



Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement

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DECLARATION

I, **TT Mareka**, declare that **GENERATION Y STUDENTS' ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES TOWARDS PRODUCT PLACEMENT** is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references and that this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree at any other university.

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LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

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11 November 2018

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the thesis of

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for the degree

Doctor of Philosophy: Business Management

entitled:

Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement

The responsibility of implementing the recommended language changes rests with the author of the thesis.

Yours truly,



Linda Scott

PREFACE

A special word of thanks to the following persons who have assisted me in completing this study:

- To God who kept me alive despite my life's adversities
- To my mother, Julia Mareka, for her on-going love, support and motivation
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ABSTRACT

Keywords: product placement attitudes, purchase intentions, Generation Y students, South Africa

Over recent years the traditional advertising industry has suffered some setbacks due to media clutter, mass audience fragmentation, a growth in negative consumer attitudes toward traditional advertising as well as their defence against television (TV) advertising by zipping and zapping through the use of digital recording systems. The progressive loss of a passive audience, therefore, has unequivocally challenged advertising professionals to seek more innovative and effective solutions to brand communication strategies and product placement has presented itself as such. Product placement involves brands being placed in various media content such as movies, TV shows, songs, videogames, websites, magazines and/or novels in an effort to create brand awareness, brand association and, ultimately, brand loyalty.

This study endeavoured to explore the use of product placement as an alternative advertising and brand communication tool that has the potential of breaking through the inadequacies of traditional advertising and succeed in the battle to capture an audience's attention and influence their consumption-related behaviour. Various studies have suggested that there are differences in the way in which consumers react to product placement based on various demographic factors, including geographic, cultural and even generational differences. With this in mind, the primary objective of this study was to propose and empirically test a model of the relationships between Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows and the factors of perceived ethics, entertainment, realism, character-product associations and materialism of product placements, as well as attitude towards TV advertising in the South African context. Globally, there are indications that this generation has significant current and future purchasing power and that they exert an influence on the purchasing behaviour of not only their peers but also members of other generations. The focus on university students as a market segment was based on the assumption that a graduate qualification typically correlates to a higher future earning

potential and, consequently, higher future disposable income, rendering them a significantly lucrative target segment.

The sampling frame for the study comprised the 26 public registered higher education institutions (HEIs) situated in South Africa. From this initial list of 26 registered institutions, a judgement sample of three campuses from three HEIs in the Gauteng province was chosen. These included a campus from a traditional university, one from a university of technology and one from a comprehensive university. A convenience sample of 450 students across these three campuses was taken in 2018. Of the questionnaires completed, 397 were usable.

The statistical analysis of the collected data included principle component analysis, descriptive statistical analysis, correlation analysis, canonical correlation analysis and an independent samples t-test. Findings of this study suggest character-product association, perceived entertainment, perceived realism, perceived materialism and, to a much lesser extent, attitude towards TV advertising have a direct positive relationship with dependent variate and perceived ethicality a direct negative relationship and, as such, are predictors of South African Generation Y students' attitudes and purchase intentions toward product placement in movies and TV shows. Furthermore, male and female participants did not differ significantly on any of these dimensions.

The findings of this study contribute to the limited literature available concerning product placement effectiveness in the South African market, with specific reference to the factors that contribute to Generation Y students' positive attitudes and purchase intentions towards product placement. The model developed in the study represents an important tool for predicting Generation Y's attitudes and behavioural responses towards the placements of brands across a range of entertainment content, including but not limited to movies and TV shows in the South African context. The model may also have value in shedding some light for policy makers with regards to the ethical concern and regulatory frameworks around the placement of brands in non-commercial content. Moreover, an understanding in this regard will enable marketers to realise the opportunities presented by product placement techniques in developing markets such as South Africa and thus tailor their brand communication strategies to maximise effectiveness. The study also seeks to shed some light to policy makers with regards to the perceptions of consumers

to the regulation of product placement, thereby making legislative contributions in this regard.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Advertising is a pivotal element of the integrated marketing communication (IMC) mix, with its core focus being on consumer edutainment (Newell et al., 2006:576; Sung *et al.*, 2009:258; Beneke, 2012:1069). However, over the past few decades, mass media advertising was already experiencing problems, with a prognosis that was poor (Rust & Oliver, 1994:71).

These problems facing mass media advertising have been attributed mainly to the developments in new technologies, which have resulted in a subsequent fragmentation of media and mass media audiences, as well as the empowerment of consumers in the form of digital television recording systems (DTRs/PVRs) that allow them to avoid or skip through television (TV) commercials should they so choose (Gupta & Lord, 1998:48; Gould *et al.*, 2000:45; De Gregorio & Sung, 2010; Williams *et al.*, 2011:3; Babacan *et al.*, 2012:1329; Karisik, 2014:254). Consequently, marketers have needed to re-think their brand communication strategies and tactics in an endeavour to interact with their target markets more effectively.

Product placement is receiving increasing attention from both marketing academics and practitioners as an alternative marketing communication technique (Sung *et al.*, 2009:258; Babacan *et al.*, 2012:1329; Beneke, 2012:1069; Karisik, 2014:253). Product placement, used synonymously with brand placement/branded entertainment, may be defined as any “paid inclusion of branded products or brand identifiers through audio and/or visual means within mass media programming” (Balasubramanian, 1994:30; Karrh, 1998:31). That is, product placement involves brands being placed in various media content such as movies, TV shows, songs, videogames, websites, magazines and/or novels in an effort to create brand awareness, brand association and, ultimately, brand loyalty.

Despite product placement having only gained in popularity in the 1980s, product placement is certainly not a new phenomenon as the first reported product placement is claimed to have been in 1896 through the placement of Unilever’s Sunlight Soap in the

early Lumiere programmes (Newell *et al.*, 2006; Sung *et al.*, 2009; Kozary & Baxter, 2010; Williams *et al.*, 2011; Soba & Aydin, 2013). The practice was revolutionised in 1982, following the success of the Reese's Pieces placement in the Spielberg's 1982 movie, E.T. Following the success of product placements in this movie, brand marketers became more enthusiastic about associating their brands with successful entertainment movies and programmes. Furthermore, the practice has gained a new frontier through the use of digital product placement as commercial messages can now be inserted digitally even after the production of the entertainment content, thereby reinforcing product placement as the future of TV advertising (Williams *et al.*, 2011:3; PQ Media, 2018).

Morton and Friedman (2002:34) point out that even though product placement and brand placement are used synonymously, a more realistic term should be brand placement, especially since it is brands that are placed and not products per se. Notwithstanding this, product placement is the more commonly used term and the one that will be used throughout this study.

Even though product placement is said to have existed for many years, academic interest in the topic has only recently sparked given marketers need to break through the ever-increasing advertising clutter (Babacan *et al.*, 2012:1320). The significance of academic research around the topic of product placement is highlighted by Karrh (1998:31-32), who indicates that the process of product placement has become big business in practice and asserts that this topic presents an interesting, yet challenging area of research. It is worth noting that the practice of product placement carries with it social as well as legal implications (Gupta & Gould, 1997:38; Karrh, 1998:32; Sung *et al.*, 2009:258; Al-Kadi, 2013:1).

According to Cowley and Barron (2008:91), automobile (motorcar) manufacturing companies are the heaviest users of various product placement strategies, with companies such as Austin Martin, BMW and Mercedes Benz featuring in movies such as the James Bond series as well as General Motors in movies such as the Transformers. This may be attributed to the size and financial muscle the automobile industry possesses. Other prominently placed product categories include computers, cellular phones and other technological devices, apparel and accessories, food and beverages, travel and leisure, as well as travel and entertainment (Williams *et al.*, 2011:4).

Notwithstanding the recently growing popularity around the topic of product placement by research academics, Gould *et al.* (2000:43) point out that four aspects of empirical research continue to remain noteworthy:

- There is still an insufficient number of studies in this regard that exist.
- Those that exist do not converge, which, consequently, renders many issues unexplored, and therefore require further validation and generalisation.
- Previous studies typically focus attention on only a few measures of effectiveness.
- Research emphasis has stayed uneven across the message effectiveness studies thus far, as the majority of research in this regard has focused primarily on memory-related measures such as brand recall and recognition.

Similarly, in a comprehensive review of 20 years of product placement effectiveness literature through 73 academic works that focused on movies, TV shows and video games, Karisik (2014:253) point out that the majority of studies focus on memory-related measures and attitudinal measures; however, other non-memory related measures remain significantly scarce because developments in the product placement industry outpace research. This creates gaps in the literature and opportunities for further research.

Figure 1-1, taken from the movie *Taken 2*, released in 2012, illustrates a basic example of product placement by Mercedes Benz, which was awarded top spot for overall product placement in 2013 by appearing in 29.4 percent of Hollywood's top movies (Sauer, 2013). The brand was prominent in numerous other top movies, including *Think Like a Man*, *Act of Valor*, *Argo*, *21 Jump Street*, *Skyfall* and *Transformers*.



Figure 1-1 Example of product placement

Source: Sauer (2013)

Product placement has become an important element of the modern day brand communication strategy. Sung *et al.* (2009:257) indicate that in 2006 alone, the worldwide spending on movie-based product placement stood at \$885.1 million. According to PQ Media (2018), global product placement revenues, including paid placements in TV, movies, online and mobile platforms, videogames, music, and other media, rose at twice the rate of overall advertising and marketing revenues in 2017 to exceed \$100 billion for the first time ever.

Examples of the marketing advantages offered by product placements include the appearance of Reese's Pieces products in the 1982 movie *E. T.*, which resulted in a significant increase in sales (Karrh *et al.*, 2001:5). In addition, the Royal Doulton bulldog figurine that appeared in the Bond movie, *Skyfall*, sold out quickly after the movie was released. Similarly, shaving goods retailers reported over 400 percent sales increase for 'cut-throat razors' after this Bond movie. Furthermore, the brand that was reported to have received the highest exposure was that of Macallan whisky, which appeared in several scenes and was even called out by name as one of James Bond's particular favourites. The estimated value of Macallan's appearance in *Skyfall* was \$8.98 million (theatrical

value) and a further \$473,647 in (DVD/ Digital) and \$256,667 (future broadcast airings) (Sauer, 2013).

Along with its increased popularity, the practice of product placement has attracted a great deal of criticism from various consumer groups abroad (Morton & Friedman, 2002:35). Critics argue that consumers are being manipulated and unduly influenced by the practice because of its covert nature (Sung *et al.*, 2009:260). The rationale of the argument is based upon the notion that product placement uses subliminal advertising messages, which, in turn, can influence consumer attitudes towards the attitude object without any caution exercised by consumers upon exposure to the placement (Morton & Friedman, 2002:36).

The increasing use of product placement, along with the frequent criticism this brand communication method attracts, necessitates an in-depth understanding of how consumers react to this marketing practice. Although various studies show a more positive consumer attitude towards product placement (Gupta & Gould, 1997; Sung *et al.*, 2009; Babacan *et al.*, 2012:1320; Morton & Friedman, 2012:35), in their cross-cultural analysis of consumer attitudes towards product placement, Gould *et al.* (2000:43) argue that product meanings are a cultural phenomenon and that consumers may react differently to product placement depending on their socio-demographic characteristics. With this in mind, this study focuses on attitudes towards product placement in the South African context.

The conceptual framework for this study is derived from the almost inexhaustible literature on attitudes towards advertising in general. Studies in this regard have reported attitudes towards advertising in general to affect attitudes towards the advertisement and, in turn, attitudes towards the advertised product or brand (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986:130). Similarly, attitudes towards product placement are posited to affect attitudes towards the placement itself and, in turn, the product or brand placed (Nebenzhal & Secunda, 1993:6; Sung *et al.*, 2009:261).

The present study aims to propose a conceptual framework that measures the Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows. A focus will primarily be on the South African TV and movie audience as

studies indicate that these media remain the most important in product placement studies (Gupta & Gould, 1997; Gould *et al.*, 2000; Morton & Friedman, 2002; Balasubramanian *et al.*, 2006; Sung *et al.*, 2009; Williams *et al.*, 2011; Soba & Aydin, 2013; Karisik, 2014). In a seminal study of 1012 Generation Y students and their perceptions of product placement's acceptability in movies, Gupta and Gould (1997) identified several factors influencing attitudes towards product placement, which have been utilised in many subsequent studies such as Gould *et al.* (2000), Sung *et al.* (2009), Morton and Friedman (2002) and so on.

Unfortunately, Gupta and Gould (1997) did not propose a formal framework on how consumers react to placements, but rather looked at perceptions of their ethicality. Moreover, no attitudinal measures were correlated with behavioural responses as Morton and Friedman (2002:34) assert that behavioural response is perhaps the most important indicator of product placement effectiveness. This study will therefore modify and extend upon the study by Gupta and Gould (1997) by formally proposing an empirical model that measures South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

Based on the preceding literature, various factors are reviewed to influence placement attitudes. These factors include perceived product placement ethics, realism, attitude towards TV advertising, character-product association, materialism, perceived entertainment and purchase intentions.

The following section discusses the problem statement as well as proposes a model that comprehensively examines the antecedents that affect product placement attitudes and behaviour.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The youth represent an important current and future market segment (Wolburg & Pokrywcznski, 2001:33; Kueh & Voon, 2007:657; Rahman & Azhar, 2011:93; Bevan-Dye, 2016:5; Canavan, 2018:184). According to generational research, the youth of today are labelled Generation Y (Market, 2004:21). Markert (2004:21) defines Generation Y as comprising individuals born between 1986 and 2005, which in 2018 would include individuals aged between 13 and 32 years.

According to the South African mid-year population estimates, in 2018 approximately 35 percent of South Africa's population was classified as members of Generation Y (Statistics South Africa, 2018). The university student portion is of particular interest to marketers given that a graduate qualification typically correlates to a higher future earning potential and, consequently higher future disposable income, rendering them a significantly lucrative target segment (Wolburg & Pokrywcznski, 2001:33; Kueh & Voon, 2007:657; Rahman & Azhar, 2011:93; Bevan-Dye, 2016:5; Canavan, 2018:184).

The literature notes that the Generation Y segment is the most highly sought after segment by marketers as they are heavy consumers of entertainment media (Sung *et al.*, 2009:258; Williams *et al.*, 2011:2; PQ Media, 2018). However, studies have also reported that it has become increasingly difficult for marketers to reach members of this cohort (Gould *et al.*, 2000:43) given the increase in media clutter, audience fragmentation and the new technologies that give consumers, especially the digital technology astute Generation Y individuals, greater control over what advertisements to be exposed to, and the amount thereof. In one study, two-thirds of American consumers were reported to cut the sound during commercials, change channels or even skip them as they found them irrelevant (Williams *et al.*, 2011:3). Evidence points to the fact that given the decline in traditional advertising effectiveness and the potential of product placement as a substitute thereof, further research is needed to explore the viability of product placement and how the Generation Y market respond to it.

Even though the amount of the academic literature pertaining to product placement has grown significantly in recent years, many questions still prevail. Gould *et al.* (2000:43) voiced a concern about the lack of consistencies in existing empirical results. Moreover, Balasubramanian *et al.* (2006:116) highlight that the preoccupation of such studies is mainly with cognitive measures of placement effectiveness, while Morton and Friedman (2002:35) lament the lack of sufficient measures of behavioural outcomes in placement effectiveness research.

Furthermore, most studies on product placement focus mainly on three areas of research; that is, the effectiveness of product placement (Gupta & Lord, 1998:53; Lehu & Bressound, 2008:2), attitudes towards product placement (Nebenzahl & Secunda, 1993:2; Gupta & Gould, 1997:38; Karrh *et al.*, 2001:5; Schmoll *et al.*, 2006:34; Sung *et*

al., 2009:259) as well as the acceptability of product placement (Nebenzahl & Secunda, 1993:2; Gibson & Maurer, 2000:1459; Gould *et al.*, 2000:42; Fam *et al.*, 2006:38). In addition, Cholinski (2012:14) criticises the fact that the results from product placement effectiveness studies are mostly laboratory based, which raises concerns with regards to the validity and generalisability thereof, especially given the un-natural nature of experimental research studies, the subsequent forced exposure, small samples scales, heightened levels of involvement and so on.

It is therefore evident that more empirical research on the effectiveness of product placement as well as consumer response thereof is still needed. The present study aims to contribute to the existing body of literature in this regard in an attempt to shed light particularly on the South African Generation Y context. Based on a preliminary literature review, the study aims to propose and empirically test a model of the antecedents affecting South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placements in movies/TV shows.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives were formulated for the study.

1.3.1 Primary objective

The main purpose of this study was to propose and empirically test a model of the relationships between Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows and the factors of perceived ethics, entertainment, realism, character-product associations and materialism of product placements, as well as attitude towards TV advertising in the South African context.

1.3.2 Theoretical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives were formulated for the study:

- Conduct a review of the literature on the conceptualisation of advertising.
- Review the available literature on the advertising market.

- Review the literature on consumer attitude formation and change.
- Conduct a literature review on the consumer attitudes towards advertising.
- Conduct a review of the literature regarding Generation Y.
- Review the literature on product placement in the context of movies and TV shows.
- Review the literature on the potential factors influencing attitude towards product placements and intentions to purchase placed brands.
- Propose a model of the relationships between the factors of perceived ethics, entertainment, realism, character-product associations and materialism of product placements, as well as attitude towards TV advertising, and South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

1.3.3 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the primary objective of the study, the following empirical objectives were formulated:

- Determine South African Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies/ TV shows.
- Determine South African Generation Y students' intentions to purchase placed brands.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived ethics of product placements in movies/ TV shows.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived entertainment value of product placements in movies/ TV shows.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived realism of movies/ TV shows' content containing product placements.
- Determine Generation Y students' attitude towards TV advertising.
- Determine Generation Y students' character-product associations of product placements in movies/ TV shows.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived materialism-inducement of product placements in movies/ TV shows.

- Empirically test a model of the relationships between the factors of perceived ethics, entertainment, realism, character-product associations and materialism of product placements, as well as attitude towards TV advertising, and South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows.
- Determine whether there are any statistically and practically significant differences between male and female Generation Y students' attitude towards TV advertising, and their perceived ethics, realism, character-product association, materialism, entertainment and attitude towards product placement, as well as their purchase intentions towards such products.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

In accordance with the empirical objectives of the study, the following two hypotheses were formulated:

H₀1: The correlations between all possible linear combinations of the multivariate dependent variables of South African Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows, and purchase intentions towards such products, and the independent variables of their general attitude toward TV advertising, their perceived ethicality, perceived realism, character-product association, perceived materialism and perceived entertainment value of product placements are zero.

H_a1: There is at least one combination of the multivariate dependent variables of South African Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows, and purchase intentions towards such products, and the independent variables of their general attitude toward TV advertising, their perceived ethicality, perceived realism, character-product association, perceived materialism and perceived entertainment value of product placements.

H₀2: There is no statistically or practically significant difference between male and female Generation Y students' attitude towards TV advertising, and their perceived ethics, realism, character-product association, materialism, entertainment and attitude

towards product placement, as well as their purchase intentions towards such products.

H_{a2}: There is a statistically and practically significant difference between male and female Generation Y students' attitude towards TV advertising, and their perceived ethics, realism, character-product association, materialism, entertainment and attitude towards product placement, as well as their purchase intentions towards such products.

In the following section, the research design and methodology used within the study is outlined.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study provides both theoretical as well as empirical evidence on how consumers react to product placement tactics. A descriptive research design was followed for the empirical component of the study.

1.5.1 Literature review

As a background and foundation to this study, a review of the literature from local and international sources on product placement attitudes was undertaken. The secondary data sources that were reviewed were from textbooks, business and newspaper articles, as well as academic databases.

1.5.2 Empirical study

The empirical methodology of this research project is briefly described in the following sections.

1.5.2.1 Target population

The relevant target population that this study focused on included Generation Y university students aged between 18-24 years who, during 2018, were registered at South African public higher education institutions (HEIs). The target population was defined as follows:

- Element: Full-time undergraduate Generation Y students aged between 18 and 24 years.
- Sampling unit: South African registered public HEIs
- Extent: South Africa, Gauteng
- Time: 2018

1.5.2.2 Sampling frame

Given the target population, the sampling frame comprised the 26 registered South African public HEIs (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2018). In order to narrow this initial sampling frame, the judgment sampling technique was used to select three HEI campuses located in South Africa's Gauteng province – one traditional university campus, one comprehensive university campus and one university of technology campus. The focus on the Gauteng province in this study was because this province has the highest percentage of South Africa's 26 registered public HEIs' campuses (Bevan-Dye & Surujlal, 2011:49; Statistics South Africa, 2018).

1.5.2.3 Sample method

For the main survey, a single cross-sectional of Generation Y university students was drawn using the non-probability convenience sampling technique. In an effort to compensate for the known limitations of the convenience sampling method, several demographic questions, such as age, province of origin and gender were added to the questionnaire. The purpose of these demographic questions was to provide information concerning the degree to which the sample reflected the specified target population.

1.5.2.4 Sample size

A sample size of 450 tertiary students was selected for the research project. This sample size may be likened to other studies that have focused on product placement attitudes such as Morton and Friedman (2002:36) (N=132), Hernandez *et al.* (2004:77) (N=315), Lee *et al.* (2011:366) (N= 471), and as such, the sample size is deemed sufficient. More importantly, the sample size satisfies the requirement of 10 responses per variable for principle component analysis and canonical correlation (Hair *et al.*, 2010:102&243). The

sample of 450 full-time tertiary students was divided equally between the three HEI campuses, with a sample of 150 per campus.

1.5.2.5 Measuring instrument and data collection method

For the study, a structured, self-administered questionnaire was developed to gather the relevant primary data. Prior works on product placement attitudes were reviewed to construct a scale for this study. The questionnaire comprised items measured along a six-point Likert-type scale, with one being “strongly disagree” and six being “strongly agree”.

The majority of items were adopted from the scale developed by Gupta and Gould (1997:38), which measures the realism enhancing attributes of product placement (5 items), perceptions of product placement ethics (8 items), its perceived material influence on consumers (4 items) as well as attitudes towards advertising on TV (4 items). An additional scale was constructed from the prior product placement literature, which comprises eight items intended to measure character-product association. Moreover, a three-item scale measuring perceived entertainment was adopted from (Hernandez *et al.*, 2004:77). Finally, the last two scales forming the endogenous variables of this study were attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows (3 items) as well as purchase intentions (4 items). These scales were adopted from Tan and Chia (2007:357) as well as Morton and Friedman (2002:38).

The instrument also included a section on the participants’ demographical profile as well as their media consumption habits. Furthermore, the instrument included a cover letter that described the nature of the study and provided relevant contact details.

The instrument was examined by two experienced researchers to establish its face validity and further analysed by four academics with marketing experience to ascertain its content validity. Next, the instrument was piloted on a convenience sample of 50 Generation Y students who were not included in the main study in order to ascertain its reliability. The reliability was tested using the Cronbach alpha, where the guideline for the overall scale and sub-scale inter-item correlation is 0.6 or above (Malhotra, 2010:319).

Lecturers at each of the three campuses included in the sampling frame were contacted and asked to allow their students to complete the questionnaire during lectures. The lecturers were informed that the questionnaire was to be completed on a voluntary basis only. The hand-delivered, self-administered questionnaires were distributed to the full-time Generation Y undergraduate students during class time at each of the three campuses in 2018.

1.5.2.6 Statistical analysis

The captured data was analysed using the statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25.0 for Windows. The following statistical methods were used on the empirical data sets:

- Frequencies
- Principle component analysis
- Internal-consistency reliability and construct validity analysis
- Collinearity diagnostics
- Descriptive statistical analysis
- Canonical correlation analysis
- Independent-samples t-test
- Cohen's D-statistic.

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics are an important consideration in any empirical research project, including those in the field of marketing research. This research project strove to meet all of the ethical conventions typical for academic research projects. Amongst the most important conventions adhered to in this project were ensuring voluntary participation in the study and the protection of the identities and interest of the sample's participants, and treating the information supplied by the participants as confidential.

In addition, before embarking on the data collection stage of the study, the questionnaire and an overview of the research methodology that was to be followed was evaluated by North-West University's Ethics Committee in order to ensure that the measurement instrument and intended target population presented a low risk; that is, the target

population was not deemed as a vulnerable segment and that the questionnaire did not sensitive information to be supplied by participants. Both the questionnaire and the proposed research methodology met with the Committee's standards and the research project was assigned the following ethical clearance number: **Econit-Econit-2016-059**.

1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

The study focused on 18- to 24-year old Generation Y tertiary students, registered at South African public HEIs in 2018. This study's sampling frame included campuses from three public HEI campuses situated in South Africa's Gauteng province.

1.8 CLARIFICATION OF THE TERMINOLOGY

- Generation Y: people who were born between 1986 and 2005
- Product placement: Refers to the paid insertion of a brand within an entertainment content for advertising purposes
- Attitudes: Refers to the individual's overall feelings towards an object
- Behavioural response: Refers to individuals' behaviour with respect to products seen on TV shows or in movies

The following section outlines the chapter classification of this thesis.

1.9 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

This thesis includes the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

This chapter featured the introduction and background to the research study. It included an outline of the problem statement, the primary, theoretical and empirical objectives of the study, and an overview of the research methodology that was utilised in addressing the objectives of the study. This chapter concluded with the organisation and structure of the research study.

Chapter 2: Consumer attitudes towards advertising

In this chapter, a detailed literature review on consumer attitudes is conducted, with a primary focus on various structures of attitudes. In addition, the chapter includes a review of the literature concerning attitude formation and attitude change. Furthermore, the relevant literature on attitude models will be reviewed primarily focusing on attitude towards advertising models.

Chapter 3: Product placement and Generation Y

This chapter provides a conceptualisation of Generation Y in general, together with a profile of the South African Generation Y. Furthermore, the chapter provides a detailed review of the literature on product placement in terms of its definition, industry growth, objectives, strategies, as well as factors that influence attitudes towards product placement.

Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

Chapter 4 includes a discussion of the questionnaire design, preparation, coding and distribution. Furthermore, the target population, sampling frame, sampling method and sample size are described. The data analysis and statistical procedures utilised within the study are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 5: Results and findings

This chapter comprises the study's findings, which were analysed and interpreted. The statistical analysis findings discussed in this chapter include frequencies and percentages, principle component analysis, reliability and validity measures, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients, collinearity diagnostics, canonical correlation and an independent samples t-test.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

In Chapter 6, there is a review of the entire study and the conclusions observed from the study. In addition, the recommendations emanating from the findings of the study are discussed in this chapter. Proposals for further research are also given within the chapter.

1.10 GENERAL

- Annexures are located in the end matter of the thesis
- Tables and figures are placed on the relevant pages throughout the thesis
- Where no source reference appears for tables and figures, it refers to own research
- Referencing was based on the 2014 version of the NWU referencing guide: Harvard style.

1.11 CONCLUSION

Chapter 1 provided an introduction and context of product placement. The chapter highlighted the significance of the product placement technique as an alternative brand communication tool, especially in the face of the declining effectiveness of traditional TV advertising. Moreover, the chapter briefly outlined the compelling advantages associated with product placement as well as the size of the industry.

In addition, the prior literature on product placement research was highlighted, with specific reference to the gaps that continue to prevail in the literature, thereby necessitating further research in this regard. The prior literature suggests that the effectiveness of brand communication tools is to be evaluated on the basis of its influence on consumers' behavioural responses to those strategies. This study aimed to measure product placement effectiveness on the basis of how South African Generation Y students respond to such promotional tactics in the context of movies and TV shows.

In addition, this chapter highlighted the importance of Generation Y as a market segment, especially on the basis of its size, future earning potential, current spending power and the fact that it is the highest consumer of entertainment media. There is, therefore, no doubt that brand marketers need to have a deeper understanding of this cohort for segmenting purposes. This consequently suggests the need to understand the consumer behaviour of this target segment further.

Chapter 2, therefore, discusses the concept of consumer attitudes in detail. This will focus on prior literature of attitude formation and change. Various attitude formation models will also be discussed, with specific attention to attitude towards advertising models.

CHAPTER 2

CONSUMER ATTITUDES TOWARDS ADVERTISING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Advertising is the most important element of an organisation's marketing communication strategy as advertisements can reach mass audiences with a single marketing communication message (Belch & Belch, 2004:3). Advertising is a part of the marketing communication mix (along with personal selling, sales promotions, sponsorships, direct marketing and publicity) and is used to persuade a targeted audience to take or continue a certain action, usually concerning a market offering, or a political or ideological issue (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:450). The aim of commercial advertising is typically to increase the consumption of products or services through branding, which involves creating an association in the minds of consumers between a product/service name or image and certain positive qualities (Aaker *et al.*, 2004:3).

The demise of traditional advertising has been foretold since the 1990s after the realisation that digital age was here to stay. Early research into advertising's effectiveness yielded results suggesting negative attitudes by consumers towards advertising, supported by evidence into the declining profits of advertising agencies, as well as a growth in digital advertising spend by marketers around the globe (Zanot, 1984:5). Notwithstanding this argument however, statistics show that traditional advertising continues to thrive to date, long after critics have predicted its obsolescence as a brand communication tool (Hanekom & Scriven, 2002:50). This may be attributed to the fact that some researchers believe that advertising will gradually evolve into a hybrid form or context, rather than disappearing completely (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016:335)

Indeed, the purpose of advertising over the years has been to influence consumers' perceptions of the marketed brand through persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986:2). In the contemporary world, advertising seems to be everywhere and is ever present. This omnipresence of advertising exerts a far-reaching influence in the daily lives of consumers, and in developing self-concepts in order to induce purchase decisions. In 2009, a typical consumer was said to be exposed to over 5000 marketing messages daily (Keller, 2009:141).

The advent of new technologies has broadened the scope of advertising from print media to broadcast media and then, since the early 1990s to the Internet. Moreover, other marketing communication tools such as direct mail, telemarketing, product placement, publicity and social media marketing have become commonplace (Jin & Lutz, 2013:344). Consequently, media clutter and mass audience fragmentation has seen an increase in advertising scepticism, a decline in traditional advertising effectiveness as well as a resultant growth in negative consumer attitudes towards traditional advertising (Gupta & Lord, 1998:48; Gould *et al.*, 2000:45; De Gregorio & Sung, 2010:84; Babacan *et al.*, 2012:1329).

Owing to media clutter, marketers have had to seek more innovative ways of disseminating persuasive commercial content in order to gain consumers' all-important attention. This has given rise to various other new media advertising platforms in addition to the traditional above-the-line advertising. The focus of this present study is on exploring the concept of product placement as an alternative advertising platform available for advertisers to pursue to attract consumer attention to advertising messages and, in turn, change consumer attitudes, since attitude change is one of the many objectives of advertising (Kotler & Amstrong, 2010:551).

Chapter 1 marked out the purpose of this study, which was to propose and empirically test the model of the Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement and how these attitudes influence their consumption-related behavioural intentions. Theoretical and empirical objectives were also highlighted as well as the research design and methodology. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on consumers' attitudes towards advertising, with the purpose of addressing the first four theoretical objectives formulated in Chapter 1. This will focus more in-depth on a review of the literature on consumer attitudes. This will include discussions on the concept and structure of attitudes, various attitude formation and change theories, as well as the various structural attitude models deemed relevant for the establishment of the theoretical underpinnings of this study. The chapter begins with the definition and conceptualisation of advertising, and a brief overview of the advertising market.

