all get thousands, that's why they do it. Give me half the money and I'd say anything and dance, if they want me to!"

(Female, C2DE)

(d) Experience with the product more important: the discussions suggest that most C2DE respondents regarded their experience with the product as being more important than the presence of a celebrity or what they have to say. Moreover, it appears that where experience of usage contradicts claims perceived to be made by an endorser, it may lead to negative feelings. As one respondent commented:

"If I've tried it and I think it's good, then that's what matters, ain't it? Celebrity or no celebrity, what I know about it is what I see. If it's good, then I'd say: 'Well, that's what they're trying to tell other folks'. If it's bad, then even Newman or Redford can't get me to try it. I'd just switch off."

(Housewife, C2DE)

In addition to their own experience with the product, most respondents said that in general celebrities are neither familiar with nor use many of the products endorsed. It seems that this view is based on the fact that celebrities are seen, by and large, to live a "comfortable" life and to be able to afford helpers. This aspect was perceived thus by two respondents:

"What's that woman called? Ah, yes Nanette Newman. Give us peace. She's never washed a plate in her life. She's probably got a skivvy (helper) to do all that for her and a washing-up man. Look at her and her hands. A likely story!

(Housewife, C2DE)

"Many haven't seen these products in their lives. The other day, I read about that Seb Coe making an advert for some drink. The newspapers said he was getting paid so much and it's all going to a special account. Then there's that wee boy in the burger advert. They say he's allergic to it and spits it as soon as the camera's taken away."

(Housewife, C2DE)

(e) Celebrities only get in the way of the commercials: the discussions suggest that, in addition to keeping themselves in the limelight, celebrities are seen to get in the way of commercials. This negative attitude seems to be closely related to others, such as that suggesting that celebrities make commercials more unreal.

From the discussions, it appears that most respondents would prefer to concentrate on other aspects of the commercial such as the setting, music, etc. This desire becomes more pronounced when



a celebrity is perceived to be "serious", or giving a testimonial. These aspects are portrayed by the following discussions:

"It's a waste of money because I can't remember half the time what the advert's talking about. You see a famous person you like, and you sit trying to figure out what it is he's doing. All sort of things go through my mind. Some are sexy. In the end you say: 'But, what's he trying to sell or flog'."

(Housewife, C2DE)

"I wish sometimes they'd just get on with it. Some of them are a waste of time. You'd think they've got half a boiled egg in their mouths. I like that Martini advert with Joan Collins and Rigsby. They're good. They make me laugh. You'd forget they were trying to get you to buy something."

(Male, C2DE)

(f) Ordinary people more suited: because of the many discrepancies perceived by respondents in respect of advertising and celebrities, most respondents believed that "ordinary people" would be more suited to endorse products. It seems that, despite some of the shortcomings seen in an ordinary person endorsing a product, many C2DE respondents saw it as preferable to celebrities. The issues discussed were summarised by two respondents, as follows:

"It's us folks who have to buy these things, don't we? Now, if it's Mrs so-and-so who is like me, she'd say different things, wouldn't she? There's no dilly-dallying, and fancy words and that. They'd tell us how her children or her hubby liked it. I can understand that because she's like us, ain't she?"

(Housewife, C2DE)

"I can't see how that girl, what's her name, Kendall, can tell me that she's talking to me. The kitchen costs a bomb. Her accent is too posh. She's too snooty. That's not for me. Now if that was an ordinary person, I'd listen. It'll be simple and that."

(Housewife, C2DE)

(g) Other commercials preferred: the discussions suggest that, by and large, C2DE respondents preferred other types of commercials than those featuring celebrities. However, once more, it seems that such preference is the result of celebrity commercials being "too serious".

Other kinds of commercials preferred are mainly those featuring animals, children, or cartoon-type of characters. Reasons for this are shown by the following quotes of respondents:

"Some of these people take themselves seriously. They think we should sit and listen to their blether. You're joking! I just do something else, or I just don't listen to a word they say."  
(Retired Male, C2DE)

"My favourite is the one for Kio-ora! You see that cartoon thing saying: 'It's for me and my dog!' The tune is lovely. My children are always singing it. They should all be like it."  
(Housewife, C2DE)

"I used to think you watched telly so that you can relax. Nowadays, everyone's trying to flog you something. These famous people are all in it. You get fed up. When I see animals and that, I'm happy 'cause they're not trying to make you eat and sleep in it!"  
(Male, C2DE)

(h) Celebrities make products more expensive: as a result of regular information in respect of fees paid to celebrities read in newspapers, magazines, etc, many respondents are convinced that the use of celebrities make products more expensive.

From the discussions, it seems that the more disliked a celebrity, the more likely they were to be seen as increasing the price of the product endorsed. In addition, it seems that fees are accompanied by gifts of the products endorsed all of which have to be paid for by consumers. As the following respondents commented:

"I can't stand that Spike Milligan, or whatever his name is! Since he's been in the advert for Cornflakes, the price's gone up. It's stupid paying a crazy man like that thousands. I hate him! I think he's sick, spitting and frothing!"  
(Housewife, C2DE)

"I can remember some of these products when they had a different packet. Then, they cost nothing. I can't say famous people had anything to do with it. They cost money. I like those adverts with Bugs Bunny, and that sort. The children like it and I can sit and watch it."  
(Housewife, C2DE)

"See that Felicity, what's her name? In the 'Good Life', that's it. She's talking about this kitchen lark, opening and shutting cupboards and that. She would, wouldn't she? She's getting hers free! How many working class people have her kind of money to buy that kind of kitchen?"  
(Female, C2DE)

#### 7.4 Recall of endorsement advertising and reactions

The discussions by ABC1 respondents suggest that most could not recall having recently seen an endorsement commercial or advertisement. The few that remembered seeing endorsements recalled commercials with well-known celebrities like David Niven, Joan Collins, and the racing driver, Hunt. Both those who recalled seeing endorsements and those who did not, discussed similar reactions. In the main, respondents argued that if confronted by an endorsement commercial they would react as follows:

(a) Evaluate the commercial: most respondents said that given that they were not generally familiar with celebrities, they would concentrate on evaluating the following:

- (1) What the celebrity says.
- (2) Presentation of the product.
- (3) Rest of the commercial.

The discussions, however, indicate that such an evaluation is more likely to occur if the beginning of a commercial is accompanied by an introduction. Furthermore, those respondents who recalled seeing endorsements said that they could not evaluate the commercial because the celebrities were merely entertaining and emphasising what presumably they were generally known for.

(b) Ignore the commercial: the discussions clearly show that a large majority of ABC1 respondents are agreed that, if confronted by an endorsement commercial, they would not pay attention or would "totally dismiss it". It appears that when viewing one of the commercial channels (ITV/C4), respondents ensure that they are either talking or "leave to do something" during the commercial breaks.

However, even when they are not doing "something else" respondents do not pay attention to the commercial. The discussions here would seem to be an attempt to reinforce the earlier expressed views that only special programmes are viewed and that advertising is generally intended "for the working classes". The latter point recurred several times in the discussions.

C2DE respondents, contrary to ABC1s, were able to recall past and current endorsement commercials. Also, their discussions indicate that reactions vary markedly, depending on a complex number of factors that include the celebrity himself, whether the commercial is "serious" (testimonial) or "not too serious" (endorsement) and on the respondents themselves.

However, from the discussions it appears that an endorsement commercial triggers one or more of the following reactions:

(a) Mental reactions: on seeing an endorsement, many respondents may react mentally to it. A few respondents recalled reacting in



the way now discussed at one time or the other. Basically, mental reactions centre on:

- (1) Identifying the celebrity. For many respondents as soon as an endorsement commercial is seen, they must determine who the celebrity is. This involved "correctly" identifying them, either as themselves or as one of their well-known character roles. Hence, an endorser might be called "Elsie Tanner" or "Pat Phoenix", "The Scientist" or "Dr Magnus Pike", and so on.
- (2) Recalling his acting roles or parts. Most respondents after the first showing of an endorsement commercial, tried to recall the endorser's various acting parts. This process may be repeated over several showings of the endorsement commercial or once. The latter, it appears, tend to be celebrities who are disliked because of their acting persona and it is this aspect that tends to be recalled almost immediately. Thus, an endorser might become: "That's that lousy actor in that programme ---", "You see him, he's awful ---", etc.
- (3) Mental judgements. On recalling the acting and other well-known roles of an endorser, respondents may be forced to make a judgement on their:
  - entertainment contribution to the commercial. What constitutes entertainment varied, but it seems such a judgement is based on the extent to which "he makes me laugh", "how funny he is", and so on.
  - past performance(s) compared to present performance.
  - how "natural" or "unnatural" they are in their role as an endorser.
  - "reality" presented in the commercial
  - whether or not the product suits the known "image" (acting roles) of the endorser.

- past feelings felt for endorser with present feeling.
- reasons why they are being featured in the commercial.
- comparing the endorsement to other non-endorsement commercials.

(b) Overt reactions: for some respondents, overt reaction occurs almost immediately or may occur after several viewings of the endorsement commercial. It would appear from the discussions that overt reaction overall takes three forms:

- (1) Total dismissal of the commercial. Once a respondent has decided mentally to dismiss an endorsement commercial, then he or she might "try to do something else". In the main, it appears that respondents either "talk to other members of the family" or go "to the kitchen and do something". Talking often involves making known feelings about the endorser and his part in the commercial. Examples include: "You wouldn't believe, Jim, he's sunk so low", "what a load of tripe!", etc.
- (2) Attending to the commercial. Most respondents said that they could recall attending, and saying aloud to others that they want to pay attention, to an endorsement commercial. The discussions indicate that this tends to happen when a celebrity is someone that is liked, approved of, or is playing a part that is found to be entertaining.
- (3) Overt behaviour. Some respondents recalled "laughing aloud" when confronted by endorsement commercials, such as those featuring the "Two Ronnies", "Joan Collins and Rigsby", and so on. Such an overt behaviour, it seems, may occur either once at the first viewing or at each repeated viewing. The discussions suggest that the more liked an endorser, the more likely it is that overt reaction will occur. Also, it seems that an endorsement commercial seen as being either "funny" or "amusing", rather than "serious", is likely to produce a similar reaction.

(c) Other reactions: from the discussions, it appears that some respondents may react in some other way that is slightly different from the two headings above. Some endorsement commercials have caused respondents to modify their overall feelings to such endorsers. Such modification is either positive or negative.

It would appear that some respondents have changed their views of celebrities because they had discovered that they were taking part in advertising in order to raise funds for charities, and so on. On the other hand, some celebrities have now come to be viewed negatively because it was learned that they only wished to earn more money in order to maintain a "luxury lifestyle". However, in either case, respondents may watch the commercial saving their reactions for a later date.

#### 7.5 Comparisons of the advertising process and the social persuasion process

From the findings reported, it is possible to draw on factors which make advertising different from social persuasion. These factors centre on the following:

(a) The nature of advertising: for respondents, advertising is a means of selling a product. To that end, various means are used, including featuring celebrities, making the advertisement or commercial entertaining, and so on. Because of this and some of the other characteristics discussed, respondents tend to view advertising as "something not to be believed". This contradicts the social persuasion context where believability was presumed to be the mechanism by which the desired response is produced.

(b) The setting in which advertising takes place: as can be seen from the findings of reactions to endorsement advertising, the setting of advertising differs markedly from social persuasion. Firstly, it takes place in an environment in which the respondent has "control" over whether or not to attend to the advertising. The opposite seems true of social persuasion. Secondly, an

endorsement advertising is not the only message to which respondents have to attend. It may be competing with other endorsement commercials or non-endorsement commercials. Thirdly, a respondent may, as was seen in some of the reactions, attend to the endorsement commercial together with other respondents (members of the family). This factor, it was seen, affects the way the commercial is attended to and in the response that results.

(c) The nature of endorsers: as was seen, endorsers are generally known by their celebrity context. This means that unlike social persuasion, where a source may be confronting his audience for the first time, an endorser already has an "ongoing" relationship, as it were, with respondents.

By and large, that ongoing relationship is influenced by factors within the celebrity context (acting roles, etc). On becoming an endorser, the ongoing relationship is affected by the imposition of factors from the advertising context. Both of these considerations were reflected in the descriptions elicited of celebrities and endorsers. In general, however, endorsers are still seen in terms of their celebrity attributes, and as a consequence tend to be judged in terms of such attributes and the extent to which, for example, advertising impinges on such attributes.

(d) The nature of reactions in advertising: unlike social persuasion where reactions are assumed to occur almost immediately, in advertising it varies markedly. Using the reactions to endorsement advertising, it can also be seen that the types of reactions resulting vary markedly. Furthermore, unlike social persuasion where respondents are seen as passive, in advertising the receiver tends to take an active part, as a consequence of which the reactions produced tend to be different.



(e) Type of respondents: in advertising, the type of respondent attending to the message is likely to have different perceptions from others. Although in this study only social class was the major variable distinguishing respondents, their responses can be seen to vary markedly. The way ABC1 respondents perceive endorsement advertising, for example, differs from that of C2DEs. When this is extended to other areas of advertising, it can be seen that major differences are likely to result.

In consequence, all of the factors above seemingly point to major differences between advertising and social persuasion. Hitherto, these factors have not been taken into account and provide additional explanation as to why conflicting findings may have been reported.

#### 7.6 Conclusions and guidelines for the quantitative study

There is a marked difference in the way endorsement in advertising is perceived by ABC1 and C2DE respondents. ABC1s perceive endorsement as a process where less able people are "exploited" or "manipulated" by "popular individuals. These individuals are seen to have little training or qualification, other than their popularity as a result of being in general entertainment, and, therefore, not suitable to endorse products. This view was reflected in the descriptions offered for both celebrities and endorsers.

C2DE respondents, on the other hand, perceive endorsement as a process encompassing the contexts of celebrity and advertising. The celebrity context consists of the various acting roles played by a celebrity, together with other attributes derived from the mass media and from what respondents have been able to gather for themselves. The totality of these factors constitutes the "relationship" between the celebrity and the respondent.

For most C2DE respondents, the advertising context is composed of attempts to get them to buy the products being advertised. In consequence, it involves little or no acting and is generally characterised by "incredulity" and "exaggerated" claims. Therefore, on becoming an endorser these dimensions are perceived to affect the celebrity. The extent to which such an effect matters to the respondent is determined by the degree to which the celebrity context is perceived to have changed. All of these considerations are reflected in the descriptions of celebrities and endorsers and in the reasons given for the descriptions.

ABC1 respondents, by and large, seem not to recall having recently seen an endorsement commercial and seem agreed that their reactions would be limited to either evaluating the endorsement commercial or ignoring it totally. On the contrary, C2DEs recalled most endorsement commercials seen, both past and current, and seem to react at three levels. In the first level, respondents react mentally to the endorsement. At the second level, respondents react overtly. Finally, at the third level respondents "postpone" reaction as a result of new information received.

From the conclusions above, it seems possible to suggest a framework for the quantitative study. This can be summarised as follows:

- (a) The extent to which the various mass media act as providers of information of celebrities.
- (b) The extent to which the descriptions elicited for celebrities and endorsers are likely to be used.
- (c) The extent to which the attitudinal responses have consensus with the respondents of the quantitative study.
- (d) The extent to which reasons given as explanations of the descriptions elicited seem justified.

In short, the quantitative study should contain all the major factors reported in the findings and should seek to ascertain the extent to which these are supported by respondents of the quantitative study.

CHAPTER 8

Stage 2 - Quantitative Survey: Design and  
Administration of the Questionnaire



## CHAPTER 8

### Stage 2 - Quantitative Survey: Design and Administration of the Questionnaire

#### 8.1 Introduction

It was seen in the findings of the group discussions in Chapter 7 that the content of the questionnaire is based largely on those findings. In other words, the purpose of the questionnaire is to ascertain quantitatively the extent to which issues identified in the group discussions are supported. This two-stage method is frequently used in marketing research.

Before going to discuss how the questionnaire was developed and administered, it will be necessary to examine the literature on questionnaire design. Such a review is important because although the content of the questionnaire derives largely from the findings of Stage 1, the presentation and the responses specified are based on the techniques reported in the general literature.

Following the review of questionnaire design, the discussions then centre on the questions that were developed, and the pre-testing procedure that was undertaken. Next, the method of the questionnaire administration is considered, concentrating on the areas selected and the manner of distributing and collecting the questionnaires. Finally the chapter discusses the statistical analysis used.

#### 8.2 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire, according to Kinnear and Taylor (1979), is a formalised schedule for collecting data from respondents. In other words, a questionnaire has a highly structured format that specifies which issues are of interest and which respondents are expected to go through. A questionnaire is thus able to measure past behaviour, attitudes, and respondent characteristics.

An examination of the general literature suggests that a number of factors are seen to be of importance in any discussion of the questionnaire and its use. These include the components of a questionnaire, its design, the type of response desired, and the type of questionnaire administration.

#### 8.2.1 Components of a questionnaire

In general, it is agreed that a questionnaire has a number of components. The most frequently cited in the literature include:

- (a) The identification data: aims to identify the respondent and may include his name, address, etc, and typically occupies the first section of the questionnaire.
- (b) Request for co-operation: a statement designed to gain the co-operation of a respondent and may consist of information about the purpose of the study and the time envisaged for the completion of the interview.
- (c) The instructions: instructions as to how to answer specific questions, or comments to the interviewer.
- (d) Information sought: this forms the major part and consists of the actual questions.
- (e) The classification data: concerned with characteristics of the respondents that will be used for identifying and dividing them into sub-groups. (See, for instance, Tull and Hawkins, 1980; Elliot and Christopher, 1973; and also Kress, 1982).

