

**THE IMPACT OF THE IDENTIFICATION PROCESS AND THE CORPORATE  
SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY PROCESS ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MULTI-  
RACIAL ADVERTISING IN SOUTH AFRICA**

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## ABSTRACT

Selecting actors to appear in an advertisement is an important decision which has a crucial impact on the effectiveness of an advertising campaign. The same message, delivered by different actors, produces varying outcomes among consumers. This dilemma concerning the choice of actors occurs particularly in multi-racial societies, such as South Africa, where advertisers have to target different sectors of the community.

In multi-racial societies, the choice of actors in advertisements goes beyond the usual commercial reasons. Indeed, two dimensions are generally conferred to multi-racial advertising. Firstly, the use of multi-racial representations allows for the targeting of a wider population that also owns a wider purchasing power. Marketers who want to market their brand use, for example, white and black actors so that white and black consumers can identify with the actors and recognize themselves as the target of the advertisement. Secondly, the multi-racial representations of this type of advertising hold a social role that counteracts the segregated depiction of the society. Consumers who are exposed to a multi-racial advertisement might perceive this social dimension and attribute a social responsibility to the advertisement.

The purpose of this thesis is to examine the influence of the above dimensions on the effectiveness of a multi-racial advertisement. On the one hand, this study investigates the Identification Process followed by a consumer exposed to a multi-racial advertisement. On the other hand, it examines how consumers attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement and how this attribution, in turn, influences their responses to the advertisement and brand. Finally, the impacts of both of these dimensions on consumer behaviour are compared and the most persuasive dimension is identified.

This thesis draws on Attribution Theory and Identification Theory in arguing that there are strong economic imperatives for adopting a multi-racial advertising approach. The thesis develops a conceptual framework and tests empirically hypotheses regarding the key constructs and moderating variables. The empirical results point out that both dimensions symbiotically influence the effectiveness of a multi-racial advertisement. Specifically, the results highlight that the social responsibility attributed by the viewers to the advertisement influences their behaviour more than the Identification Process.

Pencil, ink marks and highlighting ruin books for other readers.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- Aad = Advertising Attitude  
Ab = Brand Attitude  
AEI = Advertising Execution Involvement  
AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index  
AMI = Advertising Message Involvement  
AMOS = Analysis of MOment Structures  
ANC = African National Congress  
ANOVA = Analysis of variance  
BBBEE = Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment  
BEE = Black Economic Empowerment  
C = Communalities  
CA = Company Ability  
Cad = Advertising Cognition  
Cb = Brand Cognition  
CFI = Comparative Fit Index  
C<sub>i</sub> = Company/Brand Identification Scale  
CR = Critical Ratio  
CRM = Customer Relationship Management  
CSI = Corporate Social Investment  
CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility  
Df = Degrees of Freedom  
DMH = Dual-Mediation Hypothesis  
ELM = Elaboration Likelihood Model  
FL = Factor Loadings  
F<sub>t</sub> = Felt Targetedness Scale  
GFI = Goodness-of-Fit Index  
H = Hypothesis  
HIV/AIDS = Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired ImmunoDeficiency Syndrome  
I<sub>d</sub> = Identification Scale  
Id<sub>1</sub> = Identification Level Scale  
Ip = Purchase Intention

JSE = Johannesburg Securities Exchange  
KMO = Kaiser, Meyer and Olkin  
M = Mean  
MSA = Measure of Sampling Adequacy  
NAACP = National Association for the Advancement of Colored People  
NGO = Non-Governmental Organisation  
PCA = Principal Components Analysis  
PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index  
 $P_r$  = Prejudice Level Scale  
 $P_s$  = Perceived Similarity Scale  
Q = Question  
 $R_g$  = Self-designated racial group  
RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation  
SABC = South African Broadcasting Corporation  
SAT = Socio-linguistic (or Speech) Accommodation Theory  
SEM = Structural Equation Modelling  
Sig. = Significant  
SPSS = Statistical Programme for Social Science  
SR = Social Responsibility  
 $SR_{ad}$  = Social Responsibility Attributed to the Ad Scale  
 $SR_b$  = Social Responsibility Attributed to the Brand Scale  
TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index  
UCT = University of Cape Town  
USA = United States of America  
WWF = World Wildlife Fund  
 $\alpha$  = Alpha  
 $\rho$  = Rhô  
 $\chi^2$  = Chi-square

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background to Research Problem

Since 1990, the removal of the apartheid system has engendered numerous modifications in the South African advertising industry in terms of targeting practices and rhetoric. In particular, due to its racial feature, multi-racial advertising has evolved with this political and social radical change. This thesis assumes that multi-racial advertising in South Africa has two specific dimensions.

Firstly, the removal of the legally prescribed racial divisions has allowed racial groups which were formerly disadvantaged by the apartheid system to develop socially and economically. Elaborating on this point, Mattes (2002) points out that poor blacks have had unprecedented improvements in access to basic necessities, whereas there have been impressive gains in employment opportunities and income for the growing black middle class, increasingly referred as Black Diamond (UCT Unilever Institute, 2006a). For instance, the number of black households in the upper income bracket, which include those which earn more than R154 000 per annum, has increased 368% between 1998 and 2004 (*ibid.*). Black Diamond comprises an estimated of 2.6 million South Africans and combines an annual spending of R180 billion (UCT Unilever Institute, 2007). Accordingly, this market and the 'African' market in general have become a real, financially viable target for advertisers (Olivier, 2007; Sutherland, 2004; UCT Unilever Institute, 2006b) and multi-racial advertising is an important tool to target these burgeoning market segments. It follows that using multi-racial advertising affords brands the opportunity to improve their effectiveness by targeting several races in a particular marketing campaign. One feature which may impact on the economic return achieved from a particular advertisement is the ability of the target market to identify with the actors/models used in the promotional campaign. Specifically, this thesis investigates the impact of consumers' ability to identify with the actors' race on advertising effectiveness.

Secondly, during the apartheid era, the South African government regulated not only cross-racial relationships but also advertising practice (see Whitehead, 1983). At the time, advertising content had to comply with the existing legislation which imposed white domination. However, since 1990 and the end of the apartheid regime, a 'new' South Africa

has emerged where the multiculturalism of the society is emphasized. Encouraged by the (now democratically elected) government, corporations must reflect this multiculturalism in their ownership and human resource practices as well as in the advertising of their businesses and products. In line with this, the Association for Communication and Advertising (2002), which represents the collective interests of the South African advertising and communication agencies, developed a 10-point statement of values for the advertising industry. Through this document, advertisers indicated their aspirations to play an important role in the 'new' South Africa. They declared that they wanted to 'craft' a unique and meaningful South African culture and identity reflecting the diversity of South African consumers. In doing so, they desired to assist nation-building in celebrating and promoting the values of the constitution such as respect for human dignity, equality and freedom. This document argues that advertisements should attempt to portray South Africa in such a way that the advertisements "instil a feeling of pride and belonging for all people of [the] country" (Association for Communication and Advertising, 2002). The advertisers, through their advertisements, should try to retain a social responsibility in the 'new' South Africa.

Consequently, while the first dimension has obvious economic interests, the second one's aims seem to be mainly altruistic. Nevertheless, with regard to the costs of advertising, firms regard these efforts as an investment and expect a return. Thus, the chief research problem of this thesis is to examine how the social responsibility attributed to a multi-racial advertisement influences viewers' behaviour.

## **1.2 Research Problem**

In the marketing literature, numerous studies have effectively considered multi-racial advertising as a Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) (e.g. Bullock, 1961; Cohen, 1970; Gould, Sigband and Zoerner, 1970; Surlin, 1977). However, none of them have empirically explored the implications of this social dimension for consumers directly. Researchers have neglected to study whether the social responsibility perceived in the integration of a black actor with a white actor in an advertisement influences the effectiveness of this advertisement. Indeed the firms' CSR actions can not be explained merely as altruism. Studies have found that a firm perceived as high in social responsibility enhances its level of evaluation among consumers, which leads to a more favourable evaluation of the firm's products and increases the possibility that the consumer will purchase the firm's products (e.g. Brønn and Vrioni,

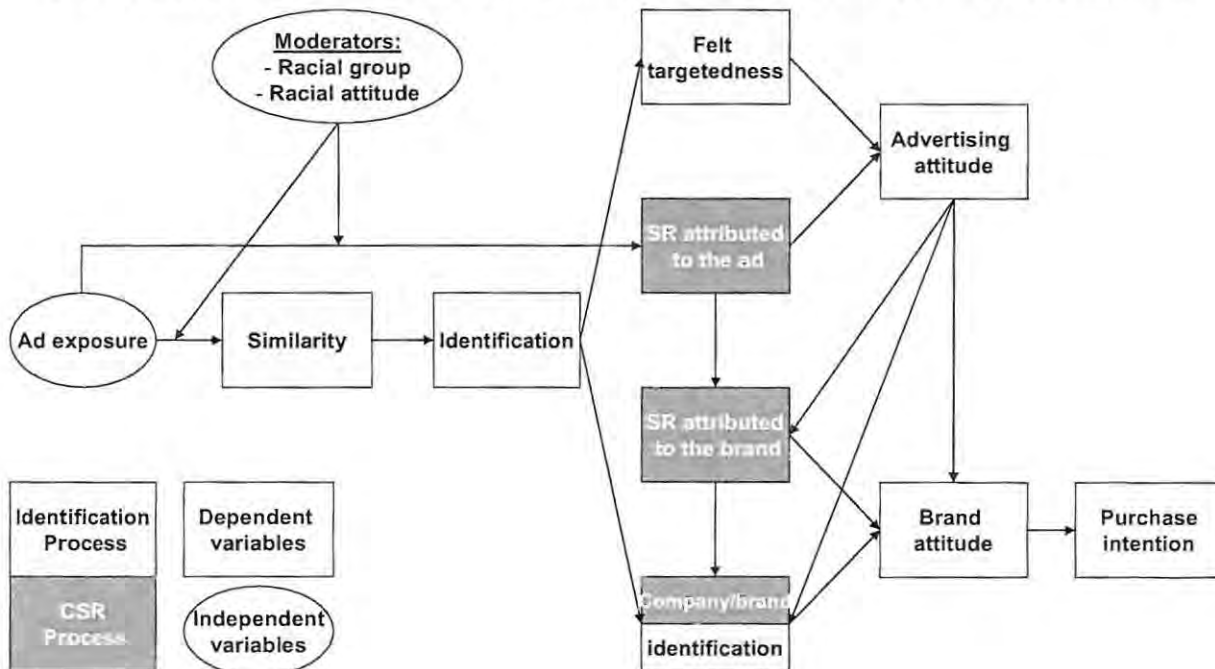
2001; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Centre for Corporate Citizenship, 2006; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001).

Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine the impact of the social responsibility attributed by consumers to a multi-racial advertisement on the effectiveness of this advertisement. This impact will be compared with the impact of the Identification Process, which will be also studied. Thus, the final objective of this study is to identify the best persuasive techniques for brands using multi-racial advertising.

### 1.3 Hypotheses

A conceptual framework, depicted in Figure 1.1, was developed using the constructs and relationships from the literature review in order to identify the processes influencing the effectiveness of a multi-racial advertisement.

**Figure 1.1: Processes Influencing the Effectiveness of a Multi-racial Advertisement**



This conceptual model, based on both attribution and identification theories, attempts to explain the effects of multi-racial advertising on consumer behaviour. First, it is assumed that viewers, exposed to a specific advertisement (*Ad exposure*), produce, in step with their own racial characteristics (*Moderators*), *Similarity* and attribution (*SR attributed to the ad*) judgments. Both of these judgments may trigger two psychological processes, the

*Identification Process* and the *CSR Process*, respectively. Firstly, from the *Similarity* perceived by the viewer with the models, the *Identification Process* is assumed to influence cognitive (i.e. *Felt targetedness* and *Company/brand identification*), affective (*Advertising* and *Brand attitudes*) and behavioural (i.e. *Purchase intention*) outcomes. Secondly, exposure to a multi-racial advertisement may encourage consumers to attribute a social responsibility (SR) to the advertisement (i.e. *SR attributed to the ad*) and to the brand using it (i.e. *SR attributed to the brand*). These attributions influence both attitudes towards the advertisement and brand which, in turn, influence the *Purchase intention*. The different paths of the conceptual framework were then translated is a series of hypotheses, presented in Table 1.1.

**Table 1.1: Research Hypotheses**

H <sup>1</sup> : The influence of actors' race on the similarity to the actors perceived by the viewer is moderated by viewers' racial group.
H <sup>2</sup> : Viewers attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement.
H <sup>3</sup> : Viewers who maintain a strong racial identity (versus viewers who maintain a weak racial identity) will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only. On the other hand, the identification level will not influence viewers' similarity judgment when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from another racial group only.
H <sup>4</sup> : Viewers who do not have prejudice towards out-group (versus viewers who have strong prejudice) will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from another racial group only. On the other hand, the prejudice level will not influence viewers' similarity judgment when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only.
H <sup>5</sup> : Viewers who maintain a strong racial identity and low out-group prejudice will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than viewers who maintain a weak racial identity and high out-group prejudice.
H <sup>6</sup> : The racial attitude of the viewers and their corresponding support for the CSR action influences the way viewers attribute a social dimension to a multi-racial advertisement.
H <sup>7</sup> : Viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement produces an Identification Process.
H <sup>8</sup> : The viewers' exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement produces a CSR Process.
H <sup>9</sup> : The viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement enables viewers to identify themselves with the company/brand through the CSR Process and the Identification Process.

**Table 1.1: Research Hypotheses (Continued)**

H <sup>10</sup> : The Dual-Mediation Hypothesis is consistent with the persuasion process followed by viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement.
H <sup>11</sup> : The viewers exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement follow a two-way persuasion process.
H <sup>12</sup> : The viewers' racial group moderates some conceptual framework's paths.

## **1.4 Justification for this Research**

This study proposes to add to the body of knowledge by identifying the persuasive advertising process followed by consumers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement. Typically, this study proposes to compare the impact on consumers' behaviour of two distinct persuasive processes, namely the *Identification Process* and the *CSR Process*. The original contribution of this research stems from six perspectives:

1. Multi-racial advertising studies are concerned only with the way in which consumers attribute a social responsibility to multi-racial advertising in general. Previous studies have neglected to consider the reactions of consumers towards a specific advertisement which integrates both black and white actors. In contrast, this study attempts to analyse the consumers' persuasion process engendered by exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement.
2. The conceptual framework that has been developed from the literature is the first attempt to develop a comprehensive conceptual framework of multi-racial advertising effects. Specifically, the framework combines two theories originating from two different domains. The Identification Process stems from the traditional studies in racial advertising, whereas the CSR Process originates from the more recent marketing field research studying the impact of firms' CSR actions on consumers' behaviour.
3. This study attempts to justify *a priori* the conceptual framework in examining if consumers consider a specific multi-racial advertisement as effectively more socially responsible than 'mono-racial' advertisements (i.e. advertisements with only white or black actors).

4. Much of the multi-racial marketing studies compare the results between two racial groups (e.g. black/white, white/Hispanics). However, this research also examines the reactions of a third group consisting of consumers whose racial group is not represented in the multi-racial advertisement (e.g. Indian, Asian, coloured etc.). Indeed, although the comparisons between three groups are more difficult to interpret, studies using at least a third racial group have been found as contributing the most significantly to research on ethnicity and culture (Brumbaugh and Grier, 2006:44).
5. Multi-racial marketing studies have traditionally assumed that individuals' in-group identification and out-group prejudice were correlated. Nevertheless, consistent with recent research in South African social-psychology (e.g. Duckitt and Mphuting, 1998; Gibson, 2006), this study shows that both concepts are mutually exclusive and separately influence viewers' reactions towards the advertising.
6. The use of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is unique as it has not been previously used within the context of multi-racial marketing studies in South Africa.

## **1.5 Methodology**

For the purpose of this study, an extensive literature review is presented in order to identify the elements which may influence consumers' reaction to multi-racial advertising. These secondary sources helped to develop the conceptual framework but also to generate a scale to measure the social responsibility attributed to a multi-racial advertisement.

This first explanatory stage is then followed by a quantitative research phase. The study investigates the reactions of a community sample of 600 Asian, black, coloured and white adults. These respondents evaluated three fictitious print advertisements for an invented brand of pen (SmoothWriter) featuring white and/or black actors. The respondents' identity remains completely anonymous and confidential, especially because of the measurement of the individuals' identification and prejudice levels.

The study findings are then developed into a conceptual framework that indicates the processes used by viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement. The exploratory factor analysis is done with the computer program Statistical Programme for Social Science (SPSS)

10.0 (Levesque, 2007), whereas the confirmatory factor analysis is done with Analysis of MOment Structures (AMOS) 4.0 (Arbuckle, 1999). Finally, SEM was used to analyse the conceptual framework using the computer programme AMOS 4.0.

## **1.6 Delimitation of Scope**

This study is mainly focused on the South African context. Although the issue of multi-racial advertising is a world wide phenomenon, South Africa's tumultuous history and diverse cultures make it an ideal environment for the study. Nevertheless, the findings could apply to other countries where multi-racial marketing is a matter of debate.

## **1.7 Definitions of Concepts**

This section defines the principal concepts used in this thesis. In addition it justifies the use of certain terms instead of others.

### **1.7.1 Advertising**

Advertising is the "use of paid mass media, by and identified sponsor, to deliver marketing communications to target audiences" (Pickton and Broderick, 2001:454). Advertising messages are delivered through different media including print, television, radio, outdoor advertising and the Internet (Elliott, 2005). Two major types of advertising are commonly used: institutional advertising which aims to build up the image of the company and product advertising which aims to enhance the sales of a specific good or service (Lamb, Hair and McDaniel, 2002). This thesis will merely focus on product advertising.

### **1.7.2 Multi-racial and Mono-racial Advertisements**

A multi-racial or integrated advertisement is an advertisement in which there are at least two actors from different racial groups. Typically, this study maintains the definition of Hair, Solomon and Bush (1977:211) which considers that a socially responsible multi-racial advertisement is an advertisement which "attempts to cast black models in roles equal to white model role portrayal. [This advertisement] is characterised by dimensions such as a small number of models, including both blacks and whites". Conversely, a mono-racial advertisement is an advertisement which features actors from one racial group only: 'all-black advertisement' features black actors only and 'all-white advertisement' features white actors only.

### **1.7.3 Actor, Model, Spokesperson and Source**

Although the terms actor, model and spokesperson may have different meanings, this study uses them interchangeably and as designating identically the person featured in an advertisement. Similarly, in this study, individuals referred to as a “source” in social-psychology studies (e.g. Kelman, 1961; Petty, Fleming and White, 1999; White and Harkins, 1994) are also described as actors.

### **1.7.4 Identification Process**

Kelman (1961:63) argues that an identification process occurs “when an individual adopts behaviour derived from another person or group because this behaviour is associated with a satisfying self-defining relationship to this person or group”. This process arises when individuals change their opinion to establish, maintain or enhance their relationship to the person advocating this opinion (Aaker, Brumbaugh and Grier, 2000; Whittler, 1989). In the South African multi-racial market, this process implies that marketers who want to market their brand must, for example, use white and black actors so that white and black consumers can identify with the actors. The similarity perceived between the viewers and the actor affords the viewer an opportunity to establish a special relationship to the actors, i.e. identification. This in turn enables consumers to recognize themselves as the target of the advertisement and this will positively influence their attitude towards the advertising.

### **1.7.5 Corporate Social Responsibility Process**

In a general sense, CSR is a ‘social contract’ between a business and society, in which it is recognized that corporations have an impact on the social welfare of society (Handelman and Arnold, 1999; Robin and Reidenbach, 1987). This study examines how consumers attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement and how this attribution, in turn, influences their responses to the advertisement and brand.

### **1.7.6 Company, Firm, Corporation, Brand and Product**

This thesis uses the terms ‘company’, ‘firm’ and ‘corporation’ interchangeably in order to designate a social entity which is profit-orientated. ‘Brand’ is defined as a name that identifies a company’s product (Lamb *et al.*, 2002) which may be a good or a service (Kotler and Armstrong, 1996). Although the focus of this study is in respect of a specific brand/product, one of the constructs is named *Company/brand identification* (see Section 5.3.3) in order to

retain consistency with extant literature. Nevertheless, this construct refers to the identification which the respondents have with the fictitious product used as the basis of this study.

### **1.7.7 Racial Terminology**

In South Africa, the terminology used to describe race is a very sensitive issue as during the apartheid era, language was used by the dominant (white) group to denigrate and marginalize the other cultural groups in the country (Afolayan, 2004). Accordingly, this thesis attempts to use more acceptable and less subjective terms (Christopher, 2002). Thus, Afrikaner is used instead of Boer, Khoisan population refers to all the autochthonous groups and the term 'coloured' is used to refer to South African mixed-race people. Additionally, black South Africans are referred to, depending on the context, as 'blacks', 'Bantu' and 'Africans', although the term 'Bantu' (Xhosa for 'people') was originally pejorative and all South African racial groups can claim to be African because they are citizens of South Africa (Afolayan, 2004). In this study the terms 'blacks', 'Bantu' and 'Africans' are used interchangeably. Moreover, Indians are indicated separately from the other Asians because they are the biggest Asian group in South Africa.

## **1.8 Structure of the Thesis**

This thesis contains eight chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction to the study. It sets out the background, problems and methodology of this research. Moreover, it defines the more important terms and justifies the terminology used.

The three following chapters lay the theoretical background necessary to contextualise this study. Thus, Chapter 2 presents the South African multi-racial situation and defines the concepts of racial and ethnic groups. The third chapter focuses on the theoretical models that help explain the effect of an actor's race on advertising effectiveness. The fourth chapter defines the notion of CSR and describes its relationship to multi-racial advertising.

Chapter 5 presents the conceptual framework using the constructs and relationships from the literature. This conceptual framework articulates the relationships between a company's multi-racial advertisement and consumers' evaluations of both the company and its specific

advertisement. The different linkages in the conceptual framework are then translated into hypotheses.

The research design and methodology are discussed in Chapter 6. It begins with a justification of this thesis' philosophical and epistemological position. This position shapes the overall research methodology and especially the experimental procedure (or method) undertaken (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Moreover, the measurement instruments used to collect and analyse the data are described and justified.

Chapter 7 reports on the results obtained from the collected data. These results validate or reject the conceptual framework and associated hypotheses which were proposed in Chapter 5. The first section studies the assumption of normality which is a prerequisite for using univariate and multivariate statistical methods. The second section presents the results related to the effects of viewers' exposure to advertisements on viewers' advertising processing. The three following sections present the results of the main hypotheses (i.e. *Identification Process*, *CSR Process* and *Company/brand identification Model*) and related sub-hypotheses. Each sub-hypothesis (or path diagram) is independently tested by means of analysis of variance or regression analysis. These path diagrams are then converted into a "sub-structural" model (or main hypothesis) for which the path coefficients are calculated and goodness-of-fit criteria assessed. Finally, the fourth section presents the assessment of the entire conceptual framework.

The final chapter provides a theoretical discussion of the findings about multi-racial advertising effects. After describing the contributions of the study, the limitations of the study are discussed and several suggestions for future research are discussed.

## CHAPTER 2

### THE MULTI-RACIAL CONTEXT IN SOUTH AFRICA

#### 2.1 Introduction

The focus of the second chapter is to define the core concepts of racial and ethnic groups and present the South African multi-racial situation. The next section highlights the difference between the concepts of the ethnic group and the racial group. Thereafter, a short overview of the South African multi-racial context is provided which includes a discussion of the historical evolution of the racial criterion.

#### 2.2 Ethnic Group or Racial Group?

Most studies on ethnic marketing have not distinguished between 'racial' and 'ethnic' groups and have used the terms interchangeably (e.g. Appiah, 2001; 2004; Avery, 2003; Faber, O'Guinn and Meyer, 1987; Grier and Deshpandé, 2001; Perkins, Thomas and Taylor, 2000; Petty, Fleming and White, 1999; Pires and Stanton, 2000; Stern, 1999; White and Harkins, 1994; Wilkes and Valencia, 1989). Nonetheless, considering South Africa's turbulent history of race relations, it is important to highlight the difference between these terms.

Since Max Weber's (1961) seminal study, ethnicity has been understood as a multidimensional concept including a sense of common descent, political solidarity vis-à-vis other groups, common customs, religion, language, values, morality and etiquette (Deshpandé, Hoyer and Donthu, 1986). Smith (1991:181) defines an ethnic group "as a reference group called upon by people who share a common history and culture, who may be identifiable because they share similar physical features and values and who, through the process of interacting with each other and establishing boundaries with others, identify themselves as being a member of that group". Consequently, race is just one component of an ethnic group (Grier and Deshpandé, 2001; Smith, 1991). However, the present study focuses almost exclusively on the racial criterion.

There are two perspectives to analyse race. Firstly, race has been examined by previous studies conforming to the *etic* perspective i.e. the researchers' perception of race is merely based on the respondent's skin colour, for example black skin colour as opposed to white skin colour (e.g. Barban, 1969; Barban and Cundiff, 1964; Krugman, 1966; Lester, 1970; Muse,

1971; Solomon, Bush and Hair, 1976; Stafford, Birdwell and van Tassel, 1970). This objective approach has been severely criticized by Hirschman (1981). Hirschman (1981) reproached research using this perspective as being *post hoc* in design and merely descriptive in nature. This approach also allows individuals to be classified into racial groups simply as a function of the researchers' *a priori* perception. Hence, the *etic* perspective ignores individual perceptions and mental states (Stayman and Deshpandé, 1989).

Conversely, Hirschman (1981) and then Stayman and Deshpandé (1989) showed that, following the anthropological tradition of *emic* measurement, researchers could use a more subjective definition of race. Smith (1989) considers that racial identity is not an inherent characteristic but a construct which develops over time. Thus, this individual characteristic is measured by the identification level (or the strength of identification) which has been defined by Hirschman (1981) as the degree of identification that individuals feel towards a given racial group. This may largely determine the level of commitment they experience regarding the norms of the group and thus the degree of influence the group has on their actions and attitudes (Hirschman, 1981).

Therefore, it is argued that this racial identification is best approached as an individual construct. For example, Deshpandé *et al.* (1986) showed that the level of identification is the best way to measure the membership of an individual to a racial group. Also, this construct enables researchers to differentiate between respondents who are strongly attached to their racial group (high-identification) and those who have only weak attachments (low-identification). Importantly, studies concluded that this strength of identification is a determinant of the individual differences in consumer marketplace behaviour (e.g. Deshpandé *et al.*, 1986; Hirschman, 1981; Green, 1999). For instance, Green's (1999) results pointed out that for a race-based product, high-identification blacks (*versus* low-identification blacks) are more favourable towards advertising featuring black actors placed in racially targeted media. However, the identification level, as subjective measurement, can also be combined with an objective one. For instance, the respondents of Stayman and Deshpandé's (1989) survey indicated which racial group(s) they belonged to (i.e. objective measurement: self-designated racial group) and then specified how strongly they identified with that group (subjective measurement: identification level).

In conclusion, the membership of a racial group “is not just who one is, but how one feels” (Stayman and Deshpandé, 1989:369). Thus, racial identification is an important element of the individuals’ self-identity (Adam, 1995); especially in South Africa due to its turbulent history of race relations.

## **2.3 The Racial Criterion History**

The South African population is characterized by a large degree of heterogeneity and multi-racialism. The tumultuous South African history has shaped its society and made South Africa one of the most racially complex societies in the world (Afolayan, 2004). Indeed, although South Africa was originally populated by the Khoisan people, many races (such as the Bantus, Europeans, Indonesians, Indians and Chinese) have subsequently immigrated to South Africa and completed the national patchwork of races. Nevertheless, while history has shaped South African racial diversity, the apartheid regime emphasized the differences between each of the races. This section presents a historical overview of the racial situation from the establishment of the apartheid regime in 1948 to the doctrinal evolutions of the non-racial society born in 1994.

### **2.3.1 The Apartheid Regime**

Apartheid, which means apartness, was a doctrine of racial and political hegemony which argued “that each race and nation should be kept entirely apart, socially and territorially, and allowed to develop along its own inherent and unique cultural lines” (Afolayan, 2004:36). This doctrine suggested that because certain races are incompatible with each other, they must be kept apart and developed separately. Apartheid rhetoric confused notions such as culture and race in accordance with the dominant South African school of anthropological thought at the time, *Volkekunde* (van der Waal and Ward, 2006). This theory provided the intellectual authority to the apartheid regime in claiming that Africans were different from Europeans. This diversity was not only in terms of race but also in term of civilization (Cocks, 2001). This philosophy was used to justify the main objective of the apartheid government, which was to maintain and reinforce Europeans’ power by implementing a series of harsh racist laws segregating the country along strict racial/cultural lines (Kaba, 2001). For example, in 1950, three racial categories were established: white, coloured and black (and later also Indian). The law prohibited interracial marriage, determined where people could live in accordance with

their skin colour and obliged racial separation in public areas such as schools, hospitals, transport, toilets, and beaches (Omer-Cooper, 1994).

After decades of domestic and international pressure, apartheid legislation was removed from the statute books, and the first multi-racial elections were held in 1994. A new regime emerged, referenced as the 'new' South Africa (Muldoon, 2003). The political system moved away from the over-affirmation of racial differences to focusing on developing a non-racial society (Adam, 1995).

### **2.3.2 1994: Birth of a Non-racial Society**

After the first democratic elections in 1994, South Africa's doctrine attempted to deny that race would still be a societal issue. According to Adams (1995:459), the principle of the nation is an ideology of a non-racial society which rejects a racial nation "in favour of a civic nation, based on equal individual rights, regardless of origin, and equal recognition of all cultural traditions in the public sphere". It was argued that the 'new' South African non-racial society should neither recognize nor tolerate race as a public and legal criterion of exclusion.

In order to achieve this aim, the government made many changes to the laws of the country and introduced many new policies. Paradoxically, many of the government's attempts to redress racial discrimination were racially based and in contradiction to official policy of non-racialism (Adam, 1995). In reality, South Africa resembles more a multicultural rather than a non-racial society. This model is consistent with countries such as Canada or Australia, where the diverse cultures/races "are officially recognized and celebrated in the state policy of multiculturalism. The policy of recognition and financial subsidies for diverse ethnic groups originates from the desire to forge a new image of tolerance" (Adam, 1995:467). Consistent with this approach, a classification was adopted in South Africa to differentiate between the races of the 45 million South Africans (Statistics South Africa, 2005) according to four different groups.

The first group is the Africans (or blacks) who inhabited South African soil before the European settlements. The generic name of "Africans" covers numerous languages and cultures such as the Xhosa, Zulu, Pedi, Ndebele, North Sotho, South Sotho, Swazi, Tsonga, Tswana and Venda. In the 2001 census, nearly 35.5 million people classified themselves as African, 79% of the total South African population (Statistics South Africa, 2005).

The second group consists of people of European origin. This group is also divided into several cultures such as the Afrikaners, English-speakers, Portuguese, Greeks and Jews (Afolayan, 2004). About 9.5% of the total population, who number 4.3 million citizens (Statistics South Africa, 2005), classify themselves as white. The two first groups (Afrikaners and English-speakers) are predominantly emphasized in South African society because of their size and their role in the past. The Afrikaners are mainly the descendants of the first Dutch settlers who founded the Cape Colony in 1652 who, with some French Huguenots and German immigrants (Afolayan, 2004), over time have developed their own language (Afrikaans) and churches. On the other hand, the English-speaking South African Europeans are predominately descendants of a later group of immigrants originating largely from England, Ireland, Scotland or Wales.

The third group is composed of the coloureds. Although Afrikaans is mainly their first language (Afolayan, 2004), the biological and cultural differences within this group are vast (Muriass, 2002). Many coloureds have Khoisan ancestors, whereas others are the descendants of slaves imported from Madagascar, Indonesia, Malaysia, Ceylon or India. Also, coloureds consist of a blend between these groups and Dutch settlers and are estimated to number 4 million citizens which amount to 9% of the total population (Statistics South Africa, 2005).

The last population grouping is of Indian and Asian origin. Many inhabit the province of KwaZulu-Natal where their ancestors were originally recruited as labourers on sugar farms. The Indian/Asian group forms about 2.5% of the South African population and slightly less than 1.2 million citizens classify themselves as belonging to this group (Statistics South Africa, 2005).

Obviously, this simplistic classification does not provide a comprehensive image of the heterogeneous South African society (Muriass, 2002). However, it was implemented by the South African government in order to describe roughly the South African population so as to facilitate new policies to benefit populations formerly disadvantaged by apartheid. South Africa now appears to over-affirm its heterogeneity and multiculturalism. Idioms such as the 'the New South Africa', 'Nation-building' or 'Rainbow Nation' are widespread at all levels of society and the economy.

## **2.4 Conclusion**

The aim of this first chapter was to define and present the key concept of this thesis, namely race. This individual characteristic, firstly understood as physical and then as a social construct, is currently widely used by marketers to improve their marketing plan. Indeed, marketers consider that each racial group has its own needs, which must be satisfied in a specific way. Thus, they attempt to target it with specific products or services.

One of the methods which enables marketers to make a racial target receptive for their products or services is advertising. Therefore, researchers are interested in gaining knowledge about the effects of actors' race in commercial advertising on the racial group targeted, but also on the racial group not targeted.

## CHAPTER 3

### THE EFFECTS OF ACTORS' RACE IN ADVERTISING

#### 3.1 Introduction

This third chapter presents an overview of the research studying the effects of actors' race on the effectiveness of advertising. The chapter starts off by providing a short overview of the first studies run in this domain. In the next section the psychological theories underlying psychological processes of viewers exposed to advertisements containing black or white actors are discussed. Based on these theories, researchers improved their knowledge about the influence of actors' race on the effectiveness of advertising. The theories of advertising effectiveness are then presented and finally, the last section describes the studies which have considered actors' race as a veritable communication cue.

#### 3.2 Birth of Racial Advertising Research

Studies about the effects of actors' race, essentially black actors/models, on advertising started in the middle of the 1960s (see Cui, 2001). These studies resulted from the emergence of a black middle class in the United States and the need for marketers to target this segment without alienating white consumers (e.g. Barban, 1969; Barban and Cundiff, 1964; Cagley and Cardozo, 1970; Stafford, Birdwell and van Tassel, 1970). These first studies often had equivocal results (see Whittler, 1991 for a review). For instance, among studies which analysed white responses towards a black model, some of them suggested a positive reaction (Barban and Cundiff, 1964), whilst some found a neutral reaction (Choudhury and Schmid, 1974; Block, 1972) and others a negative reaction (Cagley and Cardozo, 1970; Muse, 1971). According to Green (1999), these differences are due to the variety of measures used, such as purchase intention (Schlinger and Plummer, 1972), brand recall (Choudhury and Schmid, 1974), emotional response through assessment of pupil dilation (Stafford, Birdwell and van Tassel, 1970; Krugman, 1966) or sales (Solomon, Bush and Hair, 1976).

By and large, these first racial studies concluded that when respondents are exposed to an advertisement with black actors, black respondents easily accept their presence and have a better attitude vis-à-vis the brand, while white respondents are not extremely negative towards the advertisement (Whittler, 1991). Hence, these studies comforted advertisers about the use of black models to target black consumers without fearing a negative reaction from white

consumers (e.g. Schlinger and Plummer, 1972; Stafford, Birdwell and van Tassel, 1970; Tolley and Goett, 1971).

However, Whittler (1989:288) criticized these first racial studies for paying little attention to the underlying psychological processes of viewers when they are exposed to advertisements containing black or white actors. With regard to this criticism, current studies link the effects of an actor's race with the social psychology theories which are presented below.

### **3.3 Social Psychological Theories**

Studies argue that sources (or models or actors) perceived as similar by their audience are more likely to encourage persuasion than sources perceived as dissimilar (e.g. Brock, 1965; Burnstein, Stotland and Zander, 1961; McGuire, 1985; Simons, Berkowitz and Moyer, 1970). Indeed, similar sources are perceived as more credible, more trustworthy and more respectable by the targeted audience (Simons *et al.*, 1970). The corollary to the above premise is that a high level of similarity between the viewer of an advertisement and the actor leads to more positive attitudes towards the advertising (Aaker, Brumbaugh and Grier, 2000). In the multi-racial advertising context, Whittler (1991:390) argues that an actor's race may induce viewers to infer a similarity or dissimilarity judgment. Several social psychological theories have explained the reasons for this influence, such as the Identification Theory, the In-group Bias Theory and the Intercultural Accommodation Theory, which are discussed in the parts below.

#### **3.3.1 Identification Theory**

This theory, stemming from Kelman's (1961; 1958) theory of social influence on changes in attitude, argues that an *Identification Process* occurs "when an individual adopts behaviour derived from another person or group because this behaviour is associated with a satisfying self-defining relationship to this person or group" (Kelman, 1961:63). Kelman (1961) defines this relationship as one that forms a part of the viewer's self-image. Thus, identification consists of viewers establishing or maintaining a relationship to models/actors in order to comply with their own self-definition (*ibid.*). This process arises when individuals change their opinion to establish, maintain or enhance their relationship to the source advocating this opinion (Aaker *et al.*, 2000; Whittler, 1989).

Applied to advertising research, the Identification Theory suggests that racially sensitive viewers would react favourably to an advertisement using an actor from their racial group due to a positive identification process. Indeed, wanting to feel good about themselves, black (white) viewers may try to develop a positive association with a black (white) actor who is portrayed favourably. Thus, through this *Identification Process* their own self-image is enhanced and they would develop confidence in this actor's judgments and consider her/him as representing their own interests and needs (Whittler, 1989). Hence, they would probably accept the black (white) actor's testimony, and change their attitude towards the advertisement and the brand. Conversely, the same viewers exposed to an actor of a different race would experience an unfavourable *Identification Process*, which would have negative consequences for the advertisement and the brand (Whittler, 1991).

In conclusion, the Identification Theory supposes that individuals who possess a high-identification with their own racial group will reject automatically people or sources from other racial groups. This postulate is not held by the second social psychological theory, the In-group Bias Theory, which is presented below.

### **3.3.2 In-group Bias Theory**

This theory, developed by Brewer (1979), suggests that individuals, as members of a group, have a bias towards the other members of their group. In other words, when a social interaction occurs, each individual produces comparisons and/or evaluations that enable them to judge their level of social distance from the contact or source. Then, as a function of this social distance, the bias towards their own group will influence their social behaviour. Hence, blacks should have a more favourable response towards an advertisement featuring a black actor, similarly for whites towards a white actor and so on (Williams, Qualls and Grier, 1995).

According to Qualls and Moore (1990) and Green (1999), this theory enables *a posteriori* justification of the findings emphasising a preference for a same-race actor. For instance, an in-group bias explained Kerin's (1979) findings which pointed out that in evaluating advertising, racial features dominate product quality ratings. Blacks associated better product quality with black models, whereas whites associated better quality with white models.

However, unlike the Identification Theory, this theory does not necessarily imply that the opposite view of a bias in favour of in-group members is a bias against out-group members. Characteristically, it may occur that out-group members want to communicate towards in-group members. The Theory of Intercultural Accommodation examines how the members of targeted group react to this attempt.

### **3.3.3 Theory of Intercultural Accommodation**

This theory, based on Socio-linguistic (or Speech) Accommodation Theory (SAT), attempts to understand how individuals react to communication efforts undertaken by persons outside their group. It suggests that as A becomes more similar to B, the likelihood that B will evaluate A favourably will increase (Koslow, Shamdasani and Touchstone, 1994). The term intercultural in “Intercultural Accommodation” means that communication occurs between at least two different cultural groups. In the advertising context, the communication comes mainly from a white advertiser or marketer to the black or Hispanic targets (Holland and Gentry, 1999). In their study on Hispanic consumers’ reactions to the use of the Spanish language (*versus* English) in advertisements, Koslow *et al.* (1994) found that the use of Spanish increased perceptions of the advertiser’s sensitivity to Hispanic culture, and these perceptions were associated positively with affect towards the advertisement.

Holland and Gentry (1997; 1999) extended the Intercultural Accommodation Theory and added to the languages of the advertisement several other cultural symbols such as music, art, clothes and actor. In order to conceptualise these symbols’ influence on the effectiveness of advertising, they proposed an Intercultural Accommodation Model (Holland and Gentry, 1999:70). This model points out that when a marketer borrows cultural symbols from ethnic consumers in an attempt to enhance communication with them, consumers recognising the symbols will make attributions about their use, will have an affective response to them, and finally will change their behaviour (Holland and Gentry, 1999). Thus, a successful accommodation attempt results in the evocation of positive affective, cognitive, and behavioural responses towards the advertiser or marketer using cultural or ethnical symbols (Holland and Gentry, 1999).

In conclusion, theories of social psychology have enabled researchers to understand the psychological processes related to viewers’ exposure to an advertisement containing white or

black models. Based on these theories, studies have considered the actors' race as a veritable non-verbal communication cue (or stimulus) which affects the effectiveness of advertising.

### **3.4 Actors' Race: Non-verbal Stimulus**

By definition, non-verbal stimuli are any advertising elements other than the verbal components (Galan, 2003). In their study, Haley, Richardson and Baldwin (1984) placed advertising non-verbal stimuli within seventeen categories (namely paralanguage, glance, proxemics, gestures, body language, facial cues, spokesperson characteristics, music, dress, semiotics, setting, tonality/mood, commercial format, sound effects, deception cues, camera use and brand identification). One of these categories concerned the spokesperson (in other words actor or model) characteristics and how s/he is perceived by the viewer (*ibid.*). Presumably, race is a salient characteristic of spokesperson.

This section presents the advertising models explaining the influence of non-verbal stimuli on advertising effectiveness. After the description of the evolution of these models over time, both of the models generally employed in advertising research are introduced.

#### **3.4.1 The Cognitive Approach to Advertising Effectiveness**

Analysis of the non-verbal elements in advertising is a recent research field. Until the 1980s, academic works merely considered the central verbal message. According to Hecker and Stewart (1988), the emergence of this new field resulted from the attention of the researchers to the affective and behavioural responses to advertising. Indeed, the 1970s are dominated by the cognitive approach to consumer behaviour. This approach details the path followed by consumers and dissects all stages of the decision-making process (Olshavsky and Granbois, 1979). Firstly, consumers are confronted with a multiplicity of options (brands, products, actions), and must make a choice. Then they elaborate and maintain some evaluative criteria that facilitate their choice of one option/brand instead of the others. Finally, their choice of the final option/brand results from a decision rule (the best choice or the first satisfying choice). Consequently, this cognitive approach supposes that individuals are active, rational and aware: they draw up objectives, look for information, deliberate on this information and choose (Derbaix and Pham, 1989).

However, since the 1980s this cognitive model has been widely criticized. Specifically, Zajonc (1980) critiques this model for considering the affective reactions such as liking, disliking, preference, evaluation, or the experience of pleasure or displeasure, as postcognitive. In contrast, he argues that affective reactions to stimuli are the very first reactions and occur without extensive cognitive encoding (Zajonc, 1980). Therefore, cognitive responses are used merely to justify a decision and not to take it (*ibid.*). Following Zajonc (1980), new paradigms appeared around the affective reactions, such as the “mere exposure effect” which suggests that “consumers form their preferences on the basis of elements such liking, feelings and emotions induced by the advertisement or familiarity triggered by mere exposure to the advertisement, rather than product/brand attribute information” (Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999:29).

Nevertheless, the absence of cognition in these models has also been criticized. Indeed the affective models seem difficult to demonstrate because cognition usually intervenes in each marketing measurement (Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999). Moreover, Zajonc (1980) considers that because the affective reactions are much more influenced by the context of the surround and cannot be focused on as easily as perceptual and cognitive processes, they are less subject to control by attentive process. Nonetheless, the decomposition of the persuasion process in different sequences enables researchers to run accurate studies and analyses (Lombardot, 2004).

Hence, actual studies give more credit to the affective approach without omitting the cognitive process. Some models have been theorised including both cognitive and affective ‘paradigms’. These models – called non-exclusively cognitive models – are presented below.

### **3.4.2 The Non-exclusively Cognitive Models**

This section introduces the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981; 1986) and the works of MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch (1986) which are considered as the two major sources of non-exclusively cognitive models used in advertising studies. However, before the description of these models, the key concept in each of them, namely the attitudes and especially attitude towards the advertising, is presented.

#### 3.4.2.1 Attitude towards the Advertising

The attitude towards the advertising is defined as “a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion” (Lutz, 1985:53). This conceptual definition refers to the attitude towards the advertising as comprising solely an evaluative or affective response to the commercial stimulus (MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989). The cognitive and behavioural responses to the advertisement are analysed respectively in terms of cognition (advertising cognition or brand cognition) and purchase intention (MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986). Cognitive, affective, and behavioural reactions compose the advertising’s persuasion process. Typically, numerous studies have pointed out the mediating influence of the attitude towards the advertising on this process between the cognitive and the behavioural responses (e.g. Brown and Stayman, 1992; Lutz, MacKenzie and Belch, 1983; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989; MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986; Olney, Holbrook and Batra, 1991; Shimp, 1981). Hence, the attitude towards the advertising is designated as the best indicator of the advertising effectiveness (Brown and Stayman, 1992). In other words, to succeed an advertising campaign the modification of the viewers’ attitude towards the advertising has become the main challenge for advertisers.

Numerous advertising models explain the modification of the viewers’ attitude towards the advertising through the use of non-verbal elements such as the Heuristic-Systematic model (Chaiken, 1980), Greenwald and Leavitt’s model (1984), Batra and Ray’s framework (1985), and MacInnis and Jaworski’s model (1989) (see Moser, 1998; Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999 for a review). Nonetheless, the literature refers mostly to two predominant models (Lombardot, 2004): the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981; 1986) and the works of MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch (1986), which are described below.

#### 3.4.2.2 The Elaboration Likelihood Model

The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) was the reference in persuasive hierarchy models (Galan, 2003; Lombardot, 2004). Stemming from Social Psychology, it describes the formation of attitude according to motivation and involvement levels. Petty and Cacioppo (1981, 1986) consider that the persuasion process uses two distinct paths. On the one hand, a central route involves a cognitive effort. Individuals focus their attention on the message and use their past experiences and knowledge in order to evaluate and elaborate on the information presented. On the other hand, a peripheral route is followed when individuals do

not elaborate about the message content but use elements around the message for the attitude formation. These elements can be the number of message arguments, the source's characteristics (expertise, attractiveness and credibility), the music, and the affective reactions provoked by the advertising (Moser, 1998).

Because of their capacity to generate a cognitive effort among viewers, the attitudes formed through the central route are stronger. Indeed, these attitudes tend to exhibit greater persistence over time and greater resistance to counter-persuasive attempts, and have a greater ability to predict behaviour (Petty, Fleming and White, 1999).

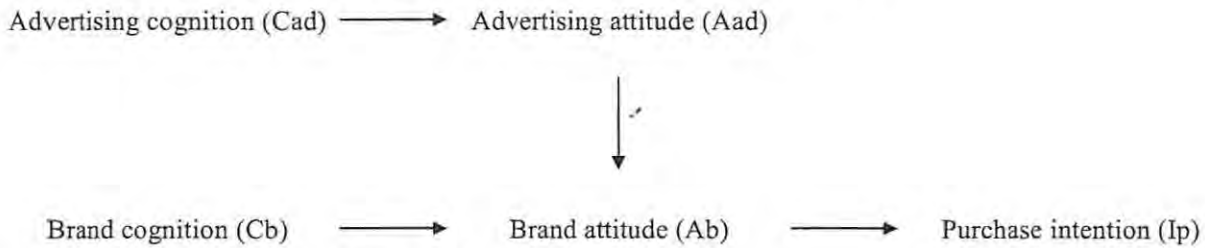
The main criticism (Kahle and Homer, 1985; Pham, 1996) of ELM is that the peripheral influence and the central influence cannot coexist: the persuasion occurs only by one route. Several models attempt to remedy this dichotomy in modelling both the routes influencing the consumer's attitude simultaneously: the Heuristic-Systematic Model (Chaiken, 1980) or Batra and Ray's framework (1986). Nonetheless, the more "robust" model (Brown and Stayman, 1992:46) is the Dual-Mediation Hypothesis (*DMH*) developed by MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch's (1986) study.

#### 3.4.2.3 MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch's (1986) Study

MacKenzie *et al.* (1986) identify four mechanisms to explain advertising effectiveness: Independent Influences, Reciprocal Mediation, Affect Transfer, and Dual-Mediation hypotheses. Each of these models is based on the hierarchy-of-effects framework; with cognition (i.e. *Advertising cognition* and *Brand cognition*) preceding affect (i.e. *Advertising attitude* and *Brand attitude*) which in turn precedes conation (i.e. *Purchase intention*) (Lavidge and Steiner, 1961). MacKenzie *et al.* (1986) constructed these hypotheses from the existing literature.

Firstly, the Affect Transfer Hypothesis supposes that when the viewer is exposed to an advertisement, the sentiments which will occur are directly transferred to the brand (Aad → Ab). This model, represented in Figure 3.1, is the same as ELM's peripheral route.

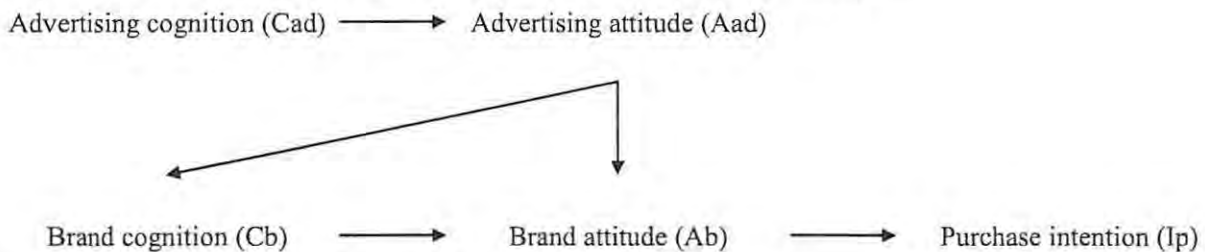
**Figure 3.1: Affect Transfer Hypothesis**



Source: MacKenzie *et al.* (1986:131)

The *DMH* considers that the attitude towards the advertising (*Aad*) directly and indirectly influences the attitude towards the brand (*Ab*). Thus, the affective reaction towards an advertisement (*Aad*) influences also how viewers establish or change their beliefs about the brand (*Cb*). This model, illustrated in Figure 3.2, is an important change compared with the *ELM* model because it supposes that the peripheral and central routes are interdependent and not substitutable.

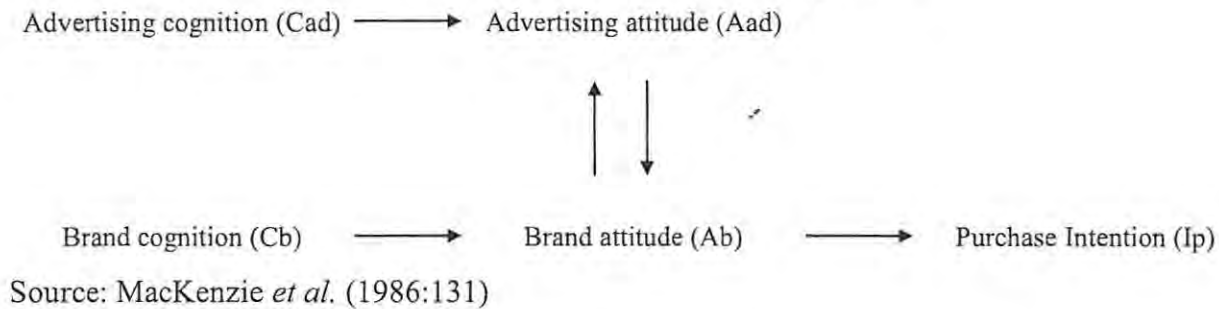
**Figure 3.2: Dual-Mediation Hypothesis**



Source: MacKenzie *et al.* (1986:131)

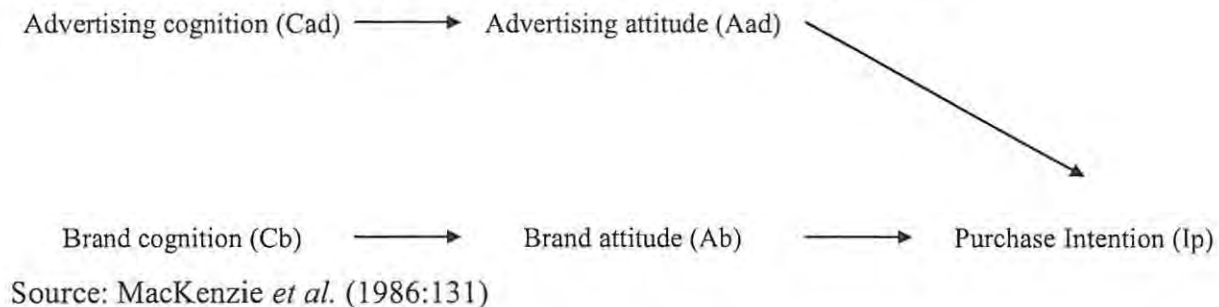
The third model, the *Reciprocal Mediation Hypothesis* (see Figure 3.3), holds that consumers try to maintain an equilibrium between their attitude towards the advertisement (*Aad*) and their attitude towards the brand (*Ab*). Hence, when the brand is unknown, the attitude towards the advertising influences the attitude towards the brand (i.e.  $Aad \rightarrow Ab$ ). Conversely, when the brand is known, the attitude towards the brand influences the attitude towards the advertising (i.e.  $Ab \rightarrow Aad$ ).

**Figure 3.3: Reciprocal Mediation Hypothesis**



Finally, the Independent Influences Hypothesis implies that there is no link between the attitude towards the advertising (Aad) and the attitude towards the brand (Ab). In other words, as represented in Figure 3.4, both attitudes influence the purchase intention separately and independently.

**Figure 3.4: Independent Influences Hypothesis**



The test of the four hypotheses results revealed that the Independent Influences Hypothesis (see Figure 3.4) is the worst predictor of advertising effectiveness; whereas the Affect Transfer (Figure 3.1) and the Reciprocal Mediation Hypotheses (Figure 3.3) showed equivalent results (MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986) and that the best model is the Dual-Mediation Hypothesis which is set out in Figure 3.2. Support for this model has since been confirmed by numerous other studies (e.g. Brown and Stayman 1992; Homer, 1990; Miniard, Bahtla and Rose, 1990).

In conclusion, the development of these the non-exclusively cognitive models has allowed researchers to study the influences of non-verbal communication cues on the effectiveness of advertising. Specifically, the actor's race is considered as a cue which influences both affective and cognitive routes (Whittler and Spira, 2002). The next section reviews the finding of the studies investigating these influences.

### **3.5 Review of the Effects of Actors' Race**

The effects of the actors' race on the persuasiveness of the advertising depend on several variables. For ease of reading, this study distinguishes between two groups of variables: the intrinsic variables which pertain to the consumer's personality, and the extrinsic variables which concern the consumer's environment.

#### **3.5.1 Intrinsic Variables**

As noted previously, the Identification Theory (Kelman, 1961) implies that the viewers' racial sensibility influences their reactions towards the advertising (Whittler and DiMeo, 1991). Thus, studies distinguished two moderator variables: the viewer racial sensibility towards their own race, namely the identification level; and the attitude vis-à-vis another race, namely the prejudice level.

##### **3.5.1.1 Identification Level**

Whittler (1991) used the concept of high-identification/low-identification in his racial advertising research. In his experiment, Whittler (1991) presented to 140 black students five print advertisements including two fictional advertisements, which promoted a portable word processor and a liquid laundry detergent. Two versions of these advertisements were created; one featured a white male and the second a black male; only one of these two versions was shown to each student. Based on the Heuristic-Systematic Model (Chaiken, 1980) and the Identification theory (Kelman, 1961), Whittler's (1991) results showed that there was a strong interaction between the actor's race and the viewer's identification level. Indeed, although all black respondents perceive themselves as more similar to black than white actors, the effect is higher for high-identification than for low-identification respondents. Likewise, Whittler (1991) showed that this interaction influences the viewer's identification with the actor; high-identification respondents identified more strongly with black than white actors, whereas low-identification respondents showed no difference. Moreover, when the actor is black, black respondents show a greater purchase intention than when the actor is white. According to Whittler (1991), this result suggests that a better loyalty exists towards companies using black actors promoting their products. Finally, Whittler's (1991) study highlights the primordial influence of the similarity perceived with the actor, in accordance with the theory presented earlier.