2.2 DEFINITION AND CONCEPTUALISATION OF ADVERTISING

Advertising as an institution has long been considered a salient economic and social force. Supporters of advertising view it as a “capitalistic virtue, facilitating the free market economy and promoting consumer welfare” (Mittal, 1994:35). In contrast, its critics perceive it to have many sins, “ranging from economic waste to purveying of harmful products, from sexism to deceit and manipulation, from triviality to intellectual and moral pollution” (Pollay & Mittal 1993:101). More than two decades have passed since Zanot (1984:5) and Rust and Oliver (1994:73) predicted the death of advertising, especially in the advent of the shift in negative attitudes by consumers towards advertising, a decline in profits for advertising agencies, as well as the realisation that digital/new media was here to stay. Support of these predictions continues to exist, even in recent years among some researchers (Rust, 2016:346; Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016:335). Despite this, however, Hanekom and Scriven (2002:335) argue that advertising will not become obsolete, but rather evolve into a more hybrid form of brand communication tool. This has, to a large extent, fuelled the necessity to redefine advertising in order to encapsulate the era in which advertising operates. This section endeavours to address this issue, as suggested in recent literature.

Indeed, the advertising of today differs significantly from that of 20 years ago as new media spending patterns and advertising formats and changes in consumer behaviour have changed the advertising landscape, thus calling for a re-conceptualisation of advertising. Richards and Kurran (2002:74) had formulated a standard definition of advertising as “a paid, mediated form of communication from an identifiable source, designed to persuade the receiver to take some action, now or in the future”. This definition was still in use a decade later as Kotler and Keller (2012:21), still define advertising as “a paid form of non-personal, one-way marketing of persuasive information from an identified sponsor, disseminated through channels of mass communication to promote the adoption of goods, services or ideas”. Answering recent calls for a new definition of advertising, Dahlen and Rosengren (2016:334) propose an updated working definition of advertising (which will also be the definition used in this study), as “brand-initiated communication intent on impacting people.”

Eisend (2016:353) supports this conceptualisation, pointing out that it takes into account the recent changes in media formats, consumer behaviour and advertising effects, as such a definition can advance thinking around the field of research. In addition, Dahlen and Rosengren (2016:334) provide a comprehensive and sophisticated conceptual dissection of the current definition of advertising and clearly indicate which elements of the definition are obsolete and in need of refinement. Their conceptualisation was supported by empirical evidence collected in two studies, from both academia and practice, thereby providing further credence to such a conceptualisation.

The history of advertising dates back to the beginning of civilization, with hawkers using word-of-mouth advertising to announce and promote their goods for sale, and merchants spreading awareness of their art and goods by roaming from town to town. Naturally, over time it has evolved from simply informing people about products and services to becoming a highly sophisticated and personalised tool of persuasion, from being restricted to print media to being available on digital media platforms, followed by interactive social media platforms and mobile short message services (SMS) (Kumar & Gupta, 2016:303). Moreover, Schultz (2016:278) points out that what began as the simple activity of a vendors attempting to attract potential buyers and convince them to purchase their wares has evolved into a ubiquitous collection of, *inter alia* public relations, product placements, social media, talking characters, content marketing, direct selling, timed coupons, some of which represent traditional marketing communication and others new digital marketing communication. Nevertheless, moving through various stages of advertising and media platforms, advertising appears to have come full circle by arriving right back at the word-of-mouth promotion stage (Kumar & Gupta, 2016:3.4; Chu & Kim, 2018:2-3). No doubt that the concept of advertising will continue to evolve, especially with marketers now having to contend not only with the digital advertising era, but now also with the IoT (Internet of Things) era as well (Aksu *et al.*, 2018)

Notwithstanding reports regarding the progressive decline in the effectiveness of traditional advertising (Ogilvy & Mather, 1985:63; Muehling, 1987:34; Andrews, 1989:28), marketers have tried to stay relevant through various innovative platforms and techniques to use to push their messages across to potential customers and seize their attention. Nevertheless, despite the calls for change in the role of advertising, especially in the

advent of new media, Percy *et al.* (2016:4) argue that the role of advertising does not change. The next section looks at the global advertising industry to establish an understanding of the economic worth and significance of advertising as a marketing communication tool.

2.3 OVERVIEW OF THE ADVERTISING MARKET

The institution of advertising has long been said to play a significant role in any market's economy as well as society at large by earlier research, see (Bauer & Greyser, 1968). The positive economic impact of advertising can be realised in the way advertising changes the economic value of products, educates consumers about products and services, as well as helps raise the standard of living in communities through continued education regarding various social issues such as health and safety. Advertising, in addition, can be argued to play an important role through its financial contribution to any economy, as well as the employment opportunities it presents. Despite its social and economic benefits, however, advertising has also long come under heavy criticism since the 1980s for moral pollution and promoting materialism, among others (Reid & Soley, 1982:4). Strasburger *et al.* (2013:958) caution about the negative impact of both traditional media as well as new media especially on children and the youth as these segments are most vulnerable to commercial content consumed through various media types including social networks.

The advertising market is a multibillion-dollar industry, with its total market share expected to grow 4.1 percent to reach US\$557 billion in 2018 (ZenithOptMedia, 2018). According to eMarketer (2018), North America remains the world's largest advertising market, having risen 6.6 percent in 2017 to reach US\$232.48 billion and the region's 37 percent share of global media spend is said to be fuelled by its mobile advertising market. This is followed by Asia-Pacific at US\$210.43 billion, which is expected to account for 33.5 percent of the global advertising expenditure and it is said to be the fastest-growing region, with its 10.7 percent growth rate driven mainly by China, which has 45.5 percent of the regional advertising market. Advertising spending in Latin America is expected to grow 8.7 percent to reach US\$38.04 billion in 2018. Although several markets in this region faced economic challenges in 2018, key elections in these countries and the FIFA World Cup (hosted in Russia) are expected keep the advertising market resilient.

TV was the dominant advertising medium between 1996 (when it overtook newspapers with a 37 percent market share) and 2016 (when it attracted 35 percent of total advertising expenditure). The Internet appears to have overtaken TV to become the largest advertising medium. Looking at the advertising market as a whole, TV's share peaked at 39.1 percent in 2012, fell to 34.1 percent in 2017 and is estimated to reach 31.2 percent in 2020, its lowest share since 1981 (ZenithOptmedia, 2018). Figure 2-1 illustrates the global share of advertising expenditure by medium between 2017 and 2020.

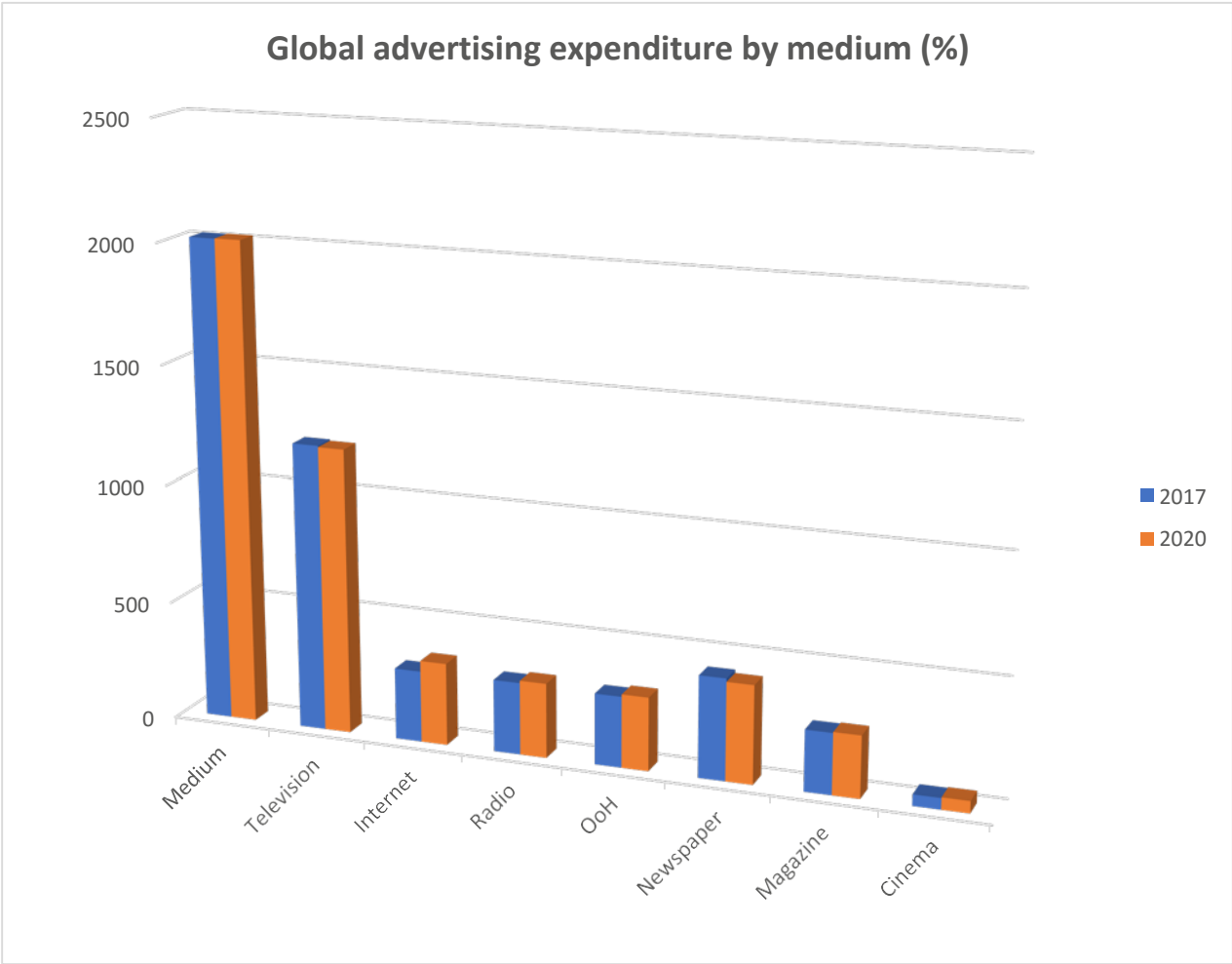


Figure 2-1 Global share of advertising expenditure by medium

Source: ZenithOptmedia (2018)

From the data in Figure 2-1, it can be noted that if audio-visual advertising is considered as a whole (TV plus online video), then it can be deduced that audio-visual is in fact consolidating its dominant share of display advertising. While TV offers incomparable capacity to build reach, online video offers more exact targeting and the potential for

personalising marketing communication messages. Both represent powerful tools for establishing brand awareness and associations. This potentially presents attractive future prospects for product placement as an alternative way to revitalise such media.

According to Bratt (2018), advertising spending figures were hard to pin down and even harder to forecast future trends for the African continent, including South African markets. The author claim that the level of accurate measurement of advertising spending was largely negated by the fact that while some countries could accurately measure broadcast media, it was not the case with other media such as print and out-of-home, as was the case with economies like Angola who had very little measurement techniques in place. The South African advertising market is said to have contributed US\$3.1 billion in 2018, accounting for less than a percentage of the global advertising market (Statista, 2018). Figure 2-2 illustrates advertising spending in South Africa from 2016 to 2018, broken down by medium.

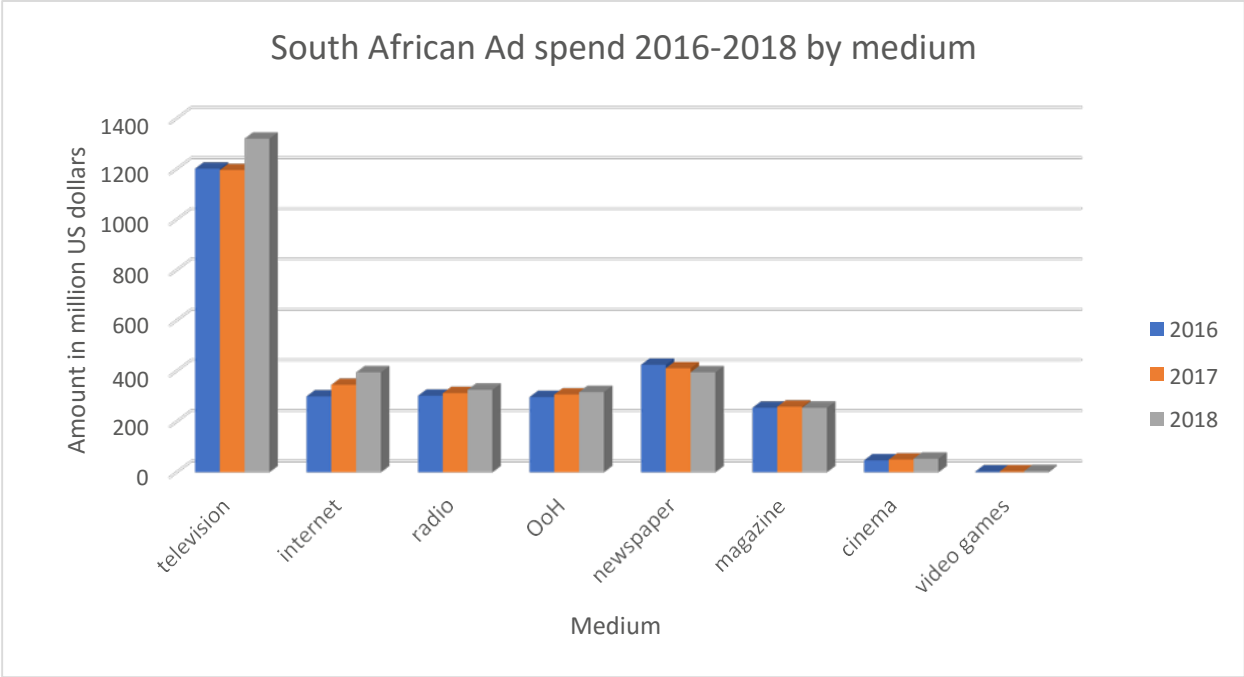


Figure 2-2 South African advertising spend 2016-2018 by medium

Source: Statista (2018)

Despite the fast growth in Internet advertising since 2016, TV advertising remains the largest medium used by South African advertisers to date (Moerdykon, 2018). Between 2017 and 2018, the five advertisers who spent the most on advertising has remained

relatively constant. Shoprite come out top both years, while Clientele Life and Unilever SA were both in the top five. SABMiller and ABSA moved into the top five in the last year, and Outsurance Insurance and Coca-Cola SA were both featured the previous year, but dropped out of the top five (Bratt, 2018).

In light of this study focusing on attitudes, the following section defines and conceptualises attitudes.

2.4 DEFINITION AND CONCEPTUALISATION OF ATTITUDES

Attitudes have long been considered a concept central to social psychology, with early academics having defined social psychology as “the scientific study of attitudes” (Thomas & Znaniecki, 1918:2). The definitions of attitudes have changed over time, as prior definitions were broad and included cognitive, affective, motivational and behavioural elements. According to Allport (1935:810), attitudes are a “mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive and dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to objects and situations with which it is related”. Krech *et al.* (1962:35) later redefined attitudes as “an enduring organisation of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to aspects of an individual’s world.” The concept of attitudes was consequently reduced to its evaluative component and defined as simply “likes and dislikes” (Bem, 1970:14). The definition by Eagly and Chaiken (1993:1) also became quite compelling when they defined attitudes as “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour”.

Indeed, social psychology, dictates that the concept of attitudes be used to refer to a general, enduring positive or negative feeling towards an individual, object or issue (Petty *et al.*, 1981:847). O’Donohoe (2001:92) add that attitudes can be viewed as a positive, a negative, or a mixed reaction to a particular object, thereby pointing out the potential mixed feelings consumers may experience with regard to an attitude object.

In the consumer behaviour context, the term attitude refers to “a learned predisposition to behave in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object” (Lutz *et al.*, 1983:533). Solomon *et al.* (2012:2) point out that anything that a consumer has an attitude towards can be referred to as an attitude object; therefore, in

the marketing context, an attitude object can be operationalised as “a specific consumption- or marketing-related construct such as product, product category, brand, service, possession, product use, cause or issue, person, advertisement, Internet site, price, medium, and so on”.

Attitudes are hypothetical constructs given that they are not directly observable. As such, they can only be measured by asking direct questions or by observing behaviour (Betsch *et al.*, 2004:252). This suggests that if a consumer consistently purchases a product and recommends it to friends and family, then it is possible to infer that the consumer has a positive attitude towards the brand. In conducting attitudinal studies, therefore, researchers tend to be object specific.

In addition, it is relevant to note the distinction between explicit attitudes vis-à-vis implicit attitudes, whereby the former are a conscious set of beliefs that can guide behaviour, and the latter are a set of subconscious beliefs that can still influence consumer decision making (Ajzen, 2011:1121).

According to earlier research by Olson and Mitchell (1975:250), consumer behaviourists have used the concept of attitude for a variety of applied purposes, including predicting consumer choice behaviour (Bass & Talarzyk, 1972:95; Ginter, 1974:32), as a market segmentation basis (Myers & Alpert, 1968:15; Mitchell, 1974:1053), as a criterion for measuring advertising effectiveness (Greene & Stock, 1966:15; Shimp, 1981:10; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989:49) and as an explanatory construct in theoretical models of consumer behaviour. Moreover, consumer psychology researchers have focussed on three dimensions of attitudinal studies, namely attitude strength, accessibility and ambivalence.

Attitude strength refers to the extent to which an attitude is resistant to change and influences an individual's cognitions and behaviour. A strong attitude is that which an individual holds firmly and that influences his/her behaviour. Attitudes that are salient to people also tend to be strong. Another point of interest is that people tend to have stronger attitudes about things, events, ideas or people when they have considerable knowledge and information about those things, events, ideas or people (Krosnick & Petty, 1995:9)

Attitude accessibility refers to the degree of ease to which an attitude is activated from memory (Solomon *et al.*, 2012:31). When attitudes are more accessible from memory they tend to be more predictive of behaviour and are more stable across time. Moreover, attitude accessibility influences what messages consumers pay attention to, and how they process those messages (Fazio *et al.*, 1986:281).

In contrast, attitudinal ambivalence refers to the extent to which “an attitude object is evaluated positively and negatively at the same time or the ratio of positive and negative evaluations that make up that attitude” (Jonas *et al.*, 2000:37). The ambivalence of an attitude is said to increase as positive and negative evaluations reach equilibrium. Furthermore, O’Donohoe (2001:93) and Tan and Chia (2007:353) point out that there is much ambivalence about consumers’ attitudes towards advertising, depending on the media/platform being examined. It is therefore important to understand the structure of consumer attitudes before an in-depth literature review is carried out. This is discussed in the next section.

2.5 STRUCTURE OF CONSUMER ATTITUDES

The purpose of attitudes is fundamentally to evaluate objects so that consumers can quickly decide whether to associate themselves with the object positively or negatively, and consist of affective, cognitive and behavioural components (Olson & Mitchell, 1975:249). This tripartite conceptualisation of attitudes has been said to have many unique benefits (Triandis, 1971:66) despite other criticisms, particularly with regards to its operational difficulties as earlier pointed out by some authors (see Chaiken & Stangor, 1987).

The first component is the cognitively-based attitude, which comprises a consumer’s cognitions. This is the knowledge and perceptions that an individual acquires through a combination of direct experience with the attitude object and related information from various sources (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999:26). This knowledge and consequent perceptions typically manifest beliefs. In other words, “the consumer believes that the attitude object possesses various attributes and that specific behaviour will lead to specific outcomes” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975:890; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977:888).

Wilkie and Pessemier (1973:30) concluded that the dominant explanation of attitude formation and change throughout the 1960s and 1970s was based on cognitive factors, whereby there was a general acceptance of belief-based models such as the various versions the expectancy-value model and multi-attribute utility models. Fishbein and Middlestadt (1995:181) attest that these models all tend to view attitudes as a function of beliefs and the values or utilities associated with these beliefs.

Consistent with the above notion, therefore, it was assumed that attitude change required a change in the consumer's underlying cognitive structure; that is, changing a consumer's beliefs about the object and/or in the evaluative aspects of these beliefs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977:888; Fishbein & Middlestadt, 1995:181). This however was only until the 1980s, when the cognitive based attitude formation and change concepts were challenged with the distinctions between two types of persuasion through the works of among others, Petty and Cacioppo (1986:5) as well as Chaiken and Stangor (1987:599), which will be reviewed in detail later in this chapter.

Conversely, the affectively-based attitude component comprises a consumer's emotions or feelings about a particular object and such emotions and feelings are often treated as primarily evaluative in nature by consumer researchers. This component captures a person's direct or global assessment of the attitude object such as the extent to which the consumer rates the advertisement as favourable or unfavourable, good or bad (Aronson *et al.*, 2010:5).

Affectively-based experiences also manifest as emotionally charged states such as happiness, sadness, shame, disgust, anger, distress, guilt or surprise. Research findings suggest that such emotional states may enhance or amplify positive or negative experiences, and that later recollections of such experiences may influence what comes to mind and how the individual acts (Batra & Ray, 1986:235; Derbaix, 1995:471).

According to social psychology literature (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), affective-based attitudes stem from a variety of sources including values (for example, religion and culture), sensory reactions (for example, not liking chocolate) and conditioning (for example, classical and instrumental conditioning). In addition, it is worth noting that the pure affect models have long been criticised for their operational problems as the

cognitive element constantly appears in the measurements of such models (Olson & Mitchell, 1975:250).

Lastly, behaviourally-based attitudes refer to a person's likelihood or tendency to undertake a specific action or behave in a particular way with regard to the attitude object. This is the conative component and may include actual behaviour. In marketing and consumer research, this conative component is generally treated as an indication of a consumer's intention to buy, and purchase intention scales are used to measure the likelihood of a consumer purchasing a product/service or behaving in a certain way towards the product/service. Moreover, Aronson (2010:5) asserts that behaviourally-based attitudes stem from people's observations of how they behave toward an attitude object. This line of thinking is consistent with Bem's (1972:3) self-perception theory, which posits that under certain circumstances, people may not know how they feel, until they see how they behave.

The next section of this chapter reviews some of the relevant theories, frameworks and models that explain the theoretical underpinnings of how attitudes may be initially formed or subsequently changed.

2.6 THEORIES OF ATTITUDE FORMATION AND CHANGE

Research on attitude formation and change has received a great deal of attention over the years since the introduction of the concept by Thomas and Znaniecki (1918:2), and expounded upon by Allport (1935:810), such that some researchers in social psychology have come to a conclusion that the topic of attitudes formation and change has become the central focus of consumer behaviour research (Petty *et al.*, 1983:136). In the same spirit, Olson and Mitchell (1975:251) previously cautioned that ignoring or side-stepping the basic conceptual issues underlying attitude formation and change, as well as the related topic of attitude structure (discussed in the previous section) may lead to several problematic issues which are clearly evident in the consumer research literature, particularly in the areas of communications/advertising research and attitude models.

Therefore, given that attitudes have long been a primary criterion measure of advertising effectiveness, necessity demands that an examination of the theories of attitude formation and change be conducted, as this may provide insights regarding the effectiveness of

persuasive communications (such as in this case, product placement). An understanding in this regard would be useful to both marketing management and other regulatory agencies as product placement presents both managerial and legal implications. It is important to note that no persons are born with an attitude, and although enduring, those attitudes are not cast in stone either. Therefore, how consumer attitudes are initially formed and how they may be changed are two closely related phenomena in consumer psychology, as they are pertinent to marketing academics and practitioners. A lack of appreciation in this regard would result in marketers not being able to understand or even influence consumer attitudes and behavioural responses towards their market offerings.

By definition, attitudes are learned predispositions (as alluded to in Section 2.4); therefore, several consumer-learning theories provide key insights as to how attitudes initially may be formed. Vakratsas and Ambler (1999:27) propose that direct personal experience, along with the influence of the ideas and experiences of friends and family members and exposure to mass media, facilitates attitude formation. Bian and Forsythe (2012:1444) add that it is likely that an individual's personality also plays a major role in this attitude formation.

There is endless literature on the many models and theories of attitude formation and change in social psychology, behavioural psychology and consumer psychology. However, the discussion in this section will pay greater attention to the models deemed most prominent in the attitude formation and change literature. These will include the theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour, as well as the elaboration likelihood model of persuasion.

According to Betsch *et al.* (2004:251), the 1930s witnessed numerous models of attitude formation and change, which generally subscribed to the general cognitive processes such as the classical and operant conditioning theories. Cognitive theorist in this domain argued that attitude formation and change should be seen as an active, cognitive process involving understanding and elaboration of persuasive information such that judgements and behaviour are argued to primarily reflect thinking and reasoning, rather than automatic operations. The theory of reasoned action proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) is a classical illustration of such line of theorising.

The theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour are discussed in the next section.

2.6.1 The theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour

According to the theory of reasoned action, attitude formation is a result of explicit deliberation involving the anticipation and weighted integration of valued results associated with an attitude object (Ajzen, 2011:1114). The fundamental assumptions of this model are borrowed from subjectively expected utility theory (Edwards, 1954:259) which itself was based on Von Neumann and Morganstern's (1944) economic theory. The theory of reasoned action was deemed a comprehensive theory of the interrelationship among attitudes, intention as well as behaviour. Developed by Ajzen (1991:180), the model proposes that an individual's "behavioural intention depends on the person's attitude about the behaviour and subjective norms".

The primary premise of the theory holds that people are rational and that reasoning is the core consequence of behavioural intention (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000: 5; Bestch *et al.*, 2004:253). This, therefore, suggests that to apply the theory of reasoned action, it is assumed that people behave in a rational way and that their actions are not based on spontaneity, but rather on a systematic premeditation. Furthermore, the theory of reasoned action distinguishes between the attitude toward an object and an attitude toward a behaviour.

According to the attitude-behaviour consistency theory, individuals may not always behave in a manner that is consistent with their attitudes for various reasons (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977:888). Whilst an individual consumer may have a positive attitude towards an Austin Martin product placement in a James Bond movie for instance (attitude towards the object), that particular consumer may not necessarily harbour similar attitudes towards the purchase of the product (attitude towards behaviour) due to various reasons such as affordability among others.

Miller (2005:172) outlines the three components of the theory of reasoned action as attitudes (the sum of beliefs about a behaviour weighted by evaluations of these beliefs),

subjective norms (beliefs regarding the social desirability of the behaviour) and behavioural intentions (perceived likelihood to perform the behaviour), in an illustration of how the constructs can be measured. This is depicted in Figure 2-3.

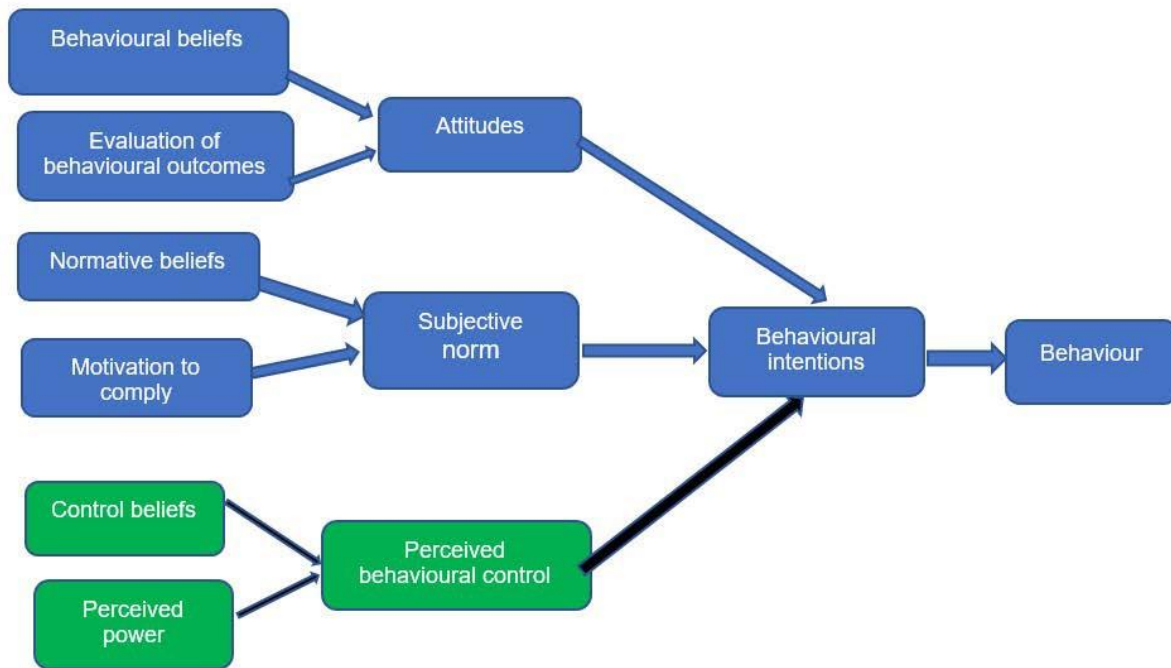


Figure 2-3 Theory of planned behaviour

Source: Ajzen (1991:189)

In Figure 2-3, the upper blue section of the model depicts the theory of reasoned action, while the rest of the figure represents the theory of planned behaviour.

According to Sheppard *et al.* (1988:325), the theory of reasoned action had justifiably received considerable attention within the field of consumer behaviour as not only did it seem to predict consumer intentions and behaviour quite well, it also provided a relatively basic premise for identifying where and how to target consumers' behavioural change attempts. In addition, after the realisation of the model's shortcomings, Ajzen (1991:180) revised and extended the model to the theory of planned behaviour. The limitations put forth by Sheppard *et al.* (1988:325) included the distinction between goal intention and behavioural intention. According to Sheppard *et al.* (1988:325), people may have an intention to act in a particular way, yet, due to various reasons end up acting in a different way.

Another limitation pointed out by Sheppard *et al.* (1988:325) was choice among alternatives. The presence of choice may significantly alter the nature of the intention formation process and the role of intentions in the performance of behaviour. Therefore, a consumer may have an intention to purchase a specific brand of a motor vehicle, yet due to his/her financial position may end up purchasing a cost effective alternative mode of transportation. In addition, the role of intention and behavioural performance was deemed to be another limitation, as the inability to carry out the intention would likely result in no correlation between intention and behaviour. Furthermore, the last challenge with the theory of reasoned action was the difference between intention and expectation (Hausenblas *et al.*, 1997:36).

The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:180) was a subsequent extension of the theory of reasoned action, which then led to the inclusion of one major predictor (perceived behavioural control), to the existing model. This addition was made to account for times when people have the intention of carrying out a behaviour, but the actual behaviour is negated because they lack confidence or control over behaviour (Miller, 2005:127). The theory of planned behaviour postulates that individuals are likely to have increased behavioural intentions if they believe that they can perform a given behaviour successfully (Ajzen, 1991:181). Increased perceived behavioural control is thus a combination of self-efficacy and controllability previously proposed by Bandura (1977:191). "Self-efficacy refers to the level of difficulty that is required to perform the behaviour, or one's belief in their own ability to succeed in performing the behaviour", whereas controllability/perceived power refers to the outside factors, and one's belief that they personally have control over the performance of the behaviour (Rodgers & Gauvin, 1998:1016). This suggests that if a person has high perceived behavioural control, then they have an increased confidence that they can perform the specific behaviour successfully.

The theory of planned behaviour has received considerable attention in the literature with citations of over 4 550 by the year 2010 and found to have the highest scientific impact score amongst the United States and Canadian social psychologists (Lee, 2010:366). With this popularity, however, came a great deal of criticism, as many researchers tend to question the predictive validity of the model (Ajzen 2011:1113). In a quantitative

integration and review of 185 independent studies published up to the end of 1997 for instance, Armitage and Conner (2001:471) concluded that the theory of planned behaviour accounted for 27 percent and 39 percent of the variance in behaviour and intention, respectively, while the perceived behavioural control construct accounted for significant amounts of variance in intention and behaviour, independent of theory of reasoned action variables. The authors further noted that when behaviour measures were self-reports, the theory of planned behaviour accounted for 11 percent more of the variance in behaviour than when behaviour measures were objective or observed (R^2 s = .31 and .21, respectively). It can thus be argued that, the major drawback of the model is the fact that it relies heavily on self-reported measures of behaviour, which tend to lack validity as compared to more objective/observed measures of behaviour.