It is generally agreed that an understanding of these components and, more specifically, the role each performs is important to a researcher intending to use a questionnaire. Some, such as Crosier (1982), have argued that these components should not be seen as "extras" which need very little time and effort. On the contrary, some see each component as playing a significant part in the way the respondent perceives the entire questionnaire. Thus, the "total package" depends on paying attention to each

component, including even such factors as the covering letter, the despatch envelope, the paper, etc.

### 8.2.2 The design of a questionnaire

It would appear that, despite the many guidelines provided by researchers who have designed and used questionnaires, it is still considered more of an art form than a scientific undertaking. This explains why after providing guidelines, many of the authors are quick to point out that these are not assumed to be steps or principles guaranteeing an effective and efficient questionnaire.

Nevertheless, in designing a questionnaire certain considerations have to be taken into account. While the considerations cited in the literature vary, the following list includes most of the important ones:

- (a) Preliminary considerations: includes objectives and the type of information being sought, and the technique most suitable for achieving the objectives.
- (b) Decide on the question content: ensuring that questions match ability of respondents to respond accurately. Elliot and Christopher (1973), for example, provide a list to guide the researcher in deciding his question content. These are:
  - Keep questions short.
  - Use easily understood language.
  - Avoid leading questions and loaded words.
  - Consider whether the respondent will have the information required.
  - Consider whether the respondent will be willing to answer truthfully.
  - Consider whether apparently identical responses could conceal different meanings.

- (c) Decide on response format: the structure desired taking the form of open-ended, multiple-choice, and dichotomous questions. These are discussed in more detail in a later section.
- (d) Decide on question wording: ensuring that the words are consistent with the vocabulary level of the respondents, avoiding ambiguous words, etc.
- (e) Decide on question sequence: the sequence of the questions can greatly influence the nature of a respondent's answers and so needs to be carefully sequenced. Thus, the opening question ought to be simple and must interest the respondent and it may therefore be more appropriate to ask general questions first and place the "uninteresting" questions for later.
- (f) Decide on physical characteristics: the evidence on this suggests that it plays an important part in securing the co-operation of the respondent. Hence, factors such as the quality of the paper used, the printing, the layout, etc, are all considered important.
- (g) Carry out pre-test, revision and final draft: these measures are considered important because although a questionnaire may be logical and well-designed, it may prove difficult for the respondent. Open-ended questions, for example, may become multiple-choice questions if pre-testing identifies suitable response categories.

Consequently, designing a questionnaire involves much more than simply asking questions and hoping to get the right answers. It involves a total package, whereby each component plays its part in increasing the likelihood of the respondent co-operating and providing meaningful answers.



### 8.2.3 Type of response desired

Basically, a questionnaire takes the place of the interviewer who may not always be present when it is being attended to by the respondent. As such, a further burden is placed on the researcher to ensure that no component of the questionnaire results in a misunderstanding. This is because any misunderstanding arising cannot be corrected by the researcher because of the physical and other barriers between himself and the respondent.

An examination of the literature suggests that a component most likely to cause misunderstanding relates to the decision of response format. Often a question is not matched by the appropriate response format and may, therefore, serve to confuse the respondent. A major reason for this is because the type of response selected is influenced by such considerations as the problem being investigated, the present state of knowledge about the problem, target respondents aimed for, their characteristics, and so on. In other words, the response format is influenced by factors which may not always be reconcilable.

In general, it is argued that there are three main types of response format in use: open-ended, multiple choice, and dichotomous questions. It is perhaps now appropriate to discuss each in some detail.

#### (a) Open-ended questions

As the name suggests, an open-ended question is one that requires the respondent to give a short or lengthy reply and is employed when it is not possible to anticipate replies from the respondent or where the population is not very familiar to the researcher.

Black and Champion (1976) have argued that the main advantages of open-ended questions are its flexibility in enabling the respondent to provide answers based on his own perspective, is less

likely than say multiple choice questions to influence responses, is a useful tool for an exploratory research, serves as an excellent first question to a topic, and it provides the researcher with the opportunity to write down comments or explanations which can aid in the interpreting of more structured questions.

The major disadvantages of open-ended questions are: the high potential for interviewer bias, the time and cost associated with coding of the responses particularly in a large survey, variation in responses may mean that they have to be combined thus leaving out those of respondents less able to articulate themselves, and social class differences may lead to misleading results in interpretations because they are not likely to see things in the same way.

These considerations often restrict the use of open-ended questions. Nevertheless, they can be useful in a situation where, for example, the researcher may be wishing merely to have a feel for a topic or it is not possible to hold focus groups to generate ideas, etc.

(b) Multiple choice questions

Questions of this kind require the respondent to choose an answer from a list provided after the questions. Often, the respondent may be asked to choose either one or more of the alternatives presented.

In general, the advantages of multiple choice questions are the problems associated with open-ended questions. These include: the simplification and speeding up of the coding by the provision of a list of answers, they are more suitable for questionnaires intended to be self-administered, and they reduce interview bias and cost and time associated with data processing.

Among the major disadvantages are the time and cost involved in designing effective multiple questions; the impossibility of providing all relevant response alternatives; fixed response items may lead the respondent to simply run through the items regardless of whether or not they apply to him; and the order in which the alternatives are presented may frequently affect the choice of the item.

In addition to the above considerations, multiple choice questions involve the researcher in deciding the choice and number of scales provided. The choice often is between Likert-type scales, which means that there is no single set of scale numbers (see for instance Seiler and Hough, 1970). However, Lehmann and Hulbert's (1972) review of the literature relating to scale numbers led them to conclude that in practice five to six category scales tend to be preferred. This preference, according to Green and Rao (1970), may be due to the fact that researchers who have used more scales have found that, in general, respondents cannot distinguish between six to eight category scales. Also, the use of five to six scales simplifies the coding and analysis.

Related to number of categories is whether or not to have odd or even number of scales and balanced or unbalanced scales. The use of five to six categories often implies a balanced scale. But as Tull and Hawkins (1980) have argued, the purpose of the responses should determine whether a scale is balanced or unbalanced. Finally, the researcher needs to be aware of the problems associated with the labelling of the categories. The general practice has been to adopt labels that have been used by other researchers although in many instances such labels are those used by American studies. This issue has been fully discussed by Betram and Yielding (1973) who also tested some qualifiers.

(c) Dichotomous questions

This is an extreme form of multiple choice question in which the respondent is given only two responses such as "Yes" or "No". Typically, the two alternatives of interest may be combined with a neutral alternative, such as "Don't know" or "No opinion".

The advantages of dichotomous questions are essentially the same as those of multiple choice questions. Their design is often much easier and ensures that the respondent answers with care. They are helpful in obtaining classification data about the respondent and in guiding the respondent through the questionnaire. Interviewers find the questions quick and easy to administer and there is less chance to introduce interviewer bias. Finally, the responses are easier to code, process, and analyse.

Its major disadvantages are its assumption that the respondent approaches the topic in dichotomous terms, when in reality he may have grades of feelings; and errors arising as a result of the way the questions are worded, the assumption of either implied or explicit alternatives, and the position in which positive or negative answers are placed.

However, not all researchers treat dichotomous questions as separate from multiple choice questions. For example, Luck, Wales, Taylor and Rubin (1982) have argued that there are basically only two kinds of format: open-ended and "fixed response" questions. The latter they argue has the following variants:

1. Dichotomous questions: only two answers.
2. Ranking questions: the respondent is asked to comparatively rank the listed items.
3. Check list questions: the respondent checks one or more of the response categories listed for answers.
4. Multiple choice questions: a list of answers is provided and the respondent is expected to select the answer that best matches his own.



5. Sealed questions: the respondent is given a range of categories in which he can express his opinions.

#### 8.2.4 Method of questionnaire administration

Having decided on the different components of the questionnaire, a researcher then has to decide as to which method of administration he would use. The two basic methods by which he can administer his questionnaire are mail and face-to-face.

##### (a) The mailed questionnaire

Black and Champion (1976) suggest that much has been written about the mailed questionnaire because of its frequent use in social research. (For other reviews, see for instance Bradt, 1955; Vincent, 1964; and also Andreason, 1970). Basically, the method involves mailing a questionnaire of a variable length to previously designated subjects, providing the necessary instructions for answering the questions, prepaid return envelope, etc. In other words, the method minimises the possible effects of communicating with respondents by non-personal means.

Boruch (1971) has argued that the greatest advantage of the mailed questionnaire is the anonymity it provides the respondent which is absent in a face-to-face administration. Another advantage is that in the long run the mailed questionnaire is possibly the least expensive way of obtaining information about particular target segments. Finally, the mailed questionnaire offers advantages to the respondent such as having to answer the questionnaire in the privacy of his home, doing so at a time convenient to him, and so on.

However, the major disadvantage of the method is the uncertainty as to who exactly completed the questionnaire. A wife, for example, may decide to answer the questionnaire on behalf of her husband so that results obtained may not reflect those whose opinions were being sought. Another shortcoming relates to the

almost total absence of a mechanism by which the researcher can ensure that people do complete and return the questionnaire. Also, there is no guarantee that the designated respondents will still be in the same address or area because they may have changed jobs, houses, etc. Finally, the postal system cannot be guaranteed to deliver promptly the mail in time if deadlines have to be met.

(b) Administering the questionnaire ;face-to-face

This requires the respondent to complete the questionnaire in the presence of the interviewer. A variant of this method might be to deliver the questionnaire face-to-face and then agree a time or date of collection.

Its major advantages include the expectation of high rates of completion and return, knowing exactly who has completed the questionnaire, clarifying any points which may not be clear to the respondent, and shortening the overall period of the survey thereby saving on other costs such as sending reminder letters, additional questionnaires, more prepaid envelopes, and so on.

At the same time, those who have used this method of administration have identified a number of shortcomings. Major disadvantages include the time consumed and expense incurred as a result of travelling over long distances; where subjects are spread, say, all over the country it becomes almost too costly to undertake the method; respondents may hastily complete the questionnaire so that they can "get rid" of the interviewer; at a time when burglary and crime is on the increase, the method may involve unnecessary inconveniences to both the researcher and the respondent.

In short, both methods have advantages as well as disadvantages so that use of any is a matter for a researcher to decide and the extent to which certain factors, such as a high rate

of return, are more important than other factors, such as cost savings.

Before concluding the discussion on methods of questionnaire administration, it is worthwhile noting that the telephone to a certain extent has become another method. However, its use is constrained because of a number of factors, such as the representativeness of those who have telephones, the costs involved in phoning during peak hours, ensuring that the respondent at the other end is the person required, and so on.

### 8.3 The construction and administration of the questionnaire

This section deals with the way the questionnaire was constructed and designed, and the manner by which it was delivered and collected.

#### 8.3.1 Questionnaire construction

As will be recalled, the underlying purpose of this questionnaire is to determine the extent to which issues identified in the group discussions are perceived by a larger sample as being either important or unimportant. Therefore, the construction of this questionnaire was only started after the analysis of the group discussions.

The construction of the questionnaire took the following format:

- Q.1, Q.2, Q.3: These questions are an attempt to determine the respondents' television viewing habits because inferences from the group discussions suggest that it is a major determinant of what they tend to know about celebrities and endorsers.
- Q.4: This question asked to rate the different media of television, newspapers and magazines in terms of the information they provide about celebrities. The group discussions showed that

different respondents relied on different media for information about celebrities, so that knowledge about celebrities varied.

- Q.5: this question was designed so as to determine the readership frequency of respondents. The group discussions seem to indicate that those who frequently read newspapers and magazines tend to have more information, and hence tend to know more about celebrities.

- Q.6, Q.7: These attempt to show the newspapers and magazines read by respondents and how these are ranked in terms of providing information about celebrities. The discussions had shown that not all newspapers and magazines read by respondents provide information about celebrities.

- Q.8: This question aims to find out the total number of respondents who can recall seeing an endorsement commercial.

- Q.9: This question asks the respondent to categorise the listed celebrities in terms of the four categories provided. These categories were derived from the different group discussions. The basic inference is that only respondents who are "familiar" with celebrities would be able to categorise them correctly.

- Q.10: This question lists the 10 main descriptions to emerge from the group discussions in order to describe celebrities. Respondents are asked to specify the extent to which they are likely or unlikely to use each description.

- Q.11: This lists the main feelings and attitudes expressed by respondents in the group discussions towards celebrities taking part in advertising. Respondents of the questionnaire are asked to determine the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement. Extent to which feelings expressed were held could not be determined in the group discussions.



- Q.12: This lists the descriptions of endorsers. Respondents are asked to state the extent to which they themselves are likely or unlikely to use the listed descriptions.
  
- Q.13: This asks respondents to state the extent to which reasons provided explain their selection of descriptions of celebrities and endorsers. The group discussions had indicated several reasons, some of which were divided for the purpose of the questionnaire.
  
- Q.14: This question lists a number of reactions to endorsement commercials and asks respondents to state the likelihood that they would react as specified.
  
- Q.15: The discussions had shown what were termed as "overall feelings" to be held by respondents towards celebrities and towards advertising per se. This question also asks respondents to state the extent of their agreement or disagreement to the listed overall feelings.
  
- Q.16, Q.17, Q.18, Q.19: These questions were for classification of respondents into various categories such as social class, age, and so on.

The full questionnaire is presented in Appendix 1.

Finally, the language of the questionnaire is based largely on the findings of the group discussions, particularly the discussions of C2DE respondents. As will be recalled from the findings of the group discussions, ABC1 respondents were generally able to offer only standard type of descriptions which are claimed to be used in all circumstances. These descriptions were similar to those to be found in source effect studies and importantly, were based on perception of the photograph of the celebrity. Therefore, the large majority were found to be unsuitable for use, given that over

70% of the desired respondents are from the C2DE socio-economic grouping.

### 8.3.2 Pre-testing the questionnaire

Having designed the questionnaire, it became necessary to test its various components. It was decided that six category scales would be used whenever a list of items was being tested. However, given the problems alluded to in an earlier discussion about the number and types of category scales, it was necessary to test these carefully.

Two sets of scales were developed based both on the general literature and on inferences from the group discussions.

#### Version One

Very Strongly 1. Agree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Very Strongly Disagree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Very 2. Likely	Quite Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Quite Unlikely	Very Unlikely
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

#### Version Two

Strongly 1. Agree	Quite Agree	Agree	Disagree	Quite Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Extremely 2. Likely	Quite Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Quite Unlikely	Extremely Unlikely
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The questionnaire was distributed to 30 respondents from the same area as C2DE respondents who had taken part in the group discussions. 15 respondents received the questionnaire with version one of the scales, whereas the other 15 respondents

received a questionnaire consisting of version two. Therefore, this was only a partial treatment.

The questionnaires were individually delivered and collected by the researcher. On delivery each respondent was asked to list in the space provided any difficulties they may have encountered, and for convenience to mark in ink the section found to be difficult. On collection, the researcher spent between 5 to 20 minutes talking to each respondent on problems encountered.

Generally, all the respondents said that the actual contents of the questionnaire were easy to follow and ones that they would use themselves. However, respondents who had been given the questionnaire with version one identified a language problem. 8 of the 15 respondents said that they would not use words such as "very strongly agree/disagree" or "very likely/unlikely". Thus, many had ticked either "agree/disagree" or "likely/unlikely".

Of the 15 respondents who had received version two, 2 identified problems with the scales. Both of the respondents pointed out that ordinarily they would not use "strongly agree/disagree" and "extremely likely/unlikely". One respondent offered the alternatives "I think I agree/disagree" and "I think I would/wouldn't use this". However, the remainder found no problems and had invariably used most of the end and middle scales.

One problem that was identified by both sets of respondents related to the heading "General Instructions". A few respondents had actually inserted crosses in the boxes used for illustrative purposes. It was suggested that perhaps the phrase "How to Answer the Questions" would have been more appropriate.

Finally, each respondent was asked whether the absence of celebrities' photographs in any way affected their responses,

particularly their enthusiasm, recall of celebrities, etc. The overwhelming answer was no, many respondents suggesting that they would be distracted by photographs. Many said that the topic was interesting to them and that they would have answered the questionnaire regardless. A few, however, pointed out that A4-sized questionnaire looked "official" and may be seen as a government form, in the absence of someone being there to explain that it was not.

From the results of the pre-testing, it was decided to use the scales of version two, to photo-reduce the questionnaire so that it could be fitted easily into a smaller envelope, and it was decided not to attach photographs of the celebrities listed in Question 9.

### 8.3.3 The Sampling Process

As in the group discussions, the BARB TV Viewing Profile for May 1983 was used as the sample frame. It was decided that 500 respondents would be recruited for the survey, using a quota sampling procedure.

Once the decision above was made, it was then possible to have a breakdown of the respondents to be recruited. These are shown in the table below.

Table 8.1 Characteristics of respondents to be recruited for questionnaire survey

Socio-economic group	Breakdown by Sex and Age				Total Number of Respondents
	Males 16-34	Males 35+	Females 16-34	Females 35+	
AB	6	14	8	20	48
C1	10	24	13	33	80
C2DE	46	110	64	152	372
Total for each segment	62	148	85	205	500

\* All figures calculated according to % breakdown of Barb TV Viewing Figures.



Once the profile of respondents to be recruited was known, the next step was to decide which areas of the city of Glasgow respondents would be recruited from. Based on the known composition of respondents of different areas of Glasgow, the following areas were selected:

Areas for ABs and C1s: Bearsden  
Hyndland  
Kelvinbridge

Area for C2DEs: Castlemilk  
Springburn  
Dennistoun  
Shettleston  
Pollokshaws  
Drumoyne

Based on the table above, it was decided that recruitment would be undertaken as follows:

48 AB respondents: Bearsden  
80 C1 respondents: Hyndland and Kelvinbridge  
372 C2DE respondents: Recruitment in each area was to be made as follows:  
Castlemilk - 72 respondents.  
All the rest - 60 respondents from each area.