Similarly, Williams, Qualls and Grier (1995) found that when black respondents were exposed to an integrated advertisement (i.e. multi-racial advertising with both black and white actors), high-identification respondents identified more strongly with the advertisement's actors than low-identification respondents. Also, when black respondents were exposed to an all-white advertisement (i.e. solely with white actors), both high-identification and low-identification respondents were lower in their level of identification with the advertisement's actors. Williams, Qualls and Grier's (1995) research also tried to introduce the concept of identification level in the analysis of the white respondents' reactions. However, although high-identification white respondents had slightly higher levels of identification with actors in the all-white advertisements than low-identification white respondents, the difference was not statistically significant.

However, both studies focused only on the peripheral influence of the actors' race and did not examine the quality of the argument in the advertisement. Responding to this, Whittler and Spira (2002:300) pointed out that the "model's race may influence persuasion in more than one way". Indeed, Whittler and Spira (2002) obtained several results which supported the notion that a black actor positively influenced high-identification blacks' cognition. Firstly, high-identification blacks who were exposed to a black actor (*versus* a white actor) perceived the message as stronger and more persuasive, whereas the actor's race did not influence the low-identification respondents. Furthermore, when the actor was black, the argument's strength did not influence the high-identification blacks' product evaluations and related thoughts. Consistent with ELM (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986), this result suggests that the process of high-identification blacks is positively biased when they are exposed to a black actor and, regardless of the argument's strength, they are more highly motivated to generate favourable rather than unfavourable thoughts (Whittler and Spira, 2002).

Such bias stems from the similarity perceived between the high-identification black viewers and the black actor. Consequently, this reaction can be explained by the In-group Bias Theory (Brewer, 1979), i.e. "high-identification blacks may have identified the black model as a member of their in-group and in-group favouritism may have been displayed in their evaluations; low-identification blacks did not display in-group favouritism" (Whittler and Spira, 2002:300).

Whittle and Spira (2002) pointed out the two ways the actor's race affects the advertising persuasion. First, it is a variable influencing persuasion by the peripheral process, with respect to previous studies. Second, it is a variable affecting the direction of argument elaboration by producing a positive or negative motivational bias to related thoughts. Moreover, this research confirmed the primordial role of the viewer's racial sensibility in the persuasion process. Furthermore, while the black viewers were analysed in terms of high- or low-identification, the white viewers were studied in terms of high- and low-prejudice.

### 3.5.1.2 Prejudice Level

The first studies, which examined the effect of a black actor on a white audience, found that an integrated (or multi-racial) advertisement was generally preferred to advertising with solely black or white actors (Barban and Cundiff, 1964; Barban, 1969; Stafford, Birdwell and van Tassel, 1970). Nonetheless, these studies have been criticized because they used convenience samples composed solely of students (Tolley and Goett, 1971; Sears, 1986), who are more tolerant towards other groups than the general public (Lever, 1969).

Therefore, Tolley and Goett (1971) examined reactions of lower-social class white viewers who, *a priori*, have a higher prejudice level. Nevertheless, Tolley and Goett's (1971) study confirmed previous results and showed that the presence of a black actor in an advertisement does not provoke negative reactions among white viewers. Specifically, Tolley and Goett's (1971) study used semi-structured interviews in order to analyse viewers' prejudice levels. The interviewer asked directly what the interviewee felt towards the black actor present in the advertisement. They found that 11% of respondents were shocked, 37% expressed good feelings while the rest were neutral. However, given the problem of social desirability, which may influence the answers of semi-structured interviews in studies on race and ethnicity (see Gaertner and Dovidio, 1986), the findings of this study must be treated with prudence.

Cagley and Cardozo (1970), and later Bush, Hair and Solomon (1979), distinguished among white viewers, those with a high level of prejudice (high-prejudice) and those with a low level of prejudice (low-prejudice). In order to measure this distinction and delete some inherent bias, the researchers, after recovering an initial questionnaire about the products, the advertisement etc., gave a second questionnaire to the respondents. This was supposed to be an "opinion survey", totally independent from the first questionnaire. In reality, this second one measured the level of prejudice. Bush *et al.* (1979) found that when exposed to only a

black actor, the low-prejudice whites respond more positively to the advertising than high-prejudice whites; when the only actor is white, high-prejudice respondents have a better attitude towards the advertisement than the low-prejudice respondents; and finally the attitude towards integrated advertising was the same regardless of the prejudice level.

Whittler (1991), then Whittler and DiMeo (1991), pointed out that high-prejudice whites expressed more difficulties in identifying with a black actor than with a white actor, whereas low-prejudice whites perceived no differences in their identification with white or black actors. Similarly, the identification with the black actor was higher among the low-prejudice than the high-prejudice groups. Furthermore, these studies (Whittler, 1991; Whittler and DiMeo, 1991) confirmed that race is a peripheral element in the advertising.

However, White and Harkins (1994) found that race is not just a peripheral element. Indeed, when white respondents were exposed to a white source, in a high-involvement condition, strong arguments were more persuasive than weak arguments; whereas there were no differences between strong and weak arguments in a low-involvement condition. "This pattern is typical of central and peripheral processing under low- and high-involvement" (Whittler and Spira, 2002:292). On the other hand, white participants exposed to a black source were affected by argument quality regardless of the involvement condition. The researchers concluded that the motivation for low-involvement processing with a black source stems from whites' ambivalent attitudes (White and Harkins, 1994:804) outlined by the theory of aversive racism (Gaertner and Dovidio, 1986). Thus, even if whites are concerned with racial equality, they also hold conscious or unconscious negative racial attitudes. Hence, the black actor's race becomes a motivator variable in every context of persuasion.

In their first experiment, Petty, Fleming and White (1999) reported a similar role of motivator variable. Indeed their results showed that when exposed to a black source (*versus* a white source), low-prejudice whites engaged more cognitively and had more favourable attitudes. According to the authors, these whites were motivated to act in a non-prejudicial manner (Petty *et al.*, 1999; Whittler and Spira, 2002). Therefore, the behaviour of these low-prejudice whites conformed to the Watchdog hypothesis, which assumes that some low-prejudice whites "are motivated to process messages from stigmatised sources because [they] are aware that these groups are viewed negatively by many in society and are the target of discrimination" (Petty *et al.*, 1999:21). This concept of whites acting against discrimination is

also used by Reed (2003). He develops the phenomenon of 'White Guilt' in which "a person who identifies strongly with being Caucasian experiences culpability, shame, or remorse over his or her groups' perceived past actions and tries to compensate for them by reacting more positively towards other groups than towards their own in-group" (Reed, 2003:11).

In conclusion, the effects of an actor's race on the advertising effectiveness depend on several intrinsic variables. Viewers respond to an advertisement containing a white or black actor more in line with their own racial sensitivity than according to their skin colour. However, some extrinsic variables also play an important role in the effects of an actor's race on advertising effectiveness. These extrinsic variables are presented below.

### **3.5.2 Extrinsic variables**

Several variables, which are not related to the individual's personality, influence the actors' race effects, such as ethnic salience, racial 'repartition' in multi-racial advertising, and the advertising context.

#### **3.5.2.1 Distinctiveness Theory**

This theory, developed by McGuire, suggests that the spontaneous salience of a personal characteristic to the self-concept is determined by a process of "perceptual selectivity" (McGuire and Pandawer-Singer, 1976:744). The uniqueness of a characteristic in any given context increases the likelihood that it will become part of one's identity at that moment (Grier and Brumbaugh, 2005). For example, McGuire, McGuire, Child and Fujioka (1978) indicated that a black woman is more likely to be aware of her gender when she is associating with black men, but more aware of her race when she is associating with white women. The conclusion of the above premise is that an individual's distinctive traits, in relation to other people in the environment, will be more salient to the individual than more commonly shared traits (Grier and Brumbaugh, 2005; McGuire *et al.*, 1978; McGuire and Padawer-Singer 1976).

Empirically, McGuire *et al.* (1978) tested the distinctiveness argument using the "Spontaneous Self-Concept" measure (Grier and Brumbaugh, 2005). This measure requires participants to answer the open-ended question: "Please tell us about yourself in your own words". As a result, the salience of the distinctive traits must appear naturally in the interviewee's discourse. In a study on ethnic salience in an American school classroom,

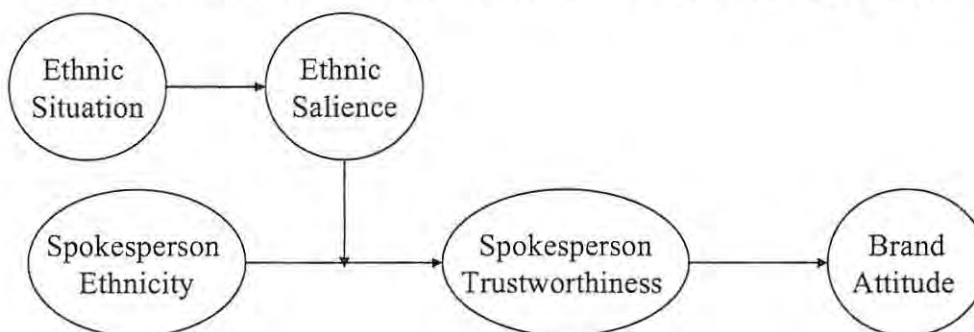
where white students were the majority, McGuire *et al.* (1978) found that 14% of the minority Hispanic and 17% of the minority black students spontaneously mentioned their ethnicity in describing themselves, whereas only 1% of the majority white students did so. Hence, appears that ethnicity is less salient among members of the majority than among members of minority groups (*ibid.*).

When applied to studies on multi-racial advertising, the Distinctiveness Theory enabled researchers to understand how numerical and social contexts influence advertising effectiveness and the viewer's reactions. These contexts are discussed below.

- Numerical and Social Distinction

Deshpandé and Stayman (1994) applied the Distinctiveness Theory in a study on an actor's effectiveness. They compared the different effects of an actor's race on advertising effectiveness in two American cities differing in ethnic composition: Austin, where whites are the majority (67%) and Hispanics are a minority (19%), *versus* San Antonio, where Hispanics form the majority (54%) and whites are a minority (38%). Their results supported the application of the Distinctiveness Theory to advertising research. Indeed, Deshpandé and Stayman (1994) found that ethnicity was more salient among both whites and Hispanic consumers when they were the numeric minority (i.e. distinctive viewers) in the local population than when they were not. For instance, 21% of Hispanics living in Austin mentioned their ethnicity spontaneously, whereas only 6% in San Antonio did so. Furthermore, an interaction appeared between the effects of ethnic identity and the actor's race on advertising effectiveness, as shown in Figure 3.5.

**Figure 3.5: Model of the Influence of Ethnic Situation on Advertising Effectiveness**



Source: Deshpandé and Stayman (1994:59)

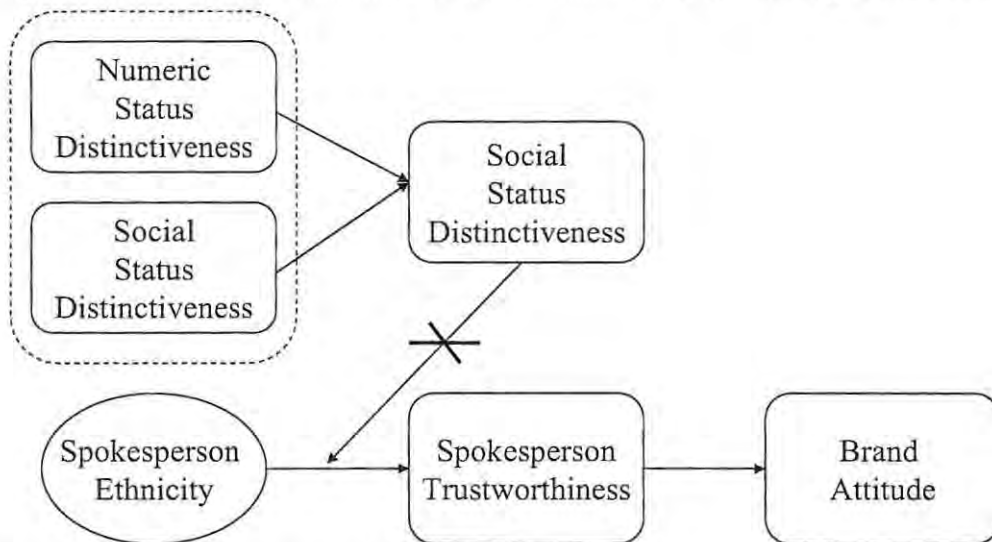
For both numerically and ethnically distinctive consumers (*Ethnic situation*), the interaction between their ethnicity (*Ethnic salience*) and that of the advertisement's actor (*Spokesperson ethnicity*) influenced their trustworthy judgment towards the actor (*Spokesperson trustworthiness*), and therefore their attitude towards the brand (*Brand attitude*) was more positive. Deshpandé and Stayman (1994:63) concluded that "the common practice of using an ethnic spokesperson in ads will work only in a social environment in which the ethnic group is truly in a proportional minority". Targeting numerically distinctive consumers is more effective than targeting numerically non-distinctive consumers.

However, Deshpandé and Stayman (1994) invited future research to define a relevant social environment which cannot be analysed with simply a numerical distinction. Therefore, Grier and Deshpandé (2001) introduced the notion of social distinctiveness. They defined this notion as the "peoples' perceptions of the *relative* meaning and value of an individual characteristic in a social context, which ultimately influences the importance of the dimension to the person's self-concept. The meaning of ethnic group membership acquires significance in relation to other groups within a given context, so ethnicity drives self-attention because of common group experiences, and beliefs that are derived from social realities. Therefore, increased ethnic salience should be evoked not only by numeric distinctiveness, but also by factors that create feelings of being 'socially distinctive'. As a result, responses to targeted advertisements based on numeric minority/majority status should vary given different socio-contextual dynamics" (*ibid.*:218).

Grier and Deshpandé (2001) investigated this hypothesis in an experiment in South Africa, where social status and numeric status are negatively related. In order to control the numerical distinction's variable they recruited black and white subjects in Johannesburg where blacks are the majority (63%) and whites the minority (30%), and in Cape Town where whites are a relative majority to blacks (whites = 24% and blacks = 18%).

They found, like Deshpandé and Stayman's (1994) experiment, that race is more important for blacks in Cape Town and whites in Johannesburg, suggesting race is more salient for the relative numerical minority in a given context. Figure 3.6 represents the persuasion process followed by advertisement viewers.

**Figure 3.6: Model of Consumer Distinctiveness on Advertising Effectiveness**



Source: Developed from Grier and Deshpandé (2001:219)

Grier and Deshpandé's (2001) results suggested that in addition to numeric status (*Numeric status distinctiveness*) demonstrated by Deshpandé and Stayman (1994), social status (*Social status distinctiveness*) is also a significant predictor of *Ethnic salience*, and that racial identity increases among blacks who perceive their group to have a lower relative social status. Grier and Deshpandé (2001) showed that the distinctiveness of both numeric and social status predicts ethnic salience and that this combined model explains significantly more variance than numeric status alone.

However, unlike Deshpandé and Stayman's (1994) findings, the path linking consumers' heightened ethnic identity (*Ethnic salience*) to increased perceptions of trustworthiness (*Spokesperson trustworthiness*) for ethnically similar spokespersons (*Spokesperson ethnicity*) is not supported (this path is crossed out in Figure 3.6). One explanation for this finding might be the higher ratings of both spokesperson trustworthiness and brand attitudes among black subjects with regard to white subjects (Grier and Deshpandé, 2001).

Despite the shortcomings which appeared in Grier and Deshpandé's (2001) study, the transposition of the Distinctiveness Theory onto advertising studies enables researchers and advertisers to argue that targeting minority ethnic members is more effective than targeting majority ethnic member. Based on this premise, researchers examined the impact of targeted advertising on both the target and the non-target viewers.

- Target versus Non-target

As noted previously, ethnic salience moderates significantly the effectiveness of an advertisement which targets a specific population (or targeted advertising). Typically, the effectiveness of targeted advertising is higher when distinctive traits of the viewer are targeted (Grier and Brumbaugh, 2005).

Aaker *et al.* (2000) examined the effect of targeted advertising on viewers from the advertiser's intended audience as well as viewers not in the targeted market. Their results pointed out that targeted advertising produced different psychological processes in step with an individual's distinct trait. On the one hand, individuals who possess a distinct and uncommon personal characteristic in comparison with the rest of their population (for example: black or homosexual) expressed a favourable attitude towards advertising which targeted them because of heightened levels of perceived similarity with a source. In contrast non-distinctive viewers (for example: whites or heterosexuals) expressed a favourable attitude towards advertising which targeted them due to some aspects of advertisement, other than the similarity felt to the sources, which gave them the feeling of being the specific target of the advertisement (i.e. felt targetedness). Aaker *et al.* (2000) found that blacks had more favourable attitudes towards an advertisement featuring black actors than whites had towards an advertisement featuring white actors. Symmetrically, non-distinctive viewers had an unfavourable attitude towards an advertisement which did not target them (i.e. non-targeted advertising) because they perceived dissimilarity with a source, whereas distinctive viewers expressed an unfavourable attitude towards non-targeted advertising as a result of perceived exclusion from the intended target market (*ibid.*). However, although Aaker *et al.*'s (2000) study considered both constructs (i.e. similarity and felt targetedness) as exclusively reciprocal, other studies have analysed similarity as an antecedent of felt targetedness. Typically, Appiah (2001) showed that high levels of similarity between the viewers and the advertisement's actors increased the viewers' belief that they were the intended audience for the advertisement, which in turn led to more positive attitudes about the advertisement and the product.

Furthermore, Grier and Brumbaugh (1999) found that the weak targeting of the distinctive groups (i.e. blacks and homosexuals) and the distinctive viewers' heightened salience of their distinctive characteristics enabled them to create favourable links between themselves and the advertisement (Grier and Brumbaugh, 2005). Typically, among all the advertisement's

viewers, blacks and homosexuals were the only respondents able to decode and understand the cultural cues used to target them. Distinctive viewers are able to understand advertising targeting a distinctive market as well as a non-distinctive market, whereas non-distinctive viewers (i.e. whites and heterosexuals) do not understand advertising targeting a distinctive market.

In conclusion, Grier and Brumbaugh (2005) consider that as a result of the Distinctiveness Theory, ethnic marketing researchers know that ethnic similarity between viewers and sources depicted in advertising enhances advertising responses among targeted ethnic minorities, because similarity judgments are more readily made among these numerically distinctive individuals (Deshpandé and Stayman, 1994) and thereby impact the effectiveness of targeting efforts (Aaker *et al.*, 2000). Forehand and Deshpandé (2001) delved further into the marketing field based on the Distinctiveness Theory in investigating how contextual primes that precede exposure to advertising influence the feelings of distinctiveness. Forehand and Deshpandé's (2001) study is included in a broader multi-racial advertising field which examines the effects of the context in which the advertisement is embedded on the advertisement effectiveness. These effects are discussed below.

### 3.5.2.2 The Advertising Context

As explained in the second chapter (see Section 2.2), ethnicity is understood in marketing research as an *emic* element and the identification level is used to measure this element. However, Stayman and Deshpandé (1989:361) suggested that identification levels and the related behaviour are not only a stable sociological trait of individuals that is manifested in the same way at all times, but also as a transitory psychological state manifested in different ways in different situations. Also, they considered that individuals may face certain situations which influence their level of ethnic awareness. In their experiment, antecedent state was manipulated by having subjects (Anglo-American, Mexican-American or Asian-American) reading a page entitled "a study of Recruitment Bias". This article summarised statistics about hiring biases that may or may not be relevant to their particular ethnic group. With regard to their results, Stayman and Deshpandé (1989) found evidence for 'situationally determined felt ethnicity'. Indeed, Asian-American and Mexican-American subjects in relevant bias conditions increased their strength of ethnic identification. Furthermore, their results supported the mediational effect of 'felt ethnicity' on behaviour. Hence, situation-specific-felt-ethnicity affects the consumer's choice.

Wooten and Galvin (1993) extended this research and showed how the context in which the black-oriented advertising is embedded, influences the black viewers' felt ethnicity, which then acts on the advertising effectiveness. In their study, Wooten and Galvin (1993) created two versions of a mock newspaper. These newspapers – both containing the same advertisement representing a black actor – differed only in the content of the article. The first version contained an article which expressed strong negative opinions about affirmative action programmes and their direct beneficiaries (ethnic condition). The second article discussed trends in television programming during the 1970s without discussing race or ethnicity (non-ethnic condition). The results pointed out that respondents subjected to the 'ethnic condition' reported a greater degree of felt ethnicity than did their counterparts in the 'non-ethnic condition'. Moreover, they showed that black viewers who were exposed to a black-oriented advertising embedded in a race-related article reported a significantly more favourable attitude towards the advertising than did blacks who viewed the same advertising, but in a non-race-related article context.

Forehand and Deshpandé (2001), who based their study on the Distinctiveness Theory highlighted similar results. Indeed, they found that when the contextual prime preceding the advertisement's exposure was targeting the Asian segment, Asian respondents expressed more ethnic sensitivity – called ethnic self awareness – felt more targeted, and responded more positively to an advertisement targeting their cultural group (versus an advertisement which did not target them). In contrast, the use of an ethnic contextual prime had very little effect on the reactions of white participants (Grier and Brumbaugh, 2005). Thus, Forehand and Deshpandé (2001) concluded that their results were consistent with the Distinctiveness Theory. Indeed, using ethnic contextual prime for Asian respondents successfully enhanced the salience and meaningfulness of their ethnic identity which, in turn, impacted their responses to advertising. Conversely, the ethnic contextual prime for white participants did not have such effect because their ethnic identity is neither salient nor meaningful for them. Similarly, Forehand, Deshpandé and Reed (2001) found that Asians, who were distinctive in their local environment, responded more positively to Asian-targeted advertising when they were exposed to primes targeting them (Grier and Brumbaugh, 2005).

In conclusion, studies, which examine the effects of the context of the advertisement (e.g. Forehand and Deshpandé, 2001; Forehand *et al.*, 2001; Stayman and Deshpandé, 1989;

Wooten and Galvin, 1993), have demonstrated that when an isolated advertisement using black (or Asian) actors elicited positive reactions among black (or Asian) viewers, the attitudes towards this advertisement would be reinforced when this latter was embedded in the appropriate context. Other studies showed that the racial composition of the advertisement also influences its effectiveness. The effect of this last extrinsic variable is presented below.

### 3.5.2.3 The Racial Composition of the Multi-racial Advertising

Several studies have examined racial composition in advertising (e.g. Green, 1999; Perkins, Thomas and Taylor, 2000; Szybillo and Jacoby, 1974). These studies analysed the way in which the number of black and/or white actors modifies the viewer's reaction.

Szybillo and Jacoby (1978) found that black viewers preferred advertisements featuring an equal number of black and white actors, namely two blacks and two whites (*versus* advertisements with four blacks/zero white, three blacks/one white, one black/three whites, zero black/four whites). This 'equal' or integrated advertising attracted more consumers and engendered more purchase intentions. Perkins *et al.* (2000) confirmed the influence of racial 'ratio' in the context of recruitment advertising. Specifically, this study examined the influence of the racial composition of employees portrayed in these advertisements on a diverse sample of job-seekers' reactions. Their results pointed out that the racial diversity of employees portrayed in recruitment advertisements may serve as an attraction mechanism for blacks, in terms of company evaluation and feelings of compatibility, but not for whites. Even if authors did not mention the concept of 'company identification', which will be discussed later in this thesis, this seems to be the underlying concept behind these results.

Green (1999) extended these studies by adding the identification level (strong ethnic identifier *versus* weak ethnic identifier), the type of product (race-based products: i.e. liquid foundation *versus* racially neutral products: i.e. perfume) and the media placement (racially targeted *versus* non-targeted media). Green's (1999) results indicated that high-identification blacks generally have more positive evaluations of advertisements that feature black actors in positions of dominance (i.e. two black actors/one white actor) and which are placed in racially targeted media, whereas low-identification blacks have more positive evaluations of advertisements that feature white actors in positions of dominance (i.e. two white actors/one black actor) and are placed in non-targeted media. Furthermore, the results suggested that for racially neutral products, the race of the actor may not be the most important factor in making

purchasing decisions, whereas for race-based products, the race of the actor and the role of the actor in racially integrated settings are very significant. Hence, this research emphasised several variables which influence the advertising effectiveness, namely the advertising's ethnic composition, the type of product and the media placement.

### **3.6 Conclusion**

This chapter pointed out that the effects of actors' race on advertising effectiveness are not neutral. Therefore, advertisers who specifically want to target the black community or the white community should use an actor from that particular community in order to generate an *Identification Process*. Furthermore, this *Identification Process* will be more persuasive if the advertising reaches a distinct or racially sensitive viewer.

However, considering South African history, producing 'mono-racial' advertising may be viewed as the extension of the apartheid system (Orpen, 1975). Conversely, multi-racial advertising could enable advertisers to build 'bridges' between previously antagonist races (Grier and Brumbaugh, 1999). Thus multi-racial advertising, in addition to generating an *Identification Process* with one of the actors, may provide a specific view of the society and as a result, the use of this kind of advertising may be seen as a CSR for South African firms. This aspect is considered in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 4

# CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND MULTI-RACIAL ADVERTISING

### 4.1 Introduction

Pollay (1986) suggests that advertising has both intended and unintended consequences. Intended consequences are traditional business communication goals (Gulas and McKeage, 2000), such as the ethnic targeting as discussed in the previous chapter. On the other hand, the unintended consequences of advertising include all other advertising effects, the most important of which is the social consequences (Pollay, 1986). Several social consequences, mainly negative, may be attributed to advertising. For instance, while Schudson (1984) accused advertising of shaping consciousness and providing a framework for thoughts and feelings, Pollay (1986) considered that the social influence of advertising is widely negative because it tends to encourage materialism and diffuse pernicious values. Typically, the critics of multi-racial or racial advertising accuse these types of advertising of propagating a stereotyped image of the racial minority groups (e.g. Bristor, Lee and Hunt, 1995; Colfax and Sternberg, 1972; Kassarian, 1969; Taylor and Stern, 1997; Zinkhan, Qualls and Biswas, 1990) and of using 'segregationist' targeting strategies (see Pollay, Lee and Carter-Whitney, 1992; Sautter and Oretskin, 1997).

Firms taking these criticisms into accounts try to use more socially responsible advertisements. For example, advertisers usually take precautions not to distress children or express sexual or racial stereotypes in their advertisements (Treise, Weigold, Conna and Garrison, 1994). However, socially responsible advertisements are not done in isolation and are usually into a larger company strategy, known as Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), which concerns every aspect of the firm such as accounting, finance, management, workforce and marketing (Bhattacharya, Sen and Korschun, 2007; Porter and Kramer, 2006). The focus of this third chapter is to describe CSR in general, its applications in advertising, especially in multi-racial advertising, and its consequences for consumer behaviour.

## 4.2 Corporate Social Responsibility

This first section provides a definition of CSR and presents its particularities in the South African context.

### 4.2.1 Definition

Originally, around the start of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, CSR was practised in the form of corporate philanthropy or donations to charities (Sethi, 1977) and was usually only on the agenda of prosperous companies (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001:208). The contemporary conception of CSR was developed in the USA with the idea that corporations have responsibilities beyond their legal obligations. In a general sense, CSR is a 'social contract' between a business and society, in which it is recognised that corporations have an impact on the social welfare of society (Handelman and Arnold 1999; Robin and Reidenbach, 1987).

CSR must be distinguished from business ethics. Indeed, according to Robin and Reidenbach (1987), CSR is related to the 'social contract' between business and the society in which it operates, whereas business ethics requires that the organisation behave in accordance with the carefully thought-out rules of moral philosophy. Thus, including a black actor in a multi-racial advertising is a CSR action, whereas avoiding racial stereotypes in advertising is considered as an ethical action. Indeed, the latter seems more relevant as a general value than as a specific contract's clause. Nonetheless, in several multi-racial studies the boundary between these two concepts is vague and both terms are sometimes used interchangeably (e.g. Hyman, Tansey and Clark, 1994; Zinkhan, Qualls and Biswas, 1990).

The emergence of CSR has been given impetus by the socially conscious consumer (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Webster, 1975) who, for the purpose of this research, is defined as a "consumer who takes into account the public consequences of his or her private consumption or who attempts to use his or her purchasing power to bring about social change" (Webster, 1975:188). Therefore, a considerable market consisting of socially conscious consumers exists for firms, and CSR, as a normal marketing issue, might be considered as a conventional segmentation (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972). In so doing, Angelidis and Ibrahim's (1993) definition of CSR emphasises the need for a corporation's actions to satisfy consumer social needs. Elkins (1977) listed five motivational bases that explain why firms are socially involved:

1. Corporate morality: corporate executives may feel that social actions are an obligation for their company. They are persuaded by the business's social mission and try to implement decisions on perceived moral, ethical, or societal values.
2. Protective strategy: some firms may understand CSR as an "inexpensive insurance". They engage in social responsibility for fear of physical loss if they do not. For instance, social responsibility rhetoric and socially responsive activities surged following riots in the USA (*ibid.*:129).
3. Public relations and advertising: firms undertaking a social action may benefit from free media exposure. Hence, this kind of action enables firms to receive free advertising and public relations, for an expense which can appear comparatively "less expensive" than traditional advertising and public relations activities.
4. Profit-seeking labelled as social responsibility: for some corporations, social responsibility is just traditional profit-seeking clad in another garb. To quote Elkins's (1977:130) example, companies selling street lighting to cities undertook street-lighting surveys for inner cities, not necessarily in the interests of reducing crime as was often stated, but to sell more street lights.
5. The managerial ego satisfaction model: this model supposes that the choice of a CSR strategy depends on the manager's position in the organisation. This position is influenced by corporate concentration and power, organisational slack or discretionary resources, separation of ownership and management, and the hierarchy of needs governing individual behaviour.

Thus, while the initial debate around the CSR examined whether the requirements of profitability and of social action are reconcilable (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972), the five CSR motivators postulated by Elkins (1977) show that economic and profit objectives dominate altruistic intentions. In other words, "corporations regard their contributions today not as outright donations but as investments that are intended to benefit the company as well as the recipient" (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001:209).

However, according to Frederick (1991), considering the large, diverse and vague normative dimensions of CSR this concept cannot be analysed as a “single value state”. Consequently, CSR will differ in each country where it is applied. For instance, Orpen (1987) compared the attitudes of South African and United States managers towards CSR. He found that the United States managers held significantly more favourable attitudes towards CSR. In addition, he pointed out that the United States managers felt that their society expected more corporate involvement in social responsibility activities than the South African managers felt was expected from their society. Similar results have been found by Singhapakdi, Karande, Rao and Vitell (2001) who investigated the divergence in ethical and social responsibility perception among marketing professionals from Australia, Malaysia, South Africa, and the United States. They found that in developing countries (i.e. Malaysia and South Africa), the business and economic environmental forces are still evolving and hence the marketers perceived that business ethics and social responsibility may be of less importance than to their counterparts in developed countries (Singhapakdi *et al.*, 2001). Nevertheless, despite this perception, South African CSR initiatives are numerous. For instance, the total annual amount spending on Corporate Social Investment (CSI), which measures the participation of South African companies in social welfare, was in 2001 about R2 billion and non-financial contributions involved at least a similar amount (Hamann, Agbazue, Kapelus and Hein, 2005). Hence, the CSR actions of South African firms are a reality and these are considered below.

#### **4.2.2 The Social Responsibility of South African Firms**

The apartheid regime institutionalised racial division and this was extended to the distribution of wealth. It is therefore not surprising that at the end of the apartheid 5% of the population – mostly white – owned 88% of the nation’s wealth (Hamann, Agbazue, Kapelus and Hein, 2005). The end of apartheid did not erase all forms of inequality and, while many corporations are accused of benefiting from apartheid policies by exploiting disenfranchised workers (Hamann *et al.*, 2005; Kapelus, 2002), it has long been accepted that businesses can play an important role in bridging the gap between races in South Africa (Thorelli, 1968).

It follows that CSR has a unique connotation in contemporary South Africa. In western societies, this type of action is generally based on firms’ voluntary initiatives (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001). However, given the unique history of South African, its government plays a proactive role in influencing the social accountability of businesses (Centre for Corporate

Citizenship, 2006; Hamann and Acutt, 2003; Hamann *et al.*, 2005). The most prominent CSR activity undertaken in South Africa is the policy of Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) and its recent expansion into the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) (see Department of Trade and Industry, 2003). This strategy aims “at redressing the racial imbalances resulting from apartheid, including imperatives such as increased black ownership of the economy, employment equity, and rural development” (Hamann, *et al.*, 2005:9).

Nonetheless, important market-based incentives for CSR have recently been developed in South Africa. For instance, the King Report on Corporate Governance for South Africa 2002 aimed at promoting the highest standards of corporate governance in South Africa. Although the first report published in 1994 focused on companies’ economic aspect, namely the profit, King II instituted a triple bottom line as a method of doing business. It added to the incontestable economic aspect, an environmental and social dimension. Hence, to quote the King II committee:

Successful governance in the world in the 21st century requires companies to adopt an inclusive and not exclusive approach. The company must be open to institutional activism and there must be greater emphasis on the sustainable or non-financial aspects of its performance. Boards must apply the test of fairness, accountability, responsibility and transparency to all acts or omissions and be accountable to the company but also responsive and responsible towards the company’s identified stakeholders. The correct balance between conformance with governance principles and performance in an entrepreneurial market economy must be found, but this will be specific to each company (King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2002:2).

However, it was important to identify whether companies integrated this principle of what is described as the triple bottom line into their business activities effectively. Thus, in order to ascertain corporations’ performance, the Johannesburg Securities Exchange (JSE) Socially Responsible Investment Index has described and developed criteria to accurately measure the triple bottom line performances:

1. Economic sustainability: firm must be positioned for long-term growth rather than a speculative short-term performance.
2. Environmental sustainability: relates to the behaviour of the firm towards the South Africa resource base.

3. Social sustainability: "A company is a key component of modern society" (JSE, 2005:3). Therefore, it should not only engage with its shareholders, but is also required to develop and maintain positive relationships with a far wider structure of stakeholders (i.e. staff, government and the community generally).

Specifically, the JSE report considers that a company can only be seen to be adhering to the third criterion if it can demonstrate "the existence of implemented strategies to promote social upliftment, development and poverty reduction, while taking account of diversity, employment equity, empowerment, fair labour practices and health and safety" (JSE, 2005:3). Thus, the three main CSR objectives elaborated by the JSE report are affirmative action, skills development, and addressing the HIV/AIDS epidemic.

This thesis focuses on the first CSR criterion cited above, namely affirmative action, and especially on BEE. This latter CSR action is undoubtedly, the most prominent of all CSR activities in South Africa. BEE and then BBBEE, largely imposed by the South African government, have had a substantial impact on every function of the firm including management, human resource strategy, ownership and marketing. Particularly, Leibold and Hugo-Burrow (1997) consider that, since 1994, newly promulgated government policies have had a substantial impact on the country's multi-racial marketing. Consequently, this study explores the overlap between the areas of multi-racial advertising and CSR.

### **4.3 Advertising Social Responsibility**

Studies have widely emphasised the social role of marketing (e.g. Abratt and Sacks, 1988; Cui, 1997; Fox and Kotler, 1980; Frisby, 2004; Gaski, 1985; Handelman and Arnold, 1999; Kotler and Zaltman, 1971; Lazer, 1969; Wilkie and Moore, 1999). For instance, Lazer (1969:3) considered that "marketing is not an end in itself" and should not only serve the business but also the goals of society. He deemed that marketing practice must be in harmony with the concept of community involvement, and that marketing leaders must accept a new social role (Lazer, 1969). According to Singhapakdi, Kraft, Vitell and Rallapalli (1995), marketers have wholly integrated this role into their behaviour and hence they consider social responsibility as an important component of organisational effectiveness.

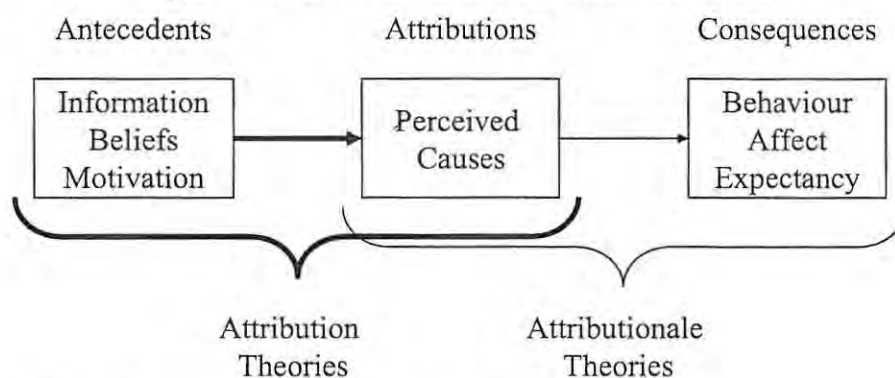
Nevertheless, this social role is not attributed with the same intensity to every marketing component. Indeed, given its high visibility, advertising is the most debated facet of the marketing mix (Shaffer, 1964; Wilkie and Moore, 1999). Shaffer (1964) considers that advertising is the marketing activity which has the most social impact and that some of these result from the fact that advertising is specifically designed to modify the beliefs and values of members of society. Thus, to quote Potter (1954 cited by Shaffer, 1964), the influence of advertising upon the consumerist society may be compared to the schools' and the churches' effects on moral society. However, Potter (*ibid.*) argues that while the schools and the churches have acted with a considerable degree of social responsibility, advertising does not aim to improve the individuals' well-being except for their material values.

This criticism of advertising is, nonetheless, counterbalanced by advertising proponents who attribute to advertising, in addition to economic advantages such as reducing the cost of distribution, encouraging progress and adding utility to the products advertised, a social role such as educating the population by way of mass media (Holbrook, 1987; Shaffer, 1964). The following section presents the Attribution Theory which explains the underlying psychological process by which consumers generate interpretations about the role of advertising in the society. Based on this theory, the following sections present the consumers' dichotomous belief about advertising in general, and describe the 'issue advertising' which aims, mainly, at achieving social goals.

#### **4.3.1 Attribution Theory**

This theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967), which is particularly helpful in understanding consumers' interpretation of a brand's actions (Folkes 1988), suggests that causal analysis is inherent in individuals' need to understand social events (Laczniak, DeCarlo, Motley and Ramaswami, 2001). Attribution theory addresses the processes by which individuals evaluate the motives of others and explains how these perceived motives influence subsequent attitudes and behaviour (Forehand and Grier, 2003). Kelley and Michela (1980) present causal analysis as a process based on three essential elements: antecedents, attributions, and consequences. As established by Kelley and Michela (1980), the general model of the attribution field is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

**Figure 4.1: General Model of Attribution Field**



Source: Kelley and Michella (1980:459)

Kelley and Michella (1980) distinguish ‘attribution’ and ‘attributional’ research. The former involves systematic assessment or manipulation of *Antecedents* and is no interest in *Consequences* beyond the *Attributions* themselves, whereas the latter entails assessment or manipulations of *Perceived Causes* and measurement of their effects on *Behaviour*, *Feelings* and *Expectancies* (Kelley and Michella, 1980). In other words, when individuals produce causal attributions, they are initially influenced by a set of information, beliefs or motivator elements (i.e. *Antecedents*) that lead them to attribute a particular event to one cause rather than another (i.e. *Attributions*). The causal attributions generated in turn influence individuals’ attitude and behaviour (i.e. *Consequences*). In advertising studies, the Attribution Theory suggests that consumers who are exposed to an advertisement evaluate a brand according to the motives that they attribute to be the cause of the advertisement (Grewal, Gotlieb and Marmorstein, 1994). As set out in Figure 4.1, individuals’ *Beliefs* affect their attribution to an event or an object. Typically, Andrews (1989) argues that the *Beliefs* about advertising in general affect the *Attribution* (e.g. advertising helps raise the standard of living) to the object (i.e. advertising). The beliefs about advertising in general are discussed below.

### 4.3.2 Beliefs about Advertising in General

An important body of research has investigated consumers’ beliefs about the institution of advertising in general (see O’Donohoe, 1995, for a review). Considering the Attribution Theory, these beliefs (i.e. *Antecedent*) influence consumers’ *Attributions*, which in turn affect consumers’ attitude towards the advertising in general (i.e. *Consequences*). Specifically, Bauer and Greyser (1968) distinguished two beliefs about advertising in general: economic *versus* social. ‘Economic’ beliefs signified that advertising has an important role in the economic system which impacts on the consumer’s standard of living, while ‘Social’ beliefs

concerned the ability of advertising to influence the consumer's life-styles and values. This dichotomy has been confirmed by numerous studies (e.g. Anderson, Engledow and Becker, 1978; Andrews, 1989; Dongsheng, Weijiong and Vertinsky, 2002; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Yang, 2000).

On the other hand, belief about advertising in general is distinct from a belief about a specific advertisement (Andrews, 1989). Consequently the attitude towards advertising in general is different from the attitude towards a specific advertisement. Nevertheless, Lutz (1985) considered that the attitude towards advertising in general is important as an antecedent to the attitude towards a specific advertisement. Consistent with this premise, Mehta and Purvis (1995) and then Mehta (2000) found that the more the respondents' feelings about advertising in general are positive, the more they pay attention to advertising, and the more they are persuaded by it. Furthermore, Shavitt, Lowrey and Haefner (1998) argued that the general attitude towards advertising is in reality more favourable than one might currently believe. In particular, studies showed that non-white respondents (i.e. blacks, Asiatics, Hispanics...) tend to be more positive than whites about advertising in general (Bush, Smith and Martin, 1999; Shavitt *et al.*, 1998; Tolley and Goett, 1971).

Finally it is assumed that advertising both stimulates consumption and economic activity and models life-styles and has a certain value orientation (Pollay and Mittal, 1993). Typically, there is a kind of advertising which aims to influence the consumers' life-styles referred to as 'issue advertising'. This is considered below.

#### **4.3.3 Issue Advertising**

Conscious of their social role, some firms have dedicated part or their entire advertising campaign to a social issue (Manrai and Gardner, 1992). Studies analyse *issue advertising* in two ways. Firstly, Sethi (1979:75) considers that this practice is related to companies that produce institutional advertising which "describes company activities in terms that suggest that the corporation is serving a public interest". For instance, Investec, a South African corporate bank, produced an advertisement (see Appendix 4.1) featuring a zebra and the following slogan: "Empowerment. Showing our true colours." Its aim was to illustrate that Investec's commitment to BEE is 'embodied' in their entrepreneurial culture and that Investec supports black owned and managed companies, through the creation of Tiso, a bank specialising in BEE. On the other hand, Sejo (2002:80) defines issue advertising as

“advertising sponsored by a for-profit company, which links that company or its brand(s) to a social issue”. This second definition can be illustrated by Woolworths’ advertising campaign to protect the honey badger (see Appendix 4.2). Concretely associated with the Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) World Wildlife Fund (WWF), Woolworths ran a campaign in order to raise consumer awareness and assist conservation organisations and beekeepers to establish a badger-friendly initiative. The badger, considered a key element in the maintenance of eco-systems, was threatened by bee farmers because of its diet of bee larvae.

In conclusion, issue advertising is any advertising with a social dimension and not necessarily an economic dimension (Drumwright, 1996). The social issues supported can be HIV/AIDS, breast cancer, rape prevention, gay rights, drug prevention, literacy, mental and physical disabilities, domestic violence, wildlife preservation and racial harmony (*ibid.*). Considering this latter social issue, multi-racial advertising seems to have an inherent social dimension. Nonetheless, this thesis is concerned with the context of commercial advertising. In this type of advertising the social dimension is implicit and not explicit as in issue advertising. Thus, the following section discusses the social responsibility of commercial multi-racial advertising.

#### **4.4 Multi-racial Advertising Social Responsibility**

The integration of racial minorities as real firms’ stakeholders is one of the most prominent CSR actions attributed to firms (e.g. Cohen, 1970; Davids, 1990; Gould, Sigband, and Zoerner, 1970; Hair, Solomon and Bush, 1977; Hamann *et al.*, 2005; Murphy, 1998; Treise *et al.*, 1994; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Corporations are encouraged to embrace multi-racialism in their ownership and human resource practices as well as the advertising of their businesses and products (e.g. Bullock, 1961; Elliott, 1995; Surlin, 1977).

However this CSR aspect of multi-racial advertising is challenged by numerous content analyses, presented in the next section, which found that the portrayal of black actors in advertising is unrealistic. This, although a broad body of research has demonstrated that the portrayal used influences the racial relationships and social behaviours among both majority and minority members. Finally the fourth section concludes that few studies have surveyed

whether consumers perceive a social responsibility in multi-racial advertising or for the focus of this thesis this provides a motivation.

#### **4.4.1 Content Analysis**

In the USA, since Kassarian's (1969) seminal study, a large stream of research has examined the role occupied by racial minority actors in advertising. This type of study resulted from claims by civil rights organisations such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) that a greater use of black actors promotes a change in the black community's image and increases the hiring of black actors (Kassarian, 1969; Schlinger and Plummer, 1972). Thus, for a long time, some American researchers have considered that the racial minority's presence could be resolved by a simple arithmetic rule: the percentage of minority actors in overall advertising must be the same as the percentage of that minority in the overall population. For instance, Williams (1992) considered that the 3% of black actors in American advertising is largely insufficient, considering the 11% African-American presence in the overall population. Nowadays the debate has evolved and, more than the numeric presence of minority actors, researchers are interested in the representation of these actors (e.g. Briley, Shrum and Wyer, 2007; Grady, 2007; Koeman, 2007; Peterson, 2007; Stevenson, 2007).

Following Pollay (1986), it is considered that the representation reflected by advertising is distorted; researchers who analysed the minorities' presence in advertising estimated that advertisers exaggerate the specific cultural traits characterising minorities (Dates and Barrow, 1990). Thus, several studies have argued that the minorities' image in advertising tends to reflect whites' attitudes towards minorities and reveals more about whites themselves than about minorities (e.g. Bristor, Lee and Hunt, 1995; Coltrane and Messineo, 2000; Davis, 2007; Humphrey and Schuman, 1984; Staples and Jones, 1985; Stevenson, 2007; Wilson and Gutierrez, 1985).

In South Africa, limited content analyses have been run to examine the role portrayals of black or white actors in advertisements (Cassim and Monteiro, 2001). However, the role of the black actors and their relationship in advertisements with white actors evolved significantly after the end of the apartheid period (Cassim and Monteiro, 2001; North, 2003; North and Millard, 2003).

In segregated South Africa, advertising was deemed Eurocentric and colonialistic in style (De Klerk, 1998). Advertisements were shaped by colonial history and the interests of the politically and economically dominant group (Sutherland, 2004). For instance, since the nineteenth century, a stereotyped image of the 'Zulu soldier', symbolising a 'martial race', was frequently used to represent Africa or black people (*ibid.*). Similarly, South African advertisers were criticized in the 1980s for portraying black models merely in subservient roles and in low-skilled occupations (Frederikse, Tomaselli, Muller and Anderson, 1985). However, advertisers were not totally free to design their own advertisements. Indeed censors such as the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) scrutinised their work. These authorities defined the acceptable level of integration between black and white models/actors. For instance, different cultures could shop together but not party together, black and white children could play together in a rural setting (but not an urban setting) and inter-racial 'love relationships' were absolutely prohibited (Fullagar, 1980; Whitehead, 1983). Thus, the advertising content had to be in accordance with South African legislation and norms of that period.

Nonetheless, since the 1930s advertisers have recognised the economic potential of African consumers (Bryce, 1990; Sutherland, 2004). However, while some advertisers were reluctant to target the black community, afraid of the white consumers' potential backlash, others had reservations about the black community's financial muscle and their intellectual capacity to understand the advertising message (for an illustration of the debate, see Society of Advertisers, 1958:4-16). Hence, there was limited focus on the black community by advertisers until the emergence of the black consumer as a power in the late 1970s (Iheduru, 2004) and this trend was given increased impetus by the demise of apartheid.

The end of the apartheid engendered numerous changes in the advertising world. Concepts such as the 'New South Africa', the 'Rainbow Nation' and 'Nation-Building' were widely adopted by politicians but also by advertisers (Sutherland, 2004). In 2001, the South African Government's Parliamentary Portfolio Committee on Communication explored the need for transformation in the marketing and advertising industry. This investigation has been wide-ranging and includes issues such as advertising content, self-regulation of the industry, advertising agency ownership, employment practice, and education (Sutherland, 2004). Following the committee's recommendations, the Association for Communication and Advertising (2002), which represents the collective interests of the South African advertising

and communication agencies, developed a 10-point statement of values for the advertising industry. Through this document, advertisers indicated their aspirations to play an important role in the 'new' South Africa. They declared that they wanted to 'craft' a unique and meaningful South African culture and identity reflecting the diversity of South African consumers. In doing so, they desired to assist nation-building in celebrating and promoting the constitutional values such as respect for human dignity, equality and freedom. This document argues that advertisements should attempt to portray South Africa in such a way that the advertisements "instil a feeling of pride and belonging for all people of [the] country".

Moreover, elements of culture from South Africa's former marginalised cultures provided a rich source of inspiration for advertisers in order to create a new South African identity (Sutherland, 2004). For instance, Buntman (1996a) maintains that the myth of the San as harmless hunter-gatherers allowed consumers to embrace the idea of being part of black Africa and multi-racial South Africa without making the audience and consumer identify with other socio-political groups. Thus she argues that the San "became available for nation (or company) building" (Buntman, 1996a:3354).

However, within this practice lay many dangers such as the issue of misappropriation (Buntman, 1996b; Mamadi, 2004; Sutherland, 2004). For instance, Buntman (1996b) illustrated this issue in her analysis of the brochures advertising the Kagga Kamma Game Reserve in the Western Cape. She showed that the representation of the San culture in those brochures was flawed and conveyed a stereotyped image of the San. Bare-breasted women and hunter men were depicted as sex objects and breadwinners, respectively (Buntman, 1996b). Buntman (1996b) criticized the portrait of both sexes in scanty clothes which is in contrary with the San's normal everyday clothes. In her view, this image aims merely to make tourists believe that in Kagga Kamma Game Reserve they may be in contact with "the real San as they really are" (Mamadi, 2004:16).

On the other hand, the only South African study analysing the role portrayals of blacks in advertising, which used the American procedural techniques of content analysis, is that of Cassim and Monteiro (2001). They analysed 119 South African television advertisements representing 348 black models/actors between April 1994 and July 1996. One of the objectives of their study was to compare the portrayals depicted with the reality of the black community. Thus, they compared the occupational role attributed to black models in the

advertising to the South African Census Reports. They found an over-representation of blacks in the high-status occupational roles (e.g. entertainment, sports, celebrities and skilled labour) and a significant under-representation of blacks in low-skilled occupations (e.g. miners, petrol attendants, maids, transport/delivery personnel). Moreover, these low-skilled occupations have been especially depicted in issue advertising. Hence, Cassim and Monteiro (2001:118) concluded that South African advertisers are “exceptionally careful (consciously or subconsciously) in their portrayal of blacks in advertising”. According to the authors, these portrayals attempt less to reflect blacks’ social aspirations (as few white-owned South African advertising agencies assumed) than to be ‘politically correct’ and avoid a ‘black backlash’ as happened with the boycotts in the mid-seventies (Cassim and Monteiro, 2001:121). Nonetheless, a study among the Black Diamonds (see Section 1.1) shows that this new advertising strategy aiming to avoid ‘black-backlash’ is not wholly effective (UCT Unilever Institute, 2006b). Still 49% of Black Diamonds feel that their true identity is not understood by advertisers and that they are misrepresented in the media (*ibid.*). The UCT Unilever Institute’s (2006b) survey points out that this segment of consumers feel offended by the portrayal of black models in advertising which they consider limited to two extremes stereotypes: the BEE ‘fat cat’ living in luxury, and the domestic worker or labourer. Hence, the ‘black backlash’ that South African advertisers seek to avoid persists. The concept of ‘black backlash’ is relatively new in the ethnic/racial marketing literature. The ‘white backlash’ had previously been a source of worries for the advertisers and marketers. However, in the post-apartheid South Africa ‘white backlash’ seems to be becoming secondary. For instance, as noted by Berger (2001), numerous formerly white print media increased their news and photographs of black people at the end of the apartheid regime. Consequently, they lost many white readers who did not support this new trend. However, according to Berger (2001), this media considered that it was more important to represent the changing power and thus the new South African reality could not be ignored.

Cassim and Monteiro (2001) eliminated from their study all integrated advertisements from which an analysis would have been relevant for the purpose of this thesis. Hence, very little is known about matter of racial relationships in South African integrated advertisements. Only the studies of North (2003) and North and Millard (2003) pointed out an obvious increase in the number of integrated advertisements including children in the post-apartheid period. Indeed, while integrated advertisements with children were 5% in 1983 and 1% in 1987, they were almost 11% in 1997. The authors concluded that this difference confirms that the South

African community is in a process of radical change (North, 2003; North and Millard, 2003). Moreover, these findings would indicate that advertisers have started to realise that their advertisements must reflect “the true nature of the new South Africa” (North and Millard, 2003:48). Nevertheless, the authors pointed out the fact that when the black community constitutes 76% of the South African population in 1996, the 89% of advertisements representing only white children as models can be seen as disproportionate (North and Millard, 2003). Hence, they concluded that, even if a step has been made in the right direction, the advertising strategies in South Africa still do not reflect the real changes which are taking place in the country (*ibid.*).

Conversely, while North and Millard (2003) praise at least the new multi-racialism, a body of research criticized the ecumenist pressure exerted by the media at the end of the apartheid period. Specifically, they analysed the jingle “Simunye – we are one!” which was the mantra of the SABC, repeated daily on the channels (e.g. Baliserio, 1997; Berger, 2001; Roome, 1997; Saks, 1997). This jingle was supposed to develop the new iconography of the Nation (Baliserio, 1997). Indeed, this slogan, said by announcers of different races, languages, sexes, and ages should have represented the racial and linguistic diversity of the ‘new’ South Africa (Baliserio, 1997; Saks, 1997). Thus, Baliserio (1997:5) considered that the SABC aimed to be a medium through which all the different South African communities would come together and construct a shapely and nationally unified framework. In so doing, the SABC would play an important role in nation-building.

However, according to Baliserio (1997:3), through its jingle and its numerous new multi-racial advertisements, the SABC presented “a new South Africa *à la* United Colours of Benetton suspiciously amicable and homogeneous in its picture of perfect diversity”. Similarly, Berger (2001:171) compared multi-racial advertising to a “fantasy world”. Baliserio (1997) emphasised the incoherent fact that after the jingle, when the news starts and crime is presented, white and blacks continue to inhabit different worlds. Whites are behind the camera or the microphone, whereas blacks are facing the camera behind bars, being interrogated or lying wounded on the ground after a theft (Baliserio, 1997).

Saks (1997) also criticized Simunye and the multi-racial advertisements because while they offer more choice and pluralism, their underlying aim is to provide greater standardisation. Thus, South Africa would consume the same products as the rest of the world (Saks, 1997).

This analysis is consistent with Craig's (1991) conclusions in the American context. Indeed, he considers that, although the increasing number of blacks shown in advertising may be a political victory, advertisements still "tell minorities that they should believe and act upon the values of the dominant consumer culture" (Craig, 1991:35). This, although in fact many minority's members are still discriminated against and their participation in that culture is thereby restricted. Similarly, in the post-apartheid South Africa, Bertelsen (1996; 1998) analysed the advertisements of the new South Africa. She pointed out that the increase in the number of black actors is less about giving voice to the former dispossessed than about global consumerism and advertising itself (Bertelsen, 1996). Bertelsen (1998) considers that these advertisements mobilise the cultural power of the South African democratic struggle by appropriating its respected signifiers and rerouting them to a vigorously propagated discourse of consumerism and the 'free market'.