Furthermore, Ajzen (2011:1115) concedes that even when all the theory of planned behaviour measures are assessed, they contain measurement error and despite the best scale measurements, a reliability coefficient of 0.75 or 0.80 is rare. The author further points that these measures often yield a correlation of around 0.60 on average. In addition, another finger has been pointed at the theory of planned behaviour's correlation between intention and behaviour. Results in this regard vary significantly; however, the temporal distance between the measured intentions and the behaviour observed has been identified as the main variable moderating this relationship (McEachan *et al.*, 2011:144). It thus stands to reason that the longer the time between intentions measures and behaviour observations, the less significant the predictive reliability of behaviour and vice versa (Conner *et al.*, 2000:469). While a general view of a poor predictive validity exists with respect to the theory of planned behaviour's ability to differentiate behaviour from intentions, Ajzen (2011:1115) attributes this low correlation to the respondent's ability to override or inhibit impulses.

Moreover, the theory of planned behaviour has often been criticised of being too rational and not considering the affective and emotional components of human psychology (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000:15). This concern is said to be based partly on the erroneous perception that the theory posits a rational person who is unaffected by emotions and partly on the standard methodology that is typically used to operationalise the theory's constructs (Sheppard *et al.*, 1988:325; Sniehotta *et al.*, 2014:2). However, Ajzen (2011:1116) argues

that while the theory of planned behaviour “emphasises the controlled aspects of human information processing and decision making, there is no assumption in the theory of planned behaviour that behavioural, normative and control beliefs are formed in a rational, unbiased fashion or that they accurately represent reality”.

Finally, suggestions have been made to explore the prospect of adding one or more factors to the theory of planned behaviour model to increase the amount of explained variance in the intentions or behaviour construct (Conner & Armitage, 1998:429). Ajzen and Fishbein (2000:3) caution, however, that additional predictors to the model must only be considered after careful deliberation and empirical exploration and proposed the following criteria in this regard:

- “As with the existing predictors in the theory, the proposed variable should be behaviour-specific, conforming to the principle of compatibility. This means that it should be possible to define and measure the proposed factor in terms of the target, action, context and time elements that describe the behavioural criterion.
- It should be possible to conceive of the proposed variable as a causal factor determining intention and action.
- The proposed addition should be conceptually independent of the theory’s existing predictors.
- The factor considered should potentially be applicable to a wide range of behaviours studied by social scientists.
- Lastly, the proposed variable should consistently improve prediction of intentions or behaviour if it is to be made part of the theory”.

Notwithstanding the subsequent criticism, the theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour have no doubt made a significant contribution to attitude formation literature as their popularity over the years bares evidence.

The next section looks at the elaboration likelihood model as another pertinent theory explaining consumer attitude formation and change.

2.6.2 Elaboration Likelihood Model of persuasion (ELM)

The scepticism around human rationality emerged in the 1970s subsequent to the introduction of the heuristics and biases programme and the subsequent empirical evidence amassed suggested that individuals utilise basic judgment heuristics instead of systematic and deliberative modes of information processing (Nisbett & Ross, 1980:2). Owing to these findings, the dual process models such as Chaiken (1980:141), and Petty and Cacioppo (1986:6) were necessitated (Betsch *et al.*, 2004:252). The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion (ELM), is a dual process model that describes how attitudes form and change. The model seeks to explain various processes of processing information. According to the ELM, there are two routes to persuasive communication, namely the central route to persuasion as well as peripheral route to persuasion (Petty *et al.*, 1983:136). Figure 2-4 below is a simple representation of the ELM.

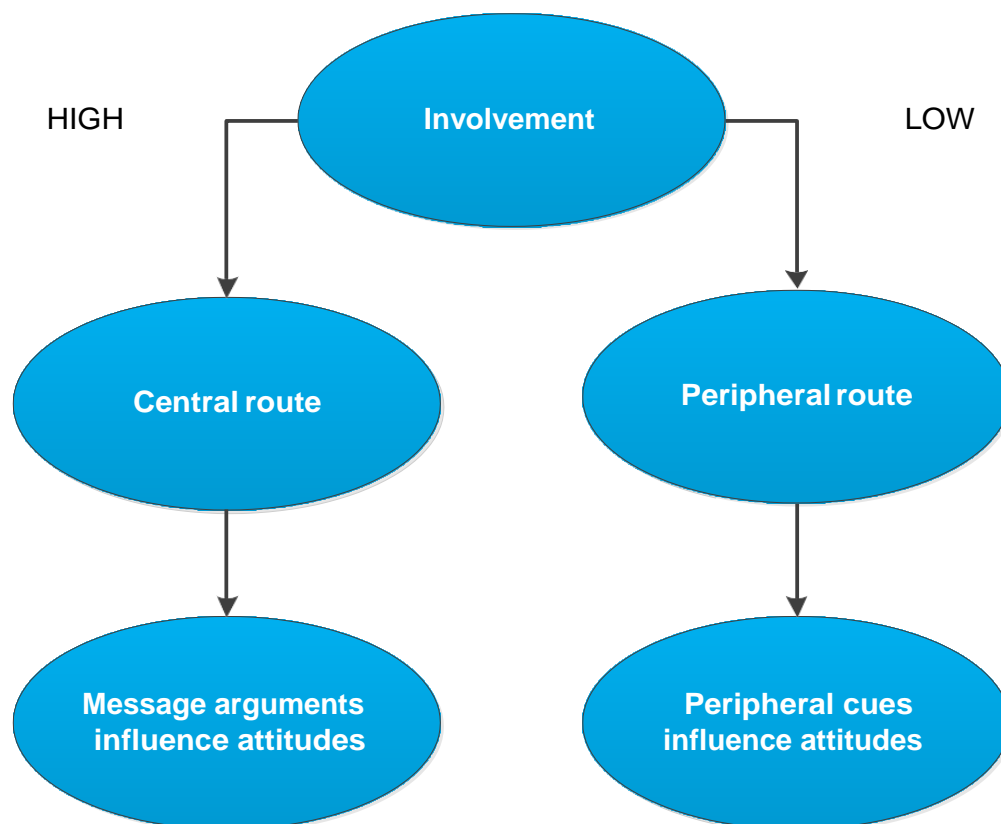


Figure 2-4 The ELM model

Source: Petty and Cacioppo (1986:10)

The central route to persuasion is proposed to likely result from an individual's careful and thoughtful consideration of the true benefits of the information presented in support of an attitude object (Petty *et al.*, 1983:139). Moreover, the central route entails a high level of message elaboration in which a significant amount of cognition about the arguments are generated by the individual receiving the message and the resulting attitude change will be relatively enduring, resistant and predictive of behaviour (Duane, 1999:41).

In contrast, the peripheral route to persuasion results from an individual's association with positive or negative cues in the stimulus or making a simple inference about the merits of the advertised product (Kruglanski & Van Lange, 2012:225). The cues received by the individual under the peripheral route are generally unrelated to the logical quality of the advertised product and typically involve factors such as the credibility or attractiveness of the sources of the message, or the production quality of the message (Miller, 2005:129). It can thus be argued that a product placement advertisement uses the peripheral route to persuasion since a typical placement does not focus on the strong message argument *per se*, but rather on the presentation of the brand on set, or the subtle TV character endorsement of the placed brand.

The ELM is based on the two most influential factors that affect which processing route a message recipient uses, namely motivation and ability (Petty *et al.*, 1983:139; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986:5). Motivation refers to the individual's desire to process the message and the extent of motivation, in turn, is affected by attitude towards the message, personal relevance as well as the individual's need for cognition (Kunda, 1990:482). The ELM further posits that a person's motivation is affected by the message's personal relevance, thereby suggesting that, consumers are likely to elaborate on the message that relates to their current circumstances (Petty *et al.*, 1983:135). In addition, regardless of the message's personal relevance, some individuals take pleasure in cognitive thinking which may also affect the extent of their motivation to elaborate on a persuasive message (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986:5).

The second determinant of the ELM's route is the individual's ability to process the persuasive message. This includes the availability of cognitive resources such as the presence or absence of time pressures or distractions, and the relevant knowledge

required to evaluate the message argument (Miller, 2005:129). Distractions such as channel surfing during advertisements on TV can affect a person's ability to process a message (Williams *et al.*, 2011:2). Moreover, cognitive busyness, which can also serve as distractions, inhibits an amount of cognitive resources otherwise available for the elaboration (Griffin, 2012:205). Another factor of ability is a person's knowledge of the relevant subject. Although one may not be distracted nor cognitively busy, their insufficiency in knowledge can limit them from engaging in high involvement elaboration (Petty *et al.*, 1983:135).

Kruglanski and Van Lange (2012:224-245) delineate the four essential concepts to the elaboration likelihood model of persuasion:

- First, according to the ELM, when an individual encounters some form of communication, he/she can process this communication applying varying levels of thought (elaboration), ranging from a low degree of thought (low elaboration) to a high degree of thought (high elaboration).
- Secondly, according to the ELM, there are different psychological processes of change that operate to varying degrees as a function of an individual's level of elaboration. Relatively little thought is required on the lower end of the continuum processes, including classical conditioning and mere exposure. In contrast, on the higher end of the continuum, relatively more thought is required, including expectancy-value and cognitive response processes. An individual is said to be using the peripheral route when lower elaboration processes predominate and the central route when higher elaboration processes predominate.
- Thirdly, according to the ELM, how consequential the resultant attitude becomes depends on the degree of thought used in a persuasion context. Therefore, attitudes that are formed through central route processes tend to persist over time, resist persuasion, and be influential in guiding other judgments and behaviours to a greater extent than attitudes formed through low thought, peripheral route processes.
- Lastly, according to the ELM, any given variable may have multiple roles to persuasion, including acting as a cue to judgment or by biasing the direction of

thought about a message. The ELM assumes that the specific role by which a variable operates is determined by the extent of elaboration.

The ELM has been applied in various fields including advertising, marketing and consumer behaviour (Petty *et al.*, 1983:135) and has proven to be the theory that could offer an explanation on attitude change that most researchers could not.

The next section of this chapter turns its attention towards advertising as an attitude object in order to fulfil the theoretical objectives of this study as set out in Section 1.3.2 of the previous chapter.

2.7 STRUCTURE OF ATTITUDE TOWARDS ADVERTISING (AG)

Numerous studies have been conducted globally over the years on attitudes towards advertising in general (AG), in an attempt to understand advertising effectiveness (Larkin, 1977; Pollay & Mittal, 1993; Mehta & Purvis, 1995; Eze & Lee, 2012). Many of these studies point out that attitudes towards advertising is an important construct for further examination as it is an important and valid predictor of advertising outcomes. It is therefore not surprising that this construct is a reoccurring topic in advertising research to date as it remains an important construct to consider in theoretical explanations of advertising effectiveness (Jin & Lutz, 2013:343).

AG has been posited to predict consumers' level of involvement or engagement with advertisements during exposure (James & Kover, 1992:80). Moreover, the construct has been postulated to be an underlying determinant of the attitudes toward specific advertisements (Lutz 1985:46), advertising attitudes, in turn, affect brand attitudes (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986:130; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989:51). In addition, AG has also garnered significant academic attention because of its implications for public policy initiatives especially those aimed at protecting consumers from the negative effects of advertising (Mittal, 1994:5).

According to Zanot (1984:5), consumer attitudes toward advertising were mixed during the 1960s and showed a downward trend since the 1970s. In contrast, Shavitt *et al.* (1998:7) reported different findings claiming that consumers' attitudes were in fact more favourable than previous data had suggested. These contradictions had been previously

attributed to, amongst others, incorrect theoretical conceptualisations for operational ease (Olson & Mitchell, 1975:250). On the other hand, O'Donohoe (1995:250) point out that these attitudinal ambivalences depend on the type of media being examined. Evidently, it can be argued that the fundamental problem with the measurement of attitude towards advertising rests with the definition of the concept (Tan & Chia, 2007:360; Dianoux *et al.*, 2014:87).

AG is not specific, so that a type of selection bias is likely to occur when consumers respond to advertising attitudes measurement scales. Jin and Lutz (2014:345) argue this selection bias is not random, but rather systematic, as consumers may perceive certain types of advertising as more typical (more likely to be advertising) and others as less typical (less likely to be advertising). The authors further argue that this often leads to selection bias in that the most typical type of advertising is activated as top-of-mind when attitudes are being assessed, which, in turn, affects the observed results.

Notwithstanding other preceding studies, the seminal work by Bauer and Greyser (1968) is considered the most comprehensive that focused on the topic of AG. Numerous studies have since then adopted, replicated, modified and extended upon the structural model such as, *inter alia* Larkin (1977), Sandage and Leckenby (1980), Reid and Soley (1982), Muehling (1987), Andrews (1989), Pollay and Mittal (1993), Mehta and Purvis (1995), Shavitt *et al.* (1998), Mumusamy and Wong (2007), Eze and Lee (2012) to gain more understanding on how consumers react to advertising in general.

Based on the Bauer and Greyser (1968) conceptualisation, therefore, this study defines attitudes toward advertising in general as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner toward advertising in general (Lutz, 1985:53; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989:51). Pollay and Mittal (1993:101) add that such attitudes can be predicted by beliefs about advertising, which can be described as specific statements about the attributes of an attitude object. This is consistent with the previous contextualisation by Ajzen and Fishbein (1977:888) that a belief is an expressed likelihood that an "object" (such as product placement) possesses or is associated with an "attribute" (such as, entertaining or manipulative). This, therefore, suggests that a belief must be combined with an evaluative factor before it can be said to represent an attitude and that studies that undertake to investigate consumer attitudes toward a

specific object are basically dealing with beliefs about that particular object (Muehling, 1987:33).

The study by Bauer and Greyser (1968) assessed beliefs and attitudes about advertising systematically as a two-dimensional construct. Their study proposed that the construct can be better understood as comprising two major dimensions. AG is made up of the institutional component as well as instrumental component, whereby the institutional component has been operationalised as the social and economic functions that society has assigned to the institution of advertising while the instrument component has been operationalised as the executional qualities and inadequacies of advertising's instrument (Sandage & Leckenby, 1980:30).

Moreover, apart from the structural attitude model proposed by Lutz (1985:50) where he posits that AG is an antecedent to attitude towards the advertisement, extensive research has examined the structural attitude models mainly in terms of the belief dimensions forming attitudes towards advertising. These dimensions have been classified into two levels of attitudinal beliefs referred to as specific beliefs as well as generalised beliefs of advertising (Tan & Chia, 2007:354-355).

Nevertheless, O'Donohoe (1995:250) previously concluded in a comprehensive study, that reviewed both American and British research on attitude towards advertising. Despite different dimensions found or terminologies used to describe the various dimensions, a consensus could be reached that AG comprises two levels of attitudinal beliefs, namely personal experience of advertising and the macro level type of beliefs.

O'Donohoe (1995:251) further marked out the personal experience dimension of advertising beliefs as comprising items such as perceptions of advertising's entertainment and information value, attitudes towards advertising in different media and for different products, wariness of advertising's persuasive or manipulative qualities as well as perceptions of its repetitive nature.

In addition, for the belief dimensions regarding the institution of advertising, O'Donohoe (1995:250) included beliefs about the economic and social effects of advertising.

Figure 2-5 is adopted to depict the constructs used by O'Donohoe (1995) in her proposed structural model of AG.

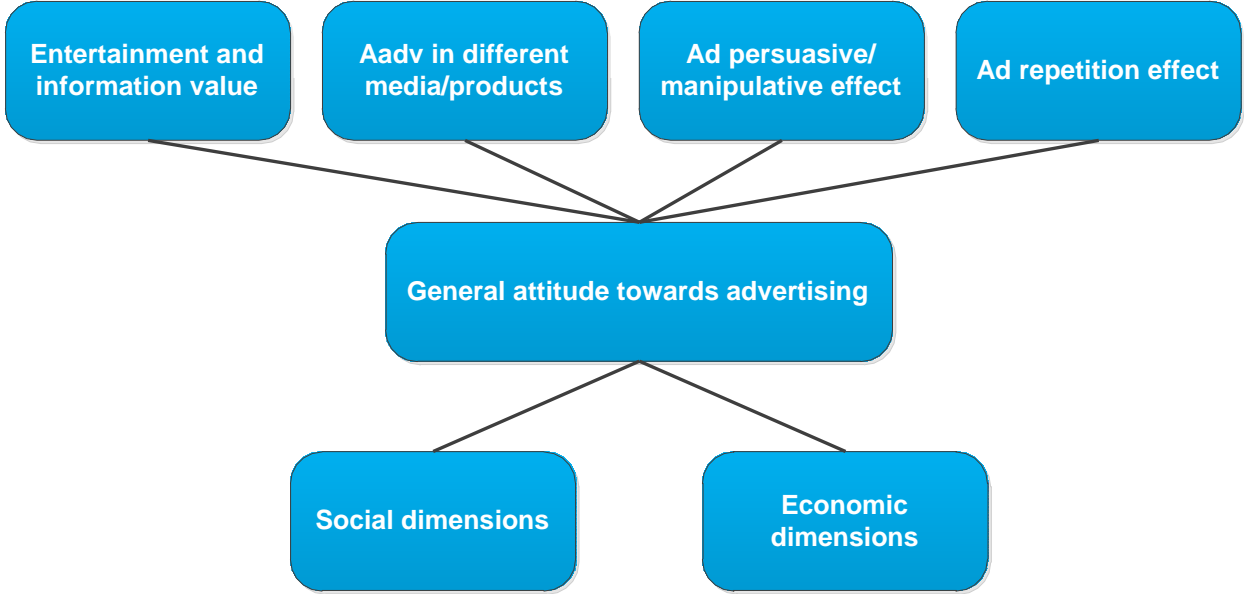


Figure 2-5 Structural model of AG

Source: O'Donohoe (1995:251)

For the economic and social effect of advertising, O'Donohoe (1995:250) adopted a two-dimensional scale developed by Bauer and Greyser (1968), where the economic construct refers to the role advertising plays in enhancing an economy and how significant advertising contributes to the living standards of the population in a country. The social construct is said to establish the degree to which advertising influences the values and lifestyles of consumers (Greyser, 1972:33). The economic construct in the Bauer and Greyser (1968) study was measured using statements such as, “advertising helps raise our standard of living”, “advertising results in better products for the public”, and “advertising results in lower prices”. To measure the social dimension, they use the following statements, namely “advertising persuades people to buy things they should not buy”, “most advertising insults the intelligence of the average consumer”, and “advertisements present a true picture of the product advertised”.

Given the definition and conceptualisation of AG, however, the question that should be asked is what AG means to respondents when responding to studies measuring attitudes towards advertising. While researchers may intend to measure generalised attitudes

towards advertising in such studies, evidence suggests that respondents tend to have a mental representation of what advertising is and thus respond to the AG measurement from varied frames of references, which then potentially negates the intended objective (Tan & Chia, 2007:357; Jin & Lutz, 2013:345). This accentuates the importance for researchers to further study the concept of AG and clarify its meaning to say with confidence that they know what they are measuring.

Following a categorisation by Triandis (1971:65) that attitudes are recognised as categories of beliefs that can be rank-ordered from the abstract to the concrete, Tan and Chia (2007:352) argue that consumers hold AG at different abstraction levels, ranging from the abstract beliefs to the more concrete beliefs about advertising. This line of thinking is also consistent with O'Donohoe's (1995:250) classification of advertising attitudes into generalised and more specific (personal experience) attitudinal beliefs. In their conceptual model, Tan and Chia (2007:353) propose that different extent belief dimensions support different levels of attitude towards advertising ranging from specific attitudes to the more abstract attitudes. Their model endeavoured to explore the relationship between general attitude towards advertising and attitude towards advertising in specific media (print and TV). They propose that attitude toward advertising is an abstract/macro-level construct while, in contrast, attitude toward advertising in specific media is a personal experience based construct.

Furthermore, Tan and Chia (2007:365) criticise past research on attitudes toward advertising by pointing out the fact that such studies examined only the abstract levels of attitudes (for example, Zanot, 1984; Shavitt *et al.*, 1998; Schlosser *et al.*, 1999; Mehta, 2000); thereby, creating a gap in the study of consumer attitudes toward advertising. They further caution that previous research models created by Bauer and Greyser (1968), as well as subsequent studies that utilised the Bauer and Greyser (1968) model, such as Sandage and Leckenby (1980), Muehling (1987) and Pollay and Mittal (1993) may well be changed with the inclusion of the media constructs into the traditional AG model in order to get a more thorough understanding of how consumers react to advertising in general, as well as in specific media. This is based on the rationale that consumers hold different expectations about different media, such as information value from print media

and entertainment from broadcast media (Speck & Elliot, 1997:65; Shavitt *et al.*, 1998:9). Figure 2-6 depicts the framework as proposed in their study.

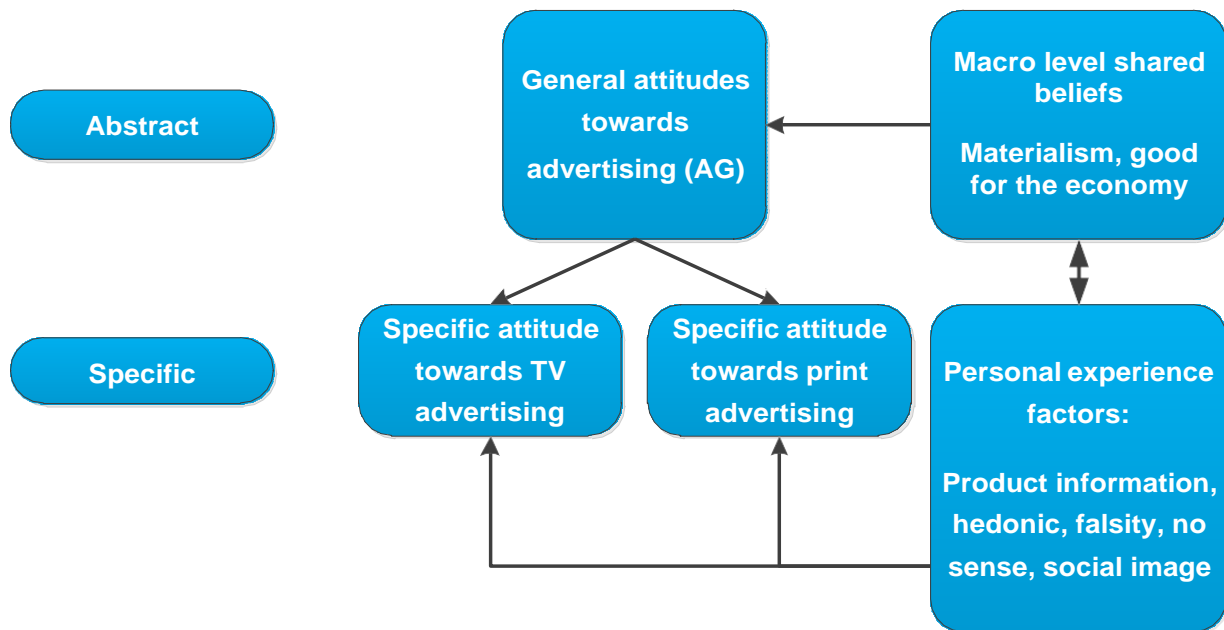


Figure 2-6 Framework for the relationships between attitude towards advertising in general and attitudes toward advertising in specific media

Source: Tan and Chia (2007:354)

Based on the above proposed framework, the personal experience and generalised belief constructs of product information, hedonic/pleasure, falsity/no sense, good for the economy, and materialism were adopted from the Pollay and Mittal's (1993:100) study except for dimensions that measured attitudes toward TV and print advertising, which were adopted from Mittal (1994:9). The major benefit of the Pollay and Mittal model is that it can be used to study consumers' attitudes towards advertising in general (Petrovici & Marinov, 2007:307; Eze & Lee, 2012:94) and, in some cases, may be adapted to study consumers' attitudes towards advertising in a specific media (Speck & Elliott, 1997:70; Shavitt *et al.*, 1998:9; Jin & Lutz, 2013:345). It, therefore, can be argued that the inclusion of the media construct into the traditional model of AG bears significant contribution to the advertising literature as it helps explain some of the ambivalences reported by past research. The following section reviews the structure of attitudes toward the advertisement and its relationship with AG.

2.8 STRUCTURE OF ATTITUDES TOWARD THE AD MODEL (Aad)

In an endeavour to understand the effect of advertising on consumers' reactions toward various market offerings, considerable attention has been paid to the topic of attitude toward the ad and the role that it plays in advertising effectiveness. According to Lutz (1985:48), attitude toward the advertisement (Aad), can be defined as a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner toward a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion. Aad has two different components, namely an affective component reflecting the emotions evoked by the ad and a cognitive component reflecting executional qualities of the advertisement, as well as the message content thereof (Shimp, 1981:10; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989:49). The Aad model postulates that the recipients of an advertising message develop an attitude toward the advertisement, which, in turn, exerts an influence on subsequent measures of advertising effectiveness such as brand attitude and purchase intentions (Shimp, 1981:10; Lutz *et al.*, 1983:533; Lutz, 1985:49; MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986:135; Muehling, 1987:35; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989:89; Mehta, 2000:69; Dianoux *et al.*, 2014:88).

The Aad model highlights the influence of an advertisement, either in digital, print or in audio-visual on the formation of an individual's attitude towards product and service offerings and/or brands. The theory behind the model states that consumers form judgments and feelings subsequent to exposure to an advertisement. In addition to the formation of attitudes towards the advertisement, consumers are posited to further formulate opinions and judgements about the advertised brand (Raluca & Ioan, 2010:729). The model proposes that consumers' affect (feelings) and (cognition) judgements are formulated as a direct result of exposure to an advertisement, which, therefore, affects their attitude toward the advertisement itself, which, in turn, affects the consumers' attitude toward the advertised product or brand. The brand cognitions are then reported to affect the consumers' assessment of the likelihood that the product or brand will be purchased in the future (Lutz, 1985:50)

In their conceptual framework, MacKenzie and Lutz (1989:51) posit that there are four competing explanations for the impact of attitude toward the advertisement on purchase

intentions. All four structural models are based on a general hierarchy-of-effects framework, which postulates that cognitions act as predictors of attitudes, and then behavioural responses such as purchase intentions (Lutz *et al.*, 1983:533). For example, in each of the four alternatives, advertisement cognitions influence attitude toward the advertisement, and brand cognitions influence brand attitude. Each of these attitudes ultimately has linkages with purchase intentions, depending on the role of attitude toward the advertisement.

The four alternative models of advertising attitude describe the way in which antecedent variables relate to advertising outcomes and are mediated by attitude toward advertising. These four models are referred to as the affect transfer (ATH), dual mediation (DMH), reciprocal mediation (RMH), and independent influences (IIH) hypotheses (Dianourx *et al.*, 2014:89). ATH assumes a direct one-way causal influence of Aad on attitude towards the brand (Mitchell & Olson, 1981:320; Shimp, 1981:85). On the other hand, DMH explains both of direct one-way causal influence and indirect one-way causal influence, whereby, the indirect one-way causal influence indicates that brand cognitions connect Aad affects to attitudes towards the brand and direct one-way causal influence refers to the process proposed by ATH. DMH is in accordance to the traditional communication's theory treatment of message source, as proposed by MacKenzie and Lutz (1989:50). This suggests that consumers' affective response to an advertisement has an influence on their propensity to accept the advertisement claims that relate to the brand. In other words, the more favourable consumers' feelings are towards the advertisement, the more they remember the claims made in the advertisement. As such, it may be assumed that there is a relationship between Aad and brand cognitions (Holbrook, 1978:545).

RMH, in comparison, assumes that Aad and brand attitude influence each other. RMH is based on a balance theory introduced by Heider (1946), which postulates that individuals attempt to maintain the cognitive balance in that a balanced configuration exists if attitudes towards the parts of a causal unit are similar (Heider, 1946:109).

The IIH assumes that there is no relationship between Aad and brand attitudes. According to this theory, both Aad and brand attitudes independently influence purchase intention (Gorn, 1982:96). The IIH theory is founded on a modification of the distinction between brand concept (that is, brand attitudes) and impersonal attitude (that is, attitude towards the conditions of purchase) that was put forward by Howard (1977:1), who opined that

situational pressures such as availability and deals play a salient part in a purchase. In the advertising exposure setting, the construction of Aad may represent one of those situational variables (Gorm, 1982:96). A comprehensive discussion of these models can be reviewed from earlier research by Lutz (1975).

In order to comprehend how the Aad influences brand attitude it is necessary to determine the kind of attitudes consumers develop towards the advertisement itself. If the feelings that the advertisement create are positive and if the way the advertisement is made and the information in it are evaluated favourably, then the advertisement should result in a favourable attitude (Raluca & Ioan, 2010:730). An advertisement can thus be liked either because of its entertaining value or because it is considered useful, or both. In the call to determine the origins of Aad, therefore, MacKenzie and Lutz (1989:51-53) propose the structural antecedents of Aad as consisting of advertisement credibility, advertisement perceptions, attitudes toward the advertiser, attitudes toward advertising and the consumer's mood.

Brown and Stayman (1992:37), further postulate that Aad is influenced by the attitude towards advertisements in general, as well as attitude towards the message source (that is, the advertiser), the viewer's mood, the feelings the advertisement evokes, the viewer's evaluation of the advertisement's format and the perceived credibility of the advertisement. In the opinion of Solomon *et al.* (2012:23) the determining factors that affect Aad as attitude toward advertiser include evaluation of the message format, the viewer's mood, the feelings the advertisement evokes with the viewer, the advertisement's ability of the to elicit reactions on the part of the consumer. Similarly, Dobre (2005:172) suggests a framework for Aad by identifying a series of specific perceptual factors for each type of reaction, namely positive cognitive reactions (relevance, credibility, creativity, realism, familiarity and/or imagination), negative cognitive reactions (confusion, hate), positive affective reactions (entertainment, humour, activity, vitality, liking, sensuousness, empathy) and negative affective reactions (irritation & sluggishness).

Another factor, which has an influence on the impact of Aad on brand attitudes is the consumer's level of involvement with the purchase decision (Raluca & Ioan, 2010:730; Jin & Lutz, 2013:343). According to the ELM (see previous section), the influence of

peripheral cues on brand attitudes increases under low-involvement conditions, thereby suggesting that the effect of Aad on brand attitudes is greater under low-involvement conditions because the feelings that play a major part in shaping Aad are considered to be peripheral cues (Homer, 1990:78). It is important to note the apparent lack of empirical consensus in this regard; nevertheless, MacKenzie and Lutz (1989:51) posit that Aad affects brand attitudes under both high-involvement and low-involvement conditions based on their proposed structural antecedents of Aad as consumers require both central and peripheral processing of the advertisement message.