#### 8.3.4 Recruitment of respondents and administration of the questionnaire

Given the spread of the areas and the fact that the questionnaire was to be distributed some three weeks to Christmas (1983), the researcher decided to recruit a number of Marketing students to deliver and collect the questionnaires.

10 students were recruited and were thoroughly briefed about what was required. To ensure that recruits were fully cognisant

of their responsibility, however, the researcher produced a detailed list of instructions on how to approach the general public (Appendix 2), arranged to meet each of the recruits on the day they were distributing the questionnaire (and for some, also on the day of collection), and each recruit was given a control quota sheet of respondents required (see Appendix 3) together with a brief letter of introduction, should a respondent demand to see some form of identification.

The entire process took about 10 to 12 days to complete and, although it involved additional costs to the researcher, proved as successful as had been hoped. As will be seen later, the completion rate was over 70%.

In return for their efforts, the researcher gave each recruit an agreed fee, involving the payment of travel expenses, etc, plus 50 pence per questionnaire completed and returned. This proved agreeable to all parties concerned.

#### 8.3.5 Characteristics of respondents of the questionnaire survey

The table overleaf shows the characteristics of respondents who completed and returned their questionnaires. It can be seen that there was some 90% completion rate for ABs and C1s whereas the completion rate for C2DEs was about 65-70%.

When compared with the 1981 Census (for Glasgow), it can be seen that there are some differences particularly in the socio economic groupings. However, the breakdown for age and sex show the characteristics of the respondents to closely match those of the general population of Glasgow.

#### 8.4 Analysis of the questionnaire

The questionnaire has been analysed using a number of statistical techniques. Having coded the questionnaires, the SPSS-X computer package was used to analyse the data.

Table 8.2 Characteristics of Respondents of questionnaire survey

	Number of Respondents	As a % of total	*1981 Glasgow Census
<u>Social class</u>			
AB	42	10.2%	)
C1	83	20.1%	) 19%
C2DE	287	69.7%	81%
Total	412	100%	100%
<u>Age</u>			
16-34	155	38%	34%
35 and over	257	62%	66%
Total	412	100%	100%
<u>Sex</u>			
Male	185	45%	47%
Female	226	55%	53%
Total	412	100%	100%

\* From the Census of Population in Glasgow for 1981.

First, frequency scores are obtained for all the questions. Basically, this provides information about the scores of respondents for all the items. In short, it is a tally of scores or values of characteristics that have been taken from any collection of elements (Champion, 1981).

Next, mean scores are obtained in order to rank the different responses. Depending on the number of item scales, the lower the mean score the more agreement expressed or likelihood of an event occurring. This exception only applies to questions which have lower scores (such as number of hours spent watching television) at the beginning.

Following the mean scores, chi-square test of significance is used to measure the goodness-of-fit between the variables. However, the warning of Champion (1981) should be noted particularly in respect of the sensitivity of this test. The measure is sensitive to both very small or very large (often anything over 250 respondents) sample size, so that a researcher may obtain results showing a goodness-of-fit due entirely to such sensitivity. Thus, whenever cell frequencies are less than 5, distortion is introduced thereby causing unusually large observed chi-square ( $X^2$ ) value. This is often overcome by the collapsing of scales.

However, to counter such sensitivity given the sample size, it was decided to use Cramer's V. Basically this is a measure of association that can achieve a score of 1.00 without the aid of a correction factor, which is necessary in such a case as the coefficient of contingency C.

Cramer's V is computed as follows:

$$V = \sqrt{\frac{X^2}{(N)(a-1)}}$$

where

$X^2$  = observed chi-square value for some V and C table.

N = sample size for the table.

a = smaller number associated with the rows and columns.

In the main, Cramer's V is suitable for use on nominal level of measurement. It has been used in studies using ordinal measurement by ensuring nominal codings. For this study, the scales have been assigned a number regardless of whether they are positive or negative. Thus, the scales have been numbered from 1 to 6, from left to right. This procedure was used for all the other scales. But as Champion (1981) has argued, ordinal level of



measurement "contains the classification properties of the nominal scale" and so may be subjected to techniques intended for nominal measurement.

The extent of the associations will be guided by the scores suggested by Champion, as follows:

- ± 0.00 to .25 = Weak association.
- ± .26 to .50 = Moderate association.
- ± .51 to .75 = Fairly strong association.
- ± .76 to 1.00 = Strong association up to perfect association.

CHAPTER 9

Quantitative Data: Findings of the Questionnaire Survey

CHAPTER 9Quantitative Data: Findings of the Questionnaire Survey9.1 Introduction

It is necessary before going to report the findings of the questionnaire survey, to discuss briefly how these will be presented. It was noted in the questionnaire methodology chapter that the basic aim of the survey is to show the extent to which issues identified in the group discussions are perceived as important or significant by a larger sample of respondents. Given this basic aim, it has been decided to present the findings using the same approach as that of the group discussion findings. Consequently, questions have been grouped together under the following headings:

1. The Mass Media: consisting of Questions 1 to 7.
2. Descriptions of celebrities and endorsers and grounds for the descriptions: consists of Questions 10, 12 and 13.
3. Attitudinal response to celebrities taking part in advertising: consists of Questions 11 and 15.
4. Recall of endorsement advertising and reactions: consisting of Questions 8 and 14.
5. General knowledge of celebrities: consists of Question 9.

The responses were cross-tabulated using the variables of social class, age, and sex. However, the scores obtained for age and sex, particularly in respect of the chi-square test and Cramer's V test of association, showed these variables to be less discriminating, producing much weaker relationships than were obtained for the variable of social class. As a result, the findings are reported using only the variable of social class. Further, only the variables that are endorsed by respondents of the questionnaire survey will be reported because, as will be recalled, this is the underlying aim of the questionnaire.

FINDINGS9.2 The Mass Media

This section consists of seven questions related to the mass media, and more specifically to the way respondents perceive these as providers of information about celebrities.

(A) Television Viewing Habits:1. Number of days in a week spent viewing television

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>No. of Days:</u>		<u>Score</u>	<u>Mean Rank</u>
	<u>1-3</u>	<u>4-7</u>		
AB	4%	96%	6.21*	1
C1	25%	75%	5.27	3
C2DE	11%	89%	5.57	2

\* The higher the mean score, the more days spent watching TV.  
Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .20 - weak relationship.

2. Number of hours in a day spent viewing STV/C4

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>No. of Hours:</u>		<u>Score</u>	<u>Mean Rank</u>
	<u>1-4</u>	<u>5-9</u>		
AB	100%	-	2.4*	2
C1	100%	-	2.2	3
C2DE	87%	13%	3.4	1

\* The higher the mean score, the more hours spent viewing STV/C4.

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .44 - a fairly strong relationship.

9.2.1 Discussion

The tables show that overall, respondents from all the social classes seem to have similar television viewing habits. This contrasts markedly from the group discussions where AB and C1 respondents had given the impression that they spent very little



time watching either of the independent channels. Overall, however, C2DE respondents seem to spend more hours watching one of the independent channels than either respondents from the other groups.

(B) Respondents' Ranking of Newspapers, Magazines and Television as providers of information about celebrities.

1. Newspapers

Social Class	Scales:			Mean Score	Rank
	Most Important	Next most Important	Least Important		
AB	31%	48%	21%	1.9*	2
C1	49%	29%	22%	1.7	1
C2DE	30%	49%	21%	1.9	2

\* The lower the mean score, the more important the medium.  
Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .12 - a very weak relationship.

2. Magazines

Social Class	Scales:			Mean Score	Rank
	Most Important	Next most Important	Least Important		
AB	24%	17%	59%	2.3*	1
C1	21%	29%	50%	2.3	1
C2DE	9%	28%	63%	2.5	3

\* The lower the mean score, the more important the medium.  
Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .13 - a very weak relationship.

### 3. Television

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>			<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Most Important</u>	<u>Next most Important</u>	<u>Least Important</u>		
AB	46%	35%	19%	1.7*	2
C1	30%	43%	27%	1.9	3
C2DE	62%	23%	15%	1.5	1

\* The lower the mean score, the more important the medium.  
 Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
 Cramer's V: .18 - a very weak relationship.

#### 9.2.2 Discussion

From the responses in the three tables, it can be seen that there were slight differences in the way the different media were perceived by respondents. C1 respondents regarded newspapers as by far the most important providers of information about celebrities, whereas both ABs and C2DEs regarded television as the most important. Importantly, respondents from all the social classes regarded magazines as the least important of the media.

#### 9.2.3 Frequency of Reading and Rankings: Discussion

The responses obtained indicated that frequency of reading newspapers and magazines were similar between respondents from the different social classes. That is, respondents read almost every day of the week. Further, newspapers and magazines said to be read were ranked favourably by respondents, regardless of the social class. An expected pattern emerged whereby AB and C1s said they read the national dailies, such as The Times, The Guardian, whereas C2DEs read what is loosely referred to as the "tabloids" (Sun, Daily Mirror, Daily Record, etc).

### 9.3 Descriptions of celebrities and endorsers, and reasons for the descriptions

This section consists of three sets of responses related to the descriptions of celebrities, descriptions of endorsers, and possible reasons for the descriptions. The six scales shown in the questionnaire have been collapsed to two, thus only showing whether or not an item was likely to be used. Only descriptions and reasons said to be likely to be used are shown in the tables that now follow.

#### (A) Descriptions of Celebrities

##### 1. Actor/Actress/Singer

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	100%	-	1.76*	2
C1	98%	2%	1.61	1
C2DE	97%	3%	2.04	3

\* The lower the mean score, the more likely that the description will be used. This applies to the rest of the responses shown below.

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .16 - a very weak relationship.

##### 2. Principal parts for which known

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	81%	19%	2.47	3
C1	91%	9%	2.01	1
C2DE	92%	8%	2.33	2

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .20 - a weak relationship.

3. Physical make-up of celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	45%	55%	3.54	3
C1	71%	29%	2.98	1
C2DE	63%	37%	3.11	2

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .16 - a very weak relationship.

4. Perceived behaviour of celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	49%	51%	3.73	2
C1	40%	60%	3.86	3
C2DE	51%	49%	3.41	1

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .21 a weak relationship.

5. Perceived principles of celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	57%	43%	3.33	2
C1	54%	46%	3.42	3
C2DE	66%	34%	3.24	1

Significance: results not significant.



6. 'Type' of person celebrity perceived as

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	50%	50%	3.73	2
C1	49%	51%	3.79	3
C2DE	54%	46%	3.45	1

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .17 a very weak relationship.

7. 'Way'/manner celebrity reflects life

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	45%	55%	3.71	2
C1	39%	61%	3.80	3
C2DE	54%	46%	3.45	1

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .16 a very weak relationship.

8. Perceived attitude of celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	41%	59%	3.71	2
C1	46%	54%	3.75	3
C2DE	50%	50%	3.28	1

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .17 a very weak relationship.

### 9.3.1 Discussion

The responses indicate that, by and large, most of the descriptions of celebrities and endorsers and the specified reasons were confirmed by respondents. However, there were certain differences in the responses provided by respondents of the different social classes.

The responses, in respect of the likelihood of using the listed descriptions of celebrities, indicate the following:

(a) AB respondents said that they would not describe a celebrity in terms of:

- physical make-up
- known background
- perceived behaviour
- perceived private life
- the way the celebrity reflects life
- perceived attitude.

In short, these respondents said that they would not use some 60% of the listed descriptions. This finding seems to be similar to that of the group discussion finding which suggests that ABs tend to use only what were referred to as "standard" types of descriptions. But as can be seen from some of the descriptions rejected above such as physical make-up, AB respondents of the questionnaire survey seem to be saying that only a few of these standard descriptions were acceptable for use on endorsers.

(b) C1 respondents also said that they were unlikely to describe a celebrity in terms of:

- known background
- perceived behaviour
- perceived private life
- the type of person the celebrity is
- the way the celebrity reflects life
- perceived attitudes.

Consequently, this social group also is saying that they are unlikely to use 60% of the descriptions and confirms the views of their counterparts in the group discussions.

(c) C2DE respondents, on the other hand, said that they would not use the descriptions related to:

- celebrity's known background
- perceived private life.

This indicates that only 20% of the descriptions of celebrities listed were perceived as ones unlikely to be used. These responses confirm those of their counterparts in the group discussions.

(B) Descriptions of Celebrities as Endorsers

1. Known acting roles

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	83%	17%	2.85*	3
C1	92%	8%	2.28	2
C2DE	92%	8%	2.35	1

\* The lower the mean score the more likely to use the description. This applies to the rest of the tables below.

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .17 a very weak relationship.

2. Known Principal Role (Acting)

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	74%	26%	3.16	3
C1	72%	28%	2.92	2
C2DE	74%	26%	2.90	1

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .15 a very weak relationship.

3. Physical Make-up (looks, height, etc)

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	42%	58%	3.83	3
C1	61%	39%	3.26	1
C2DE	53%	47%	3.44	2

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .17 a very weak relationship.

4. Perceived Behaviour

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	40%	60%	3.52	1
C1	34%	66%	3.94	3
C2DE	51%	49%	3.56	2

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .20 a weak relationship.

5. Perceived 'Private life' (family person, play boy, etc)

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	29%	71%	3.95	2
C1	31%	69%	4.03	3
C2DE	50%	50%	3.46	1

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .16 a very weak relationship.



6. 'Part' perceived to be played by endorser in commercial

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	47%	53%	3.64	3
C1	58%	42%	3.47	2
C2DE	47%	53%	3.41	1

Significance: results not significant.

7. Reasons perceived to explain celebrity's presence in commercial (money, free supply of the products, donation to charity, etc)

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	42%	58%	3.66	2
C1	70%	30%	3.80	3
C2DE	50%	50%	3.40	1

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .17 a very weak relationship.

8. Message of the celebrity (claims made)

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	24%	76%	4.19	3
C1	46%	54%	3.66	2
C2DE	50%	50%	3.49	1

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .17 a very weak relationship.

9. Perceived 'Knowledge' of the Endorser as regards the product

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	40%	60%	3.61	3
C1	45%	55%	3.56	2
C2DE	57%	43%	3.42	1

Significance: results significant at 95% of confidence.

Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

10. Perceived principles (issues known for)

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	35%	65%	3.81	3
C1	36%	64%	3.71	2
C2DE	55%	45%	3.38	1

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .14 - a very weak relationship.

11. Feeling toward celebrity (liked/disliked)

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	48%	52%	3.64	2
C1	47%	53%	3.65	3
C2DE	65%	35%	3.25	1

Significance: results not significant.

12. 'Aspect' for which celebrity is liked/disliked

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	64%	36%	3.35	3
C1	74%	26%	3.09	1
C2DE	71%	29%	3.09	1

Significance: results not significant.

13. 'What' celebrity is perceived to be trying to accomplish

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	42%	58%	3.71	3
C1	47%	53%	3.66	2
C2DE	50%	50%	3.35	1

Significance: results not significant.

9.3.2 Discussion

The tables show that the way an endorser is described by respondents differ as follows:

(a) AB respondents said that they would not use the following descriptions to describe an endorser:

- physical make-up
- known background
- perceived behaviour
- perceived private life
- part played in the commercial
- reasons for being in the commercial

- their message
- endorser's knowledge of the product
- perceived principles
- feelings toward the endorser
- perceived 'theme' of the commercial
- what the endorser is attempting to do in the commercial.

In percentage terms some 80% of the descriptions listed were perceived as ones unlikely to be used when describing an endorser. Again, this confirms the findings of the group discussions.

(b) C1 respondents said that they were unlikely to describe an endorser in terms of:

- known background
- perceived behaviour
- perceived private life
- the message of the endorser
- perceived knowledge
- perceived principles
- feelings toward the endorser
- perceived 'theme' of the commercial
- what the celebrity is trying to do in the commercial.

Thus they are unlikely to use some 60% of the listed descriptions of endorsers. This represents a slight difference from the responses provided by ABs above.

(c) On the other hand, C2DE respondents said they were unlikely to use the following descriptions:

- known background
- part played in the commercial
- perceived 'theme' of the commercial.



In short, this social class said that they were unlikely to use only some 20% of the descriptions of endorsers. Therefore, C2DEs seem to have endorsed the large majority of the descriptions elicited from their counterparts in the group discussions.

(C) Grounds for the elicited descriptions

1. Endorser still perceived as a celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	74%	26%	2.95*	3
C1	77%	23%	2.90	1
C2DE	74%	26%	2.93	2

\* The lower the mean score the more likely the reason.  
This applies also to the rest of the tables below.

Significance: results not significant.

2. Celebrity perceived to be known through the mass media

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	95%	5%	2.66	3
C1	92%	8%	2.61	2
C2DE	92%	8%	2.56	1

Significance: results not significant.

3. Celebrity not personally known

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	78%	22%	2.78	3
C1	80%	20%	2.54	1
C2DE	79%	21%	2.58	2

Significance: results not significant.

4. Possible effect of celebrity's presence in the commercial on attitude held towards them

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	50%	50%	3.42	3
C1	56%	44%	3.41	2
C2DE	58%	42%	3.35	1

Significance: results not significant.

5. An endorser is perceived in the same way as a salesperson

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	69%	31%	3.09	2
C1	77%	23%	2.95	1
C2DE	63%	37%	3.19	3

Significance: results not significant.

6. Advertising changes a celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	62%	38%	3.04	1
C1	63%	37%	3.15	2
C2DE	61%	39%	3.28	3

Significance: results not significant.

7. Advertising is a different type of activity/work

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	62%	38%	3.19	1
C1	53%	47%	3.37	2
C2DE	53%	47%	3.44	3

Significance: results not significant.

8. 'Feeling' for celebrity reflected in descriptions

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	85%	15%	2.69	1
C1	84%	16%	2.69	1
C2DE	69%	31%	3.01	3

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .16 - a very weak relationship.

9. Advertising now perceived to be a part of entertainment

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	58%	42%	3.33	3
C1	64%	36%	3.06	1
C2DE	66%	34%	3.20	2

Significance: results not significant.