Finally, as recommended by Cassim and Monteiro (2001), South African advertising research needs more numerous and more thorough content analyses. This method enables researchers to examine the evolution of the representation of blacks in advertising. This advertising evolution is embedded in South African history, from the apartheid period to today. Zinkhan, Qualls and Biswas (1990) consider that content analysis is the firms' 'corporate social responsibility barometer', because of its ability to enable researchers to describe the image of minorities (and its evolution) as these are propagated in the society by the firms' commercials. This image is very important, with regard to studies which have shown that representations used in advertising and more generally in media influence racial behaviours and relationships (Bailey, 2006).

#### **4.4.2 Media and Advertising Influence on Society**

Media has an overpowering influence on modern society. Its fundamental roles are to disseminate information and entertainment but also to provide an educating and socialising function (Graves, 1999). In a multi-racial context it is widely acknowledged that media can put different groups into indirect contact with one another (Appelgryn, 1991).

O'Guinn, Faber and Meyer (1985) showed that the media has an important responsibility in determining the multi-racial relationship level in a country. According to Gerbner and Gross (1976), if all media elements are interpreted as reality by viewers, the stereotyped portrayal becomes real, and behaviour in real life is guided by expectations derived from the stereotype.

This phenomenon is consistent with the Vicarious Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977; 1986) which considers that vicarious learning occurs when learner change their behaviour as a result of observing someone else's behaviour. Indeed, media role portrayals and inter-racial interactions, as sources of vicarious experience (Graves, 1999; Weigel, Loomis and Soja, 1980), are relevant to the creation of cognitions about racial groups (i.e. stereotypes), the development of negative attitudes towards these groups (i.e. prejudice) and the performance of exclusionary behaviours (i.e. discrimination) (Graves, 1999).

These effects will also depend on the contact level that in-group individuals maintain with out-group individuals. To elaborate, Gibson (2006) showed that for both black and white South African the single best predictor of racial tolerance is interracial contact. Respondents "reporting more interactions with people of the opposite race are more likely to express salutary attitudes towards that group" (Gibson, 2006:682). However, Gibson (2006) argues that in the South African context, inter-group contacts are largely determined by opportunity and social class. Indeed, considerable parts of the country are still populated by people of only a single race and the social class division between blacks and whites is enormous. This, consequently, limits racial interactions and maintains the prominent role of media in the matter of vicarious learning (Bailey, 2006).

Thus, because of the media's power, the apartheid regime was afraid of television (Giffard, 1976; Hachten, 1979; Harrison and Elkman, 1976). South Africa was one of the last countries where television, also called the 'evil black box' by one of the government leaders, was introduced and its introduction engendered a lengthy debate. One of the reasons was that the regime was scared that television would influence blacks' cultural aspirations (De Koning cited by Harrison and Elkman, 1976). Indeed, by means of the television, blacks would have seen other blacks with cars, and houses, and would have wondered why they could not have them. Consequently, the regime was frightened of a rise of the blacks' political claims (*ibid.*). On the other hand, television would also have an impact on white attitudes (Harrison and Elkman, 1976). For instance, a South African sociologist cited by Harrison and Elkman (1976:107) considered that "most white South Africans have never been exposed to a well-educated black". Hence, the apparition of an intelligent and articulate non-white on the television would start to modify whites' perception (*ibid.*). The final introduction of the television has been harshly controlled and television was merely used as a propaganda medium (Giffard, 1976; Hachten, 1979; Harrison and Elkman, 1976).

In post-apartheid South Africa, Zegeye and Harris (2002) argue that this racist and discriminatory South African past still allows inter-racial and inter-ethnic tensions to influence the country's social relations, economy and politics. For instance, Baderoon (2002) showed how South African Muslims could be offended by the extremely restricted media vocabulary used to qualify them. He pointed out that Muslims can find themselves circumscribed by an imaginary geography that differentiates them from the other South Africans. Nonetheless, Zegeye and Harris (2002) consider that building a multi-racial democratic society in the specific South African situation is still possible if the people with different identities and interests learn how to respect differences and to live together in peace. The media may have an important role in this 'learning process' (Zegeye and Harris, 2002). For instance, Wasserman's (2002) examination of the multi-linguistic website LitNet illustrates the building of South African nationhood through media. Indeed, this website serves as a contact zone, a virtual space for different South African languages and literatures. Hence, Wasserman (2002) contends that it creates the possibility for a trans-cultural flow of information and communications that bypasses the linguistic and literary hierarchy of apartheid. Zegeye and Harris (2002:261) maintain that the media must play a role in this process of social change "in developing the respect for differences and the overarching identity as well as providing the public forum and the channels of communication needed for the successful development of the country's multi-cultural democracy".

The representation of multi-racialism by the media is very important in this idea of nation-building. For example, in the Canadian youth context, Gorn, Goldberg and Kanungo (1976) found that after being exposed to a multi-racial programme (containing white and non-white children), white children show a strong preference for playing with non-whites as opposed to whites. This sharply contrasted with the preferences of a control group which was not exposed to this programme.

On the other hand, the racial minorities' portrayal in the media also influences the way minority members identify themselves. Thus, studies have examined how the current image of black population on television affects the self-esteem and cognitive development of black youth (Watkins, 2000 for a review). These have mainly found that a stereotyped portrayal decreases the black youths' self-esteem (Lee and Brown, 1995; Nightingale, 1993; Tan and Tan, 1979), whereas a positive portrayal enhances it (Dates, 1980; Stroman, 1986; 1991). For

instance, Tan and Tan (1979), considering that TV entertainment programmes are the programmes using the more stereotyped representations in comparison with other TV programmes, found that young blacks who often watch these programmes are more likely to report low self-esteem than those who watch fewer TV entertainment programmes. These conclusions are supported by the fact that in the white sample, TV entertainment viewing was not accompanied by low self-esteem. Equally, Stroman (1986) concluded that black children display a very positive attitude towards blacks who appear in high-status roles.

However, these studies have been mainly conducted amongst youth and have paid little attention to adults' behaviour. Nevertheless, the study of Grier and Brumbaugh (1999), regarding advertising's influence on target (i.e. homosexual) and non-target (i.e. heterosexual) markets, may be quoted as an exception. Indeed, they found that some heterosexuals exposed to advertising targeting the homosexual market indicated surprise that the gay people in the advertisements looked 'normal' (Grier and Brumbaugh, 1999). Grier and Brumbaugh (1999) concluded that advertising can also hint at opportunities for social change. Thus, Stern (1999), citing Friedan (1963), considers that because of its accessibility, advertising is much more influential than literature in spreading racist and classist ideology and concludes that advertisers and announcers must be cautious about the portrayals used in advertising.

In conclusion, it is apparent that the representation of race in the media, and consequently in advertising, plays an important role in multi-racial relationships. Spurred at least in part by such evidence, Hyman *et al.* (1994) consider that the study of racial stereotypes is one of the seven most important topics for the future study of advertising ethics in addition to the use of deception in ads, advertising to children, tobacco advertising, alcoholic beverage advertisements, negative political advertising and sexual stereotyping. Nonetheless, aware that firms would behave ethically only if this specific behaviour is perceived positively by the consumer (i.e. may enhance corporate evaluation and purchase intention), Hyman *et al.* (1994) advise researchers "to develop theoretically and psychometrically sound scales for measuring the public's attitude about the ethicality of some advertising practices" and to examine "the relationship between beliefs about the ethicalness of an ad and the efficacy of an ad". Although undertaken within the field of business ethics and not CSR, these recommendations seem to be applicable to the present study. The following section presents the studies which have attributed a social responsibility to multi-racial advertising.

#### 4.4.3 Corporate Social Responsibilities in Multi-racial Advertising

Studies have often emphasised the multi-racial advertising's social role (e.g. Barban, 1969; Cox, 1970; Stern, 1999; Whittler, 1991) and considered this practice as a CSR (e.g. Cohen, 1970; Gould *et al.*, 1970; Surlin, 1977). Hair *et al.* (1977:211) defined as socially responsible multi-racial advertisements which attempt "to cast black models in roles equal to white model role portrayal. These ads are characterised by dimensions such as a small number of models, including both blacks and whites."

According to Gould *et al.* (1970) this CSR is effectively attributed to multi-racial advertising in general. Indeed, they pointed out that advertisers are well aware of their social responsibilities in including black actors in integrated advertisements (Gould *et al.*, 1970). Their results are consistent with Surlin's (1977) survey which found that advertising and business executives are, in general, conscious of the favourable social impact on race relations through the use of blacks in advertising. Moreover, although the general public's beliefs are less optimistic than those of advertising and business executives (Gould *et al.*, 1970; Surlin, 1977), studies have found that consumers also attributed a social dimension to multi-racial advertising (e.g. Gould *et al.*, 1970; Treise *et al.*, 1994). For instance, in a study exploring consumer perceptions of controversial advertising practises, Treise *et al.* (1994) concluded that a large consumer segment agreed that advertisers have a moral responsibility to include black actors in advertising.

Consequently, several brands have tried to maintain a social role through their advertising. For example, according to Giroux (1994:12) Benetton, with its slogan, United Colours of Benetton, and its multi-cultural advertisements, "is not about selling sweaters but about social responsibility, it is a company that represents less a product than a lifestyle and worldview". However if the social responsibility of Benetton's advertisements is acceptable, Benetton's targeting policy has been criticized (e.g. Back and Quaade, 1993). In spite of using black, white, Asiatic and Arabic actors, Benetton targets almost exclusively a rich and essentially white population (Fresnault-Deruelle, 1993). Benetton still communicates with the dominant culture and does not inspire any social change. Hence, the first effect of multi-racial advertising, namely the racial targeting, which this thesis wants to examine, is not applicable to Benetton's case.

Conversely, the example of chemical company, Nalco, in the USA seems more appropriate. Indeed, the Equal Employment Opportunity Policy of this company claims:

Our policy of non-discrimination is also reflected in advertising done by Nalco. We are committed to including women, racial minorities, those over 40 years of age and persons with disabilities in our advertisements as a way of indicating publicly that we accept, serve and employ everyone equally. We are also committed to the use of minority-owned and oriented media such as newspapers and magazines for appropriate advertising messages (cited by Murphy, 1998:317).

This extract from Nalco's policy illustrates the dual function of their advertisements, in other words not only social responsibility component but also to target minorities.

In South Africa, during the apartheid regime, Orpen (1975) argued that integrated advertising afforded coloured (i.e. mixed-race South African) subjects the opportunity to enhance their perception of themselves, whereas 'segregated advertising' (i.e. advertising including only same race actors) reinforced the government's principle of apartheid. However, even if integrated advertising may be viewed as unrealistic in a country characterized in the recent past by inter-racial conflict (Baliserio, 1997; Berger, 2001; Bertelsen, 1996; 1998; Saks, 1997), advertising depicting racial/cultural harmony could be an important catalyst in social change since it reflects what South Africa could become (Sinclair, 1997). Basson (1988) showed that this belief is also shared by the South African population. Basson (1988) pointed out that both white and black consumers and advertising agencies had a positive orientation towards the use of integrated television advertising. Furthermore, Basson (1988) found that both black and white consumers attributed a political dimension to integrated advertising. Indeed, the respondents indicated that integrated television advertising could contribute to an improvement in racial relations and could accelerate social integration in the country (Basson, 1988).

However, extant studies on the CSR attributed to the multi-racial advertising by consumers were concerned only with the way in which the consumer perceived the multi-racial advertising in general (*versus* a specific multi-racial advertisement) (e.g. Basson, 1988; Bullock, 1961; Cohen, 1970; Gould *et al.* 1970; Surlin, 1977). Hence, previous research neglected to consider reactions of these individuals towards a specific advertisement integrating black and white actors. They do not consider whether the social responsibility

perceived in the integration of a black actor in a specific advertisement influences its effectiveness. This aspect is discussed below.

## **4.5 Corporate Social Responsibility Consequences**

Studies have increasingly investigated the consequences of the CSR actions undertaken by the firms (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). These consequences are measured by financial performance and consumer behaviour.

### **4.5.1 The Influence of CSR Actions on Financial Performance**

The effects of CSR on financial performance, measured by market-based measures (e.g. market return, price/earnings ratio), accounting-based measures (e.g. return on assets, return on equity and earnings per share), market-based measures of risk (e.g. debt to equity ratio, interest coverage, Altman's Z-score and market beta) or combinations of these measures (McGuire, Sundgren and Schneeweis, 1988; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001), appear to be equivocal (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). However, very few studies have established a strongly negative relationship between CSR actions and financial performance. Globally, CSR initiatives appear to have a slightly positive relationship with financial performance (e.g. McGuire *et al.*, 1988; Pava and Krause, 1996; Schuler and Cording, 2006; Stanwick and Stanwick, 1998). Therefore, the financial departments of firms have generally no financial reason to reject a carefully undertaken CSR action (McGuire *et al.*, 1988), especially because the effects of this action on consumers' behaviour are mainly positive. These are discussed below.

### **4.5.2 The Influence of CSR Actions on Consumer Behaviour**

Customers, who perceive a firm to have a high level of social responsibility, may have favourable responses to that firm (McGuire *et al.*, 1988). Thus, previous studies have examined the relationship between social actions and price (Creyer and Ross, 1997), perceived quality (Folkes and Kamins, 1999), corporate attitudes (Brown and Dacin, 1997), retailer perceptions (Ellen, Mohr, and Webb, 2000) and purchase intentions (David, Kline and Dai, 2005; Murray and Vogel, 1997). For instance a survey on South African metropolitan consumers' perceptions of corporate citizenship and ethical consumer behaviour pointed out that 47.4% of respondents prefer to purchase products or services from good corporate citizens, even when they are more expensive (Centre for Corporate Citizenship, 2006). Other

results of this survey showed that 55% of respondents indicate they have bought a product or a service from a company because of its link to charitable causes, and 69% believe irresponsible companies should be exposed in the media, while 63% say they should be punished (*ibid.*). However, numerous other studies have showed that the influence of CSR actions undertaken by the firm on consumers' behaviour is complex and depends on several variables (e.g. Becker-Olsen, Cudmore and Hill, 2006; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Kim, Kim and Han, 2005; Luo and Bhattacharya; 2006; Maignan, 2001; Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Meijer and Schuyt, 2005; Reed, Aquino, Levy, 2007; Schuler and Cording, 2006; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Simmons and Becker-Olsen, 2006). Typically, consumers will evaluate the CSR action of a firm in accordance with its traditional activities and with their own interest in CSR actions.

#### 4.5.2.1 Influence of the Congruence between Firms' CSR Actions and Firms' Traditional Activities

This section describes the influence of the congruence between firms' CSR actions and firms' traditional activities on consumers' attitude. Indeed, Brown and Dacin (1997) argue that the consumers' cognitive evaluation of a firm's attributes (associations) is multidimensional. They distinguish two key components, namely the Company Ability associations (CA) and the Corporate Social Responsibility associations (CSR). The former is related to the company's expertise (e.g. employees, innovation, manufacturing expertise, customer orientation, industry leadership) in producing and delivering its outputs, while the latter concerns the organisation's status and activities in regards to its perceived societal obligations (*ibid.*).

Brown and Dacin (1997) found that CA associations are more influential on the corporate evaluations than CSR associations. Moreover, they pointed out that the CSR associations do not influence the belief that the product is also socially responsible. Thus, it is not because consumers perceive a company as socially involved that its products are also perceived as socially involved. Nevertheless, Brown and Dacin (1997:80) concluded with regard to their results, the managers are "encouraged to pursue 'enlightened self-interest' by striving to achieve various societal goals while earning profits. Indeed, in each experiment, Brown and Dacin (1997) demonstrated that positive CSR associations enhance the corporate evaluation and then the product evaluation. Conversely, negative CSR associations are disadvantageous for the overall persuasion process.

Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) extended Brown and Dacin's (1997) study of CSR effects. Brown and Dacin (1997) analysed the relationship between CSR and CA associations referring to their interaction as a 'competition', while Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) suggested that the congruence between both of these associations influences the persuasion process. They found that if consumers believe that CSR initiatives are realised at the expense of CA and detract from it (in a trade-off situation), the company and its products are less positively evaluated than if consumers perceive congruence between both associations (in a win-win situation). Consequently, Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) considered that a company should always inform consumers that its CSR programmes do not detract from (and may even improve) its ability to produce quality products.

Similarly, Becker-Olsen, Cudmore and Hill (2006) surveyed how the link perceived by the consumers between the chosen social cause and the firm's product line, brand image, position, and/or target market (i.e. perceived fit) influences their persuasion. Their results suggested that low-fit initiatives (e.g. Home Depots, which runs a programme against domestic violence, and Revlon, which is interested in helping to combat homelessness) diminish the attitude towards the company as well as the corporate credibility and the purchase intention. Hence the link between the CSR actions and the firm's activities is essential in the consumers' judgment of the firm. Nevertheless, that link must not be merely perceived by consumers as opportunistic. Indeed, Becker-Olsen *et al.* (2006) found that consumers perceiving CSR actions as 'profit-motivated' (*versus* socially-motivated), show less favourable corporate evaluation and purchase intention. Hence, as explained by prior studies, to avoid being deemed as merely exploitative and 'profit-motivated', the social actions must be strategically integrated by the firm with its traditional economic actions (Handelman and Arnold, 1999; Menon and Menon, 1997; Robin and Reidenbach, 1987; Varadarajan and Menon, 1988). In addition to the congruence between CSR actions and firm's activities, the link between CSR actions and the consumers' interest in the cause also influences consumers' evaluation of the firm.

#### 4.5.2.2 Influence of the Congruence between Firms' CSR Actions and Consumers' Interest.

This section describes the influence of the congruence between the firm's CSR actions and consumers' interest in the cause on consumers' evaluation of the firm. For instance, Folkes

and Kamins (1999), focusing on company ethics, found that the firm's moral behaviour (i.e. the means by which a product is produced) influences consumers' attitudes, even when the action lacks a direct impact on the consumer and when the firm's ethical or unethical behaviour does not influence product quality.

Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) integrated within the marketing research the notion of company identification, which so far had been essentially used in organisational research. In this stream of research, company identification was operationalised as the identification level of the members of an organisation with their organisation. Sen and Bhattacharya (2001:228) proposed that consumers' reactions to CSR are contingent on the congruence "they perceive between the company's character, as revealed by its CSR efforts and their own". Thus, Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) hypothesised that stronger identification with an organisation positively influences the evaluation of the company. Moreover, they distinguished two kinds of behaviours towards the CSR actions undertaken by the firm: "consumers whose self-concept includes support of the company's CSR domain" (i.e. high-CSR support) *versus* those whose support of that domain is low (i.e. low CSR support). According to Sen and Bhattacharya (2001), the moderator role of this concept would have appeared implicitly in prior research in the role of 'cause affinity among key constituents' (Drumwright, 1996), 'importance of issue to self' (Haley, 1996) and 'personal relevance' (Creyer and Ross, 1997) in consumers' reactions to CSR. Sen and Bhattacharya (2001:238) found the positive effect of CSR initiatives on consumers' company evaluations is mediated by their perceptions of self-company congruence and moderated by their support of the CSR domain.

In conclusion, it appears evident that a firm's contribution to social welfare enhances its reputation (Berens and van Riel, 2004; Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Porter and Kramer, 2006) which in turn is beneficial at all levels of the firm. Indeed, Fombrun and Shanley (1990) argued that a favourable reputation enables firms to charge premium prices, enhance their access to capital markets and attract better staff and investors (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001). Conversely, a lack of social responsibility exposes firms to additional risk from lawsuits and fines that may limit its strategic options (McGuire *et al.*, 1988). Consequently, to maintain or enhance their stakeholder relationship, firms need to assimilate CSR as an 'integral part of their mission' (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001) and align their CSR initiatives with their strategic and competitive positioning (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Moreover, they must communicate each of their CSR initiatives to the stakeholders (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001) in

order to explain why they have chosen these initiatives (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001) and avoid negative impact due to low-fit or a 'profit-motivation' perception (Becker-Olsen *et al.*, 2006).

#### **4.6 Conclusion**

This chapter argues that the concept of CSR has evolved over time. Although CSR was initially only a 'social contract' between firms and the society, it gained importance in firms' strategic planning since consumers considers the CSR actions of a firm in their decision making.

Moreover, although multi-racial advertising is commonly viewed as a element of CSR (Cohen, 1970; Gould *et al.*, 1970; Surlin, 1977), and consumers' responses to firms which are socially involved are mainly positive (e.g. Brown and Dacin, 1997; Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Marin and Ruiz, 2007; McGuire *et al.*, 1988; Mohr and Webb, 2005; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001), the reflection on the social responsibility as perceived by consumers in the use of multi-racial advertising has received relatively little attention in the advertising literature.

The next chapter draws on prior research regarding CSR consequences and the Identification Theory to develop a conceptual framework that seeks to explain the effects of multi-racial advertising on viewers' persuasion process.

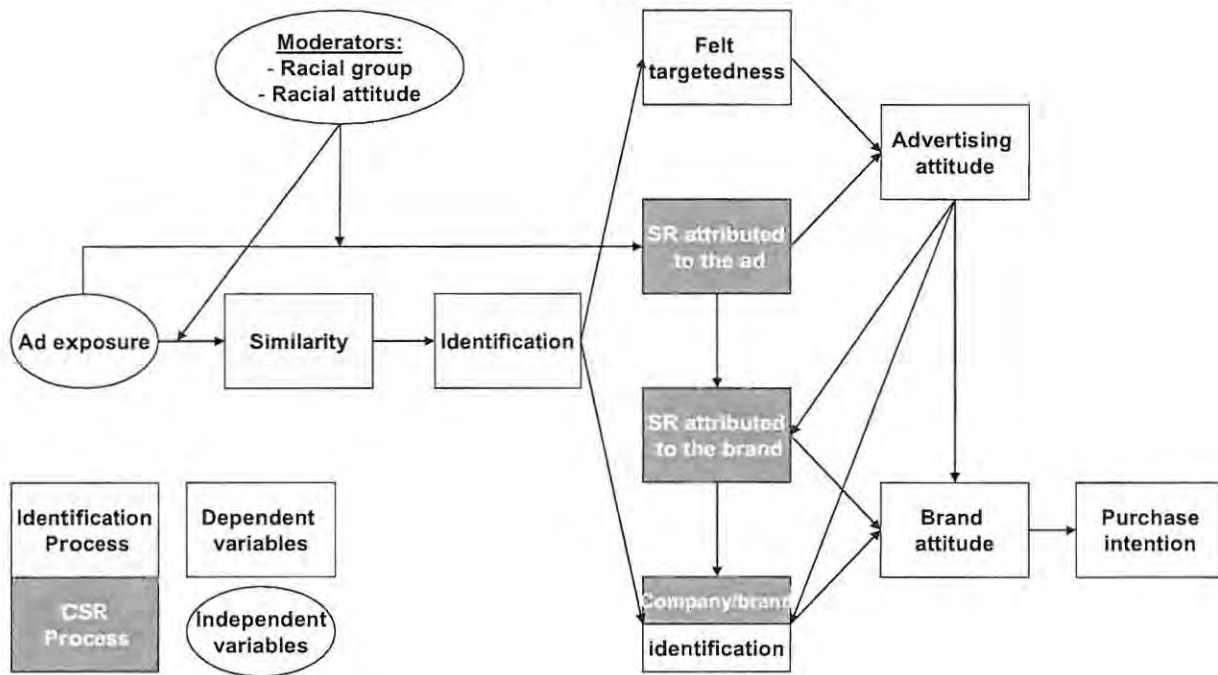
# CHAPTER 5

## CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

### 5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the conceptual framework which articulates, as set out Figure 5.1, the relationships between a company's advertisement and consumers' evaluations of the both company and its specific advertisement.

**Figure 5.1: Conceptual Framework**



This conceptual model, based on both attribution and identification theories, attempts to explain the effects of multi-racial advertising on consumer behaviour. First, it is assumed that viewers, exposed to a specific advertisement (*Ad exposure*), produce, in accordance with their own racial characteristics (*Moderators*), *Similarity* and attribution (*SR attributed to the ad*) judgments. Both of these judgments may trigger two psychological processes, the *Identification Process* and the *CSR Process*, respectively. Firstly, from the *Similarity* perceived by the viewer with the models, the *Identification Process* is assumed to influence cognitive (i.e. *Felt targetedness* and *Company/brand identification*), affective (*Advertising* and *Brand attitudes*) and behavioural (i.e. *Purchase intention*) outcomes. Secondly, exposure

to a multi-racial advertisement may encourage consumers to attribute a social responsibility (SR) to advertisement (i.e. *SR attributed to the ad*) and to the brand using it (i.e. *SR attributed to the brand*). These attributions influence both attitudes towards the advertisement and brand which, in turn, influence the *Purchase intention*.

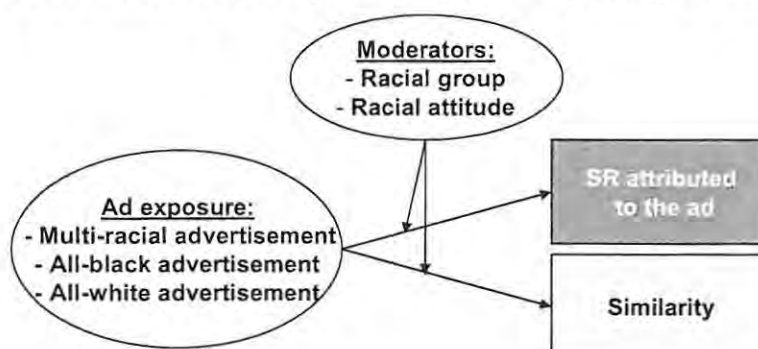
Thus, the focus of this chapter is to present the research hypotheses associated with each path in the conceptual framework. The first section presents the research hypotheses related to the effects of consumers' exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement in comparison with their exposure to other advertisements. The focus of the second section is to present the particular persuasion process which follows consumers' exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement.

## 5.2 Advertisement Exposure

The conceptual framework, depicted in Figure 5.1, argues that the independent variable *Ad exposure* is the "origin" of the viewers' persuasion process. Indeed, as mentioned earlier, the main purpose of this thesis is to demonstrate that viewers' exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement activates Identification and CSR processes simultaneously. However, before testing the influence of a specific multi-racial advertisement on both processes, a first step must be undertaken.

This first step consists of demonstrating that the use of a multi-racial advertisement allows advertisers to target several racial groups on the basis of actors' racial feature (i.e. *Identification Process*), but also to encourage consumers to attribute a social responsibility to the advertisement (i.e. *CSR Process*). This first step (Figure 5.2) attempts to justify the influence of a specific multi-racial advertisement on both psychological processes.

**Figure 5.2: Effects of Ad Exposure on Both Psychological Processes**



Most studies have examined CSR within the context of multi-racial advertising in general terms and not in respect of a specific advertisement (e.g. Basson, 1988; Bullock, 1961; Cohen, 1970; Gould *et al.* 1970; Surlin, 1977). Hence, studies have not examined the social responsibility attributed to a specific multi-racial advertisement in comparison with the social responsibility attributed to other advertisements. Accordingly, the first step of this conceptual framework examines whether consumers consider a specific multi-racial advertisement effectively as more socially responsible than specific 'mono-racial' advertisements. To achieve this aim, consumers' judgment towards a specific "multi-racial advertisement" is compared to their judgments when they are exposed to an all-white advertisement in which all the actors are white or an all-black advertisement featuring black actors only.

Thus, this section presents the hypotheses associated with the relationship between viewers' exposure to different advertisements (*Ad exposure*) and viewers' advertising processing (*Identification Process* and *CSR Process*). Specifically, as shown in Figure 5.2, this relationship is assumed to be moderated by two *Moderators*. A moderator is either a qualitative (e.g. sex, race) or quantitative (e.g. income) variable which affects a known relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Two types of moderator variables are commonly used in multi-racial advertising studies, namely the *Racial group* (e.g. Grier, Brumbaugh and Thornton, 2006; Perkins *et al.*, 2000) and the *Racial attitude* consisting of the identification level (e.g. Lee, Fernandez and Martin, 2002; Simpson, Snuggs, Christiansen and Simples, 2000; Whittler and Spira, 2002) and the prejudice level (e.g. Bush *et al.*, 1979; Ouellet, 2007; Whittler, 1991; Whittler and DiMeo, 1991). The hypotheses associated with each moderator are discussed below.

### **5.2.1 The Racial Group**

This section presents the research hypotheses related to the effects of the interaction between the type of advertisement (*Ad exposure*) and viewers' *Racial group* on both Identification and CSR processes.

#### **5.2.1.1 Identification Process**

This first section introduces the research hypotheses associated with the moderational role of viewers' *Racial group* on the relationship between the type of advertisement viewed and viewers' *Identification Process*. In accordance with the Identification Theory (Kelman, 1961), it is assumed that viewers exposed to an advertisement automatically assess their level of

*Similarity* with the actors used in the advertisement and make a *Similarity* judgment (Appiah, 2001). Specifically, Whittler (1989) found that black respondents perceived themselves as less similar to white than to black actors, whereas whites perceived themselves as more similar to white than to black actors. Hence,  $H^1$  predicts a two-way interaction (*Ad exposure* x *Racial group*) which influences viewers' *Similarity* judgment:

→  $H^1$ : *The influence of actors' race on the similarity to the actors perceived by the viewer is moderated by viewers' racial group.*

In fact, this general hypothesis  $H^1$  leads to two sub-hypotheses. Firstly,  $H^{1.1}$  states that viewers will perceive more *Similarity* with advertisements featuring actors from their own *Racial group* only. Hence, black respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to black actors than to white actors. Similarly, white respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to white actors than to black actors. Moreover, because the three advertisements feature only black and/or white actors,  $H^{1.1}$  also assumed that viewers who are neither black nor white (i.e. Indian, Asian, coloured, etc.) will not express differences in their *Similarity* based on the race of the advertisement's actors:

→  $H^{1.1}$ : *Viewers will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only than to advertisements where actors from their racial group are portrayed with actors from other racial groups or are absent.*

$H^{1.1}$  is tested by means of three hypotheses which are related to a specific *Racial group*:

→  $H^{1.1.1}$ : *Black respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in all-black advertisement than actors in all-white and multi-racial advertisements.*

→  $H^{1.1.2}$ : *White respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in all-white advertisement than actors in all-black and multi-racial advertisements.*

→  $H^{1.1.3}$ : *Viewers who are neither black nor white will not perceive a difference in their similarity based on the race of the actors in the advertisements.*

Furthermore, the second sub-hypothesis  $H^{1.2}$  assumes that viewers, exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their *Racial group*, will perceive more *Similarity* than viewers from other *Racial groups* exposed to the same advertisement. In other words, black viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in the all-black advertisement than white, Indian, Asian or coloured respondents. Similarly, white viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in the all-white advertisement than black, Indian, Asian

or coloured respondents. Moreover,  $H^{1.2}$  also suggests that a multi-racial advertisement allows black and white viewers to maintain the same level of *Similarity*, whereas black and white viewers will perceive a greater *Similarity* than respondents who are neither black nor white:

→  $H^{1.2}$ : *Viewers, exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group, will perceive more similarity than viewers who do not have actor from their racial group portrayed.*

$H^{1.2}$  is tested through three hypotheses which are associated to a specific *Racial group*:

→  $H^{1.2.1}$ : *Black viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-black advertisement than white, Indian, Asian or coloured respondents.*

→  $H^{1.2.2}$ : *White viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-white advertisement than black, Indian, Asian or coloured respondents.*

→  $H^{1.2.3}$ : *Exposed to a multi-racial advertisement, black and white viewers will maintain the same level of similarity, and they will together perceive a greater similarity than respondents who are neither black nor white*

In addition, viewer's *Racial group* is also assumed to moderate the relationship between *Ad exposure* and the *CSR process*. This moderational role is presented in the following section.

#### 5.2.1.2 CSR Process

This section introduces the effect of viewers' exposure to a specific advertisement on *CSR Process*. Most studies that have examined CSR within the context of multi-racial advertising have done so in general terms and not with respect to a specific advertisement (e.g. Basson, 1988; Bullock, 1961; Cohen, 1970; Gould et al. 1970; Surlin, 1977). Consequently,  $H^2$  considers that:

→  $H^2$ : *Viewers will attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement.*

Attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967) provides a basis for this second hypothesis (see Section 4.3.1). Indeed, in advertising studies, this theory suggests that consumers who are exposed to a specific advertisement evaluate the brand according to the motives that they attribute to be the cause of the advertisement (Grewal, Gotlieb and Marmorstein, 1994). The above conceptual framework argues that consumers' attributions play an important role in advertising processing, particularly when multi-racial appeals are utilized. Specifically, Figure

5.2 illustrates that a *CSR Process* starts when a viewer exposed to a specific advertisement (*Ad exposure*) credits it with a social responsibility (SR) component.

Considering South African advertisers implicitly take part in ‘nation-building’ by manipulating actors’ race in advertising (see Section 4.4.2), the construct, *SR attributed to the ad*, is operationalised as the extent to which viewers see a specific advertisement as representing and shaping social and racial harmony. This variable measures the extent to which they believe a particular advertisement has a positive influence on South African society. Hence,  $H^{2.1}$  supposes that consumers will attribute more social responsibility to multi-racial advertising than to ‘mono-racial’ advertisements:

→  $H^{2.1}$ : *Viewers, regardless of their racial group, will attribute more social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than to all-white and all-black advertisements.*

However, *SR attributed to the ad* is assumed to be valenced by consumer scepticism (Forehand and Grier, 2003) towards multi-racial advertising. For instance, several South African researchers have criticized this practice of multi-racial advertising (e.g. Baliserio 1997; Berger 2001; Bertelsen, 1996; 1998) (see Section 4.4.1). This scepticism is assumed to valence consumers’ attribution to the advertisements. Typically, studies have found that consumers’ scepticism is influenced by the *Racial group* to which they belong to (Basson, 1988; De Kock, 1982; Grier and Deshpandé, 2001). In her survey, Basson (1988) showed that while many black South African consumers believed that advertisers hoped to achieve better race relations through multi-racial commercials, many white South African believed that multi-racial advertisements were used primarily for less altruistic reasons. This is consistent with the studies that found black South Africans more positive and less sceptical than whites about advertising (Grier and Deshpandé, 2001) and multi-racial advertising in general (Basson, 1988; De Kock, 1982),  $H^{2.2}$  proposes:

→  $H^{2.2}$ : *Black viewers will attribute more social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than white viewers.*

It is also hypothesised that viewers whose racial group is not represented in the multi-racial advertisement (*versus* black and white viewers) will attribute negative social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement because of their “eviction” from the new national and racial harmony represented via this type of advertisement. Hence,  $H^{2.3}$  supposes that:

→  $H^{2.3}$ : *Viewers who are neither black nor white will attribute less social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than black and white viewers.*

In conclusion, the hypotheses presented in this first section, aimed to demonstrate the moderational role of viewers' *Racial group* on viewers' advertising processing. However, studies have pointed out that *Racial groups* are not homogenous in term of reactions towards multi-racial advertisements (e.g. Green, 1999; Williams *et al.*, 1995). Thus, a second moderator variable –viewers' *Racial attitude*– is commonly used in multi-racial marketing studies (e.g. Bush *et al.*, 1979; Lee, Fernandez and Martin, 2002; Ouellet, 2007; Simpson, Snuggs, Christiansen and Simples, 2000; Whittler, 1991; Whittler and DiMeo, 1991). Its influence is discussed in the next section.

### 5.2.2 Racial Attitude

The analysis of the *Racial attitude* is consistent with the anthropological tradition of *emic* measurement (Hirschman, 1981; Pires and Stanton, 2000; Stayman and Deshpandé, 1989) which considers that racial identity is not an inherent characteristic but a construct which develops over time (see Section 2.2). *Racial attitude* is operationalised as the general psychological attitude of individuals towards their own *Racial group* (in-group identification level) and towards other racial groups (out-group prejudice level). Identification and Prejudice levels are psychological statements which are determinants of the individual differences in consumer marketplace behaviour (e.g. Deshpandé, Hoyer and Donthu, 1986; Hirschman, 1981; Green, 1999).

In compliance with the Identification Theory (Kelman, 1961), multi-racial marketing studies have assumed that both Identification and Prejudice levels were reciprocally related (e.g. Whittler, 1989; 1991). Viewers who had a high level of identification towards their *Racial group* were also assumed to hold a high level of prejudice towards other racial groups, and vice versa (Whittler, 1989; 1991). Thus, black viewers' reactions were merely analysed in terms of high- or low-identification (e.g. Whittler 1989; 1991; Whittler and Spira 2002; Williams, Qualls and Grier 1995), whereas white viewers' reactions were studied in terms of high- and low-prejudice (e.g. Bush *et al.* 1979; Cagley and Cardozo 1970; Tolley and Goett 1971; Whittler 1989; 1991; Whittler and DiMeo 1991). Considering the turbulent history of race relations in South Africa, this reciprocity between in-group identification and out-group prejudice seems worth further consideration. Indeed, as noted by Gibson (2006), apartheid

gave ideological, pseudo-scientific and religious justifications for inter-racial differences and rankings. This system encouraged and legitimized in-group identification and out-group vilification. Consequently, Gibson (2006:667) considers that an important legacy of apartheid could be “strong in-group identities among South Africans, coupled with ample inter-group animosity, prejudice, and intolerance”.

Nonetheless, Duckitt and Mphuting (1998) and then Gibson (2006) did not find clear evidence supporting this reciprocity in South Africa. Indeed, although Duckitt and Mphuting (1998) found a significant interrelationship between in-group identification and negative attitudes towards Afrikaaners among black South Africans, they did not find a correlation between high-identification black South Africans and negative attitudes towards English-speaking whites nor towards whites in general. Conversely, Duckitt and Mphuting (1998) found an unexpectedly significant, though weak, tendency for high-identification blacks to possess positive attitudes towards whites in general. Moreover, Gibson’s (2006) findings confirmed that group identities were not useful predictors of South African intolerance. In-group identity did not activate out-group intolerance for either black or white respondents.

Hence, in differentiating viewers’ identification level from their prejudice level, the present thesis attempts to remedy a lack in the racial marketing literature. The following sub-parts discuss the moderational role of viewers’ *Racial attitude* on Identification and CSR processes.

#### 5.2.2.1 Identification Process

The *Racial attitude* is assumed to influence the *Identification Process* in compliance with Kelman’s (1961) Identification Theory. Indeed, this theory suggests that viewers who maintain a strong racial identity (high-identification) will react favourably to an advertisement using actors from their *Racial group* due to a positive *Identification Process*. Specifically, Whittler and Spira (2002) found that high-identification black viewers perceive themselves as more similar to black actors than do low-identification black viewers. Hence, on the basis of their in-group favouritism, high-identification black viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to black actors in the all-black advertisement than will low-identification black viewers. Similarly, high-identification white viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to white actors in the all-white advertisement than will low-identification white viewers. On the other hand, because it is assumed that in-group favouritism does not imply out-group intolerance (Gibson, 2006), high- and low-identification black viewers will show no

difference in their *Similarity* perceived with the actors in the all-white advertisement. Similarly, high- and low-identification white viewers will show no difference in their *Similarity* perceived with the actors in the all-black advertisement. Also, because none of the actors featured in the three advertisements is from their *Racial group*, the in-group identification level of viewers who are neither black nor white does not influence their *Similarity* judgment. Specifically, the following hypothesis was tested:

→  $H^3$ : *Viewers who maintain a strong racial identity (versus viewers who maintain a weak racial identity) will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only. On the other hand, the identification level will not influence viewers' similarity judgment when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from another racial group only.*

The general hypothesis  $H^3$  is tested through three sub-hypotheses. Each of these sub-hypotheses is related to a specific *Racial group*:

→  $H^{3.1}$ : *High-identification black will viewers perceive themselves as more similar to the actors in an all-black advertisement than will low-identification black viewers; whereas high- and low-identification black viewers will show no difference in their judgment of similarity towards actors featured in an all-white advertisement.*

→  $H^{3.2}$ : *High-identification white viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors in an all-white advertisement than will low-identification white viewers; whereas high- and low-identification white viewers will show no difference in their judgment of similarity towards actors featured in an all-black advertisement.*

→  $H^{3.3}$ : *High- and low- identification viewers who are neither black nor white will show no difference in their judgment of similarity towards actors featured in all-black, all-white and multi-racial advertisements.*

$H^3$  tests how identification level influences viewer' *Similarity* judgment towards in-group actors only, and not their judgment towards out-group actors. Indeed, viewers' judgment towards out-group actors depends on their level of prejudice. Thus, on the basis of their out-group intolerance, black viewers possessing prejudice against whites will perceive themselves as less similar to the actors in the all-white advertisement than black viewers who do not possess prejudice against the white population. Similarly, white viewers possessing prejudice against blacks will perceive themselves as less similar to the actors in the all-black advertisement than white viewers who do not possess prejudice against the black population.

Conversely, because out-group intolerance does not imply in-group favouritism the following hypotheses assume that low- and high-prejudice black viewers will show no difference in their judgment of *Similarity* towards the actors in an all-black advertisement. Also, low- and high-prejudice white viewers will show no difference in their judgment of *Similarity* towards the actors in an all-white advertisement.  $H^4$  tests the arguments:

→  $H^4$ : *Viewers who do not have prejudice towards out-group (versus viewers who have strong prejudice) will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from another racial group only. On the other hand, the prejudice level will not influence viewers' similarity judgment when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only.*

The general hypothesis  $H^4$  is also tested through sub-hypotheses. Each of these sub-hypotheses is related to a specific *Racial group*:

→  $H^{4.1}$ : *Low-prejudice black viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-white advertisement than those who are high-prejudice; whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity judgment when they are exposed to an all-black advertisement.*

→  $H^{4.2}$ : *Low-prejudice white viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-black advertisement than those who are high-prejudice; whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity judgment when they are exposed to an all-white advertisement.*

Moreover, it is assumed that the out-group prejudice level of viewers who are neither black nor white will influence their *Similarity* judgment. Indeed, they will consider each actor featured in the advertisements as an out-group member. However, their out-group prejudice level is not assumed to be the same towards the black and white population. Thus, viewers who are neither black nor white are assumed to hold two prejudice levels: one towards black people and another towards white people. The following sub-hypotheses of  $H^4$  test the *Similarity* judgment of viewers who are neither black nor white:

→  $H^{4.3}$ : *The other viewers (neither black nor white) who hold a low-prejudice towards the black population will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-black advertisement than those who are high-prejudice, whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity when they are exposed to an all-white advertisement.*

- ➔  $H^{4.4}$ : *The other viewers (neither black nor white) who hold a low-prejudice towards the white population will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-white advertisement than those who are high-prejudice, whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity when they are exposed to an all-black advertisement.*
- ➔  $H^{4.5}$ : *The other viewers (neither black nor white) who hold a low-prejudice towards black and white people will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in a multi-racial advertisement than those who hold high-prejudice towards black and white people.*

Finally, black and white viewers' reactions to a multi-racial advertisement create a more complex pattern. Indeed, because both races are represented in the multi-racial advertisement, viewers' *Similarity* judgment towards the actors in this advertisement may depend on both identification and prejudice levels. Thus, it is expected that black viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in the multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice. Similarly, white viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in the multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice.

- ➔  $H^5$ : *Viewers who maintain a strong racial identity and low out-group prejudice will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than viewers who maintain a weak racial identity and high out-group prejudice.*

The general hypothesis  $H^5$  is also tested by means of two sub-hypotheses associated with black and white viewers, respectively:

- ➔  $H^{5.1}$ : *Black viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice towards whites will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice.*
- ➔  $H^{5.2}$ : *White viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice towards blacks will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice.*

Viewer's *Racial attitude* is also assumed to moderate the relationship between *Ad exposure* and the *CSR process*. This moderational role is presented in the following section.

#### 5.2.2.2 CSR process

*Racial attitude* is also assumed to influence the *CSR process*. Indeed, this variable is compared to another moderator variable – CSR support – used by Sen and Bhattacharya (2001). These authors distinguish between two types of reactions to the CSR actions undertaken by a firm: consumers whose self-concept includes support of the company's CSR domain (i.e. high CSR support) *versus* those whose support of that domain is low (i.e. low CSR support). According to Sen and Bhattacharya (2001), the moderator role of this concept would have appeared implicitly in prior research in the role of “cause affinity among key constituents” (Drumwright, 1996), “importance of issue to self” (Haley, 1996), and “personal relevance” (Creyer and Ross, 1997), in consumers' reactions to CSR. Unsurprisingly then, Sen and Bhattacharya (2001:238) found that the positive effect of CSR initiatives on consumers' company evaluations is moderated by their support of the CSR domain. Hence, H<sup>6</sup> considers that:

➔ *H<sup>6</sup>: The racial attitude of the viewers and their corresponding support for the CSR action influences the way viewers attribute a social dimension to a multi-racial advertisement.*

The general hypothesis H<sup>6</sup> is broken down into three sub-hypotheses associated with viewers' *Racial group*. Firstly, hypothesis H<sup>6.1</sup> argues that black viewers, who possess high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (*versus* low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice), will experience a positive *CSR Process* when they are exposed to a multi-racial advertisement, because of their strong support for and involvement in the upliftment of the black community:

➔ *H<sup>6.1</sup>: Black viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibilities to a multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice (low CSR support).*

On the other hand, H<sup>6.2</sup> argues that white viewers' *Racial attitude* will also influence their social attribution. Thus, it is hypothesised that white viewers, who possess high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (*versus* low in-group identification and high out-

group prejudice), will experience a positive *CSR Process*. This hypothesis is consistent with the concept of White Guilt in which “a person who identifies strongly with being [white] experiences culpability, shame, or remorse over his or her groups’ perceived past actions and tries to compensate for them by reacting more positively towards other groups than towards their own in-group” (Reed, 2003:11). Hence:

→  $H^{6.2}$ : *White viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (White Guilt hypothesis - high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibilities to a multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice (low CSR support).*

Moreover,  $H^{6.3}$  considers that the *Racial attitudes* of viewers who are neither black nor white also influence their social responsibility attribution. Indeed, viewers (neither black nor white) who do not maintain prejudice towards blacks or whites are assumed to be more socially sensitive and interested in the transmission of tolerant message in the society. Hence  $H^{6.3}$  hypothesises:

→  $H^{6.3}$ : *Viewers (neither black nor white) who do not maintain prejudice towards blacks and whites (high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than those who hold prejudice towards blacks and whites (low CSR support).*

In conclusion, this section introduced the first step of the conceptual framework described in Figure 5.2. It introduced the research hypotheses associated with the relationship between viewers’ exposure to different type of advertisements (*Ad exposure*) and viewers’ advertising processing (*Identification Process* and *CSR Process*). Specifically, it highlighted the moderational role on this relationship of both *Racial group* and *Racial attitude*. The second step, which describes the persuasion process followed by viewers exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement, is discussed below.

### **5.3 Multi-racial Advertisement: Persuasion Process**

This section presents the persuasion process followed by a consumer exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement. The focus of the two following parts is the research hypotheses related to the two main processes, namely the *Identification Process* and the *CSR Process*. The variable *Company/brand identification*, influenced by both *Identification* and *CSR*

processes, is then introduced into the conceptual framework. Finally, the conceptual framework is completed by the Dual-Mediation Hypothesis (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986) and tested in its entirety.

### 5.3.1 The Identification Process

The seventh hypothesis is associated with the *Identification Process* followed by viewers exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement. This process supposes that marketers who want to market their brand to the South African multi-racial market must, for example, use white and black actors so that both white and black consumers can identify with the actors. The beginning of the psychological process is the *Similarity* perceived between the viewers and the actors. This perceived *Similarity* affords the viewer an opportunity to establish a relationship with the actors. This in turn enables consumers to recognize themselves as the target of the advertisement and this will positively influence their attitude towards the advertising. This process – called the *Identification Process* – is consistent with Kelman's (1961) theory of social influence on the changes in attitude and is tested by H<sup>7</sup>:

→ H<sup>7</sup>: *Viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement produces an Identification Process.*

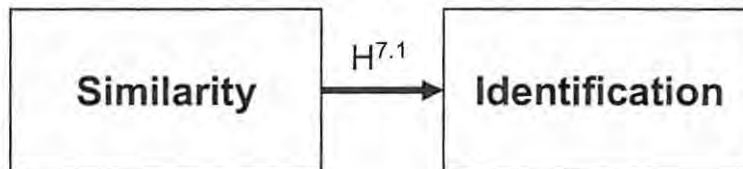
This general hypothesis H<sup>7</sup> is then tested by means of several sub-hypotheses which represent each path of the process. These sub-hypotheses are discussed below.

Studies (e.g. Brock, 1965; Burnstein, Stotland and Zander, 1961; McGuire, 1985; Simons, Berkowitz and Moyer, 1970) argue that sources (or models/actors) perceived as similar by their audience are more likely to encourage persuasion than sources perceived as dissimilar. Indeed, similar sources are perceived as more credible, more trustworthy and more respectable by the targeted audience (Simons *et al.*, 1970). In the multi-racial advertising context, Whittler (1991:390) argues that an actor's race may induce viewers to infer a *Similarity* or dissimilarity judgment which influences the *Identification*.

*Identification* is the process of the viewer establishing a satisfying self-defining relationship with the actors/models. Kelman (1961) defines this relationship as one that forms a part of the viewer's self-image. Thus, *Identification* consists of viewers establishing or maintaining a relationship with models/actors in order to comply with their own self-definition (Kelman, 1961). *Identification* is tightly linked with the viewer's *Similarity* judgment (Appiah, 2001). Indeed, studies showed that viewers who perceive models as possessing characteristics, such

as race, similar to their own infer that these models will also share other characteristics with them; this leads finally to a greater *Identification* (Appiah, 2001; Brock, 1965; Feick and Higie, 1992). This translates into hypothesis  $H^{7.1}$  presented in Figure 5.3:

**Figure 5.3: Hypothesis  $H^{7.1}$**

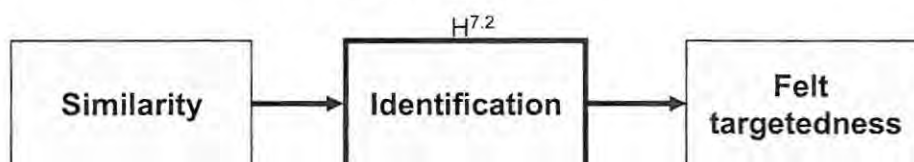


In summary,

→  $H^{7.1}$ : *The more viewers perceive themselves as similar to an advertisement’s actors, the more they will identify themselves with the actors.*

Studies have found that the similarities felt by viewers towards an actor increase the viewers’ belief that they are the intended audience for the advertisement (Aaker *et al.*, 2000; Appiah 2001; Grier, Brumbaugh and Thornton, 2006). The belief – called *Felt targetedness* – can be understood as multi-racial advertising’s cognition association and represents how the viewer feels about being the target of the advertisement (Aaker *et al.*, 2000). The psychological process which underlies the causal relationship between the perceived *Similarity* and the *Felt targetedness* is the *Identification* (Appiah, 2001). Hence, hypothesis  $H^{7.2}$  (Figure 5.4) suggests that *Identification* mediates the relationship between the viewers’ *Similarity* judgment and the viewers’ *Felt targetedness*:

**Figure 5.4: Hypothesis  $H^{7.2}$**

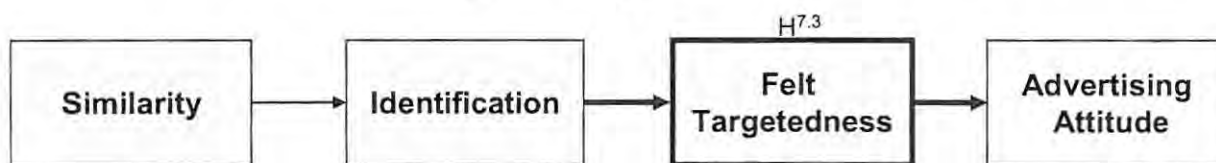


Thus,

→  $H^{7.2}$ : *The more the similarity judgment influences how viewers identify themselves with actors, the more they will believe they are the intended audience for the advertisement. In other words, the relationship between viewers’ similarity judgment and their belief that they are the intended audience for the advertisement is mediated by the viewer’s identification with the actors.*

Finally, the aim of the *Identification Process* is to influence attitudes (Kelman, 1961). In advertising studies, this attitude is expressed through the key concept of attitude towards the advertising. In order to be consistent with the studies of MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch (1986), this conceptualization considers the attitude towards the advertising as a unidimensional and a mainly affective construct. Aaker *et al.* (2000) found that the *Felt targetedness* influences the attitude towards the advertising. Hypothesis H<sup>7.3</sup> (see Figure 5.5) is also in accordance to Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory which considers that attitude emanates from cognitive association:

Figure 5.5: Hypothesis H<sup>7.3</sup>



Consequently,

→ H<sup>7.3</sup>: *The more the viewers' identification with actors influences how viewers believe they are the intended audience for the advertisement, the more they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. In other words, H<sup>7.3</sup> supposes that the relationship between viewer's identification and their attitude towards the advertisement is mediated by their belief that they are the intended audience.*

The *Identification Process* of viewers of multi-racial advertising has been well researched (Grier and Brumgaugh, 2005) with a particular focus on its consequences for advertising effectiveness (e.g. Bush, Hair and Solomon, 1979; Whittler, 1989; 1991; Whittler and Spira, 2002; Williams, Qualls and Grier, 1995). On the other hand, the implications of the *CSR Process* in multi-racial advertising, has not received the same amount of attention. This is discussed below.

### 5.3.2 The CSR Process

Most studies that have examined CSR within the context of multi-racial advertising have done so in general terms and not with respect to a specific multi-racial advertisement (e.g. Basson, 1988; Bullock, 1961; Cohen, 1970; Gould *et al.* 1970; Surlin, 1977). This study's approach to the analysis of the CSR phenomenon is consistent with recent marketing trends which study

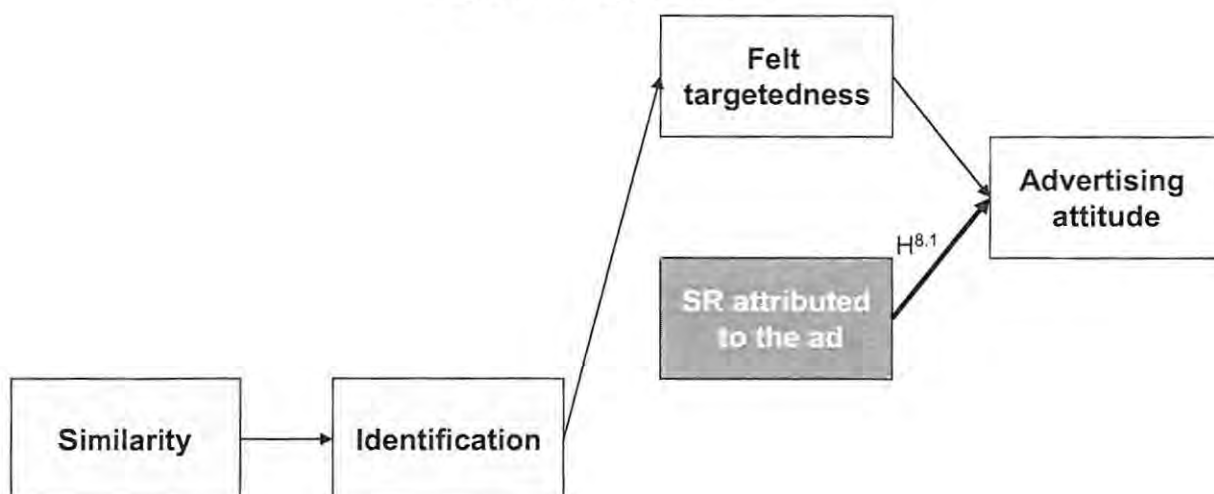
consumers' reactions to CSR actions (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). These studies have found that a firm perceived as high in social responsibility enhances its level of evaluation among consumers, which leads to a more favourable evaluation of the firm's products and increases the possibility that the consumer will purchase the firm's products (Brown and Dacin, 1997; Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; David, Kline and Dai, 2005; Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Hence, the conceptualization through H<sup>8</sup> hypothesises that:

→ H<sup>8</sup>: *The viewers' exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement produces a CSR Process*

This general hypothesis H<sup>8</sup> is also tested by means of several sub-hypotheses which represent each path of the process. These sub-hypotheses are discussed below.