Despite the inclusion of specific media in the measurement of AG, there is evidence to suggest that TV advertising remains the most typical form of advertising to which consumers are exposed (Jin & Lutz, 2013:343). This was apparent in a study by Shavitt *et al.* (1998:9) who measured Aad in selected advertising media such as TV, catalogue, classified advertisements, radio, and outdoor along with advertising in general. Interestingly, the consumers' evaluations of AG, in many cases, closely resembled those for TV advertising. Similarly, Tan and Chia (2007:343) suggest that when consumers are asked to evaluate AG, TV advertising was the frame of reference likely used. Evidently, the measurement of AG implicitly reflects the measurement of attitudes towards TV advertising. This merely accentuates the importance of proper conceptualisation when dealing with consumers' attitudes toward advertising, especially since the advent of new technology has extended the advertising scope to include new marketing communication tools such as social media and product placement among others.

Therefore, whilst the relationships between AG and Aad have been established in the advertising literature and the influence of Aad on brand attitudes and purchase intentions, the important role of specific media/platform has also been established. Even though the measurement of AG might be interesting, some researchers may argue that it bears little managerial significance, hence, the call to further examine the concept in specific contexts (Tan & Chia, 2007:358; Jin & Lutz, 2013:349; Dianourx *et al.*, 2014:5). Similarly, the purpose of this study is not to measure AG in particular, but rather to examine Aad in the context of product placement as another form of advertising (Sung *et al.*, 2009:257).

2.9 CONCLUSION

It has been established that attitude have indeed long been considered a central concept of social psychology, with authors such as Thomas and Znaniecki (1918:2) among others having defined the social psychology as a scientific study of attitudes. Many findings in attitude research have also indicated that self-reports of attitudes are largely contextual. In fact, such attitude measurements are a mere construction of evaluative judgements by consumers at the time they are surveyed, based on the information they are able to access at that point.

With a further caution by Mitchell and Olson (1981:320) on some researchers who are guilty of inaccurate conceptualisation for operational ease, many inconsistencies and difficulties have surfaced in the quest to develop theories of attitude formation and structure over the years. This may explain some of the reported ambivalences in attitudinal researches reviewed by O'Donohoe (2001:93). Moreover, following a categorisation by Triandis (1971:66), that attitudes are a set of evaluative beliefs about the attitude object which can be rank-ordered from the abstract level to the very concrete as well as the contextual nature of attitudes, researchers may reduce the measurement inconsistencies by asking specific questions instead of generic/abstract questions as respondents would be susceptible to responding according to their individualised frame of references, thereby subjecting the studies to various measurement errors (Tan & Chia, 2007:355).

A review of the attitude toward the advertising literature was pertinent in this chapter so as to achieve the theoretical objective of this study as articulated in Section 1.3.2. Indeed, product placement is a form of advertising (Gupta & Gould, 1997:38) and many proposed frameworks in that regard are mostly extensions of the attitudes towards advertising literature. Moreover, the framework for this study was grounded in the MacKenzie and Lutz's (1989:50) structural model of attitudes towards the advertisement. Furthermore, the study was structured from a perspective of the Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) study on how advertising works. The authors in that regard posit that advertising effectiveness should be looked at from the impact it has on consumers; hence, the chapter conducted a review on the structure and various formations of attitudes. This approach is posited to benefit marketers on their various media strategies (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999:26). In

fact, the need to take into consideration media differences is important, particularly with the advent of new advertising media such as product placement, as people hold different expectations about different media (Tan & Chia, 2007:353).

Finally, the efforts by advertisers to capture consumer attention to their commercial messages are a continuous endeavour. Studies have determined that media consumers typically have positive perceptions of advertising. That being said, consumers' positive attitudes are limited in certain products, media genres, executional tactics, and demographic variables (Gupta & Gould, 1997:38; Sung *et al.*, 2009:258). Therefore, the next chapter addresses the above by reviewing literature on Generation Y and their attitudes toward product placement, especially since studies have shown that an individual's predisposition to avoid advertisements in a medium is related to categorical beliefs and perceptions about them (Cronin & Menelly, 1992:2; Speck & Elliot, 1997:63).

CHAPTER 3 PRODUCT PLACEMENT AND GENERATION Y

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 reviewed the literature on consumers' attitude formation and change, as well as consumer attitudes toward advertising, in keeping with the first and second theoretical objectives of this study as laid out in Section 1.3.2 of the first chapter. Past research has identified attitude toward the advertisement as an important constructs mediating the effect of brand attitude and purchase intentions (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989:50). The authors went on to further propose and test the structural antecedents of attitudes towards the advertisement. Product placement literature borrows from the same theory, as the practice is another form of advertising (Balasubramanian *et al.*, 2006:116).

It is evident that over recent years the traditional advertising industry has suffered some setbacks due to media clutter, mass audience fragmentation, a growth in negative consumer attitudes toward traditional advertising as well as their defence against TV advertising by zipping and zapping through the use of digital recording systems (Balasubramanian *et al.*, 2006:116; Beneke, 2012:1069). According to Gutnik *et al.* (2007:4), a group of 28 TV studios (including Disney, Paramount Pictures, ABC, NBC, CBS, and others) sued SonicBlue, claiming that the company's commercial-skipping technology in ReplayTV constituted a "contributory and vicarious infringement of plaintiff's copyrights". Indeed, two-thirds of American consumers were reported to cut the sound during commercials, change channels or even skip them as they found them irrelevant (Williams *et al.*, 2011:5). The progressive loss of a passive audience, therefore, has unequivocally challenged advertising professionals to seek more innovative and effective solutions to brand communication strategies and product placement has presented itself as such.

The purpose of this chapter is to propose a model of the factors influencing the South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows. Leading up to this proposition, this chapter will discuss product placement in terms of its definition, industry growth, purpose, strategies as well as antecedents of product placement attitudes. This chapter first looks into the

Generation Y cohort. This is in keeping up with the third and fourth theoretical objectives of the study as outlined in Section 1.3.2.

3.2 PROFILING GENERATION Y COHORT

The success of any business strategy depends on the ability of an organisation to clearly understand its current and potential customers (Jang *et al.*, 2011:804). The complexities of market segmentation strategies or often result of the constantly changing business landscape and the highly fragmented consumers with their heterogeneous needs and desires (Williams *et al.*, 2011:2). As such, remaining relevant necessitates that organisations constantly strive to be in symbiosis with the ever-changing consumer needs. While it may be useful for marketers to segment their customers in terms of age demographics, Parment (2013:304) points out that generational cohort segmentation provides both the stability of age segmentation as well as the insight into consumer motivations, which are a result of their shared values, attitudes and beliefs. This section explores the Generation Y student cohort as an elusive, but lucrative target segment for marketing practitioners.

South Africa has gone through a complete metamorphosis in terms of its economic, social as well as political system. During this transformation process, many organisations have been slow to realise that such changes imply a need to make changes in business practices as well. Typically, economic and political changes lead to social changes, which ultimately result in changes in attitudes, preferences and consumer behaviour (Schewe & Meredith, 2004:52; Bevan-Dye *et al.*, 2009:172; Gardiner, Grace & King, 2014:706).

According to generational theory, four distinct generational cohorts can be distinguished, namely the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y (Bevan-Dye, 2016:4), although recent studies have begun conceptualising Generation Z (Lorgulescu, 2016:9; Priporas *et al.*, 2017:374). Nevertheless, the focus of this section examines Generation Y in part fulfilment of the objectives of this present study as articulated in Section 1.3.2 of the first chapter.

Individuals born in the mid-1980s grew up in a new world order. In 2018, these individuals make up a generation that constitutes the youth and are referred to as the Generation Y. This generation, whose member are also referred to as Gen Y, genWHY, Millennials,

Echo Boomers, Born-Frees, Model-C and so on) describe an age demographic that was born into the 'new' democratic South Africa (Bevan-Dye *et al.*, 2012:5579; Bolton *et al.*, 2013:246).

While there is yet a consensus on the start and end date of a generational cohort, in part mainly due to a lack of agreement as to the length of a cohort, Schewe and Meredith (2004:52) assert that a generational cohort may be defined by the events that shape it. In an attempt for more specificity, however, Markert (2004:21) instead defines/categorises a generational cohort into 20-year increments, which he further sub-divides into 10-year cohorts (Parment, 2013:305; Bevan-Dye & Akpojivi, 2016:116). Therefore, South African Generation Y cohort is, thus, for the purpose of this study defined as those members born between 1986 and 2006, as proposed by Market (2004:21)

According to the South African mid-year population estimates, in 2018, approximately 20.28 million of South Africa's population of 57.72 million fell into the Generation Y cohort, accounting for approximately 35 percent of the country's population (Statistics South Africa, 2018). The size and growth estimates of this generational segment, together with the increased opportunities afforded to them when compared to members of previous generations, suggests that members this generation represent a significantly lucrative target segment for marketers (Wolburg & Pokrywcznski, 2001:33; Kueh & Voon, 2007:657; Rahman & Azhar, 2011:93; Bevan-Dye, 2016:5; Canavan, 2018:184). This is most especially true with reference to Generation Y university students and university graduates in that a university degree is often associated with future success, high earning potential and wealth creation (Bevan-Dye, 2016:5).

In comparison to other generations, Generation Y has a higher disposable income and, as such, more disposable money to spend (Thompson *et al.*, 2018:158). In the United States alone, Generation Y spends over US\$200 billion annually on personal consumption and their net income is expected to exceed that of the preceding generations by 2018 (Priporas *et al.*, 2017:375). With an estimated global spend of US\$2.45 trillion in 2015 (Thompson *et al.*, 2018:158), this cohort is described as highly "powerful and influential" (Bevan-Dye, 2016:4; Thompson *et al.*, 2018:158). In addition, Generation Y exerts a strong influence on parental and household spending, which means that they influence the purchasing behaviour of members of other generations (Priporas *et al.*,

2017:375). Overall, Generation Y represents a highly profitable and lucrative market segment, both currently and in the future. From a marketing standpoint it is important to understand that Generation Y's unique relationships with brands, their power to influence marketers and marketing strategies, as well as their peers, together with their love of technology and technological prowess are instrumental in reshaping the market landscape (Bolton *et al.*, 2013:246; Thompson *et al.*, 2018:160).

As noted by Parment (2013:305-306), the early cohort of Generation Y's (individuals born between 1986 and 1995) formative years were marked by a period of economic growth, the advent and rapid popularisation of social media and reality TV shows, and the fading of modernist values, supported by ever-increasing globalisation and strong influences from popular culture. This generation is a confident, optimistic group whose members feels empowered to take positive action when things go wrong, and who have multi-tasking abilities due to their high speed and energy (Williams *et al.*, 2017:111). Members of Generation Y are characterised as being generally optimistic, technologically astute, casual and fun loving (Wang *et al.*, 2015:571). A significant portion of their daily activities is mediated by the use of digital technologies, including social interactions and entertainment via online social media. They are often referred to as digital natives, given that they grew up in the digital age and have never really experienced any other way of life (Hills *et al.*, 2017:12).

Indeed, members of this generation possess unique characteristics as compared to their generational predecessors, which present unique challenges and opportunities for marketers trying to reach them, but the key formative characteristic of this generation cohort is its early exposure to technology, which has empowered them with information and rendered them impervious to traditional advertising media (Bolton *et al.*, 2013:246). An understanding of this segment for marketers is pertinent as advertising budgets, media planning and precision targeting would be key in successful brand communication strategies. The student Generation Y cohort has been identified as the highest consumers of entertainment media, making them especially lucrative for targeting (Williams *et al.*, 2011:3; Bevan-Dye, 2016:4; PWC, 2017).

According to a report by Price Water Coopers (PWC, 2017), South Africa will see a continued annual growth rate of 7.2 percent for consumer revenue over the forecast

period, increasing from R87.4 billion in 2016 to R123.7 billion in 2021. Unsurprisingly, the largest contributor will be Internet access, with a 48 percent share in 2016 increasing to 56 percent in 2021. Even though entertainment and media companies may appear justifiably threatened by the expectation of free content seemingly created on the Internet, there are many consumer revenue opportunities enabled by the Internet's ubiquitous nature. These may stem from subscriber video on demand (SVOD) such as Netflix, transaction video on demand (TVOD) such as iTunes, advertised video on demand (AVOD) such as YouTube, and music streaming to the rapidly expanding social/casual gaming environment and new virtual reality (VR) market (PWC, 2017). The Table 3-1 details the South African entertainment media consumption from 2016-2021.

Table 3-1 South African entertainment and media spending 2016-2021 (R millions)

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	CAGR % 2016-21
Books	3 821	3 842	3 863	3 881	3 886	3 891	0.4%
B2B	4 905	5 094	5 252	5 396	5 517	5 611	2.7%
Cinema	1 169	1 133	1 172	1 215	1 256	1 296	2.1%
Internet	42 298	49 744	56 219	61 595	65 915	69 319	10.4%
Magazine	5 310	5 118	4 970	4 845	4 721	4 608	-2.8%
Music	1 885	1 942	2 031	2 134	2 251	2 355	4.6%
Newspaper	2 643	2 606	2 553	2 486	2 406	2 315	-2.6%
TV & Video	23 194	24 365	25 942	27 092	28 109	29 022	4.6%

Table 3-1 South African entertainment and media spending 2016-2021 (R millions) (continued ...)

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	CAGR % 2016-21
Video games	2 581	3 009	3 499	4 039	4 634	5 317	15.6%
E-sports	3	5	7	9	11	14	32.5%
VR	30	84	212	305	367	455	72.6%
Total consumer	87 383	96 468	105 231	112 498	118 564	123 690	
YOY growth (%)	13.7%	10.4%	9.1%	6.9%	5.4%	4.3%	7.5%

Source: PWC (2017)

Notwithstanding the impact of digital entertainment media over the years and in future, it can be deduced from Table 3-1 that consumers in South Africa continue to spend heavily on TV based media and are expected to continue this trend into the future. This clearly presents a challenge to South African marketers with regards to their budgetary allocations on various integrated marketing communication strategies going forward. Nevertheless, regardless of the entertainment platform, product placement no doubt presents widespread opportunities for brand communication strategies of the present and future.

With regards to their consumption patterns, Generation Y has been brought up in an era where shopping is not regarded as a simple act of purchase, but rather of an entertainment oriented experience (Thompson *et al.*, 2018:4). These members are said to have been socialised in a materialistic society (Bevan-Dye *et al.*, 2012:5578; Duh, 2016:134) and having extensive social networks (Parment, 2013:190). In addition, members of Generation Y are accustomed to making decisions faster and with less deliberation than members of other generations and are swifter at adopting new opportunities (Parment, 2013:190). As a result, individuals of this cohort make more frequent and more impulsive purchases than previous generation consumers.

Given the vast amount of information at their disposal, advertising scepticism and the many brand choices these consumers have to make, brand loyalty has been shown to be low among Generation Y members. As such, marketers have been encouraged to stimulate brand loyalty through innovative means such as social media, mobile games and other brand identification strategies that may help this segment to connect with the brand (Balakrishnan *et al.*, 2014:178; Ordun, 2015:41). The use of product placement strategies present alternative tools as brands may be placed in various media platforms as outlined in earlier discussions.

In addition, significant portions of the total discretionary income are reported to be spent on product categories such as fast foods, gadgets, entertainment, alcohol, cosmetics, fashion and so on, and that this segment is influenced mostly by celebrity endorsements and non-traditional advertising media such as product placement (Tiwsakul & Hackley, 2005:97; Kit & P'ng, 2014:138).

It is worth noting that members of this generation dislike being patronised and are less likely to be influenced by advertising, mostly because they are aware of the marketing activities imposed on them. That being said, they do appear to have a positive attitude towards shopping, and even though they display lack of loyalty as compared to their Baby Boomers and Generation X predecessors, they are brand conscious. Other characteristics associated with this generation include being family centrist and achievement oriented, having a short attention span, craving attention and indulging in disruptive behaviour. They are also characterised as being globally and environmentally conscious, having a low boredom threshold and, perhaps most pertinent to this study, being mistrustful of the media (Rahman & Azhar, 2011:93-96). The next section conceptualises product placement and discusses it in the context of movies and TV shows.

3.3 PRODUCT PLACEMENT CONCEPTUALISATION

Product placement involves the inclusion of brands in fiction/nonfiction medium in order to stimulate consumer awareness and interest in the placed product. Nebenzahl and Secunda (1993:2) define product placement as “the inclusion of a brand name, product package, signage or other trademark merchandise within a motion picture TV show or

music video". Along the same lines, Balasubramanian (1994:31) defines this strategy as "a paid product message aimed at influencing movie or TV audiences via a planned and unobtrusive entry of a branded product into a movie or TV programme". Similarly, Karrh (1998:34) presents his rendition of the product placement definition as "a paid inclusion of branded products or brand identifiers through audio and/or visual means within mass media programmes".

These versions were the widely used definitions in the product placement literature but soon became obsolete, especially with further research and shifts towards the inclusion of new media context. Subsequently, Russell and Belch (2005:74) redefined product placement as the purposeful inclusion of a brand into entertainment content. As alluded to in Chapter 1, product placement is not a new marketing phenomenon; in fact, the practice can be traced as far back as the late 1890s, with the deliberate inclusion of a box of Unilever's Sunlight soap in various Lumière movies (Sung *et al.*, 2009:257).

After the placement of Reese's Pieces products in the movie (E. T. 1982), significant interest sparked among both Hollywood and marketers especially after Hershey management attributed more than 65 percent increase in Reese's Pieces' sales to this placement (Newel *et al.*, 2006:576). Consequently, other marketers realised the benefits of associating their brands with popular TV programmes and actors and have since then sought to replicate the practise using brands of their own (Gutnik *et al.*, 2007:4). In the pursuit of these benefits, the prominent roles for brands in entertainment content transcended to other entertainment media such as trending music videos (Schemer *et al.*, 2008:923), popular novels (Nebenzahl & Secunda, 1993:1), video games (Nelson *et al.*, 2004:3), musicals (Hudson & Hudson, 2006:490), and even reality TV shows, which significantly increased opportunities for brand placement because their format typically relies on a brand and its sponsor (Balasubramanian *et al.*, 2006:116).

This study will, however, focus on the South African Generation Y movie and TV audience as placements based on different media platforms presents different consumer attitude structures and advertising, and value creation models. This is supported further by the Tan and Chia (2007:357) model, which points out the significance of measuring specific attitudes rather than generic attitudes, a categorisation adopted from Triandis (1971:66). Movies and TV shows, therefore, will be operationalised as a single construct.

The placement of products in movies and TV shows sparked both industry and academic interest as TV still presents the largest entertainment media today and a significant portion of the product placement budget still goes to movies and TV shows such as soaps, reality shows and TV series (PQ Media, 2018). Following the success of the E. T. (1982), many placements have taken place on screen in too many instances to mention, including movies such as Skyfall (2012), which was one of the movies to contain the highest number of placements in a single movie.

3.4 PRODUCT PLACEMENT INDUSTRY

After the Hollywood industry revolutionised product placement in the 1980s, the global product placement market has since then seen a significant growth. This resulted in an equally significant academic interest as well, especially during the past two decades (Babacan, 2012:1320). Product placement has indeed presented itself as a powerful tool within the integrated marketing communications strategies and advertising professionals accord that to date, no other advertising or consumer-driven media tactic compares to the consistency, durability or growth trajectory that mark product placements (PQ Media, 2018).

According to a report by PQ Media (2018), globally, product placement revenues, which encompass paid placements in TV, movies, Internet and mobile platforms, videogames, music, and other media, increased at twice the rate of overall advertising and marketing revenues in 2017 to exceed US\$100 billion for the first time ever.

The United States conspicuously remains the largest product placement market by far. Product placement market in this region rose 13.7 percent to US\$8.78 billion in 2017 and is moving towards a ninth consecutive year of double-digit growth in 2018, and its value is estimated to reach US\$11.44 billion by 2019 (Statista, 2018). This is, in part, due to the increased value of brand integrations in live and on-demand TV, recorded music and digital video (Mandes, 2014).

3.5 PURPOSE OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT

As noted by Williams *et al.* (2011:5), the ultimate goal of product placement among various parties (for example, content producers, corporate brands and agencies),

primarily, is directly or indirectly financially motivated. Production companies use paid product placements to generate revenues to significantly reduce their production budget. This, in turn, allows them to reinvest the money elsewhere, while marketers use product placements to drive purchase behaviour and ultimately sales. This is evident in the James Bond movie *Skyfall*; whereby, Heineken is said to have spent US\$45 million on brand placements in the movie (Sung *et al.*, 2009:257).

The strategy of product placement has several objectives. These include striving to achieve prominent target audience exposure, visibility attention and interest, increasing consumers' brand awareness, memory and recall, creating instant brand recognition in the media vehicle and at the point of purchase, positively changing consumers' attitudes towards or overall evaluations of the brand, and changing the target audiences' purchase behaviours and intent. In addition, product placement aims to create favourable practitioners' views on brand placement, and improve consumers' attitudes towards this practice, as well as towards the various product placement vehicles (Panda, 2004; Kureshi & Sood, 2010:23; Williams *et al.*, 2011:5-7).

Overall, an understanding of the main purposes of product placement is pertinent to marketers, as it will assist in developing appropriate product placement strategies. A typical approach to an advertising campaign needs to have predetermined outcomes, typically organised in three categories (cognitive, affective and conative outcomes) consistent with the hierarchy of Effect model (Balasubramanian *et al.*, 2006:131). These factors are briefly outlined below.

3.5.1 Achieve prominent target audience exposure, visibility, attention and interest

Owing to the inadequacies brought about by traditional advertising, marketers have since had to face the challenges of declining revenues from investments in traditional advertising and have had to seek out new and innovative strategies to attract consumer attention and evoke interest in the brand. Having to contend with media clutter, less captive audiences and advertisement skipping technologies, product placement seem to present itself as a formidable alternative. As noted by Russell and Stern (2006:9), the difference between traditional advertising and product placement is that with the former,

the viewers are instantly aware of the promotional messages communicated; whereas, with the latter, promotional messages are blended into entertainment content, which then makes it difficult for consumers to be aware of the promotional intent, let alone avoid exposure to the promotional message. Moreover, tying a brand with a successful show may result, not only, in longer shelf life, but significant attention and interest in the placed brand by consumers (Williams *et al.*, 2011:6)

Advertising reach refers to the number of consumers exposed at least once to a particular advertisement out of the total/theoretical size of that consumer market (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016:335). The value of prominent brand exposure through product placement is evident, especially when considering the impact on the brands. In the James Bond movie (Tomorrow Never Dies, 1997), BMW is reported to have gained over 100 million dollars in audience exposure value due to its products (the Z3 car, the 150iLs and the R1200c motorbike) being prominently associated with the movie character (Gould *et al.*, 2000:42). Similarly, in the music video platform, the Lady Gaga video, which contained placements from Miracle Whip and Virgin Mobile, was viewed 62 million times and updated 91.8 million times as of November 14, 2010 on YouTube (Williams *et al.*, 2011:6).

The visibility and attention enjoyed by these placed brands are usually not coincidental as moviemakers strategically place the brands into the script for a fee or some promotional ties in an effort to offset production costs (Williams *et al.*, 2011:6). Moreover, Karrh (1998:68) had previously argued that the attention audiences pay to the development of the scenes in movies and TV shows, as well as their emotional involvement with the storyline cannot be equalled by any other type of brand communication media. As a general rule, however, marketers have been cautioned that the placed brands need to be visible for a long enough period to attract consumers' attention and interest, but not so long as to annoy the viewers (Beneke, 2012:1069), a paradox of product placement that South African marketers and TV industry seem to be struggling with currently (Moerdykon, 2014; News24, 2014).

3.5.2 Increase brand awareness

Brand awareness refers to the number of people in a given population who know about a specific brand or its message (Chi *et al.*, 2009:135). Corniani (2001:72) further alludes to

brand awareness as a quantitative indicator that may vary according to a specific segment of consumer's familiarity with a particular brand. It is important to note, however, that the effects of product placement on consumer brand awareness cannot be predetermined as it is dependent on consumers' reactions to the particular movie or show and such reactions are further subject to various uncontrollable factors such as the movie/show's appeal (Kumar, 2017:165).

Another important consideration in this regard is the type of product to be placed as product placement would not be typically suitable for the launch of new product as optimum brand awareness is largely dependent on brand familiarity as well as the fact that placements are meant to appear naturally and incidentally in to the content to mask the promotional intent (Corniani, 2001:73; Nelson & McLeod, 2005:516; Chan *et al.*, 2016:6).

While product placement may be a riskier alternative, its successes seem to make a compelling argument compared to traditional advertising. Priceonomics (2013) reported that TV product placements have the ability to increase brand awareness by up to 20 percent and further claims have been made that the number can climb to 43 percent if the placement is well integrated, especially into an emotionally engaging programme and is associated with a likable character or celebrity. That being said, the numbers on awareness or reach/frequency are not exact and the overall evaluation must be qualitative rather than quantitative (Karrh, 1998:35).

3.5.3 Increase brand recognition and recall

According to Panda (2004), product placement indeed has a significant impact on brand memory. The majority of studies regarding the effectiveness of product placement have focused on memory-related measures whereby changes in product placement recall, recognition and brand salience/brand awareness are examined, which are effects of brand exposure (Cholinski, 2012:15; Priceonomics, 2014). Finding from most of these empirical studies indeed support the notion that product placement boosts consumers' brand recall and recognition (Babin & Carder, 1996:141; Gupta & Lord, 1998:49; Delorme & Reid, 1999:71; Rössler & Bacher, 2002:100; Karrh, *et al.*, 2003:140; Brennan *et al.*, 2004:3; Williams *et al.*, 2011:6; Soba & Aydin, 2013:113).

Karrh (1998:35) indicates that product placement effectiveness measures are still unsophisticated and that researchers rely on aided and unaided recognition and recall tests of which advertisers are usually happy with a 25 percent correct recognition scores for subtle placements. Even though a typical, brand recognition score is no more than 30 percent (Williams *et al.*, 2011:6) other studies indicate that for audio only placements this figure ranges from 50 to 75 percent while for visual placements only it ranges from 40 to 60 percent (Karrh, 1998:31). Moreover, consumers with advertisement skipping technologies such as DVRs are also reported to being 38 percent less likely to recall brands shown in TV advertisements, irrespective of whether they have skipped them or not (Priceonomics, 2013).

3.5.4 Bring about desired changes in consumers' brand attitudes

As noted by Cholinski (2012:16), studies on the influence of product placement on attitudes towards placed brands have revealed mixed findings over the last two product placement decades and thus attracted significant academic interest. These findings can be traced back to various academic works of the attitudes toward advertising literature as reviewed in the previous chapter. Some of these studies reported no product placement influence on attitudes (Karrh, 1998:31; Babin & Carder, 1996:140) or, in certain cases, even a negative influence (Homer, 2009:25; Matthes *et al.*, 2007:477; Schemer *et al.*, 2008:923; Cowley & Barron, 2008:89; Jeong *et al.*, 2011:60). Nevertheless, most empirical research in this regard conclude that product placement has a positive influence on brand attitudes (Russell, 1998:357; Russell, 2002:308; Rössler & Bacher, 2002:100, Sheehan & Guo, 2005:80; Matthes *et al.*, 2007:477; Schemer *et al.*, 2008:923; Cowley & Barron, 2008:91).

Furthermore, initial studies suggest that consumers align their attitudes toward placed products with the characters' attitudes to the particular product as the process is driven by the degree of consumers' attachments to the character (Karrh, 1998:33; Nelson & McLeod, 2005:517; Russell & Stern, 2006:10; Williams *et al.*, 2011:7).

Therefore, an important question for academics and practitioners remains as to which executional variables are instrumental in promoting product placement effectiveness to

positively change brand attitudes. This topic will be further reviewed later in this chapter as it forms an important part of the objectives of this present study.

3.5.5 Bring about a change in the audiences' purchase behaviours and intent

Similar to attitudinal studies, Cholinski (2012:15) also point out that studies regarding the influence of product placement on purchase intentions and brand choice have also failed to converge. Some studies have found that product placement has a positive influence on purchase intentions and choice (Law & Braun, 2000:1060; Morton & Friedman, 2002:35; Auty & Lewis, 2004:697; Yang & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2007:470), whilst other studies found no significant influence (Ong, 1995:160; Van Reijmersdal, 2009:430).

Generally, product placement can influence purchase intentions and brand choice positively, but this influence depends largely on the manner in which a brand is exposed and the brand characteristics. However, it is evident that the impact of product placement on consumers' purchase intentions is a topic in need of further empirical examination and the purpose of this study is to make a contribution in this regard. This construct will further be reviewed in the next sections of this chapter as it forms one of the constructs under examination for the proposed model of this present study.

Notwithstanding the ambiguous nature of some field and experimental studies research results, evidence from various case studies have demonstrated the significant impact that successful product placement has had on purchase intent, brand choice and actual sales such as:

- Reese's Pieces candy in the 1982 blockbuster movie E.T. significantly energised both Hollywood and marketers especially after Hershey management attributed a 65 percent increase in Reese's Pieces sales to the placement (Newell *et al.*, 2006:576; Sung *et al.*, 2009:259; De Gregorio & Sung, 2010:85).
- Similarly, when Tom Cruise wore Bausch and Lomb's Ray-Ban Wayfarer sunglasses in the 1983 film Risky Business and the Aviator model in the 1986 film Top Gun, sales reportedly increased significantly both times (Babacan *et al.*, 2012:1320)

- Furthermore, the placement of Dairy Queen in *The Apprentice*, where the contestants were required to create a promotional campaign for the Blizzard (a Dairy Queen signature milkshake); during that week of the broadcast, Blizzard sales increased by more than 30 percent. In addition, Website hits also increased significantly on the corporate and Blizzard Fan Club sites as well as the Blizzard promotional site (Karrh, 1998:31).
- Tom Cruise worked his product placement magic once again, driving up sales of Red Stripe beer by 50 percent in the US in 30 days through a very blatant placement in the movie *Sideways* (2004) (Priceonomics, 2013).
- BMW reportedly spent US\$3 million integrating its Z3 into the 1995 Bond film *Golden Eye* and then witnessed a US\$240 million increase in sales of the model as a direct result of the placement (De Gregorio & Sung, 2010:85), and the list goes on.

3.5.6 Create favourable practitioners' views on brand placement

Even though some marketing practitioners are somewhat disinclined to acquiesce to academic recommendations regarding product placements in movies and TV shows (Craig-Lees *et al.*, 2008:521) there is a universal accord that practitioners hold favourable attitudes toward product placement in general as long as it does not harm the brand, bring about sales and changes consumers' perceptions about the brand (Williams *et al.*, 2011:7). This notion holds true, especially when the current product market and growth rate is considered. Moreover, product placement brings necessary alternatives to the current inadequacies brought about by traditional advertising means as has been alluded to throughout this study.

For instance, in a survey reported on by Lehu and Bressoud (2007:1083) approximately 63 percent of the American advertising practitioners who responded already integrated product placement activities in their brand communication strategies, whilst 52 percent stated that financing for those product placement strategies had been transferred from their TV advertising budget.

Moreover, as noted by Lee *et al.* (2010:524), the first study conducted on practitioners' attitudes toward product placement, (Karrh, 1998:31) reported that these practitioners

were of the opinion that unaided recall is the best measure of product placement effectiveness and that depicting the product or service in a favourable light was the most crucial executional factor. Other subsequent studies reported national viewing potential, placement price and movie theme as the most salient factors in product placement strategies (Karrh *et al.*, 2003:140; Russell & Belch, 2005:75).

Generally, it must be noted that the effects of product placement consistent with the hierarchy of effect model (Balasubramanian *et al.*, 2006:116) depend on various executional strategies, which affect how the placed brand is portrayed in the movie or TV show (Cholinski, 2012:15). The next section briefly reviews various types of product placement strategies.