10. Descriptions reflect the 'unbelievable element' of advertising

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	57%	43%	3.16	2
C1	59%	41%	3.07	1
C2DE	55%	45%	3.27	3

Significance: results not significant.

11. Descriptions intended to reflect the extent to which advertising is perceived to affect the celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	42%	58%	3.66	3
C1	51%	49%	3.48	1
C2DE	43%	57%	3.56	2

Significance: results not significant.

12. Though descriptions of celebrities and endorsers similar importance of each description is affected by advertising

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	62%	38%	3.31	1
C1	62%	38%	3.36	2
C2DE	57%	43%	3.38	3

Significance: results not significant.

13. Descriptions meant to reflect the fact that little is known about celebrities

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	72%	28%	2.97	1
C1	72%	28%	3.01	3
C2DE	71%	29%	2.98	2

Significance: results not significant.



14. Only liked celebrities will be described in this manner  
Scales:

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
AB	53%	47%	3.23	1
C1	35%	65%	3.67	3
C2DE	45%	55%	3.59	2

Significance: results not significant.

15. Descriptions meant to reflect the fact that little time spent watching television

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
AB	51%	49%	3.42	1
C1	53%	47%	3.43	2
C2DE	35%	65%	3.79	3

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .19 - a very weak relationship.

16. Descriptions meant to reflect the fact that one has no interest in celebrities and their activities

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
AB	57%	43%	3.38	1
C1	45%	55%	3.54	2
C2DE	41%	59%	3.58	3

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

### 9.3.3 Discussion

The responses to the question of reasons for the descriptions produced an overall result that is different from that of the group discussions. The following reasons were said to be unlikely to provide an explanation for their descriptions:

(a) AB respondents said that the following two reasons were not perceived to be ones providing an explanation: the extent to which the advertising affects the celebrity and knowing a great deal about celebrities. In effect these respondents accepted some 85% or more of the listed reasons and differs from that of the group discussion findings.

(b) C1s perceive the following as a non-explanation: knowing a great deal about celebrities and only liked celebrities would be described in that manner. Also, this represents an acceptance of some 85% or more of the reasons specified and marks a departure from the discussion of this group's counterpart.

(c) On the other hand, C2DE said that they were unlikely to mention these reasons to explain their descriptions: the extent to which the advertising affects the celebrity, knowing a great deal about celebrities, only liked celebrities would be described in that manner, spend little time watching television, and having no interest in celebrities. Therefore these respondents accepted some 70% of the listed reasons. One reason that was reflected seems surprising, given that in the group discussions C2DE respondents had emphasised that a major reason for their descriptions was because of their general knowledge of celebrities. This does not appear to have been perceived in the same way by C2DEs of the questionnaire survey.

### 9.4 Attitudinal response to celebrities taking part in advertising

This section consists of two parts: the first part relates to attitudes to celebrities taking part in advertising, whereas the

to their taking part in advertising. The second part is more a summary of the specific issues identified.

Finally, the six scales provided in the questionnaire have, as in the previous analyses, been collapsed to two scales, namely: agree and disagree. As before, only items endorsed by respondents are reported.

(A) Attitudes to celebrities taking part in advertising

1. Celebrities are easier to recognise in advertisements

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	81%	19%	2.61*	3
C1	83%	17%	2.43	1
C2DE	90%	10%	2.47	2

\* The lower the mean score, the more agreement expressed.

This applies to the rest of the tables below.

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .16 - a very weak relationship.

2. Celebrities earn "too much money"

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	69%	31%	3.00	2
C1	59%	41%	3.06	3
C2DE	78%	22%	2.71	1

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .14 - a very weak relationship.

3. Celebrities attract attention to the commercial

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	64%	36%	3.38	3
C1	65%	35%	3.20	1
C2DE	63%	37%	3.33	2

Significance: results not significant.

4. Some products have only become known as a result of featuring celebrities

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	33%	67%	3.95	3
C1	41%	59%	3.74	2
C2DE	58%	42%	3.40	1

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

5. Advertising changes celebrities

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	62%	38%	3.16	1
C1	65%	35%	3.41	2
C2DE	53%	47%	3.42	3

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .20 - a weak relationship.



6. Advertising causes a loss in celebrity's 'standing'

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	60%	40%	3.61	1
C1	57%	43%	3.42	2
C2DE	40%	60%	3.72	3

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .19 - a very weak relationship.

7. Using a celebrity in a commercial makes the product more expensive

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	50%	50%	3.59	3
C1	45%	55%	3.55	2
C2DE	60%	40%	3.15	1

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .18 - a very weak relationship.

8. Other types of commercials preferred

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	50%	50%	3.28	3
C1	57%	43%	3.27	2
C2DE	63%	37%	3.16	1

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

9. Disbelieve any celebrity in advertising

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	60%	40%	3.14	1
C1	47%	53%	3.55	3
C2DE	58%	42%	3.18	2

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .17 - a very weak relationship.

10. Experience with product more important than presence of celebrity in the commercial

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	91%	19%	1.95	1
C1	96%	14%	1.96	2
C2DE	92%	18%	2.26	3

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .18 - a very weak relationship.

11. 'Disliked' celebrities should not take part in advertising

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	64%	36%	3.33	1
C1	47%	53%	3.66	3
C2DE	52%	48%	3.44	2

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .21 - a weak relationship.

12. Celebrities make advertisements more 'exciting and fun' to watch

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	75%	25%	2.97	1
C1	72%	28%	2.97	1
C2DE	59%	41%	3.31	3

Significance: results not significant.

13. Celebrities whose programmes are 'liked' should take part in advertising

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	73%	27%	3.11	1
C1	66%	34%	3.15	2
C2DE	58%	42%	3.31	3

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

14. Most celebrities do not use products endorsed

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	84%	16%	2.88	3
C1	81%	19%	2.81	2
C2DE	86%	14%	2.63	1

Significance: results not significant.

15. Advertising makes some celebrities do 'unusual' things

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	86%	14%	2.85	3
C1	87%	13%	2.62	1
C2DE	85%	15%	2.68	2

Significance: results not significant.

16. Most celebrities use advertising as a means of keeping themselves in the 'limelight'

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	91%	19%	2.61	3
C1	88%	12%	2.50	1
C2DE	88%	12%	2.57	2

Significance: results not significant.

17. Celebrities who have done something 'useful' in the past may take part in advertising

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	81%	19%	2.83	2
C1	76%	24%	2.83	2
C2DE	88%	12%	2.57	1

Significance: results not significant.



18. Celebrities take part for 'wrong' reasons (money, greed, etc)

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	67%	33%	2.97	1
C1	53%	47%	3.27	3
C2DE	60%	40%	3.14	2

Significance: results not significant.

19. 'Ordinary' people who use the products are better suited for advertising than celebrities

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	41%	59%	3.57	2
C1	35%	65%	3.75	3
C2DE	50%	50%	3.45	1

Significance: results not significant.

20. Celebrities are better suited for advertising because they are more used to the 'technology'

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	78%	22%	2.90	3
C1	74%	26%	2.69	1
C2DE	66%	34%	3.16	2

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .17 - a very weak relationship.

21. Celebrities who need money to support 'other activities' should be allowed to take part in advertising

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	75%	25%	2.97	3
C1	81%	19%	2.79	1
C2DE	81%	19%	2.84	2

Significance: results not significant.

#### 9.4.1 Discussion

Respondents from the different social classes expressed agreement with most of the attitudes listed. Attitudes with which respondents expressed disagreement, firstly in respect to celebrities taking part in advertising, may be summarised as follows:

(a) AB respondents said that they disagreed with these attitudes that celebrities show a lack of concern for supporters and fans by taking part in advertising:

- that celebrities increase the unreal aspects of advertising;
- that advertising involves very little acting;
- that some products have become known as a result of featuring celebrities;
- that celebrities get in the way of the commercials;
- that celebrities can be featured when television programmes are dull or boring;
- that celebrities should be only featured in commercials for charities;
- that the presence of a celebrity increases the expectation from the product;
- that there are too many celebrities nowadays in advertising;
- that ordinary people are better suited to advertise/endorse than celebrities.

In consequence, AB respondents reject or disagree with only some 35% of the listed attitude. Some of the attitudes rejected contradict those of their counterparts in the group discussions. At the same time, those attitudes with which an agreement was expressed show a marked departure from the group discussions, in so far as they point to some degree of 'involvement' with celebrities.

(b) C1 respondents also expressed disagreement with the following attitudes:

- that celebrities show a lack of concern for supporters and fans by taking part in advertising;
- that celebrities increase the unreal aspects of advertising;
- that advertising involves very little acting;
- that some products have become known as a result of featuring celebrities;
- that celebrities make products endorsed more expensive;
- that celebrities get in the way of the commercials;
- that celebrities can be featured when television programmes are dull or boring;
- that celebrities cannot be believed by being in advertising;
- that celebrities should be only featured in commercials for charities;
- that the presence of a celebrity in a commercial increases the expectation from the product;
- that disliked celebrities should not be featured in commercials;
- that there are too many celebrities nowadays in advertising;
- that ordinary people are better suited to advertise/endorse than celebrities.

In percentage terms, this represents a disagreement with some 45% of the attitude statements listed. As in the case of ABs, C1 respondents have expressed attitudes that are different from those of their counterparts in the group discussions.

However, an examination of these attitudes indicates that many of the positive attitudes to celebrities taking part in advertising were supported. Some of the attitudes that might have been expected to be rejected, both by ABs and CIs would appear to have been endorsed.

(c) The responses of C2DEs, on the other hand, indicates that they disagree with the following attitudes:

- that celebrities show a lack of concern for supporters and fans by taking part in advertising;
- that celebrities increase the unreal aspects of advertising;
- that advertising involves very little acting;
- that by being in advertising, celebrities lose their 'standing';
- that celebrities get in the way of the commercials;
- that celebrities can be featured when television programmes are dull or boring;
- that celebrities should be only featured in commercials for charities;
- that the presence of a celebrity in a commercial increases the expectation from the product;
- that there are too many celebrities nowadays in advertising.

In short C2DEs disagree with some 30% of the listed attitude statements. This suggests that many of the attitudes expressed by their counterparts in the group discussions were perceived as ones with which they agreed. An examination of the attitudes endorsed would appear to confirm the complex nature of the factors bearing upon the endorsement process.

(B) 'Overall' Attitudes to celebrities and advertising1. Some celebrities are liked while others are disliked

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	92%	8%	2.47*	3
C1	94%	6%	2.36	1
C2DE	96%	4%	2.37	2

\* The lower the mean score, the more agreement expressed.

This applies to the rest of the tables below.

Significance: results not significant.

2. Some celebrities are disliked no matter what activity they take part in

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	71%	29%	3.02	3
C1	72%	28%	3.00	2
C2DE	72%	28%	2.95	1

Significance: results not significant.

3. Celebrities can take part in advertising if they donate fees to charity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	50%	50%	3.28	1
C1	53%	47%	3.41	3
C2DE	58%	42%	3.31	2

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence

Cramer's V: .18 - a very weak relationship.



4. Being entertainers celebrities cannot be taken seriously in things like advertising

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	60%	40%	3.14	1
C1	47%	53%	3.61	2
C2DE	39%	61%	3.67	3

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .18 - a very weak relationship.

5. Tendency to think that a celebrity 'supports' a product because of benefits derived

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	83%	17%	2.50	1
C1	83%	17%	2.62	2
C2DE	81%	19%	2.72	3

Significance: results not significant.

6. Ordinary people should be used in advertisements

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	44%	56%	3.57	2
C1	46%	54%	3.63	3
C2DE	51%	49%	3.35	1

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence  
Cramer's V: .14 - a very weak relationship.

7. Like/Dislike of a celebrity is influenced to a great extent by their acting roles rather than their presence in a commercial

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	76%	24%	2.69	1
C1	78%	22%	2.89	2
C2DE	77%	23%	3.01	3

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .18 - a very weak relationship.

8. Only celebrities who know that they will not be taken seriously should take part in advertising

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	74%	26%	2.95	2
C1	76%	24%	2.85	1
C2DE	73%	27%	3.09	3

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .20 - a weak relationship.

9. Celebrities should only take part in advertising if their aim is to continue entertaining

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	65%	35%	3.04	1
C1	52%	48%	3.30	2
C2DE	57%	43%	3.32	3

Significance: results not significant.

10. Celebrities perform a useful and important part as entertainers

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	85%	15%	2.61	1
C1	87%	13%	2.66	2
C2DE	79%	21%	2.87	3

Significance: results not significant.

11. Celebrities get "too much money for too little work done"

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	63%	37%	3.16	2
C1	51%	49%	3.32	3
C2DE	64%	36%	3.12	1

Significance: results not significant.

12. Money spent on using a celebrity is better spent on reducing the price or giving a better service

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	72%	28%	2.97	2
C1	70%	30%	2.98	3
C2DE	77%	23%	2.81	1

Significance: results not significant.

13. Most of the products advertised do not match the image of celebrities

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	55%	45%	3.23	1
C1	45%	55%	3.57	3
C2DE	45%	55%	3.32	2

Significance: results not significant.

14. Advertising represents an activity in which celebrities say and do things that are known not to be true

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	78%	22%	2.85	2
C1	77%	23%	2.94	3
C2DE	80%	20%	2.84	1

Significance: results not significant.

15. Celebrities should take part in advertising because acting parts are harder to obtain

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	59%	41%	3.16	
C1	54%	46%	3.36	
C2DE	57%	43%	3.31	

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .17 - a very weak relationship.

16. Commercials are entertaining and so it is not surprising that they should feature celebrities

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>		
AB	64%	46%	2.92	2
C1	75%	25%	2.82	1
C2DE	68%	32%	3.16	3

Significance: results not significant.

#### 9.4.2 Discussion

The responses to the listed overall attitudes confirms many, if not all, of the expressed attitudes to celebrities taking part in advertising. Moreover, an inspection of the attitudes with which respondents disagreed indicates that, by and large, they are very similar between the social classes. Attitudes rejected or disagreed with by all the social classes include:

- very few celebrities are liked;
- celebrities should confine themselves to activities for which they are known;
- the tendency to dislike most celebrities;
- celebrities should not be allowed to take part in advertising;
- only some celebrities should be allowed to take part in advertising;
- advertising is a different field of activity;
- celebrities do not perform any useful part in our society;
- it is insulting to be told by a celebrity that a specific product is better than others;
- that commercials are neither amusing nor entertaining and so should not feature celebrities.

Some of the other overall attitudes that were rejected include:



ABs and C1s disagree with this attitude:

- that ordinary people are better suited to endorse than celebrities.

C1s and C2DEs, on the other hand, disagree with the statements that:

- as entertainers celebrities cannot be taken seriously;
- most products do not match the known images of celebrities.

Thus, ABs disagreed with 40% of the listed overall attitudes whereas C1s and C2DEs disagreed with 48% of the overall attitudes. Nevertheless, these scores can be interpreted as supporting the large majority of attitudes elicited, particularly when examined against the individual attitudes endorsed. Also, the overall attitudes with which respondents agreed confirm some of the factors related to advertising and to celebrities which were suggested in the group discussions as making the process of advertising, and hence endorsement, markedly different from the social persuasion process.

#### 9.5 Recall of endorsement advertising and reactions

This section consists of the responses to the questions related to recalling having recently seen an endorsement commercial and reactions to endorsements. As before, only reactions said to be likely by any one of the social classes are reported.

##### (A) Recently seen an endorsement commercial

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Response</u>	
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
AB	83%	17%
C1	76%	24%
C2DE	96%	4%

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .25 - a fairly weak relationship.

### 9.5.1 Discussion

The responses above show that, contrary to the suggestions of ABC1s in the group sessions, all respondents recall having recently seen an endorsement commercial. As might have been expected, C2DE respondents are the most likely to recall seeing an endorsement commercial.

#### (B) Reactions to endorsement advertising

As in the previous sections, the scales of this question were collapsed to show only two scales namely: Likely or Unlikely.

##### 1. Will try to identify the celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	81%	19%	2.64*	3
C1	83%	17%	2.37	1
C2DE	92%	8%	2.40	2

\* The lower the mean score the more likely the reaction.  
This applies also to the rest of the tables below.

Significance: results not significant.

##### 2. Once identified might recall feeling like or dislike for them

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	75%	25%	3.09	2
C1	60%	40%	3.12	3
C2DE	74%	26%	2.87	1

Significance: results not significant.

3. Will ascertain what exactly celebrity is trying to do in commercial

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	42%	58%	3.52	3
C1	61%	39%	3.19	1
C2DE	57%	43%	3.27	2

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

4. Will ascertain their 'contribution' to the advertisement

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	67%	33%	3.09	3
C1	73%	27%	3.03	2
C2DE	72%	28%	2.99	1

Significance: results not significant.

5. Will try to recall some of the better known acting roles of the celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	72%	28%	2.95	2
C1	80%	20%	2.67	1
C2DE	68%	32%	3.01	3

Significance: results not significant.

6. Will compare performance in commercial to other known performances

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	52%	48%	3.38	1
C1	44%	56%	3.40	2
C2DE	51%	49%	3.45	3

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

7. A 'disliked' celebrity may cause one to do 'other' things

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	81%	19%	2.83	1
C1	58%	42%	3.31	3
C2DE	64%	36%	3.17	2

Significance: results not significant.

8. Will ascertain the extent to which a celebrity is 'natural' or 'unnatural' ("way they say things, body movements, etc")

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	53%	47%	3.35	1
C1	52%	48%	3.42	2
C2DE	50%	50%	3.52	3

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.

Cramer's V: .16 - a very weak relationship.