The *CSR process* starts when a viewer exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement credits it with a social responsibility (SR) component. As noted previously, this first CSR's construct (i.e. SR attributed to the advertisement) measures the extent to which viewers believe that a particular advertisement has a positive influence on South African society. Consistent with the Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory, hypothesis H<sup>8.1</sup>, presented in Figure 5.6, supposes that this viewer's cognitive association also influences the attitude towards the advertisement:

**Figure 5.6: Hypothesis H<sup>8.1</sup>**

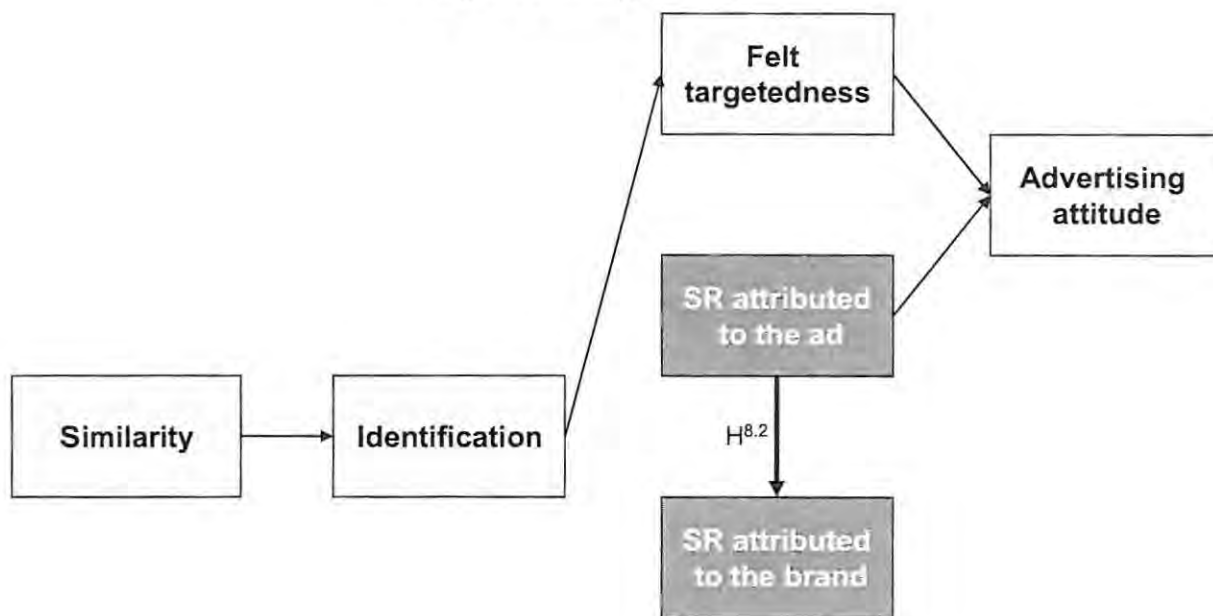


Hence,

→ H<sup>8.1</sup>: *The more viewers attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement, the more they will exhibit a favourable attitude towards the advertisement.*

Although there are no existing scales to measure the construct *SR attributed to the ad*, the variable *SR attributed to the brand* is well-known and often used. Brown and Dacin (1997) argue that the cognitive evaluation of a firm (or brand)'s attributes is multidimensional. Brown and Dacin (1997) distinguish two key components, namely the Corporate Ability associations and the Corporate Social Responsibility associations (see Section 4.5.2.2). The former is related to the company's expertise (e.g. employees, innovation, manufacturing expertise, customer's orientation, industry leadership) in producing and delivering its outputs, while the latter concerns the organisation's status and activities in regard to its perceived societal obligations (Brown and Dacin, 1997:68). Thus, the second step of the *CSR Process* assumes that the viewers' belief that the advertisement is socially responsible positively affects their cognitive associations about the brand which uses a multi-racial advertisement. This link is captured in  $H^{8.2}$ , displayed in Figure 5.7:

**Figure 5.7: Hypothesis  $H^{8.2}$**



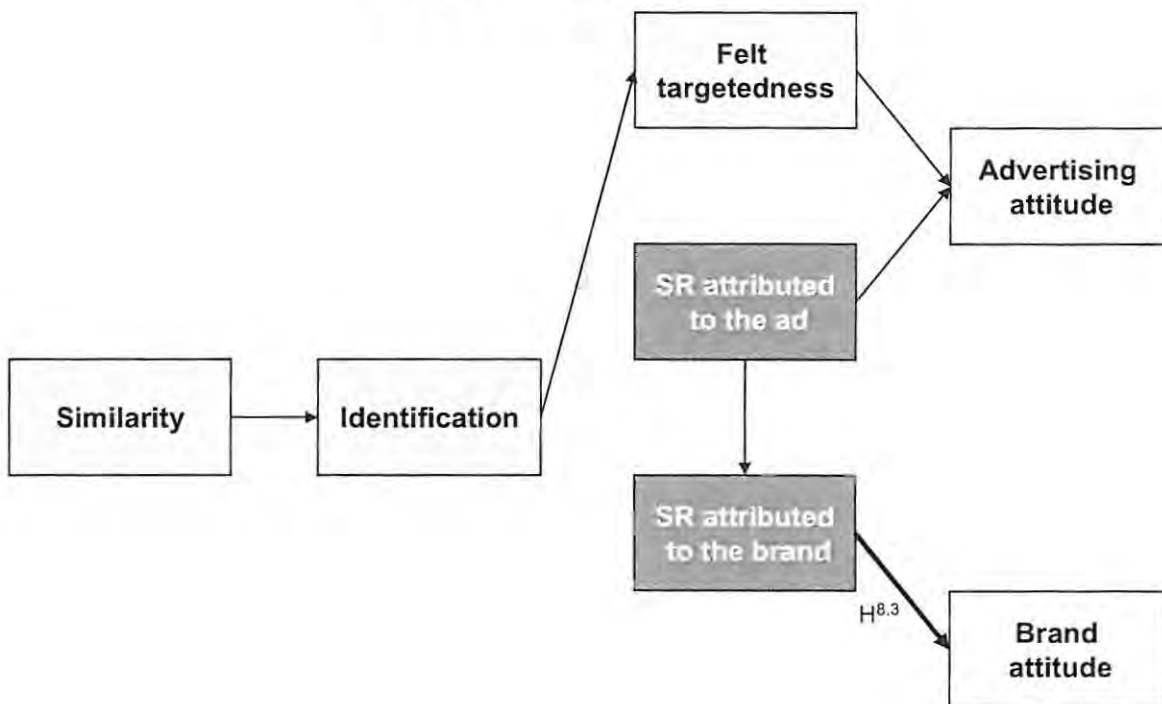
Thus,

→  $H^{8.2}$ : *The more viewers attribute social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement, the more they will also attribute social responsibility to the brand which uses this advertisement.*

It is widely acknowledged that a company perceived as socially responsible, positively increases its reputation (Berens and van Riel, 2004; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Porter and Kramer, 2006) and its perception among consumers (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Ellen, Webb

and Mohr, 2006; Mohr and Webb, 2005). Brown and Dacin (1997) found that, although Corporate Ability associations are more influential, CSR's influence on consumers' attitude towards the brand is effective. Similar to the attitude towards the advertising, the attitude towards the brand is analysed as a unidimensional and mainly affective construct (MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986). The causal relationship between viewers' CSR attributions and the attitude towards the brand is hypothesised in Figure 5.8:

**Figure 5.8: Hypothesis H<sup>8.3</sup>**



Thus,

→ *H<sup>8.3</sup>: The more viewers attribute social responsibility to the brand which uses a multi-racial advertisement, the more they will exhibit a favourable attitude towards this brand.*

Moreover, several studies of consumers' reactions towards CSR actions have established an influence of the *SR attributed to the brand* on the way in which consumers identify themselves with the brand – called *Company/brand identification* (e.g. Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Einwiller, Fedorikhin, Johnson and Kamins, 2006; Lichtenstein, Drumwright and Braig, 2004; Maignan and Ferrell, 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Sen, Bhattacharya and Korschun, 2006). This thesis argues that this latter construct is influenced by both processes.

### 5.3.3 The Company/Brand Identification Model

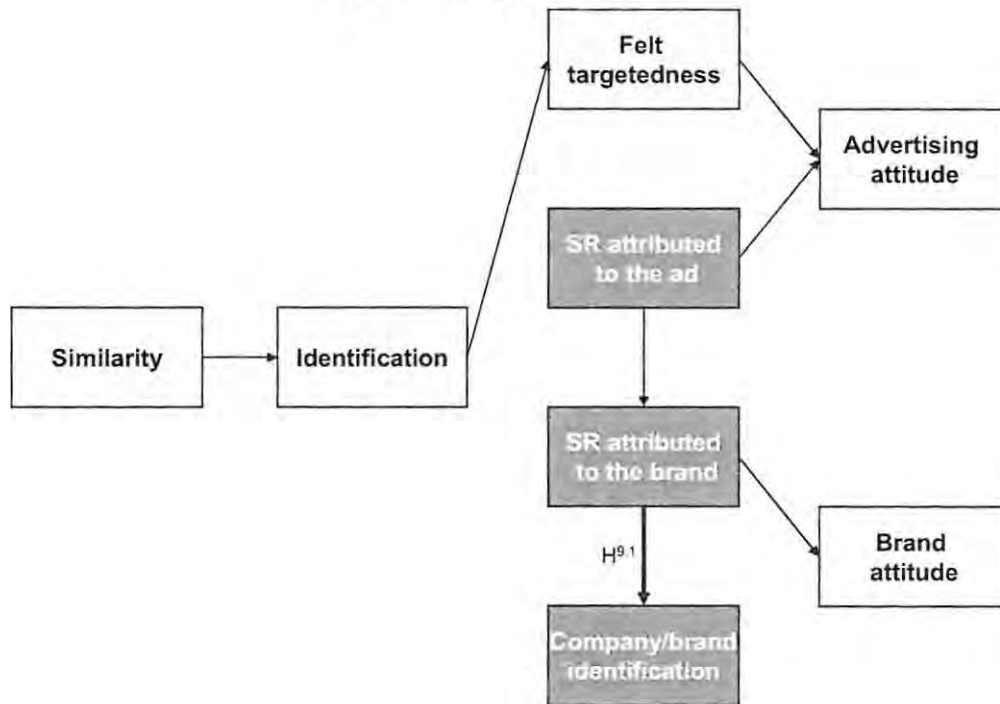
The construct –*Company/brand identification*– was originally developed to measure employees’ relationships with the organisation by which they are employed (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994). It has recently been adapted for use in marketing research (Ahearne, Bhattacharya and Gruen, 2005; Bhattacharya, Sen and Korschun, 2007; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). *Company/brand identification* is defined as a cognitive connection between a person and a company (Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail, 1994). Hence, according to Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) *Company/brand identification* occurs when consumers compare their own defining characteristics (e.g. personality traits, values, demographics) with those that define the company. The conceptualisation argues that when viewers are exposed to a multi-racial advertisement, their level of identification with the company/brand is influenced by both Identification and CSR processes. This argument is translated into hypothesis H<sup>9</sup>:

→ H<sup>9</sup>: *The viewers’ exposure to a multi-racial advertisement enables viewers to identify themselves with the company/brand through the CSR process and the identification process.*

This general hypothesis H<sup>9</sup> is then tested via three sub-hypotheses which represent each path of the process. These sub-hypotheses are discussed below.

Firstly, studies have found that consumers are more likely to identify with an organisation when they perceive its identity as socially responsible (e.g. Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Einwiller *et al.*, 2006; Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2004; Maignan and Ferrell, 2004; Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Sen, Bhattacharya and Korschun, 2006). Indeed, Lichtenstein *et al.* (2004:17) have pointed out that when a company “behaves in a manner that is perceived as socially responsible, consumers [infer] that it has certain desirable traits that resonate with their sense of self. As a result, consumers are more prone to identify with the company”. Hence, H<sup>9.1</sup> hypothesises that viewers’ *Company/brand identification* is first influenced by the *CSR process* as illustrated in Figure 5.9:

Figure 5.9: Hypothesis H<sup>9.1</sup>



Hence,

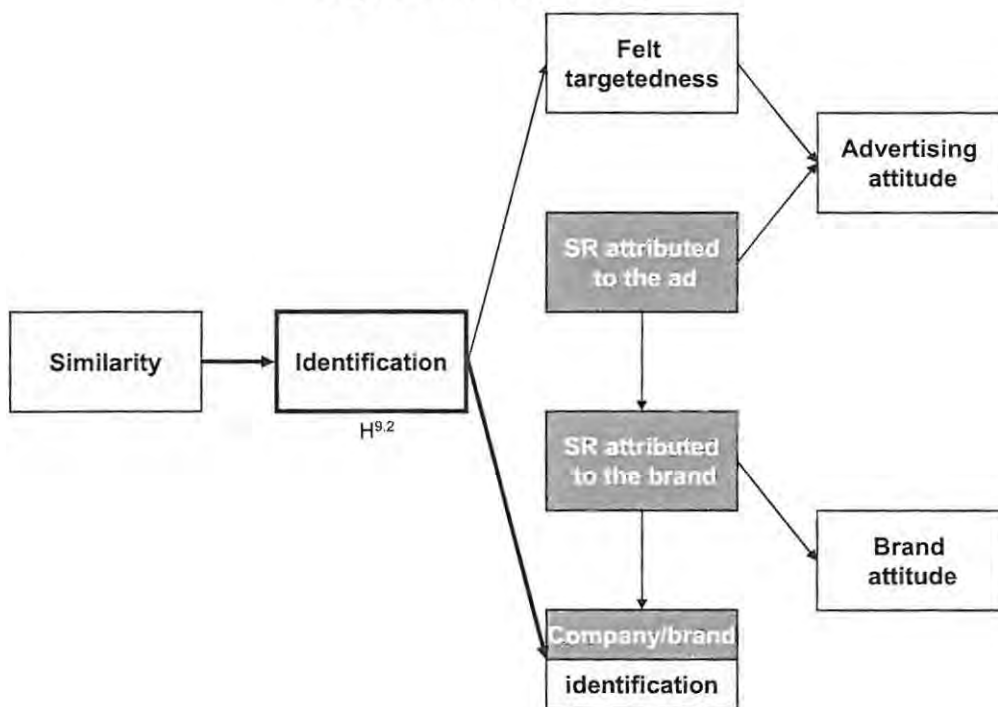
→  $H^{9.1}$ : *The more viewers attribute social responsibility to a brand, the more they will identify themselves with it.*

Moreover, according to Bhattacharya and Sen (2003), advertising is one of the more controllable communicators of a brand's identity and consequently may have a profound impact on a company's identification. Similarly, Bhattacharya and Elsbach (2005) argue that the content in advertisements is a component influencing the consumers' identification with the brand. The viewers of the advertisement will compare elements in advertisement (as representing the brand's identity) with their own identity and this will influence their level of *Company/brand identification*. Hence, it is argued that the demographic aspects of an advertisement's actors, and especially their race, also influence the way consumers perceive the brand's identity, which, in turn, leads to consumers' identification with the brand.

However, this notion has not been directly used in multi-racial advertising studies, even though this is implied in the research of Perkins, Thomas and Taylor (2000). Indeed, Perkins *et al.* (2000) point out that racial diversity of employees portrayed in recruitment advertisements may serve as an attraction mechanism for blacks in terms of feelings of compatibility. Furthermore, Whittler's (1991) results suggest that the use of black actors

engenders a better loyalty among black consumers. The underlying process of this latter effect might be the *Company/brand identification*. Indeed, considering Bhattacharya and Sen's (2003:79) conceptual framework, company loyalty is a direct behavioural consequence of the consumers' *Company/brand identification*. Hence, the *Identification Process* also influences how the consumers identify themselves with the brand. Hypothesis H<sup>9.2</sup>, shown in Figure 5.10, suggests that *Identification* mediates the relation between the viewers' *Similarity* judgment and the viewers' identification with the brand:

Figure 5.10: Hypothesis H<sup>9.2</sup>

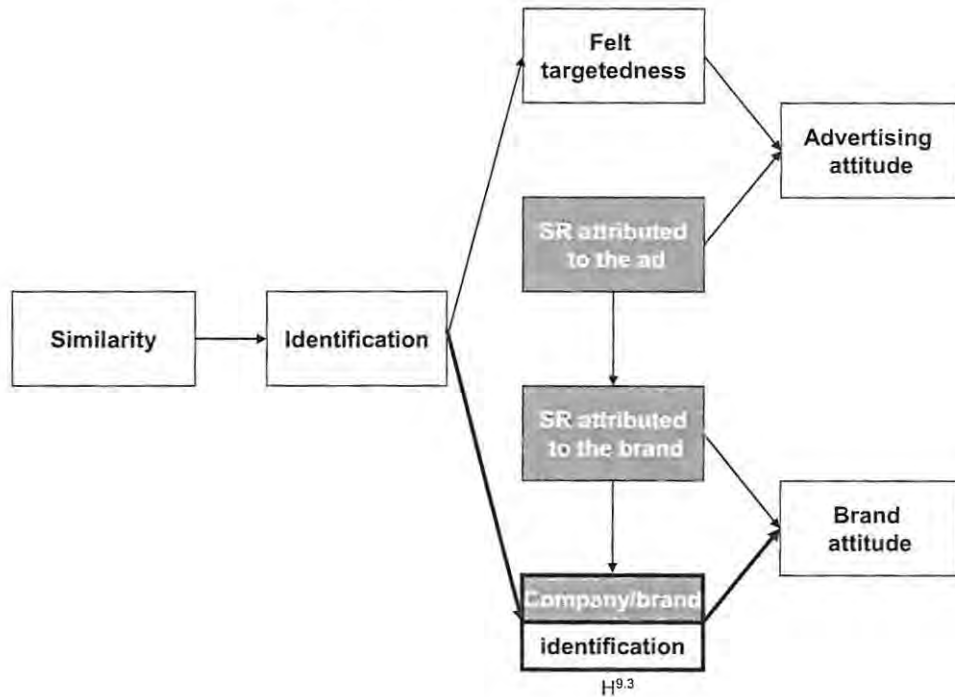


Thus,

→ H<sup>9.2</sup>: *The more the similarity judgment influences how viewers identify themselves with actors, the more they will identify themselves with the brand using a multi-racial advertisement. In other words, the relationship between viewers' similarity judgment and their identification with the brand is mediated by the viewer's identification with the models.*

Furthermore, extensive studies have found that consumers' identification with a brand improves their attitude towards the brand (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2005; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Lichtenstein, Drumwright and Braig, 2004; Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). This is translated into  $H^{9.3}$  which is displayed in Figure 5.11.

**Figure 5.11: Hypothesis  $H^{9.3}$**



→  $H^{9.3}$ : *The more the viewers' identification with actors influences how viewers identify themselves with the brand, the more they will have a positive attitude towards the brand. In other words, the relationship between a viewer's identification and their attitude towards the brand is mediated by their identification with the brand.*

Finally, once both persuasion processes are settled through hypotheses  $H^7$ ,  $H^8$  and  $H^9$ , the conceptual framework is completed by the Dual-Mediation Hypothesis (MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986).

### 5.3.4 The Dual-Mediation Hypothesis

Consistent with the hierarchy-of-effects framework (see Section 3.4.2.3), the *DMH* considers that advertising and brand cognitions determine advertising and brand attitudes, respectively. However, this hypothesis conveys an important change compared with preceding models of advertising persuasion. Indeed, unlike models such as the ELM (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986), it

argues that the peripheral and central routes are intertwined. This hypothesis considers that the affective reaction towards an advertisement (i.e. *Advertising attitude*) influences the affective reaction towards the brand (i.e. *Brand attitude*) but also how viewers establish or change their beliefs about the brand (i.e. *Brand cognition*). Hence, the *Advertising attitude* influences directly and indirectly the *Brand attitude*.

Studies have found that the nature of the relationships specified in the *DMH* are altered by consumers' involvement (e.g. Homer, 1990; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989; Muehling, Laczniak and Stoltman, 1991). The relationships between the constructs depicted in the *DMH* vary, depending on the advertising message involvement (AMI) and advertising execution involvement (AEI). AMI is related to consumers' involvement with the content of the communication, whereas AEI concerns consumers' involvement with contextual elements of the advertisement, such as colours, sources and other executional features (MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989). Both advertising involvements are broken down into two levels (i.e. low and high) and the combination of each level of involvement creates four sets of conditions (e.g. low AEI and low AMI, high AEI and low AMI) that affect the relationships of *DMH* (Lutz 1985).

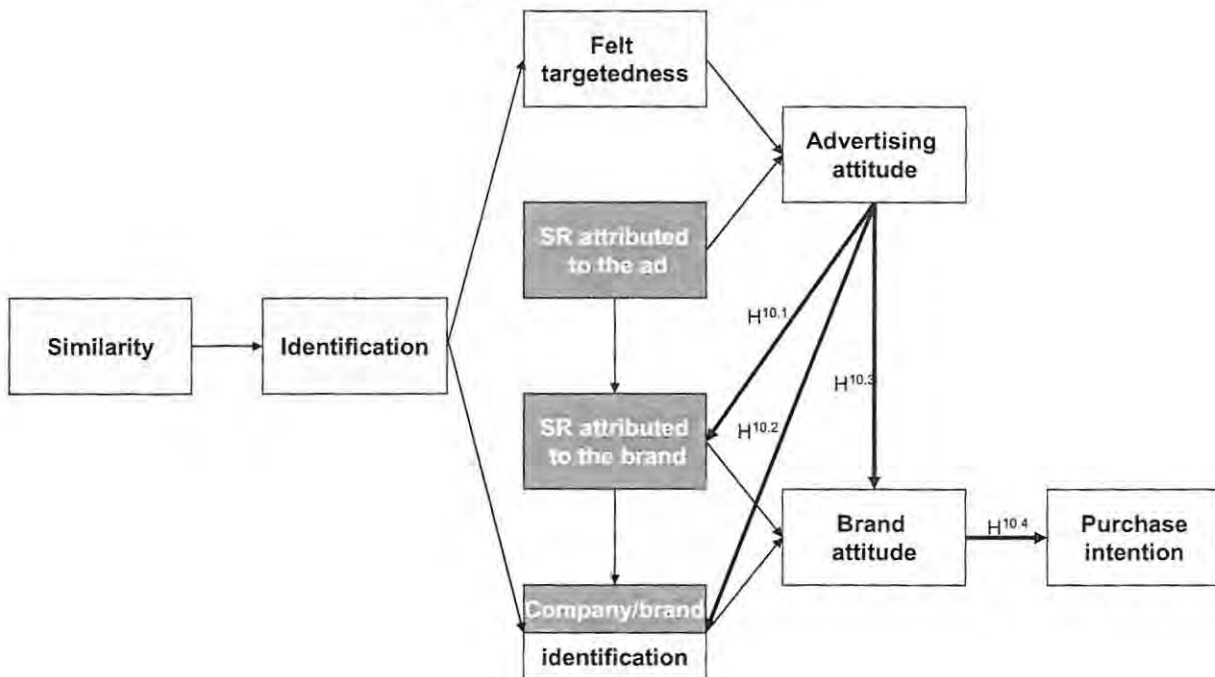
The race of an advertisement's actor as a source characteristic is, in essence, an executional feature (Haley, Richardson and Baldwin, 1984). Given that the conceptual framework presented in this study is focused on consumers' attribution to the use of multi-racial appeals in advertising, consumers' AEI is supposedly high (see MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989). However, a high AEI does not necessarily imply a low AMI. Indeed, studies have found that the race of an actor is not merely an executional and peripheral element (e.g. Petty, Fleming and White, 1999; White and Harkins, 1994; Whittler and Spira, 2002). On the contrary, these studies have pointed out that the race of an actor is a motivator variable in persuasion settings (Whittler and Spira, 2002). An actor's race increases message elaboration on the part of both white (Petty *et al.*, 1999; White and Harkins, 1994) and black (Whittler and Spira, 2002) recipients (see Section 3.5). Hence, in addition to proposing a high AEI, the conceptual framework formulated in this study is also consistent with previous studies which found that viewers of multi-racial advertising are also high in AMI. Specifically, Muehling *et al.* (1991) indicated that consumers high in both AMI and AEI use a process similar to that specified in the *DMH* to form their brand attitudes.

The conceptual framework presented in this thesis incorporates Yoon, Laczniak, Muehling and Reece's (1995) extensions to the *DMH*, to enhance the explanation about the attributions realized by consumers when multi-racial appeals are used. Yoon *et al.* (1995) argue that *Advertising cognition* may be broken down into ad 'claim' cognitions and ad 'non-claim' cognitions which are consistent with the notion of central/peripheral processing cues established by ELM. However, recent studies have also shown that the racial cue should not be classified as either a central or peripheral cue, but both (e.g. Petty *et al.*, 1999; White and Harkins, 1994; Whittler and Spira, 2002), and this is the approach taken in this study. Hence, hypotheses  $H^{10}$  proposes the incorporation of the *DMH* into the conceptual framework:

→  $H^{10}$ : *The Dual-Mediation Hypothesis is consistent with the persuasion process followed by viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement.*

In order to be consistent with the *DMH*, the constructs presented in Figure 5.12, *Felt targetedness* and *SR attributed to the ad*, are defined as aspects of advertising cognition, whereas the variables *SR attributed to the brand* and *Company/brand identification* are considered as brand cognition.

Figure 5.12: Hypothesis  $H^{10}$



Consequently, in accordance with the *DMH* and its extensions, the following sub-hypotheses are proposed:

- $H^{10.1}$ : *The more viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards an advertisement, the more they will attribute social responsibility to the brand.*
- $H^{10.2}$ : *The more viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards an advertisement, the more they will identify themselves with the company/brand.*
- $H^{10.3}$ : *The more viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards an advertisement, the more they will have a favourable attitude toward the brand.*

The *Purchase intention* represents the probability that consumers will buy the product promoted by the advertisement. Consistent with the *DMH*, *Purchase intention* is understood as a behavioural construct and is influenced by the attitude towards the brand as follows:

- $H^{10.4}$ : *The more viewers have a favourable attitude towards the brand, the more they will exhibit a high purchase intention.*

Finally, Structural Equation Modelling will be used to test simultaneously the hypotheses associated with *DMH* ( $H^{10}$ ), to both Identification ( $H^7$ ) and CSR ( $H^8$ ) processes, and to Company/brand identification model ( $H^9$ ). Hypothesis  $H^{11}$  aims to validate the entire conceptual framework displayed in Figure 5.1:

- $H^{11}$ : *Viewers exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement follow a two-way persuasion process.*

Nevertheless, it is assumed that viewers follow differently this two-way persuasion process in accordance with their *Racial group*. *Racial group* is hypothesised to moderate the paths of a viewer's persuasion process. This influence is discussed below.

### **5.3.5 The Moderating Influence of Viewers' Racial Group**

As mentioned earlier, *Racial group* is commonly used in multi-racial marketing studies as a moderator variable (see Section 3.1). Specifically, this thesis argues that the *Racial group* influences both Identification and CSR processes described in the conceptual framework:

- $H^{12}$ : *Viewers' racial group moderates some conceptual framework's paths.*

This general hypothesis  $H^{12}$  is then divided into 4 sub-hypotheses which are related to specific paths of the conceptual framework (see Figure 5.1). Thus, it is firstly argued that the

moderational role of *Racial group* is consistent with the Intercultural Accommodation Theory (see Section 2.3) which suggests that as A becomes more similar to B, the likelihood that B will evaluate A favourably is increased (Holland and Gentry, 1999; Koslow, Shamdasani and Touchstone, 1994). The fact that advertisers use more and more black actors in advertising is perceived by black viewers, who were not used to this representation, as an attempt to accommodate them. Hence, it is hypothesised that when black viewers perceive an attempt of accommodation they will respond more positively to the advertisement than white viewers:

→  $H^{12.1}$ : *When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between Felt targetedness and Advertising attitude is reinforced.*

In addition, South African studies have shown that blacks tend to be more positive and less sceptical than whites to advertising in general (Grier and Deshpandé, 2001) and to multi-racial advertising (Basson, 1988; De Kock, 1982). Thus, it is assumed that when viewers attribute a social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement, they will hold a more positive attitude towards the advertisement than white, Indian and coloured viewers who are supposed to be more sceptical. Thus,

→  $H^{12.2}$ : *When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between SR attributed to the ad and Advertising attitude is reinforced.*

Similarly, the general tendency for black viewers to be less sceptical than other viewers is also assumed to influence the relationships between *Advertising attitude* and *Brand attitude* and between *Brand Attitude* and *Purchase intention*. Firstly,  $H^{12.3}$  hypothesises that black viewers who have a positive attitude towards the advertisement will express a more favourable attitude towards the brand than white and other viewers who had the same level of attitude towards the advertisement.

→  $H^{12.3}$ : *When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between Advertising attitude and Brand attitude is reinforced.*

Moreover,  $H^{12.4}$  argues the path between *Brand attitude* and *Purchase intention* is stronger when viewers are black (*versus white and other viewers*).

→  $H^{12.4}$ : *When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between Brand attitude and Purchase intention is reinforced.*

## 5.4 Synopsis of Hypotheses

The hypotheses developed in sections 5.2 and 5.3 are set out in Table 5.1

**Table 5.1: Research Hypotheses – Recapitulative Table**

H <sup>1</sup> : The influence of actors' race on the similarity to the actors perceived by the viewer is moderated by viewers' racial group.
H <sup>1.1</sup> : Viewers will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only than to advertisements where actors from their racial group are portrayed with actors from other racial groups or are absent.
- H <sup>1.1.1</sup> : Black respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in all-black advertisement than actors in all-white and multi-racial advertisements.
- H <sup>1.1.2</sup> : White respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in all-white advertisement than actors in all-black and multi-racial advertisements.
- H <sup>1.1.3</sup> : Viewers who are neither black nor white will not perceive a difference in their similarity based on the race of the actors in the advertisements
H <sup>1.2</sup> : Viewers, exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group, will perceive more similarity than viewers who do not have actor from their racial group portrayed.
- H <sup>1.2.1</sup> : Black viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-black advertisement than white, Indian, Asian or coloured respondents.
- H <sup>1.2.2</sup> : White viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-white advertisement than black, Indian, Asian or coloured respondents.
- H <sup>1.2.3</sup> : Exposed to a multi-racial advertisement, black and white viewers will maintain the same level of similarity, and they will together perceive a greater similarity than respondents who are neither black nor white.
H <sup>2</sup> : Viewers will attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement.
H <sup>2.1</sup> : Viewers, regardless of their racial group, will attribute more social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than to all-white and all-black advertisements.
H <sup>2.2</sup> : Black viewers will attribute more social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than white viewers.
H <sup>2.3</sup> : Viewers who are neither black nor white will attribute less social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than black and white viewers.

**Table 5.1: Research Hypotheses – Recapitulative Table (Continued)**

<p>H<sup>3</sup>: Viewers who maintain a strong racial identity (versus viewers who maintain a weak racial identity) will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only. On the other hand, the identification level will not influence viewers' similarity judgment when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from another racial group only.</p>
<p>H<sup>3.1</sup>: High-identification black will viewers perceive themselves as more similar to the actors in an all-black advertisement than will low-identification black viewers; whereas high- and low-identification black viewers will show no difference in their judgment of similarity towards actors featured in an all-white advertisement.</p>
<p>H<sup>3.2</sup>: High-identification white viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors in an all-white advertisement than will low-identification white viewers; whereas high- and low-identification white viewers will show no difference in their judgment of similarity towards actors featured in an all-black advertisement.</p>
<p>H<sup>3.3</sup>: High- and low- identification viewers who are neither black nor white will show no difference in their judgment of similarity towards actors featured in all-black, all-white and multi-racial advertisements.</p>
<p>H<sup>4</sup>: Viewers who do not have prejudice towards out-group (versus viewers who have strong prejudice) will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from another racial group only. On the other hand, the prejudice level will not influence viewers' similarity judgment when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only.</p>
<p>H<sup>4.1</sup>: Low-prejudice black viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-white advertisement than those who are high-prejudice; whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity judgment when they are exposed to an all-black advertisement.</p>
<p>H<sup>4.2</sup>: Low-prejudice white viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-black advertisement than those who are high-prejudice; whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity judgment when they are exposed to an all-white advertisement.</p>

**Table 5.1: Research Hypotheses – Recapitulative Table (Continued)**

<p>H<sup>4.3</sup>: The other viewers (neither black nor white) who hold a low-prejudice towards the black population will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-black advertisement than those who are high-prejudice, whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity when they are exposed to an all-white advertisement.</p>
<p>H<sup>4.4</sup>: The other viewers (neither black nor white) who hold a low-prejudice towards the white population will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-white advertisement than those who are high-prejudice, whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity when they are exposed to an all-black advertisement.</p>
<p>H<sup>4.5</sup>: The other viewers (neither black nor white) who hold a low-prejudice towards black and white people will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in a multi-racial advertisement than those who hold high-prejudice towards black and white people.</p>
<p>H<sup>5</sup>: Viewers who maintain a strong racial identity and low out-group prejudice will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than viewers who maintain a weak racial identity and high out-group prejudice.</p>
<p>H<sup>5.1</sup>: Black viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice towards whites will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice.</p>
<p>H<sup>5.2</sup>: White viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice towards blacks will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice.</p>
<p>H<sup>6</sup>: The racial attitude of the viewers and their corresponding support for the CSR action influences the way viewers attribute a social dimension to a multi-racial advertisement.</p>
<p>H<sup>6.1</sup>: Black viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibilities to a multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice (low CSR support)</p>
<p>H<sup>6.2</sup>: White viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (White Guilt hypothesis - high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibilities to a multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice (low CSR support).</p>

**Table 5.1: Research Hypotheses – Recapitulative Table (Continued)**

H <sup>6.3</sup> : Viewers (neither black nor white) who do not maintain prejudice towards blacks and whites (high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than those who hold prejudice towards blacks and whites (low CSR support).
H <sup>7</sup> : Viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement produces an Identification Process.
H <sup>7.1</sup> : The more viewers perceive themselves as similar to an advertisement's actors, the more they will identify themselves with the actors.
H <sup>7.2</sup> : The more the similarity judgment influences how viewers identify themselves with actors, the more they will believe they are the intended audience for the advertisement. In other words, the relationship between viewers' similarity judgment and their belief that they are the intended audience for the advertisement is mediated by the viewer's identification with the actors.
H <sup>7.3</sup> : The more the viewers' identification with actors influences how viewers believe they are the intended audience for the advertisement, the more they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. In other words, H <sup>7.3</sup> supposes that the relationship between viewer's identification and their attitude towards the advertisement is mediated by their belief that they are the intended audience.
H <sup>8</sup> : The viewers' exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement produces a CSR Process.
H <sup>8.1</sup> : The more viewers attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement, the more they will exhibit a favourable attitude towards the advertisement.
H <sup>8.2</sup> : The more viewers attribute social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement, the more they will also attribute social responsibility to the brand which uses this advertisement.
H <sup>8.3</sup> : The more viewers attribute social responsibility to the brand which uses a multi-racial advertisement, the more they will exhibit a favourable attitude towards this brand.
H <sup>9</sup> : The viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement enables viewers to identify themselves with the company/brand through the CSR process and the identification process.
H <sup>9.1</sup> : The more viewers attribute social responsibility to a brand, the more they will identify themselves with it.
H <sup>9.2</sup> : The more the similarity judgment influences how viewers identify themselves with actors, the more they will identify themselves with the brand using a multi-racial advertisement. In other words, the relationship between viewers' similarity judgment and their identification with the brand is mediated by the viewer's identification with the models.

**Table 5.1: Research Hypotheses – Recapitulative Table (Continued)**

H <sup>9.3</sup> : The more the viewers' identification with actors influences how viewers identify themselves with the brand, the more they will have a positive attitude towards the brand. In other words, the relationship between a viewer's identification and their attitude towards the brand is mediated by their identification with the brand.
H <sup>10</sup> : The Dual-Mediation Hypothesis is consistent with the persuasion process followed by viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement.
H <sup>10.1</sup> : The more viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards an advertisement, the more they will attribute social responsibility to the brand.
H <sup>10.2</sup> : The more viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards an advertisement, the more they will identify themselves with the company/brand.
H <sup>10.3</sup> : The more viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards an advertisement, the more they will have a favourable attitude toward the brand.
H <sup>10.4</sup> : The more viewers have a favourable attitude towards the brand, the more they will exhibit a high purchase intention.
H <sup>11</sup> : The viewers exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement follow a two-way persuasion process.
H <sup>12</sup> : The viewers' racial group moderates some conceptual framework's paths.
H <sup>12.1</sup> : When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between Felt targetedness and Advertising attitude is reinforced.
H <sup>12.2</sup> : When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between SR attributed to the ad and Advertising attitude is reinforced.
H <sup>12.3</sup> : When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between Advertising attitude and Brand attitude is reinforced.
H <sup>12.4</sup> : When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between Brand attitude and purchase intention is reinforced.

## 5.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented the conceptual framework and hypotheses associated with this study. These hypothesised relationships will be tested in a quantitative survey. The data analysis will then be realised using confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling. First, the moderational effects of both *Racial group* and *Racial attitude* will be evaluated on similarity and attribution judgments. Identification and CSR processes will be then studied

separately; and finally both the processes will be examined simultaneously to provide an overall test of the conceptual framework. The next chapter describes the methodology used to collect and analyse the data.

## CHAPTER 6

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used in this study. It begins with a justification of this thesis' philosophical and epistemological position. This position shapes the overall research methodology and especially the experimental procedure (or method) undertaken (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Finally, the measurement instruments used to collect and analyse the data are described and justified.

#### 6.2 The Research Philosophy

This thesis deals with the extensive marketing field of consumer research. This field “seeks to produce knowledge about consumer behaviour” (Calder and Tybout, 1987:136). Thus, the first methodological dilemma concerns the nature of this produced knowledge (*ibid.*). Indeed, the primary and applied aim of this knowledge is to find the solution to a specific marketing problem (Esterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002). However, the scientific character of this knowledge remains fundamental and influences the entire research process (Lombardot, 2004). This section justifies the epistemological paradigm underlying this study and presents the research approach chosen.

##### 6.2.1 The Research Paradigm

Epistemology is defined by Hussey and Hussey (1997) as the study of what is accepted as being valid knowledge. The Epistemology field is ‘shared’ in several paradigms which endeavour to examine the relationship between researchers and their object of research (*ibid.*). Two traditions of research paradigms are mostly admitted: Positivism and Social Constructivism (Esterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002), described in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1: Contrasting Implication of Positivism and Social Constructivism**

	<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Social Constructivism</b>
<b>The observer</b>	must be independent	is a part of what is being observed
<b>Human interests</b>	should be irrelevant	are the main drivers of science
<b>Explanations</b>	must demonstrate causality	aim to increase general understanding of the situation
<b>Research progresses through</b>	hypotheses and deductions	gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
<b>Concepts</b>	need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
<b>Units of analysis</b>	should be reduced to simplest terms	may include the complexity of 'whole' situations
<b>Generalization through</b>	statistical probability	theoretical abstraction
<b>Sampling requires</b>	large numbers selected randomly	small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Source: Esterby-Smith *et al.* (2002:30)

The paradigm underlying this thesis could be classified as positivist. Indeed, since the 1950's, this paradigm has been favoured in marketing and especially in advertising research (Goulding, 1999; Lombardot, 2004). Positivism is based historically on the assumption that social sciences possess the same characteristics as natural sciences (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Positivism assumes that the social world exists externally and that its characteristics must be measured by objective methods (Esterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Hence, the object researched is totally independent and external to the researcher (i.e. the subject). The researcher must remain *pragmatic* (Esterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002) and attempts to provide an explanation of the phenomenon studied through General Laws (Lombardot, 2004). These laws should allow the researcher to anticipate, predict and control the phenomenon (Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

This thesis has been positioned within the positivist paradigm because it seeks to establish, through a quantitative survey, causal relationship between *variables* by establishing causal laws and linking them to a deductive *theory* regarding multi-racial advertising. Indeed, the final aim of this thesis is to highlight a theory through a set of interrelated variables,

definitions and propositions that present a systematic view of a phenomenon, namely multi-racial advertising.

However, the choice of positivism does not imply that this paradigm is better than social constructivism. The two approaches have different characteristics and thus are appropriate in different contexts.

### **6.2.2 The Research Approach**

The research approach deals with the relationship between data and theory. Two main approaches exist: deductive and inductive (Estherby-Smith *et al.*, 2002; Hussey and Hussey, 1997). The inductive approach begins by exploring areas and questions in the context of research without testing a theoretically driven hypothesis. The inductive approach is developed from the observation of empirical reality while the deductive approach is based on developing and testing conceptual structures by empirical observations (Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

Estherby-Smith *et al.* (2002) give three reasons justifying one's choice of approach. Firstly, they consider that the approach selection clarifies the overall configuration of the research. Secondly, they argue that it helps to recognise the context and limitations of each approach. Finally, they deem that it helps to develop adapted approaches if required.

For the purpose of this research, the deductive and more precisely hypothetico-deductive approach has been chosen. The hypothetico-deductive approach begins with the postulation of hypotheses, resulting from previous studies or/and interviews (Popper, 1959). These hypotheses are supposed to explain a theory and describe causal links. Then, the researcher attempts to prove or test these hypotheses empirically through experimentation. Considering the conceptual framework and research hypotheses, presented in the previous chapter, the hypothetico-deductive approach is the appropriate approach for this study.

In conclusion, the paradigm and approach underlying this thesis are positivism and hypothetico-deductive, respectively. The choice of these epistemological positions shapes the experimental procedure described in the section below.

## 6.3 The Experimental Procedure

Derbaix (1995) considers that to reach an optimal experimental procedure in advertising studies, four conditions must be respected by the researcher. Firstly, the sample must be composed of consumers and not only students. The advertising must be embedded in a TV programme or a press article. The researcher must not give any instruction which could attract consumers' attention to the advertising. Finally, the affective reactions must be measured. The respect of these four conditions affords studies the ability to reach a better external validity. This section presents the experimental protocol of this thesis which endeavours to respect these criteria in creating the stimuli, in using the questionnaire and in selecting the sample.

### 6.3.1 Context of Exposure

This section presents the process of creating research on the advertising: choice of the medium and the creating of the stimuli.

#### 6.3.1.1 Print Medium Advertising

The choice of medium has been the subject of long consideration. Initially, television advertising seemed more appropriate for this kind of study. Indeed, according to Pitts, Whalen, O'Keefe and Murray (1989:313), "the medium of television with its highly complex visual, aural, motion and message effects" is particularly useful in portraying the detail and nuance of racial interactions. Thus, television advertising was supposed to be more effective in the study of racial interaction than print advertising, which is considered more "static" (Pitts *et al.*, 1989).

However, numerous reasons influenced the choice of print advertising. Firstly, print advertisements are used more frequently in ethnic/racial advertising studies (e.g. Aaker *et al.*, 2000; Barban, 1969; Barban and Cundiff, 1964; Bush, Hair and Solomon, 1979; Choudhury and Schmid, 1974; Holland and Gentry, 1997; Green, 1999; Grier and Brumbaugh, 1999; Lester, 1970; Muse, 1971; Orpen, 1975; Perkins *et al.*, 2000; Schlinger and Plummer, 1972; Solomon, Bush and Hair, 1976; Stafford, Birdwell and van Tassel, 1970; Szybillo and Jacoby, 1974; Tolley and Goett, 1971; Whittler, 1989; Whittler, 1991; Whittler and DiMeo, 1991; Whittler and Spira, 2002; Williams, Qualls and Grier, 1995; Wooten and Galvin, 1993), whereas television advertisements are seldom used (e.g. Dimofte, Forehand and Deshpandé, 2003; Forehand and Deshpandé, 2001; Pitts *et al.*, 1989). Therefore, to facilitate comparison

with previous studies and to build on the existing research, print advertisements were chosen as the basis of this experimental protocol.

Advertising's exposure in the print medium is controlled by the readers (Mehta and Purvis, 1995). They choose the pace and decide how much time is spent on a specific advertisement; they may choose to simply turn the page (*ibid.*). Hence, print advertisements generate more cognitive associations than televised advertisements (Brown and Stayman, 1992; Chaiken and Eagly, 1983). Print advertisements are thus supposed to improve the study of the two cognitive associations attributed, by consumers, to multi-racial advertising (i.e. *SR attributed to the ad* and *Felt targetedness*).

Finally, the use of print advertising is justified by the complexity of the experimental procedure undertaken. The main objective of this study is to analyse the impact of a multi-racial advertisement on advertising effectiveness. Televised advertisements do not isolate the variable of multi-racial casting. Other elements such as music could bias the experiment. To control these elements, a multi-racial televised advertisement could have been created. However without possessing the necessary skills, this advertisement could have been perceived as an amateur production. Conversely, print advertisements are much easier to create and manipulate (Green, 1999). Moreover, the use of televised advertisements would have made the questionnaire administration more laborious. The interviewers would be constrained by having to use a television during their interviews. For these reasons, the realisation of a fictitious print advertising, embedded in a press article, has been chosen. The creating of the stimuli is presented below.

#### 6.3.1.2 Advertising Embedded in an Press Article

Embedding the advertisement in a print programme aims to disguise the experimenter is interested in the advertising from the respondents. Thus, this technique reduces both subjects' focus and elaboration on the advertisement in comparison with the situation in which subjects are exposed to the advertisement as stand-alone messages (Brown and Stayman, 1992).

This study used digital techniques in order to control the vast majority of extraneous variables present in an advertisement. According to Cohen (1970:7) "integrated advertisements should be carefully prepared and should be designed to produce a sense of equality in life styles and values". Thus, the realization of the multi-racial advertisement used in this study tries to

follow the Hair, Solomon and Bush's (1977:211) definition which considers that a socially responsible advertisement is an advertisement which "attempts to cast black models in roles equal to white model role portrayal. [This advertisement] is characterised by dimensions such as small number of models, including both blacks and whites; black models are both male and female". The selection of the actors is a first stage.





#### - Choice of the Actors

Firstly, it was decided that both genders should be used within the advertisement in order to control gender bias, which may have been present among the study's participants (McCroskey, Richmond and Daly, 1975; Simpson *et al.*, 2000). Then, to ensure that model attractiveness did not confound the results the facial photographs of actors were selected from an overseas web site ([www.gettyimage.com](http://www.gettyimage.com)). Foreign actors were used in order to suggest a mere racial similarity and not an ethnic similarity. Therefore, for example a Zulu respondent could not perceive an actor to be Zulu; an Afrikaans-speaking respondent could not perceive an actor to be Afrikaans-speaking.

In order to enhance the multi-racial character and coherence of the advertisement, multi-racial images were selected from [www.gettyimage.com](http://www.gettyimage.com). These visuals show four models together (i.e. a white woman, a white man, a black woman and a black man). Therefore, the link between the four models could not be perceived as fictitious and resulting from a digital cut-paste work. An initial choice of 140 multi-racial pictures was found on the website. Among these pictures a second selection was achieved. This selection excluded any picture showing a love relation (i.e. mixed or same-race couples) or showing models very young or very old. Following these rules four pictures were selected.


These four pictures were then pre-tested in order to keep the more appropriate example for the study. Thus, to guarantee that model attractiveness was equal for each model present in the same picture (i.e. a model was not over-liked when another one was under-liked), a pre-test sample rated the photographs of the 16 models separately (see Appendix 6.1). Fourteen white and sixteen black respondents rated the models on the Whittler and Spira's (2002:295) 7-point scale of *model's likeability* (*warm-cold*, *likable-unlikable*, *sincere-insincere*, and *friendly-unfriendly*). The significance level of  $p < 0.05$  is used. The results of this pre-test are displayed in Table 6.2.

**Table 6.2: Choice of the Pictures**

Picture A		Racial group	Mean	Test-T	Mean	Model M	Model G	Model E	Model B
	Model M	Black viewers	6.1094	0.225	5.925				
		White viewers	5.7143						
	Model G	Black viewers	5.9063	0.699	5.85	0.601			
		White viewers	5.7857						
	Model E	Black viewers	6.0625	0.788	6.025	0.588	0.332		
		White viewers	5.9821						
	Model B	Black viewers	5.6719	<b>0.021</b>	5.133	<b>0.005</b>	<b>0.008</b>	<b>0.001</b>	
		White viewers	4.5179						
Picture B						<b>Model A</b>	<b>Model L</b>	<b>Model J</b>	<b>Model F</b>
	Model A	Black viewers	5.9375	0.119	5.616				
		White viewers	5.25						
	Model L	Black viewers	5.0313	0.261	4.733	<b>0.025</b>			
		White viewers	4.3929						
	Model J	Black viewers	5.1563	0.339	5.341	0.342	0.072		
		White viewers	5.5536						
	Model F	Black viewers	5.4531	0.116	5.1	0.081	0.244	0.43	
		White viewers	4.6964						
Picture C						<b>Model C</b>	<b>Model O</b>	<b>Model H</b>	<b>Model N</b>
	Model C	Black viewers	5.5313	0.929	5.516				
		White viewers	5.5						
	Model O	Black viewers	5.75	0.702	5.816	0.145			
		White viewers	5.8929						
	Model H	Black viewers	5.9688	0.315	5.758	0.257	0.831		
		White viewers	5.5179						
	Model N	Black viewers	5.1875	0.318	4.983	<b>0.011</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.005</b>	
		White viewers	4.75						
Picture D						<b>Model K</b>	<b>Model D</b>	<b>Model P</b>	<b>Model I</b>
	Model K	Black viewers	4.5625	<b>0.042</b>	4.116				
		White viewers	3.6071						
	Model D	Black viewers	4.8125	0.751	4.725	0.059			
		White viewers	4.625						
	Model P	Black viewers	4.6094	<b>0.02</b>	4.1	0.951	0.082		
		White viewers	3.5179						
	Model I	Black viewers	5.1875	0.268	4.958	<b>0.006</b>	0.508	<b>0.003</b>	
		White viewers	4.6964						

Picture B was chosen because it showed the best results, as shown in Table 6.2. In comparison to the other visuals, the four models of picture B are approximately rated identically and the respondents' race does not influence models' likeability rating. Once the multi-racial picture had been selected, two mono-racial pictures (all-black and all-white advertisements) were then created. Digital techniques were used to remove successively two actors from the same racial group and to replace them with two actors from the other racial group. As shown in Table 6.3, both white actors in picture B were removed and replaced by both black actors from the picture C.

**Table 6.3: All-black Advertisement Picture**

								
Model	Viewers' racial group	Mean	Test-T	Mean	Model A	Model H	Model J	Model O
Model A	Black viewers	5.9375	0.119	5.6167				
	White viewers	5.25						
Model H	Black viewers	5.9688	0.315	5.7583	0.628			
	White viewers	5.5179						
Model J	Black viewers	5.1563	0.339	5.3417	0.342	<b>0.044</b>		
	White viewers	5.5536						
Model O	Black viewers	5.75	0.702	5.8167	0.387	0.831	0.065	
	White viewers	5.8929						

Despite the significant difference between the likeability of models H and J ( $p < 0.05$ ) reported in Table 6.3, this picture was chosen because the other models featured are approximately rated identically and the respondents' race does not influence models' likeability rating. On the other hand, because of the black actors' posture in picture B (the man is in profile and the woman is seen from the back) none of the white actors in the other pictures could replace them. Thus, two other white actors posing in the same way were found on [www.gettyimage.com](http://www.gettyimage.com). Digital techniques were used to add them to the picture and to create an all-white advertisement picture, presented in Table 6.4.

**Table 6.4: All-white Advertisement Picture**



In order to test the quality of digital modifications, the new pictures were pre-tested. The experiment showed that none of the respondents perceived immediately the digital assembling of the four models. When the modifications were then explained, only a few respondents could indicate the models that were not originally from the pictures. Once the models had been selected for the three advertisements, the next step in the stimulus creation was the choice of the brand and the product. This is discussed below.

- Choice of the Brand and the Product

The choice of brand/company is the subject of a large debate in the literature. On one hand, some studies have chosen to use a real company in order to enhance the external validity (e.g. Bush *et al.*, 1979; Berens, van Riel and van Bruggen, 2005; Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2004; Pitts *et al.*, 1989; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001) and to enable researchers to generalise their results on a larger population of interest. On the other hand, some studies have chosen to use a fictitious company to improve the internal validity (e.g. Brown and Dacin, 1997; Perkins *et al.*, 2000; Martin, Lee and Yang, 2004) and to draw valid conclusions about the effects of independent variables on the study group. Due to the limited knowledge of the influences of advertising's CSR associations available in the literature, this thesis' research strategy is to test these effects under conditions that attempt to control for potential threats to internal validity (Brown and Dacin, 1997). Accordingly, the brand name of the product, Smoothwriter, used in the study is fictitious to control against prior brand learning.

The selected product, a pen, did not possess any racial stereotype (see Martin *et al.*, 2004) the way maize meal has in South Africa and is not race-based (see Green, 1999) as skin or hair care products are or gender-based as tights are. Furthermore, a pen is a low-involvement product which evokes responses equally distributed across the response scale continuum (Appiah, 2001).

A pre-test showed that respondents do not (erroneously) associate this fictitious brand with existing brands of pens (see Whittler and Spira, 2002). The stimuli was thus created and validated (see Appendices 6.2, 6.3 and 6.4), and the next step was to choose the article in which the advertisements would be embedded.

#### - Choice of the Article

The article was chosen to avoid arousing the felt ethnicity (see Section 3.5.2.2). In order to be consistent with the previous literature, an article about television programming was chosen (see Wooten and Galvin, 1993). The article was published in the English edition of *Tvplus* 15-23 November 2006. Unlike other television magazines such as *Huisgenoot* targeting Afrikaans-speakers, *You* for white English-speakers or *Drum* for black English-speakers, the English edition of *Tvplus* does not target a specific racial group. Moreover, the article concerned an American entertainment show *Survivor Panama* and does not have any South African racial connotation. This show also does not target a specific group in terms of age, gender or race. It was broadcast on *SABC 3* on Thursday at 19:30, a national channel accessible by each South African possessing a television. *Survivor Panama* is a popular reality TV show where 16 contestants are exiled on the islands of Panama for several weeks. In each episode one contestant is voted off by the others competitors. The article concerned the contestants' experience after their exclusion of the game (see Appendix 6.5). The level of readability of this article was validated by a pre-test.

In summary, the stimuli created are three print advertisements (i.e. multi-racial, all-black and all-white advertisements) for a fictitious brand of pen, Smoothwriter. Each stimulus is embedded in a press article about *Survivor Panama* published in the English edition of *Tvplus* magazine. The exposure of survey's respondents to these stimuli and the procedure of collection of the questionnaires are described below.

#### **6.3.2 Use of a Post-exposure Questionnaire**

The survey was initially presented as a research project about management. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the three advertisements embedded in the press article. After reading the article for about 5-7 minutes, participants were given a questionnaire booklet to complete (see Appendix 6.6). The first questionnaire concerns individuals' reactions towards the advertisement shown. A sentence is placed at the end of this first questionnaire, asking the participant to wait before completing a new questionnaire. In order to distinguish the

questionnaires in the participants' minds, the font of the second questionnaire (Tahoma) is different from that of the first (Times New Roman). In accordance with White and Harkins's (1994:793) methodology, participants were asked if they would assist another study who was "developing a scale for measuring ethnocentrism" by completing a second short questionnaire. Participants were asked to complete a first scale about their level of identification. Then, they were asked to rate black and white South Africans on a series of characteristics. This second questionnaire was used as a measure of identification and prejudice levels.

On completion of the second questionnaire, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation. Both questionnaires were pre-tested among subjects and revised to make everything as direct and clear as possible. This aspect is considered later in Section 6.5. Altogether 617 persons filled in a questionnaire. The sample is described below.