3.6 PRODUCT PLACEMENT STRATEGIES

Owing to its successes and potential failures, decisions on how best to promote a product within a movie content or TV programme are one of the most pertinent strategic decisions a brand has to make. According to reports from the results of an experimental study that examined the influence of different product placement strategies on consumer reactions in the context of TV, product placement strategies were reported to influence on consumers' attitudes and behavioural responses differently and that their effects interact with the type of TV programme (d'Astous & Seguin, 1999:896).

Similarly, findings from Lee *et al.* (2010:368) also suggest that consumers' evaluations of product placement strategies differ across different media genres and product/service types. Overall, various executional factors need to be considered when deciding on an appropriate product placement strategy. This section briefly outlines the various product placement strategies in the context of movies and TV shows as proposed in the product placement literature.

Modality and prominence are posited to be the key strategic issues with regards to the ease with which a product can be plugged into an entertainment medium and the cost thereof to marketers. Gupta and Lord (1998:48) identify a two-dimensional approach to categorising different types of product placements. The first of which is the mode of presentation (the senses activated by the stimulus) and the second, its level of prominence (the extent to which the product placement possesses characteristics

designed to make it a central focus of audience attention). Similarly, Russell (1998:357) also proposed modality and plot connection, which refers to the degree to which the brand is assimilated into the story (Williams *et al.*, 2011:8).

3.6.1 Modality

Modality in the context of product placement refers to the senses that are activated by the placement stimulus (Avery & Ferraro, 2000:220). Based on Gupta and Lord's (1998:48-49) conceptualisation, product placement strategies can be classified into three modes, namely audio, visual, as well as audio-visual.

In a visual-only mode, only visual stimuli are presented in the production of a movie or TV show such as a logo, billboard or any other brand identifier without any relevant promotional message that can draw obvious attention to the product (Gupta & Lord, 1998:48-49). This is the mostly used mode compared to the other modes, mainly due to the relatively low cost and executional ease, however, Gupta and Lord (1998:49) caution against the risk of diminished viewer attention with the absence of audio reinforcement.

In contrast, audio-only mode refers to the verbal mentioning of the brand in the script by the character without showing the actual product on the screen. The third mode refers to a combination of both audio and visual strategies; whereby, the product is shown on the screen and at the same time being verbally referred to by the character (Gupta & Lord, 1998:49).

Previous academic studies have confirmed findings from cognitive psychology and advertising literature that audio-visual placements are the most effective modes in influencing memory vis-à-vis audio-only placements and visual-only placements but are however the most expensive (Gupta and Lord, 1998:49; Homer, 2009:22).

3.6.2 Prominence

As noted by Kozary and Baxter (2010), prominence refers to “the extent to which the product placement possesses characteristics designed to make it a central focus of audience attention” (Avery & Ferraro, 2000:225). Gupta and Lord (1998:49) highlight that placements in any of the three above mentioned modes can either be prominent or subtle.

The prominent product placement technique involves making a brand conspicuous by explicitly showing, using, referring to or integrating it into the editorial content to make it easily noticeable to target audiences (Gupta & Lord, 1998:49). The objective of prominent product placement is to draw the audience's attention to the brand in order to make the brand the focal point of the editorial content. Research suggests that, in comparison to other product placement techniques, prominent placements are positively linked to improved brand recognition (Homer, 2009:21) and brand recall (Gupta & Lord, 1998:52). However, prominent placements have the negative consequence of promoting negative brand attitudes (Gupta & Lord, 1998:49; Homer, 2009:21; Lord & Gupta, 2010:188).

In contrast, the subtle product placement technique makes use of less explicit tactics. With this method, brands only feature in the background and are not overtly referred in editorial content (Gupta & Lord, 1998:52). Studies report that consumers tend to have more favourable attitudes towards subtle placements, especially due to their unobtrusive nature (Cowley & Barron, 2008:90; De Gregorio & Sung, 2010:85; Kit & P'ng, 2014:138). However, there is a risk that this unobtrusive characteristic may lead to audiences failing to even notice the featured brand in subtle placements (Gupta & Lord, 1998:53).

3.6.3 Plot connection

In her framework, Russell (1998:357) proposes a third dimension referred to as plot connection. According to Russell (1998:357) and Russell (2002:306), this is the degree of connection between the product and the plot, where higher plot placement is highly connected to the plot thereby forming an integral element of the story, taking a salient place in the story line or building the persona of a character. This can be illustrated by well-known association of the James Bond character with the Austin Martin car brand. Conversely, lower plot placement does not contribute much to the story (Russell *et al.*, 2009:108).

Empirical evidence has suggested that highly connected to the plot product placement tend to have a positive impact on consumers' brand awareness, recognition/recall, brand attitudes and purchase intentions more than those that are not highly connected to the plot (d'Astous & Chartier, 2000:37; Bressoud *et al.*, 2010:375; Williams *et al.*, 2011:7; Cholinski, 2012:14).

Generally, three dimensions can thus be distinguished, namely modality, prominence and plot connection. Given the above discussion, it may be deduced that the ultimate strategic decisions regarding placements are basically a trade-off between costs and consumer brand recall. This merely accentuates the importance of further research on the relationships between various product placement strategies and consumers' cognitive responses thereof as proposed by Gupta and Lord (1998:50). The next section discusses the proposed factors that affect Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

3.7 ANTECEDENTS OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT ATTITUDES

Even though product placement practices have enjoyed significant growth over the years, an understanding of how such a technique affect consumers is yet to evolve fully. One of the reasons cited by Balasubramanian *et al.* (2006:119) is the fact that most academic research on product placements is laboratory based; whereas, marketers prefer field research; however, the authors further caution the difficulties associated with measuring placement effects on both instances.

The dynamic nature of product placement as an advertising technique suggests the necessity for marketers to understand various factors that may influence how audiences react to the practice. This section, therefore, draws upon the literature, the various factors that are likely to inform consumers' attitudes toward product placement, and how such attitudes affect consumption related behavioural intentions thereof. An understanding in this regard will enable the development and testing of the conceptual model of the South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

Studies have yet to model the antecedents of product placement attitudes formally, though Gupta and Gould (1997:37) did significant work. This section examines several factors that may contribute to Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses to product placements in movies and TV shows, including perceived realism, perceived ethicality, character-product association, perceived entertainment value, perceived materialism-inducement of product placements, as well as attitudes toward TV advertising.

3.7.1 Perceived realism

TV and movie producers have used the realism value to justify their utilisation of product placements in that it authenticates the entertainment content and provides an accurate reflection of the lived experiences of the audiences in terms of being surrounded by brands in the real world (Nebenzahl & Secunda, 1993:2; Gupta & Gould, 1997:37; Gould *et al.*, 2000:42; Sung *et al.*, 2009:257). Indeed, consumers have also indicated that placed brands reinforce the integrity of a movie world and are instrumental to audiences becoming absorbed within the storyline, while at the same time expressing admiration for naturalistic portrayals of brands (DeLorme & Reid, 1999:75; Lee *et al.*, 2010:366).

On the other hand, critics of product placements have questioned the moviemakers' argument that placements enhance realism in movies, asserting that product placement in movies and TV shows have reached excessive levels (Gould *et al.*, 2000:44). Gould *et al.* (2000:44) go on to point out a few examples to counter the realism value of placements such as the movie Bull Durham, which mentions Miller beer 21 times and showcases 28 other products 55 times. Other examples pointed out are the hit movie Big, where the lead actor (Tom Hanks) has a Pepsi vending machine in his living room, and Coca-Cola's product placement in the movie Mac and Me being another transparent example as it features an alien who survives solely on Coca-Cola (Williams *et al.*, 2011: 4).

In support of the above, Lee *et al.* (2010:368) argue that obvious placements are perceived to be less realistic and more distracting, and that they tend to interfere with the plot/ storyline. Indeed, studies have pointed out that audiences have responded negatively to blatant placements especially in popular soaps/TV shows due to the poor execution of TV placements (Beneke, 2012:1069; Kumar, 2017:165; Gillespie *et al.*, 2018:1458). At the same time, Auty and Lewis (2004:697), Hudson and Hudson (2006:189) and Eagle and Dahl (2018:606) caution that the practice of product placement should remain unobtrusive enough so as not to digress from the storyline. This, however, still leaves South African marketers with the paradox of product placement that "if you see it, it's bad, but if you don't see it, it's worthless".

Notwithstanding the criticism, however, there appears to be a strong consensus overall that product placements enhance the realism of the settings in movies and TV content

and that consumers' perceptions about the realism enhancing role of movie and TV show placements indeed influences their attitudes toward product placement (Nebenzahl & Secunda, 1993:3; Gould *et al.*, 2000:45; Sung *et al.*, 2009:258; Williams *et al.*, 2011:9; Redondo *et al.*, 2018:368). This study, therefore, seeks to examine the relationship between perceived realism and hypothesises a positive association between attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows and perceived realism.

3.7.2 Perceived entertainment

Hedonism is a philosophical notion that assumes that individuals are motivated mainly by pleasure and happiness and the avoidance of pain. "Pleasure and pain refer, respectively, to all pleasurable or unpleasant feelings, experiences, states, things, properties and events" (Higgins, 2011:29). In the context of advertising research dating back to the 1960s and 1970s, the hedonic attribute of advertising was empirically proposed to be one of the determinants of consumer attitudes towards advertising (Lutz, 1975:50). This notion was further supported by subsequent research, which established a positive correlation between attitudes towards advertising and the hedonic/pleasure value that it provides (Soley & Reid, 1983:28; Pollay & Mittal, 1993:102; O' Donohoe, 1995:250; Speck & Elliott, 1997:65; Petruvici & Marinov, 2007:308). The perceived entertainment value of advertising relates to the concept of the hedonic or pleasure principle; whereby, advertisements are viewed as amusing or enjoyable (Pollay & Mittal, 1993:102).

According to Fam and Waller (2006:40), individuals watch TV to be entertained and to gain access to information, thereby using it as an opportunity to escape reality rather than using the medium to watch, absorb and analyse advertising messages. This notion is further supported in the Petty and Cacioppo's (1981:847) elaboration likelihood model theory, which suggests ad likability to be one of the cues to the peripheral route of persuasion. In accordance with this theoretical framework, Russell (1998:358) suggests that product placements typically mirror the transformational rather than the informational message strategy given that the majority of product placements do not provide audiences with factual information about the brand but rather engage consumers experientially with brands in an entertainment context.

In their empirical study, Fam and Waller (2006:403) determined that one of the seven determinants of advertising likability to be its entertainment value and further found a positive correlation between ad likability and brand attitude. The entertainment attribute of advertising, in addition, was previously suggested by O'Donohoe (1995:250) and further alluded to by Tan and Chia (2007:3) in the study on attitudes towards advertising on specific media.

Whilst traditionally, advertising has been placed adjacent to entertainment, the advertising industry, over the years, has witnessed a mass media fragmentation and consequently a proliferation of platforms through which entertainment content was distributed and consumed, which opened the door for product placement as a more alternative method of providing integration between commercial content and entertainment (Hudson & Hudson, 2006:491; Soba & Aydin, 2013:114).

In a focus group survey conducted on how moviegoers interpret product placement in movies, some respondents indicated that product placement not only enhance the entertainment value of movies, it also contributed to audiences' own self-perception (DeLorme & Reid, 1999:79). Further evidence supporting this notion was found by Hernandez *et al.* (2004:81) in the advergaming platform who found lack of entertainment to be a precursor to irritation and a negative attitude towards product placement in advergaming. In addition, while some research findings have explored the benefits of using real brands on entertainment, Nelson *et al.* (2004:14) argue that even the use of fictitious brands do somehow contribute to the entertainment value of product placement.

Attitudes towards advertising, over the years, have been met with some level of ambivalence (O'Donohoe, 1995:250). Whilst some consumers have appreciated the informative and entertaining value of advertising, others have feared its subliminal manipulative nature (Pollay & Mittal, 1993:101). Similarly, the construct of entertainment has also been examined in the context of product placement in recent years (Nebenzahl & Secunda 1993:4; Gupta & Gould 1997:37; DeLorme & Reid 1999:80; Hernandez *et al.*, 2004:75; Nelson *et al.*, 2004:5) where it has been shown to strongly correlate with attitude towards product placement in various platforms. There, therefore, is evidence to suggest that entertainment is an important construct to examine as it has been shown to be an indicator of consumer attitudes towards product placement in various media. The present

study, therefore, posits a positive association between perceived entertainment and consumer attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

3.7.3 Attitudes toward advertising on television

Relying on advertising revenues is not as effective anymore given the number of TV channels that exist nowadays and a subsequent reduction in number of viewership per channel, the deepening penetration of online streaming platforms such as Netflix not to mention advertisement skipping techniques in the form of DVRs (Al-Kadi, 2013:5) thereby challenging the effectiveness of TV advertising. Product placement, therefore, presents a potential to eclipse TV as a lucrative promotional tool that cannot be skipped or avoided. According to Sabour *et al.* (2016:113), approximately 90 percent of the United States' media consumers with digital recorders (DVRs) indeed skip TV advertisements.

Since Zanot (1984:5) reported a negative consumer opinion towards advertising, there seems to be empirical consensus in this regard to date (Sandage & Leckenby, 1980:30; Muehling, 1987:34; Andrews, 1989:26; Pollay & Mittal, 1993:101; Alwitt & Prabhaker, 1994:18; Mehta, 2000:67; Tan & Chia, 2007:356). Some noteworthy arguments were presented in calling for more specificities when measuring attitudes towards advertising (Tan & Chia, 2007:356) especially given the ambivalences reported by O'Donohoe (1995:250) regarding attitude toward advertising measures. Other studies have indeed supported this notion through empirical evidence that consumers hold different attitudes at different abstraction levels depending on the media examined (Tan & Chia, 2007:356), for example, TV advertising has been reported to consistently being negatively perceived vis-à-vis other media (Alwitt & Prabhaker, 1994:18; Mittal, 1994:36). The intrusive tactics marketers employ in order to push commercial messages constantly annoy consumers; thereby, negatively impacting on TV advertising, a construct commonly examined in the advertising literature (Pollay & Mittal, 1993:101; O'Donohoe, 1995:250).

According to practitioners however, these reports are insufficient to make conclusions regarding the effectiveness of TV advertising as recent research indicates that TV advertising still holds a prominent position as the most effective medium to drive consumer purchases despite a 1.5 percent decline between 2012 and 2015 as compared to a 10.3 percent decline to the online medium (Crupi, 2015). Furthermore, contrary to

findings from various United States and European markets regarding negative perceptions about traditional TV advertising, results from the South African Generation Y consumers show a somewhat positive attitude towards advertising (Bevan-Dye, 2013:160),

TV represents a powerful communication medium and a significant marketing tool and people often engage with it on a daily basis and in a domestic environment. This gives it the dual quality of normalising, as well as glamorising consumption practices. On TV, brands are ubiquitous as they are part of everyday life – TV show producers require brands to populate storylines with familiar objects that can connect with the viewers' own reality (PWC, 2018; PQ Media, 2018). TV can thus be argued to be an ideal vehicle for product placement.

Owing to the apparent empirical consensus regarding negative consumer attitudes toward advertising on TV, the inclusion of this construct as an antecedent to product placement attitudes on TV becomes paramount to achieving the main objective of this study. It, therefore, is posited that those respondents with an unfavourable attitude toward TV advertisements will more likely have a favourable attitude towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

3.7.4 Ethical concerns

Although product placement has grown in popularity and use over the years, it has also been subject to heavy criticism and public scrutiny. Ethical concerns have emerged as an important topic in the advertising literature and have also been linked to public policy and legal considerations (Gupta & Gould, 1997:39). Ethical concerns about product placements may be seen as an antecedent to attitudes toward the placement, toward the brand and in turn, toward its purchase. Such an assumption borrows from the MacKenzie and Lutz (1989:52) advertising models as reviewed in Chapter 2 of this study.

Gupta and Gould (1997:39) have reviewed two aspect of ethical concerns relating to product placement, namely, a general ethical concern about product placement as well as concerns about some product vis-à-vis the other. With regards to general ethical concerns about product placement, Balasubramanian (1994:31) points out that since product placements are not labelled as advertisements, they can thus be seen as covert

commercial content camouflaged as part of the entertainment content. Critics of product placements, therefore, argue that such subliminal advertising is unfair on consumers as they are unable to defend themselves against placements as they would with traditional advertising. Furthermore, with the inclusion of advertising messages in entertainment content, consumers are unable to escape exposure since doing so would interrupt the programme experience, whilst the use of zipping and zapping is available with traditional TV advertising (Williams *et al.*, 2011:2). Moreover, critics of product placement practices have further alleged that such placements have a negative economic impact in that it promotes materialism and that consumers may develop favourable attitudes towards those brands that are associated with the glamor of TV world at the expense of other more functional brands (Gupta & Gould, 1997:40).

Despite its persuasive and deceptive nature, studies on attitudes towards product placement in general have shown a positive attitudes and those that indicated a negative attitude were with respect to specific products such as those that are ethically charged (Nebenzahl & Secunda, 1993:5; Balasubramanian, 1994:127; Gupta & Gould, 1997:41; Gould *et al.*, 2000:47; Sung *et al.*, 2009:260. Gupta and Gould (1997:41) further point out that the use of cigarettes placements could be an unethical tactic to go around the prohibition of cigarette advertising on TV.

In addition to cigarettes, other products such as guns and alcohol are considered as ethically charged products (Gupta & Gould, 1997:41). Moreover, the ethicality of placements into children's content has also come under scrutiny s studies show that children are especially easy to be persuaded by marketing and advertising efforts (Hudson & Elliot, 2013:179). It may be argued, therefore, that advertisers may use product placement as a backdoor to marketing ethically charged products such as alcohol, especially with the lack of clear guidelines on the advertising code of conduct. This is especially true with the Advertising Standards Authority of South Africa as no clear provision is made for alcohol advertising through product placement (Moerdykon, 2014). For the purposes of this study, the ethically charged product construct refers to alcohol, tobacco and guns specifically and this study, therefore, predicts a negative relationship between ethics and product placement attitudes in movies and TV shows.

Owing to its nature as a paid form of “hybrid message” (Balasubramanian, 1994:31), and the ethical concerns that come with it, product placement has since been a subject of public scrutiny and call for regulation. Al-Kadi (2013:2) notes that the instance of product placement regulation was in 1949 whereby a placement of Southern Comfort was removed from a TV show for being over-commercialised. In their recent study, Eagle and Dahl (2017:607) argue that the increasingly diverse nature of product placement within entertainment content means that awareness campaigns and warnings concerning their presence are unlikely to be effective in countering any negative effects of this marketing practice on vulnerable groups such as children and young adults.

Previous reviews on product placement regulation may be deemed somewhat controversial as they depict regulations are mainly focuses on media platforms of movie and TV (Al-Kadi, 2013:5). Similarly, Kwon *et al.* (2012:803) argue that there has been a failure to generate consistent policies regarding product placement by the regulatory framework as, for instance, product placements in syndicated movies produced specifically for TV have to comply with the regulatory rules on sponsorship identification, while product placements in feature movies produced for theatrical exhibition are not subject to the sponsorship identification rules.

In a comprehensive review of product placement regulation, Al-Kadi (2013:7) points out, the main differences in product placement policies, as primarily dependent on the perceived role of TV in a particular state. For example, the USA broadcast model tends to fulfil a role that compliments and supports a commercial society based on free trade and the opening up new markets for products and services. In contrast, Europe and the United Kingdom product placement were only allowed in 2011, though under strict rules (Al-Kadi, 2013:7; Mandes, 2014). The main objective of the regulation is that placements must be editorially justifiable and emphasis is put on prior warning to consumers of any promotional content within broadcast material (Mandes, 2014). The regulation further prevents the promotion of other products such as tobacco and prescription medication, junk food, baby milk and gambling (Al-Kadi, 2013:7-8).

Compared to the United States, Europe and other international markets however, South African TV industry lacks legislative policies that govern exactly how product placement should be conducted (Moerdykon, 2014). Some practitioners do not believe government

regulation is the key to solving concerns brought about by product placement but believe that consumers are ultimately the ones judge as they can choose to tune away from the sponsored programme if they feel it is over-commercialised, which would, in turn, result in loss of ratings for the programme and ultimately the diminished value of the placement itself (Moerdykon, 2014). Other consumer protection groups argue however that the South African TV industry needs to properly address problems with product placement for the sake of better local programming and rightly to make consumers aware of product placement's commercial intent (News24, 2014).

Siegel (2004:90) offers an in-depth review on the evolution of the Supreme Court's commercial speech doctrine and concludes that product placements are unlikely to be considered commercial speech at all. He adds that even if product placements were found to be commercial speech, the court's evolving doctrine would likely protect the placements from regulation.

Overall, policy makers and regulators across the globe have responded differently to product placement tactics as some see it as a legitimate source of funding while others see it as covert marketing and have imposed limitations or completely prohibited the practice (Al-Kadi, 2013:7).

Furthermore, product placement regulation has also been met with some degree of ambivalence from consumers however, studies in this regard posit that different factors such as culture, product type, movie watching frequency, and individual demographics serve as antecedents to the perceived regulation of product placement but the overall inverse relationship between product placement attitude and support for government regulation (especially for ethically charged products) seem to exist (Gupta & Gould, 1997; Gould *et al.*, 2000; Sung *et al.*, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2010; Williams *et al.*, 2011; Al-Kadi, 2013). Therefore, this study examines the placement regulation as a sub-construct and hypothesises that consumers who have a favourable attitude toward product placement will unlikely support the need to ban or regulate product placement in movies and TV shows with the exception of ethically charged products.

3.7.5 Character-product association

Research has suggested that product placement in movies and TV shows can be made effective through positive positioning and favourable association with a movie/TV character (Karrh, 1998:32; Gould *et al.*, 2000:43). Morton and Friedman (2002:34) add that as with advertising, a brand that appears with, or used by a character in a movie or TV show can reinforce its credibility by including it with traits of the movie character or of the actual actor personalities depicted in the character roles. The use of the Austin Martin brand's association with the James Bond character is one such example. Similarly, Karrh *et al.* (2001:5) asserts that the pairing of a brand and the character in placements diverts more attention to the brand while at the same time though, may also prompt a certain level of thinking by the consumer regarding the appropriateness of the pairing itself.

Russell and Stern (2006:9) note the difference between a movie and a TV show character, in that the latter is designed to be familiar, recognisable and stereotypical due to the recurrent nature of a TV show. This suggests that regardless of the attitude toward the character from the beginning of the show, consumers in time become familiar with the character and may therefore develop a relationship in this regard, which, in turn, would give credibility to the brand owing the way the favourite character interacts with it. Positive character association and identification is thus posited to lead consumers into adopting some character traits such as the products or brands they use (Karrh, 1998:33)

In addition, Karrh (1998:33) points out that some retailers have also embraced the concept of product placement as stores such as Gap and Amani have established their own service outlets to production studios so that costume designers may use their clothing merchandise to fit the characters in the production set. Examples in this regard can be pointed out in the movie, *White House Down* (2014), where the U.S. president is wearing and explicitly mentions Nike's Jordan sneakers in a movie scene, in addition, Coca Cola is said to have a dedicated product placement office at its headquarters (PQ Media, 2018).

Individuals' association with a brand depend, in part, on the person who is promoting or endorsing the brand and thus bringing the brand to life (Sobour *et al.*, 2013:116). Such brand/character associations also depend on the type of placement strategy being used,

as Karrh (1998:33) reported a 50 to 75 percent recognition rate by audiences when a brand is explicitly mentioned by the character, as opposed to a 40 to 60 percent recognition rate when the product is merely used by character. In addition, d'Astous and Chartier (2000:32) had previously drawn similar conclusions regarding the use of different product placement strategies, as they reported that consumer memory of the placed product is enhanced and consumer attitudes towards placements is favourable when the lead actor/character is present, when the placement is prominent and when it is well integrated within the movie scene or the programme.

Product placement is closely related to the celebrity endorsement marketing phenomenon as characters in entertainment content inconspicuously endorse placed brands (Bergkvist *et al.*, 2016:171; Russell & Rasolofoarison, 2017:761). Celebrity endorsements have indeed been found to have a positive relationship with the brand and purchase intentions thereof (Russel, 1998:975; Bevan-Dye *et al.*, 2009:172). It is thus posited that if consumers like the character, they are more likely to like the placed product (Russell & Stern, 2006:9; Beneke, 2012:1070; Dias *et al.*, 2017:125). Therefore, given the existence of the relationship between character association and consumer attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows, the construct will be examined as forming part of the conceptual framework in this study.

3.7.6 Materialism

Based on discussions undertaken in the previous chapter regarding the involvement theory, the theoretical underpinning of the perceived influence of product placement on consumers' attitudes and behavioural responses can be drawn. As cited by Lee *et al.* (2010:369), following the conceptualisation of the informational versus transformational message styles in the advertising literature (Puto & Wells, 1984:638), marketers can develop strong persuasive advertising messages to influence consumer behaviour of targeted consumers. According to Puto and Wells (1984:638), an informational message strategy is the one that provides consumers with factual and relevant information about the product such that exposure to commercial messages of that nature aids in the consumers purchase intentions. Conversely, the transformational strategy instead characterised by associating the experience derived from "using the advertised brand with a unique set of psychological characteristics, which would not typically be associated

with the brand experience to the same degree without exposure to the advertisement” (Lee *et al.*, 2010:369).

Similar conceptualisation can be drawn from Petty and Cacioppo’s (1981:847) conceptual framework of the central versus peripheral route of persuasion. With regards to product placement, Russell (1998:975) adopted the above mentioned framework by proposing that product placement is reflective of a typical transformational message strategy vis-à-vis the informational message strategy as placements do not provide factual information regarding the placed brand but rather showcases the brand in an entertainment context

One of the major criticisms of product placement practices is that it is subliminal advertising in that consumers may not be aware that they are being marketed to, thereby being unduly influenced, as opposed to traditional advertising whereby the commercial intent is apparent (Balasubramanian, 1994:30). The authors in this regard argue that consumers are being influenced in a subtle and harmful manner and, therefore, propose a more thorough examination of the perceived influence of product placement on consumers for future research. Notwithstanding this, however, studies have shown a more consistent indication that consumers are indeed influenced by product placement but do not seem to mind (Nelson & McLeod, 2005:520; Sung *et al.*, 2009:259). The findings of a recent study that investigated the importance of consumer materialism and consumer ethical evaluation of product placement in movies indicate that moviegoers who score higher on materialism tendencies find product placement more acceptable than those who score lower (Manyiwa & Brennan, 2016:65).

Generation Y consumers are believed to be especially susceptible to the effects of product placements because of their insecurities and susceptibility to peer influence (Caspi & Roberts, 2001:50; Voorveld *et al.*, 2017:240). “The more insecure adolescents are, the more their personalities are subjective to change, and the more likely it is that they use brands for constructing their identity” (Rhee & Johnson, 2012:75). The more insecure these consumers are, Giles and Maltby (2004:815) argue, the more they turn to celebrities or movie characters as role models. Evidence seem to exist suggesting that Generation Y consumers show heightened levels of materialism (Nelson & McLeod, 2005:30; Bevan-Dye *et al.*, 2012:5578; Rhee & Johnson, 2012:75; Cartwright & Oprea, 2016:183; Jaspers & Pieters, 2016:451; Cartwright, Oprea & van Reijmersdal, 2018:18).

This is yet another reason why Generation Y consumers are particularly vulnerable to product placement persuasion.

This study therefore, hypothesises a positive relationship between materialism and Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

3.7.7 Purchase intentions

In the consumer attitude structure, purchase intention is said to be the most efficient way of measuring actual behaviour. Ajzen (1985:13) demonstrated this in the theory of planned behaviour (Section 2.6.1). The theory proposes that the most logical way to predict behaviour is with behavioural intention. This construct is also examined in this present study.

Product placements are said to be associated with increased purchase intention and sales when executed appropriately (Russell & Stern, 2006:9; Williams *et al.*, 2011:8). This is evident especially when considering the placement of Reese's Pieces candy in the Hollywood block buster movie *E. T.*, which resulted in a 65 percent sales increase (Newell *et al.*, 2006:576). The lack of academic works in this regard, however, has been much lamented by some researchers in recent years, as the construct is believed to be the most effective measure of product placement effectiveness (Morton & Friedman, 2002:34; Van Reijmersdal *et al.*, 2009:430; Chen & Deterding, 2013:43)

A significant contribution of note in this regard is by Morton and Friedman (2002:35) who extended research in product placement attitudes and purchase intentions by including the brand usage, trial and search constructs to modify the original Gupta and Gould's (1997:45) widely used attitude scale. Findings suggest that a subset of beliefs may be useful in predicting product usage behaviour following exposure (Morton & Friedman, 2002:32). Similarly, Gould *et al.* (2000:44) conducted a cross-cultural analysis of Austrian, French and American consumers where it was reported that American consumers were more likely to purchase brands from movie placements. Furthermore, in another cross-cultural comparison of American versus Korean consumers, Lee *et al.* (2010:369) reported that both segments were equally likely to pay attention to placements in movies and TV shows and further admitted that the product placement does indeed influence their purchase intention.

Indeed, few studies have established a significant relationship between product placement attitudes and subsequent purchase intentions; however, Balasubramanian *et al.* (2006:133) caution that while marketers may claim that placements significantly increase product sales, more empirical measures may help shed some light on the rationales underlying such phenomena. Therefore, in the call for such measures, this study examines the purchase intention construct and proposes that consumers with positive attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows will likely have positive attitudes toward purchasing the placed brand.

3.8 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN PRODUCT PLACEMENT ATTITUDES

Since the spark of a wide academic interest in the product placement research two decades ago, a general consensus seems to exist that affirms product placement as an effective alternative to traditional TV advertising. Earlier research by Nebenzahl and Secunda (1993:4), reveal that consumers have favourable evaluations of product placements in movies, and those who do not, cited concerns with regards to the ethical practices of some placements. These findings were later supported by Gupta and Gould (1997:38) and their study, subsequently, was replicated across various countries, including France and Austria (Gould *et al.*, 2000), China (McKechnie & Zhou, 2003), Australia (Brennan *et al.*, 2004) amongst others, where similar findings emerged with regards to product placement attitudes.

Findings from these various studies show that while attitudes towards product placement and subsequent behavioural responses may change due to factors such as consumers' perceptions of placement ethicality, realism, entertainment value, attitudes towards TV advertising, materialism and character-product association, these attitudes may also be influenced by individual differences, such as gender and age as well as movie watching frequency (Nebenzahl & Secunda, 1993:4; Karrh, 1998:33; Gupta & Gould, 1997:45; Gould *et al.*, 2000:48; McKechnie & Zhou, 2003:350; Balasubramanian *et al.*, 2006:133; Sung *et al.*, 2009:257; Lee *et al.*, 2010:524; Guido *et al.*, 2010:34; Karisik, 2014:253).

Attempts to further examine and provide more detailed assessments of demographic differences in placement attitudes have been few in number, and limited for the most part

to gender considerations (De Gregorio & Sung, 2010:84). An analysis of these results broadly suggest that males and those who watched a greater number of movies are more open to product placement especially with regards to the placement of ethically charged products such as alcohol, tobacco and guns (Gould *et al.* 2000:44; Brennan *et al.*, 2004:3; De Gregorio & Sung, 2010:84).

Results emanating from Guido *et al.* (2010:35) also examined individual differences pertaining to personality, and found females to be less inclined to product placement. The authors attribute this to the notion that females are more susceptible to moral and social standards compared to their male counterparts (Guido *et al.*, 2010:37). In contrast, however, other studies that attempted to assess these gender differences found no evidence to support this notion (Nelson & McLeod, 2005:515; Schmoll *et al.*, 2006:33; Sung *et al.*, 2009:259; Lee *et al.*, 2010: 369).