9. A celebrity perceived as 'natural' might cause one to watch the rest of the commercial

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	72%	28%	3.07	1
C1	67%	33%	3.14	2
C2DE	66%	34%	3.17	3

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

10. An 'unnatural' celebrity might cause one to lose interest in the rest of the commercial

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	67%	33%	2.88	1
C1	59%	41%	3.30	3
C2DE	65%	35%	3.16	2

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .14 - a very weak relationship.

11. Product being endorsed might make one think that there is a need to restock

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	53%	47%	3.35	1
C1	57%	43%	3.39	3
C2DE	64%	36%	3.26	1

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.



12. If product not required, might either watch if celebrity is liked or 'ignore' the commercial

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	77%	23%	2.73	2
C1	86%	14%	2.71	1
C2DE	78%	22%	2.81	3

Significance: results significant at 99% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .17 - a very weak relationship.

13. Advertisements perceived as 'real' might make one pay attention to them

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	64%	36%	3.35	3
C1	61%	39%	3.22	2
C2DE	71%	29%	3.09	1

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .16 - a very weak relationship.

14. If advertisements perceived 'not to be real', then will simply 'ignore' it

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	65%	35%	3.21	3
C1	70%	30%	2.91	1
C2DE	71%	29%	2.97	2

Significance: results not significant.

15. 'Mood' (laughter, anger) felt influenced by recalled overall feelings to celebrity

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	62%	38%	3.33	2
C1	46%	54%	3.48	3
C2DE	66%	34%	3.31	1

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

16. As the aim of all advertising is to sell something, one "tends to switch off"

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	69%	31%	3.00	1
C1	56%	44%	3.24	2
C2DE	53%	47%	3.30	3

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .15 - a very weak relationship.

17. Might decide that celebrity sees his role in the commercial "as must another part to be played"

<u>Social Class</u>	<u>Scales:</u>		<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
	<u>Likely</u>	<u>Unlikely</u>		
AB	85%	15%	2.57	1
C1	80%	20%	2.81	3
C2DE	86%	14%	2.66	2

Significance: results significant at 95% level of confidence.  
Cramer's V: .16 - a very weak relationship.

### 9.5.2 Discussion

The responses as to likely reactions if confronted by an endorsement commercial indicate that all respondents would react in various stages. Those reactions perceived by all respondents to be ones unlikely to occur include the following:

- ascertaining the 'suitability' of the celebrity for the commercial;
- recalling perceived behaviour, celebrity's private life and known principles;
- ascertaining the extent to which the commercial reflects 'real life';
- ascertaining 'reasons' for celebrity's presence in the commercial;
- effects resulting from reasons recalled;
- comparing the endorsement with non-endorsement commercials;
- comparing feelings while watching to past feelings for the celebrity.

In addition, ABs said they would not react in terms of: ascertaining what the celebrity is trying to do in the commercial, and reacting according to whether the celebrity's presence is approved or disapproved. CIs also said that they would not compare the celebrity's performance in the commercial to past performances; their need would not be mediated by recalled 'overall feelings'; and that their feelings would not be dependent on the extent to which celebrity's presence in the commercial is approved/disapproved.

Consequently, the large majority of reactions said to be unlikely to occur can be seen to be related to the category "mental judgements". Overall, it would seem therefore that ABs rejected some 35% of the listed reactions, whereas CIs said that some 40% of the listed reactions were unlikely to be exhibited if they were confronted by an endorsement commercial. C2DE respondents, on the

other hand, said that only some 28% of the listed reactions were unlikely to occur.

In general, these results contradict those of the group discussions, especially the responses of ABs and CIs. At the same time, certain items or reactions emphasised by C2DEs in the group discussions have not been reinforced. Important examples include suitability of the celebrity and reasons perceived for their presence in the commercial. Notwithstanding, the results confirm or give credence to the complex set of reactions likely to occur when a receiver is confronted by an endorsement commercial.

#### 9.6 Knowledge of celebrities field of entertainment: Discussion

This section required respondents to state which entertainment category they perceive each of the 16 celebrities to belong to.

The responses provided indicate that, contrary to the finding in the group discussions, respondents from all the social class groupings have knowledge of most celebrities. The categories used reflect the fact that all the celebrities listed are known and would be recognised if endorsing a product.

As noted earlier, the responses should be interpreted against the background that no photographs were provided. In certain cases, it would appear that ABs and to some extent CIs, were more knowledgeable about who celebrities were than was the case for C2DEs. This is supported by instances where 100% of the respondents correctly identified the celebrity listed.

Finally, the responses must be seen as providing an endorsement in respect of the entertainment categories elicited from C2DEs in the group discussions. The fact that responses covered all the categories provided attests to this suggestion.

## 9.7 Conclusions

Television viewing, contrary to the impression given in the group discussions, would seem to be a habit of respondents from all the social class groupings. While those of C2DEs is higher all respondents apparently view one or the other of the commercial channels, explaining why nearly all could recall having recently seen an endorsement commercial.

Perceptions of the major media as providers of information about celebrities were similar, as evidenced by the ratings provided for these media. Although there are differences in the types of magazines and newspapers read, respondents from all the social classes seem to have common readership. These generally tend to be newspapers and magazines that provide a lot of information about celebrities.

Descriptions of celebrities differ. Both ABs and CIs said that 60% of the listed descriptions were ones unlikely to be used, confirming the group discussions where standard types of descriptions had been offered. On the contrary, C2DEs said only some 20% of the descriptions were unlikely to be used thus giving overwhelming support to the rest of the descriptions.

Again, descriptions of endorsers listed were largely seen, both by ABs and CIs, as ones unlikely to be used. Nevertheless, those accepted give credence to the suggestion that endorsers can only be described in terms of their celebrity context. This is supported by the responses provided in respect of the grounds or reasons for the descriptions, which indicate that all the social classes accepted some 80% or more of the listed reasons.

Attitudes to celebrities taking part in advertising reinforced strongly the attitudes listed. Both ABs and CIs disagreed with some 35%-45% of the attitudes, compared to 30% for C2DEs. Attitudes for which agreement was expressed suggest approval and



disapproval of celebrities taking part in advertising. Contrary to the widely held belief within the industry that most of the public welcome celebrities in advertising, respondents of this survey would appear to hold "reservations": celebrities can take part in advertising providing certain conditions are met. For example, respondents emphasise the fact that celebrities should continue to entertain rather than be serious. This is taken to mean that they should "endorse" rather than "testify" in advertising thereby maintaining their "celebrity status". This was reflected in the responses provided to the statements on overall attitudes to celebrity and advertising. These responses also confirm the findings of the group discussions, in respect of the nature of celebrity and the advertising context, and lend weight to the suggestions of major differences from the social persuasion context.

Reactions to endorsement advertising take the various stages identified in the group discussions. Several mental judgements occur which are often accompanied by overt behaviour ("going to do other things"). By and large, however, a set of mental reactions is triggered when a receiver confronts an endorsement advertisement. This conflicts with the suggestion in social persuasion that effects occur immediately after the source presents his message. In endorsement advertising, the situation is different in so far as the endorser may be someone with whom the receiver already has an "established relationship" and therefore there are "carry-over effects" from the celebrity context, as well as the advertising context.

To a varying extent, respondents from all the social classes are "involved" with celebrities, as reflected in their general knowledge. Some celebrities are better known than others, reinforcing the process of their celebrity context in which "relationships" are largely determined and which have "spill-over" consequences to other activities, such as advertising.

CHAPTER 10

Conclusions and Contribution of the Study

CHAPTER 10Conclusions and Contribution of the Study

The technique referred to in this study as endorsement advertising has been in use now for well over a century. During that period, the technique has undergone several changes so that in its present form, it differs markedly from its earlier beginnings.

However, despite such continuous use of the technique, knowledge about the process of endorsement has been based largely on findings obtained in a different context, and referred to as "social persuasion". In addition to major differences to be found between the contexts of advertising and social persuasion, studies in the latter have been characterised by major theoretical and methodological differences. Consequently, results obtained in respect of the persuasive influence of sources have often been contradictory, have led to replications, and have resulted in producing a body of evidence that is anything but systematic and useful as a conceptual framework.

Evidence for the view above is to be found in the few studies that have attempted to examine some aspect of the endorsement process, while using the framework of social persuasion studies. By and large, these studies have reported markedly different results and have generally led to the view that the social persuasion framework is inadequate as an explanation of the endorsement process.

At the same time, advertising practitioners have failed to provide a framework of their own. Views expressed both in the commercial journals and the few studies which have solicited their views, clearly suggest that practitioners are not agreed about the salient factors impinging on the process. More often than not, views seem to be contradictory seemingly based on "personal" experience of usage, "intuition" and sometimes "alchemy".

Consequently, there is a lack of direction and viewpoints tend to be fragmented.

Observation of current endorsements suggests that some 90% or more of endorsers are celebrities. Generally, these are individuals known for an activity in the field of entertainment and are as a result frequently in the public's attention.

Therefore, the endorsement process begins with the celebrity context and an understanding of that context. From the descriptions elicited, it appears that a celebrity is perceived mainly in terms of his acting repertoire and information gathered by a receiver, generally from the mass media, in respect of his behaviour and other aspects related to the type of life he leads. On becoming an endorser, these attributes appear to be still present and are combined with perceptions of the advertising process. In general, however, concern seems to be directed at the extent to which advertising is perceived to impinge on the celebrity context because perception of each celebrity is determined largely by that context. Consequently each celebrity on becoming an endorser appears to cause a reassessment of their "relationship" with the receiver.

C2DE respondents subscribe most to this conceptualisation of the process of endorsement. AB and C1 respondents appear to have only partially endorsed the descriptions elicited. Nevertheless, attitudes to celebrities taking part in advertising appear to be similar between respondents. It would appear that all the social classes perceive certain advantages to result from celebrities taking part in advertising. However, the consensus view is that the nature of advertising is such that certain checks and balances are required to ensure that the celebrity maintains his relationship with the receiver. Broadly interpreted, the suggestion seems to be that as an endorser the celebrity must continue to "entertain" (endorse) rather than "become too serious" (testify).

This suggestion seems to have underlined most of the attitudes expressed.

Recalling an endorsement commercial or advertisement is high with respondents of all the socio-economic groupings, contrary to the view that had been given in the group discussions. However, the reactions said to be likely if confronted by an endorsement commercial, show a complex picture not hitherto included in a discussion of the process of endorsement. Generally, it appears that most respondents undergo mental types of reactions likely to cause overt behaviour. These reactions basically are an attempt to evaluate the endorser in terms of their celebrity context. In so doing, it appears that "personal" factors mediate the reactions that result. On the whole, reactions seem to occur over varying periods affected by an unlimited number of factors within the environment in which the endorsement commercial is being attended to.

The main contribution of this study may be said to be its showing of the complex number of factors impinging upon the endorsement process. These factors relate mainly to the nature of the endorser, receivers' attitudes and reactions to endorsement advertising, and the nature of advertising. All of these factors give credence to the argument that the advertising context is different from that of social persuasion. Also, the study shows, albeit tentatively, that contrary to the findings of source effect studies in social persuasion, credibility does not appear to provide an explanation of the effects likely to be produced by an endorser. Rather, the mechanism most likely to do so seems to be that related to the context of the celebrity and, more specifically, to the "entertainment" the celebrity is perceived to give as an endorser. This mechanism seems to be closely related to that identified by Berscheid and her associates and which was referred to as "attractiveness" (see section 3.5.4).



It appears that in the context of endorsement advertising, attractiveness is mediated to a great extent by the celebrity element. In consequence, perceptions tend to reflect that element and are not dissimilar to the "homely variables" that Berscheid and Walster (1974) mentioned in their discussion of attractiveness.

CHAPTER 11

Learning Experience, Limitations, and Suggestions  
for Future Research

CHAPTER 11Learning Experience, Limitations, and Suggestions  
for Future Research

It is reasonable to suggest that a major characteristic of a postgraduate study of this kind lies in the learning experience of the researcher. Such an experience often serves as a guideline to other researchers who may, for example, be contemplating a similar methodology.

In addition, as in the case of any other study, a research is constrained by certain factors which need to be specified in order that a boundary can be set in respect of the extent to which findings can be generalised. Such a discussion necessarily throws light on the direction future research should take and areas requiring further study.

11.1 Learning Experience

After reviewing the literature of group discussions as a research technique, the researcher was left with the impression that it is one used mainly by established research organisations. The literature seems directed mainly at this group and hence emphasis on costs, type of "moderators" to be selected, venues, and so on. It would appear that little or no attention has been given to the ways by which first time users of the technique may become familiar with some of its complexities.

Organising the "dummy" sessions proved to be a useful exercise not least because of certain procedural shortcomings identified and in enabling the researcher an insight into the dynamics of a group discussion. A retrospective analysis has led to the view that no amount of reading can compensate for experience of organising and directing a group discussion.

In addition, dummy sessions can only provide a basic understanding of some of the dynamics, learning tending to occur in each group session organised. In short, a first time user cannot, nor should expect to become an "expert" after organising a number of group sessions. This is because each session invariably brings with it problems "unique" to that group and which require the researcher to adopt a flexible approach in how they are "solved". A reasonable view might be that it is impossible for anyone, no matter what the experience, to claim complete mastery over a group of individuals having a discussion.

The importance of adopting a flexible approach becomes more pronounced in cases, such as this study, where respondents from the different socio-economic groupings are to be interviewed. The postgraduate researcher, or the first time user, has to ensure that he is reflecting the underlying "values" of the group. One way of doing so is through the "language" used. As this researcher discovered, talking to a group of C2DE respondents is a very different matter than talking to either students or ABC1 respondents. While it is not expected that the researcher should change his intonation or pronunciation dramatically, using certain words can help the communication process no end. Indeed, experience suggests that by modifying certain words more co-operation can be obtained because these respondents no longer take the "them and us" approach to the interview.

Experience from organising group discussions with ABC1 respondents suggests that for certain research topics, such as this one on advertising, these respondents' take a "non-personal" approach. That is, they give the impression that the topic being discussed is one that personally does not affect them. The findings of the questionnaire survey clearly show that this is the approach that ABC1 respondents had used in the group sessions. At the time the sessions were being held, the researcher was under the impression that views expressed were reflective of general perceptions.

Instead, in retrospect, it appears that there were other factors at play which required directing discussions away from the topic. In doing so, it may have been possible, for example, to discern more clearly the extent to which such respondents were involved with celebrities and the process of endorsement in advertising. Talking about the topic indirectly thus was a more appropriate strategy to have used.

Finally, questionnaire administration requires the researcher to consider carefully the advantages and disadvantages of each method. The method used for this study, as was pointed out earlier, involved the researcher in carefully planning each stage of the distribution and collection of the questionnaire. This required personal involvement and entailed a lot of travelling, so that the administration is likely to become "unmanageable" if the area is spread beyond the specific city or area.

At the same time, success in terms of co-operation secured is dependent on many factors some of which are beyond the control of the researcher. For example, while the questionnaires were being distributed, the researcher's attention was drawn to the fact that a number of respondents would not co-operate because of "previous experience". It appears that another researcher had solicited help from these respondents but had used what were referred to as "dubious" means. In addition, recent warnings about dubious characters who pretend to be government officials or researchers have had a marked effect on the general public. It is therefore important for the researcher to anticipate such eventualities and to ensure that a firm rein be kept on the administration of the questionnaire.

### 11.2 Limitations of the study

This is a postgraduate study and as such it has imposed upon it several constraints especially those related to time, costs, and the requirements for the submission of a thesis for a higher



degree. These, as was noted in an earlier section, greatly influenced the methodology developed for this study.

In turn, the methodology employed results in a number of other limitations on the study, particularly in respect of the findings obtained. For this study, the following further limitations will have to be considered:

- 1) Treatment: it will be recalled that in the group discussions, only photographs of celebrities were shown. This is an important consideration because it seems probable that a video presentation of the celebrities, might have uncovered other attributes. In short, the descriptions elicited for celebrities and endorsers can only be treated as those derived from still photographs rather than those from television or video.
- 2) Sample area: for this study, only the city of Glasgow was used and respondents recruited from this area. This limits the extent to which the findings can be generalised because it seems likely that respondents from other regions may have offered descriptions or views reflecting these regional differences. This point becomes important if the findings are to be generalised to the whole of the UK.

Thus, the study can only be considered as exploratory in nature and as a first attempt at showing the complex nature of the process of endorsement.

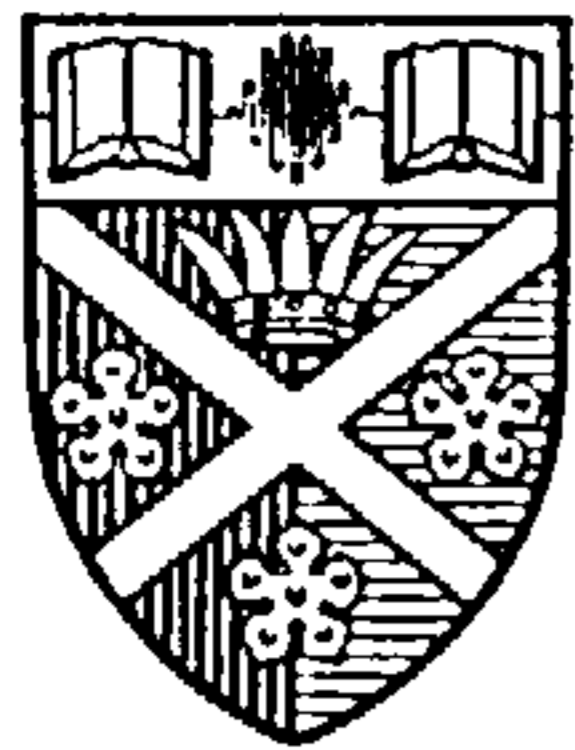
### 11.3 Suggestions for future research

Given the limitations outlined above and the findings of this study, future research should perhaps concentrate on the following:

- (1) Attempt to uncover basic differences, if any, in the descriptions elicited for celebrities and endorsers from respondents in other regions in the UK.