### 6.3.3 Sample

This study investigates the reactions of a community sample of adults rather than a sample of students assumed to be more tolerant (Lever, 1969; Whittler and DiMeo, 1991). Although student samples have been used in ethnicity research (e.g. Forehand and Deshpandé, 2001; Lee *et al.* 2002), they can reduce the external validity (Martin *et al.*, 2004) and therefore restricts the generalisability of the results.

On the other hand, in order to improve the internal validity of this study, an experimental research design  $3$  (Respondent's *Racial group*: black, white or other)  $\times 3$  (*Ad exposure's type*: black, multi-racial or white)  $\times 2$  (Identification level: high- and low-identification)  $\times 2$  (Prejudice level: high- and low prejudice level) is used. Altogether 617 randomly selected persons (non-probability sampling technique) filled in the questionnaire, but only 600 questionnaires were usable. From the unusable questionnaires, six had missing items, four blank the second questionnaires and seven participants had refused to complete the prejudice scale. This last category of respondents explained their refusal by: "I disagree with the way the question is formulated", "Considering the South African History, I do not think you need to make the racial antagonism revive", "these questions are stupid", "I do not want to generalize". Because of their missing items, these 17 questionnaires were deleted from the data and only 600 questionnaires were used. The demographic information of the respondents is summarised in the Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Demographic Information of the Sample

	Multi-racial advertisement				All-black advertisement				All-white advertisement				Total
	Black	White	Other	Total	Black	White	Other	Total	Black	White	Other	Total	
<b>n = 600</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>168</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>360</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>600</b>
<b>Sex</b>													
Female	61	98	24	183	29	39	11	79	25	36	11	72	334
Male	84	70	23	177	19	13	9	41	25	14	9	48	266
<b>Age</b>													
Mean	36.07	38.32	34.91	36.97	30.02	36.71	20.45	31.33	26.26	25.20	22.15	25.13	33.47
Median	36	37.50	33	36.00	30.50	34.50	20.50	28.50	23	23	21.00	22.50	30.50
<b>Occupation</b>													
Academic	2	21	2	25	2			2		1	1	2	29
Admin	26	36	22	84	16	23	1	40	11			11	135
Artist	2	4		6						2		2	8
Clerk	18	7	3	28			1	1					29
Educator	5	3		8	13	1		14					22
Engineer	2	1		3									3
Housewife	1			1									1
Librarian	3	4		7	4	3		7	1	1		2	16
Manager	24	21	7	52	1	4		5					57
Researcher	6	20	5	31		1		1			1	1	33
Retired	1		1	2		1		1					3
Self	5	13	1	19	1	4		5	3			3	27
Student	11	26		37	6	14	18	38	21	33	18	72	147
Teacher	7	2		9					3	12		15	24
Unemployed	13	1		14	3			3	7			7	24
Worker	19	9	6	34	2	1		3	4	1		5	42
<b>Education Level</b>													
Primary school	5			5		1		1		1		1	7
High school/college	77	44	25	146	25	22	7	54	39		5	44	244
Bachelor	26	19	10	55	9	10	7	26	3	1	10	14	95
Postgraduate	37	105	12	154	14	19	6	39	8	48	5	61	254

## 6.4 The Statistical Techniques

This section describes the statistical and measuring instruments used in this study. It presents the statistical techniques employed to validate the measuring instruments and to analyse the collected data.

### 6.4.1 Instruments Testing the Measure Instruments

Before using the scores from any construct for analysis of the data collected, the researcher must ensure the scales selected represent and measure the construct (Hair, Babin, Money and Samouel, 2003) by the exploratory factor analysis and an assessment of the measurement scales' reliability and validity.

#### 6.4.1.1 The Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis aims to summarise the information from a large number of variables into a few dimensions or factors (Evrard, Pras and Roux, 2003; Hair *et al.*, 2003). This thesis used, as do the majority of business studies (Hair *et al.*, 2003), the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) to reduce the original set of variables into a few factors –called principal components– with a minimum loss of the initial information. The objective of this technique is to explain as much of the original variance in the dataset as possible by a few principal components (*ibid.*).

However, before starting the PCA, the researcher must consider whether the variables collected can be factorised (Evrard *et al.*, 2003). Firstly, to ensure that the data matrix has sufficient correlations to justify the application of factor analysis, the researcher must inspect the correlation matrix. If the visual inspection of this matrix reveals no substantial number of correlations greater than 0.30 the factor analysis must be rejected (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). Two formal tests are then undertaken to determine the appropriateness of the factor analysis: the Bartlett test of sphericity and the Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA). The Bartlett test of sphericity provides the maximum number of factors to be retained (Evrard *et al.*, 2003). However, it is always satisfied on grand samples. On the other hand, the MSA, also known as Kaiser, Meyer and Olkin (KMO), quantifies the degree of intercorrelations among the variables. It ranges from 0 (no correlation) to 1 (perfect correlation). Kaiser (1970) defines an interpretation guideline for this test: 0.80 or above, meritorious; 0.70 or above, middling; 0.60 or above, mediocre; 0.50 or above, miserable; and

below 0.50, unacceptable. Less sensitive than the Bartlett test, the MSA is still influenced by the sample size (Lombardot, 2004). Once the appropriateness of the factor analysis has been verified, the PCA may be started.

The first stage consists of extracting the number of factors. This thesis used two methods to define the number of factors to retain. The most commonly used technique is the latent root criterion (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The latent root is a measure of the amount of variance a particular factor represents. This criterion states that factors that have a latent root (also called eigenvalue) of one or higher are retained. Conversely, factors with a latent root of less than one are considered insignificant and are not retained (Hair *et al.*, 2003). This rule of thumb is also called the *Kaiser's Rule* (Evrard *et al.*, 2003). The second criterion consists of deciding on, *a priori*, the minimum amount of the cumulative percentage of the total variance extracted that factor(s) must explain. The researcher ensures a practical significance for the factors by ensuring that they explain at least a specified amount of variance (Hair *et al.*, 1998). In the social sciences, from 60 percent of the total variance is considered satisfactory (*ibid.*).

Once the number of factors has been determined, the second stage consists of interpreting the factors retained. These factors might be considered as the "latent dimensions" of the problem (Evrard *et al.*, 2003). Hence, to interpret them, the initial items must be used and their importance in each new factor must be analysed through the factor matrix. The interpretation of the factor matrix is realised by the examination of the factor loadings (Hair *et al.* 2003). These factor loadings are the correlation between each item of the original variables and the newly extracted factors (*ibid.*). The factor loading is the measure of the relative importance of a particular variable in representing that factor. According to Hair *et al.* (2003), the typical guidelines used by business researchers for important factor loadings are: 0.30 is acceptable, 0.50 is moderately important and 0.7 is very important. Furthermore, the examination of the communality, which "is the total amount of variance that the original item shares with all the other items included in the analysis" (Hair *et al.*, 1998:88), enables the researcher to retain or delete some items. The common rule is to retain items with a communality higher than 0.60 (Evrard, Pras and Roux, 2003).

Generally, rotation is desirable because it simplifies the factor interpretation of multi-dimensional scales (*ibid.*). Indeed, the initial solution in a PCA is unrotated, i.e. it produces factors that are independent (uncorrelated) and often difficult to interpret (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

Specifically, in the unrotated factor solution the first factor tends to be a general factor with almost every variable loading significantly and the largest amount of variance, whereas the second and subsequent factors are based on the residual amount of variance (*ibid.*). Conversely, the rotation of the factor matrix redistributes the variance from earlier factors to later ones to achieve a simpler and theoretically more meaningful factors pattern (Hair *et al.*, 1998:107). Hence, the rotation provides the researcher with another view of the factors' structure which facilitates its interpretation. There are two options for factor rotation, either an orthogonal rotation or an oblique rotation. The former is the most common approach in business research (Hair *et al.*, 2003) and accordingly adopted in this thesis. There are several different options for deriving an orthogonal solution, but this thesis used the Varimax option which is the most widely used practice (*ibid.*).

Finally, the process of naming extracted factors is subjective (*ibid.*). It combines previous studies terminology, logic and intuition. Once the exploratory factor analysis completed, the researcher must assess the reliability of the measurement scales used. This is discussed below.

#### 6.4.1.2 The Assessment of Measurement Scale Reliability

Reliability is "the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable" (Hair *et al.*, 1998:117). A survey instrument is considered reliable if its repeated application in similar condition results in consistent scores. Three techniques are commonly used in business research to measure the reliability of a measurement scale: Test-Retest Reliability, Alternative Forms Reliability and Internal Consistency Reliability (for description see Hair *et al.*, 2003). However, given the inherent bias of these techniques (see Hair *et al.*, 2003), this thesis evaluates the scales' reliability through two coefficients: Cronbach's Alpha and Jöreskog's Rhô. Although the former is mostly used in marketing research and is easy to compute via SPSS, the latter is generally preferred. Indeed, the Jöreskog's Rhô is being used more and more by researchers because of its adaptation to the second generation of data analysis method (Lombardot, 2004), namely the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) which will be presented later in the thesis (see Section 6.4.2.3).

The formula of Jöreskog's Rhô is:

$$\rho = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{yi})^2 \times \text{var}(\eta)}{(\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{yi})^2 \times \text{var}(\eta) + \sum_{i=1}^p \text{var}(\epsilon_{yi})}$$

Where  $\lambda_{yi}$  is the communality factor of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  indicator,  $\text{var}(\eta)$  is the variance of the latent variable and  $\text{var}(\epsilon_{yi})$  the variance of the error term (i.e.  $1-\lambda_{yi}^2$ ).

The generally agreed upon lower limit for the Jöreskog's Rhô is 0.70 (Lombardot, 2004). The assessment of the scale's reliability must be realised to ensure the scale's appropriateness before proceeding to an assessment of its validity (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

#### 6.4.1.3 The Assessment of Measurement Scale Validity

Validity is the extent to which a scale measures what it is supposed to measure (Evrard *et al.*, 2003). Three types of validity are distinguished: the content validity, the construct validity and the criterion validity.

The content validity (or face validity) "involves a systematic but subjective assessment of a scale's ability to measure what it is supposed to measure" (Hair *et al.*, 2003:174). The researcher evaluates if the measurement scale created is suited to the theoretical concept. There are no statistics to measure this validity. Therefore, the researcher consults the literature and interviews experts to judge the suitability of the items chosen to represent the construct (Lombardot, 2004). For instance, the conceptual framework, described in Chapter 5, was presented at the 2006 Academy of Marketing Conference in London (Johnson and Elliott, 2006). However, according to Hair *et al.* (2003), the content validity is generally not considered as a sufficient measure of validity and must be complemented by the assessment of the construct and criterion validity.

The construct validity "assesses what the construct (concept) or scale is, in fact, measuring" (Hair *et al.*, 2003:174). This validity is evaluated by two checks: convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity assesses if the construct is positively correlated with other measures of the same construct.

Its formula is:

$$\rho_{vc} = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{y_i}^2) \times \text{var}(\eta)}{(\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{y_i}^2) \times \text{var}(\eta) + \sum_{i=1}^p \text{var}(\varepsilon_{y_i})}$$

Where  $\lambda_{y_i}$  is the communality factor of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  indicator,  $\text{var}(\eta)$  is the variance of the latent variable and  $\text{var}(\varepsilon_{y_i})$  the variance of the error term (i.e.  $1 - \lambda_{y_i}^2$ ).

If  $\rho_{vc}$  is less than 0.50, the variance due to measurement error is larger than the variance captured by the construct  $\eta$  ante. The validity of the individual indicators ( $y_i$ ), as well as the construct ( $\eta$ ), is then questionable (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Therefore, the lower limit for satisfying validity convergent is 0.50 (*ibid.*).

On the other hand, discriminant validity evaluates whether the construct does not correlate with other measures that differ from it.  $\rho_{vc}$  is used to measure this validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). For instance, to fully satisfy the requirement for discriminant validity a construct with two dimensions must have:

$$\rho_{vc1} > \text{cov}^2(\text{factor1}; \text{factor2}) \quad \text{and} \quad \rho_{vc2} > \text{cov}^2(\text{factor1}; \text{factor2})$$

The criterion validity “assesses whether a construct performs as expected relative to other variables identified as meaningful criteria” (Hair *et al.*, 2003:175). To establish criterion validity the researcher must show that the dependent links between the measures of one construct and the measures of other constructs are in accordance with previous studies’ predictions (Evrard *et al.*, 2003).

Finally, after the assessment of the validity and reliability of the measurement scales, the hypotheses can be tested. The section below presents the different methods used to test these hypotheses.

#### 6.4.2 Methods for Testing the Research Hypotheses

The conceptual framework, presented in the previous chapter, articulates the relationships between a company’s advertising and consumers’ evaluations of both the company and its specific advertisement. Each linkage in this conceptual framework represents a particular

hypothesis. The conceptual framework was tested in two steps. Firstly, each hypothesis was independently tested by means of analysis of variance or regression analysis. Secondly, the overall conceptual framework was tested thanks to structural equations modelling. A last section presents the test of specific relationships which are moderated and mediated.

#### 6.4.2.1 Analysis of Variance

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether one (or several) independent qualitative variable(s) (e.g. sex or racial group) have a statistically significant influence on one dependent metric variable (Evrard *et al.* 2003). ANOVA evaluates whether the means of the dependent variable differ significantly across the groups of the independent variable(s) (Miller, Acton, Fullerton and Maltby, 2002). Basically, ANOVA compares the variance *between* the groups of the independent variable(s) with the variance *within* groups. If there is more difference between categories than there is within individuals in groups, groups are assumed to make the difference (*ibid.*).

The indicators used to validate the hypothesis through ANOVA are the *F* statistic test which is statistically significant at the 0.05 level (and marginally significant at the 0.10 level) and the correlation ratio ( $\eta^2$ ) which measures the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable explained by the independent variable(s). However, the significance of *F* does not indicate which groups are different. Thus, while a simple examination of the means is sufficient in a two-group situation, *post hoc* tests are required when there are more groups. Indeed, in a three-group situation a significant *F* may indicate that all three groups differ or that two groups are equal but differ from the third (Hair *et al.*, 1998). *Post hoc* tests, such as the Scheffé test, assess these differences and indicate which groups differ significantly from each other.

However, ANOVA measures the relationship between qualitative variable(s) and dependent metric variables only. The analysis of the relationship between two metric variables is done via the regression analysis. This statistical test is presented below.

#### 6.4.2.2 Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is probably the most widely known and applied data analysis technique for measuring linear relationship between two or more variables (Evrard, Pras and Roux,

2003; Hair *et al.*, 2003). This technique enables researchers to identify the correlation between, at least, two metric variables. This correlation tells them if a relationship exists between the variables, as well as the strength of this relationship.

The indicators used to validate the hypothesis through regression analysis are the  $F$  statistic test which is statistically significant at the 0.05 level (and marginally significant at the 0.10 level) and the correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) which indicates the sense of association and the coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) which measures the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable explained by the independent variable(s). However, the regression analysis only allows the analysis of a single relationship between the dependent and the independent variable(s) (Elliott, 2005). To analyse several causal relationships simultaneously Structural Equation Modelling is used.

#### 6.4.2.3 Structural Equation Modelling

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a multivariate statistical technique which aims to explain the causal relationship which exists between different constructs simultaneously (Galan, 2003). In doing so, it overcomes the limitations of several statistical techniques such as the regression analysis, which only allow for the analysis of a single relationship (Elliott, 2005).

The sample size plays an important role in the estimation and interpretation of SEM results (Hair *et al.*, 1998). It is recommended for studies which use the maximum likelihood estimation (it is the case in this thesis) to have a minimum sample size between 100 and 150 (*ibid.*). Similarly, where sample size exceeds 400 to 500, this may compromise the effectiveness of this technique because the method becomes too sensitive (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Elliott, 1995). The 360 usable questionnaires of respondents exposed to the multi-racial advertisement represent a sample size that is adequate for intended statistical analysis.

Furthermore, the main purpose of the SEM is to test the models that the researcher has developed from the theory (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Thus, whilst the exploratory factorial analysis intends to build a framework, SEM is used to confirm statistically a proposed framework (Lombardot, 2004). Both methods are complementary: the exploratory analysis precedes the confirmatory analysis (Elliott, 2005). SEM allows the researcher to determine the goodness-of-fit between a theoretical model and the data. This goodness-of-fit is measured by several

criteria. For the purpose of this thesis, the following criteria and thresholds, reported in Table 6.6, have been chosen.

**Table 6.6: Goodness-of-fit Criteria and Threshold**

	<b>Goodness-of-Fit Measure</b>	<b>Initials</b>	<b>Levels of Acceptable Fit</b>
<b>Absolute fit measures</b>	Likelihood-Ratio Chi-square Statistic	$\chi^2$ /degrees of freedom	< 0.05
	Goodness-of-Fit Index	GFI	> 0.80
	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index	AGFI	> 0.80
	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	RMSEA	< 0.08
<b>Incremental fit measures</b>	Comparative Fit Index	CFI	> 0.90
	Tucker-Lewis Index	TLI	> 0.90
<b>Parsimonious fit measures</b>	Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index	PCFI	> 0.80

Sources: Developed from Baumgartner and Homburg (1996), Elliott (2005), Evrard *et al.* (2003), Hair *et al.* (1998), Lombardot (2004).

Once the goodness-of-fit of the overall model is assessed, the different causal relationships hypothesised in the model must be validated. The correlating links are presented as standardised coefficients. They vary from 0 to 1, a coefficient value close to |1| shows a strong causal relationship. To be statistically significant, this causal relationship must be associated with the t-test -called Critical Ratio (CR) by AMOS- scoring over 1.96.

#### 6.4.2.4 Methods Testing Mediation and Moderation Relationships

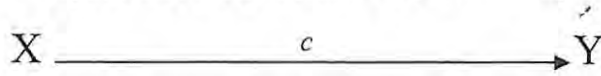
The conceptual framework, described in the Chapter 5, suggests that several types of relationships exist between its variables: direct relationships, mediational relationships and moderational relationships. The direct relationships are validated through the methods presented above. The mediational and moderational relationships are presented below.

##### - Mediation

The mediational hypothesis reflects how a causal relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable might be divided into direct and indirect (mediated) effects.

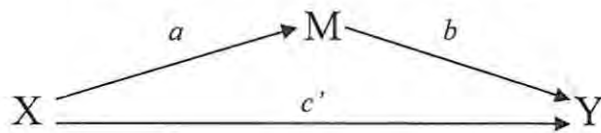
Graphically the non-mediated model is:

**Figure 6.1: Non-mediated Relationship**



Conversely, the mediated model is:

**Figure 6.2: Mediated Relationship**

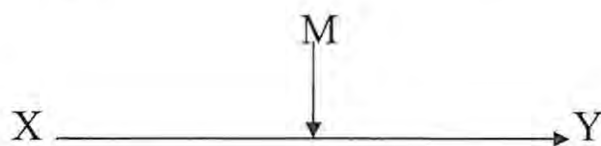


According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a variable might be regarded as a mediator when the following four conditions are adhered to. Firstly, establish the correlation between the independent variable (X) and the dependent variable (Y) (path *c* in the Figure 6.1). Then, establish the correlation between the independent variable (X) and the mediator variable (M) (path *a* in the Figure 6.2). Next, establish the correlation between the mediator variable (M) and the dependent variable (Y) (path *b* in the Figure 6.2). Finally, when paths *a* and *b* (Figure 6.2) are controlled, the previously significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables (path *c* in Figure 6.1) is no longer significant, with the strongest demonstration of mediation occurring when Path *c'* (Figure 6.2) is nil.

- Moderation

“A moderator is a qualitative (e.g. sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g. level of reward) variable [M] that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable [X] and a dependent or criterion variable [Y]” (Baron and Kenny, 1986: 1174). Figure 6.3 illustrates the moderational role of M on the relationship between X and Y.

**Figure 6.3: Moderated Relationship**



An effective method to validate a moderational hypothesis is to use an ANOVA or the multi-group analysis provided by SEM (Byrne, 2001). To achieve a moderational analysis with

SEM, the overall sample is first divided in several subgroups (e.g. black *versus* whites and high-identification *versus* low-identification). Two conceptual models are then created. The first model called constrained (or restricted) model is invariant across groups. In this model all factor loadings, all factor variances, all factor covariances are constrained equal across groups. The second model is called non-restricted model and it is specific to each sub-group. Finally, to highlight a moderating effect both models are compared. The moderating effect is accepted when the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) value of the non-restricted model is significantly better than that of the restricted model (Byrne, 2001; Evanschitzky and Wunderlich, 2006).

This section has described the statistical techniques employed to validate the measuring instruments and to analyse the collected data. The following section presents the test of the measuring instruments.

## 6.5 Test of Measure Instruments

This section describes, justifies and validates the measuring instruments.

### 6.5.1 The Identification Process

Three scales have been used to measure the *Identification Process*, namely the perceived *Similarity*, the *Identification* and the *Felt targetedness* scales.

#### 6.5.1.1 Perceived Similarity Scale

This scale aimed to measure the level of *Similarity* that respondents feel to the advertisement's actors. Respondents rated on a 7-point scale their level of *Similarity* to the models (Appiah, 2001; McKirman, Smith and Hamayan, 1983; Whittler, 1991; Whittler and Spira, 2002). This scale is presented Table 6.7.

**Table 6.7: Perceived Similarity Scale**

Perceived similarity ( $P_s$ )	
Q: Do you think the models/actors in the advertisement are similar to you in terms of?	
$P_s 1$	Overall lifestyle
$P_s 2$	Cultural background
$P_s 3$	Dress and appearance
$P_s 4$	Basic values

The scores of the factorial analyses, reliability and validity of this scale ( $P_s$ ) are reported in Table 6.8 below.

**Table 6.8: Perceived Similarity Scale – Factorial Analyses, Reliability and Validity**

		n = 600	
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>			
Explained variance	68.279%		
MSA (KMO)	0.814		
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	
$P_s$ 1	0.836	0.700	
$P_s$ 2	0.826	0.683	
$P_s$ 3	0.835	0.696	
$P_s$ 4	0.808	0.652	
<b>Reliability</b>			
Cronbach's alpha	0.8450		
Jöreskog's $\rho$	0.8460		
<b>Validity</b>			
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.5796		
<b>Confirmatory Factorial Analysis</b>			
$\chi^2$ and df (Probability level)	8.116 and 2 (0.017)		
GFI	0.993		
AGFI	0.966		
RMSEA	0.071		
CFI	0.994		
TLI	0.981		
PCFI	0.331		

#### 6.5.1.2 Identification Scale

By means of this 7-point scale, participants indicated their ability to identify with the actors in the advertisement (Kelman and Eagly, 1965; Whittler, 1989; 1991; Whittler and Spira, 2002). The items of this scale are presented Table 6.9.

**Table 6.9: Identification Scale**

<b>Identification (I<sub>d</sub>)</b>	
Q: What do you think about the models/actors of the advertisement?	
<b>I<sub>d</sub> 1</b>	Persons whom I want to be like
<b>I<sub>d</sub> 2</b>	My type of persons
<b>I<sub>d</sub> 3</b>	Persons who speak for a group of which I am a member

The scores of the factorial analysis, reliability and validity of this scale (I<sub>d</sub>) are reported in Table 6.10 below.

**Table 6.10: Identification Scale – Factorial Analysis, Reliability and Validity**

		n = 600	
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>			
Explained variance	78.869%		
MSA (KMO)	0.712		
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	
I <sub>d</sub> 1	0.898	0.807	
I <sub>d</sub> 2	0.918	0.842	
I <sub>d</sub> 3	0.846	0.717	
<b>Reliability</b>			
Cronbach's alpha	0.8645		
Jöreskog's rhô	0.8674		
<b>Validity</b>			
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.6871		

#### 6.5.1.3 Felt Targetedness Scale

This 7-point scale measured to what extent respondents felt they were the target of the advertisement. It was developed by Aaker *et al.* (2000): "I feel the advertisement was intended for people like me", "I don't believe I was in the target market the company created the advertisement for" (reverse coded), "The advertiser made that advertisement to appeal people like me". However, a short pre-test highlighted the confusion engendered among subjects about the reverse coded structure of the second item. In order to facilitate the comprehension of the questionnaire for respondents who did not possess a high level of

education, this second item was coded like the two other one. Moreover, the vocabulary was also simplified. The scale used to measure the *Felt targetedness* is displayed in Table 6.11.

**Table 6.11: Felt Targetedness Scale**

Felt targetedness ( $F_t$ )	
Q: What do you think about the advertisement?	
$F_t1$	I feel the advertisement was for people like me
$F_t2$	I believe I was in the target for which SmoothWriter created the advertisement
$F_t3$	The advertiser made that advertisement for people like me

The scores of the factorial analysis, reliability and validity of this scale ( $F_t$ ) are reported in Table 6.12.

**Table 6.12: Felt Targetedness Scale – Factorial Analysis, Reliability and Validity**

		n = 600	
Exploratory Factorial Analysis			
Explained variance	84.388%		
MSA (KMO)	0.745		
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	
$F_t1$	0.899	0.808	
$F_t2$	0.922	0.851	
$F_t3$	0.934	0.873	
Reliability			
Cronbach's alpha	0.9075		
Jöreskog's $\rho$	0.9096		
Validity			
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.7712		

### 6.5.2 The CSR Process

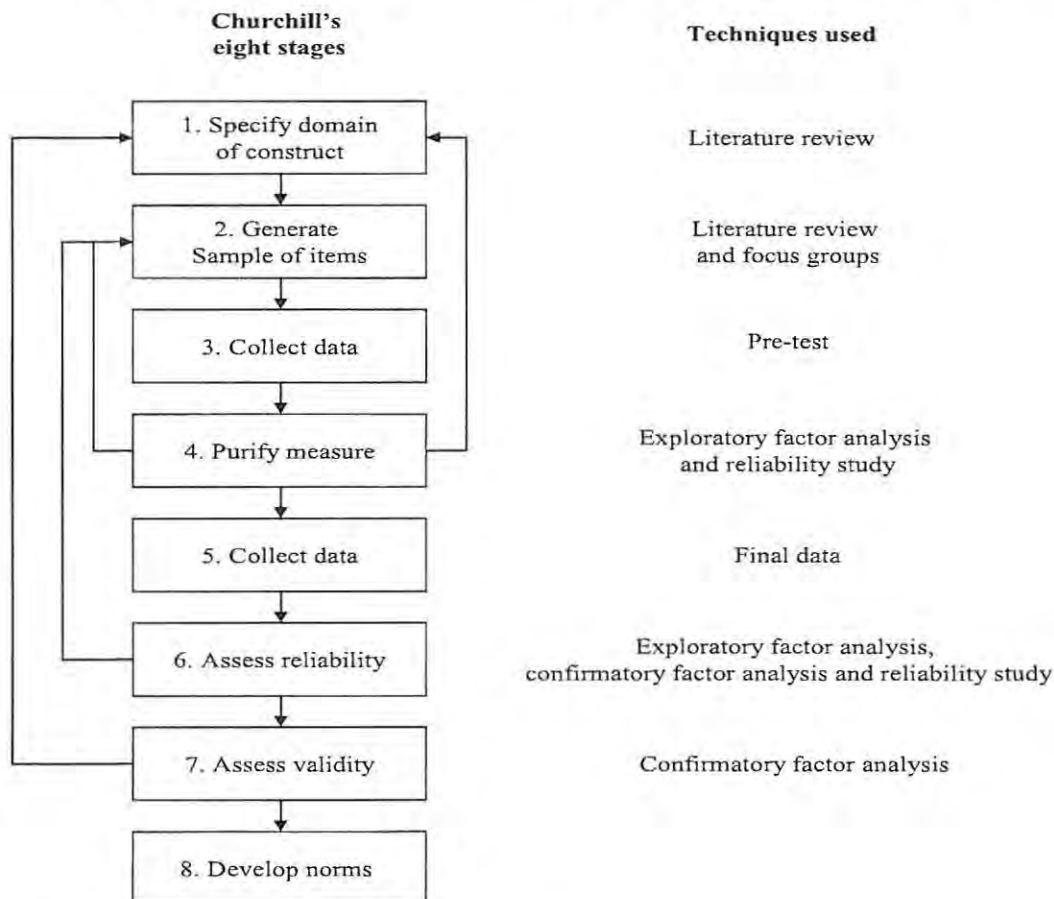
Two scales were used to measure the *CSR Process*: the *Social responsibility (SR) attributed to the ad* and the *SR attributed to the brand*.

### 6.5.2.1 Scale of SR Attributed to the Ad

Most studies have examined the CSR attributed to the multi-racial advertising in general and not in respect of a specific multi-racial advertisement (e.g. Gould *et al.*, 1970; Surlin, 1977). This thesis supposes that the *CSR Process* starts when a viewer is exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement and attributes it with a social responsibility (SR) element. The construct *SR attributed to the ad* is used to convey the idea that the viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement believe that it is able to represent and shape social and racial harmony. However, no measure of this construct is available in the literature. Hence, it has been necessary to generate a new scale in accordance with Churchill's paradigm (1979).

The creation of a marketing scale is a complex process (Lombardot, 2004). In accordance with the majority of the marketing studies, this thesis used the paradigm of Churchill (1979) to generate a new scale. This paradigm is widely known and describes, in detail, the essential stages to creating a scale in marketing. The eight stages are illustrated in Figure 6.4.

**Figure 6.4: Suggested Procedure for Developing Better Measures**



Source: Developed from Churchill (1979:66)

Firstly, researchers must specify the domain of the construct. In other words, they must delineate exactly what is included or excluded in the theoretical definition of the construct through the literature review. They must make sure that this construct does not already exist in any previous studies; and if it does exist they must justify precisely the reasons for proposing the new measure. The second step consists of generating items which capture the specified domain. The generation of items is provided by exploratory research including literature searches, focus group or face-to-face interviews. The item pool generated must be purified through an exploratory factor analysis and the calculation of reliability coefficients such as the Cronbach's Alpha and the Jöreskog's Rhô (Evrard, Pras and Roux, 2003). Confirmatory research is then used to test the purified scale on a new and bigger sample. This stage consists of verifying the reliability and the validity of the instrument and in running a confirmatory factor analysis assuring the quality of the new scale. Finally, researchers must develop norms around their new scale. They must define explicitly the standards which characterise the scale (Churchill, 1979).

The creation of the scale of *SR attributed to the ad* attempts to follow the stages enumerated by Churchill (1979). This construct is used to convey the idea that the viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement believe that the advertisement is able to represent and shape social and racial harmony. This variable measures the extent to which consumers believe that a particular advertisement has a positive role and influence on racial harmony in society. Moreover, this thesis argues that this construct is a viewer's cognitive association and the generation of items has been realised through exploratory research in two stages: a literature review and focus group.

According to the literature, the social responsibility attributed to an advertisement is concerned mainly with the viewer's beliefs about advertising in general (e.g. Anderson, Engledow and Becker, 1978; Andrews, 1989; Bauer and Greyser, 1968; Dongsheng, Weijiong and Vertinsky, 2002; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Yang, 2000). Nevertheless, some scales emanating from this field could be used in this thesis. For instance the *Value Corruption's* scale (*Advertising promotes undesirable values in our society, Most advertising distorts the values of our youth, There is too much sex in advertising today, Some products/services promoted in advertising are bad for our society*), developed by Pollay and Mittal (1993:102) has been employed. Nevertheless, only the first two items have been used and reworded in order to be applicable to a specific advertisement:

- This advertisement promotes undesirable values in our society.
- This advertisement distorts the value of our youth.

Furthermore, the marketing studies of the Corporate Social Responsibility have also been used to generate some items. The *Product Social Responsibility's* scale (*this is a socially responsible product, this product is more beneficial to society's welfare than other products, this product contributes something to society*), developed by Brown and Dacin (1997:82), has been employed and reworded as follows:

- This is a socially responsible advertisement.
- This advertisement is more beneficial to society's welfare than other advertisement.
- This advertisement contributes something to society.

Moreover, Basson (1988), in her study analysing the effects of multi-racial advertisement in the South African context, developed two items measuring the social responsibility attributed to this type of advertisement in general (*do you think that multi-racial commercials can help to bring about better racial relationships in South Africa?, do you think that multi-racial commercials could accelerate social integration in South Africa in the long run?*). These items have been reworded as follow:

- This advertisement can help to bring about better racial relationship in South Africa.
- This advertisement could accelerate social integration in South Africa in the long run.

On the other hand, some verbatim, originating from three focus groups which were run in a French study about consumer's beliefs about multi-racial advertising in general (Johnson, 2005:56) have also been employed ("*Nowadays, [multi-racial advertising] is useful because of racism and wars*", "*[multi-racial advertising] reflects more about society*", "*[multi-racial advertising] might show that all the minorities can work together*", "*I think that, through this advertising, things could change*", "*Advertising is important because through this we are going to develop some codes of thought*", "*[Multi-racial advertising] is part of the evolution of our society*"). These verbatim comments were then recoded in four items:

- This advertisement is useful to society
- This advertisement reflects the actual society
- This advertisement might help things evolve in the society
- This advertisement transmits good values in the society

The last item was then deleted, as it was deemed that it was too similar to the first item of the *Value Corruption's* scale (Pollay and Mittal, 1993). The initial scale is described in Table 6.13.

**Table 6.13: First SR Attributed to the Ad Scale**

<b>SR attributed to the advertising (SR<sub>ad</sub>)</b>	
Q: What do you think about the advertisement?	
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 1</b>	This advertisement promotes undesirable values in our society (reverse coded)
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 2</b>	This advertisement distorts the value of our youth (reverse coded)
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 3</b>	This advertisement is useful to society
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 4</b>	This advertisement reflects the actual society
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 5</b>	This advertisement might help things evolve in the society
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 6</b>	This advertisement transmits good values in the society
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 7</b>	This is a socially responsible advertisement
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 8</b>	This advertisement is more beneficial to society's welfare than other advertisements
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 9</b>	This advertisement contributes something to society
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 10</b>	This advertisement can help to bring about better racial relationships in South Africa
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 11</b>	This advertisement could accelerate social integration in South Africa in the long run

Interviews with eight respondents and two school teachers resulted in modification of this initial scale. Firstly, the two last items (SR<sub>ad</sub> 10 and SR<sub>ad</sub> 11) which focused on the specific South African context were deleted. Indeed, they seemed inconsistent with the other items which focused on the society in general. SR<sub>ad</sub> 2 was also deleted because of its complexity. SR<sub>ad</sub> 1 which was reverse coded, was re-coded in the same sense than the other items. Moreover, in SR<sub>ad</sub> 5 the word "evolve" was replaced by "progress" which was supposed to be easier to understand. Consequently, a second scale, presented in Table 6.14, emerged.

**Table 6.14: Second SR Attributed to the Ad Scale**

SR attributed to the advertising (SR <sub>ad</sub> )	
Q: What do you think about the advertisement?	
SR <sub>ad</sub> 1	This advertisement promotes desirable values in our society
SR <sub>ad</sub> 2	This advertisement is useful to society
SR <sub>ad</sub> 3	This advertisement reflects the actual society
SR <sub>ad</sub> 4	This advertisement might help things progress in the society
SR <sub>ad</sub> 5	This advertisement transmits good values in the society
SR <sub>ad</sub> 6	This is a socially responsible advertisement
SR <sub>ad</sub> 7	This advertisement is more beneficial to society's welfare than other advertisements
SR <sub>ad</sub> 8	This advertisement contributes something to society

Once the 600 questionnaires had been collected, several exploratory factor analyses were iteratively run on this scale. Each factor analysis extracted only one dimension as reported in the Table 6.15.

**Table 6.15: SR Attributed to the Ad Scale – Exploratory Factor Analyses**

Items	1 <sup>st</sup> factor analysis		2 <sup>nd</sup> factor analysis		3 <sup>rd</sup> factor analysis		4 <sup>th</sup> factor analysis		5 <sup>th</sup> factor analysis	
	FL	C	FL	C	FL	C	FL	C	FL	C
SR <sub>ad</sub> 1	0.745	0.555	0.758	0.575	0.756	<b>0.571</b>				
SR <sub>ad</sub> 2	0.847	0.718	0.859	0.738	0.854	0.730	0.884	0.713	0.864	0.746
SR <sub>ad</sub> 3	0.693	0.480	0.715	<b>0.512</b>						
SR <sub>ad</sub> 4	0.854	0.730	0.864	0.746	0.864	0.747	0.882	0.777	0.900	0.811
SR <sub>ad</sub> 5	0.879	0.772	0.879	0.773	0.885	0.783	0.890	0.792	0.887	0.787
SR <sub>ad</sub> 6	0.751	0.564	0.740	0.548	0.756	0.572	0.771	<b>0.594</b>		
SR <sub>ad</sub> 7	0.624	<b>0.389</b>								
SR <sub>ad</sub> 8	0.828	0.685	0.816	0.666	0.840	0.706	0.855	0.732	0.866	0.750
Explained variance	61.168%		65.116%		68.478%		72.151%		77.344%	

After four iterations five items (SR<sub>ad</sub> 7, SR<sub>ad</sub> 3, SR<sub>ad</sub> 1 and SR<sub>ad</sub> 6) were deleted. Firstly, the low communality (0.389) obtained by SR<sub>ad</sub> 7 (This advertisement is more beneficial to society's welfare than other advertisements) seems to be justified by the South African context. In South Africa numerous advertisements possess merely a social aim: advertisements for the democracy, for the use of condoms, against poverty or littering etc. South African consumers are used to being exposed to issue advertisements (see Section 4.3.3). Hence, the commercial advertisement for SmoothWriter without an explicit social message can not be perceived as more beneficial to society's welfare than advertisements against poverty or HIV/AIDS.

Secondly, low communalities obtained by SR<sub>ad</sub> 3 (0.512), SR<sub>ad</sub> 1 (0.571) and SR<sub>ad</sub> 6 (0.594) may be justified by the language used in these items. Indeed, many of the other items suppose a direct action of the advertisement on the society through action verbs ("to help", "to transmit" and "to contribute"). Conversely, in those deleted items the verb or language used ("to promote", "to reflect", "socially responsible") is more static than a real action. Through these deleted items, the advertisement does not have any influence on the society itself, it just reflects the society. The total amount of variance that these items share with all the other items is low. Consequently, SR<sub>ad</sub> 3, SR<sub>ad</sub> 1 and SR<sub>ad</sub> 6 were deleted from the analysis.

Finally, the generated scale, measuring the social responsibility attributed to the advertisement, is presented in Table 6.16.

**Table 6.16: Third SR Attributed to the Ad Scale**

<b>SR attributed to the advertising (SR<sub>ad</sub>)</b>	
Q: What do you think about the advertisement?	
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 2</b>	This advertisement is useful to society
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 4</b>	This advertisement might help things progress in the society
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 5</b>	This advertisement transmits good values in the society
<b>SR<sub>ad</sub> 8</b>	This advertisement contributes something to society

The scores of the factorial analyses, reliability and validity of this new scale measuring the SR attributed to the ad (SR<sub>ad</sub>) are reported in Table 6.17 below.

**Table 6.17: SR Attributed to the Ad Scale – Factorial Analyses, Reliability and Validity**

		n = 600	
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>			
Explained variance	77.344%		
MSA (KMO)	0.848		
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	
SR <sub>ad</sub> 2	0.864	0.746	
SR <sub>ad</sub> 4	0.900	0.811	
SR <sub>ad</sub> 5	0.887	0.787	
SR <sub>ad</sub> 8	0.866	0.750	
<b>Reliability</b>			
Cronbach's alpha	0.9022		
Jöreskog's rho	0.9027		
<b>Validity</b>			
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.6993		
<b>Confirmatory Factorial Analysis</b>			
$\chi^2$ and df (Probability level)	1.492 and 2 (0.474)		
GFI	0.999		
AGFI	0.994		
RMSEA	0.000		
CFI	1.000		
TLI	1.000		
PCFI	0.333		

#### 6.5.2.2 Scale of SR Attributed to the Brand

This scale is an adaptation of the *Product Social Responsibility's* scale (Bown and Dacin, 1997) (*this is a socially responsible product, this product is more beneficial to society's welfare than other products, this product contributes something to society*). The items of this new scale are described in Table 6.18.

**Table 6.18: SR Attributed to the Brand Scale**

SR attributed to the brand (SR <sub>b</sub> )	
Q: After having seen the advertisement, what do you think about Smoothwriter?	
SR <sub>b</sub> 1	This a socially responsible brand
SR <sub>b</sub> 2	This brand is more beneficial to society's welfare than other brands
SR <sub>b</sub> 3	This brand contributes something to society

The scores of the factorial analysis, reliability and validity of this scale (SR<sub>b</sub>) are reported in Table 6.19 below.

**Table 6.19: SR Attributed to the Brand Scale – Factorial Analysis, Reliability and Validity**

		n = 600	
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>			
Explained variance	74.658%		
MSA (KMO)	0.720		
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	
SR <sub>b</sub> 1	0.874	0.764	
SR <sub>b</sub> 2	0.846	0.716	
SR <sub>b</sub> 3	0.872	0.760	
<b>Reliability</b>			
Cronbach's alpha	0.8294		
Jöreskog's rho	0.8312		
<b>Validity</b>			
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.6224		

### 6.5.3 Company/Brand Identification Scale

According to the conceptual framework presented in the previous chapter, *Company/brand identification* is one of two firm's cognitive associations. In this questionnaire, *Company/brand identification* has been measured thanks to an adaptation of the eight-item measure developed by Einwiller, Fedorikhin, Johnson, Kamins (2006).

According to Einwiller *et al.* (2006:188) the five first items serve to measure consumers' senses of connection and self-categorization with the company ("I am somewhat associated with X," "I have a sense of connection with X," "I consider myself as belonging to the group of people who are in favour of X," "Customers of X are probably similar to me," and "Employees of X are probably similar to me"), whereas the three other items measured the perceived overlap in beliefs with the brand and to what extent this was self-referential for participants ("X shares my values," "Being a customer of X is part of my sense of who I am," and "Purchasing X's products would help me express my identity").

The vocabulary of the initial scale has been slightly changed, as reported in Table 6.20, in order to facilitate its comprehension.

**Table 6.20: Company/Brand Identification Scale**

<b>Company/brand identification (C<sub>i</sub>)</b>	
Q: After having seen the advertisement, what do you think about SmoothWriter?	
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 1</b>	I am somewhat associated with SmoothWriter
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 2</b>	I have a sense of connection with SmoothWriter
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 3</b>	I belong to the group of people who are in favour of SmoothWriter
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 4</b>	Customers of SmoothWriter are probably similar to me
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 5</b>	Employees of SmoothWriter are probably similar to me
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 6</b>	SmoothWriter shares my values
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 7</b>	Being a customer of SmoothWriter is part of my sense of who I am
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 8</b>	Purchasing SmoothWriter pen would help me express my identity

Despite their initial distinction between both dimensions (i.e. consumers' senses of connection and self-categorization with the company and perceived overlap in beliefs with the brand and to what extent this was self-referential for participants), Einwiller *et al.* (2006) found that all eight items loaded on a single factor that explained 66% of the total variance. Nevertheless, the factor analysis implemented in this thesis found different results. Indeed, a PCA, presented in Table 6.21, extracted two dimensions consistent with the *Kaiser's rule* (latent root > 1).

**Table 6.21: Company/Brand Identification Scale – PCA**

	Latent root	% explained variance	% cumulative variance
<b>Factor 1</b>	3.829	47.864	47.864
<b>Factor 2</b>	2.241	28.016	75.879

An analysis of the factor loadings determined the items loaded inside both factors. The results are reported in Table 6.22.

**Table 6.22: Company/Brand Identification Scale – Factor Loadings**

Items	Factor loadings	
	1	2
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 1</b>	<b>0.739</b>	0.273
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 2</b>	<b>0.814</b>	0.306
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 3</b>	<b>0.749</b>	0.425
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 4</b>	0.275	<b>0.892</b>
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 5</b>	0.231	<b>0.907</b>
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 6</b>	<b>0.694</b>	0.455
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 7</b>	<b>0.843</b>	0.247
<b>C<sub>i</sub> 8</b>	<b>0.859</b>	7.782E-02

Table 6.22 reveals that the scale used possess two distinct dimensions. The first dimension represents the respondent's identification with SmoothWriter and contains six items: "I am somewhat associated with SmoothWriter"; "I have a sense of connection with SmoothWriter"; "I belong to the group of people who are in favour of SmoothWriter"; "SmoothWriter shares my values"; "Being a customer of SmoothWriter is part of my sense of who I am"; "Purchasing SmoothWriter pen would help me express my identity". The second dimension represents the respondent's identification with a third person of SmoothWriter: "Customers of SmoothWriter are probably similar to me"; "Employees of SmoothWriter are probably similar to me".

The second dimension does not match with the operationalisation of the variable *Company/brand identification*. Indeed, this variable aims to measure the respondents' connection with SmoothWriter and not with a third person. Hence, only the first dimension

matches with the operationalisation. Therefore, items C<sub>i</sub>4 and C<sub>i</sub>5, included in the second factor, are deleted. A new factor analysis without C<sub>i</sub>4 and C<sub>i</sub>5 extracted one factor. Table 6.23 reports the results.

**Table 6.23: Company/Brand Identification Scale – Factorial Analyses, Reliability and Validity**

		n = 600	
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>			
Explained variance	70.334%		
MSA (KMO)	0.868		
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	
Ci 1	0.792	0.627	
Ci 2	0.873	0.761	
Ci 3	0.859	0.738	
Ci 6	0.821	0.674	
Ci 7	0.869	0.754	
Ci 8	0.816	0.665	
<b>Reliability</b>			
Cronbach's alpha	0.9143		
Jöreskog's rho	0.9157		
<b>Validity</b>			
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.6454		
<b>Confirmatory Factorial Analysis</b>			
$\chi^2$ and df (Probability level)	313.162 and 9 (0.000)		
GFI	0.839		
AGFI	0.623		
RMSEA	0.238		
CFI	0.882		
TLI	0.803		
PCFI	0.529		

### 6.5.4 Dual-Mediation Hypothesis

Three scales were used to measure the Dual-Mediation Hypothesis: the *Advertising attitude*, the *Brand attitude* and the *Purchase intention* scales. Each of them is a semantic differential scale and varies from 1 to 7.

#### 6.5.4.1 Advertising Attitude Scale

In this thesis the attitude towards the advertising is analysed as a unidimensional and mainly affective construct. Thus, MacKenzie *et al.*'s (1986) 7-point semantic differential scale, presented in Table 6.24, was used.

**Table 6.24: Advertising Attitude Scale**

Advertising Attitude (Aad)	
Q: What is your overall reaction to the advertisement for the SmoothWriter pen?	
<b>Aad 1</b>	Favourable/Unfavourable
<b>Aad 2</b>	Interesting/Boring

The scores of the factorial analysis, reliability and validity of this scale (Aad) are reported in Table 6.25.

**Table 6.25: Advertising Attitude – Factorial Analysis, Reliability and Validity**

		n = 600	
Exploratory Factorial Analysis			
Explained variance	88.45%		
MSA (KMO)	0.500		
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	
Aad 1	0.940	0.885	
Aad 2	0.940	0.885	
Reliability			
Cronbach's alpha	0.8636		

#### 6.5.4.2 Brand Attitude Scale

The attitude towards the brand is also analysed as a unidimensional and affective construct. MacKenzie *et al.*'s (1986) semantic differential scale was therefore implemented.

**Table 6.26: Brand Attitude Scale**

<b>Brand attitude (Ab)</b>	
Q: After having seen the advertisement, what is your overall feeling about using a SmoothWriter pen?	
<b>Ab 1</b>	Favourable/unfavourable
<b>Ab 2</b>	Good/Bad
<b>Ab 3</b>	Wise/Foolish

The scores of the factorial analysis, reliability and validity of the *Brand attitude*'s scale (Ab) are reported in Table 6.27 below.

**Table 6.27: Brand Attitude Scale – Factorial Analysis, Reliability and Validity**

		n = 600	
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>			
Explained variance	86.378%		
MSA (KMO)	0.760		
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	
Ab1	0.930	0.866	
Ab 2	0.937	0.878	
Ab 3	0.921	0.847	
<b>Reliability</b>			
Cronbach's alpha	0.9200		
Jöreskog's rho	0.9204		
<b>Validity</b>			
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.7942		

#### 6.5.4.3 Purchase Intention Scale

The *Purchase intention* is analysed as a behavioural construct. It has been measured by MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch's (1986) semantic differential scale reported in Table 6.28.

**Table 6.28: Purchase Intention Scale**

<b>Purchase intention (Ip)</b>	
Q: What is the probability that you buy SmoothWriter pen if it is available in your area?	
<b>Ip 1</b>	Likely/Unlikely,
<b>Ip 2</b>	Probable/Improbable
<b>Ip 3</b>	Possible/Impossible

The scores of the factorial analysis, reliability and validity of the *Purchase intention* scale are exposed in Table 6.29.

**Table 6.29: Purchase Intention Scale – Factorial Analysis, Reliability and Validity**

		n = 600	
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>			
Explained variance	89.185%		
MSA (KMO)	0.741		
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	
Ip 1	0.952	0.906	
Ip 2	0.962	0.926	
Ip 3	0.918	0.843	
<b>Reliability</b>			
Cronbach's alpha	0.9364		
Jöreskog's rho	0.9456		
<b>Validity</b>			
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.8553		

### 6.5.5 Moderator Variables

The moderator variables were implemented in the second questionnaire. Respondents had to indicate their racial group and to rate their identification and prejudice levels.

#### 6.5.5.1 Self-designated Racial Group

The survey's respondents indicated which racial group(s) they belong to (Stayman and Deshpandé, 1989). Respondents could choose among several racial groups, as reported in Table 6.30.

**Table 6.30: Self-designated Racial Group**

Self-designated racial group (Rg)	
Your racial group is:	
<b>Rg 1</b>	Black
<b>Rg 2</b>	Coloured
<b>Rg 3</b>	Indian
<b>Rg 4</b>	White
<b>Rg 5</b>	Other :.....(specify)

Among the 600 subjects there were 243 blacks, 57 coloureds, 18 Indians, 270 whites and 12 others. In respect of respondents who indicated ‘other’ on the questionnaire, nine identified themselves as Asians, two as Latinos and one as ‘Arabic’. Respondents who designated themselves as ‘coloured’, ‘Indian’ and ‘other’ were regrouped into one racial group referred to as ‘other’ (n = 87). After indicating their racial group respondents rated their identification and prejudice levels.

#### 6.5.5.2 Identification Level Scale

Respondents had to specify how strongly they identify with the racial group they indicated. This moderator variable has been used by numerous studies (e.g. Lee, Fernandez and Martin, 2002; Simpson, Snuggs, Christiansen and Simples, 2000). In this thesis, the *Identification Level* was measured through an adaptation of the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (Phinney, 1992) used in many ethnic studies (e.g. Appiah, 2001; 2002; 2004; Avery, 2003; Reed, 2003; Torres, 2007; Torres and Briggs, 2007). This scale is presented in Table 6.31.

**Table: 6.31 Identification Level Scale**

Identification Level (Id <sub>i</sub> )	
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 1</b>	I am happy to be a member of the racial group I belong to
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 2</b>	I have a strong sense of belonging to my racial group
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 3</b>	I understand pretty well what my racial group membership means to me
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 4</b>	I have a lot of pride in my racial group
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 5</b>	I feel a strong attachment towards my racial group
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 6</b>	I feel good about my racial background

This scale made it possible to divide black, white and other participants into high-identification and low-identification groups based on a median split. The assessment of this scale's validity and reliability is done separately for racial groups. First, a PCA (see Table 6.32) revealed that the sixth item Id<sub>6</sub> possesses very low communality and factor loadings for black and white viewers.

**Table 6.32: Identification Level Scale – PCA**

Items	Black viewers		White viewers		Other viewers	
	FL	C	FL	C	FL	C
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 1</b>	0.894	0.800	0.787	0.619	0.827	0.683
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 2</b>	0.906	0.821	0.888	0.789	0.912	0.832
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 3</b>	0.883	0.779	0.762	0.581	0.889	0.789
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 4</b>	0.891	0.794	0.897	0.804	0.938	0.880
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 5</b>	0.866	0.751	0.882	0.779	0.906	0.820
<b>Id<sub>1</sub> 6</b>	<b>0.556</b>	<b>0.309</b>	0.737	<b>0.544</b>	0.803	0.644
Explained variance	70.893%		68.590%		77.486%	

The low score of Id<sub>6</sub> may be linked with the broad sense of “background” which could have engendered misunderstanding and different interpretations. Hence, item Id<sub>6</sub> was deleted from black and white viewers’ scales. Thus, a new PCA without Id<sub>6</sub> (see Table 6.33) revealed scores in compliance with the rule of thumb.

**Table 6.33: Identification Level Scale – Factorial Analyses, Reliability and Validity**

	Black viewers n = 243	White viewers n = 270	Other viewers n = 87
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>			
Explained variance	79.976%	72.842%	77.486%
MSA (KMO)	0.896	0.860	0.896

**Table 6.33: Identification Level Scale – Factorial Analyses, Reliability and Validity  
(Continued)**

	Black viewers n = 243		White viewers n = 270		Other viewers n = 87	
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	FL	C	FL	C
Id <sub>1</sub> 1	0.908	0.825	0.805	0.648	0.827	0.683
Id <sub>1</sub> 2	0.911	0.830	0.903	0.815	0.912	0.832
Id <sub>1</sub> 3	0.893	0.798	0.788	0.620	0.889	0.789
Id <sub>1</sub> 4	0.895	0.801	0.883	0.781	0.938	0.880
Id <sub>1</sub> 5	0.863	0.745	0.882	0.778	0.906	0.820
Id <sub>1</sub> 6					0.803	0.644
<b>Reliability</b>						
Cronbach's alpha	0.9358		0.9048		0.9411	
Jöreskog's rhô	0.9363		0.9140		0.9433	
<b>Validity</b>						
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.7469		0.6885		0.7380	
<b>Confirmatory Factorial Analysis</b>						
$\chi^2$ and df	18.404 and 5		37.374 and 5		24.537 and 9	
(Probability level)	0.002		0.000		0.004	
GFI	0.969		0.944		0.913	
AGFI	0.907		0.833		0.797	
RMSEA	0.105		0.155		0.142	
CFI	0.987		0.964		0.968	
TLI	0.974		0.927		0.946	
PCFI	0.493		0.482		0.581	

An identification level scale was created by adding together the scores of the five items. Respondents were then divided into high-identification and low-identification groups based on a median split of their total scores. The median score for black respondents was 7, the maximum reachable. Hence, high-identification black viewers were participants who scored 7 (n = 134) and low ethnic identifiers scored below 7 (n = 109). On the other hand, the median score of white respondents was 5.4. Thus, high-identification white viewers were participants

who scored above 5.4 (n = 134) and low-identification viewers scored below 5.4 (n = 136). The median score of other respondents was 6.5; high-identification scored above 6.5 (n = 44) and low-identification scored below 6.5 (n = 43). The last measurement scale respondents had to complete was about their prejudice level.

### 6.5.5.3 Prejudice Level Scale

Finally, participants rated black and white South Africans on a series of characteristics on semantic differential scales presented in Table 6.34.

**Table 6.34: Prejudice Level Scale**

Prejudice level (Pr1)	
Q: What do you think about the South African <b>Black</b> (or <b>White</b> ) population?	
<b>Pr1 1</b>	Good/bad
<b>Pr1 2</b>	Valuable/Invaluable
<b>Pr1 3</b>	Clean/Dirty
<b>Pr1 4</b>	Favourable/unfavourable
<b>Pr1 5</b>	Mature/immature

Participants were then divided into high-prejudice and low-prejudice groups based on a median split of their totals scored in response to blacks and whites (White and Harkins, 1994). Two different factor analyses were done. One consisted of the responses of white and other viewers' prejudice towards black South Africans and another with the responses of black and other viewers' prejudice towards white South Africans. The scores of the factorial analysis, reliability and validity of the scale measuring the prejudice towards black (Pr1<sub>black</sub>) are reported in Table 6.35.