Taking into account the limited literature that exists regarding gender differences in product placement research, this construct remains an open topic for further investigation. As such, the present study seeks to address this gap by exploring the gender differences, if any, that may exist in attitudes and behavioural responses towards movies and TV shows amongst South African Generation Y students. This is in part fulfilment of the last empirical objective of the present study as set out in Section 1.3.3.

3.9 PROPOSED MODEL

In accordance with the literature reviewed in this chapter, the following model of the antecedents of South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows is proposed, as depicted in Figure 3-1.

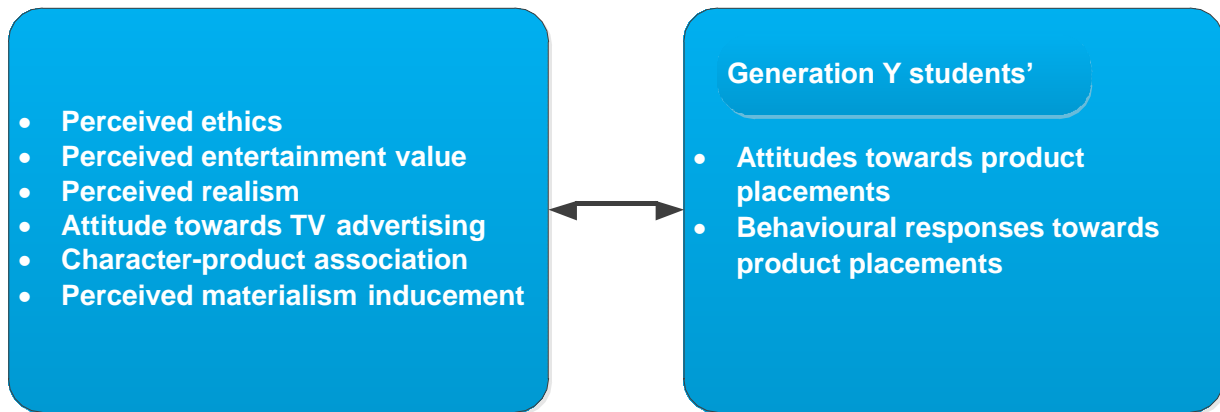


Figure 3-1 Proposed model of Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows

3.10 CONCLUSION

Chapter 2 reviewed the past literature on consumer attitudes towards advertising, which, in Chapter 3 was then extended to the product placement context in an endeavour to construct an integrative framework of the antecedents of product placement attitudes, to develop a framework to measure the Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows. Based on the attitude literature, the study proposed a model consisting of various factors theorised to influence consumers' attitudes towards product placements

The paradox of product placement (that is, if you see it, it's bad, but if you don't see it, it's worthless) has presented a significant challenge to brand marketers globally given the potential benefits that the practice has to offer vis-a-vis the shortcomings of traditional TV advertising. This model aims to shed more light into the impact of this marketing communication tool on consumers. An understanding in this regard will help marketers further understand consumer responses to the practice, as well as gain additional insights on how best to develop and execute different product placement strategies in order to appeal to different types of consumers so as to maximise the potential of placing brands in entertainment media. In addition, the model further presents pertinent public policy issues, which both government and practitioners have to consider in this regard.

The next chapter examines the research approach and methodology used in order to test the proposed model of the Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows empirically.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 and 3 of this study consisted of a review of the literature pertinent to establishing the theoretical framework of the present research. Against this theoretical framework set out in the previous two chapters, this chapter seeks to conduct an outline of the research methodology utilised to realise the empirical objectives of the study. In an endeavour to model the South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows, 10 empirical objectives were formulated (Section 1.3.3). These empirical objectives necessitated a collection of data into the following:

- South African Generation Y students' profile in terms of demographics and media consumption habits
- South African Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows
- South African Generation Y students' attitudes towards TV advertising
- South African Generation Y students' perceptions of product placement's ethics, realism, materialism, entertainment as well as character-product association
- South African Generation Y students' intentions to purchase the placed brands.

Chapter 4 elaborates on the theoretical background of the research design and methodology that was followed for the empirical section of the study. It outlines the sampling procedure, including the target population, sampling frame, sample size, together with the method of data collection and the administration of the survey questionnaire.

The statistical analysis techniques used in this study to address the research question are also explained. These include principle component analysis, reliability and validity analysis, descriptive statistics analysis, collinearity diagnostics, canonical correlation analysis, as well as the independent samples t-test and Cohen's-D statistic.

With reference to empirical research, Hair *et al.* (2015:133) point out to importance of adhering to a strict research process that follows a systematic and planned approach to the research project and ensures that all aspects of the research project are consistent with one another. This emphasises the necessity of making sure that the research design and methodology, as well as the implementation thereof, are in accordance with the research objectives formulated for the study. The following section considers the marketing research process.

4.2 **MARKETING RESEARCH PROCESS**

Marketing research encompasses a set of systematic and objective steps to be followed in the gathering of information for marketing decisions (Babin & Zikmund, 2015:5). Although there is a lack of universal consensus among researchers as to the precise number of steps involved in the marketing research process, Figure 4.1 illustrates the typical steps to be followed in the marketing research process as suggested by, among others, Aaker *et al.* (2004:73), Burns and Bush (2006:84), Zikmund *et al.* (2013:7) and Malhotra (2010:41). These steps were adhered to in this study.

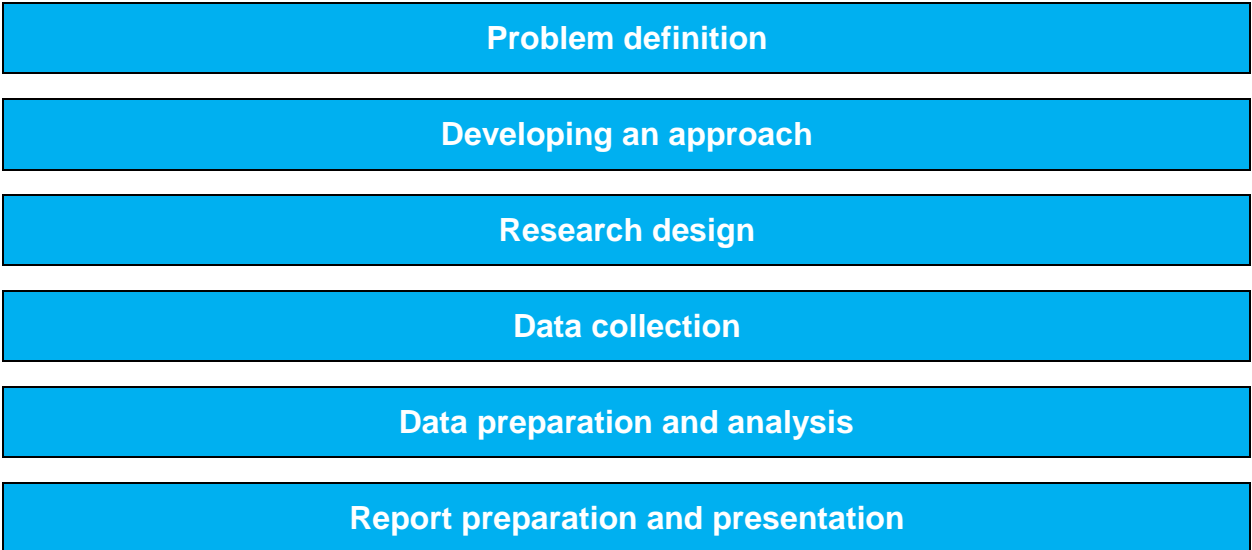


Figure 4-1 Marketing research process

Source: Malhotra (2010:57)

The six steps illustrated in Figure 4-1 indicate the chronology of tasks that need to be undertaken when conducting a marketing research project. The steps include the problem definition that justifies the reason for undertaking the study, the development of an

approach to that problem in terms of specifying the objectives to be achieved by the study, the selection of an appropriate research design to guide the study, the collection of the required data through fieldwork and the preparation and analysis of the data collected. Once these steps have been carried out, the concluding step in the process requires the preparation and presentation of a report on the findings of the study (Malhotra, 2010:41-42; Babin & Zikmund, 2015:49).

Section 1.2 of the first chapter articulated the problem statement in this study, which identified a need to develop and empirically test the attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and television shows amongst Generation Y students in South Africa. Following the problem statement and indication of the research design used to guide this study, the primary objective, theoretical objectives and empirical objectives were formulated (refer to Chapter 1, Section 1.3).

In the following section, the research design that guided the empirical section of this study is described.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design can be described as a set of methods and procedures used to guide a researcher in collecting and analysing measures of the variables specified in the research problem (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:48; Babin & Zikmund, 2015:166; Bryman & Bell, 2015:9). Simply put, a research design can be viewed as a framework that has been created to find answers to research questions (Hair *et al.*, 2015:133; Rubin & Babbie, 2016:44). There are three broad streams of research designs, namely exploratory research, causal research and descriptive research (Hair *et al.*, 2013:36-37).

Whilst these three different categories may differ in length and complexity, Malhotra (2010:103), points out that any well-developed design will achieve the following:

- Provide a clear identification of the research design and justify its selection from alternative designs
- Provide a review and synthesis of the relevant literature
- Specify the hypotheses central to the problem in a clear and explicit manner

- Describe the data required for testing the hypotheses and explain how that data will be gathered
- Describe the methods of analysis to be applied to that data in order to test the hypotheses.

The first main type of research design is that of exploratory research. Exploratory research is characterised as being flexible and unstructured (Malhotra, 2010:104). The purpose of exploratory research is to gain greater clarity and understanding of a concept or to aid in the defining of a problem (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:43). Exploratory research may be used to narrow down the scope of a research topic and refine ambiguous research problems (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:58), and may also help in the formulation of hypotheses (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:60).

The second main type of research design is causal research, which focuses on gathering information regarding cause-and-effect relationships (Fienberg *et al.*, 2013:59). In other words, the purpose of a causal research design is to ascertain conclusively whether two or more variables are causally related (Hair *et al.*, 2013:37; Silver *et al.*, 2013:76); that is, how an independent variable influences a dependent variable in a specified situation (Malhotra, 2010:113).

The third main type of research design, the descriptive research design, as with causal research, is a conclusive form of research. Another form of conclusive research used in the majority of marketing research studies is the descriptive research design (Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:57). This type of research design is used when researching the characteristics, attitudes and/or perceptions of groups, people, objects, organisations or environments (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:49); in other words, it is used to describe phenomena, such as market characteristics (Hair *et al.*, 2013:36; Malhotra, 2010:106). In contrast to exploratory research, the descriptive research design is highly structured. Moreover, while exploratory research aids in formulating hypotheses, it is the descriptive research design that is used to test those hypotheses (Silver *et al.*, 2013:71).

A descriptive research design may take the form of a longitudinal study or the form of a cross-sectional study (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:86; Shukla, 2008:41). In comparison to a longitudinal study, which involves taking repeated measurements of the same

population elements over a specified period of time, a cross-sectional study involves the collection of data from a single sample (single cross-sectional design) or more than one sample (multiple cross-sectional design) only once (Malhotra, 2010:108-110).

In this study, a descriptive research design, using the single cross-sectional approach was utilised as the blueprint for conducting the research project.

In the next section, the sampling process employed in the study is described.

4.4 SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

This section describes the sampling procedure followed in this study as set out in the marketing research literature. The target population, sampling frame, sampling method and sample size are described.

4.4.1 Target population

The fundamental consideration in developing a sampling procedure is to specify clearly the characteristics of those individuals from whom or about whom information is needed to meet the objectives formulated for the research project, which suggests that these elements must be homogeneous in nature (Hair *et al.*, 2015:165; Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:68). A target population refers to “a collection of homogeneous elements or objects that possess the information sought by the researcher and about which inferences are to be made” (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:258).

In this study, the target population was defined as 18- to 24-year old university students who, during 2018, were registered at a public HEI in South Africa.

4.4.2 Sampling frame

The second stage in the sampling design procedure is to identify the sampling frame for the study. This sampling frame is a master list of the elements of the target population that includes a list of directions for identifying the elements of the target population (Babin & Zikmund, 2015:340). Unfortunately, in the real world, such lists are not often easily available - something which can prove challenging (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:391).

In the current study, the initial sampling frame identified for this study was a list of the 26 South African public HEIs. The final sampling frame selected for the study comprised the campuses of three public HEIs situated in the Gauteng province. The public HEI campuses included one from a comprehensive university, one from a traditional university as well as one from a university of technology. This decision was motivated by the cost and time constraints associated with accessing all Generation Y students from all the nine provinces in the country. In addition, the Gauteng province is home to the highest number of HEIs (7), as well as the highest student population amounting to over 60 percent of the country's student population at the end of 2017 (Statistic South Africa, 2018).

4.4.3 Sampling method

From the sampling frame of the three HEI campuses, a non-probability sampling method was utilised to gather the required data. There are two main categories of sampling methods, namely probability sampling, which involves each and every target population element having a known chance of being selected as part of the sample, and non-probability sampling, which involves the selection of elements for inclusion in a sample based on the judgement of the researcher. While probability sampling is preferred over non-probability sampling given it offers the benefits of ensuring that the sample will be representative of the population (Malhotra 2010:376), it is not always feasible. Probability sampling methods require a complete list of the sampling elements in a target population, which, as explained by Zikmund *et al.* (2013:391), is not always readily available. Given that in this study it was not feasible to obtain a complete list of students registered at the three HEI campuses making up the sampling frame, the non-probability sampling method was applied. Despite its limitations, Eze and Lee (2012:99) point out that non-probability samples can often produce relatively good estimates of the characteristics of a target population, with convenience sampling being suitable when the sample elements are highly relevant to the study topic, represent the population of interest and serve the research purpose.

4.4.4 Sample size

The sample size is the number of sample elements to be included in the sample drawn from the sampling frame. Factors such as cost implications, accessibility of respondents,

importance of the decision and the statistical techniques to be conducted on the collected data help in determining an appropriate sample size (Malhotra, 2010:374).

For the purpose of this study, a sample size of 450 participants was selected. This was based on the planned statistical analysis techniques, whereby principle component analysis requires 5 to 10 observations per item in the scale, and canonical correlation analysis 10 observations per independent variable (Hair *et al.*, 2010:102&243). Given that the measurement instrument used in the study comprised 40 items, a sample size of 450 was deemed acceptable.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Data collection involves the process of gathering the required data from the elements in the sample. With quantitative research studies, such as the study reported in this thesis, the typical data collection methods are the observation method and the survey method (Malhotra, 2010:209).

For this study, the survey data collection method was the most appropriate choice and entailed the distribution of a structured self-administered questionnaire. After obtaining ethical clearance from the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Economic Sciences and Information Technology at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus) (Ethics Clearance Number: *ECONIT-2016-059*), lecturers at each of the three campuses were contacted, shown the questionnaire together with the ethics clearance certificate and asked if they would act as gatekeepers to the student participants. Those lecturers who agreed were then requested to ask the students in their class if they would be prepared to complete the questionnaire straight after that particular lecture.

4.6 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Structured questionnaires are the most typical type of measurement instrument employed in the survey data collection method (Feinburg *et al.*, 2013:236; Shukla, 2008:47-48). When designing a questionnaire, several guidelines have been suggested, namely:

- Must be presented in a structured and logical manner

- Must be presented in simple and direct language, avoiding ambiguous or double-barrelled questions
- Must contain a physically attractive cover letter that explains the study and enticing to respondents to encourage participation
- Must avoid lengthy question that would discourage respondents from participating

The questionnaire in this study consisted of a six-page document with simple and brief objectives. The first page of the questionnaire was a cover letter, which included the purpose of the study, relevant contact details and an explanation concerning why the study focused on Generation Y students. In addition, a definition of product placement and two pictures illustrating a typical product placement in a movie and a television show were also included. The use of simple English terminology ensured a clear understanding of all the questions.

4.6.1 Questionnaire structure and content

The survey questionnaire consisted of 40 items measured along a six-point Likert-scale with 1=strongly disagree and 6=strongly agree. The questionnaire was divided into eight sections with Section A consisting of 10 closed-ended questions aimed at soliciting the respondents' demographic information as well as media consumption habits.

Section B of the survey instrument consisted of an eight-item scale measuring Generation Y students' perceptions of product placement ethicality. These items were adopted from Gupta and Gould (1997:42) and were modified to be in line with the context of the present research. In addition, Section C (5 items) and Section D (4 items) were also adopted from Gupta and Gould (1997:42) and measured the respondents' perceptions of the realism value of product placement as well as general attitudes towards television advertising respectively.

Furthermore, an eight-item scale was constructed in Section E of the questionnaire, which was aimed to measure character-product association. Three of the items in this scale were adopted from connectedness scale by Russell *et al.* (2004:154), whilst one item was included from Gupta and Gould (1997:42). Three items were adopted from Karrh *et al.* (2001:10) and the final item was adopted from Beneke (2012:1071). All the items

combined were carefully selected, as they were deemed appropriate in addressing the research objectives of this study.

In addition, Section F of the questionnaire consisted of five items measuring the perceived materialism of product placement on respondents. The items were adopted from Gupta and Gould (1997:42) whilst Section G of the questionnaire consisted of four-item scale intended to measure behavioural responses were adopted from Morton and Friedman (2002:37).

The last section of the questionnaire (Section H) consisted of six items which measured two constructs. The first three items were adopted from Tan and Chia (2007:362), which measured attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows. The last three items were adopted from Hernandez *et al.* (2004:79) and measured perceived entertainment value of product placements in movies and TV shows.

4.6.2 Pre-testing of questionnaire

Malhotra *et al.* (2013:217) warn that no research should be conducted without a pre-test. This can be attributed to the fact that no researcher can develop a perfect questionnaire at the first attempt. The purpose of a pre-test is to check that the questionnaire does not have any potential problems in terms of the question content, wording, layout and or instructions.

Bryman and Bell (2015:272) explain that during a pre-test, researchers look for any potential misinterpretations of questions and questionnaire instructions by participants, as well as participants' general reactions to the questions. Importantly, the pre-test should be administered in the same survey mode as the main study.

A pre-test using five respondents was conducted for the present study. After the respondents were debriefed, the instrument was deemed fit for a pilot test, with the exception of minor concerns, especially with the length of the survey questions in particular.

4.6.3 Pilot testing

It is worth noting that a pre-test differs from a pilot test, in that a pre-test is carried out on a small number of participants to ensure that it measures what it is meant to measure and that there are no problems in completing the questionnaire, while a pilot test is carried out using participants similar to the targeted population in order to establishing its reliability (Eze & Lee, 2012:99). This means simply that the pre-test tests for any shortcomings concerning the questionnaire and the pilot serves as a simulation of the main study and tests the reliability of the instrument.

The questionnaire consisting of 40 Likert-scale items was piloted on a convenience sample of 50 Generation Y students who were not included in the main study. In order to ensure that the pilot sample participants were not unintentionally included in the main study, the pilot was conducted on a HEI campus that did not form part of the sampling frame. The Cronbach alpha was used to test the internal-consistency reliability of the scaled responses in the pilot study, where the guideline for the overall scale and sub-scales is >0.6 (Malhotra *et al.*, 2010: 319).

4.7 DATA PREPARATION

Once the fieldwork was complete, the research questionnaires were subjected to validation (editing) and coding, a task necessary especially in ensuring that all questions were answered properly and fully. This is mostly applied in interview-based surveys, as researchers are aware that fieldwork can be subject to interviewer cheating (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:293).

The data preparation entails editing, coding, capturing and storing raw data obtained from the completed questionnaires. Despite being somewhat of a tedious exercise, it is a crucial step in the research process as the final results and the interpretation thereof are largely dependent on the accuracy of such raw data (Rubin & Babbie, 2016:506).

4.7.1 Data editing

The purpose of data editing is to make sure that the gathered data is not only complete and accurate, but also organised in a simple manner to code and tabulate (Shukla,

2008:95). As such, editing involves checking questionnaires for errors, illegibility and inconsistency (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:64).

In this study, a two-phase data editing process was undertaken. In the first phase, questionnaires completed by respondents younger than 18 years or older than 24 years were discarded because they fell out of the parameters specified in the target population. In the second phase, any questionnaire that had less than 90 percent of the scaled-response items completed was discarded.

4.7.2 Data coding

In addition, data coding is yet another task that needs to be completed to enable data entry for statistical analysis. This is a manual task performed by the coder whereby numbers are assigned to responses in order to transcribe raw data in to symbols or numeric formats to enable statistical analysis in that regard.

The questionnaire was divided into eight Sections, where Section A measured respondents' demographic and media consumption habits. Section B measured product placement ethics, while Section C measured perceived realism. Moreover, Section D measured attitude towards television advertising, Section E character-product association, Section F measured perceived materialism and Section G measured purchase intention. Lastly, Section H comprised two scales measuring attitude towards product placement and perceived entertainment. The above tasks were conducted in conjunction with the statistician.

Data concerning this study were coded accordingly per construct as presented in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1 Coding information

TYPE OF DATA	VARIABLE	QUESTION NUMBER
Demographic and media consumption habits	A1 to A10	Section A, Questions A1-A10
Ethics	B1 to B8	Section B, Items B1-B8
Realism	C1 to C5	Section C, Items C1-C5
Attitude towards television advertising	D1to D4	Section D, Items D1-D4
Character-product association	E1 to E8	Section E, Items E1-E8
Materialism	F1 to F4	Section F, Item F1-F4
Purchase intentions	G1 to G4	Section G, Item G1-G4
Attitude towards product placement	H1 to H3	Section H, Items H1-H3
Entertainment	H4 to H6	Section H, Items H4-H5

4.7.3 Frequency tabulation

The third step in the data preparation process involves tabulating the data. This entails setting up a tabulation table, which involves organising the captured data into an orderly presented or arranged classification system. Such a table involves computing the number of responses allocated for each of the questions (Silver *et al.*, 2013:232; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:32). There are different forms of tabulation, including bivariate tabulation, univariate tabulation and multivariate tabulation (Struwig & Stead, 2011:152; Malhotra, 2010:467). This study used univariate tabulation, whereby the data were computed and tabulated individually; that is, one response for each given question.

Having completed the data preparation step, the next step was to analysis the data by applying predetermined statistical analysis techniques. In the following sections, the statistical methods applied to the empirical data set are outlined.

4.8 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

In this study, the statistical program, SPSS, Version 25, was used to analyse the captured data. Data analysis included frequencies, principle component analysis, internal-consistency reliability analysis, construct validity analysis (convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity), collinearity diagnostics, canonical correlation analysis and an independent samples t-test.

These methods are outlined in the following sections.

4.8.1 Principle component analysis

The primary focus of factor analysis is to understand the underlying structure amongst the variable included in a data set (Hair *et al.*, 2010:94). While factor analysis incorporates various techniques, the two fundamental approaches are that of common factor analysis and principal component analysis (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:382). In this study, principle component analysis was applied for the specific purpose of assessing the underlying dimensionality of the set of independent and set of dependent constructs included in the proposed model of South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

Before principle component analysis is performed, necessity demands that a data set be examined for suitability to perform the analysis. This involves determining whether the sample size is sufficiently large to produce meaningful and reliable results (Pallant, 2010:182). According to McDaniel and Gates (2014:448), while there is no consensus amongst researchers as to what constitutes a suitable sample size, the larger the sample size, the better. That being said, a sample size of 200 or a ratio of five observations for each item has also been suggested as being suitable for factor analysis (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:383)

The two methods that can be utilised to assess the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis are the Bartlett's test of sphericity and the KaiserMeyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. A KMO value greater than 0.6 and significant Bartlett's test of sphericity indicates that the data set is suitable for factor analysis (Pallant, 2010:183; Malhotra *et al.*, 201:643).

The next stage in principle analysis is to determine the actual component extraction by determining the smallest number of items that can be used to best represent the correlations amongst those items (Kline, 2014:56). Simply put, this stage entails determining how many of the factors should be retained.

Whilst the decision on how many factors to retain ultimately depends on the researcher, three approaches serve to guide the decision. First, the theoretical background of the phenomena under investigation serves as a useful guide. Other approaches are based on mathematical models, namely the eigenvalue method and the scree plot. This study utilised the eigenvalue approach. The eigenvalue approach stipulates keeping all factors with an eigenvalue of one or greater and discarding those with eigenvalues lower than one (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:385).

The final stage in principle component analysis is factor rotation and interpretation. This happens after the components have been extracted and it involves rotating the factors in order to assist with the ease of interpretation thereof. Whilst this process does not change the outcome of the results *per se*, factor rotation is a mathematical way to identify a pattern that assists in interpreting those results based on their factor loadings (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:589). The two main categories of rotation methods are the orthogonal and the oblique approaches, where the orthogonal approach includes varimax, quatimax and equamax rotation, and the oblique approach includes promax and direct oblimin rotation (Pallant, 2010:185).

In this study, the orthogonal approach using varimax rotation was applied.

4.8.2 Reliability

Bryman and Bell (2015:49) define reliability as the extent to which a measurement scale produces consistent results when repeated measurements are taken. This is assessed by determining the association between scores obtained from different administrations of a measurement scale. As such, a measurement scale is viewed as reliable if the association is high. The approach followed for assessing reliability will depend on whether the purpose is to measure stability of results over time or the internal consistency of items in measurement scale (Rubin & Babbie, 2016:194). There are several types of reliability

assessment techniques, including test-retest, alternative forms and internal-consistency reliability.

4.8.2.1 Test-retest reliability

The test-retest reliability approach seeks to measure the stability of a measurement over time. With this approach, the same respondents are given identical instruments at two different times (generally at two or four week intervals) under similar conditions and then the results of those two tests are correlated the results. (Malhotra, 2010:319).

4.8.2.2 Alternative-forms reliability

The alternative-forms approach to measuring reliability involves the same study participants completing alternative forms of a measurement at two different times. Once again, the results of those two tests are correlated to evaluate the reliability of the measure (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:310).

4.8.2.3 Internal-consistency reliability

The internal-consistency approach is a popular measure of the reliability of the summated items within a construct. Two methods may be used to measure internal-consistency reliability, namely the split-half method or the Cronbach alpha method. The split-half approach merely involves splitting the items in a summated scale in half (according to odd or even numbered items, or randomly) and then running a correlation analysis on the two half scores (Malhotra, 2010:319).

The Cronbach alpha test of internal-consistency reliability offers an improvement to the split-half method in that it computes the average of all possible different ways of splitting the scale (Malhotra, 2010:319; Cronbach, 1951:300). The computed coefficient alpha values range from zero to one, and values of 0.6 and higher are considered to indicate acceptable internal-consistency reliability (Malhotra, 2010:319), while those of 0.7 and above indicate good internal-consistency reliability (Pallant, 2010:97). One possible limitation of the Cronbach alpha is that it artificially increases as the number of items in a summated scale increases, and vice versa (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:309). For this reason, Pallant (2010:97) suggests also considering the average inter-item correlation, especially with scales that have fewer than 10 items.

Validity measures are discussed next.

4.8.3 Validity

Zikmund *et al.* (2013:304) note that a good measurement instrument should exhibit both consistency and accuracy. Whilst consistency issues are covered through reliability measures, accuracy deals more with whether the instrument indeed measures what it is supposed to measure. The basic approaches to determine the validity of the instrument include face-, content-, construct- and criterion validity.

4.8.3.1 Face/content validity

Face validity or content validity refers to the subjective consensus among subject experts that the instrument under evaluation logically reflects the phenomenon being measured (Malhotra, 2010:320). While face validity may seem easy, Zikmund *et al.* (2013:304) caution that in the case of complex business research such as attitudes measures, face validity becomes somewhat illusive and researchers prefer to use additional methods.

The instrument used in this study was examined by two experienced researchers and by four marketing academics to establish its face validity.

4.8.3.2 Criterion validity

Criterion validity, which includes predictive and concurrent validity, refers to the association between the results obtained from the measurement scale and performance on certain other meaningful variables (Malhotra, 2010:320). Predictive validity seeks to ascertain whether test scores obtained from the first time of administration correlate with those acquired in the future. With concurrent validity, the test score and the criterion of interest are ascertained at the same time (Punch, 2014:242-243).

4.8.3.3 Construct validity

The focus of construct validity is on assessing theoretically-expected patterns of relationships among item scores or between test scores and other measures (Voorhees *et al.*, 2016:121). The primary aim of conducting construct validity is to “explore constructs accounting for a variance in test performance” (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955:177).

Construct validity includes three measures, namely convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity. In order to conclude the presence of convergent validity, the measure used needs to correlate with other measures designed to measure the same thing. Discriminant validity, in contrast, necessitates that a measure does not correlate highly with measures from which it is supposed to differ (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:157). Clark and Watson (1995:316) stipulate that summated scales with an average inter-item correlation value of between 0.15 and 0.50 are indicative that the items within that scale exhibit convergent validity, as well as discriminant validity.

The third measure of construct validity is nomological validity, which Malhotra (2010:321) indicates is the degree to which measures correlate with different but related measures in a theoretically predicted manner. Hair *et al.* (2010:710) advise that a Pearson's product-moment correlation matrix be constructed to assess the extent of the nomological validity between constructs designated for inclusion in a measurement model.

Pearson's product-moment correlation analysis measures the direction and strength of the relationships among variables, whereby the direction is indicated by a positive/negative sign before the correlation value. A positive correlation suggests that as the value of one variable increases, so does the other. In contrast, a negative correlation suggests that if the value of one variable increase, then the other variable decreases. Moreover, the strength of the relationships among variables is determined by the actual value of the correlation coefficient. These values range between negative one (-1) and positive one (+1). In general, a correlation coefficient value closer to one (regardless of the direction) implies a strong relationship while a value closer to zero implies a weak relationship. A correlation coefficient value of one, therefore, can be interpreted as a perfect linear relationship (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:554-555; Hair *et al.*, 2015:152).

The descriptive statistics computed in this study are discussed next.

4.8.4 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics is the term given to summary measures of a data set. These measures include location measures (mean, median and mode), dispersion measures (range, variance and standard deviation) and shape of the distribution measures (skewness and kurtosis) (Malhotra, 2010:486-488).

4.8.4.1 Measures of location or central tendency

Location measures are measures of the central tendency; that is, they describe the centre of the data set distribution. These location measures include the mean, mode and median (Anderson *et al.*, 2016:64). In this study, the mean measure of location was used to describe the central tendency, which, according to Malhotra (2010:486), is the most typically used measure of central tendency for data collected using interval or ratio scales.

This arithmetic mean is calculated by summing the values of all the observations for a specific variable and then dividing that amount by the number of observations (McDaniel & Gates, 2014:414).

4.8.4.2 Measures of dispersion

Dispersion measures give additional information about the central location values, in that these measures describe the dispersion of the data set's distribution (Rubin & Babbie, 2016:510). Zikmund *et al.* (2013:415) indicate that the standard deviation is one of the most useful indices to measure the dispersion of the data set and was utilised in this study.

A standard deviation is used when seeking to quantify the amount of variation or dispersion of data, whereby a low standard deviation value suggests that the data tends to be closer to the mean, and a high value suggests the data to be more widely spread (Bryman & Bell, 2015:349). The variance refers to the average squared deviation of all the values in a data set from the mean and, thus, the standard deviation represents the square root of the variance (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:487). Therefore, unlike the variance, the standard deviation is presented in the same units as the data.