- (2) Attempt to discover whether the use of other medium, such as television, in the presentation influences the direction of discussions and factors identified.
- (3) To explore in more depth the extent to which receivers perceive differences between endorsement and testimonial, and the extent to which such differences explains their attitudes to endorsement in general.
- (4) To determine the extent to which the framework of this study is tenable in different settings.

In summary, there is a need for future research to extend the framework of this study. There is a need to abandon the social persuasion framework in favour of one like this reflecting the advertising setting. But even at the time of writing, there is evidence that the social persuasion framework continues to be used widely (see the study by Atkin and Block, 1983). This point needs to be emphasised by researchers on the subject, who will also need to incorporate some of the details emerging from advertising practitioners (see the article on shortcomings of using endorsement by Jiram, 1984).



University  
of Strathclyde

STUDENT RESEARCH PROJECTS\*  
Department of Marketing

Stenhouse Building, 173 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 0RQ  
Tel: 041-552 4400

December, 1983.

Dear Respondent,

First, let me thank you for agreeing to take part in my research study.

Most people nowadays claim that television, for example, plays an important part in their everyday lives and that it has become an essential aspect of society. Some even claim that television now provides a large part of their home entertainment, and that most of their information concerning people, places, events, products and so on now comes from television.

This study is mainly about celebrities who come to our attention through the medium of television. You may have noticed recently, for example, that they are now appearing in advertisements. Turn the television on and you are more than likely to see a commercial with a celebrity in it, which we call "celebrity endorsement". The study is also concerned with this aspect of their activities and especially your feelings to their taking part in advertising.

You will find clear instructions with each question. You may take as much or as little time you require over answering the questions.

You are assured of absolute confidentiality. Any information you provide will be used only for the purposes of completing my research studies at Strathclyde University.

Thank you again for your co-operation.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Ghalib A. Fahad".

Ghalib A. Fahad.

How to Answer the Questions

1. Please make sure that you have carefully read every question before answering.
2. The answers to most of the questions are in the form of descriptions and statements and you will be asked to state by a tick the extent to which you agree or disagree with the descriptions and statements. Alternatively, you might be required to state the extent to which you are likely or unlikely to use a particular description.
3. Some questions will require you to write in the answers. Also, you may sometimes be asked to rank the items you've written in, such as 1, 2, 3 and so on.
4. Some examples:  
Some questions are of this type: "To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statements below concerning Scottish people?" (One tick against each statement)

	Strongly Agree	Quite Agree	Agree	Disagree	Quite Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a. They are amongst the friendliest people in the world	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. They are supposed to be a little 'tight' when it comes to money	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. They are a very warm and welcoming people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. They have a rich culture	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Another question might take this form: "Below are statements about things some people say they enjoy doing. How likely or unlikely is it that you would say that you enjoyed doing each? (One tick against each statement).

	Extremely Likely	Quite Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Quite Unlikely	Extremely Unlikely
a. I like walking in the park with someone I love	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Watching football on a Saturday afternoon	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Writing letters to distant friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Going fishing on Sundays	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Finally, a question might ask: "What programmes did you watch on TV last night?" (Write in the programmes)

	Rank
<u>Coronation Street</u>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
<u>Panorama</u>	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
<u>Terry and June</u>	<input type="checkbox"/> 2

The questionnaire might go on to ask: "How would you rank the programmes you watched last night in terms of enjoyment?" (To answer this question go to the one before and insert ranking from 1 to 3).

Some questions may quite simply involve writing in answers.

All the questions are to be answered except where the instruction states otherwise.

THANK YOU.



Q.1 How often do you watch television these days? (tick one box only)

- One day a week
- Two days a week
- Three days a week
- Four days a week
- Five days a week
- Six days a week
- Seven days a week


Q.2 On a typical day, how many hours would you say you spend watching television? (tick one box only)

- None
- One hour
- Two hours
- Three hours
- Four hours
- Five hours
- Six hours
- Seven hours
- Eight hours
- Nine hours and over


If 'None', please go straight to Q.4.

Q.3 How many of those hours (that is, as in your answer to Q.2) do you spend watching STV or Channel 4? (not BBC1 or BBC2). (tick one box only)

- None
- One hour
- Two hours
- Three hours
- Four hours
- Five hours
- Six hours
- Seven hours
- Eight hours
- Nine hours and over




Q.4 Which of the following would you say provides you the most information about celebrities in general? (Rank in order of importance: 1 most important, 2 next most important, 3 least important).

	Rank
Newspapers	<input type="text"/>
Magazines	<input type="text"/>
Television	<input type="text"/>

Q.5 How regularly do you read newspapers and magazines these days?

(tick one box only)

Once a week	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twice a week	<input type="checkbox"/>
Three to four times a week	<input type="checkbox"/>
Every day of the week	<input type="checkbox"/>
Very infrequently	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q.6 Which newspapers and magazines do you regularly read? (Write down all newspapers and magazines read by you in the lines provided; ignore the boxes marked 'rank' for the time being)

	Rank		Rank
1. ....	<input type="text"/>	7. ....	<input type="text"/>
2. ....	<input type="text"/>	8. ....	<input type="text"/>
3. ....	<input type="text"/>	9. ....	<input type="text"/>
4. ....	<input type="text"/>	10. ....	<input type="text"/>
5. ....	<input type="text"/>	11. ....	<input type="text"/>
6. ....	<input type="text"/>	12. ....	<input type="text"/>

Q.7 How would you rank the newspapers and magazines you've just mentioned in terms of the information they provide about celebrities? (To answer this question, go back to Q.6 and write against the newspapers and magazines your rank number: 1 is the most important, followed by 2 next most important, 3 next important and so on, until you have ranked each of the newspapers and magazines you've mentioned).

Q.8 Have you recently seen an advertisement/commercial with a celebrity in it? (tick one box only)

Yes  No

Some of the questions that now follow may seem somewhat awkward to answer. Please try to give an answer, nevertheless. Most of the questions are of a similar type. Often the only difference is in the scales provided. Some will require you to state the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements provided. Others will require you to state the extent to which you are likely or unlikely to use a particular item of description.

Q.9 Now, this question is about celebrities in general. The names of sixteen of them are provided. What kind of celebrity would you say each of them is? (You may tick more than one description for any celebrity, if you feel that this is appropriate).

	Actor/Actress, Comedian, Singer & so on	Sports Personalities, Athletes & so on	Newscaster, Presenter, Show Presenter & so on	An 'outsider' to the entertainment industry, e.g. Freddie Laker
1. Pat Phoenix	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Rikki Fulton	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Judith Chalmers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. David Bellamy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Anna Ford	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Spike Milligan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Glenda Jackson	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Una Stubbs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Isla St. Clair	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Moira Anderson	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Jimmy Savile	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Stanley Baxter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Felicity Kendall	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Billy Connolly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Ian Ogilvy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Rod Hull	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

/over ...

Q.10 This question is about describing celebrities. If asked to describe a particular celebrity, how likely or unlikely is it that you would use the kinds of descriptions below? (One tick only for each description).

	Extremely Likely	Quite Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Quite Unlikely	Extremely Unlikely
1. An actor/actress, singer, comedian, and so on	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Main part(s) for which known (acting parts, singing, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Physical make-up (looks, height and similar descriptions)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Known background (upbringing, education, past life, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Public behaviour, manners, respect for others, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Principles (or stands) for which they are known (animal welfare, charitable activities, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Type of private life led (family person, loving partner, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Type of 'person' (true to life, false, arrogant, non-reliable, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. The way they reflect life (almost like a person you know, makes you identify with them, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Known 'attitude' to most things (enthusiastic, not involving, cheerful about everything, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

/over ...

Q.11 Here are a few statements reflecting some feelings about celebrities taking part in advertisements. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of these statements? (One tick only for each statement).

	Strongly Agree	Quite Agree	Agree	Disagree	Quite Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Celebrities are easier to recognise or identify in advertisements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Most celebrities get too much money without also earning some more from advertisements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. By taking part in advertising, celebrities show that they don't care for the people who made them famous or by whom they're liked	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Celebrities in advertisements make me pay more attention to the advertisements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Celebrities only make advertisements more 'unreal' than they already are	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. There's no 'acting' involved in advertising and so no need for celebrities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Some products have only become known to me because of the celebrity in the advertisement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Advertisements change some celebrities from the way you normally know them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. A celebrity in an advertisement might lose his 'standing' (respect held, liking, etc.) in my eyes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. A celebrity in an advertisement only makes the product or service more expensive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Most celebrities only get in the way of the advertisement (the message, product, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



## Q.11 continued

- |  | Strongly<br>Agree:       | Quite<br>Agree:          | Agree                    | Disagree                 | Quite<br>Disagree        | Strongly<br>Disagree     |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 12. Prefer other types of advertisements (such as those with children, cartoon characters, etc) to ones with celebrities | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 13. Only like celebrity in advertisements when TV programmes are dull, boring, etc.                                      | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14. Don't believe any celebrity in an advertisement  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15. No type of advertisement can make me change my mind if my experience with the product has not been satisfactory      | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16. Celebrities should only take part in advertisements for charity and such-like events                                 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17. A celebrity in advertisement makes me expect too much from the product   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. Don't like to see celebrities that are disliked in advertisements  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. Celebrities often make the advertisement more exciting and fun to watch, etc.  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. Like seeing celebrities whose programme(s) I like in advertisements  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. There are too many celebrities nowadays in advertising   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22. Most celebrities don't use the products being promoted   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23. Some celebrities in advertisements do or say things you know they wouldn't normally do                               | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

/over ...



## Q.11 continued

- |   | Strongly<br>Agree        | Quite<br>Agree           | Agree                    | Disagree                 | Quite<br>Disagree        | Strongly<br>Disagree     |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 24. Most celebrities nowadays see advertising as a way of keeping themselves in the limelight or public's attention             | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25. Don't mind seeing advertisements with celebrities who have in the past done good for the country (such as Henry Cooper)     | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26. Celebrities take part in advertising for the 'wrong' reasons (money, greed, etc)  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. 'Ordinary' people who use the products would be better than celebrities in advertisements                                   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. Celebrities are more used to the 'technology' (camera, sequences, etc) involved and so are more suitable for advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. Celebrities who don't earn enough or any money (such as amateur athletes, Sebastian Coe, etc) may take part in advertising  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- Q.12 Imagine that you have just seen a celebrity in an advertisement. How likely or unlikely is it that you would use the following descriptions to describe them? (One tick only for each description).

- |  | Extremely<br>Likely      | Quite<br>Likely          | Likely                   | Unlikely                 | Quite<br>Unlikely        | Extremely<br>Unlikely    |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Acting or other parts for which they are known          | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Main 'thing' which distinguishes them from other people | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Physical make-up (looks, height, etc)                   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

/over ...

## Q.12 continued

	Extremely Likely	Quite Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Quite Unlikely	Extremely Unlikely
4. Known background (upbringing, education, past life, etc)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Public behaviour, manners, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Known 'private life' (family person, playboy, etc)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Part played in advert- isement compared with parts known for	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. 'Reasons' for their being in the advertisement (money, free supply of the products, donation to charity, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. What the celebrity 'says' in the advertisement, the claims they make etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Whether or not I see the celebrity as knowing what they are talking about	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Principles, stands, etc. for which they are known	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. <u>Whether</u> they are liked or disliked	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Will describe celebrity according to the 'theme' of the advertisement (hard-sell, soft-sell, etc)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. <u>What</u> I like or dislike about them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. What I think the celebrity is trying to do in the advertisement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

/over ...

Q.13 This question is about some possible reasons which could explain why you answered Q.12 the way you did. How likely or unlikely is it that each of the reasons below helps to explain the way you have described celebrities in advertisements? (One tick only for each reason).

	Extremely Likely	Quite Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Quite Unlikely	Extremely Unlikely
1. I see celebrities in the same way whether they are acting or in advertisements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Celebrities are people whom you know about through newspapers, television and so on and so can only describe them in the way I did	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Celebrities are not known personally to me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. By being in advertisements, my feelings for celebrities might or might not change and so affects the way I describe them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Celebrities in advertisements are to me more-or-less like other sales persons	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Sometimes an advertisement changes a particular celebrity from the way you normally know them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Advertising is not their normal type of work and so I tend to see them in a different light	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. My like or dislike for a celebrity would show no matter what they are in	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. As advertising is now part of entertainment, you can only describe celebrities in the same way as you would normally do when in entertainment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. As I don't believe most advertising, this tends to affect the way I would see or describe a celebrity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q.13 continued

	Extremely Likely	Quite Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Quite Unlikely	Extremely Unlikely
11. My description of a celebrity in an advertisement reflects the way I see the advertising affecting or not affecting them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. You might describe them in the same way in advertisements but will tend to attach different importance on each of the descriptions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. I know little or hardly anything about most celebrities and so this explains the way I would describe them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. I tend to know quite a lot about some celebrities and so this would be reflected in the way I describe them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Only celebrities I like would be described in the way I've just done	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Not being a regular TV viewer, I tend to know very little in general about celebrities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I have no interest in celebrities and their activities and so this would affect the way I would describe them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q.14 Imagine again that you have just seen an advertisement featuring a celebrity. How likely or unlikely is it that the following thoughts or reflections would go through your mind while watching, or having seen the advertisement. (One tick for each description)

	Extremely Likely	Quite Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Quite Unlikely	Extremely Unlikely
1. Will try to identify the celebrity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Once the celebrity in the advertisement is known, feelings of like or dislike for them will go through my mind	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



Q.14 continued

	Extremely Likely	Quite Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Quite Unlikely	Extremely Unlikely
3. Will try to see what it is exactly the celebrity is trying to do in the advertisement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Will think about their contribution (entertaining, boring, and so on) to the advertisement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Will try to recollect some of the acting or other parts for which the particular celebrity in the advertisement is known	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Will compare their performance in the advertisement to what I know about their other performances	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. A celebrity I dislike might make me concentrate on doing other things, such as go to the kitchen to put the kettle on, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Will try to see how 'natural' (the way they says things, body movements, etc) or unnatural they are in the advertisement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. A 'natural' celebrity might make me watch the rest of the advertisement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. An 'unnatural' celebrity might make me lose interest in the rest of the advertisement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. The product being advertised might remind me that I need to re-stock that product or to try it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. If the product is not something I think I need, I might either just watch the celebrity if I like them or ignore the entire advertisement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



- | Q.14 continued   | Extremely<br>Likely      | Quite<br>Likely          | Likely                   | Unlikely                 | Quite<br>Unlikely        | Extremely<br>Unlikely    |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 13. Will try to see whether or not the celebrity is suitable for that particular advertisement   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14. A celebrity in an advertisement might make me think about their known behaviour, their private life, principles, and so on                               | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15. Will try to see the extent to which the advertisement reflects or does not reflect what I know to be true in real life                                   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16. Advertisements that I see as being 'real' might make me watch and listen to what is being said   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17. If I see the advertisement as being 'not real' I might just ignore the advertisement including the celebrity   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. Will try to think of some reasons why the celebrity is taking part in the advertising  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. Reasons for taking part I know of, might make me either ignore the entire advertisement or sit back and watch  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. Might compare the advertisements with the celebrity with another type of advertisement, such as one with children, animals, and so on that I like better | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. Will try to compare my feelings while watching the celebrity in the advertisement to what I can remember feeling for him in the past                     | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

/over ...

Q.14 continued

- |     |  |   |   |                                    |                                      |   |   |
|-----|--|---|---|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|---|
| 22. | My final feeling (laughter, anger, etc) will be influenced by my overall feelings for the celebrity in the advertisement | Extremely<br>Likely<br><input type="checkbox"/> | Quite<br>Likely<br><input type="checkbox"/> | Likely<br><input type="checkbox"/> | Unlikely<br><input type="checkbox"/> | Quite<br>Unlikely<br><input type="checkbox"/> | Extremely<br>Unlikely<br><input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23. | How I feel for the celebrity will depend on how much I approve or disapprove of them being in the advertisement          | <input type="checkbox"/>                        | <input type="checkbox"/>                    | <input type="checkbox"/>           | <input type="checkbox"/>             | <input type="checkbox"/>                      | <input type="checkbox"/>                          |
| 24. | Advertisements, including those with celebrities, are trying to sell me something so I tend just to 'switch-off' my mind | <input type="checkbox"/>                        | <input type="checkbox"/>                    | <input type="checkbox"/>           | <input type="checkbox"/>             | <input type="checkbox"/>                      | <input type="checkbox"/>                          |
| 25. | Will think to myself that the celebrity sees the advertisement as just another 'part' to be played                       | <input type="checkbox"/>                        | <input type="checkbox"/>                    | <input type="checkbox"/>           | <input type="checkbox"/>             | <input type="checkbox"/>                      | <input type="checkbox"/>                          |

Q.15 This question concerns your overall feelings about celebrities and to their taking part in advertising. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the attitude statements below? (One tick for each statement)

- |    |  |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |
|----|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
|    |  | Strongly<br>Agree        | Quite<br>Agree           | Agree                    | Disagree                 | Quite<br>Disagree        | Strongly<br>Disagree     |
| 1. | I like some celebrities and dislike others   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. | There are very few celebrities I like  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. | I dislike some celebrities no matter what they do  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. | I think celebrities should only take part in things or activities for which they are known | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. | I tend to dislike most celebrities   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. | I think celebrities should not be allowed to take part in advertising                      | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

/over ...