**Table 6.35: Prejudice towards Blacks Scale – Factorial Analyses, Reliability and Validity**

	White viewers n = 270	Other viewers n = 87
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>		
Explained variance	76.136	78.760
MSA (KMO)	0.882	0.870

**Table 6.35: Prejudice towards Blacks Scale – Factorial Analyses, Reliability and Validity (Continued)**

Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	White viewers n = 270		Other viewers n = 87	
	FL	C	FL	C
Pr <sub>black</sub> 1	0.904	0.816	0.887	0.788
Pr <sub>black</sub> 2	0.880	0.774	0.882	0.778
Pr <sub>black</sub> 3	0.853	0.727	0.888	0.789
Pr <sub>black</sub> 4	0.921	0.848	0.904	0.818
Pr <sub>black</sub> 5	0.801	0.641	0.875	0.765
<b>Reliability</b>				
Cronbach's alpha	0.9183		0.9309	
Jöreskog's rho	0.9178		0.9313	
<b>Validity</b>				
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.6912		0.7313	
<b>Confirmatory Factorial Analysis</b>				
$\chi^2$ and df (Probability level)	24.442 and 5 0.000		22.650 and 5 0.000	
GFI	0.963		0.896	
AGFI	0.889		0.686	
RMSEA	0.120		0.203	
CFI	0.981		0.950	
TLI	0.962		0.900	
PCFI	0.490		0.475	

The median score for white respondents was 5.6; low-prejudice white respondents were participants who scored more than 5.6 (n = 129) and high-prejudice white respondents scored below 5.6 (n = 141). On the other hand, the median score for other respondents was 5.8; low-prejudice other respondents were participants who scored more than 5.8 (n = 44) and high-prejudice other respondents scored below 5.8 (n = 43).

The same scale was used to measure black and other viewers' prejudice towards white South African ( $Pr_{white}$ ). Surprisingly, a first PCA (see Table 6.36) revealed that the first item  $Pr_{white1}$  possesses unsatisfactory communality among other viewers.

**Table 6.36: Other Viewers Prejudice towards Whites Scale – PCA**

Items	Other viewers	
	Factor loadings	Communalities
$Pr_{white\ 1}$	0.772	<b>0.596</b>
$Pr_{white\ 2}$	0.831	0.690
$Pr_{white\ 3}$	0.812	0.659
$Pr_{white\ 4}$	0.852	0.725
$Pr_{white\ 5}$	0.844	0.712
<b>Explained variance</b>	67.645%	

Hence,  $Pr_1$  was deleted and a second PCA revealed satisfactory scores, as set out in Table 6.37.

**Table 6.37: Prejudice towards Whites Scale – Factorial Analyses, Reliability and Validity**

	Black viewers n = 243		Other viewers n = 87	
<b>Exploratory Factorial Analysis</b>				
Explained variance	73.589%		71.826	
MSA (KMO)	0.873		0.729	
Factor loadings (FL) and communalities (C)	FL	C	FL	C
$Pr_1\ 1$	0.878	0.770		
$Pr_1\ 2$	0.874	0.764	0.836	0.699
$Pr_1\ 3$	0.804	0.647	0.827	0.684
$Pr_1\ 4$	0.851	0.725	0.871	0.759
$Pr_1\ 5$	0.880	0.774	0.855	0.731

**Table 6.37: Prejudice towards Whites Scale – Factorial Analyses, Reliability and Validity (Continued)**

	Black viewers n = 243	Other viewers n = 87
<b>Reliability</b>		
Cronbach's alpha	0.9089	0.8683
Jöreskog's rho	0.9119	0.8676
<b>Validity</b>		
Convergent validity: $\rho_{vc}$	0.6773	0.6228
<b>Confirmatory Factorial Analysis</b>		
$\chi^2$ and df	22.908 and 5	25.975 and 2
(Probability level)	0.000	0.000
GFI	0.966	0.869
AGFI	0.898	0.344
RMSEA	0.122	0.373
CFI	0.977	0.870
TLI	0.954	0.609
PCFI	0.489	0.290

The median score for black respondents was 6; low-prejudice black respondents were participants who scored more than 6 (n = 126) and high-prejudice black respondents scored below 6 (n = 117). On the other hand, the median score for other respondents was 5.75; low-prejudice other respondents were participants who scored more than 5.75 (n = 47) and high-prejudice other respondents scored below 5.75 (n = 40).

## 6.6 Conclusion

This chapter presented the methodology used to collect and analyse the data. Firstly, it defined the philosophical position of this thesis as positivist and hypothetico-deductive. This position influences the overall research methodology, especially the experimental procedure which attempts to be scientific as much as possible. Also, the measurement instruments used to collect and analyse the data were described and justified. The next chapter presents the data analysis and the test of the research hypotheses.

## CHAPTER 7

### EMPIRICAL RESULTS

#### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the results obtained from the collected data in order to analyse the conceptual framework and associated hypotheses proposed in Chapter 5. The first section considers the assumption of normality and the second section presents the results related to the effects of viewers' exposure to advertisements on viewers' advertising processing. The following three sections present the results of the main hypotheses (i.e. *Identification Process*, *CSR Process* and *Company/brand identification Model*) and related sub-hypotheses. In these sections, each sub-hypothesis (or path diagram) is independently tested by means of regression analysis. These path diagrams are then converted into a "sub-structural" model (or main hypothesis) for which the path coefficients are calculated and goodness-of-fit criteria assessed. Finally, the fourth section presents the assessment of the entire conceptual framework completed by the Dual-Mediation Hypothesis (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986).

#### 7.2 Assessment of Normality

Before analysing the hypotheses presented Chapter 5, the assumption of normality must be considered. The normal distribution of variables is a symmetric, single-peaked and bell-shaped density curve (Moore and McCabe, 1993). Normal distribution has a central position in both univariate and multivariate statistical methods (Manly, 2005). Indeed, the methods testing used in this study, namely ANOVA and SEM, require the assumption of normality. Specifically, the normality of each independent variable must be evaluated through the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Evrard *et al.* 2003), as shown in Table 7.1.

**Table 7.1: Assessment of Normality**

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test			
	Mean	Standard-deviation	Z of Kolmogorov-Smirnov	Sig.
Similarity	3.67	1.25	2.874	<b>0.000</b>
Identification	3.43	1.37	3.118	<b>0.000</b>
Felt targetedness	3.78	1.52	2.765	<b>0.000</b>
SR attributed to the ad	3.79	1.59	1.809	<b>0.003</b>
SR attributed to the brand	3.75	1.31	3.587	<b>0.000</b>
Company/brand identification	3.26	1.34	2.552	<b>0.000</b>
Advertising attitude	4.67	1.64	3.393	<b>0.000</b>
Brand attitude	4.89	1.30	3.062	<b>0.000</b>
Purchase intention	4.88	1.69	2.874	<b>0.000</b>

Table 7.1 reports that each variable studied is normally distributed because all the tests are significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). Thus, it is assumed that the joint distribution is multivariate normal (Manly, 2005). Consequently, ANOVA and SEM can be used in the test of the hypotheses, which starts first with the test of effects of the viewers' exposure to a specific advertisement.

### 7.3 Advertisement Exposure

This section reports the results of the hypotheses associated with the effects of viewers' exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement in comparison with their exposure to two other 'mono-racial' advertisements. The section presents the moderational role of viewers' *Racial group* and *Racial attitude*, respectively.

#### 7.3.1 The Racial Group

This section details the results related to the effects of the interaction between *Ad exposure* (multi-racial, all-white or all-black advertisements) and *Racial group* (black, white or other viewers). This interaction is assumed to influence both Identification and CSR processes through their "first" constructs, *Similarity* and *SR attributed to the advertising*, respectively.

### 7.3.1.1 Identification Process

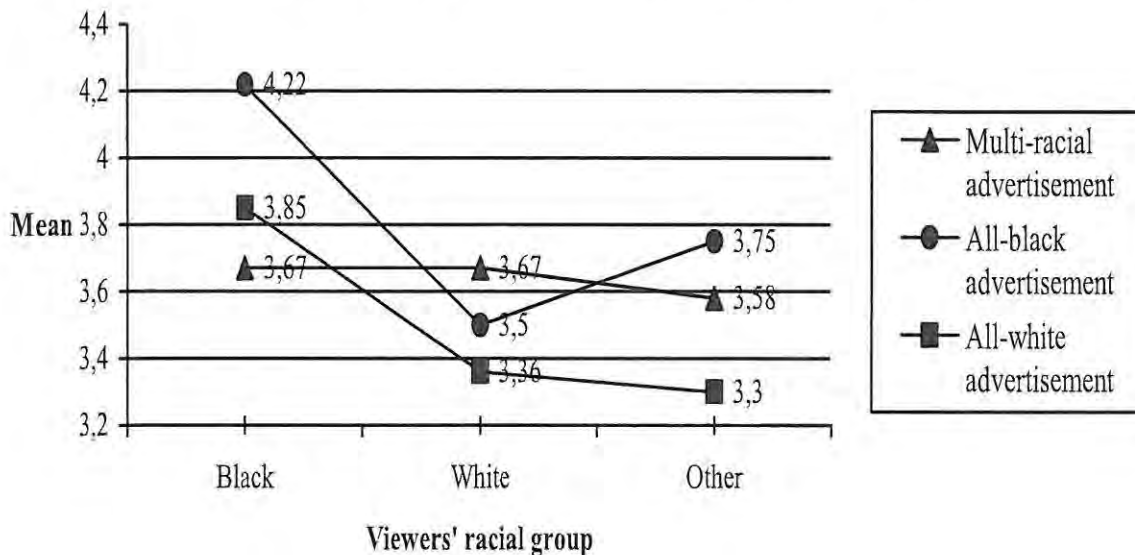
The first hypothesis predicted that a two-factor interaction (*Ad exposure* × *Racial group*) influences the *Similarity* judgment expressed by the viewers. A two-factor ANOVA, shown in Table 7.2, tests the relationship between two independent variables (*Ad exposure* and viewers' *Racial group*) and a dependent variable (*Similarity*).

**Table 7.2: Hypothesis H<sup>1</sup> – Two-way ANOVA**

Similarity		ANOVA			
		F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
H <sup>1</sup>	Ad exposure × Racial group	2.004	4, 591	0.092	0.013

Table 7.2 indicates a marginally significant interaction between *Ad exposure* and viewer's *Racial group* on *Similarity*,  $F(4,591) = 2.004$ ,  $p < 0.10$ . Figure 7.1 illustrates the differences between groups.

**Figure 7.1: Hypothesis H<sup>1</sup> – Means of Similarity**



The means, presented in Figure 7.1, illustrate the acceptance or rejection of the sub-hypotheses H<sup>1.1</sup> and H<sup>1.2</sup>. Table 7.3 reports the ANOVA testing H<sup>1.1</sup> and related sub-hypotheses.

**Table 7.3: Hypothesis H<sup>1.1</sup> – One-way ANOVA**

Similarity		ANOVA			
		F	df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
H <sup>1.1.1</sup>	Black viewers × Ad exposure	2.984	2, 240	0.052	0.024
H <sup>1.1.2</sup>	White viewers × Ad exposure	1.564	2, 267	0.211	0.012
H <sup>1.1.3</sup>	Other viewers × Ad exposure	0.812	2, 84	0.447	0.019

Table 7.3 reveals that the interaction between black viewers and *Ad exposure* has a marginal influence on viewers' *Similarity* judgment  $F(2, 240) = 2.984, p < 0.10$ . The Scheffe *Post-hoc* test, presented in Table 7.4, compares the results of the three advertisements.

**Table 7.4: Hypothesis H<sup>1.1.1</sup> – Scheffe Post-hoc Test**

	Scheffe Test		
	Multi-racial advertisement	All-white advertisement	All-black advertisement
Mean Similarity	3.67	3.85	4.22
Multi-racial advertisement			
All-black advertisement	0.053		
All-white advertisement	0.732	0.395	

Table 7.4 shows that black viewers perceived themselves as marginally more similar to actors in the all-black advertisement ( $M = 4.22$ ) than they did to the actors in the multi-racial advertisement ( $M = 3.67, p < 0.10$ ). However, Table 7.4 reveals unexpectedly that black viewers did not express significantly more *Similarity* to the actors in the all-black advertisement ( $M = 4.22$ ) than to those in the all-white advertisement ( $M = 3.85, p > 0.05$ ). They even perceived slightly more *Similarity* with the models of the all-white advertisement ( $M = 3.85$ ) than they did with those featured the multi-racial advertisement ( $M = 3.67, p > 0.05$ ). Hence, H<sup>1.1.1</sup>, which hypothesised that black respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in all-black advertisement than actors in all-white and multi-racial advertisement, is partially rejected.

On the other hand, as set out in Table 7.3, white viewers did not perceive themselves more similar to actors in the all-white advertisement than to actors featured in all-black and multi-

racial advertisements,  $F(2, 267) = 1.564, p > 0.05$ . A closer examination of the means reveals that white viewers express more *Similarity* to actors featured in both multi-racial ( $M = 3.67$ ) and all-black advertisement ( $M = 3.5$ ) than actors in all-white advertisement ( $M = 3.36, p > 0.05$ ). Nonetheless, the effect is not significant and the means are almost equal. Hence,  $H^{1.1.2}$ , which expected that white respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in all-white advertisement than actors in all-black and multi-racial advertisements, is rejected.

Moreover, as expected, the viewers who were neither blacks nor whites showed no significant difference in their *Similarity* judgment based on the race of the actors  $F(2, 84) = 0.812, p > 0.05$ . Hence,  $H^{1.1.3}$  is validated.

Therefore,  $H^{1.1}$ , which predicted that viewers will express more *Similarity* when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only than to advertisements where actors from their racial group are portrayed with other racial groups or are absent, is partially rejected. Indeed, only  $H^{1.1.3}$  is validated, whereas  $H^{1.1.1}$  and  $H^{1.1.2}$  are partially rejected and rejected, respectively. The second sub-hypothesis of  $H^1$  is discussed below.

Table 7.5 reports the ANOVA testing  $H^{1.2}$  which hypothesised that viewers, exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their *Racial group*, will perceive more *Similarity* than viewers who do not have actor from their *Racial group* portrayed.

**Table 7.5: Hypothesis  $H^{1.2}$  – One-way ANOVA**

Similarity		ANOVA			
		F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
$H^{1.2.1}$	All-black advertisement × Viewers' racial group	4.083	2, 117	<b>0.019</b>	0.065
$H^{1.2.2}$	All-white advertisement × Viewers' racial group	2.088	2, 117	0.129	0.034
$H^{1.2.3}$	Multi-racial advertisement × Viewers' racial group	0.115	2, 357	0.892	0.001

Table 7.5 reveals that the interaction between the all-black advertisement and viewers' *Racial group* has a significant influence on viewers' *Similarity* judgment  $F(2, 117) = 4.083, p < 0.05$ .

The Scheffe post-hoc test, presented in Table 7.6, compares the results of the three *Racial groups* exposed to an all-black advertisement.

**Table 7.6: Hypothesis H<sup>1.2.1</sup> – Scheffe Post-hoc Test**

	Scheffe test		
	Black viewers	White viewers	Other viewers
Mean Similarity	4.22	3.5	3.75
Black viewers			
White viewers	<b>0.020</b>		
Other viewers	0.375	0.763	

The post hoc test of Scheffe, presented Table 7.6, shows that black (M = 4.22) and white (M = 3.5) viewers showed a significant difference (0.7192,  $p < 0.05$ ) in their *Similarity* judgment when they were exposed to the all-black advertisement. However, the exposure to the all-black advertisement did not make black viewers (M = 4.22) express significantly more *Similarity* than other viewers (M = 3.75,  $p > 0.05$ ). Hence, H<sup>1.2.1</sup> which supposed that black viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in the all-black advertisement than white, Indian, Asian or coloured respondents, is partially validated.

Moreover, Table 7.6 reports that there is no significant difference between *Racial groups* when viewers are exposed to all-white ( $F(2, 117) = 2.088, p > 0.05$ ) and to multi-racial ( $F(2, 357) = 0.115, p > 0.05$ ) advertisements. Hence, H<sup>1.2.2</sup> and H<sup>1.2.3</sup> are rejected. Consequently, H<sup>1.2</sup> which predicted that viewers, exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their *Racial group*, will perceive more *Similarity* than viewers who do not have actor from their racial group portrayed, is partially rejected.

Finally, as set out in Table 7.7, H<sup>1</sup>, which predicted that the relationship between *Ad exposure* and viewers' *Similarity* judgment was moderated by viewers' *Racial group*, is partially rejected.

**Table 7.7: Test of Hypothesis H<sup>1</sup> – Recapitulative Table**

Hypotheses	Test
H <sup>1</sup> : The influence of actors' race on the similarity to the actors perceived by the viewer is moderated by viewers' racial group.	Partially rejected
H <sup>1.1</sup> : Viewers will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only than to advertisements where actors from their racial group are portrayed with actors from other racial groups or are absent.	Partially rejected
- H <sup>1.1.1</sup> : Black respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in all-black advertisement than actors in all-white and multi-racial advertisements.	Partially rejected
- H <sup>1.1.2</sup> : White respondents will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in all-white advertisement than actors in all-black and multi-racial advertisements.	Rejected
- H <sup>1.1.3</sup> : Viewers who are neither black nor white will not perceive a difference in their similarity based on the race of the actors in the advertisements	<b>Accepted</b>
H <sup>1.2</sup> : Viewers, exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their Racial group, will perceive more similarity than viewers who do not have actor from their racial group portrayed.	Partially rejected
- H <sup>1.2.1</sup> : Black viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-black advertisement than white, Indian, Asian or coloured respondents.	<i>Partially accepted</i>
- H <sup>1.2.2</sup> : White viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-white advertisement than black, Indian, Asian or coloured respondents.	Rejected
- H <sup>1.2.3</sup> : Exposed to a multi-racial advertisement, black and white viewers will maintain the same level of similarity, and they will together perceive a greater similarity than respondents who are neither black nor white.	Rejected

In conclusion, it is noteworthy that the exposure to a multi-racial advertisement generated equal *Similarity* judgment among black (M = 3.67) and white viewers (M = 3.67). Hence, the role of the multi-racial advertisement, which is to attract equally several racial groups on the

basis of the perceived *Similarity* with the actors featured, is accepted. The multi-racial advertisement influences similarly white and black viewers' *Identification Process*. The next section studies the influence of multi-racial advertisement on the *CSR process*.

### 7.3.1.2 CSR Process

This section presents the test of the hypothesis associated with the influence of *Ad exposure* on the *CSR process*. Specifically, it investigates whether the viewers' exposure to a certain type of advertisement influences their attribution of social responsibility to the advertisement.  $H^{2.1}$  assumed that viewers, regardless their *Racial group*, would attribute more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement than to either mono-racial advertisement. This hypothesis is examined by means of one-way ANOVA presented Table 7.8.

**Table 7.8: Hypothesis  $H^{2.1}$  – One-way ANOVA**

SR attributed to the ad		ANOVA			
		F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
$H^{2.1}$	Ad exposure	1.107	2, 597	0.331	0.004

Table 7.8 reports that there is not significant interaction between the type of advertisement and viewer's social attribution,  $F(2, 597) = 1.107, p > 0.05$ . Nevertheless, an examination of the means, presented in Figure 7.2, stresses the expected tendency.

**Figure 7.2: Hypothesis  $H^{2.1}$  – Means of SR Attributed to the Ad**

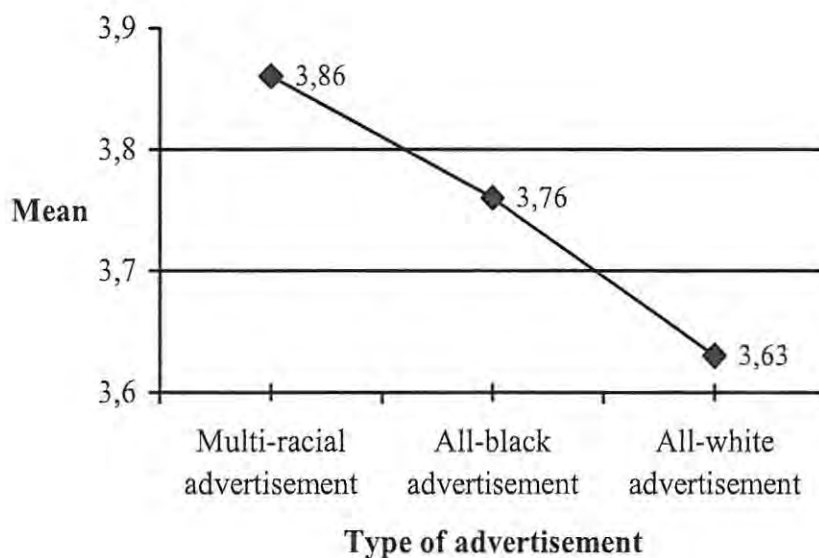


Figure 7.2 reveals that viewers attributed more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement ( $M = 3.86$ ) than to either the all-black ( $M = 3.76$ ) or all-white ( $M = 3.63$ ) advertisements. However, because Table 7.8 reported that the differences between the means are non-significant,  $H^{2.1}$  is rejected.

The second and third sub-hypotheses introduced the moderational role of viewers' *Racial group*. Firstly,  $H^{2.2}$  proposed that black viewers will attribute more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement than white viewers. On the other hand,  $H^{2.3}$  supposed that, because of their "non-representation", viewers who are neither black nor white will attribute less social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement than black and white viewers. The one-way ANOVA, presented in Table 7.9, examines the relationship between *Racial groups* and SR attributed to the multi-racial advertisement.

**Table 7.9: Hypotheses  $H^{2.2}$  and  $H^{2.3}$  – One-way ANOVA**

SR attributed to the ad		ANOVA			
		F	df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
$H^{2.2}$ and $H^{2.3}$	Multi-racial advertisement × Viewers' racial group	57.518	2, 357	<b>0.000</b>	0.244

Table 7.9 shows that viewers' *Racial group* influences viewers' social attribution to the multi-racial advertisement  $F(2, 357) = 57.518$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . Typically, viewers' *Racial group* explained 24.4% of the variance of the SR they attributed to the multi-racial advertisement. Table 7.10 presents the Scheffe test which helps to determine which differences are the sources of the significant  $F$ -value.

**Table 7.10: Hypotheses  $H^{2.2}$  and  $H^{2.3}$  – Scheffe Post-hoc Test**

	Scheffe test		
	Black viewers	White viewers	Other viewers
Mean SR attributed to the multi-racial advertisement	4.72	3.12	3.86
Black viewers			
White viewers	<b>0.000</b>		
Other viewers	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.003</b>	

As expected, Table 7.10 reveals that black viewers ( $M = 4.72$ ) attribute more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement than white viewers ( $M = 3.12$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Hence,  $H^{2.2}$  is validated. However, although other viewers ( $M = 3.86$ ) attributed significantly less SR to the advertisement than black viewers ( $M = 4.72$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), Table 7.10 reports that other viewers ( $M = 3.86$ ) attributed significantly more SR to the multi-racial advertisement than white viewers ( $M = 3.12$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Therefore,  $H^{2.3}$  which hypothesised that viewers who are neither black nor white will experience a negative *CSR process* because of their “eviction from the new national and racial harmony” is rejected.

In conclusion, as shown in Table 7.11,  $H^2$  which hypothesised that viewers would attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement is partially rejected.

**Table 7.11: Test of Hypothesis  $H^2$  – Recapitulative Table**

Hypotheses	Test
$H^2$ : Viewers will attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement.	Partially rejected
$H^{2.1}$ : viewers, regardless of their racial group, will attribute more social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than to all-white and all-black advertisements.	Rejected
$H^{2.2}$ : Black viewers will attribute more social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than white viewers.	<b>Accepted</b>
$H^{2.3}$ : Viewers who are neither black nor white will attribute less social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than black and white viewers.	Rejected

This section has reported the results associated to the moderational role of viewers’ *Racial group* on viewers’ *Similarity* and attribution judgments. The next section tests the research associated to the influence of viewers’ *Racial attitude* on both judgments.

### 7.3.2 Racial Attitude

The following section discusses viewers’ reactions to actors’ race in interaction with their *Racial attitude* on both Identification and CSR processes.

### 7.3.2.1 Identification Process

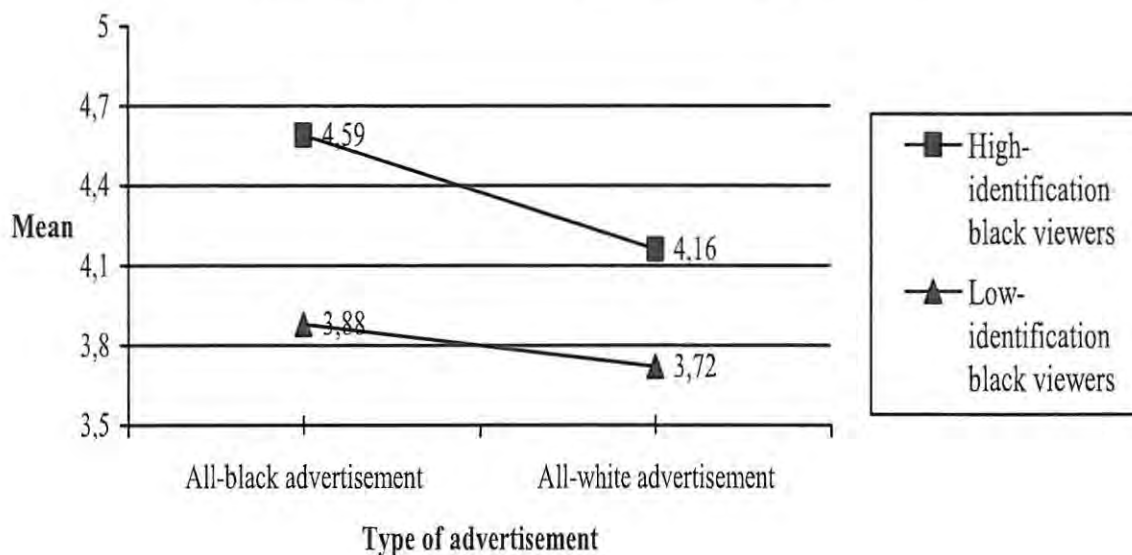
This section presents the results of the hypothesised influence of viewers' *Racial attitude* on their *Identification Process*. The first hypothesis  $H^3$  assumed that on the basis of their in-group favouritism, high-identification viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to in-group actors than will low-identification viewers. However, it was also assumed that in-group favouritism does not imply out-group rejection.  $H^{3.1}$  ( $H^{3.2}$ ) hypothesised that on the basis of their in-group favouritism, high-identification black (white) viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to black (white) actors in the all-black (all-white) advertisement than will low-identification black (white) viewers, whereas high- and low-identification black (white) viewers will show no difference in their *Similarity* perceived to actors featured in the all-white (all-black) advertisement. On the other hand, because none of the actors featured in the three advertisements is from their *Racial group*,  $H^{3.3}$  assumed that in-group identification level of viewers who are neither black nor white (e.g. Indian, Asian, coloured etc.) does not influence their reactions towards those advertisements. Table 7.12 reports the ANOVAs testing these hypotheses.

**Table 7.12: Hypothesis  $H^3$  – One-way ANOVA**

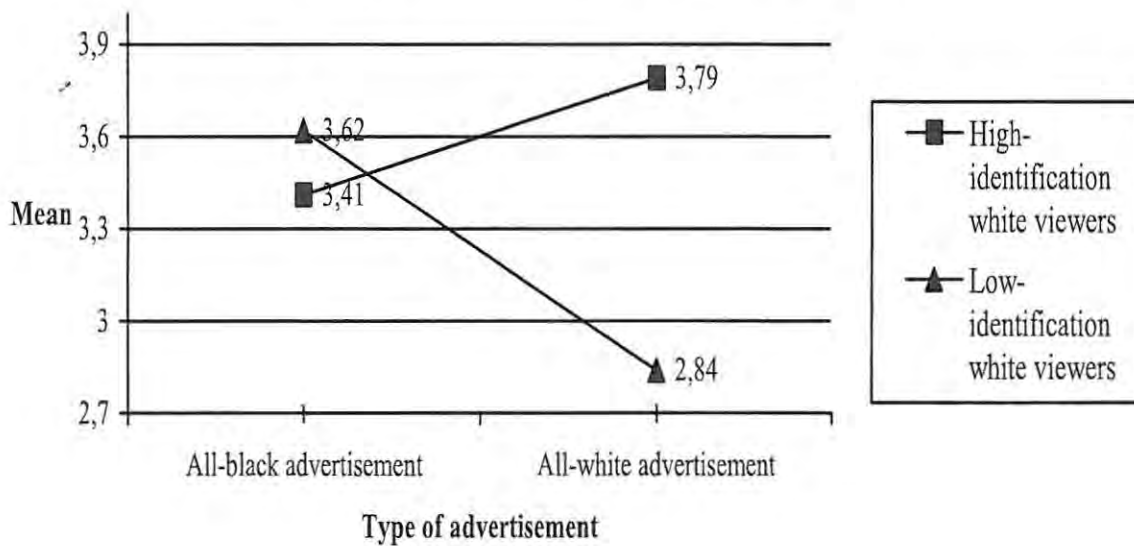
		ANOVA				
		Similarity	F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
$H^{3.1}$	Black viewers	All-black advertisement × black viewers' identification level	3.013	1, 46	0.089	0.061
		All-white advertisement × black viewers' identification level	0.740	1, 48	0.394	0.015
$H^{3.2}$	White Viewers	All-black advertisement × white viewers' identification level	0.401	1, 50	0.529	0.008
		All-white advertisement × white viewers' identification level	9.056	1, 48	<b>0.004</b>	0.159
$H^{3.3}$	Other viewers	All-black advertisement × other viewers' identification level	2.032	1, 18	0.171	0.101
		All-white advertisement × other viewers' identification level	1.646	1, 18	0.216	0.084
		Multi-racial advertisement × other viewers' identification level	0.204	1, 45	0.653	0.005

Table 7.12 shows that the difference between the means of high- and low-identification black viewers was marginally significant when they were exposed to the all-black advertisement  $F(1, 46) = 3.013, p < 0.10$ ; whereas there was a non-significant difference when they were exposed to the all-white advertisement  $F(1, 48) = 0.740, p > 0.05$ . Similar results were found with white viewers: the difference between the means of high- and low-identification white viewers was significant when they were exposed to the all-white advertisement  $F(1, 48) = 9.056, p < 0.01$ ; whereas there was a non-significant difference when they were exposed to the all-black advertisement  $F(1, 50) = 0.529, p > 0.05$ . Likewise, the identification level of viewers neither black nor white did not show influence on their *Similarity* perceived to all-black ( $F(1, 18) = 2.032, p > 0.05$ ), all-white ( $F(1, 18) = 1.646, p > 0.05$ ) and multi-racial ( $F(1, 45) = 0.204, p > 0.05$ ) advertisements. Figures 7.3 and 7.4 illustrate the difference between identification groups for black and white viewers, respectively.

**Figure 7.3: Hypothesis H<sup>3.1</sup> – Means of Similarity**



**Figure 7.4: Hypothesis H<sup>3.2</sup> – Means of Similarity**



Figures 7.3 and 7.4 show that viewers who have a high-identification level perceived themselves as more similar to actors from their own racial group than did low-identification viewers. Hence, H<sup>3</sup> is accepted.

The next hypothesis H<sup>4</sup> assumed that the perceived *Similarity* with out-group actors will depend on viewer's prejudice level. Thus, on the basis of their out-group intolerance, H<sup>4.1</sup> (H<sup>4.2</sup>) argued that black (white) viewers possessing prejudice against the white (black) population will perceive themselves as less similar to the actors in the all-white (all-black) advertisement than black (white) viewers who do not possess prejudice against the white (black) population. On the other hand, because out-group intolerance does not imply in-group favouritism, these hypotheses assumed that low- and high-prejudice black (white) viewers will show no difference in their *Similarity* towards actors in the all-black (all-white) advertisement. Table 7.13 presents the ANOVA testing these hypotheses.

**Table 7.13: Hypotheses H<sup>4.1</sup> and H<sup>4.2</sup> – One-way ANOVA**

			ANOVA			
Similarity			F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
H <sup>4.1</sup>	Black viewers	All-black advertisement × black viewers' prejudice level towards whites	0.895	1, 46	0.349	0.019
		All-white advertisement × black viewers' prejudice level towards whites	5.753	1, 48	<b>0.020</b>	0.107
H <sup>4.2</sup>	White Viewers	All-black advertisement × white viewers' prejudice level towards blacks	0.027	1, 50	0.870	0.001
		All-white advertisement × white viewers' prejudice level towards blacks	0.598	1, 48	0.443	0.012

Table 7.13 reports that the difference between the means of high- and low prejudice black viewers was significant when they were exposed to the all-white advertisement  $F(1, 48) = 5.753, p < 0.05$ ; whereas there was a non-significant difference when they were exposed to the all-black advertisement  $F(1, 46) = 0.349, p > 0.05$ . Figure 7.5 illustrates the difference between both groups of black viewers.

**Figure 7.5: Hypothesis H<sup>4.1</sup> – Means of Similarity**

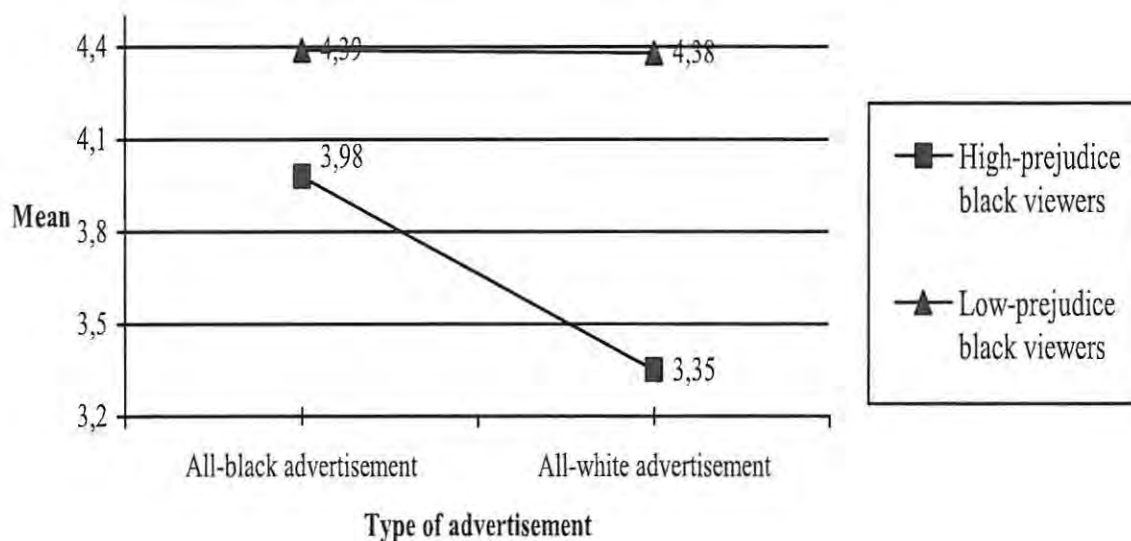


Figure 7.5 shows that black viewers who do not have prejudice towards the white population expressed more *Similarity* ( $M = 4.38$ ) towards actors in the all-white advertisement than those who have prejudice ( $M = 3.35$ ). Hence, H<sup>4.1</sup> is accepted. However, Table 7.13 also reveals

that the difference between the means of high- and low prejudice white viewers was non-significant when they were exposed to all-black ( $F(1, 50) = 0.027, p > 0.05$ ) and all-white ( $F(1, 48) = 0.598, p > 0.05$ ) advertisements. Hence  $H^{4.2}$  is rejected.

Moreover,  $H^{4.3}$  ( $H^{4.4}$ ) assumed that viewers neither black nor white who hold a low-prejudice towards the black (white) population will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in the all-black (all-white) advertisement than those who are high-prejudice, whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their *Similarity* when they are exposed to the all-white (all-black) advertisement. Table 7.14 presents the ANOVAs testing  $H^{4.3}$  and  $H^{4.4}$ .

**Table 7.14: Hypotheses  $H^{4.3}$  and  $H^{4.4}$  – One-way ANOVA**

		Similarity	ANOVA			
			F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
Other viewers	$H^{4.3}$	All-black advertisement × other viewers' prejudice level towards blacks	0.205	1, 18	0.656	0.011
		All-white advertisement × other viewers' prejudice level towards blacks	0.022	1, 18	0.884	0.001
	$H^{4.4}$	All-black advertisement × other viewers' prejudice level towards whites	0.116	1, 18	0.737	0.006
		All-white advertisement × other viewers' prejudice level towards whites	3.598	1, 18	0.074	0.167

Table 7.14 reports that the difference between the means of the levels (high *versus* low) of prejudice towards blacks by viewers who are neither black nor white was non-significant when they were exposed to all-black ( $F(1, 18) = 0.205, p > 0.05$ ) and all-white ( $F(1, 18) = 0.022, p > 0.05$ ) advertisements. Hence  $H^{4.3}$  is rejected. On the other hand, Table 7.14 shows that the difference between the means of the levels (high *versus* low) of prejudice towards whites held by other viewers was marginally significant when they were exposed to the all-white advertisement  $F(1, 18) = 3.598, p < 0.10$ ; whereas there was non-significant difference when they were exposed to the all-black advertisement  $F(1, 18) = 0.116, p > 0.05$ . Figure 7.6 illustrates the difference between out-group prejudice levels for other viewers.

**Figure 7.6: Hypothesis H<sup>4.4</sup> – Means of Similarity**

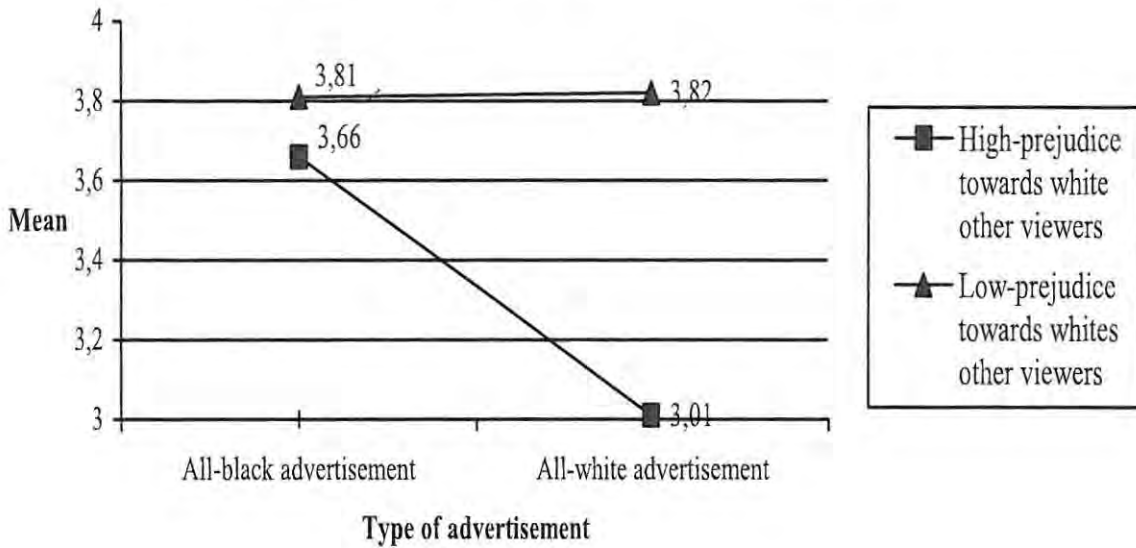


Figure 7.6 shows that other viewers who do not have prejudice towards the white population expressed marginally more *Similarity* ( $M = 3.82$ ) towards actors in the all-white advertisement than those who have prejudice ( $M = 3.01$ ). Hence, H<sup>4.4</sup> is partially accepted.

Moreover, H<sup>4.5</sup> assumed that viewers (neither black nor white) who do not hold prejudice towards either blacks or whites will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in the multi-racial advertisement than those who hold prejudice towards both blacks and whites. In order to test this hypothesis four groups of viewers were created in step with other viewers' prejudice towards both black and white populations. Table 7.15 presents the four groups created.

**Table 7.15: Hypothesis H<sup>4.5</sup> – Four Levels of Other Viewers' Racial Attitude**

		Prejudice towards whites (w)	
		High-prejudice (Hw)	Low-prejudice (Lw)
Prejudice towards blacks (b)	High-prejudice (Hb)	Hb-Hw	Hb-Lw
	Low-prejudice (Lb)	Lb-Hw	Lb-Lw

Table 7.16 reports then the ANOVA testing H<sup>4.5</sup>.

**Table 7.16: Hypothesis H<sup>4.5</sup> – One-way ANOVA**

Similarity			ANOVA			
			F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
H <sup>4.5</sup>	Other viewers	Multi-racial advertisement × other viewers' prejudice level towards blacks and white	1.274	3, 43	0.295	0.082

Table 7.16 shows that the other viewers' prejudice towards both blacks and whites does not influence the *Similarity* judgment with the actors in the multi-racial advertisement,  $F(3, 43) = 1.274$ ,  $p > 0.05$ . However, a closer examination of the means, illustrated Figure 7.7, provides the expected tendency.

**Figure 7.7: Hypothesis H<sup>4.5</sup> – Means of Similarity**

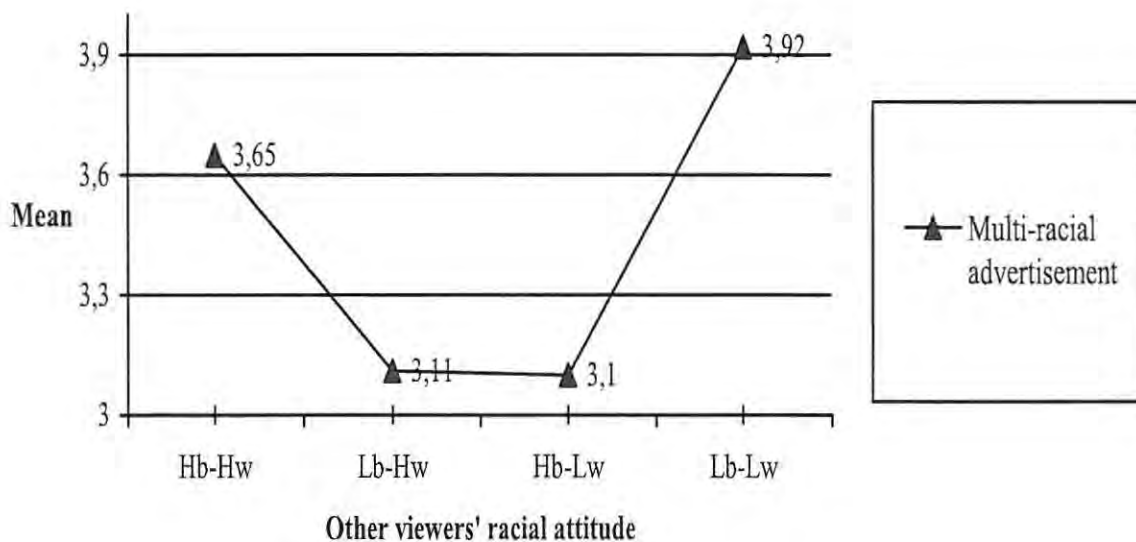


Figure 7.7 reveals that other viewers who do not have prejudice against black and white expressed more *Similarity* ( $M = 3.92$ ) than those who have prejudice against black or/and white (Hb-Hw:  $M = 3.65$ ; Lb-Hw:  $M = 3.11$ ; Hb-Lw:  $M = 3.10$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ). Nonetheless, the difference between the means is not significant and H<sup>4.5</sup> is rejected.

The test of the sub-hypothesis of H<sup>4</sup> showed that the in-group identification does not influence viewers' *Similarity* with out-group actors, whereas out-group prejudice influences this most of the time. However, while the tendency expected is generally found, i.e. low-prejudice viewers express more *Similarity* towards out-group actors than high-prejudice viewers, the differences

between the means are not always statistically significant. Hence,  $H^4$ , which proposed that the viewers' perceived *Similarity* with out-group actors depends on viewer's prejudice level, is partially rejected.

The last hypothesis,  $H^5$ , tests the complex reactions of black and white viewers towards the multi-racial advertisement. Indeed, because both races are featured in the advertisement, viewers' reactions towards this advertisement depend on their identification level as well as on their prejudice levels. Thus,  $H^5$  considered that viewers who maintain a strong racial identity and low out-group prejudice will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in the multi-racial advertisement than viewers who maintain a weak racial identity and high out-group prejudice. This hypothesis  $H^5$  is tested by means of two sub-hypotheses  $H^{5.1}$  and  $H^{5.2}$  associated with the black and white viewers, respectively.

Firstly,  $H^{5.1}$  expected that black viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in the multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice. In order to test these hypotheses four groups of viewers' *Racial attitude* were created in step with black viewers' prejudice towards whites and in-group identification. Table 7.17 presents the four groups created.

**Table 7.17: Hypothesis  $H^{5.1}$  – Four Levels of Black Viewers' Racial Attitude**

		Prejudice towards whites (w)	
		High-prejudice (Hw)	Low-prejudice (Lw)
Black viewers in-group identification (i)	High-identification (Hi)	Hi-Hw	Hi-Lw
	Low-identification (Li)	Li-Hw	Li-Lw

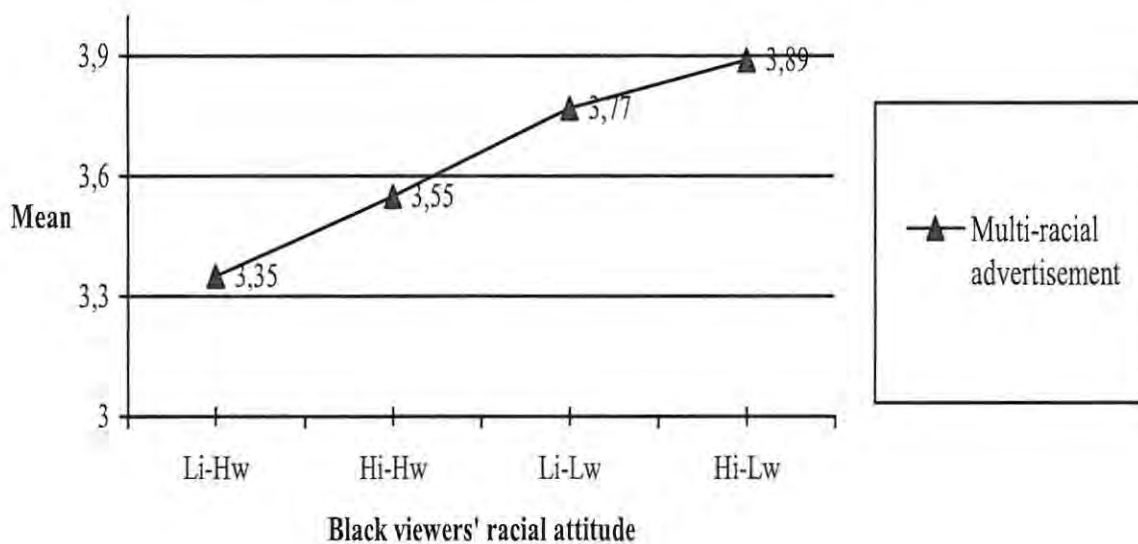
Also, Table 7.18 reports the ANOVA which tests  $H^{5.1}$ .

**Table 7.18: Hypothesis  $H^{5.1}$  – One-way ANOVA**

Similarity			ANOVA			
			F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
$H^{5.1}$	Black viewers	Multi-racial advertisement × black viewers' racial attitude	1.241	3, 141	0.297	0.026

Table 7.18 reveals that the interaction between black viewers' prejudice towards whites and black viewers' in-group identification does not influence the *Similarity* judgment with the actors in the multi-racial advertisement,  $F(3, 141) = 1.241, p > 0.05$ . However, a closer examination of the means, illustrated in Figure 7.8, provides the expected tendency.

**Figure 7.8: Hypothesis H<sup>5.1</sup> – Means of Similarity**



As expected, Figure 7.8 shows that black viewers who identify themselves strongly with their *Racial group* and who do not have prejudice towards whites (Hi-Lw:  $M = 3.89$ ) perceived themselves more similar to the actors featured in the multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have a weak in-group identification and who possess prejudice towards whites (Li-Hw:  $M = 3.35$ ). However, the difference between the means is not significant and H<sup>5.1</sup> is rejected.

H<sup>5.2</sup> suggests that white viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in the multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice. In order to test this hypothesis four groups of white viewers' *Racial attitude* were also created in step with their prejudice towards blacks and in-group identification. Table 7.19 presents the four groups of *Racial attitude*.

**Table 7.19: Hypothesis H<sup>5.2</sup> – Four Levels of White Viewers’ Racial Attitude**

		Prejudice towards blacks (b)	
		High-prejudice (Hb)	Low-prejudice (Lb)
White viewers in-group identification (i)	High-identification (Hi)	Hi-Hb	Hi-Lb
	Low-identification (Li)	Li-Hb	Li-Lb

Furthermore, Table 7.20 presents the ANOVA which tests H<sup>5.2</sup>.

**Table 7.20: Hypothesis H<sup>5.2</sup> – One-way ANOVA**

Similarity			ANOVA			
			F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
H <sup>5.2</sup>	White viewers	Multi-racial advertisement × white viewers’ racial attitude	4.094	3, 164	<b>0.008</b>	0.070

Table 7.20 reveals that the interaction between white viewers’ prejudice towards blacks and white viewers’ in-group identification influences their judgment of *Similarity* to the actors featured in the multi-racial advertisement,  $F(3, 164) = 4.094, p < 0.01$ . Table 7.21 presents the Scheffe test which indicates which differences are the sources of the significant *F*-value.

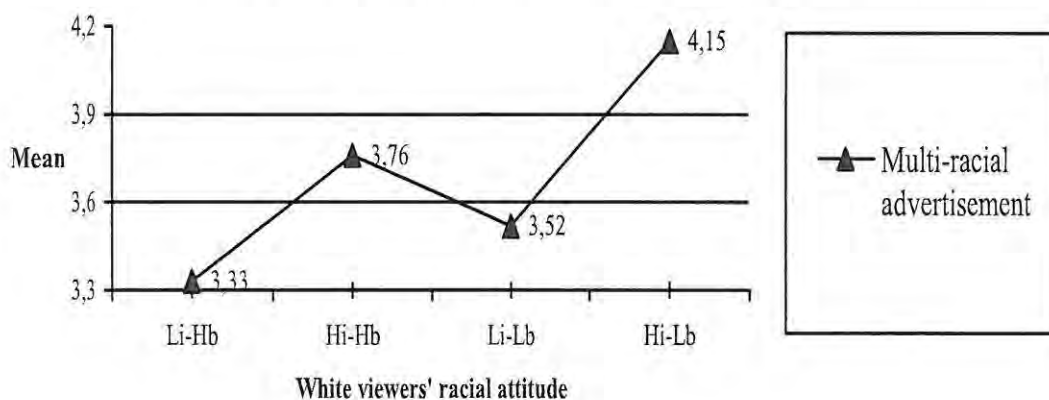
**Table 7.21: Hypothesis H<sup>5.2</sup> – Scheffe Post-hoc Test**

	Scheffe test			
	Li-Hb	Hi-Hb	Li-Lb	Hi-Lb
Mean Similarity by viewers’ racial attitude	3.33	3.76	3.52	4.15
Low-identification and High-prejudice (Li-Hb)				
High-identification and High-prejudice (Hi-Hb)	0.382			
Low-identification and Low-prejudice (Li-Lb)	0.883	0.812		
High-identification and Low-prejudice (Hi-Lb)	<b>0.013</b>	0.524	0.095	

As expected, Table 7.21 reports that white viewers who identify themselves strongly with their *Racial group* and who do not have prejudice towards blacks (Hi-Lb: M = 4.15) perceived themselves as more similar to the actors featured in the multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have a weak in-group identification and who possess prejudice

against blacks (Li-Hb:  $M = 3.35$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Hence,  $H^{5.2}$  is accepted. Figure 7.9 illustrates this significant difference.

**Figure 7.9: Hypothesis  $H^{5.2}$  – Means of Similarity**



In conclusion, when black and white viewers are exposed to a multi-racial advertisement, the interaction between their in-group identification and their out-group prejudice influences their judgment of *Similarity*. Hence, the general hypothesis  $H^5$  is partially validated. Table 7.22 reviews the tests of hypotheses  $H^3$ ,  $H^4$  and  $H^5$ .

**Table 7.22: Test of Hypotheses  $H^3$ ,  $H^4$  and  $H^5$  – Recapitulative Table**

Hypotheses	Test
$H^3$ : Viewers who maintain a strong racial identity (versus viewers who maintain a weak racial identity) will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only. On the other hand, the identification level will not influence viewers' similarity judgment when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from another racial group only.	<b>Accepted</b>
$H^{3.1}$ : High-identification black will viewers perceive themselves as more similar to the actors in an all-black advertisement than will low-identification black viewers; whereas high- and low-identification black viewers will show no difference in their judgment of similarity towards actors featured in an all-white advertisement.	<b>Accepted</b>

**Table 7.22: Test of Hypotheses H<sup>3</sup>, H<sup>4</sup> and H<sup>5</sup> – Recapitulative Table (Continued)**

<p>H<sup>3.2</sup>: High-identification white viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors in an all-white advertisement than will low-identification white viewers; whereas high- and low-identification white viewers will show no difference in their judgment of similarity towards actors featured in an all-black advertisement.</p>	<p><b>Accepted</b></p>
<p>H<sup>3.3</sup>: High- and low- identification viewers who are neither black nor white will show no difference in their judgment of similarity towards actors featured in all-black, all-white and multi-racial advertisements.</p>	<p><b>Accepted</b></p>
<p>H<sup>4</sup>: Viewers who do not have prejudice towards out-group (versus viewers who have strong prejudice) will express more similarity when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from another racial group only. On the other hand, the prejudice level will not influence viewers' similarity judgment when they are exposed to an advertisement featuring actors from their racial group only.</p>	<p>Partially rejected</p>
<p>H<sup>4.1</sup>: Low-prejudice black viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-white advertisement than those who are high-prejudice; whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity judgment when they are exposed to an all-black advertisement.</p>	<p><b>Accepted</b></p>
<p>H<sup>4.2</sup>: Low-prejudice white viewers will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-black advertisement than those who are high-prejudice; whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity judgment when they are exposed to an all-white advertisement.</p>	<p>Rejected</p>
<p>H<sup>4.3</sup>: The other viewers (neither black nor white) who hold a low-prejudice towards the black population will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-black advertisement than those who are high-prejudice, whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity when they are exposed to an all-white advertisement.</p>	<p>Rejected</p>
<p>H<sup>4.4</sup>: The other viewers (neither black nor white) who hold a low-prejudice towards the white population will perceive themselves as more similar to actors in an all-white advertisement than those who are high-prejudice, whereas both prejudice groups will show no difference in their similarity when they are exposed to an all-black advertisement.</p>	<p><i>Partially accepted</i></p>

**Table 7.22: Test of Hypotheses H<sup>3</sup>, H<sup>4</sup> and H<sup>5</sup> – Recapitulative Table (Continued)**

H <sup>4.5</sup> : The other viewers (neither black nor white) who hold a low-prejudice towards black and white people will perceive themselves more similar to actors in a multi-racial advertisement than those who hold high-prejudice towards black and white people.	Rejected
H <sup>5</sup> : Viewers who maintain a strong racial identity and low out-group prejudice will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than viewers who maintain a weak racial identity and high out-group prejudice.	<i>Partially accepted</i>
H <sup>5.1</sup> : Black viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice towards whites will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice.	Rejected
H <sup>5.2</sup> : White viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice towards blacks will perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in a multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice.	Accepted

The following section investigates the influence of this interaction on viewers' *CSR Process*.

### 7.3.2.2 CSR Process

*Racial attitude* is also assumed to influence the *CSR Process*. Indeed, as noted in Chapter 5, this variable is compared to another moderator variable called *CSR support* (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Thus, H<sup>6.1</sup> argues that black viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibilities to the multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice (low CSR support). Table 7.23 presents the ANOVA which tests H<sup>6.1</sup>:

**Table 7.23: Hypothesis H<sup>6.1</sup> – One-way ANOVA**

SR attributed to the ad			ANOVA			
			F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
H <sup>6.1</sup>	Black viewers	Multi-racial advertisement × black viewers' racial attitude	0.886	3, 141	0.450	0.019

Table 7.23 reports that the interaction between black viewers' prejudice against whites and black viewers' in-group identification does not influence their attribution,  $F(3, 141) = 0.886$ ,  $p > 0.05$ . Figure 7.10 illustrates the differences between groups.