4.8.4.3 Measures of shape

In addition to the measures of central location and dispersion, measures of shape are computed to describe a data set. These measures involve determining the skewness and kurtosis of the data. Skewness describes the amount and direction of the data's departure from the horizontal symmetry. The direction can be observed graphically whereby a positively skewed distribution is suggested by a pile up of the data gravitating towards the left, thus leaving a more conspicuous right tail on the distribution curve. In contrast, a

negatively skewed distribution is suggested by a more noticeable left tail (Malhotra, 2010:488). Moreover, the amount of skewness can be expressed as high, moderate or approximately symmetrical. A value of zero, though unlikely, suggests a symmetrical distribution, while a value of more than (+1/-1) is highly skewed (Anderson *et al.*, 2016:63). Therefore, in the case whereby the distribution is highly skewed, a determination of the kurtosis may not be recommended given that the distribution is already not normal (Gupta & Yadav, 2017:394)

According to Rubin and Babbie (2016:510), kurtosis refers to the measurement of a distribution's normality, flatness or peak. When calculating the kurtosis, a normally distributed data will have a coefficient of zero, commonly referred to as mesokurtic. However, if the excess kurtosis value is greater than one, then the distribution will be too peaked to be considered normal and referred to as leptokurtic. In the case whereby the kurtosis value is less than one instead, the distribution would thus be considered too flat to be normal and would be called platykurtic (de Winter *et al.*, 2016:273; Westfall, 2014:193).

4.8.5 Collinearity diagnostics

An important issue to consider when using multivariate statistical analysis to a data set is whether there are any serious multi-collinearity issues (Hair *et al.*, 2010:21). Given that canonical correlation, which is a multivariate statistical technique, was used to empirically test the proposed model emanating from the review of the literature, it was necessary to run collinearity diagnostics.

Multi-collinearity is said to be present when the association between the independent variables is very strong. The presence of serious multi-collinearity makes it difficult to determine the relative strength of a predictor variable in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (Malhotra, 2010:586).

There are two commonly used tests of multi-collinearity, namely the tolerance test and the variance inflation factor (VIF). In terms of these two collinearity diagnostic tests, high tolerance values and a low average VIF suggest that multi-collinearity is not a serious concern (Hair *et al.*, 2010:201). Pallant (2010:158) indicates that tolerance values less

than 0.10 and an average variance inflation factor (VIF) above 10 should be cause for series concern as it indicates the presence of multi-collinearity.

The next section discusses the canonical correlation analysis as one of the statistical techniques computed in the present study.

4.8.6 Canonical correlation analysis

Originally proposed by Hotelling (1936:139), canonical correlation analysis is a multivariate statistical modelling method that is used to measure the existence of linear relationships between two sets of variables, with one set called the independent variables and the other set, the dependent variables (Alkenani & Yu, 2013:692).

Whereas multiple regression allows for the prediction of a single dependent variable based on the linear function of more than one independent variables, canonical correlation allows for the study of the relationships between several independent and dependent variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010:235). Canonical correlation analysis is presented as a general perspective of other multivariate statistical analysis techniques, with several other of these techniques, including multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and multivariate multiple regression, being special cases of it, as suggested by Baggaley (1981:125) and Thompson (1991:6) among others. More specifically, Knapp (1978:410), among others, assert that nearly all of the commonly used parametric tests of significance may be considered as special cases of canonical correlation analysis.

Canonical correlation may be defined as a multivariate statistical analysis that seeks the weighted linear composite of a set of dependent and independent variables in order to maximise the overlap in their distribution (Sherry & Henson, 2005:39). While the use of the dependent and independent variables may be thought of as having a certain degree of temporal precedence, the use of the dependent and independent variables in canonical correlation analysis is used indiscriminately as the procedure seeks to examine relationships instead of causality. Therefore, the main objective of canonical correlation is to maximise the correlation, rather than the variance extracted as is the case with other multivariate techniques such as principal component analysis (Chatfield, 2018:457).

Canonical correlation involves several steps that include estimating the canonical functions, assessing overall model fit, running a redundancy analysis and interpreting the canonical variates (Hair *et al.*, 2010:253, 254).

4.8.6.1 Estimating canonical functions

The point of departure in canonical correlation analysis is to derive one or more canonical functions. This process of deriving successive canonical functions may be likened to the process applied to derive a factor analysis model. In a factor analysis, the first extracted factor accounts for the most amount of variance in the set of variables; whilst the successive factors are extracted from the residual variance of preceding factors (see Section 4.7.1). Accordingly, in canonical correlation analysis the first canonical function is derived to maximise the correlation between the set of variables (Sherry & Henson, 2005:39). The successive functions are then extracted from the residual variance of preceding functions. As canonical functions are based on residual variance, each function is uncorrelated (that is, orthogonal) from other functions derived from the same data set and the canonical function reflects the strength of the relationship between the pairs of variates (Alkenani & Yu, 2013:693).

There is lack of general consensus regarding suitable number for canonical functions to retain for interpretation; however, Hair *et al.* (2010:253) suggests that it is necessary to consider both the statistical and practical significance when deciding on the number of functions to subject to further analysis and interpretation.

It is possible to obtain a relatively strong canonical correlation (> 0.30 , corresponding to about 10% of variance explained) between two canonical variates, even though these linear variates may not extract significant portions of variance from their respective sets of variables (Hardoon *et al.*, 2004:2640). When squared, a canonical root is representative of the amount of variance in one optimally-weighted canonical variate accounted for by the other optimally-weighted canonical variate. This shared variance between the two canonical variates is also called the canonical root or eigenvalue. Although the canonical root seems to be a simple and appealing measure of the shared variance, Sherry and Henson (2005:38) caution that it can lead to some misinterpretation in that the squared canonical correlation represents the variance shared by the linear

composites of the sets of variables, and not the variance extracted from the sets of variables themselves.

4.8.6.2 Assessing overall model fit

With regards to assessing the canonical model fit, the general practice is to analyse those functions where canonical correlation coefficients are statistically significant (for example, at $p < 0.05$). There are several multivariate tests of the statistical significance of all canonical roots, including Wilks' lambda, Hotelling's trace, Pillai's trace, and Roy's largest root (Wilks, 2011:265). The Pillai-Bartlett trace is viewed as the most robust to violations of assumptions, whilst the Wilks' lambda is the most widely used and the Pillai-Bartlett trace is the most conservative of the four F-tests. That being said, it is a viable alternative if there are reasons to suspect that the assumptions of canonical correlation analysis are untenable (Coetzee & Harry, 2014:91).

4.8.6.3 Redundancy analysis

While canonical correlation coefficients measure the overall relationships among the set of variables, redundancy measures the magnitude of the relationship. Redundancy index represents the amount of variance in the original variables of one set of variables in a canonical function that is explained by the canonical variate of the other set of variables in that canonical function (Cohen *et al.*, 2013:57). A high redundancy infers a high ability to predict. When the defined relationship between a set of independent variables and dependent variables are clear, the redundancy index of interest would primarily be that of the independent canonical variate in predicting the variance in the set of original variables in the dependent set. The redundancy index is determined by calculating the amount of shared variance in a variable set measured by its canonical variate and calculating the amount of shared variance between the independent and the dependent canonical variates. The redundancy index of a variate is then derived by multiplying the two components (shared variance of the variate multiplied by the squared canonical correlation) to find the amount of shared variance explained by the opposite variate (Lazraq & Cleroux, 2002:413; Sherry & Henson, 2005:40).

It is necessary to note that although the canonical correlation is the same for both variates in the canonical function, the redundancy index may vary between the two variates (Kaya

et al., 2014:3758), as each variate will have a differing amount of shared variance. As with the canonical root, it is important to determine whether each redundancy index is sufficiently large to justify interpretation in light of its theoretical and practical significance of the research problem being investigated.

4.8.6.4 Interpreting the canonical variates

The next step in canonical correlation analysis is to interpret the canonical variates, based on a multivariate F-test (Dattalo, 2014:26). Even though canonical loadings are considered relatively more valid than weights as a way of interpreting the nature of canonical relationships, it is still necessary to be cautious when using loadings for interpreting canonical relationships, particularly with regard to the external validity of the findings (Shen, Sun & Yuan, 2015:397). Both of these two methods for interpreting canonical variates (standardised canonical coefficients and canonical loadings) provide a unique perspective on the variates and, as such, it is advisable to utilise both methods. In the case of the results of the two methods converging, there is evidence for the veracity of these results (Dattalo, 2014:28).

4.8.7 Independent-samples t-test

The t-test is a statistical analysis technique that is used for testing differences between means (Silver *et al.*, 2013:211; Pallant, 2010:105). While a z-test is typically used for sample sizes greater to 30, and a t-test for sample sizes smaller than 30, SPSS refers to both as the t-test. The three types of t-tests include the one sample t-test, the two independent-samples t-test and the paired sample t-test (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:390, 394). In this study, use was made of the two independent-samples t-test given that the objective was to test if there were any statistically significant differences in the means in Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows based on gender. This was the suitable method given that a two-independent samples t-test measures possible differences between means that have been sampled from two independent groups or population samples (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:390; Pallant, 2010:239).

While testing for statistically significant difference between means is important, it is also necessary to compute the Cohen D-statistic in order to determine if the statistically

significant difference is practically significant (Silver *et al.*, 2013:211; Ofori-Dankwa & Tierman, 2002:280). Practical significance is indicative of the strength of different effect sizes (Pallant, 2010:210). Pallant (2010:210) provides the following guidelines for interpreting Cohen's D-statistics:

- $0.20 \leq d \leq 0.50$: indicate a small, relatively non-significant effect
- $0.50 \leq d \leq 0.80$: indicate a medium-sized effect steering towards practical significance
- $0.80 \leq d$: indicate a large effect that has attained practical significance.

The following section, the conclusion, summarises the methodology and statistical methods used in this study.

4.9 CONCLUSION

The research methodology applied in this study was covered extensively in this chapter, together with an overview of the statistical analysis methods applied with regards to the analysis of empirical data. In this chapter, the three main categories of research designs were discussed and it was explained that due to the nature of this study and its objectives that the descriptive design was used as a blueprint for the study.

Thereafter, the sampling procedure utilised in the study was described. The initial sampling frame of 26 HEIs was narrowed down to three HEIs in the Gauteng province. From this sampling frame, a convenience sample of 450 university students was drawn; that is, 150 per campus.

The chapter included a discussion concerning the measurement instrument used for data collection. This measurement instrument was a self-administered survey questionnaire that included 40 scaled items, divided into eight constructs, and measured on a six-point Likert scale. Prior to the main survey, this questionnaire was subject to both a pre-test and a pilot test.

The methods used in preparing the collected data were also outlined in the chapter. The chapter then progressed onto discussing the various statistical analysis techniques applied to the data. These statistical analysis techniques included principle component

analysis, internal-consistency reliability analysis, construct validity analysis (convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity), collinearity diagnostics, canonical correlation analysis and an independent samples t-test.

The following chapter, Chapter 5 reports the empirical findings of the pilot study as well as the main study. The chapter will determine whether the hypothesised relationships in the proposed model are supported.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

As outlined in Chapter 1, the prime objective of this study was to model the relationship between Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows and their consumption-related behavioural intentions towards placed products, and the factors of perceived realism, ethics, character-product association, materialism, attitude towards TV advertising and entertainment. These factors were proposed and reviewed in Chapter 3 as some of the potential contributors to product placement attitudes and resultant purchase intentions. This chapter also included a profile of the Generation Y cohort in South Africa. Chapter 4 went on to elaborate on the research approach employed in the present study, including the measurement instrument and the statistical techniques applied in the analysis of the empirical data after the fieldwork had been conducted.

In this chapter, a report on the statistical analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings of the data collected is provided. The pilot study results are reported on first in Section 5.2. This is followed by a discussion on the data gathering process in Section 5.3 and the preliminary data analysis in Section 5.4. Section 5.5 then reports on the demographics and media consumption of the sample, which is followed by sections on focusing on the statistical analysis methods applied to the data gathered in this study.

5.2 RESULTS OF THE PILOT TEST

Section 4.5 of the previous chapter elaborated on a pilot study and its purpose. The pilot data were evaluated to assess the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument, and to determine whether the questions and statements were appropriately worded. The Cronbach alpha was used to assess the internal-consistency reliability of the eight scales used in the instrument, to which responses were recorded on a six-point Likert scale, ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree. The convergent and discriminant validity of the items within each of the scales were assessed using the average inter-item correlation coefficients. After pre-test the questionnaire using the debriefing approach,

the instrument was piloted on a sample of 50 Generation Y students. These results of this pilot test are depicted in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1 Summary table of pilot results

Items	Number of variables	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Cronbach Alpha	Average inter-item correlation
B1-B8	8	3.3116	.81992	71	0.618	0.17
C1-C5	5	4.6282	.99329	71	0.823	0.48
D1-D4	4	3.7183	1.48861	71	0.855	0.59
E1-E8	8	4.2183	.98736	71	0.846	0.47
F1-F5	5	4.3887	1.11247	71	0.856	0.54
G1-G4	4	4.0986	1.21264	71	0.877	0.64
H1-H3	3	4.1761	1.16390	71	0.913	0.77
H4-H6	3	4.1268	1.26160	71	0.893	0.73

As can be noted in Table 5-1, the coefficient alphas for the scales ranged from 0.618 to 0.913, which is indicative of internal-consistency reliability. In accordance with the guidelines developed by Clark and Watson (1995:316), all of the scales had average inter-item correlation values exceeding 0.15, thereby suggesting that the items within each of the scales exhibits convergent validity. However, five of the scales had average inter-item correlation values above the recommended level of 0.50 - a situation that raises concerns regarding the discriminant validity of the items within those scales.

However, Pallant (2010:100) points out that this simply suggests a stronger relationship between the items in a construct. Moreover, the scales used were adopted from prior studies that were proven to be robust measuring instruments in previous product placement studies, as outlined in Chapter 4. The pilot instrument, therefore, was deemed satisfactory for the main study.

5.3 DATA GATHERING PROCESS

The data set for this study was collected using a self-administered questionnaire that was distributed to a convenience sample of Generation Y students registered at the three HEI campuses that were selected as the sampling frame. Certain lecturers at these campuses were asked if they would allow the questionnaires to be distributed to students following their lectures. It was made clear to the students that participation was voluntary. In an effort to ensure an even distribution of responses across the three campuses, 150 questionnaires were distributed at each of the campuses.

5.4 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

Before the data set was analysed, a preliminary analysis of data was conducted on the data set, which entailed coding, cleaning and doing frequency tabulations. These procedures are outlined in the following sections.

5.4.1 Data coding

- In the questionnaire used in the present study, the questions were classified into eight sections, as shown in Table 5-2. The same questionnaire was administered to all of the participants in the sample. The variable codes, together with their assigned values are presented in Table 5-2.

Table 5-2 Coding information

Section A: Demographical data and media consumption			
Items	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Item 1	A1	Age	Younger than 18 years (1); 18 years (2); 19 years (3); 20 years (4); 21 years (5); 22 years (6); 23 years (7); 24 years (8); older than 24 years (9)
Item 2	A2	Gender	Male (1); Female (2)

Table 5-2 Coding information (continued ...)

Section A: Demographical data and media consumption			
Items	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Item 3	A3	Race	Black/African (1); White (2); Coloured (3); Asian/Indian (4); other (5)
Item 4	A4	Home province	Eastern Cape (1); Free State (2); Gauteng (3); KwaZulu Natal (4); Limpopo (5); Mpumalanga (6); Northern Cape (7); North West (8); Western Cape (9)
Item 5	A5	Level of study	1st year (1); 2nd year (2); 3rd year (3); post graduate (4)
Item 6	A6	Favourite media content	Movies (1); TV series (2); local drama/soaps (3); reality shows (4); sports (5); other (6)
Item 7	A7	Means with which you access your favourite media content	TV (1); laptop (2); tablet (3); online (4)
Item 8	A8	Days per week	Every day (1); 5 days (2); 4 days (3); 3 days (4); 2 days (5); 1 day (6); never (7)
Item 9	A9	Hours per day	Less than an hour (1); up to 2 hours (2); two to four hours (3); four to six hours (4); six to eight hours (5); more than eight hours (6)
Item 10	A10	Awareness of product placement's commercial intent	Yes (1); not before today (2)

Table 5-2 Coding information (continued ...)

Section B: Perceived ethics			
Items	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Item 11	B1	Product placement ethics	Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Slightly disagree (3); Slightly agree (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6)
Item 12	B2		
Item 13	B3		
Item 14	B4		
Item 15	B5		
Item 16	B6		
Item 17	B7		
Item 18	B8		
Section C: Perceived realism			
Items	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Item 19	C1	Realism	Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Slightly disagree (3); Slightly agree (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6)
Item 20	C2		
Item 21	C3		
Item 22	C4		
Item 23	C5		
Section D: Attitude towards television advertising			
Items	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Item 24	D1	Attitude towards TV advertising	Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Slightly disagree (3); Slightly agree (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6)
Item 25	D2		
Item 26	D3		
Item 27	D4		

Table 5-2 Coding information (continued ...)

Section E: Character-product association			
Items	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Item 28	E1	Character-product association	Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Slightly disagree (3); Slightly agree (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6)
Item 29	E2		
Item 30	E3		
Item 31	E4		
Item 32	E5		
Item 33	E6		
Item 34	E7		
Item 35	E8		
Section F: Materialism			
Items	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Item 36	F1	Materialism	Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Slightly disagree (3); Slightly agree (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6)
Item 37	F2		
Item 38	F3		
Item 39	F4		
Item 40	F5		

Table 5-2 Coding information (continued ...)

Section G: Purchase intentions			
Items	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Item 41	G1	Purchase intentions	Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Slightly disagree (3); Slightly agree (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6)
Item 42	G2		
Item 43	G3		
Item 44	G4		
Section H:			
Items	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Item 45	H1	Attitude towards product placement	Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Slightly disagree (3); Slightly agree (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6)
Item 46	H2		
Item 47	H3		
Item 48	H4	Perceived entertainment	Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Slightly disagree (3); Slightly agree (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6)
Item 49	H5		
Item 50	H6		

5.4.2 Data cleaning

In the first step of the data cleaning process, questionnaires completed by individuals that were not within the defined target population's age parameters were discarded. Thereafter, questionnaires that had missing values exceeding 10 percent on the scaled-responses items were discarded. For questionnaires with missing values of less than 10 percent on the scaled-response items, those values were estimated based on the mode.

5.4.3 Frequency tabulations

The frequencies of the scaled-response items were tabulated at this point, as reported in Table 5-3.

Table 5-3 **Frequency table of responses**

Scale item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1	62	98	61	93	92	41
B2	146	120	89	46	36	10
B3	42	63	86	109	107	40
B4	84	101	71	79	65	47
B5	44	59	92	90	89	73
B6	40	45	50	57	93	62
B7	39	44	57	55	109	143
B8	90	91	78	68	51	69
C1	27	30	48	54	41	147
C2	5	35	46	91	45	125
C3	7	22	57	111	138	112
C4	10	28	37	75	147	150
C5	25	44	82	112	83	101
D1	54	69	46	54	83	141
D2	42	64	55	76	96	114
D3	53	79	73	83	78	81
D4	55	65	51	75	80	121

Table 5-3 Frequency table of responses (continued ...)

Scale item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
E1	28	60	52	103	105	99
E2	49	64	80	106	114	34
E4	52	88	119	103	61	24
E5	34	56	82	124	97	54
E6	33	51	70	107	103	83
E7	29	21	50	75	105	167
E8	42	29	49	108	107	112
F1	17	42	48	85	61	104
F2	13	25	55	130	142	82
F3	17	25	64	105	123	113
F4	14	20	63	100	127	123
F5	15	37	48	99	120	128
G1	36	61	59	109	123	59
G2	10	49	91	132	110	55
G3	28	56	93	124	103	43
G4	36	49	76	84	136	66
H1	36	56	50	135	122	48
H2	9	36	53	106	149	94
H3	11	38	85	140	115	58
H4	18	33	86	130	113	67
H5	22	46	70	106	127	76
H6	19	45	89	126	115	53

5.5 DEMOGRAPHIC AND MEDIA CONSUMPTION ANALYSIS

This section provides a description of the sample in terms of their demographics, as well as a description of the sample's reported media consumption habits. This section measured aspects relating to the participants' age, gender, level of study, race and province of origin.

In addition, media consumption aspects such as preferred entertainment content type and media type, together with typical duration of media consumption (in days and hours per day) and awareness of product placement's commercial intent were measured.

Of the 450 questionnaires distributed, 447 were returned. Out of those 447 returned, 397 questionnaires were usable; thereby, resulting in the final response rate of 88 percent.

The demographic data of the main study are presented next.

5.5.1 Age distribution

The sample of the study consisted of participants with ages ranging from 18 years (17.1%), 19 years (15.4%), 20 years (20.9%), 21 years (16.1%), 22 years (14.4%), 23 years (7.8%) and 24 years (8.3%). The age distribution of the sample is presented in Figure 5-1.

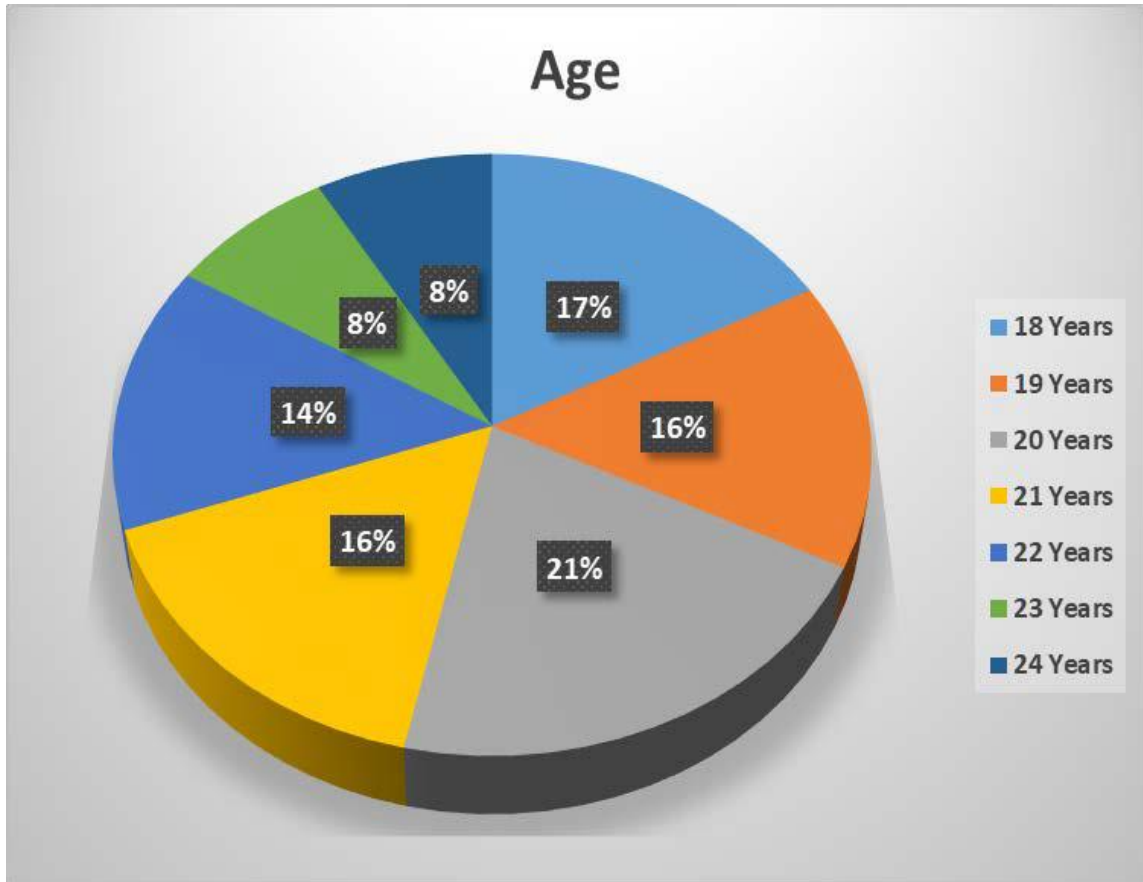


Figure 5-1 Age distribution of the sample

As is evident from Figure 5-1, each of the specified seven age categories are represented in the sample.

5.5.2 Gender distribution

The sample's gender was measured in order to compute further statistical measures as outlined in the empirical objectives section of the study. Figure 5-2 illustrates the gender distribution of the sample.

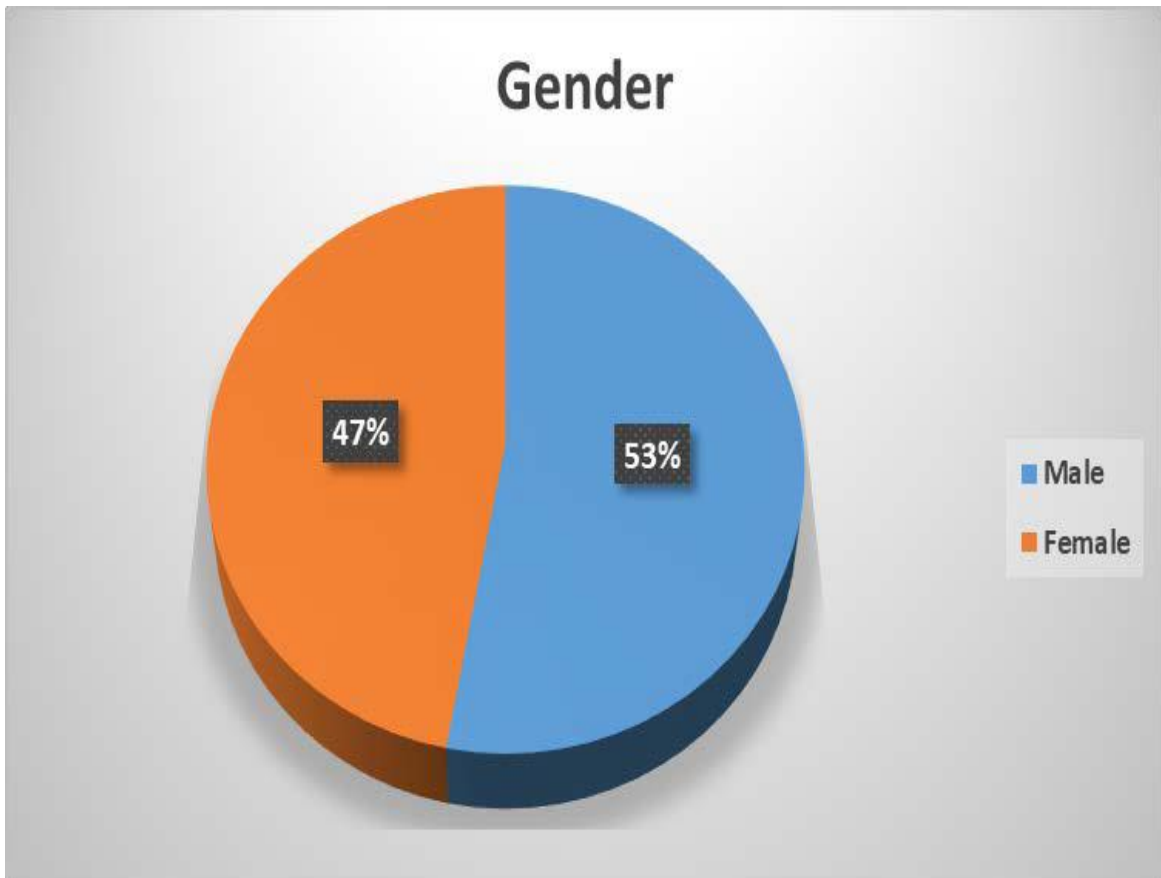


Figure 5-2 Gender distribution of the sample

As can be noted in Figure 5-2, the gender distribution of the sample participants was approximately evenly spread. The male participants in this study made up approximately 53 percent of the sample's population, while the female participants made up approximately 47 percent.

5.5.3 Race distribution

Figure 5-3 illustrates the race representation of the participants in the present study. The majority of the respondents in the sample identified themselves as Black Africans (95.5%), followed by Coloureds (2.3%). The White portion of the sample made up only 1 percent, while the Asian/Indian portion of the sample made up 0.5 percent. Some participants failed to specify this category.

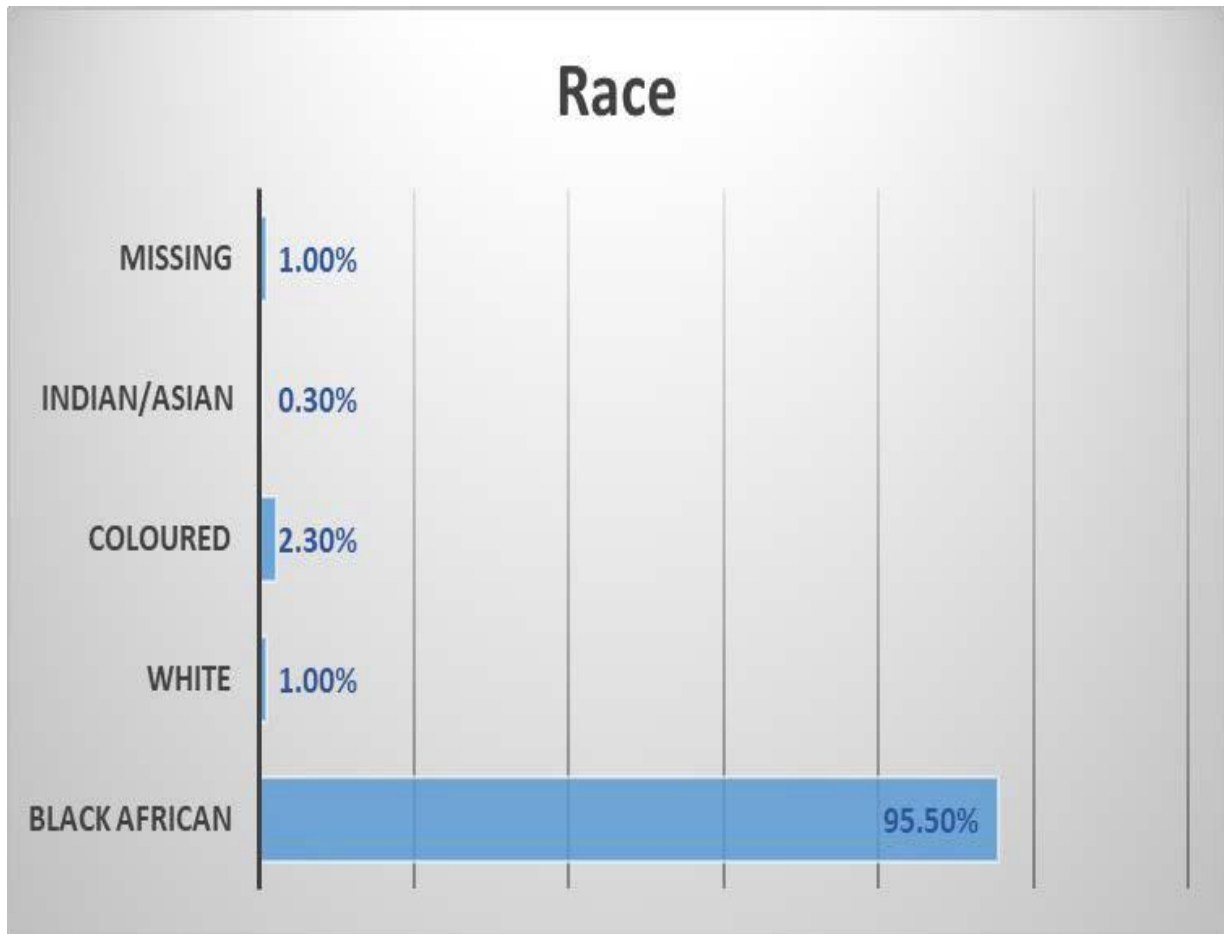


Figure 5-3 Race distribution of the sample

The results in Figure 5-3 came as no surprise as they are relatively consistent with the general South African population statistics. According to Statistics South Africa (2018), approximately 81 percent of the country's population is Black African.