## Q.15 continued

- |  | Strongly<br>Agree        | Quite<br>Agree           | Agree                    | Disagree                 | Quite<br>Disagree        | Strongly<br>Disagree     |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 7. Only some celebrities should be allowed to take part in advertising   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. I wouldn't mind celebrities in advertising provided they 'donate' some of the money they got from it to charity                                       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Advertising is a different line, and so not suitable for celebrities  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. Celebrities are mainly entertainers and so can't be taken seriously in such things as advertisements   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11. I tend to think that a celebrity supports a product mainly for the benefit they get out of it (such as money paid, free trials of the product, etc.) | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12. 'Ordinary' people (housewives, users of the product, and so on) should be the ones that are used in advertisements                                   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 13. My like (or dislike) for a celebrity was because of their main acting of other parts and not because of their part in the advertisement              | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14. I don't mind celebrities who know that they are not going to be taken seriously in the advertisements  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15. I would only accept celebrities in advertising, if their main aim was to continue to entertain rather than to persuade or influence me               | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

/over ...

## Q.15 continued

	Strongly Agree	Quite Agree	Agree	Disagree	Quite Disagree	Strongly Disagree
16. As entertainers, celebrities perform a useful and important part	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Celebrities don't perform any useful role in our society	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Celebrities get too much money for too little work done	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. The cost of using a celebrity in an advertisement would have been better spent on reducing the price of the product or on giving a better service	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Most of the products or services advertised are not suitable (that is, do not match the image of) for celebrities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Advertising is one activity where you can see celebrities doing or saying things you know somehow are not true or that they wouldn't ordinarily do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. I find it insulting to be told by a celebrity, no matter who, that this or that product is best for you or that you should use or buy it because they do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. I think celebrities should take part in advertising because acting or other parts are now harder to get	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. I find advertisements quite fun and so don't mind seeing celebrities in them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. I do not find advertisements amusing or entertaining so wouldn't wish celebrities to associate themselves with it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



Finally, the questions that now follow are basically about you. Once again you are assured of confidentiality. The information will only be used for this study and for trying to understand how different people feel about the issues just covered.

Female?

Male?

Q.16 Are you .....

Q.17 Which age bracket do you belong to? (Tick one box only)

16 - 24

25 - 34

35 - 45

46 - 55

55 and over


Q.18 What is the occupation of the chief wage earner in your family? (including unemployed)

(specify) .....

Q.19 Which postal district of Glasgow do you live in (for example: G1, G2, G51 and so on)

.....

Thank you.



APPENDIX 2GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR INTERVIEWERS

1. The sheets provided contain information relating to the sex and age composition of the respondents desired from each area allocated to an interviewer.
2. Once an area has been allocated, interviewers are required to either pay an initial visit to the area, so as to determine the streets/roads most likely to satisfy the quota specifications, or to explore the most likely way to satisfy the quota requirement.
3. The underlying assumption of this method of study is that, contact is to a substantial degree dependent upon the personal approach or the interviewer. This assumption can be seen in the latitude allowed each interviewer.
4. However, in keeping with the Code of Ethics of the Market Research Society interviewers are required to adhere to the following guidelines:
  - (a) To introduce themselves and to briefly state the purpose of the study or research.
  - (b) To inform respondents of what is required of them.
  - (c) To thank the respondent if they do not consent to take part.
  - (d) To make convenient arrangement(s) for the collection of the Questionnaire.
5. Experience suggests that some interviewers are likely to encounter difficulty in getting the desired respondent. In such an instance, interviewers may wish to do the following:
  - (a) To select an entirely new street/road within the area that reflects the specifications.

- (b) To continue to an adjoining area within the same socio-economic grouping but which does not conflict with another interviewer's area.
- (c) Where neither of the above is possible, then to deliberately choose an area where the remaining respondents are known to be available. The operating guideline in such a case is to obtain a close approximation to both the socio-economic grouping and age composition desired. An example: Two respondents still required from the C2DE groupings, one male and one female, roughly between the ages of 22-27. In this case two respondents slightly older might be just as good. Given the age range specified, it is not anticipated that there will be many such cases.
- (d) If still in doubt about what to do, then interviewers are urged to immediately contact me at the following numbers and times:

G A Fahad, Stenhouse Building, Room 5.25, 552-4400 Extension 3232 9.00am-6.30pm). Home number 429 2845 (after 7.00pm).

- 6. Given the time scale of the study, interviewers are urged to do their utmost to ensure that the Questionnaires are collected within a specified time. The record schedule provided ensures that correct notes about collection and other facts about each respondent are within the means of each interviewer.
- 7. All interviewers are strictly urged to continually cross out the Quota Schedule with each successful contact. This ensures that the interviewer is aware of the remainder of the quota yet to be completed.
- 8. Best of luck to everyone. It is hoped that the experience will prove worthwhile and that it would provide an insight into some of the problems inherent in the "real world".

APPENDIX 3

1. Location \_\_\_\_\_
2. Socio-economic grouping: C2DE
3. Required respondents by sex and age composition:

MALES:

Between the ages of 16-34:	0 0 0 0 0 )	
	0 0 0 )	<u>Total 8</u>
<hr/>		
Between the ages of 35 +	0 0 0 0 0 )	
	0 0 0 0 0 )	
	0 0 0 0 0 )	<u>Total 20</u>
	0 0 0 0 0 )	
<hr/>		

FEMALES:

Between the ages of 16-34:	0 0 0 0 0 )	
	0 0 0 0 0 )	<u>Total 14</u>
	0 0 0 0 )	
<hr/>		
Between the ages of 35 +	0 0 0 0 0 )	
	0 0 0 0 0 )	
	0 0 0 0 0 )	<u>Total 27</u>
	0 0 0 0 0 )	
	0 0 0 0 0 )	
	0 0 )	
<hr/>		

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abelson, R P and Miller, J (1967) - "Negative persuasion via personal insult", *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 3, pp 321-333.
- Advertising Age (1974) - "F.T.C. says everybody doesn't need milk; hits celebrity ads", issue of 15 April, pp 1, 59, 62.
- Allport, G W (1935) - "Attitudes", in C Murchinson (ed.), A Handbook of Social Psychology, Worcester, Mass: Clark University Press, pp 798-844.
- de-Almeida, P M (1980) - "A review of focus group discussion methodology", *European Research*, Vol 8, No 3, pp 114-120.
- Anderson, K and Clevenger, T Jr. (1963) - "A summary of experimental research in ethos", *Speech Monographs*, Vol 30, pp 59-78; reprinted in Beisecker, T D and Parsons, D W (eds.) The process of social influence: Readings in Persuasion, Englewood Cliffs, N J: Prentice Hall Inc. 1972, pp 223-247.
- Andreason, A R (1970) - "Personalising mailed questionnaire correspondence", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol 34, pp 273-288.
- Applbaum, R L and Anatol, K W E (1972) - "The factor structure of source credibility as a function of speaking situation", *Speech Monographs*, Vol 39, pp 216-222.
- Applbaum, R L and Anatol, K W E (1973) - "Dimensions of source credibility: A test for reproducibility", *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 40, pp 231-237.
- Applbaum, R L and Anatol, K W E (1974) - Strategies for Persuasive Communication, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E Merrill Publishing Company.



- Aronson, E (1969) - "Some antecedents of interpersonal attraction", in Arnold, W J and Levine, D (eds.) - Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, pp 143-177.
- Aronson, E and Golden, B (1962) - "The effect of relevant and irrelevant aspects of communicator credibility on opinion change", Journal of Personality, Vol 30, pp 135-146.
- Atkin, C and Block, M (1983) - "Effectiveness of celebrity endorsers", Journal of Advertising Research, Vol 23, No 1, pp 57-61.
- Axelrod, M E (1975) - "Marketers get an eyeful when focus groups expose products, ideas, images, ad copy, etc., to consumers", Marketing News, Vol VIII, issue of Feb. 28, pp 6-7; also Axelrod, M E (1976) - "The dynamics of the group interview", in Andersen, B B (ed) - Advances in Consumer Research, Ann Arbor, Michigan: Association for Consumer Research, Vol IV, pp 437-441.
- Axelrod, M E (1976) - "The dynamics of the group interview", in Andersen, B B (ed.) - Advances in Consumer Research, Ann Arbor; Michigan: Association for Consumer Research, Vol IV, pp 437-441; reprinted in Higginbotham, J B and Cox, K K (eds.) - Focus Group Interview: A Reader, Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1979, pp 79-84.
- Baker, M J (ed.) (1983) - Marketing Theory and Practice: Second Edition, London: Macmillan Press.
- Bauer, R A (1964) - "The obstinate audience: The influence process from the point of view of social communication", American Psychologist, Vol 19, pp 319-328.



- Bauer, R A (1967) - "Source effect and persuasibility: A new look", in Cox, D F (ed.) - Risk Taking and Information Handling in Consumer Behaviour, Graduate School of Business Administration, Boston: Harvard University, pp 559-578.
- Berlo, D K, Lemert, J B and Mertz, R J (1969-70) - "Dimensions for evaluating the acceptability of message sources", Public Opinion Quarterly, Vol 33, pp 563-576.
- Berscheid, E (1966) - "Opinion Change and Communicator-communicatee similarity and dissimilarity", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol 4, No 6, pp 670-680.
- Berscheid, E and Walster, E (1974) - "Physical attractiveness", Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, Vol 7, pp 157-215.
- Betram, P and Yielding, D (1973) - "The development of an empirical method of selecting phrases used in verbal scales: A report on a recent experiment", Journal of the Market Research Society, Vol 15, No 3, pp 151-156.
- Bettinghaus, E P (1973) - Persuasive Communication - 2nd Edition, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Bettinghaus, E P (1980) - Persuasive Communication - 3rd Edition, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Birnbaum, M H and Stegner, S E (1979) - "Source credibility in social judgement: Bias, expertise and the judge's point of view", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol 37, No 1, pp 48-74.
- Black, J A and Champion, D J (1976) - Methods and Issues in Social Research, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

- Boruch, R F (1971) - "Assuring confidentiality of responses in social research: A note on strategies", *American Sociologist*, Vol 6, pp 308-311.
- Bradt, K (1955) - "The usefulness of a post-card technique in a mailed questionnaire study", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol 19, pp 218-222.
- Brembeck, W L and Howell, W S (1952) - Persuasion: A Means of Social Control, New York: Prentice Hall.
- Brickman, P, Meyer, P and Fredd, S (1975) - "Effects of varying exposure to another person with familiar and unfamiliar thought processes", *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol 11, pp 261-270.
- Brigante, T R (1958) - "Adolescent evaluations of rewarding, neutral, and punishing power figures", *Journal of Personality*, Vol 26, pp 435-450.
- Brock, T (1965) - "Communicator-receptient similarity and decision changes", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol 1, pp 650-654.
- Brock, T and Becker, L (1965) - "Ineffectiveness of 'overheard' counter propaganda", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol 2, pp 654-660.
- Business Week (1978) - "The Big Celebrity Boom", issue of 22nd May.
- Byrne, D (1969) - "Attitudes and attraction", in Berkowitz, L (ed.) - *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol 4, pp 35-89 (The Academic Press).
- Byrne, D (1971) - The Attraction Paridigm, New York: The Academic Press.

- Byrne, D, Clore, G L and Worchel, P (1966) - "Effect of economic similarity-dissimilarity on personal attraction", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol 4, pp 220-224.
- Byrne, D and Griffitt, W (1969) - "Similarity and awareness of personality characteristics as determinants of attraction", *Journal of Experimental Research in Personality*, Vol 3, pp 179-186.
- Byrne, D, Loudon, D and Reeves, K (1968) - "The effects of physical attractiveness, sex, and attitude similarity on interpersonal attraction", *Journal of Personality*, Vol 36, pp 259-271.
- Campaign (1979a) - "Ronnie Barker joins insurance war", issue of 6 April, p 12; see also - Campaign (1980) - "U.S. agencies in rush to sign celebrities", issues of 31 October, p 13.
- Campaign (1979b) - "Dean Martin Signed for Japanese Commercials", issues of 7 September, p 13.
- Campaign (1980a) - "Tailor chooses Best to push January Sale", issue of 4 January, p 2.
- Campaign (1980b) - "Toyota picks Ali for Saudi Arabia boost", issue of 22 February, p 8.
- Campbell, D T (1963) - "Social attitudes and other acquired behavioural dispositions", in Koch, S (ed.) - *Psychology: A study of a science*, Vol 6, New York: McGraw-Hill, pp 94-172.
- Cavior, N and Dokecki, P R (1973) - "Physical attractiveness, perceived attitude similarity, and academic achievement as contributors to interpersonal attraction among adolescents", *Development Psychology*, vol 9, pp 44-54.



- Chambers Students' Dictionary (1977) - W and R Chambers Ltd.,  
Edinburgh.
- Champion, D J (1981) - Basic Statistics for Social Research:  
Second Edition, London; Collier Macmillan Publishers.
- Charters, W W and Newcombe, T M (1958) - "Some attitudinal effects  
of experimentally increased salience of a membership group",  
in Maccoby, E., Newcombe, T M and Hartley, E (eds.) - Readings  
in Social Psychology - 3rd Edition, New York: Holt, Rinehart  
and Winston, pp 276-281.
- Cohn, T S, Yee, W and Brown V (1961) - "Attitude change and  
interpersonal attraction", Journal of Social Psychology, Vol  
55, pp 207-211.
- Coleman, J, Katz, E and Menzel, H (1960) - "Doctors and New Drugs",  
in Klapper, T J (ed.) - The effects of mass communications,  
Glencoe, III: The Free press of Glencoe, Inc., pp 103-104.
- Collins, B E (1970) - Social Psychology, Reading, Mass:  
Addison-Wesley.
- Collins' Concise Dictionary (1982) - Dictionary of the English  
Language, London: William Collins and Sons.
- Collins, L and Montgomery, C (1970) - "Whatever happened to  
motivation research? End of the Messianic hope", Journal of  
the Market Research Society, Vol 12, No 1, pp 1-11.
- Collins, B E and Raven, B H (1969) - "Psychological aspects of  
small groups: Interpersonal attraction, coalitions,  
communication and power", in Lindsey, G and Aronsen, E (eds.)  
- Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol 4, Reading, Mass:  
Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., pp 102-204.

- Cooper P (1977) - "Validity and Reliability of Qualitative Research", The Market Research Society Newsletter, (March), pp.v-iv.
- Cox K K, Higginbotham J B and Burton J (1976) - "Applications of focus group interviews in marketing", Journal of Marketing, Vol.40, No.1, pp.77-80.
- Crisci R and Kassinove H (1973) - "Effects of perceived expertise, strength of advice, and environmental setting on parental compliance", Journal of Social Psychology, Vol.89, pp.245-250.
- Crockhite G (1969) - Persuasion: Speech and Behavioural Change, New York: Bobs-Merrill.
- Crockhite G and Liska J (1976) - "A critique of factor analytic approaches to the study of credibility", Communication Monographs, Vol.43, No.2, pp.91-107.
- Crosier K (1982) - "Reducing refusals in student postal surveys", Proceedings 15th Annual Conference, Lancaster University: Marketing Education Group, pp.270-297.
- Crosier K and Taylor J (1989) - "The 'leverage effect' of endorsement in advertising", in Baker M J and Saren M A (Eds) - Marketing into the Eighties, Joint Seminar by European Academy for Advanced Research in Marketing and Marketing Education Group, pp.392-409.
- Delia T G (1976) - "A constructionist analysis of the concept of credibility", The Quarterly Journal of Speech, Vol.62, pp.361-375.
- Delozier M W (1976) - The Marketing Communications Process, Tokyo: McGraw-Hill Kokakusha, Ltd.



- Denzin M K (1970) - The Research Act, Chicago: Aldine.
- Dichter E (1966) - "How word-of-mouth advertising works", Harvard Business Review, Vol.44, No.6, pp.147-166.
- Dickens J (1982) - "The Fresh Cream Cakes Market: The use of Qualitative Research as part of a consumer research programme", in Bradley U (ed) - Applied Marketing and Social Research, Van Nostrand Reinhold, pp.
- Dion K and Berscheid E (1974) - "Physical attractiveness and peer perception among children", Sociometry, Vol.37, pp.1-12.
- Eagly A H and Chaiken S (1975) - "An attribution analysis of the effect of the communicator characteristics on opinion change: The case of communicator attractiveness", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol.32, No.1, pp.136-144.
- Eagly A H, Wood W and Chaiken S (1978) - "Causal inferences about communicators and their effect on opinion change", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol.36, No.4, pp.424-435.
- Elliott K and Christopher M (1973) - Research Methods in Marketing, London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Emerson R M (1962) - "Power-Dependence Relations", American Sociological Review, Vol.27, pp.31-41.
- Engel J F, Blackwell R D and Kollat D T (1978) - Consumer Behaviour - Third Edition, Hinsdale, Illinois: The Dryden Press.
- Ewing T (1942) - "A study of certain factors involved in changes of opinion", Journal of Social Psychology, Vol.16, pp.63-68.

- Fahad G A (1981) - A Study of multi-endorsement in advertising, Unpublished M.Sc dissertation, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow.
- Federal Trade Commission (1972) - "Endorsements and Testimonials in Advertising", Federal Register, (December 1), Vol.37, pp.25548-25549.
- Finn D W (1977) - "An investigation of the differential effects of two dimensions of spokesmen's credibility as they interact with consumer involvement with brand choice", Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Massachusetts, USA.
- Fishbein M and Ajzen I (1972) - "Attitudes and Opinions", in Mussen P H and Rosenzweig M R (eds) - Annual Review of Psychology, Palo Alto, Calif: Annual Review Inc, pp.188-244.
- Fishbein M and Ajzen I (1975) - Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behaviour: An Introduction to Theory and Research, Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley.
- Forkan J (1975) - "Commercial actors squeezed by Stars, real people", Advertising Age, issue of 17 November, p.142.
- Fotheringham W C (1966) - Perspectives and Persuasion, Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- France K (1973) - "Effects of 'white' and 'black' examiner voices on IQ scores of children", Development Psychology, Vol.8, No.1, p.144.
- Freeman W (1957) - The Big Name, New York: Printers' Ink.