**Figure 7.10: Hypothesis H<sup>6.1</sup> – Means of SR Attributed to the Ad**

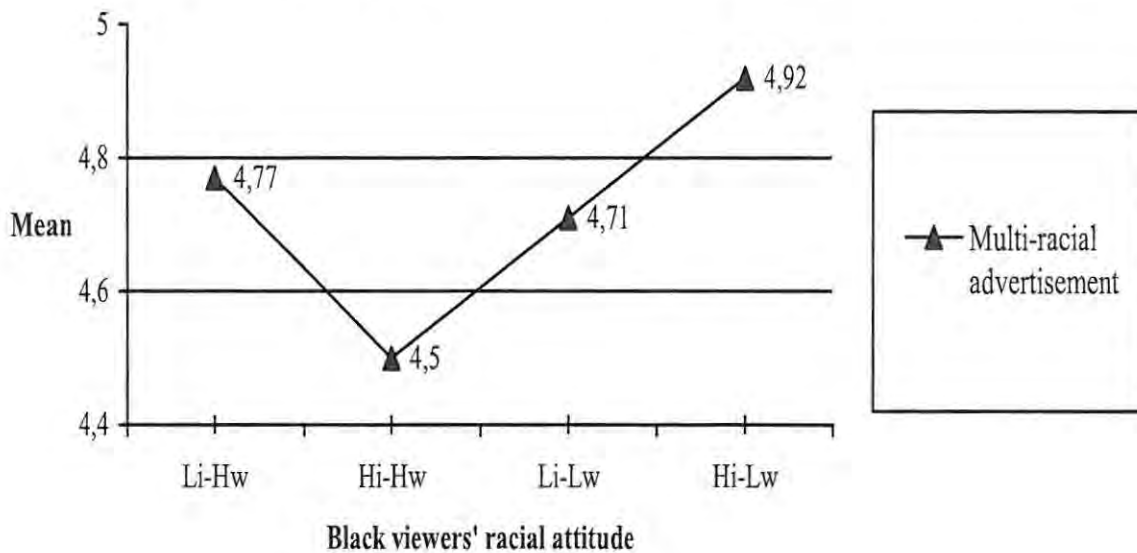


Figure 7.10 shows that black viewers who identify themselves strongly with their racial group and who do not have prejudice towards whites attribute more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement (Hi-Lw:  $M = 4.92$ ) than black viewers who have a weak in-group identification and/or who possess prejudice towards whites (Li-Hw:  $M = 4.77$ , Hi-Hw:  $M = 4.5$ , Li-Lw:  $M = 4.71$ ). However, the differences between the means are not significant and  $H^{6.1}$  is rejected.

On the other hand,  $H^{6.2}$  argued that white viewers' *Racial attitude* will also influence their SR attribution to the multi-racial advertisement. Thus, white viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (White Guilt hypothesis - high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibilities to the multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice (low CSR support). Table 7.24 presents the ANOVA which tests  $H^{6.2}$ .

**Table 7.24: Hypothesis H<sup>6.2</sup> – One-way ANOVA**

SR attributed to the ad			ANOVA			
			F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
H <sup>6.2</sup>	White viewers	Multi-racial advertisement × white viewers' racial attitude	1.844	3, 164	0.141	0.033

Table 7.24 reveals that the interaction between white viewers' prejudice towards blacks and white viewers' in-group identification did not influence their attribution judgment,  $F(3, 164) = 0.141, p > 0.05$ . Figure 7.11 illustrates the differences between groups.

**Figure 7.11: Hypothesis H<sup>6.2</sup> – Means of SR Attributed to the Ad**

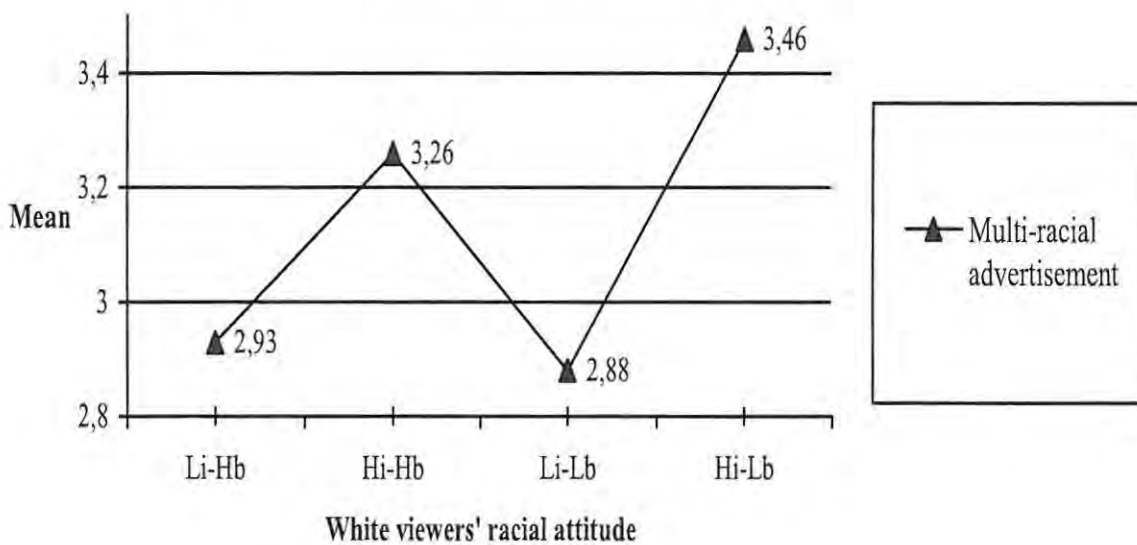


Figure 7.11 shows that white viewers, who identify themselves strongly with their racial group and who do not have prejudice towards blacks, attributed more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement (Hi-Lb:  $M = 3.46$ ) than white viewers who have a weak in-group identification and/or who possess prejudice towards blacks (Li-Hb:  $M = 2.93$ , Hi-Hb:  $M = 3.26$ , Li-Lb:  $M = 2.88$ ). However, the difference between the means is not significant and H<sup>6.2</sup> is rejected.

Finally, H<sup>6.3</sup> assumed that viewers (neither black nor white) who do not maintain prejudice towards blacks and whites (high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement than those who hold prejudice towards blacks and whites (high CSR support). Table 7.25 exposes the ANOVA which test H<sup>6.3</sup>.

**Table 7.25: Hypothesis H<sup>6.3</sup> – One-way ANOVA**

SR attributed to the ad			ANOVA			
			F	Df	Sig.	Eta <sup>2</sup>
H <sup>6.3</sup>	Other viewers	Multi-racial advertisement × other viewers' racial attitude	2.830	3, 43	<b>0.050</b>	0.165

Table 7.25 reveals that the other viewers' prejudice towards blacks and whites influences their SR attribution to the multi-racial advertisement,  $F(3, 43) = 2.830$ ,  $p = 0.050$ . Table 7.26 presents the Scheffe test indicating which differences are the sources of the significant  $F$ -value.

**Table 7.26: Hypothesis H<sup>6.3</sup> – Scheffe Post-hoc Test**

	Scheffe test			
	Hb-Hw	Lb-Hw	Hb-Lw	Lb-Lw
Mean SR attributed to the ad	3.54	3.11	3.64	4.46
High-prejudice towards blacks and whites (Hb-Hw)				
Low-prejudice towards black and High-prejudice towards white (Lb-Hw)	0.901			
High-prejudice towards blacks and Low-prejudice towards white (Hb-Lw)	0.999	0.875		
Low-prejudice towards blacks and whites (Lb-Lw)	0.310	0.087	0.546	

Table 7.26 reveals that other viewers who do not have prejudice against black and white viewers (Lb-Lw:  $M = 4.46$ ) attribute marginally more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement than other viewers who have prejudice only against whites (Lb-Hw:  $M = 3.11$ ,  $p < 0.10$ ). However, the significant difference was hypothesised to be between other viewers who possess prejudice against both blacks and whites (Hb-HW) and those who do not have any prejudice (Lb-Lw). Hence, H<sup>6.3</sup> is rejected. Considering the rejections of the three sub-hypothesis of H<sup>6</sup>, the equivalence between *Racial attitude* and CSR support (H<sup>6</sup>) is rejected.

**Table 7.27: Test of Hypothesis H<sup>6</sup> – Recapitulative Table**

Hypotheses	Test
H <sup>6</sup> : The racial attitude of the viewers and their corresponding support for the CSR action influences the way viewers attribute a social dimension to a multi-racial advertisement.	Rejected
H <sup>6.1</sup> : Black viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibilities to a multi-racial advertisement than black viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice (low CSR support)	Rejected
H <sup>6.2</sup> : White viewers who maintain both high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice (White Guilt hypothesis - high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibilities to a multi-racial advertisement than white viewers who have both low in-group identification and high out-group prejudice (low CSR support).	Rejected
H <sup>6.3</sup> : Viewers (neither black nor white) who do not maintain prejudice towards blacks and whites (high CSR support) will attribute more social responsibility to a multi-racial advertisement than those who hold prejudice towards blacks and whites (low CSR support).	Rejected

In conclusion, this section has highlighted that viewers' *Similarity* judgment and attribution towards an advertisement depended on the type of advertisement they were exposed to (*Ad exposure*), their *Racial group* and their *Racial attitude*. Specifically, the multi-racial advertisement was found to be the advertisement which elicited the most SR attribution and which provided equal *Similarity* judgement amongst viewers, regardless of their *Racial group*. The following section presents the results associated with the particular process followed by viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement.

#### **7.4 Multi-racial Advertisement: Persuasion Process**

This section presents the test of the persuasion process followed by a consumer exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement. The focus of the two following parts is the test of the research hypotheses related to the two main processes, namely the *Identification Process* and the *CSR Process*. The influence of both processes on the variable *Company/brand*

*identification* is then tested. Finally, the conceptual framework is completed by the Dual-Mediation Hypothesis (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986) and tested in its entirety.

#### 7.4.1 The Identification Process

This section reports the test of the seventh hypothesis, namely the *Identification Process* resulting from the viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement.

The first sub-hypothesis,  $H^{7.1}$ , considered that the more viewers perceive themselves similar to the advertisement's actors, the more they will identify themselves with actors. Thus, a regression analysis, presented in Table 7.28, tests the relationship between the variables *Similarity* and *Identification*.

**Table 7.28: Hypothesis  $H^{7.1}$  – Linear Regression**

	Linear regression				
	F	Df	Sig.	R	R <sup>2</sup>
Similarity → Identification	274.705	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.659	0.434

The result of the linear regression (see Table 7.28) shows a significant relationship between *Similarity* and *Identification*  $F(1, 358) = 274.705, p < 0.000$ . Typically, the *Similarity* perceived by viewers with the actors explained 43.4% of the variance of their *Identification* with the actors. This result is consistent with studies which showed that viewers who perceive models as possessing characteristics similar to their own, such as race, infer that these models will also share other characteristics; this leads to a greater *Identification* (Appiah, 2001; Brock, 1965; Feick and Higie, 1992). Hence  $H^{7.1}$  is accepted.

The second sub-hypothesis  $H^{7.2}$  stated that the more the *Similarity* judgment influences how viewers identify themselves with actors, the more they will believe they are the intended audience for the advertisement.  $H^{7.2}$  hypothesised that the relationship between viewers' *Similarity* judgment and their belief that they are the intended audience for the advertisement is mediated by the viewers' *Identification* with the actors. The test of this mediating influence is consistent with Baron and Kenny's (1986) 4-step testing (see Section 6.4.2.4). Firstly, the above hypothesis,  $H^{7.1}$ , has already established a correlation between the independent variable (*Similarity*) and the mediator variable (*Identification*). A second regression must then establish the correlation between the independent variable (*Similarity*) and the dependent

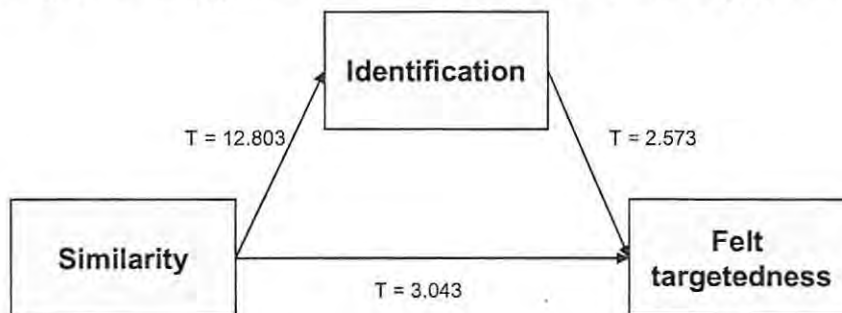
variable (*Felt targetedness*). Next, a third linear regression must establish the correlation between the mediator variable (*Identification*) and the dependent variable (*Felt targetedness*). Both regressions are presented in Table 7.29.

**Table: 7.29 Hypothesis H<sup>7.2</sup> – Linear Regressions**

	Linear regressions				
	F	Df	Sig.	R	R <sup>2</sup>
Similarity → Felt targetedness	67.718	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.399	0.159
Identification → Felt targetedness	72.195	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.410	0.168

The results of Table 7.29 expose significant relationships between *Similarity* and *Felt targetedness* ( $F(1, 358) = 67.718, p < 0.000$ ) and between *Identification* and *Felt targetedness* ( $F(1, 358) = 72.195, p < 0.000$ ). Finally to validate the mediating influence, the previously significant relationship between *Similarity* and *Felt targetedness* must be nil, when the relationships between *Similarity* and *Identification* and between *Identification* and *Felt targetedness* are controlled. This last step is presented in the Figure 7.12.

**Figure 7.12: Hypothesis H<sup>7.2</sup> – Mediated Relationship (T-Test)**



The result of the Figure 7.12 reveals that a significant relationship between *Similarity* and *Felt targetedness* ( $T > |1.96|$ ) appears when this relationship is mediated by the variable *Identification*. Nevertheless, Fornell, Lorange and Roos (1990) consider that an independent variable (e.g. *Similarity*) might influence a dependent variable (e.g. *Felt targetedness*) both directly and indirectly via a mediator (*Identification*). Thus, in order to highlight the presence of a mediator, the indirect effect must be higher than the direct effect (Fornell *et al.*, 1990). In

other words, the indirect effect of *Similarity* on *Felt targetedness* via *Identification* must be higher than its direct effect. Table 7.30 reports these effects.

**Table 7.30: Hypothesis H<sup>7.2</sup> – Direct and Indirect Effects on Felt Targetedness**

Effects on Felt targetedness (Standardised regression weight)	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Similarity	0.285	0.176	0.461
Identification	0.234		0.234

Table 7.30 shows that *Similarity* influences *Felt targetedness* directly (0.285) and indirectly (0.176) via *Identification*. However, the indirect effect is lower than the direct effect. Hence, the mediating influence of *Identification* on the relationship between *Similarity* and *Felt targetedness* is partial. This result does not fit with H<sup>7.2</sup> which supposed that the variable *Identification* has the core role in the *Identification process*. With regard to the result, *Identification* has an important but partial influence. Hence, H<sup>7.2</sup> is partially accepted.

H<sup>7.3</sup> stated that the more the viewers' *Identification* with actors influences how viewers believe they are the intended audience for the advertisement, the more they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. H<sup>7.3</sup> supposed that the relationship between viewer's *Identification* and their attitude towards the advertisement is mediated by their belief they are the intended audience. The test of this second mediating influence is also consistent with Baron and Kenny's (1986) 4-step testing. Firstly, several linear regressions, presented in Table 7.31, are undertaken

**Table 7.31: Hypothesis H<sup>7.3</sup> – Linear Regressions**

	Linear regressions				
	F	Df	Sig.	R	R <sup>2</sup>
Identification → Felt targetedness	72.195	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.410	0.168
Identification → Advertising attitude	35.311	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.300	0.090
Felt targetedness → Advertising attitude	127.485	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.512	0.263

Table 7.31 reveals that Baron and Kenny's (1986) first 3 steps are validated. In order to accept the mediating role of *Felt targetedness*, the fourth step must now be validated. This last step is presented in the Figure 7.13.

**Figure 7.13: Hypothesis H<sup>7.3</sup> – Mediated Relationship (T-Test)**

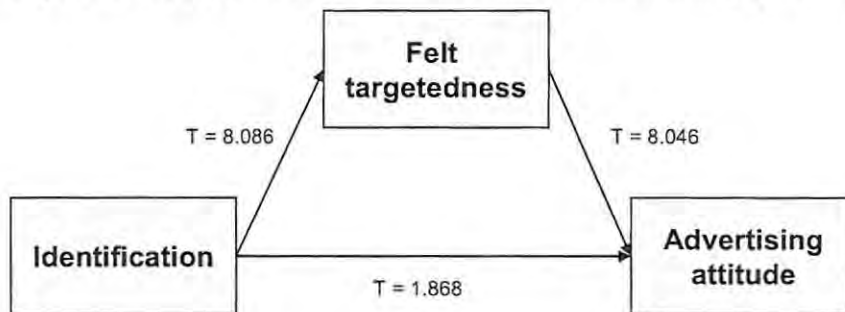
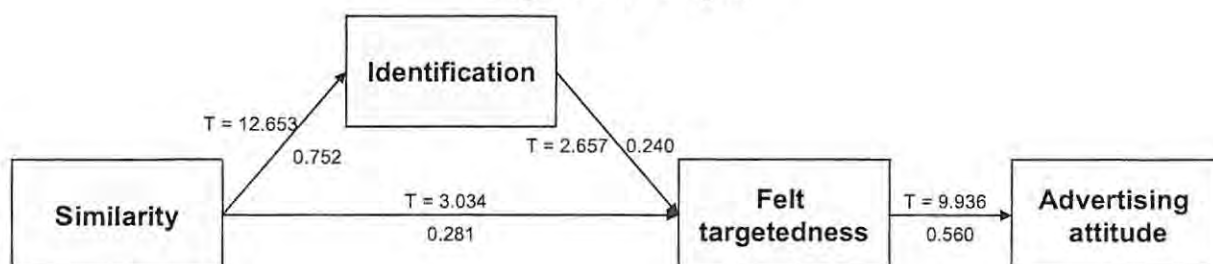


Figure 7.13 reports a non-significant relationship between *Identification* and *Advertising attitude* ( $T < |1.96|$ ) when this relationship is mediated by the variable *Felt targetedness*. This result is consistent with the Kelman's (1961) theory of social influence on the changes in attitude. Indeed, the final aim of the *Identification process* is to influence attitudes (*ibid.*). However, in the advertising context, the satisfying self-defining relationship (i.e. *Identification*) that viewers establish with actors must be converted in a specific connection with the advertisement itself. Thus, as a result of their *Identification* with the models, viewers feel "closer" to the advertisement in term of target, which, in turn, influences their attitude. Hence, H<sup>7.3</sup> is accepted.

Finally, the main hypothesis H<sup>7</sup>, which stated that the viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement produces an *Identification Process*, is tested by means of SEM. The results are presented in Figure 7.14 and Table 7.32.

**Figure 7.14: Hypothesis H<sup>7</sup> – Identification Process (T-Test and Standardised Regression Weight)**



**Table 7.32: Hypothesis H<sup>7</sup> – Goodness-of-Fit for Identification Process**

	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	CFI	PCFI
Identification Process	109.593/50 (0.000)	0.058	0.952	0.925	0.979	0.742

In respect of the *Identification process*, as set out in the Table 7.32, the criteria of goodness-of-fit indicate reasonable fit (except PCFI < 0.800) and this supports partially the hypothesis H<sup>7</sup>. Table 7.33 reviews the sub-hypotheses of H<sup>7</sup>.

**Table 7.33: Test of Hypothesis H<sup>7</sup> – Recapitulative Table**

Hypotheses	Test
H <sup>7</sup> : Viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement produces an Identification Process.	<i>Partially Accepted</i>
H <sup>7.1</sup> : The more viewers perceive themselves as similar to an advertisement's actors, the more they will identify themselves with the actors.	<b>Accepted</b>
H <sup>7.2</sup> : The more the similarity judgment influences how viewers identify themselves with actors, the more they will believe they are the intended audience for the advertisement. In other words, the relationship between viewers' similarity judgment and their belief that they are the intended audience for the advertisement is mediated by the viewer's identification with the actors.	<i>Partially accepted</i>
H <sup>7.3</sup> : The more the viewers' identification with actors influences how viewers believe they are the intended audience for the advertisement, the more they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. In other words, H <sup>7.3</sup> supposes that the relationship between viewer's identification and their attitude towards the advertisement is mediated by their belief that they are the intended audience.	<b>Accepted</b>

The *Similarity* perceived by the viewers with the actors affords viewers an opportunity to establish a special relationship to the actors (*Identification*). This special relationship enables viewers to recognize themselves as the target of the advertisement (*Felt targetedness*) and this, in turn, will positively influence their attitude towards the advertisement (*Advertising attitude*). Nevertheless, H<sup>7</sup> is only partially validated because the test of hypothesis H<sup>7</sup> found

that *Identification* was only a partial mediator. The following section tests the validation of the second process, namely the *CSR process*.

#### 7.4.2 The Corporate Social Responsibility Process

This section reports the effects of the *CSR Process*. As mentioned in the test of  $H^8$ , this process starts when viewers attribute to a specific multi-racial advertisement a social responsibility (*SR attributed to the ad*). Thus, the first sub-hypothesis,  $H^{8.1}$ , supposed that the more viewers attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement, the more they will exhibit a favourable attitude towards the advertisement. The test of this hypothesis is represented in Table 7.34.

**Table 7.34: Hypothesis  $H^{8.1}$  – Linear Regression**

	Linear regression				
	F	Df	Sig.	R	R <sup>2</sup>
SR attributed to the ad → Advertising attitude	138.693	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.528	0.279

The result of Table 7.34 reveals a significant relationship between *SR attributed to the ad* and *Advertising attitude*,  $F(1, 358) = 138.693$ ,  $p < 0.000$ . In other words, almost 28% of the variance of the attitude towards the advertisement is explained by the SR attributed by the viewers. This relationship, emerging from the conceptualisation presented in Chapter 5, is consistent with the Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory which establishes that viewer's cognitive association (i.e. *SR attributed to the ad*) influences their attitude (i.e. *Advertising attitude*).  $H^{8.1}$  is accepted.

$H^{8.2}$  stated a relationship between the *SR attributed to the ad* and the *SR attributed to the brand*. Specifically,  $H^{8.2}$  considered that the more viewers attribute social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement, the more they will also attribute social responsibility to the brand using this advertisement. The linear regression testing this hypothesis is shown in Table 7.35.

**Table 7.35: Hypothesis H<sup>8.2</sup> – Linear Regression**

	Linear regression				
	F	Df	Sig.	R	R <sup>2</sup>
SR attributed to the ad → SR attributed to the brand	285.863	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.666	0.444

Table 7.35 reveals a significant relationship between *SR attributed to the ad* and *SR attributed to the brand*,  $F(1, 358) = 285.863$ ,  $p < 0.000$ . The social responsibility attributed to an advertisement explained almost 45% of the variance of the *SR attributed the brand* using this advertisement. Therefore, H<sup>8.2</sup> is accepted.

The third sub-hypothesis, H<sup>8.3</sup>, established that the more viewers attribute social responsibility to the brand using the multi-racial advertisement, the more they will exhibit a favourable attitude towards this brand. The test of this hypothesis is presented Table 7.36.

**Table 7.36: Hypothesis H<sup>8.3</sup> – Linear Regression**

	Linear regression				
	F	Df	Sig.	R	R <sup>2</sup>
SR attributed to the brand → Brand attitude	112.434	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.489	0.239

Table 7.36 shows a significant relationship between *SR attributed to the brand* and *Brand attitude*  $F(1, 328) = 112.434$ ,  $p < 0.000$ . Thus, more than 20% of the variance of *Brand attitude* is explained by the social responsibility attributed to the brand by the advertisement's viewers. This result is consistent with numerous studies which showed that a company perceived as socially responsible increases its reputation (Berens and van Riel, 2004; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990), its perception among consumers (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Ellen, Webb and Mohr, 2006; Mohr and Webb, 2005) and consumers' attitude towards itself (Brown and Dacin, 1997). Hence, H<sup>8.3</sup> is accepted.

Finally, the main hypothesis H<sup>8</sup> which stated that the viewers' exposition to a multi-racial advertisement produces a *CSR Process* is tested by means of SEM. The test is shown Figure 7.15 and the goodness-of-fit is presented in Table 7.37.

Figure 7.15: Hypothesis H<sup>8</sup> – CSR Process (T-Test and Standardised Regression Weight)

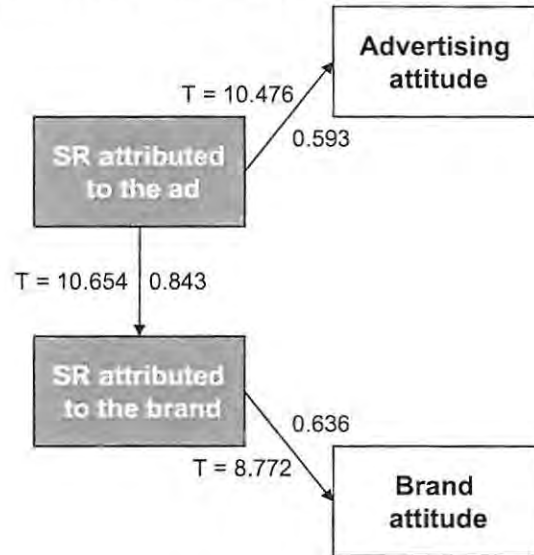


Table 7.37: Hypothesis H<sup>8</sup> – Goodness-of-Fit for CSR Process

	$\chi^2/\text{ddl}$	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	CFI	PCFI
CSR Process	312.580/51 (0.000)	0.120	0.876	0.811	0.927	0.716

In respect of the *CSR process*, as set out in Table 7.37, the criteria of goodness-of-fit do not indicate a reasonable fit. Indeed, the RMSEA and PCFI are higher than the threshold required (RMSEA < 0.8 and PCFI < 0.8). However, apart from the high RMSEA and PCFI, the other criteria express a reasonable fit. Moreover, each sub-hypothesis tested separately through linear regressions and commonly via SEM is validated. Hence, as shown in Table 7.38, H<sup>8</sup> is partially validated.

Table 7.38: Test of Hypothesis H<sup>8</sup> – Recapitulative Table

Hypotheses	Test
H <sup>8</sup> : The viewers' exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement produces a CSR Process.	<i>Partially Accepted</i>
H <sup>8.1</sup> : The more viewers attribute a social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement, the more they will exhibit a favourable attitude towards the advertisement.	<b>Accepted</b>

**Table 7.38: Test of Hypothesis H<sup>8</sup> – Recapitulative Table (Continued)**

H <sup>8.2</sup> : The more viewers attribute social responsibility to a specific multi-racial advertisement, the more they will also attribute social responsibility to the brand which uses this advertisement.	<b>Accepted</b>
H <sup>8.3</sup> : The more viewers attribute social responsibility to the brand which uses a multi-racial advertisement, the more they will exhibit a favourable attitude towards this brand.	<b>Accepted</b>

The viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement engenders a *CSR process*. Indeed, they will attribute to the advertisement a social responsibility. This attribution will in turn change their attitude towards the advertisements, but also their attitude towards the brand because the viewers will have also attributed social responsibility to the brand using this advertisement.

RMSEA and PCFI are assumed to become significant when the *CSR Process* is completed by the *DMH* and *Identification Process*. Specifically, H<sup>9</sup> supposed that CSR and Identification processes influence symbiotically the variable *Company/brand identification*. This hypothesis is tested in the following section.

### 7.4.3 The Company/Brand Identification Model

This section presents the results associated with the hypothesis H<sup>9</sup>. This hypothesis assumed that the viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement enables viewers to identify themselves with the company/brand via the CSR and Identification processes. The first sub-hypothesis; H<sup>9.1</sup>, proposed that the more viewers attribute social responsibility to a brand, the more they will identify themselves with it. The test of this hypothesis is presented Table 7.39.

**Table 7.39: Hypothesis H<sup>9.1</sup> – Linear Regression**

	Linear regression				
	F	Df	Sig.	R	R <sup>2</sup>
SR attributed to the brand → Company/brand identification	159.515	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.555	0.308

The results of Table 7.39 reveals a significant relationship between *SR attributed to the brand* and *Company/brand identification*,  $F(1, 358) = 159.515, p < 0.000$ ). Thus, more than 30% of

the variance of the viewers' identification with the brand is explained by the social responsibility they attribute to the same brand. This result is consistent with the studies of Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) and Lichtenstein *et al.*, (2004) which highlighted this relationship. Hence, H<sup>9.1</sup> is accepted.

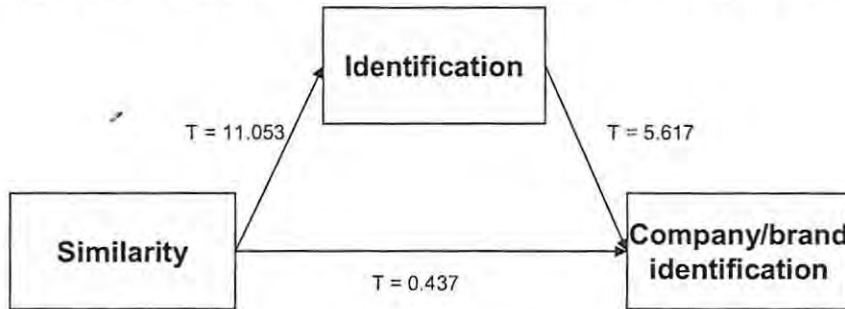
H<sup>9.2</sup> stated that the more the *Similarity* judgment influences how viewers identify themselves with actors, the more they will identify themselves with the brand using the multi-racial advertisement. This hypothesis established that the relationship between viewers' *Similarity* judgment and their identification with the brand is mediated by the viewer's identification with the models. The test of this mediating influence is also consistent with Baron and Kenny's (1986) 4-step testing. Firstly, H<sup>7.1</sup> has established the correlation between the independent variable (*Similarity*) and the mediator variable (*Identification*). Then, both correlations between the independent variable (*Similarity*) and the dependent variable (*Company/brand identification*) and between the mediator variable (*Identification*) and the dependent variable (*Company/brand identification*) must be tested, as set out in Table 7.40.

**Table 7.40: Hypothesis H<sup>9.2</sup> – Linear Regressions**

	Linear regressions				
	F	Df	Sig.	R	R <sup>2</sup>
Similarity → Company/brand identification	64.298	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.390	0.152
Identification → Company/brand identification	139.734	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.530	0.281

Table 7.40 shows significant relationships between *Similarity* and *Company/brand identification* ( $F(1, 358) = 64.298, p < 0.000$ ) and between *Identification* and *Company/brand identification* ( $F(1, 358) = 139.734, p < 0.000$ ). In order to validate the mediating influence of *Identification*, the previously significant relationship between *Similarity* and *Company/brand identification* must be nil, when the relationships between *Similarity* and *Identification* and between *Identification* and *Company/brand identification* are controlled. This last step is presented in the Figure 7.16.

**Figure 7.16: Hypothesis H<sup>9.2</sup> – Mediated Relationship (T-Test)**



The result of the Figure 7.16 reports a non-significant relationship between *Similarity* and *Company/brand identification* ( $T < |1.96|$ ) when this relationship is mediated by the variable *Identification*. Thus, unlike the *Identification process*, the mediating role of *Identification* is in this case completely validated. Hence, H<sup>9.2</sup> is accepted.

The hypothesis H<sup>9.3</sup> stated that the more the viewers' *Identification* with actors influences how viewers identify themselves with the brand, the more they will have a positive attitude towards the brand. In other words, H<sup>9.3</sup> hypothesised that the relationship between viewer's *identification* and their attitude towards the brand is mediated by their identification with the brand. The test of this mediating influence, presented in Table 7.41, is also consistent with Baron and Kenny's (1986) 4-step testing.

**Table 7.41: Hypothesis H<sup>9.3</sup> – Linear Regressions**

	Linear regressions				
	F	Df	Sig.	R	R <sup>2</sup>
Identification → Company/brand identification	139.734	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.530	0.281
Identification → Brand attitude	59.726	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.378	0.143
Company/brand identification → Brand attitude	201.118	1, 358	<b>0.000</b>	0.600	0.360

Table 7.41 reveals that Baron and Kenny's (1986) first 3 steps are validated. In order to accept the mediational role of *Company/brand identification*, the fourth step must be also accepted. This last step is presented in the Figure 7.17.

**Figure 7.17: Hypothesis H<sup>9.3</sup> – Mediated Relationship (T-Test)**

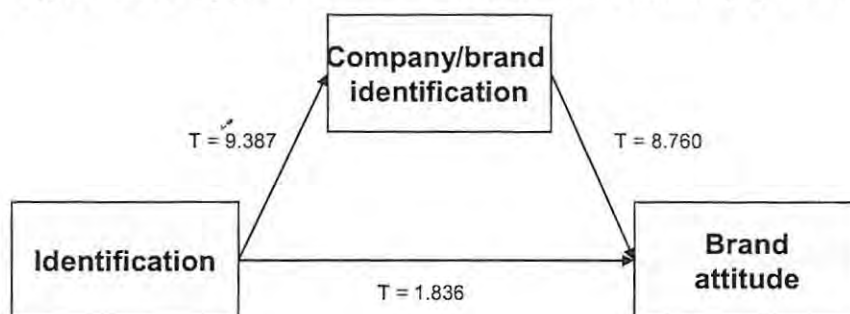
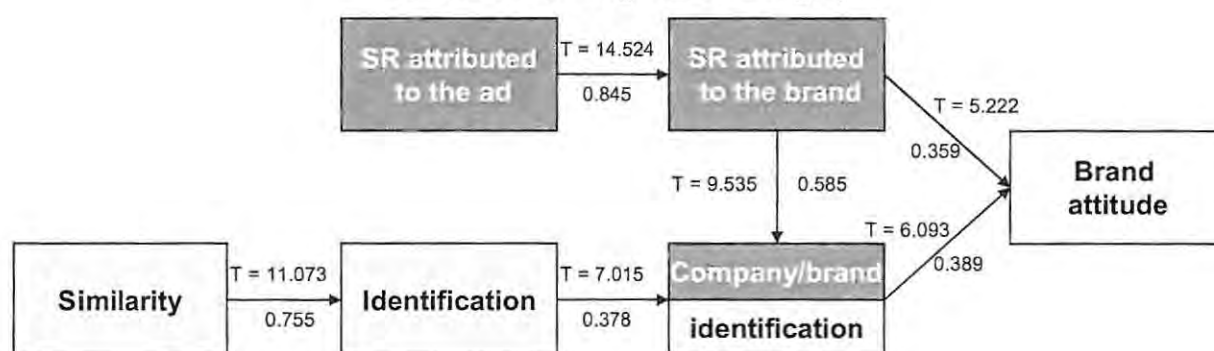


Figure 7.17 indicates a non-significant relationship between *Identification* and *Brand attitude* ( $T < |1.96|$ ) when this relationship is mediated by the variable *Company/brand identification*. Hence, H<sup>9.3</sup> is accepted.

Finally, the main hypothesis H<sup>9</sup> which stated that the viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement enables viewers to identify themselves with the company through both CSR and Identification processes is tested by means of SEM. The results are presented in Figure 7.18 and Table 7.42.

**Figure 7.18: Hypothesis H<sup>9</sup> – The Company/Brand Identification Model (T-Test and Standardised Regression Weight)**



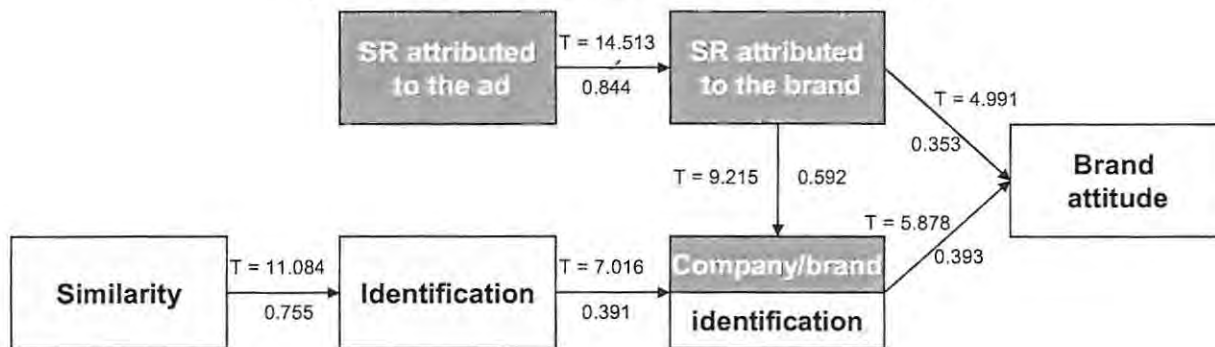
**Table 7.42: Hypothesis H<sup>9</sup> – Goodness-of-Fit for Company/Brand Identification Model**

	$\chi^2/\text{ddl}$	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	CFI	PCFI
Company/brand identification Model	865.448/224 (0.000)	0.089	0.815	0.772	0.902	0.798

In respect of the Company/brand identification model, as set out in Table 7.42, the criteria of goodness-of-fit indicate an unsatisfying fit ( $\chi^2/ddl > 3$ , RMSEA  $> 0.08$ , AGFI  $< 0.8$  and PCFI  $< 0.8$ ). In order to improve the model fit, a model respecification may be undertaken. This model respecification allows the researcher to add or delete estimated parameters from the original model (Hair *et al.*, 1998). However, any addition or deletion must be chosen with care and only after obtaining theoretical justification for what empirically is deemed significant (*ibid.*). The modification indices are one method of the respecification (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Modification indices are calculated for each non-estimated relationship and correspond approximatively to the reduction in chi-square that would occur if the coefficient were estimated (Hair *et al.*, 1998:615).

Among the modification indices obtained with the Company/brand identification model, two modification indices have a theoretical justification which affords respecification. The first respecification is related to the residual errors of the items Ci1 (I am somewhat associated with SmoothWriter) and Ci2 (I have a sense of connection with SmoothWriter). These items of the *Company/brand identification* have residual errors correlated together ( $9.5186589086e^1$ ). Thus, the respecification is justified because these variables correspond to items which possess a close formulation and they are strongly correlated (0.808). Moreover, the second modification indices is associated to the residual errors of the items Ci7 (Being a customer of Smoothwriter is a part of my sense of who I am) and Ci8 (Purchasing Smoothwriter pen would help me express my identity) which are also two items of the *Company/brand identification*'s scale. Both items possess residual errors which are correlated together ( $8.0376892056e^1$ ). Thus, the respecification is justified because these variables correspond to items which possess a close sense (i.e. sense of who I am *and* Identity) and they are strongly correlated (0.782). Figure 7.19 and Table 7.43 represent the Company/brand identification model after respecification.

**Figure 7.19: Hypothesis H<sup>9</sup> – Company/Brand Identification Model after Respecification (T-Test and Standardised Regression Weight)**



**Table 7.43: Hypothesis H<sup>9</sup> – Goodness-of-Fit for Company/Brand Identification Model after Respecification**

	$\chi^2$ /ddl	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	CFI	PCFI
Company/brand identification Model	690.151/222 (0.000)	0.077	0.852	0.816	0.928	0.815

In respect of the Company/brand identification Model, as set out in Table 7.43, the criteria of goodness-of-fit after respecification indicate reasonable fit. Furthermore, Table 7.44 indicates how both processes influence directly and indirectly the variable *Company/brand identification*.

**Table 7.44: Hypothesis H<sup>9</sup> – Effects on Company/Brand Identification (Standardised Regression Weight)**

	Process	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Similarity	Identification		0.295	0.295
Identification		0.391		0.391
SR attributed to the ad	CSR		0.500	0.500
SR attributed to the brand		0.592		0.592

Table 7.44 reveals that the variable *Company/brand identification* is more influenced by the viewers' *CSR Process* than by their *Identification Process*. Typically, viewers' identification with the brand is significantly more influenced by *SR attributed to the brand* (0.592) than viewers' identification with actors (0.391,  $T = |-2,358| > 1.96$ ). Nonetheless, both processes influence symbiotically *Company/brand Identification*, hence H<sup>9</sup> is validated. The hypotheses of H<sup>9</sup> are reviewed in Table 7.45.

**Table 7.45: Test of Hypothesis H<sup>9</sup> – Recapitulative Table**

Hypotheses	Test
H <sup>9</sup> : The viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement enables viewers to identify themselves with the company/brand through the CSR process and the identification process.	<b>Accepted</b>
H <sup>9.1</sup> : The more viewers attribute social responsibility to a brand, the more they will identify themselves with it.	<b>Accepted</b>
H <sup>9.2</sup> : The more the similarity judgment influences how viewers identify themselves with actors, the more they will identify themselves with the brand using a multi-racial advertisement. In other words, the relationship between viewers' similarity judgment and their identification with the brand is mediated by the viewer's identification with the models.	<b>Accepted</b>
H <sup>9.3</sup> : The more the viewers' identification with actors influences how viewers identify themselves with the brand, the more they will have a positive attitude towards the brand. In other words, the relationship between a viewer's identification and their attitude towards the brand is mediated by their identification with the brand.	<b>Accepted</b>

Finally, the next section tests the entire conceptual framework aggregating both of the processes, the Company/brand identification model and the *DMH* (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986).

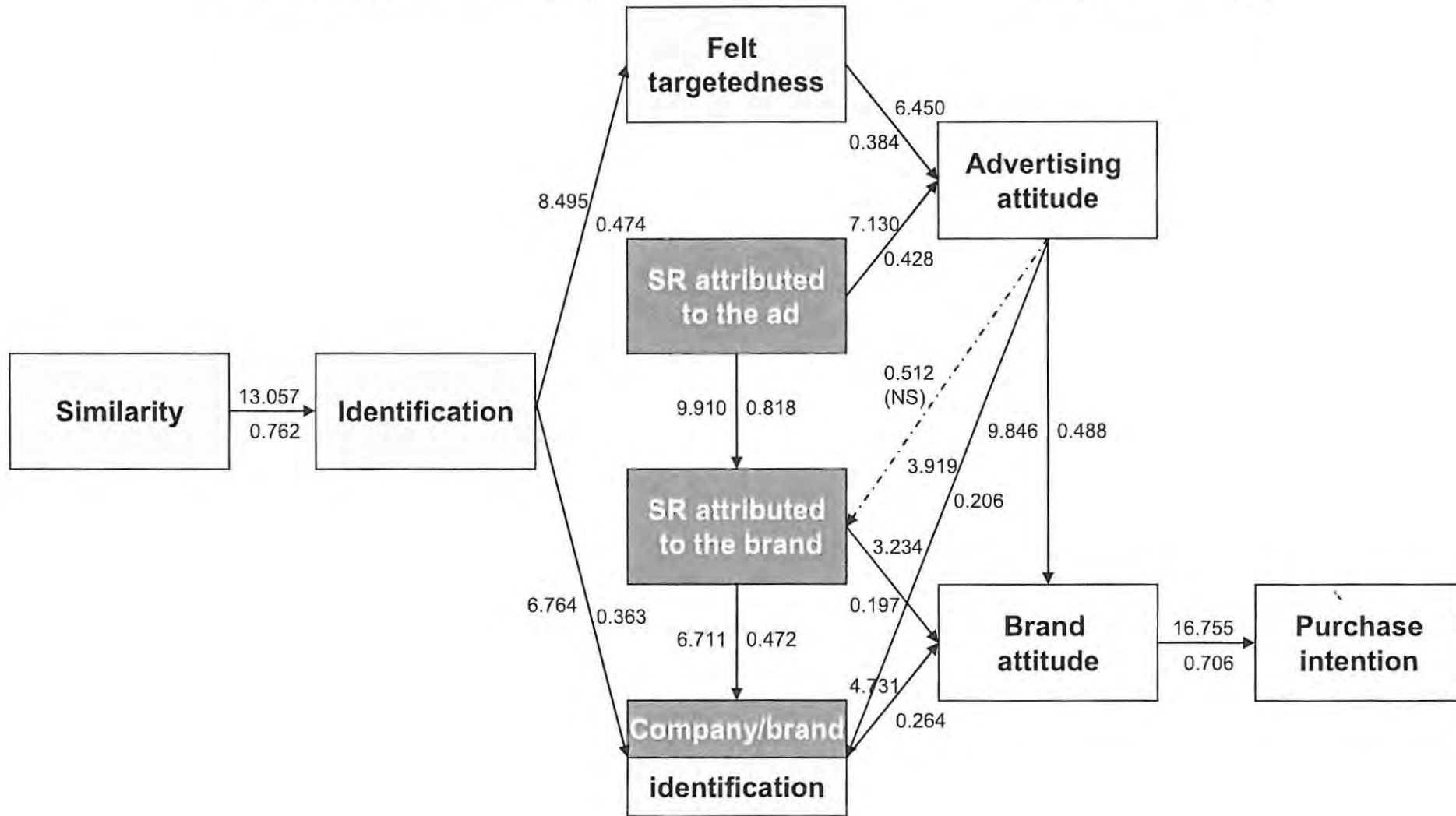
#### 7.4.4 Conceptual Framework Testing

This section exposes the test of the entire conceptual framework. The first section presents the model testing, while the second section compares the influence of both Identification and CSR processes on the affective and behavioural variables. Finally, the third section tests the moderational influence of viewers' *Racial group*.

##### 7.4.4.1 Model Testing

This section presents the test of the entire conceptual framework completed by the *DMH* (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986). As noted earlier, SEM is used to test the model. Nonetheless, because SEM merely computes several linear regressions between metric variables, the constructs *Ad exposure*, *Racial group* and *Racial attitude* which are qualitative can not be included in the model testing. Figure 7.20 and Table 7.46 represent the test of the conceptual framework, without the independent variables, as they were presented in Chapter 5.

Figure 7.20: Hypothesis H<sup>11</sup> – Conceptual Framework (T-Test and Standardized Regression Weight)



**Table 7.46: Hypothesis H<sup>11</sup> – Conceptual Framework (T-Test and Standardised Regression Weight)**

Relationships	Hypothesis	T-Test	Standardised regression weight	Result
Similarity → Identification	H <sup>7.1</sup>	13.057	0.762	<b>Accepted</b>
Identification → Felt targetedness		8.495	0.474	
Felt targetedness → Advertising attitude		6.450	0.384	
SR attributed to the ad → Advertising attitude	H <sup>8.1</sup>	7.130	0.428	<b>Accepted</b>
SR attributed to the ad → SR attributed to the brand	H <sup>8.2</sup>	9.910	0.818	<b>Accepted</b>
SR attributed to the brand → Brand attitude	H <sup>8.3</sup>	3.234	0.197	<b>Accepted</b>
SR attributed to the brand → Company/brand identification	H <sup>9.1</sup>	6.711	0.472	<b>Accepted</b>
Identification → Company/brand identification		6.764	0.363	
Company/brand identification → Brand attitude		4.731	0.264	
Advertising attitude → SR attributed to the brand	H <sup>10.1</sup>	0.512 ( <i>ns</i> )	<i>ns</i>	Rejected
Advertising attitude → Company/brand identification	H <sup>10.2</sup>	3.919	0.206	<b>Accepted</b>
Advertising attitude → Brand attitude	H <sup>10.3</sup>	9.846	0.488	<b>Accepted</b>
Brand attitude → Purchase intention	H <sup>10.4</sup>	16.755	0.706	<b>Accepted</b>

Table 7.46 shows that almost each relationship hypothesised is validated ( $T > |1.96|$ ).  $H^{10.1}$  is the only rejected hypothesis ( $T = 0.168$ ).  $H^{10.1}$  is one of the main assumptions of the *Dual-Mediation Hypothesis* (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986). Indeed, it assumes that the affective reaction (*Advertising attitude*) influences viewers' belief about the brand (*SR attributed to the brand*). It supposes that *Advertising attitude* mediates the relationship between the advertising cognition (*SR attributed to the ad*) and brand cognition (*SR attributed to the brand*) (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986). In the above structural framework the three relationships necessary to study a mediating influence were hypothesised as: *SR attributed to the ad* was supposed to influence *Advertising attitude*, while *SR attributed to the ad* influenced *SR attributed to the brand* and *Advertising attitude* influenced *SR attributed to the brand*. Thus, in compliance with MacKenzie *et al.*'s (1986) *DMH*, the relationship between *SR attributed to the ad* and *SR attributed to the brand* should have been weak or nil because of the mediating influence of *Advertising attitude*. However, Figure 7.20 shows that instead of being non-significant, the relationship between *SR attributed to the ad* and *SR attributed to the brand* is validated, whereas the relationship between *Advertising attitude* and *SR attributed to the brand* is non-significant. Hence, the mediating role of *Advertising attitude* ( $H^{10.1}$ ) is rejected and the *DMH* ( $H^{10}$ ) is partially validated (see Table 7.47).

**Table 7.47: Test of Hypothesis  $H^{10}$  – Recapitulative Table**

Hypotheses	
$H^{10}$ : The Dual-Mediation Hypothesis is consistent with the persuasion process followed by viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement.	<i>Partially accepted</i>
$H^{10.1}$ : The more viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards an advertisement, the more they will attribute social responsibility to the brand.	Rejected
$H^{10.2}$ : The more viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards an advertisement, the more they will identify themselves with the company/brand.	<b>Accepted</b>
$H^{10.3}$ : The more viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards an advertisement, the more they will have a favourable attitude toward the brand.	<b>Accepted</b>
$H^{10.4}$ : The more viewers have a favourable attitude towards the brand, the more they will exhibit a high purchase intention.	<b>Accepted</b>

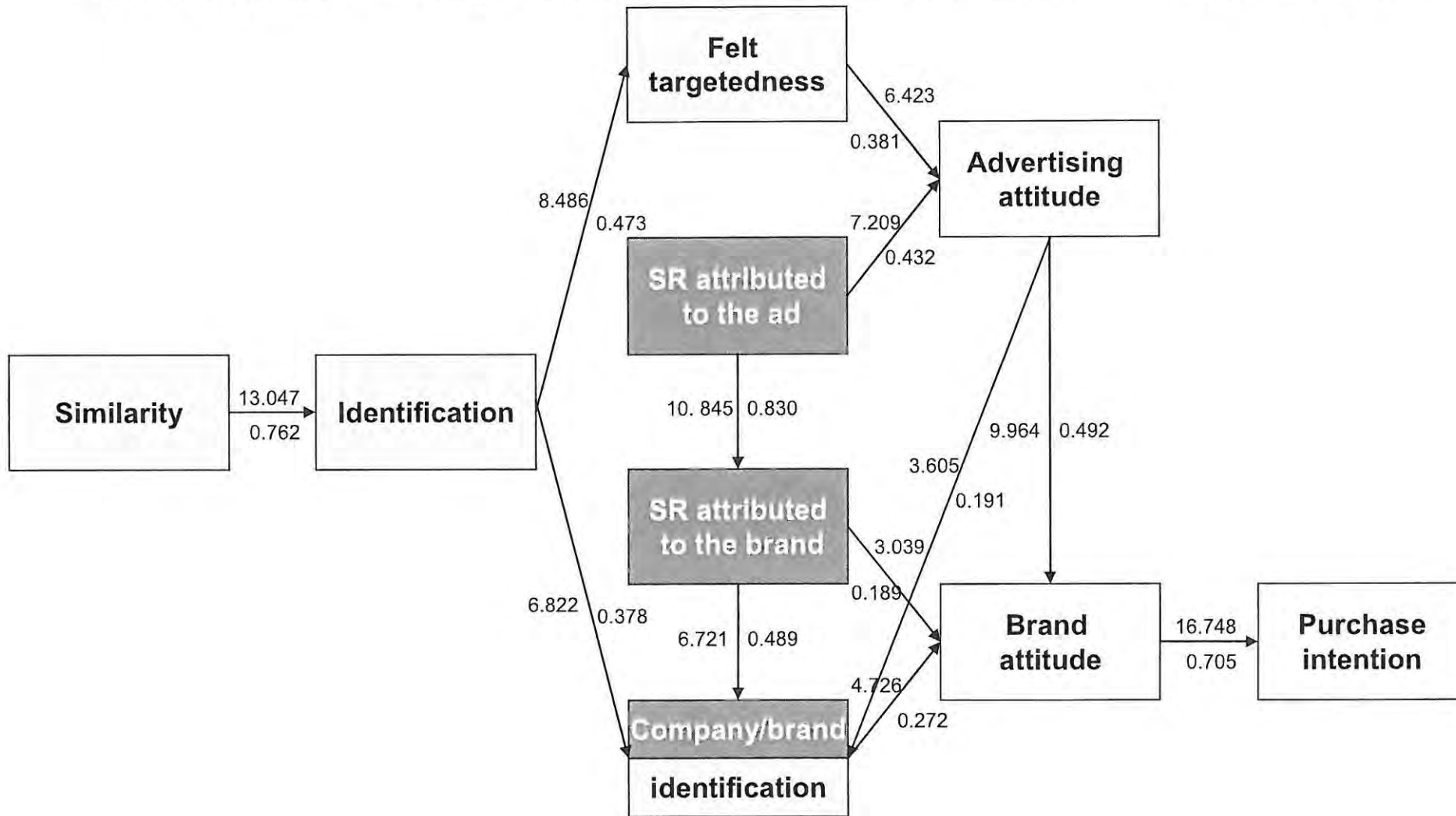
Furthermore, an analysis of the criteria of goodness-of-fit for the entire conceptual framework, shown in Table 7.48, reveals a non-reasonable fit ( $\chi^2/ddl > 3$  and AGFI  $< 0.8$ ).

**Table 7.48: Hypothesis H<sup>11</sup> – Goodness-of-Fit for the Entire Conceptual Framework**

	$\chi^2/ddl$	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	CFI	PCFI
Conceptual framework	1281.193/421 (0.000)	0.075	0.804	0.769	0.911	0.825

A respecification affords to improve the goodness-of-fit. Thus, as with the Company/brand identification model (see Section 7.4.3), a model respecification is undertaken. This respecification also involves the modification indices of the residual error of items Ci1 and Ci2 and of Ci7 and Ci8. The first respecification is related to the residual errors of the items Ci1 (I am somewhat associated with SmoothWriter) and Ci2 (I have a sense of connection with SmoothWriter). These items of the *Company/brand identification* have residual errors correlated together ( $9.6126707503e^1$ ). Thus, the respecification is justified because these variables correspond to items which possess a close formulation and they are strongly correlated (0.808). The second modification indices is associated to the residual errors of the items Ci7 (Being a customer of Smoothwriter is a part of my sense of who I am) and Ci8 (Purchasing Smoothwriter pen would help me express my identity) which are also two items of the *Company/brand identification*'s scale. Both items possess residual errors which are correlated together ( $7.8613853885e^1$ ). Thus, the respecification is justified because these variables correspond to items which possess a close sense (and they are strongly correlated (0.782)). Figure 7.21 and Table 7.49 present the test of the model after respecification.