- Friedman H H (1977) - "Endorser effectiveness as a function of product type", Unpublished PhD Thesis, Long Island University, USA; see also Friedman H H and Friedman L (1979) - "Endorser effectiveness by product type", Journal of Advertising Research, Vol.9, No.5, pp.63-71.
- Friggens P (1974) - "Pyramid Selling: No.1 Consumer fraud", Readers Digest, issue of March, pp.79-83.
- Giffin K (1967) - "The contribution of studies of source credibility to a theory of interpersonal trust in the communication process", Psychological Bulletin, Vol.68, pp.104-120.
- Goldstein C (1983) - "The use of personalities in Advertising", Unpublished BA (Hons) Dissertation, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow.
- Gorden R L (1969) - Interviewing: Strategy, techniques, and Tactics, Homewood, Ill: Dorsey Press.
- Green P E and Rao V R (1970) - "Rating scales and information recovery - how many scales and response categories to use", Journal of Marketing, Vol.34, pp.33-39.
- Grush J E and Clore G L and Lostin F (1975) - "Dissimilarity and attraction: When difference makes difference", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol.32, No.5, pp.783-789.
- Haiman F S (1949) - "An experimental study of the effects of ethos in public speaking", Speech Monographs, Vol.16, pp.190-202.
- Heider F (1946) - "Attitudes and cognitive organisation", Journal of Psychology, Vol.21, pp.107-112.

Hendrick C, Stikes C S and Murray E J (1972) - "Race versus belief similarity as determinants of attraction in a live interaction setting", *Journal of Experimental Research in Personality*, Vol.6, pp.162-168.

Himmerlfarb S and Arazi D (1974) - "Choice and source attractiveness in exposure to discrepant messages", *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol.10, pp.516-527.

Horai J, Niccari N and Fatoullah E (1974) - "The effects of expertise and physical attractiveness upon opinion agreement and liking", *Sociometry*, Vol.37, pp.601-606.

Hovland C and Weiss W (1951-52) - "The influence of source credibility on communication effectiveness", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol.15, pp.635-650.

Hovland C and Mandel W (1952) - "An experimental comparison of conclusion drawing by the communicator and the audience", *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol.47, pp.581-588.

Hovland C, Janis I and Kelley H (1953) - Communication and Persuasion, New Haven, Conn: Yale University Press.

IBA Code of Advertising Standards and Practice (1979) - A copy is obtainable by writing to: IBA, 70 Brompton Road, London SW3 (reprinted in October 1979).

ITCA (1979) - "Special Problem Areas - No.4", in a series of Notes of Guidance on Television Advertising, Revised June 1979, obtainable by writing to: ITCA, Knighton House, 52/66 Mortimer Street, London WIN 8AN.

- Jacoby J and Kaplan L (1972) - "The components of perceived risk", in Venkatesan, M.(ed) -Proceedings of the Third Annual Convention for Consumer Research, Chicago: University of Chicago, pp.382-392.
- Johnson H H and Scillepi J A (1969) - "Effects of ego-involvement conditions on attitude change to high and low credibility communicators", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.13, No.1, pp.31-36.
- Jones R A and Brehm J W (1967) - "Attitudinal effects of communicator attractiveness when one chooses to listen", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.6, pp.64-70.
- Kamen J M , Azhari A C and Kragh J R (1975) - "What a spokesman does for a sponsor", *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol.15, No.2, pp.17-24.
- Karlins, M and Abelson H I (1970) - Persuasion - How Opinions and Attitudes are Changed - 2nd Edition, New York: Springer Publishing Company Inc.
- Kassarjian H H (1977) - "Content analysis in Consumer Research", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol.4, No.1, pp.8-18.
- Kassarjian H H and Robertson T S (1981) - Perspectives in Consumer Behaviour - 3rd Edition, Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Kelman H C (1961) - "Processes of Opinion Change", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol.25, pp.57-78.
- Kelman H C and Hovland C I (1953) - "'Reinstatement' of the communicator in delayed measurement of opinion change", *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol.48, pp.327-335.



Kinnear T C and Taylor J R (1979) - Marketing Research: An Applied Approach, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Klapper J T (1960) - The Effects of Mass Communication, Glencoe, Ill: The Free Press.

Kleck R E and Rubenstein C (1975) - "Physical attractiveness, perceived attitude similarity, and interpersonal attraction in opposite sex encounter", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.31, pp.107-114.

Kline J A (1969) - "Interaction of evidence and readers' intelligence on the effect of short messages", *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol.55, pp.407-413.

Krebs D and Adolfini A A (1975) - "Physical attractiveness, social relations, and personality style", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.31, pp.245-253.

Krech D and Crutchfield R (1948) - Theory and Problems in Social Psychology, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Krech D, Crutchfield R S and Ballachey E L (1962) - Individual in Society: A Textbook of Social Psychology, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc.

Kress G (1982) - Marketing Research - 2nd Edition, Reston, Virginia: Reston Publishing Company Inc.

Krugman H. E (1965) - "The impact of television advertising: Learning without involvement", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol.29, pp.349-356.

Krugman H E (1966-67) - "The measurement of advertising involvement", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol.30, pp.583-596.

- Laudy D and Sigall H (1974) - "Beauty is talent: Task evaluation as a function of the performer's physical attractiveness", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.29, pp.299-304.
- Lehmann D R and Hulbert J (1972) - "Are three-point scales always good enough?" *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol.9, pp.444-446.
- Liska J (1978) - "Situational and topical variations in credibility criteria", *Communication Monographs*, Vol.45, pp.85-92.
- Loudon D L and Della-Bitta A J (1979) - Consumer Behaviour: Concepts and Applications, New York: McGraw Hill Book Company.
- Luck D J, Wales H G, Taylor D A and Rubin R S (1982) - Marketing Research - 6th Edition, Englewood Cliffs, N J: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Maddux J E and Rogers R W (1980) - "Effects of source expertness, physical attractiveness, and supporting argument in persuasion: A case of brains over beauty", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.39, No.2, pp.235-244.
- Market Research Society's R & D Sub-Committee on Qualitative Research (1979) - "Qualitative Research - A summary of the concepts involved", *Journal of the Market Research Society*, Vol.21, No.2 - whole issue.
- Marketing (1983) - "Food and Drinks: Beechams Foods", *Marketing*, issue of 19 May, Vol.13, No.7, p.57.
- Maruyama G and Miller N (1981) - "Physical attractiveness and personality", *Progress in Experimental Personality Research*, Vol.10, pp.203-280.

- May J P (1978) - "Qualitative advertising research - A review of the role of the researcher", *Journal of the Market Research Society*, Vol.20, No.4, pp.203-218.
- McCroskey J C (1969) - "A summary of experimental research on the effects of evidence in persuasive communication", *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol.55, pp.169-176.
- McCroskey J C, Jensen T and Valencia C (1973) - "Measurement of the credibility of mass media sources", Paper presented at the Western Speech Communication Association Convention, Albuquerque, Mexico - cited in Cronkhite and Liska (1976) - *op cit*, p.92.
- McCullers J C and Staat J C (1974) - "Draw an ugly man: An inquiry into the dimensions of physical attractiveness", *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol.1, pp.33-35.
- McGinley H, LeFeure R and McGinley P (1975) - "The influence of a communicator's body position on opinion change in others", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.31, No.4, pp.686-690.
- McGinnies E (1974) - "Cognitive and behavioural approaches to persuasion", in Silverstein A (ed) - Human Communication: Theoretical Explorations, New York: John Wiley and Sons, pp.185-201.
- McGuire W J (1969) - "The nature of attitudes and attitude change", in Lindzey G and Aronson E (eds) - The Handbook of Social Psychology, Cambridge Mass: Addison-Wesley, pp.136-314.
- McGuire W J (1973) - "Persuasion" in Miller G A (ed) - Communication, Language and Meaning, New York: Basic Books, pp.242-255.

McQuail D (1975) - Communication, London: Longman.

Merton R L and Kendall P L (1946) - "The Focused Interview",  
American Journal of Sociology, Vol.51, pp.541-557.

Mill J and Harvey J (1972) - "Opinion change as a function of when  
information about the communicator is received and whether he  
is attractive or expert", Journal of Personality and Social  
Psychology, Vol.21, pp.52-55.

Miller G R and Basehart J (1969) - "Source trustworthiness,  
opinionated statements, and response to persuasive  
communication", Speech Monographs, Vol.36, pp.1-7.

Mills J (1969) - Experimental Social Psychology, London: Collier-  
Macmillan Ltd.

Mills J and Kimble C (1973) - "Opinion change as a function of  
perceived similarity of the communicator and the subjectivity  
of the issue", Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society, Vol.2,  
pp.35-36.

Minnick W C (1957) - The Art of Persuasion, Boston: Houghton-  
Mifflin.

Mostyn B (1976) - A Handbook of Motivational and Attitudinal  
Research Techniques, Bradford: M C Books.

Nachmias D and Nachimias C (1976) - Research Methods in the Social  
Sciences, London: Edward Arnold Publishers Ltd.

Newcomb T M (1961) - The Acquaintance Process, New York: Holt,  
Rinehart and Winston.

Newcomb T M (1963) - "An approach to the study of communicative  
acts", Psychological Review, Vol.60, pp.393-404.

- Norman R (1976) - "When what is said is important: A comparison of expert and attractive sources", *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol.12, pp.294-300.
- Osgood C and Tannenbaum P (1955) - "The principle of congruity in the prediction of attitude change", *Psychological Review*, Vol.62, pp.42-55.
- Oskamp S (1977) - Attitudes and Opinions, Englewood Cliffs, N J, Prentice Hall Inc.
- Page R and Balloum J A (1978) - "The effect of voice volume on the perception of personality", *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol.105, pp.65-72.
- Park C W and Lessig V P (1977) - "Students and housewives: Differences in susceptibility to reference group influence", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol.4, No.2, pp.102-110.
- Payne M S (1976) - "Preparing for Group Interviews", in Anderson B B (ed) - Advances in Consumer Research - IV, Michigan: Ann Arber.
- Percy L and Rossiter J R (1980) - Advertising Strategy - A Communication Theory Approach, New York: Prager Publisher.
- Pitcher G (1981) - "Cider Ads Ger £1.5m Fizz", *Marketing Magazine*, Vol.5, No.13, issue of 24 June, p.4.
- Plax T G and Rosenfeld L B (1980) - "Individual differences in the credibility and attitude relationship", *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol.111, pp.79-89.
- Powell F and Miller G (1967) - "Social approval and disapproval cues in anxiety-arousing communications", *Speech Monographs*, Vol.34, pp.152-159.



- Range P R (1982) - "The Representative", an article in The Sunday Times Colour Supplement, issue of 28 February, pp.22-32.
- Raven E and French J (1958) - "Legitimate power, coercive power, and observability in social influence", Sociometry, Vol.21, pp.83-97.
- Rawsthorn A (1983) - "£2.5m Bacardi Ads Push more Mixtures", Marketing, Vol.13, No.5, issue of 5 May, p.4.
- Ray M L (1982) - Advertising and Communication Management, Englewood Cliffs, N J: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Reynolds F K and Johnson D K (1978) - "Validity of Focus Group Findings", Journal of Advertising Research, Vol.18, No.3, pp.21-24.
- Rhine R and Severance L S (1970) - "Ego-involvement, discrepancy, source credibility, and attitude change", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol.16, No.2, pp.175-190.
- Robertson T S (1976) - "Low-commitment consumer behaviour", Journal of Advertising Research, Vol.16, No.2, pp.19-24.
- Rogers C R (1969) - Client Centred Therapy, Boston: Houghton, Mifflin.
- Rogers' International Thesaurus (1976) - 3rd Edition, Glasgow: Collins.
- Romer D (1979) - "Internalisation versus identification in the laboratory: A causal analysis of attitude change", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol.37, pp.2171-2180.

- Rosenstein A S (1978) - "Quantitative - Yes, Quantitative Applications for the focus group, or what do you mean you have never heard of 'multivariate focus groups'!", Marketing News, Vol.IX, issue of 21 May, p.8.
- Rudolph H (1947) - Attention and Interest Factors in Advertising, New York: Printers' Ink.
- Runyon K E (1980) - Consumer Behaviour - 2nd Edition, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E Merrill Publishing Co.
- Seagert S, Swap W and Zajonc R B (1973) - "Exposure, context, and interpersonal attraction", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol.25, pp.234-242.
- Sampson P (1978) - "Qualitative research and motivation research", in Worcester R M and Downham J (eds) - Consumer Market Research Handbook - 2nd Edition, Berkshire: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co, pp.25-48.
- Savereid E (1975) - "Savereid on Endorsement Rules", Advertising Age, issue of 2 June, p.15.
- Schachter S, Ellerton N, McBride D and Gregory D (1951) - "An experimental study of cohesiveness and productivity", Human Relations, Vol.4, pp.229-238.
- Secord P F and Backman C W (1974) - Social Psychology - 2nd Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Seiler L H and Hough R L (1970) - "Empirical comparisons of the Thurnstone and Likert Techniques", in Summers GF (ed) - Attitude Measurement, Chicago: Rand McNally, pp.159-173.

- Sereno K and Hawkins G (1967) - "The effects of variations in speakers' non-fluency upon audience ratings of attitude toward the speech topic and speakers' credibility", *Speech Monographs*, Vol.34, pp.58-64.
- Sereno K and Mortensen C (1970) - Foundations of Communication Theory, New York: Harper and Row Publishers.
- Simons H, Berkowitz N and Moyer T (1970) - "Similarity, credibility and attitude change: A review and a theory", *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol.73, No.1, pp.1-16.
- Singh R (1973) - "Attraction as a function of similarity in attitudes and personality characteristics", *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol.91, pp.87-95.
- Smith J M (1972) - Interviewing in Market and Social Research, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Smith M B (1968) - "Attitude Change", in Sills D L (ed) - International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, Crowell, Collier Macmillan, Vol.1, pp.458-467; reprinted in Warren N and Jahoda M (eds) - Attitudes: Selected Readings - Second Edition, London: Penguin Books, 1976, pp.26-46.
- Smith R (1973) - "Source credibility context effects", *Speech Monographs*, Vol.40, pp.303-309.
- Sternthal B, Phillips L W and Dholakia R (1978) - "The persuasive effect of source credibility: A situational analysis", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol.42, pp.285-314.
- Stone V A and Eswara H S (1969) - "The likeability and self-interest of the source in attitude change", *Journalism Quarterly*, Vol.46, pp.61-68.

- Stroebe W, Insko C A, Thompson V D and Layton B D (1971) - "Effects of physical attractiveness, attitude similarity, and sex on various aspects of interpersonal attraction", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.18, pp.79-91.
- Swartz T A (1981) - "The application of a model of social influence theory to the study of the effects of source similarity and source expertise on persuasion in an advertising setting", Unpublished Phd Thesis, Ohio State University, USA.
- Szybillo G J and Berger R (1979) - "What advertising agencies think of focus groups", *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol.19, No.3, pp.29-33.
- Tannenbaum P H (1956) - "Initial attitude toward source and concept as factors in attitude change through communication", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol.20, pp.413-425.
- Taylor J (1979) - "An Inquiry into the 'Leverage effect' of endorsement in advertising", Unpublished BA (Hons) Dissertation, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow.
- Templeton J (1976) - "Research as a griaffe: An identity crisis", in Anderson B B (ed) - Advances in Consumer Research - IV, Michigan: Ann Arbor, pp.442-446.
- Terry R L (1975) - "Additional evidence for veridicality of perceptions on physiognomic cues", *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, Vol.40, pp.780-782.
- Thibaut J W and Kelley H H (1959) - The Social Psychology of Groups, New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc.
- Triandis H C (1971) - Attitude and Attitude Change, New York: Wiley and Sons, Inc.

- Tull D S and Hawkins D I (1980) - Marketing Research: Management and Method - 2nd Edition, Collier Macmillan Publishers.
- Turner E S (1965) - The Shocking History of Advertising, Revised edition, Penguin Books.
- Twyman W A (1973) - "Designing advertising research for marketing decisions", Journal of the Market Research Society, Vol.15, No.2, pp.77-100.
- Vincent C E (1964) - "Socio-economic status and familial variables in mail questionnaire responses", American Journal of Sociology, Vol.69, pp.647-653.
- Walster E and Festinger L (1962) - "The effects of 'overhard' persuasive communication", Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol.65, pp.395-402.
- Walster E, Aronson E and Abraham D (1966) - "On increasing the persuasiveness of a low-prestige communicator", Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, Vol.2, pp.325-342.
- Weick K, Gilfillan D and Keith T (1973) - "The effect of composer credibility on orchestra performance", Sociometry, Vol.36, pp.435-461.
- Weiss W (1957) - "Opinion congruence with a negative source on one issue as a factor influencing agreement as another issue", Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol.54, pp.180-186.
- Wells W D (1974) - "Group Interviewing", in Ferber R (ed) - Handbook of Marketing Research, London: McGraw Hill.
- Wilding J and Bauer R A (1968) - "Consumer goals and reactions to a communication source", Journal of Marketing Research, Vol.5, No.1, pp.73-77.



- Woodside A G and Davenport J W (1974) - "Effects of salesman similarity and expertise on customer purchasing decisions", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol.11, pp.198-202.
- Zajonc R B (1968) - "The attitudinal effects of mere exposure", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.9, No.2, pp.1-27.
- Zimbardo P G, Weisenberg M, Firestone I and Levy B (1965) - "Communicator effectiveness in producing public conformity and private attitude change", *Journal of Personality*, Vol.33, pp.233-256.
- Zogona S and Harter M (1966) - "Credibility of source and recipient's attitude: Factors in the perception and retention of information on smoking behaviour", *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, Vol.23, pp.155-168.