Figure 7.21: Hypothesis H<sup>11</sup> – Conceptual Framework after Respecification (T-Test and Standardized Regression Weight)



**Table 7.49: Hypothesis H<sup>11</sup> – Conceptual Framework after Respecification (T-Test and Standardised Regression Weight)**

Relationships	Hypothesis	T-Test	Standardised regression weight	Result
Similarity → Identification	H <sup>7.1</sup>	13.047	0.762	<b>Accepted</b>
Identification → Felt targetedness		8.486	0.473	
Felt targetedness → Advertising attitude		6.423	0.381	
SR attributed to the ad → Advertising attitude	H <sup>8.1</sup>	7.209	0.432	<b>Accepted</b>
SR attributed to the ad → SR attributed to the brand	H <sup>8.2</sup>	10.845	0.830	<b>Accepted</b>
SR attributed to the brand → Brand attitude	H <sup>8.3</sup>	3.039	0.189	<b>Accepted</b>
SR attributed to the brand → Company/brand identification	H <sup>9.1</sup>	6.721	0.489	<b>Accepted</b>
Identification → Company/brand identification		6.822	0.378	
Company/brand identification → Brand attitude		4.726	0.272	
Advertising attitude → Company/brand identification	H <sup>10.2</sup>	3.605	0.191	<b>Accepted</b>
Advertising attitude → Brand attitude	H <sup>10.3</sup>	9.964	0.492	<b>Accepted</b>
Brand attitude → Purchase intention	H <sup>10.4</sup>	16.748	0.705	<b>Accepted</b>

Finally, Table 7.50 presents the criteria of goodness-of-fit of the conceptual framework after respecification.

**Table 7.50: Hypothesis H<sup>11</sup> – Goodness-of-Fit for the Entire Conceptual Framework after Respecification**

	$\chi^2/ddl$	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	CFI	PCFI
Conceptual framework	1007.343/420 (0.000)	0.068	0.832	0.801	0.929	0.839

In respect of the conceptual framework, as set out in Table 7.50, the criteria of goodness-of-fit after respecification indicate a reasonable fit and this supports the conceptual framework. Hence, H<sup>11</sup>, which hypothesises that viewers exposed to a specific multi-racial advertisement follow a two-way persuasion process, is partially accepted (H<sup>11</sup> is accepted only partially and not wholly because of the rejection of H<sup>10.1</sup>).

Figure 7.21 highlights the influence of both multi-racial advertising processes. Firstly, from the *Similarity* perceived by the viewer with the models, the *Identification process* is posited to influence cognitive (i.e. *Felt targetedness* and *Company/brand identification*), affective (advertising and brand attitudes) and behavioural (i.e. *Purchase intention*) outcomes. On the other hand, exposure to a multi-racial advertisement generates CSR cognitive associations towards the advertising and the brand. These cognitive associations (i.e. *SR attributed to the ad* and *SR attributed to the brand*) influence both attitudes towards advertising and brand which, in turn, influence the *Purchase intention*. The next section compares the influence of both processes on advertising and brand attitudes and *Purchase intention*.

#### 7.4.4.2 Comparison of Both Processes' Influence

The test of the conceptual framework validated this hypothesis that consumers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement follow both identification and CSR processes. This section analyses whether one process has more influence on the attitudes and behaviour than the other one.

Firstly, the influence of both processes is compared on the construct *Advertising attitude*. Table 7.51 investigates which process is the more influential on viewers' attitude formation.

**Table 7.51: Effects on Advertising Attitude (Standardised Regression Weight)**

	Process	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Similarity	Identification		0.138	0.138
Identification			0.181	0.181
Felt targetedness		0.381		0.381
SR attributed to the ad	CSR	0.432		0.432

Table 7.51 reveals that the *Identification Process* influences *Advertising attitude* more than the *CSR Process*. Thus, the formation of viewers' attitude towards the advertisement depends merely on viewers identification with the models featured in the advertisement. However, this conclusion may be viewed as "biased" because of the number of constructs making up the processes. Indeed, the *Identification process* influences *Advertising attitude* through three variables (i.e. *Similarity, Identification, Felt targetedness*), whereas *SR attributed to the ad* is the only construct of the *CSR process* which influences *advertising attitude*. Thus, in comparing only the direct effects on *Advertising attitude*, *CSR Process (SR attributed to the ad = 0.432)* has a greater influence than *Identification Process (Felt targetedness = 0.381)*. However, the difference between both direct effects is not significant ( $T = |.188| < 1.96$ ). Next Table 7.52 compares the influences of both processes on *Brand attitude*.

**Table 7.52: Effects on Brand Attitude (Standardised Regression Weight)**

	Process	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Similarity	Identification		0.153	0.153
Identification			0.201	0.201
Felt targetedness			0.207	0.207
SR attributed to the ad	CSR		0.503	0.503
SR attributed to the brand		0.189	0.133	0.322
Company/brand identification	Both	0.272		0.272
Advertising attitude		0.492	0.052	0.544

Table 7.52 reveals that *CSR Process* has a greater influence on the *Brand attitude* than *Identification Process*. Indeed, the effect of the constructs making up *CSR process* (i.e. *SR*

attributed to the ad and SR attributed to the ad) is higher than the effect of the *Identification Process*' constructs (i.e. *Similarity*, *Identification* and *Felt targetedness*). *Company/brand identification* and *Advertising attitude* are not included in the comparison because they are themselves influenced by both processes. Furthermore, Table 7.53 compares processes' impact on viewers' *Purchase intention*.

**Table 7.53: Effects on Purchase Intention (Standardised Regression Weight)**

	Process	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Similarity	Identification		0.108	0.108
Identification			0.142	0.142
Felt targetedness			0.146	0.146
SR attributed to the ad	CSR		0.354	0.354
SR attributed to the brand			0.227	0.227
Company/brand identification	Both		0.192	0.192
Advertising attitude			0.383	0.383
Brand attitude		0.705		0.705

Table 7.53 reports that *CSR Process* has a greater impact on *Purchase intention* than *Identification Process*. A brand which aims to increase its sell thorough a multi-racial advertisement should lay emphasis on the social message included in the advertisement. However, it was also hypothesised that the effect of both processes depends on viewers' *Racial group*. The next section discusses the moderational role of viewers' *Racial group* on the conceptual framework.

#### 7.4.4.3 Moderator Testing

This section presents the moderational role of viewers' *Racial group* on some paths of the conceptual framework. The moderational influence is analysed via a multi-group analysis. This statistical technique provided by AMOS 4.0 consists of two steps. Firstly, the overall sample is divided into several sub-groups (i.e. black *versus* white *versus* other). Secondly, a non-restricted model (specific to each subgroup) and a restricted model (equal across sub-groups) are compared. A moderating effect exists if the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) value of the non-

restricted model is significantly better than that of the restricted model (Evanschitzky and Wunderlich, 2006).

H<sup>12</sup> argued that viewer's *Racial group* influences the intensity of the four relationships described in the conceptual framework. Indeed, H<sup>12.1</sup> and H<sup>12.2</sup> assumed that when viewers are black the influence of the advertising cognitions (i.e. *Felt targetedness* and *SR attributed to the ad*) on *Advertising attitude* is reinforced. Similarly, H<sup>12.3</sup> and H<sup>12.4</sup> expected that when viewers are black the influence of *Advertising attitude* on *Brand attitude* and the influence of *Brand attitude* on *Purchase intention* are reinforced, respectively.

Firstly, the restricted model, which is equal across sub-groups (all factor loadings, all factor variances, all factor covariances are constrained equal across groups), has a chi-square value 3005.903 with 1412 degrees of freedom. The second step is then to separately de-restrict each path on which a moderational influence is hypothesised. The moderating effect is accepted when the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) value of the non-restricted model is significantly better than that of the restricted model (Byrne, 2001; Evanschitzky and Wunderlich, 2006). Indeed this result signifies the path is different from one group to another and that viewers' *Racial group* influences the nature and the intensity of the paths compared. Table 7.54 reports the comparison between the restricted and non-restricted models.

**Table 7.54: Hypothesis H<sup>12</sup> – Moderational Influence of Viewers' Racial Group**

		$\chi^2$	Df	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta df$	Sig.
Restricted model		3005.903	1412			
Hyp.	Liberated path					
H <sup>12.1</sup>	Felt targetedness → Advertising attitude	3004.920	1410	0.983	2	<i>Ns</i>
H <sup>12.2</sup>	SR attributed to the ad → Advertising attitude	3000.310	1410	5.593	2	<i>Ns</i>
H <sup>12.3</sup>	Advertising attitude → Brand attitude	2996.672	1410	9.231	2	<b>p &lt; 0.05</b>
H <sup>12.4</sup>	Brand attitude → Purchase intention	3003.517	1410	2.386	2	<i>Ns</i>

Table 7.54 reveals different results across hypotheses. Firstly, the hypotheses  $H^{12.1}$ ,  $H^{12.2}$  and  $H^{12.4}$  are rejected. Indeed, the comparisons yield a chi-square difference ( $\Delta\chi^2$ ) value which were not statistically significant ( $H^{12.1}$ :  $\Delta\chi^2_{(2)} = 0.983$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ;  $H^{12.2}$ :  $\Delta\chi^2_{(2)} = 5.593$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ;  $H^{12.4}$ :  $\Delta\chi^2_{(2)} = 2.386$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). On the other hand, the comparison associated with  $H^{12.3}$  yields a chi-square difference value of 9.231 with 2 *df*, which is statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). Provided with this information, it is now known that the relationship between *Advertising attitude* and *Brand attitude* is not equal across the three racial groups. The difference between groups is presented Table 7.55.

**Table 7.55: Hypothesis  $H^{12.3}$  – T-Test for Differences across Groups**

		T-Test for differences across groups			
		Black viewers	White viewers	Other viewers	
$H^{12.3}$	Advertising attitude →	Non-standardised regression weight (T-Test)	0.632 (8.294)	0.381 (5.903)	0.367 (3.978)
	Brand attitude	Black viewers			
		White viewers	<b>-2.672</b>		
		Other viewers	<b>-2.392</b>	-0.126	

Table 7.55 indicates that the causal relationship between *Advertising attitude* and *Brand attitude* is very significant for black viewers (0.632) in comparison with white (0.381,  $|-2.672| > 1.96$ ) and other (0.387,  $|-2.392| > 1.96$ ) viewers. The more black viewers exhibited a favourable attitude towards the advertisement, the more they had a favourable attitude towards the brand. Hence, the persuasion was more effective with black viewers. Hence,  $H^{12.3}$  is accepted.

However, as set out in Table 7.56 below, only  $H^{12.3}$  validated the moderational role of viewers' *Racial group* on the path of the conceptual framework.  $H^{12.1}$ ,  $H^{12.2}$  and  $H^{12.4}$  were rejected and hence  $H^{12}$  is partially rejected.

**Table 7.56: Test of Hypothesis H<sup>12</sup> – Recapitulative Table**

Hypotheses	Test
H <sup>12</sup> : The viewers' Racial group moderates some conceptual framework's paths.	Partially rejected
H <sup>12.1</sup> : When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between Felt targetedness and Advertising attitude is reinforced.	Rejected
H <sup>12.2</sup> : When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between SR attributed to the ad and Advertising attitude is reinforced.	Rejected
H <sup>12.3</sup> : When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between Advertising attitude and Brand attitude is reinforced.	Accepted
H <sup>12.4</sup> : When viewers are black (versus white and other viewers) the path between brand attitude and purchase intention is reinforced.	Rejected

## 7.5 Conclusion

This fifth chapter reported the empirical results obtained from the data. The results presented tested the research hypotheses formulated in Chapter 5. Firstly, hypotheses H<sup>1</sup> to H<sup>6</sup> were related to the effects of viewers' exposure to advertising on viewers' advertising processing. The tests of H<sup>1</sup> revealed that the actors' race is an important advertisement cue in black viewers' *Similarity* judgment, whereas it is not significant in the judgment of the non-black viewers. Furthermore, the test of the sub-hypotheses of H<sup>2</sup> showed that viewers, especially when they are non-white, attribute slightly more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement than to either mono-racial advertisement. Moreover, hypotheses H<sup>3</sup> to H<sup>5</sup> showed that viewers' *Racial attitudes* towards in-group and out-group members influence viewers' *Similarity* judgment towards the actors featured in the advertisement. However, H<sup>6</sup> failed to show that viewers' *Racial attitudes* also influenced their *CSR process*.

Furthermore, hypotheses H<sup>7</sup> to H<sup>9</sup> demonstrated that viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement followed both Identification (H<sup>7</sup>) and CSR processes (H<sup>8</sup>) which, in turn, influenced simultaneously viewers' identification to the company (H<sup>9</sup>). Completed by the *DMH* (H<sup>10</sup>), the entire model was then tested through the SEM and H<sup>11</sup> which expected that viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement experience both identification and CSR processes, was accepted. Specifically, the *CSR Process* was found to influence the viewers' *Purchase intention* more. The following chapter discusses these results.

## CHAPTER 8

### DISCUSSION

#### 8.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter the empirical results of the study were reviewed. In this chapter the empirical results will be interpreted and conclusions drawn from these interpretations. The first section reviews and draws conclusion about the main findings of this study. The second and third sections report on the contribution and limitations of this thesis, respectively. Finally, the last section suggests several areas for future research in multi-racial advertising.

#### 8.2 Review and Discussion of the Main Results

This section reviews and discusses the main results of this study. While the first section exposes the moderational influences of viewers' *Racial group* and *Racial attitude* on the relationship between actors' race and viewers' *Similarity* judgment, the second section describes the social responsibility attributed to the multi-racial advertisement and the third section presents the findings associated with the test of the entire conceptual framework.

##### 8.2.1 Actors' Race and Similarity Judgment

This section discusses the results related to the relationship between the race of the actors and viewers' *Similarity* judgement. The first section is focused on the moderational influence of viewers' *Racial group*, whereas the second section considers this for viewers' *Racial attitude*.

###### 8.2.1.1 Moderational Influence of Viewers' Racial Group

The results of this study show that the *Similarity* judgment with the actors depends on viewers' *Racial group*. On the one hand, when black viewers are exposed to an all-black advertisement, they express more *Similarity* than when they are exposed to another type of advertisement (i.e. all-white or multi-racial advertisements) ( $H^{1.1.1}$ ); but they also express more *Similarity* than non-black viewers exposed to this all-black advertisement ( $H^{1.2.1}$ ). Consequently, the use of an all-black advertisement triggers an *Identification Process* specific to black viewers. On the other hand, white viewers' *Similarity* judgment does not vary much in relation to the type of advertisement. They express a greater *Similarity*, albeit non-significant, when they are exposed to all-black and multi-racial advertisements than to all-white advertisement.

These results are consistent with studies which have found that black and white viewers differ in the attributes used to determine *Similarity* (Appiah, 2007). Indeed, while blacks often use race as their primary criterion to evaluate people (Smedley and Bayton, 1978), white viewers use occupational status or social class cues rather than racial cues to determine the *Similarity* between themselves and the actors (Appiah, 2007). However, the use of digital techniques in the creation of the advertisements made it possible to control a maximum of cues across the advertisements and to modify only the racial cue (see Section 6.3.1.2.). The only difference between the three advertisements was the race of the actors and the other cues, such as occupational and social status, were stable across the advertisements. Hence, the variation of white viewers' *Similarity* judgment across the three advertisements depends only on actors' race variation. Thus, considering their ambiguous responses, it is concluded that actors' race is not relevant in white viewers' *Similarity* judgement. This conclusion is consistent with earlier studies in multi-racial advertising which found that white audience preferred slightly a multi-racial advertisement to advertising with solely black or white actors (Barban, 1969; Barban and Cundiff, 1964; Stafford, Birdwell and van Tassel, 1970).

Nonetheless, these studies have been criticized because they used convenience samples (Tolley and Goett, 1971; Sears, 1986) and did not consider the *Racial attitude* of the viewers. The present study has measured viewers' *Racial attitude* and its impact on viewers' *Similarity* judgment and this aspect is discussed below.

#### 8.2.1.2 Moderational Influence of Viewers' Racial Attitude

This study shows that the *Similarity* judgment depends on viewers' *Racial attitude*. Indeed, hypotheses H<sup>3</sup>, H<sup>4</sup> and H<sup>5</sup> which suggest that viewers' *Racial attitude* influences their *Similarity* judgment provides important insights. Firstly, they confirmed the recent studies which found that there is no clear evidence of reciprocity between in-group identification and out-group prejudice (Duckitt and Mphuting, 1998; Gibson, 2006). Viewers' in-group identification does not influence their reaction towards out-group actors, whereas viewers' out-group prejudice does not influence their reaction towards in-group actors. Thus, it was found that, on the basis of their in-group favouritism, high-identification black viewers perceive themselves as more similar to black actors in the all-black advertisement than do low-identification black viewers, whereas high- and low-identification black viewers will show no difference in their *Similarity* perceived to the actors featured in the all-white

advertisement. Similar result was found with white viewers. On the other hand, it was found that black viewers who possess prejudice against whites perceive themselves as less similar to the actors in the all-white advertisement than black viewers who do not possess prejudice against the white population, whereas low- and high-prejudice black viewers show no difference in their *Similarity* towards actors in the all-black advertisement.

Consequently, each construct of racial identity act independently and in step with the type of advertisement presented. Furthermore, when the advertisement featured together in-group and out-group actors, the results show that viewers' identification and prejudice levels must be combined together. Thus, in a multi-racial advertisement the identification level influences viewers' reaction towards in-group actors, whereas the prejudice level influences their reaction towards out-group actors. Specifically, it was found that viewers who maintain a strong racial identity and low out-group prejudice perceive themselves as more similar to the actors featured in the multi-racial advertisement than viewers who maintain a weak racial identity and high out-group prejudice.

In conclusion, the multi-racial advertisement is the type of advertisement which controls the most the *Similarity* judgment across racial groups. Exposure to a multi-racial advertisement generates equal *Similarity* judgment among black ( $M = 3.67$ ) and white viewers ( $M = 3.67$ ), whereas other viewers (who were not represented in this advertisement) express slightly less *Similarity* ( $M = 3.58$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Hence, multi-racial advertising is an 'egalitarian' targeting practice which does not segregate the market along racial lines. Considering South Africa's history, not dividing consumers along racial lines is more than a simple marketing practice, but also a social responsibility for advertisers. The social responsibility attributed to multi-racial advertising is discussed below.

### **8.2.2 Multi-racial Advertising and CSR**

This study reports several important results in terms of SR attributed to the multi-racial advertisement. Firstly, the test of  $H^{2.1}$  shows that the SR attribution to advertising is greater for the multi-racial advertisement than for either 'mono-racial' advertisement. Even though the differences of the means are not statistically significant, the 'social power' of a multi-racial advertisement is indicated.

The test of H<sup>2.2</sup> and H<sup>2.3</sup> shows that viewers' *Racial group* moderates the relationship between the viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement and their SR attribution to the advertisement. Specifically, it has been found that non-white (e.g. black, coloured, Indian, Asian) viewers attribute more SR than white viewers. It is noteworthy that coloureds, Indians and other Asians, who were not represented in the multi-racial advertisement and who could have been marginalised by this non-representation, attribute significantly more SR to this advertisement than white viewers. This result is consistent with studies which have found that non-white respondents tend to be more positive and less sceptical than whites about advertising in general (Bush, Smith and Craig, 1999; Shavitt *et al.*, 1998; Tolley and Goett, 1971) and about multi-racial advertising in particular (Basson, 1988; De Kock, 1982).

However, the test of H<sup>6</sup> failed to show that viewers' *Racial attitude* correspond to their support to CSR action – *CSR support*. Even if the expected tendencies were generally found and viewers who identify themselves strongly with their racial group and who do not have prejudice towards out-group members generally attribute more SR to the multi-racial advertisement than viewers who have weak in-group identification and/or who possess prejudice, the statistical tests were not significant. The next section discusses the results related to the persuasion process of viewers' exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement.

### **8.2.3 Multi-racial Advertising: Persuasion Process**

The test of hypothesis H<sup>11</sup> revealed that viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement produces a two-way persuasion process. Firstly, they perceive *Similarity* to the actors and follow an *Identification Process*. Secondly, they attribute a social responsibility to the advertisement and subsequently follow a *CSR process*. Finally, both processes influence viewers' identification with the brand as well as their intention to purchase the product promoted.

#### **8.2.3.1 Identification Process.**

This study found that consumers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement follow an *Identification Process*. Indeed, from the *Similarity* perceived to the actors, viewers establish a special relationship to them (*Identification*). This special relationship enables viewers to recognize themselves as the target of the advertisement (*Felt targetedness*) and this, in turn, influences positively their attitude towards the advertisement (*Advertising attitude*).

Nevertheless, the *Identification Process* hypothesised (H<sup>7</sup>) is only partially validated. The test of H<sup>7.2</sup> found that *Identification* was only a partial mediator of the relationship between *Similarity* and *Felt Targetedness*. This partial influence may be explained by Kelman's (1958; 1961) theory of social influence on the changes in attitude. Indeed, this thesis suggested that viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement merely experienced an *Identification Process* (see Section 3.3.1). However, according to Kelman (1958, 1961), *Identification* is only one of the three processes which underline persuasion outcome. In addition to *Identification*, Kelman (1961) introduced the notion of compliance and internalisation. On the one hand, compliance occurs when an individual accepts a position from another person in order to obtain specific rewards or avoid punishment (Kelman, 1961). Nonetheless, because advertising is a privately-accepted message, not delivered by powerful others directly related to viewers, Aaker *et al.* (2000) consider that attitude towards an advertisement should not change via compliance. On the other hand, internalisation occurs "when an individual accepts influence because the induced behaviour is congruent with his value system" (Kelman, 1961:65). For instance, the expert opinion influences attitudes via internalisation because the desire of individuals to be accurate and correct is confirmed and enhanced by being congruent with the expert (Aaker *et al.*, 2000). Thus, within the internalisation process, even though the characteristics (such as race) of the influencing source still play an important role, the crucial element is the influencing agent's credibility (Kelman, 1961).

Aaker *et al.* (2000) showed that identification and internalisation can occur simultaneously. In this thesis, because of their appearance (well-dressed, white collars, seriousness) the four advertisement models might have been perceived as expert and consequently highly-credible. Thus, this characteristic might have also engendered an internalisation process in parallel to the *Identification Process*. This could explain the partial mediating role of the *Identification*. The second process occurring with the viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement is the *CSR Process*.

#### 8.2.3.2 CSR Process

This study highlighted that the viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement engenders a *CSR process*. Indeed, from the social responsibility attributed to a specific multi-racial advertisement, viewers shape their attitude towards the advertisements but also towards the brand. Viewers transfer to the brand the social responsibility attributed to the advertisement and this, in turn, influences viewers' attitude towards the brand.

However, according to the *DMH* the transfer of the social responsibility attributed from the advertisement to the brand should have been done via the attitude towards the advertising (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986). The *DMH* argues that the affective reaction towards an advertisement (i.e. *Advertising attitude*) influences the affective reaction towards the brand (i.e. *Brand attitude*), but also how viewers establish their beliefs about the brand (i.e. *SR attributed to the brand* and *Company/brand identification*). Thus, this study validates the relationship between *Advertising attitude* and *Company/brand identification*, but rejects the relationship between *Advertising attitude* and *SR attributed to the brand*. Hence, the mediational influence of *Advertising attitude* was rejected, but the strength of the relationship between *SR attributed to the ad* and *SR attributed to the brand* was highlighted. This relationship is, in fact, consistent with the process of message-based persuasion (Lutz, 1985).

Message-based persuasion describes “the scenario in which consumers are interested in learning about the advertised product and, therefore, carefully consider the advertisement’s content” (Darley and Smith, 1993). This process is consistent with the central route of ELM (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986) where viewers are motivated and able to conscientiously consider message content. The quality or strength of the message claims determines, then, consumer’s brand cognition and brand attitude.

Actors’ race, as a non-verbal cue, influences the peripheral route of persuasion (Whittler and Spira, 2002). Thus, the cognitive association generated by viewers when they are exposed to the multi-racial advertisement (*SR attributed to the advertising*) influences their attitude towards the advertisement (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986), which, in turn, influences their attitude towards the brand (see Figure 5.1). This process is typical of the peripheral route (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986). On the other hand, studies pointed out that actors’ race influences persuasion in more than one way (Petty *et al.*, 1999; White and Harkins, 1994; Whittler and Spira, 2002). Specifically, these studies showed that actors’ race is also a motivator variable. In other words, race is an advertisement’s cue which encourages viewers to process brand information in the advertisement (MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989). In doing so, viewers increase their processing level which, in turn, enables them to allocate sufficient resources to integrate and understand advertisement cues. Hence, consistent with the traditional cognitive response theory (see Section 3.4.1; Greenwald, 1968), the advertising cognitions generated (*SR attributed to the ad*) are transferred directly to the brand cognitions (*SR attributed to the brand*) which, in turn,

influence the attitude towards the brand. This strictly cognitive process could explain the non-significant relationship between *Advertising attitude* and *SR attributed to the brand*.

On the other hand, *SR attributed to the brand* is also assumed to influence *Company/brand identification*. Typically, this latter variable was found to be influenced by both Identification and CSR processes.

#### 8.2.3.3 Company/Brand Identification Model

The study found that viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement enables them to identify themselves with the company/brand through both Identification and CSR processes.

The *Identification Process* influences Company/brand identification through the mediational influence of *Identification*. Unlike the *Identification Process*, the mediating role of *Identification* is in the Company/brand identification model completely validated. This complete mediation results from the operationalisation of the variable *Company/brand identification*. This construct merely concerns viewers' identification with the company (see Section 6.5.3). The items related to the identification with the brand's third person (i.e. consumers and employees), which could have induced judgment of credibility and hence internalisation (Aaker *et al.*, 2000), were deleted from the scale. Therefore, the relationship between viewers' *Similarity* and viewer' *Company/brand identification* is mediated by *Identification* only.

Moreover, the *CSR Process* is found to have more influence on viewers' identification with the brand than the *Identification Process*. In other words, in the constitution of a special relationship between consumers and brands, consumers' racial identification with the brands' spokesperson is less important than the social responsibility attributed to firms by consumers. Similarly, the *CSR process* is found to influence consumers' attitudes and behaviour more than the *Identification Process*. These findings are discussed below.

#### 8.2.3.4 Influences of Both Process on Advertising Effectiveness

As noted in the previous section, the *CSR Process* has more influence on viewers' persuasion process than *Identification Process*. Thus, a multi-racial advertisement is more effective when viewers credit it with social responsibility. Consumers prefer to consume a brand because

they can attribute to its multi-racial advertisement a social sense; *Identification* with one of the actors seems secondary. Several reasons may help to justify the superiority of the *CSR Process*.

Firstly, the concept of *Identification* is more complex than that of *CSR*. Racial *Similarity* is only one element of *Identification* and numerous other causes might be able to explain the activation of this process. Moreover, the composition of the multi-racial advertisement itself complicates the evaluation of racial *Similarity* and *Identification*. Indeed, while racial *Similarity* judgment is specific to one or two actors, the racial mix featured in the multi-racial advertising confuses viewers' judgment of racial *Similarity*. Viewers will provide a global judgment. Consequently, even if a viewer evaluates a strong *Similarity* with an actor from the same racial group, this judgment will be altered by the presence of the other actors from different racial groups. Conversely, the attribution of social responsibility concerns a more global judgment about the entire advertisement. Furthermore, the predominance of the *CSR Process* is consistent with the new South African doctrine of non-racialism, where national unity is emphasised over individual racial identity.

Finally, these findings of this study show that advertisers should thoroughly emphasise the social dimension of their multi-racial advertising rather than accentuate the *Similarity* between viewers and actors. The following section presents the other contributions generated by the results of this study.

## **8.3 Contributions**

This section presents the contributions of the study in terms of conceptualisation, methodology and management.

### **8.3.1 Conceptual Contributions**

Earlier research into multi-racial advertising was concerned only with the way in which consumers attributed a social responsibility component to multi-racial advertising in general. Previous studies have neglected to consider the reactions of consumers to a specific advertisement which integrated both black and white actors. In contrast, this study analyzed the consumers' persuasion process engendered by the exposure to a specific multi-racial advertisement in comparison with the exposure to two mono-racial advertisements. This study

highlighted that viewers attribute slightly more social responsibility to the multi-racial advertisement than to either mono-racial advertisement. Moreover, the intensity of this SR attribution was stronger when the viewer was non-white. This result is consistent with studies which have found that non-white respondents tend to be less sceptical than whites about multi-racial advertising in particular (Basson, 1988; De Kock, 1982). Consequently, this study confirmed the difficulty for advertisers to change attitudes through SR attribution. Although this study acknowledges that leveraging CSR to obtain a commercial return is possible, the integration of the scepticism which negatively valences the construct *SR attributed to the ad* shows, in accordance with the Attribution Theory and numerous studies, that consumer reactions to CSR initiatives are multifaceted and incorporate a duality of motives (e.g. Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Ellen *et al.*, 2006; Forehand and Grier, 2003; Sen *et al.*, 2006).

Furthermore, one of the major contributions of this study concerns the operationalisation of viewers' *Racial attitude*. Similar to the results of Duckitt and Mphuting (1998) and then Gibson (2006), this study confirms that there is no-correlation between individuals' in-group identification and out-group prejudice. Consequently, for the first time in multi-racial advertising research, the *Racial attitude* was operationalised as a bidimensionnel construct consisting of viewers' in-group identification and out-group prejudice, which were mutually exclusive. With regard to this dichotomy, the results confirm that, in an advertising context, viewers' in-group identification merely influences their judgment towards in-group actors, whereas viewers' out-group prejudice merely affects judgement towards out-group actors. Typically, in the case of a multi-racial advertisement, the different levels of viewers' in-group identification and out-group prejudice must be combined in order to analyse accurately the judgement of viewers towards in-group and out-group actors.

Moreover, much of the multi-racial marketing studies compare the results between two racial groups (e.g. black/white, white/Hispanics). However, this study also examines the reactions of a third group consisting of consumers whose racial group is not represented in the multi-racial advertisement (e.g. Indian, Asian, coloured etc.). Indeed, although the comparison between three groups are more difficult to interpret, studies using at least a third racial group have been found as contributing the most significantly to research on ethnicity and race (Brumbaugh and Grier, 2006:44).

The theoretical model developed in this study makes a further contribution by incorporating the component of *Company/brand identification* in the persuasive process of a multi-racial advertisement. The importance of customer intimacy, customer equity and customer relationship management (CRM) is well documented (e.g. Bhattacharya and Sen 2003), and the conceptualization, presented in Chapter 5, will help firms contextualize CSR in developing and maintaining customer relationships. Indeed, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003:76) consider that *Company/brand identification* is the “primary psychological substrate” for marketers who wish to build deep, committed and meaningful relationships with their customers and advertising, as an easily controllable communicator of the brand’s identity can have a profound impact on a company’s identification (Bhattacharya and Elsbach 2005; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003).

The theoretical model also adds to the understanding of how the multi-racial content of an advertisement influences the relationship between a brand and a consumer in two ways. Firstly, in the model, the role of *Company/brand identification* in the *Identification Process* is made explicit, which until now has been implicit in multi-racial marketing research. Indeed, the conceptualization shows that the underlying process of the feeling of compatibility, highlighted by Perkins *et al.* (2000), is the viewers’ identification with the company/brand. Thus, the capacity of corporations to determine the races of actors in an advertisement affords brands an opportunity to create a special relationship with consumers, which leads to greater loyalty (see Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). On the other hand, *Company/brand identification* is a notion well established in the marketing literature as one of the consequences of CSR (e.g. Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2005; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Einwiller *et al.*, 2006; Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2004). The conceptualization confirms that social responsibility attributed to a brand influences viewers’ identification with this brand.

The model is also consistent with the consumercentric approach to CRM developed by Bhattacharya and Sen (2003). They consider that the identification-based relationships between consumers and companies cannot be unilaterally imposed by companies; “they must be sought out by consumers in their quest for selfdefinitional need fulfillment” (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003:76). This conceptualization shows that establishing a strong relationship for a firm using a multi-racial advertisement will be a function of viewers’ *Racial group* and *Racial Attitude*. Typically, brands which use multi-racial appeals should expect greater loyalty from

black viewers, but also from white viewers with a high level of in-group identification and a low level of out-group prejudice.

The integration of the *DMH* into the conceptual model is unique in that it has not been previously used within the context of multi-racial advertising studies. In particular, the incorporation of the *DMH* into the model presented in this study endeavours to explain the psychological processes related to the viewers' exposure to a multi-racial advertisement. Moreover, other results of this study have methodological contributions which are presented in the next section.

### **8.3.2 Methodological Contributions**

The major methodological contribution of this study concerns the creation of a new scale measuring the social responsibility attributed by viewers to an advertisement. This construct conveys the idea that the viewers exposed to a multi-racial advertisement believe that the advertisement is able to shape social and racial harmony in the society. Following the steps of the Churchill paradigm (1979), a 4-item scale was created (i.e. this advertisement is useful to society, this advertisement might help things evolve in the society, this advertisement transmits good values in the society, this advertisement contributes something to society). The Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha = 0.9022$ ), Jöreskog's rho ( $\rho = 0.9027$ ) and convergent validity ( $\rho_{vc} = 0.6993$ ) indicate that this scale is reliable and valid. This justifies that the instrument developed can be used in future research. The construction of this scale answers the need of researchers for psychometric scales measuring the public's attitude to the ethicality of some advertising practices (Hyman *et al.*, 1994). This type of scale, measuring the impact of firms' social behaviour on consumers' beliefs, enables firms to evaluate whether their specific behaviour is perceived positively by the consumer. Consequently, with regards to the results of this scale, firms might decide to maintain, enhance or stop their social initiatives.

The creation of the advertisement stimulus may also be considered as a methodological contribution. First, the selection of pictures already composed of 4 black and white models provided a "natural coherence" between the advertisement models. Indeed, the models could also have been selected separately and then pasted together in the same advertisement. However, this method could have been perceived as "amateurish" by the viewers, and this would have distorted the methodology. Then, the evaluation of the 4 models in the picture separately guarantees that model attractiveness was equal for each model present in the same

picture (i.e. a model was not over-liked when another one was under-liked). Furthermore, the use of the digital technologies, in order to create the mono-racial advertisements after the multi-racial advertisement, is also an important methodological contribution. It enables the researcher to control the vast majority of extraneous variables present in an advertisement. The only difference between the three advertisements was the racial composition. Consequently, the variation in viewers' reaction between the three advertisements is explained only by actors' race.

Furthermore, the use of SEM and its multi-group analysis function are unique as it has not been previously used within the context multi-racial marketing studies. Other results of this study have managerial contributions which are presented in the next section.

### **8.3.3 Managerial Contributions**

The focus of this study on specific advertisements, rather than multi-racial advertising in general, has important implications for practitioners. Although anecdotal evidence may suggest that incorporating actors of different races will broaden the appeal of an advertisement and in so doing improve the effectiveness and the reach of a marketing campaign, the theoretical model suggests that this is a complex process. Advertisers will have to carefully consider such aspects such as the *Racial group*, the *Identification level* and the *Prejudice level* when fashioning an advertisement featuring actors from different races. Failure to have regard for these moderating variables may compromise the ability of the multi-racial advertisement to achieve its objectives. Typically, using out-group actors in advertising in areas reputed as racist could engender a negative backlash on brand sales.

Moreover, this study is of value to advertisers by pointing out the importance of firms' CSR efforts in consumers' purchasing decisions. This framework argues that CSR in advertising need not be merely altruistic, and can have positive economic consequences. This understanding is relevant to firms globally, but particularly relevant in countries such as South Africa, where government imperatives drive the implementation of CSR. If businesses recognize the tangible benefits of practicing CSR in all aspects of business operations, including advertising, as shown by this thesis, this would have the effect of diminishing the need for governments to intervene in economies to redress economic and social imbalances. Specifically, the results highlighted that the *CSR Process* influences the attitude towards the brand and *Purchase intention* more than the *Identification Process* does. Hence, when brands

use a multi-racial advertisement, they should emphasise the CSR characteristic of the multi-racial advertisement. Racial harmony between the models would be more effective than a perfect *Similarity* between the target market and the actors.

Moreover, as discussed in the conceptual contributions (see Section 8.3.1), the results have consequences for CRM actions run by firms. Typically, CRM policy targeting black consumers will be more effective than that towards other racial groups. The racial content of an advertisement influences black consumers more than white or other viewers. Black viewers are more sensitive to the race of the actors featured in the advertisement and are less sceptical towards advertising than other racial groups. In addition, racial group moderated significantly the relationship between the attitude towards the multi-racial advertisement and the attitude towards the brand using this multi-racial advertisement. This path is representative of the effectiveness of an advertisement campaign. Indeed, it represents how the exposure to an advertisement changes attitude towards the brand. Specifically, the more black viewers exhibit a favourable attitude towards the advertisement, the more they have a favourable attitude towards the brand. Hence, the persuasion is more effective with black viewers. Firms which target the black market in particular are likely to create a strong relationship with their target market. However, due to several limits, the generalisation of the results on the managerial action is restricted. The next section presents these limits.

#### **8.4 Limitation**

The main limitations stem from the methodological choices which encouraged to take a certain direction instead of another one. The first limitation concerns the sample. Indeed, the 617 questionnaires were collected in Grahamstown (Eastern Cape); the sample is not therefore representative of the South African population. However, Rhodes University situated in Grahamstown attracts numerous people from all over the country in order to study, lecture or work. Thus, the presence of the university made it possible to interview a sample deemed heterogeneous enough for the purpose of this study. In addition, the collection of many questionnaires in the Township of Grahamstown (Fingo) provided a greater diversity of the sample.

Furthermore, numerous studies recommend selecting an interviewer belonging to the same racial group as the interviewees (e.g. Szybillo and Jacoby, 1974; Webster, 1996; Whittler and

Spira, 2002). Indeed, Webster (1996) found that the respondent ethnicity interacted strongly with interviewer ethnicity, particularly with respect to response and item-response effort rates. Thus, at first both black and white interviewers were selected. However, because of the complexity of the methodology the interviewers resigned after few questionnaires and the researcher himself had to run the survey. He decided to do so because his nationality (i.e. French) and racial group (i.e. mixed race) were not directly linked with the South African racial context. The significant results, highlighting the role of the viewers' *Racial attitude* on their *Similarity* judgment, makes it possible to estimate that the race of the interviewer did not play much of a role in interviewee responses. These results confirm that more than the interviewer's racial group, the relationship between interviewees and interviewer is essential (Nevid and Sta. Maria, 1999).

Moreover, this study lacks in the analysis of the moderational influence of *Racial attitude* (i.e. identification and prejudice levels) on certain paths of the conceptual framework. However, to analyse the moderating influence via the multi-group analysis Evrard *et al.* (2003) recommend at least 200 respondents for each group. This would mean a data of 800 black respondents: 200 high in-group identification and low out-group prejudice; 200 high in-group identification and high out-prejudice; 200 low in-group identification and low out-group prejudice; 200 low in-group identification and high out-prejudice. Similar samples should have been used for white and other respondents. Hence, the final sample would have been 2400 respondents. However, the main goal of this study was to validate the general effects of a multi-racial advertisement through the conceptual framework presented in Chapter 5. In order to validate this type of model, Hair *et al.* (1998) recommend a minimum sample size between 100 and 150 and a maximum size which does not exceed 400 to 500. Hence, although the 360 questionnaires limit the multi-group analyses, there are ideally adequate for intended statistical analysis of the conceptual framework.

The constructs measuring viewers' cognitions (i.e. *Felt targetedness*, *SR attributed to the ad*, *SR attributed to the brand*, *Company/brand identification*) were measured by the means of multi-item Likert scales. Nevertheless, viewers' post-message verbalisation of thoughts would have been a more valid measurement of these cognitions (see Wright, 1973; 1980). In other words, after having viewed the advertisement, participants could have been given 5 min to list their thoughts and ideas about the brand or the advertisement. Two independent researchers would have subsequently categorised these thoughts. However, Ericsson and Simon (1978)

argue that a verbalisation of thoughts in response to pictorial stimuli may be incomplete. Moreover, the threat of incompleteness in verbalisations also grows when subjects are placed under time-pressure conditions (Wright, 1980). In the context of this study, the time-pressure felt by respondents could not be controlled because the interviewer met them without having scheduled an appointment. Hence, the verbalisation and listing of thoughts would have been incomplete. Furthermore, in South Africa where English is mainly a second language (*versus* mother-tongue), the value of gathering subjects' cognitions after exposure to the advertisement via open-ended thought listing procedure (e.g. MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986; Yoon *et al.*, 1995) is questionable. Finally, because of their ease of implementation and completion, the multi-item scales were used to measure viewers' cognition. The next section provides advice for researchers who want to carry out studies in the field of multi-racial advertising.

### **8.5 Recommendations for Future Research**

First, due to the limited knowledge of the influences of advertising's CSR associations available in the literature, this study has chosen to test these effects under conditions that attempt to control for potential threats to internal validity. Consequently, SmoothWriter was a fictitious brand/company name in order to control against prior brand learning. Future research could use real companies in order to enhance the external validity and enable researchers to generalize their results to a larger population of interest. For instance, in the South African context, it could be interesting to identify viewers' reactions to some companies which are accused of benefiting from apartheid policies by exploiting disenfranchised workers (Hamann *et al.*, 2005) as opposed to those that did not. Moreover, several types of products could be used in the survey to enhance the external validity. Different types of products would also afford researchers to study the congruence between a multi-racial advertisement and the type of product advertised. Similarly, this study surveys merely the commercial multi-racial advertising. Future research may attempt to test the validity of this conceptual framework on issue advertising using multi-racial content (see Section 4.3.4). Likewise, the racial relationship within the advertising could be manipulated. Indeed, depicting inter-racial professional, friendship or love relationships is assumed to modify the social responsibility attributed by the viewers and hence the advertising effectiveness.

Furthermore, this study analysed the *Similarity* between the advertisement's viewer and the advertisement's model as essentially racial. However, basing the *Similarity* on racial criteria may be an overly simplistic conceptualization of the situation in South Africa. Indeed, although the end of the apartheid system accelerated the emergence of a black middle class and in so doing diminished inter-racial inequality, it also increased intra-racial inequality (Hamann *et al.*, 2005). Specifically, between 1991 and 2001 the Gini coefficient in the black and white South African groups increased from 0.62 to 0.72 and from 0.46 to 0.60, respectively (Schwabe, 2004). UCT Unilever Institute's (2007) survey shows that 12% of South Africa's black population (i.e. Black Diamonds) account for over half (54%) of all black segment buying power. Hence, considering this growing inequality, the *Similarity* perceived by the viewer with the model/actor (*Similarity*) might not be simply a function of the perceived race of the model/actor (Cui and Choudhuri, 2002). Accordingly, future studies should operationalise *Similarity* as a bidimensional construct. On the one hand, the viewer can perceive the model/actor as similar in terms of demographic elements such as culture/race, (Arpan, 2002; Simons, Berkowitz and Moyer, 1970; Williams, 1992) and on the other hand, the viewer might analyze the *Similarity* in terms of such factors such as socio-economic status, namely ideological or attitudinal similarity (Simons *et al.*, 1970; Williams, 1992). Likewise, the influence of this *Similarity* on viewers' *Felt targetedness* should be analysed in terms of identification but also in terms of internalisation (Kelman, 1958; 1961), as suggested by the rejection of the hypothesis H<sup>7.2</sup>.

Finally, this study focuses mainly on only two racial groups: black and white people. Even if this choice is justified by the history of South Africa, these population groups are not homogenous themselves. Xhosa, Zulu, Pedi, Ndebele and Sotho black people on the one hand, and English- and Afrikaans-speaking people on the other hand, might have different reactions to the multi-racial advertisement. For instance, Enslin (1993) found that Afrikaner respondents rated racially integrated advertisements less favourably than their English-speaking counterparts, and had a more positive attitude towards photographs with models of one race only. Nevertheless, South Africa provides a boundless and rich setting for conducting cross-cultural marketing and advertising research, and testing this model within this context made a valuable contribution to the study of multi-racial marketing.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix 4.1: Example of Issue Advertising – Investec

Investec Bank Limited 1651004763 04 8 Pages

Investment Banking | Asset Management | Treasury & Specialised Finance | Private Client Activities

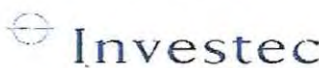
### Empowerment. Showing our true colours.

Our strong entrepreneurial culture is embodied in all our activities, including a commitment to empowerment. This is why our market-leading solutions, born from our long history of financial innovation, are supported by world-class and managed teams. And we have set ourselves apart from our competitors by placing South Africa at our core, with our employees, clients and partners working together with the full support of our Investment Group and the Entrepreneurial Development Bank. Our ongoing transformation and empowerment initiatives are helping to improve the lives of the citizens of South Africa.

[www.investec.co.za](http://www.investec.co.za)

Investec is a member of the Investec Group, which includes Investec Bank Limited, Investec Asset Management, Investec Treasury & Specialised Finance, and Investec Private Client. Investec is a member of the Investec Group, which includes Investec Bank Limited, Investec Asset Management, Investec Treasury & Specialised Finance, and Investec Private Client.

Out of the Ordinary



Source: Freemantle and Rockey (2004:45)

Appendix 4.2: Example of Issue Advertising – Woolworths

# Badger-Friendly Honey

## A Woolworths First

Woolworths' involvement in providing 'badger-friendly' honey to customers is an example of how business is responding to the current sustainability crisis.

Woolworths' involvement in providing 'badger-friendly' honey to customers is an example of how business is responding to the current sustainability crisis.



Three weeks ago, thousands of badgers were kept away from their honeycombs by the use of pesticides. The badgers were kept away from their honeycombs by the use of pesticides.

The badgers were kept away from their honeycombs by the use of pesticides. The badgers were kept away from their honeycombs by the use of pesticides.

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Source: Freemantle and Rockey (2004:97)

## Appendix 6.1: Questionnaire Choice of the Actors

### This survey aims to select the models of a future advertising

#### Some information before starting:

- This questionnaire is strictly **anonymous** and there are no wrong answers; **only your personal opinions matter**.
- Some questions might appear strange or repetitive but please, try to answer them **honestly**
- Please answer the questionnaire without thinking too long about your answer. Also, please complete each page fully as you go and do not turn back to make changes. The questions are designed to get your first, instinctive response to what is being asked.

To answer to this questionnaire: tick the item that fits with your feeling.

### Example:

The chocolate taste is:

If you find the chocolate taste **irresistible**: Tick 3

- Good	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Bad
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If you **like** the chocolate taste **a lot**: Tick 2

- Good	3	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	1	0	1	2	3	- Bad
--------	---	-------------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------

If you **just like** the chocolate taste: Tick 1

- Good	3	2	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	0	1	2	3	- Bad
--------	---	---	-------------------------------------	---	---	---	---	-------

If you are **indifferent** to the chocolate taste: Tick 0

- Good	3	2	1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	1	2	3	- Bad
--------	---	---	---	-------------------------------------	---	---	---	-------

If you **do not like** the chocolate taste: Tick 1

- Good	3	2	1	0	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	2	3	- Bad
--------	---	---	---	---	-------------------------------------	---	---	-------

If you **really do not like** the chocolate taste: Tick 2

- Good	3	2	1	0	1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	3	- Bad
--------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------------------------	---	-------

If you **hate** the chocolate taste: Tick 3

- Good	3	2	1	0	1	2	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- Bad
--------	---	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------------------------	-------

Please, give your opinion on these different models:

**A**



**Model A is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**B**



**Model B is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**C**



**Model C is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**D**



**Model D is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**E**



**Model E is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**F**



**Model F is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

Please, give your opinion on these different models:

**G**



**Model G is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**H**



**Model H is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**I**



**Model I is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**J**



**Model J is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**K**



**Model K is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**L**



**Model L is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

Please, give your opinion on these different models:

**M**



**Model M is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**N**



**Model N is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**O**



**Model O is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

**P**



**Model P is:**

- Warm	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Cold
- Likable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikable
- Sincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Insincere
- Friendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfriendly

Grade these pictures from 1 (unfavourable) to 10 (very favourable)  
Put the grade in the box on the left of the picture

GRADE	
	
	
	
	

**Finally:**

You are...

- Female
- Male

Your age:

Your racial group

- Black
- Coloured
- Indian
- White
- Other :.....(specify)

Your occupation:

## Appendix 6.2: All-black Advertisement

# SmoothWriter



## “Where Is Your SmoothWriter?”



**SmoothWriter** contains anti-microbial technology that protects the pen's surface.



**SmoothWriter**'s patented Lubriglide® Ink System provides smooth writing



The Smooth grip extends along the length of the barrel.

**Appendix 6.3: All-white Advertisement**

SmoothWriter



**“Where Is Your SmoothWriter?”**



**SmoothWriter** contains anti-microbial technology that protects the pen's surface.



**SmoothWriter's** patented LubriGlide® Ink System provides smooth writing



**The Smooth grip extends along the length of the barrel.**

**Appendix 6.4: Multi-racial Advertisement**

**SmoothWriter**



**“Where Is Your SmoothWriter?”**



**SmoothWriter** contains anti-microbial technology that protects the pen's surface.



**SmoothWriter's** patented Lubriglide® Ink System provides smooth writing



**The Smooth grip extends along the length of the barrel.**

Appendix 6.5: Article



tvplus asks a castaway about their participation in the show, gets a few Survivors to dish the dirt about island life, and profiles the second evictee.

part 4

# rats



The two tribes battle it out for immunity

# Survivor

## the chosen ones

Survivor is a worldwide phenomenon and it generates huge fan interest. tvplus asked Bobby, Terry and Bruce about life in the public eye.

What has the fan reaction to your participation been like?

**Bobby:** "Great! The thing is, on this show they edit footage of people to make them seem a certain way in order to tell a story. I've been given the 'angry, antisocial, lazy edit' so the public wouldn't get attached to me. In reality I'm one of the more popular players out there and I'm great friends now with everyone except the few people I'm in conflict with in the game right now. People who meet me in the street and in airports assume I'm a mean, scary, anti-social badass and they're always surprised to find I am down to earth. Of course, I puff out my chest and say, 'Bob Dawg is the Mightiest Being Ever to Walk the Earth!' but it's just tongue in cheek."

**Terry:** "Everyone I've met has been gracious, even if I wasn't their personal favourite. I really love the kids' reactions. Even now I'll be walking through New York City and people will come right up to me and ask if I'm Terry from Survivor."

**Bruce:** "I've been swamped with fan mail from all over. If tvplus readers want an autographed photo, have them send me a self-addressed stamped envelope and a postcard of their city to 180 Park Hill Road, Simi Valley, CA93065, USA."



Reward challenge fights



## Survivor

512 Tuesdays SABC3 19:30

14 Nov: Bruce the eccentric art teacher returns from Exile Island to join the Casaya Tribe. He immediately impacts on his fellow tribesman when he shows them the way to a vital part of their survival. Will his guidance outweigh his eccentricity when the time comes for tribal council? Shane's mood swings continue and creates friction.

21 Nov: Aras, Bruce, and Shane come back to the Casaya camp with food and find their teammates have let the fire go out. The contestants from the Lamina Tribe are on the verge of starvation. Casaya members argue about their work load. One more castaway is sent to Exile Island for three days.

R Saturdays SABC3 13:00

## Appendix 6.6: Questionnaire

### Some information before starting:

- This questionnaire is strictly **anonymous** and there are no wrong answers; **only your personal opinions matter.**
- Some questions might appear strange or repetitive but please, try to answer them **honestly**
- Please answer the questionnaire without thinking too long about your answer. Also, please complete each page fully as you go and do not turn back to make changes. The questions are designed to get your first, instinctive response to what is being asked.

To answer to this questionnaire: tick the item that fits with your feeling.

### Example:

#### The chocolate taste is:

If you find the chocolate taste **irresistible**: Tick 3

- Good	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Bad
--------	-------------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	-------

If you **like** the chocolate taste **a lot**: Tick 2

- Good	3	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	1	0	1	2	3	- Bad
--------	---	-------------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------

If you **just like** the chocolate taste: Tick 1

- Good	3	2	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	0	1	2	3	- Bad
--------	---	---	-------------------------------------	---	---	---	---	-------

If you are **indifferent** to the chocolate taste: Tick 0

- Good	3	2	1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	1	2	3	- Bad
--------	---	---	---	-------------------------------------	---	---	---	-------

If you **do not like** the chocolate taste: Tick 1

- Good	3	2	1	0	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	2	3	- Bad
--------	---	---	---	---	-------------------------------------	---	---	-------

If you **really do not like** the chocolate taste: Tick 2

- Good	3	2	1	0	1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	3	- Bad
--------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------------------------	---	-------

If you **hate** the chocolate taste: Tick 3

- Good	3	2	1	0	1	2	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- Bad
--------	---	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------------------------	-------

An advertisement was present on the document. Do you remember?

- YES
- NO

What PRODUCT was being advertised? (i.e., shoes, soup, clothes etc.)

---

What BRAND was being advertised? (i.e., the name of the product)

---

**Once you have turned this page do not turn  
back to make a change**

What is your overall reaction to the Advertisement for the SmoothWriter pen?

- Favourable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfavourable
- Interesting	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Boring

What do you think about the advertisement for the SmoothWriter pen?

	Disagree completely	Disagree	Partly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Partly Agree	Agree	Agree completely
I feel the advertisement was for people like me							
I believe I was the target for which the SmoothWriter created the advertisement							
The advertiser made the advertisement for people like me							

What do you think about the advertisement for the SmoothWriter pen?

	Disagree completely	Disagree	Partly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Partly Agree	Agree	Agree completely
This advertisement promotes desirable values in our society.							
This advertisement is useful to society							
This advertisement reflects the actual society							
This advertisement might help things progress in the society							
This advertisement transmits good values in the society							
This is a socially responsible advertisement.							
This advertisement is more beneficial to society's welfare than other advertisements.							
This advertisement contributes something to society.							

Have you heard about the SmoothWriter pen before seeing this advertisement?

- YES
- NO

After having seen the advertisement, what is your overall feeling about using a SmoothWriter pen?

- Favourable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfavourable
- Good	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Bad
- Wise	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Foolish

After having seen the advertisement, what do you think about SmoothWriter?

	Disagree completely	Disagree	Partly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Partly Agree	Agree	Agree completely
This a socially responsible brand							
This brand is more beneficial to society's welfare than other brands							
This brand contributes something to society							

After having seen the advertisement, what do you think about SmoothWriter?

	Disagree completely	Disagree	Partly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Partly Agree	Agree	Agree completely
I am somewhat associated with SmoothWriter							
I have a sense of connection with SmoothWriter							
I belong to the group of people who are in favour of SmoothWriter							
Customers of SmoothWriter are probably similar to me							
Employees of SmoothWriter are probably similar to me							
SmoothWriter shares my values							
Being a customer of SmoothWriter is part of my sense of who I am							
Purchasing SmoothWriter pen would help me express my identity							

What is the probability that you buy SmoothWriter pen if it is available in your area?

- Likely	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unlikely
- Probable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Improbable
- Possible	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Impossible

Do you think the Models/Actors in the advertisement are similar to you in terms of?

	Disagree completely	Disagree	Partly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Partly Agree	Agree	Agree completely
Overall lifestyle							
Cultural background							
Dress and appearance							
Basic values							

What do you think about the Models/Actors of the advertisement?

	Disagree completely	Disagree	Partly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Partly Agree	Agree	Agree completely
People whom I want to be like							
My type of people							
People who speak for a group of which I am a member							

**Finally:**

You are...

- Female
- Male

Your age:

Your occupation:

Your Education level:

- Primary school
- High school/College
- Bachelor
- Postgraduate

**Thank YOU**

**PLEASE DO NOT TURN OVER THE PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE  
INSTRUCTED**

## 2<sup>nd</sup> Questionnaire

YOU ARE GOING NOW TO ANSWER TO A  
DIFFERENT QUESTIONNAIRE

It is run for another study to develop a scale for measuring ethnocentrism.

- This questionnaire is **strictly anonymous** and there are no wrong answers;
- Some questions might appear strange, repetitive or offensive but please, try to answer them honestly

Your racial group is:

- Black
- Coloured
- Indian
- White
- Other :.....(specify)

	Disagree completely	Disagree	Partly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Partly Agree	Agree	Agree completely
I am happy to be a member of the racial group I belong to							
I have a strong sense of belonging to my racial group							
I understand pretty well what my racial group membership means to me							
I have a lot of pride in my racial group							
I feel a strong attachment towards my racial group							
I feel good about my racial background							

What do you think about the South African **Black** population?

- Good	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Bad
- Valuable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unvaluable
- Clean	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Dirty
- Favourable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfavourable
- Mature	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Immature

What do you think about the South African **White** population?

- Good	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Bad
- Valuable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unvaluable
- Clean	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Dirty
- Favourable	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Unfavourable
- Mature	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	- Immature

# Thank You