5.5.4 Province of origin

Figure 5-4 indicates that in terms of the participants' province of origin, the sample is relatively representative of the country, with all nine South African provinces represented in the sample.

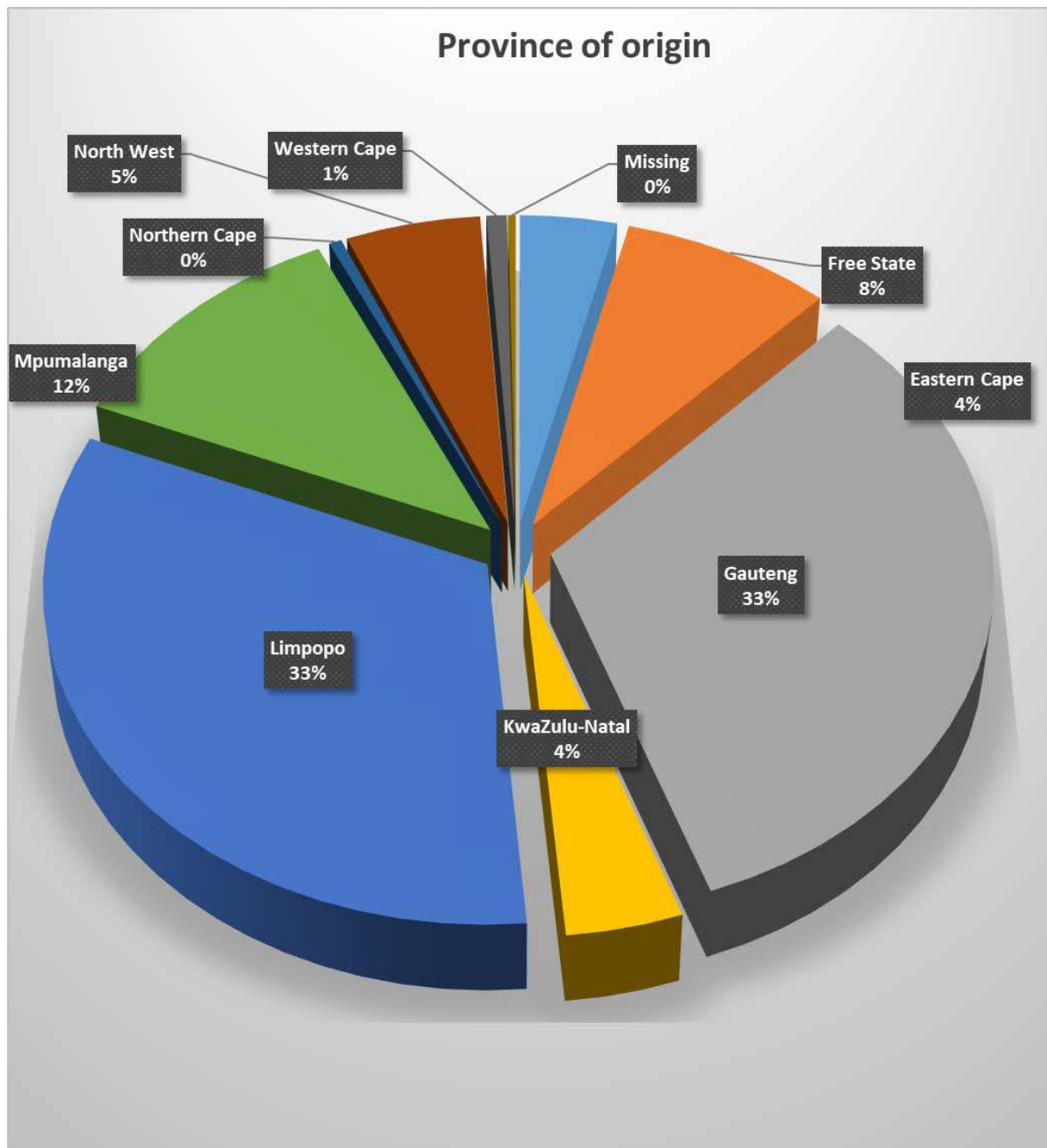


Figure 5-4 Participants' province of origin

As can be noted Figure 5-4, the majority of the participants in the sample reported their province of origin as Limpopo province (32.7%) and Gauteng province (32.5%). This was followed by Mpumalanga (11.8%), Free State (8.3%), North West (5.3%), KwaZulu Natal (4%) and Eastern Cape (3.8%). The two provinces with the lowest number of participants were Western Cape and Northern Cape (0.8% and 0.5% respectively), while one participant (0.3%) did not select any given option on the questionnaire.

These results are not surprising given that the Gauteng province is considered an economic hub of South Africa, as outlined in Section 3.2. In addition, the latest migration statistics reveal that Gauteng province has the highest migration levels (47%) especially from Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Free State, with those people in pursuit of better economic, environmental and social prospects (Statistics South Africa, 2018).

5.5.5 Level of study

Figure 5-5 is a representation of the participants' levels of study at their respective tertiary institutions.

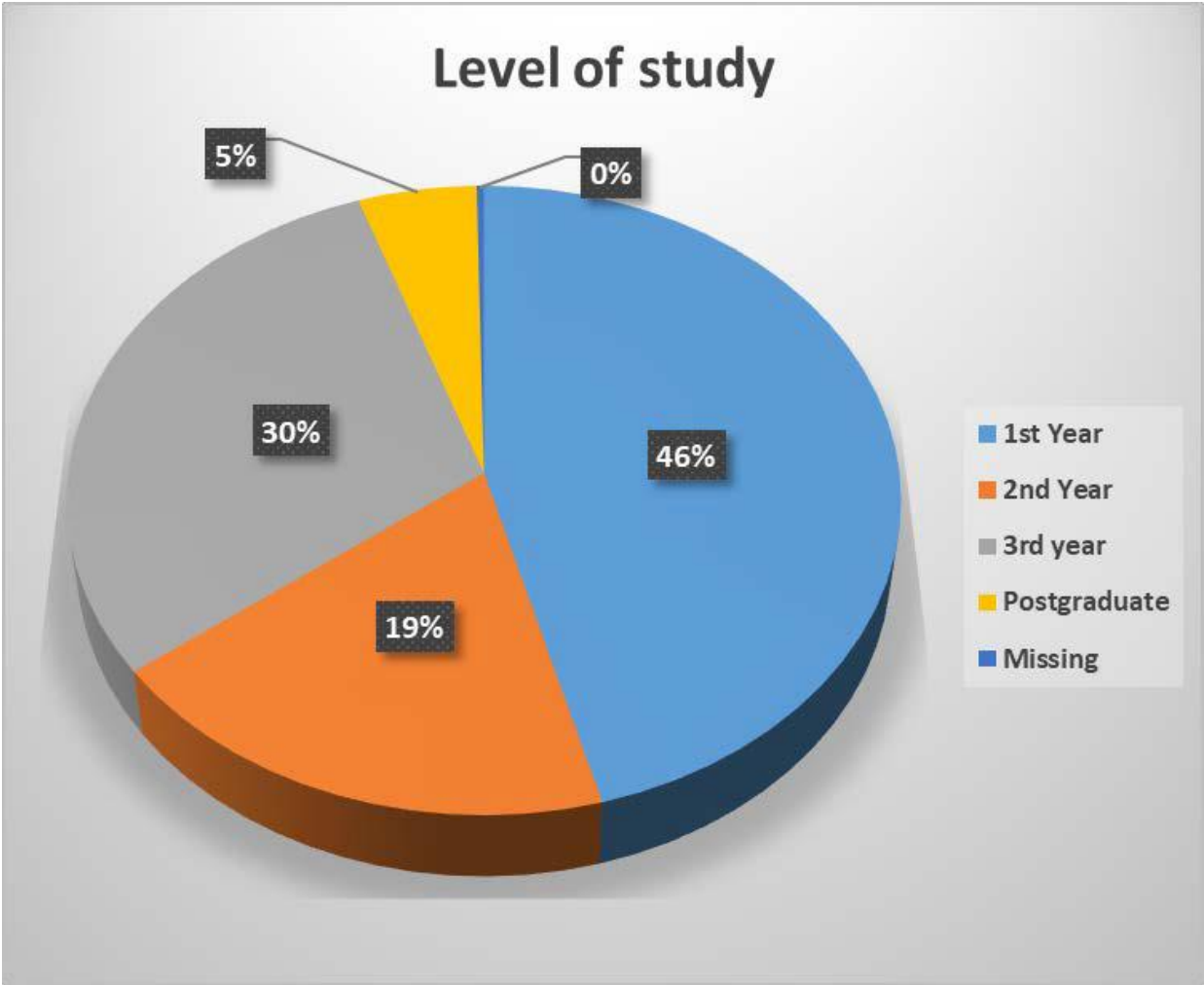


Figure 5-5 Participants' levels of study

As shown in Figure 5-5, the majority of the participants indicated to be in their first-year of study (45.8%), followed by those at their third-year of study (30%). Second-year

students and postgraduate students amounted to 18.9 percent and 5 percent respectively, while one participant (0.3%) failed to answer this question.

5.5.6 Favourite entertainment content

Concerning entertainment content, the majority of participants indicated preferring movies the most (35%), followed by TV series (24.4%). Local drama/soaps and sports made up 13.1 percent and 12.8 percent respectively, while reality shows made up 8.8 percent. Some respondents indicated their favourite entertainment content as other (5.3%), while two respondents (0.5%) failed to answer the question. This information is illustrated in Figure 5-6.

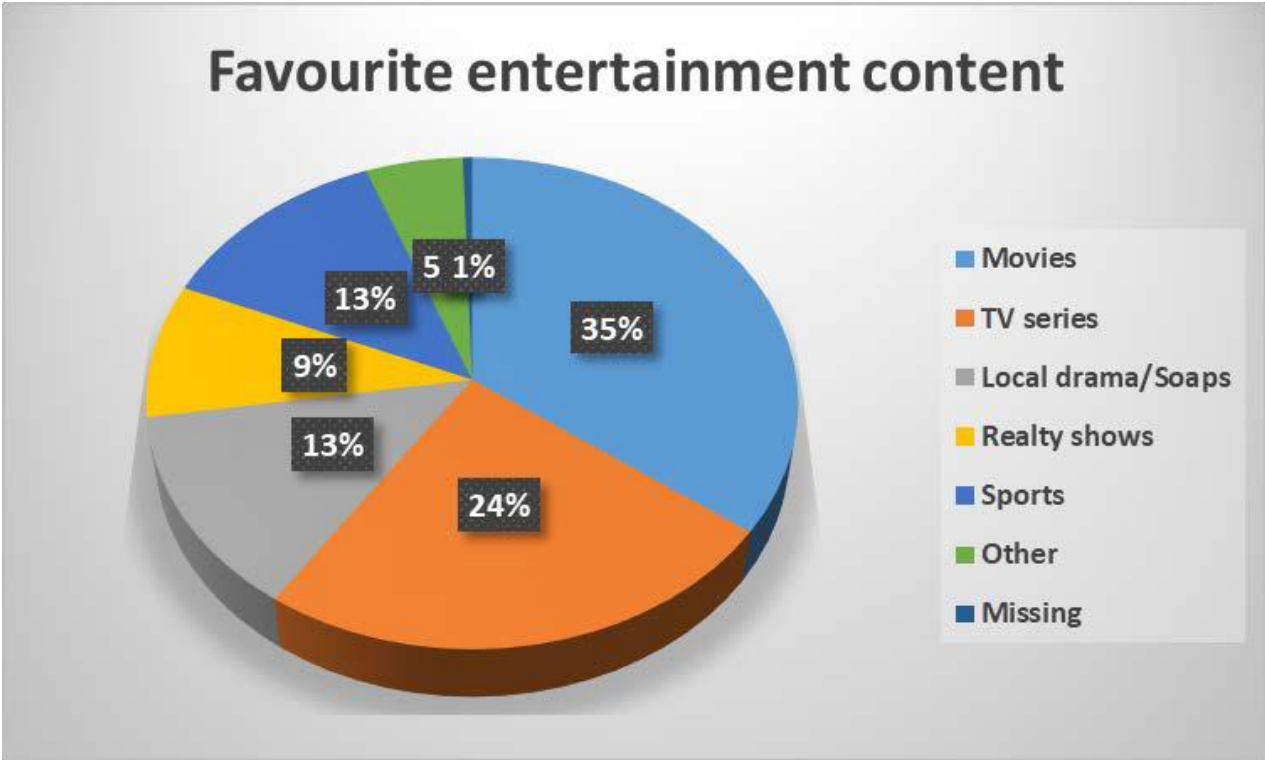


Figure 5-6 Participants' favourite entertainment content

The results depicted in Figure 5-6 are consistent with reports by PWC (2018) and PQ Media (2018), as discussed in the first three chapters of this study. Indeed, TV series and movies are still the most popular types of content to utilise for product placement (PQ Media, 2018).

5.5.7 Preferred medium for accessing entertainment content

Figure 5-7 illustrates the respondents' preferred medium of accessing their favourite entertainment content.

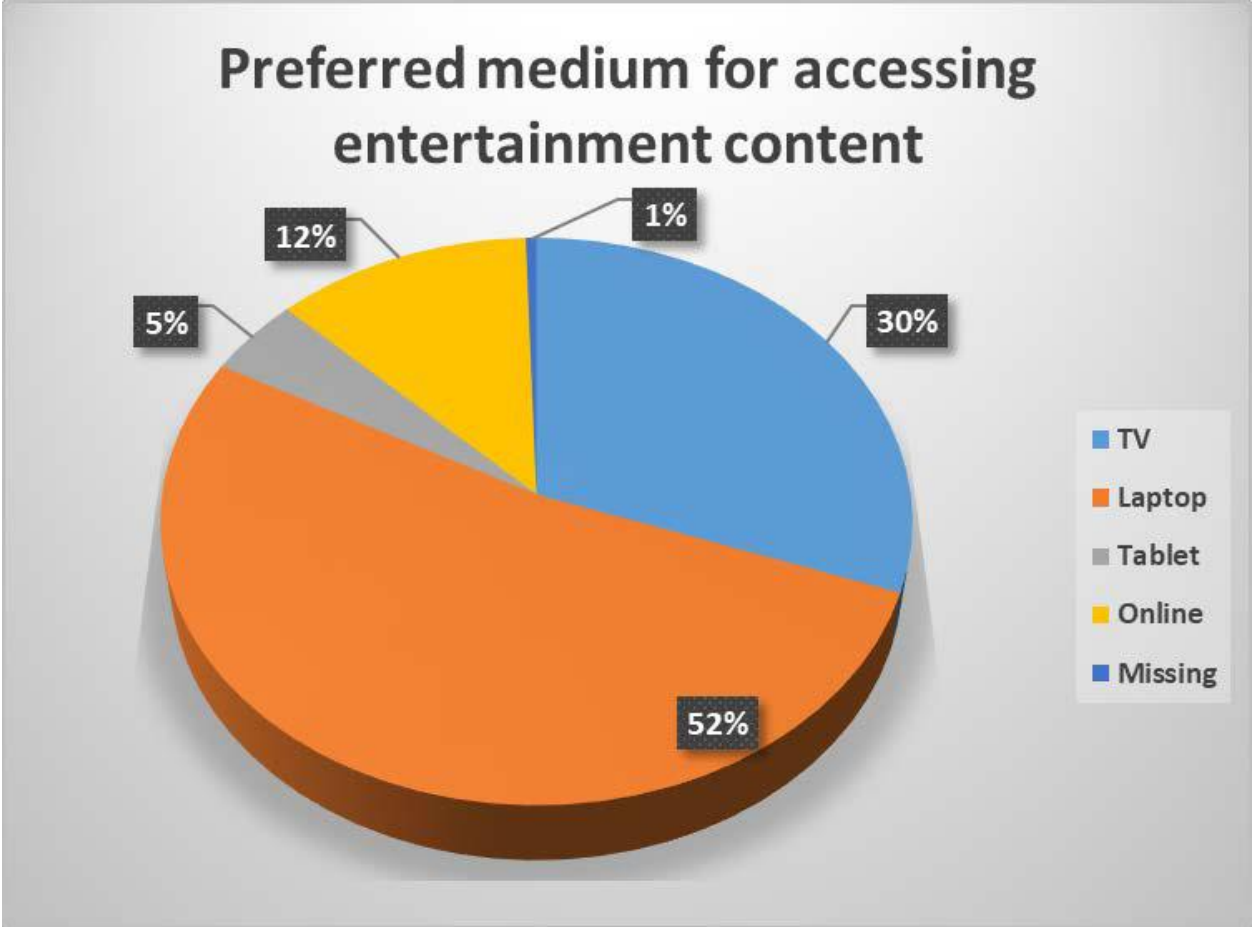


Figure 5-7 Participants' preferred entertainment media

As can be expected from the specified target population, the majority of the respondents indicated utilising laptops (52.7%) as their preferred means of accessing their favourite entertainment content. This was followed by TV (30.5%), online/Internet (12.1%) and tablets (4.5%). One respondent selected other (0.3%) but did not specify the media type. Notwithstanding the pace at which digital is growing, a typical student population, especially those residing away from home, depend on their respective institutions' Internet infrastructure, with mobile devices such as laptops and tablets being more easily accessible through various student financial aid schemes and bursaries.

5.5.8 Days per week spent on entertainment content

When asked how many days per week they spend viewing their favourite entertainment content, the majority of the participants indicated that they do so on a daily basis (37.3%). This was followed by those who indicated three days (14.6%) and two days per week (14.6%). The remaining respondents indicated six days (5.3%), five days (9.3%), four days (9.6%) and one day a week (8.1%). Surprisingly though, 1.3 percent of respondents claimed to not spend any day on any entertainment media, which seemed inconsistent with other media consumption questions asked in this section of the questionnaire. This information is depicted in Figure 5-8.

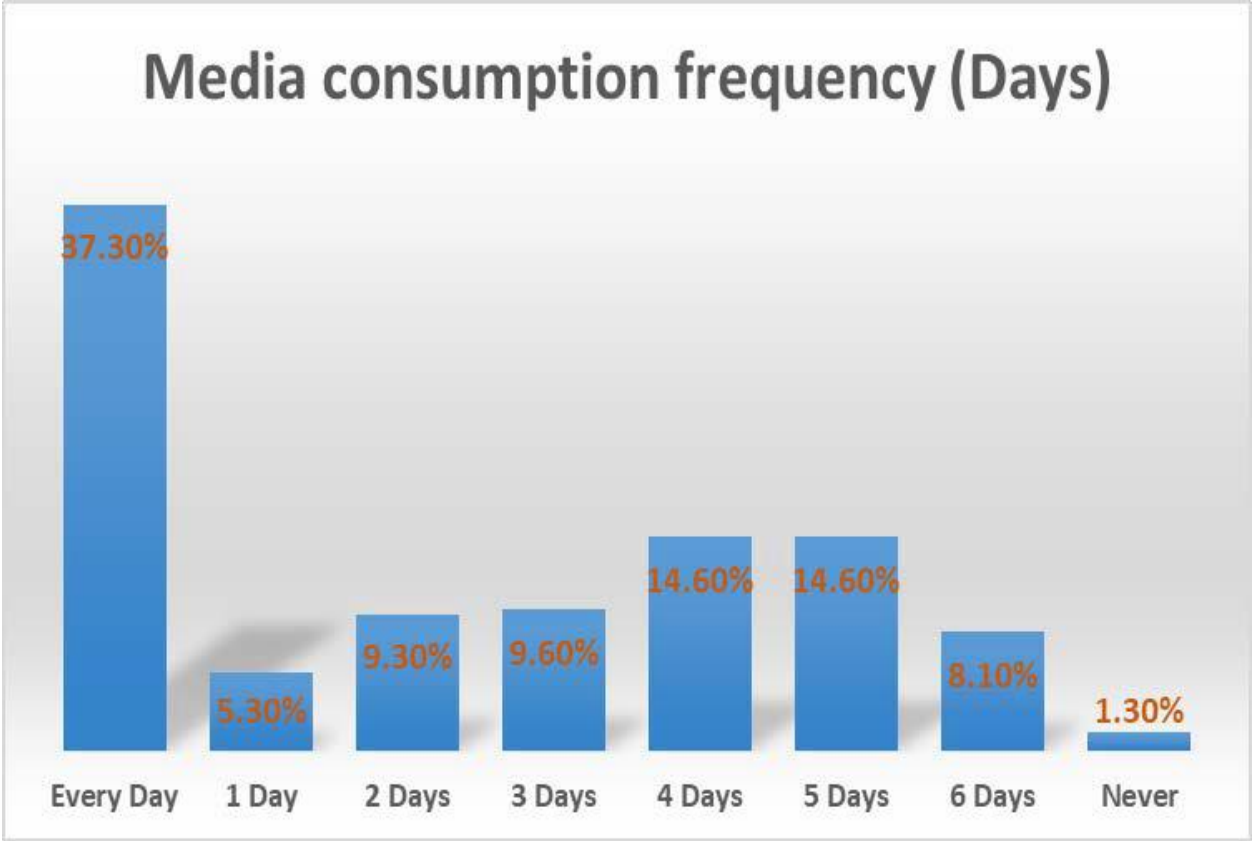


Figure 5-8 Media consumption frequency in days

5.5.9 Hours per day spent on favourite entertainment content

Question A9 asked respondents to indicate how many hours per day they spend viewing their favourite entertainment content. Respondents indicated spending less than 2 hours (10.1%), up to 2 hours (38%), 2 to 4 hours (29.7%), 4 to 6 hours (13.9%), 6 to 8 hours

(5.8%), while 2.5 percent indicated spending more than 8 hours per day on viewing entertainment content. This is illustrated in Figure 5-9.

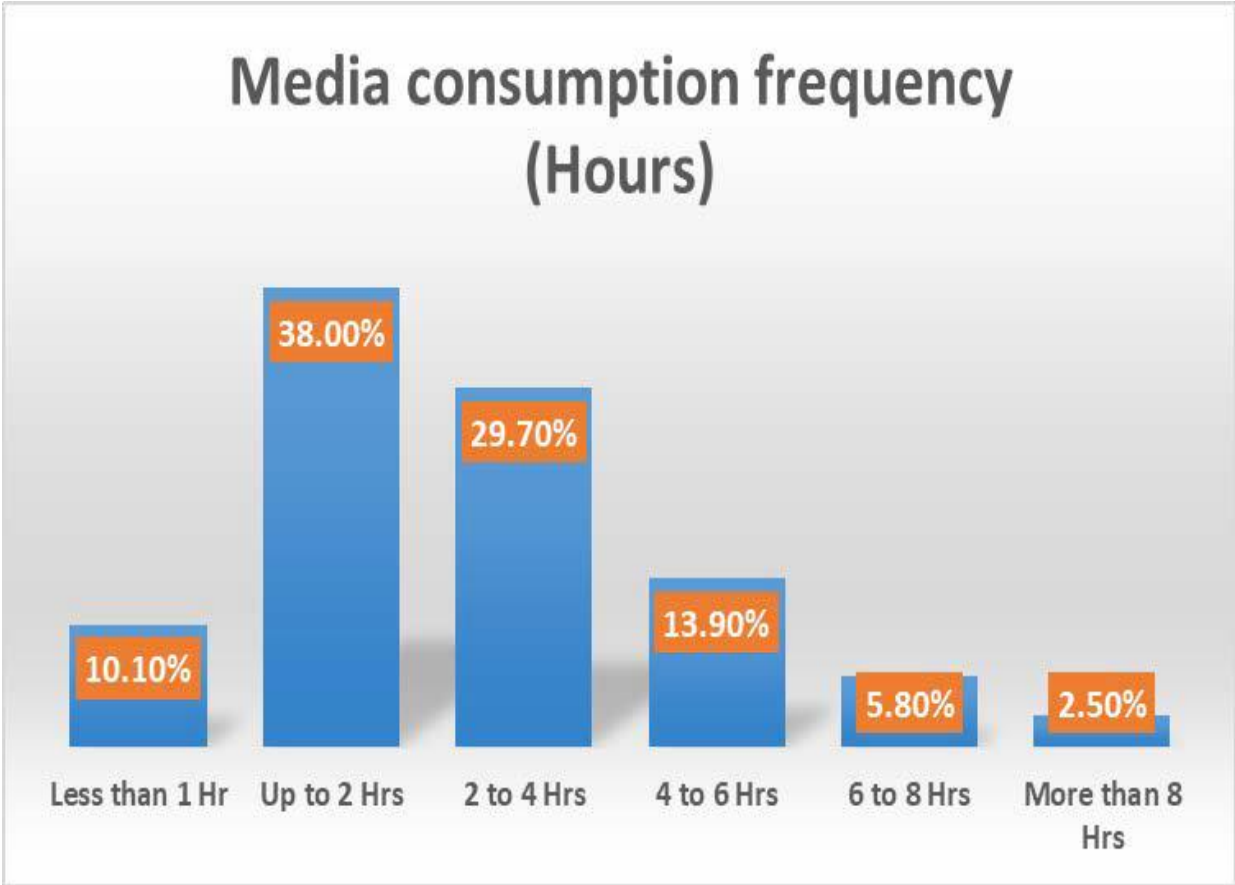


Figure 5-9 Entertainment media consumption frequency in hours

A final categorical question was included in the questionnaire to determine the sample’s awareness of the purpose of product placements in entertainment content, as discussed in Section 5.5.10.

5.5.10 Awareness of product placement’s commercial intent

When asked if they were aware of product placement’s commercial intent, 55.7 percent of the participants in the sample indicated that they were not aware, while 44.3 percent indicated that they were aware of product placement’s commercial intent. This information is illustrated in Figure 5-10.

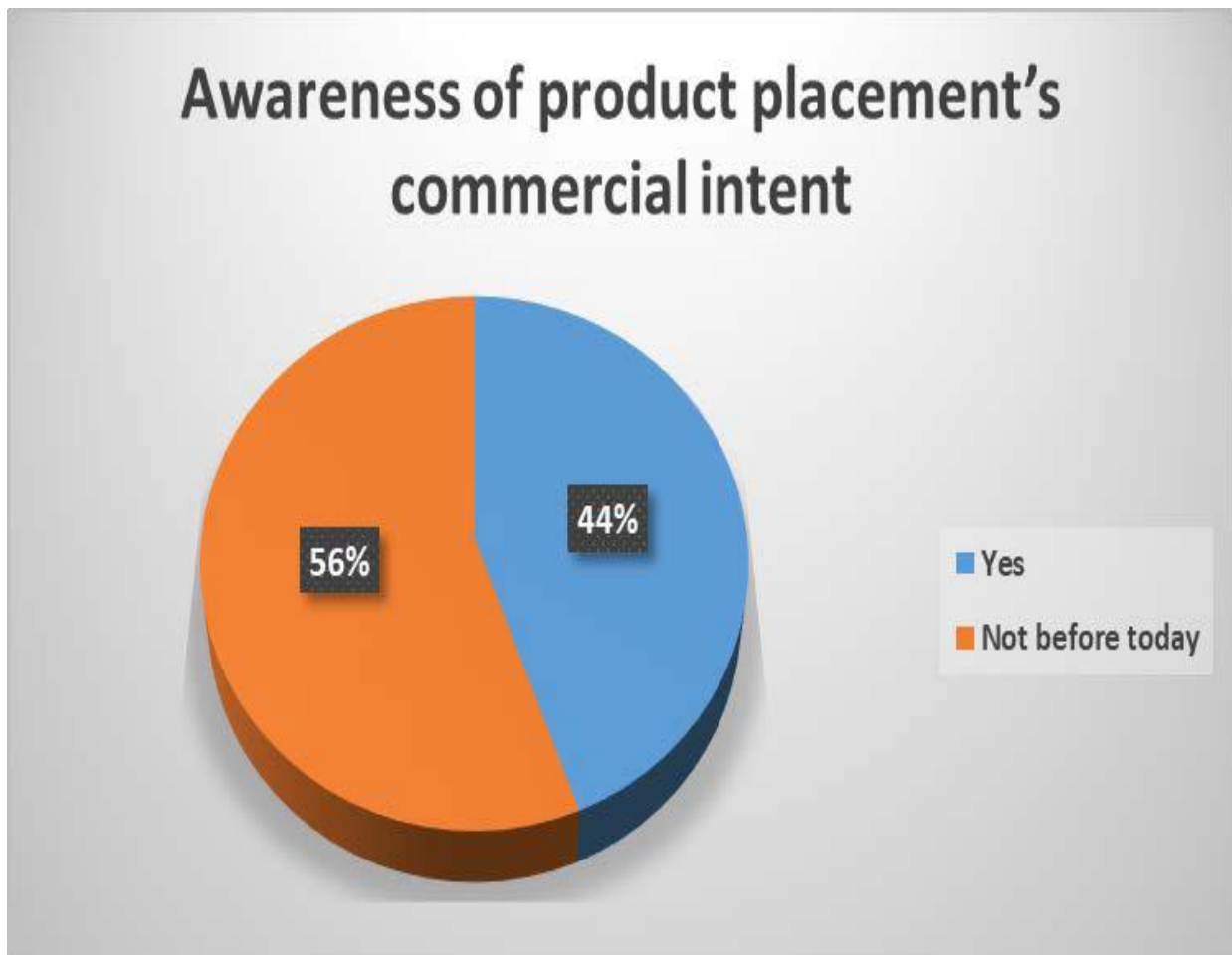


Figure 5-10 Participants' awareness of product placement's commercial intent

As Cowley and Barron (2008:89) indicate, previous research has found a positive shift in brand attitudes after exposure to product placement. The authors posit that this shift depends on the audiences' awareness of product placement's commercial intent. The prominence of a placement was the main reasoning behind the study, as highly prominent placements tend to give away the commercial motive of the product placement endeavour (Section 3.6.2).

The following sections pertain to the findings concerning the metric scales used in the measurement instrument.

5.6 PRINCIPLE COMPONENT ANALYSIS

As discussed in Section 4.9 of the previous chapter, factor analysis, including principle component analysis, is a useful tool in investigating relationships among variables of

complex nature such as attitudinal scales. The technique allows researchers to measure concepts that are difficult to measure directly by simply collapsing a large number of measurement items into a few interpretable key factors (Punch, 2014:243). In order to assess the dimensionality of the eight scales used in the study, principle component analysis was undertaken, first on the independent constructs and then on the dependent constructs. These results are reported on separately in the next sections.

5.6.1 Principle component analysis of independent variables

Prior to conducting the principle component analysis, the data were screened in order to ascertain its suitability for factor analysis. The sample size (N=397) was deemed large enough to carry on with the analysis. This sample size is in line with the views of McDaniel and Gates (2014:448), who suggest a sample size of at least 200, or a ratio of five observations for each item. In addition, a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test for sampling adequacy, together with Bartlett's test of sphericity were run in order to ascertain the suitability of the data for factor analysis. As indicated in Chapter 4, according to Pallant (2010:183), a KMO value of 0.6 or above and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity value indicates that the data are suitable for factor analysis. Satisfactory results on the independent variables were computed for these two tests, with a KMO of 0.883 and a significant Bartlett's test value (chi-square =7028.032, df:820, p=0.000<0.05), thereby confirming the data's suitability for factor analysis.

Principle component analysis, using varimax rotation, was subsequently applied to the data set since the primary purpose was to ascertain the structural integrity of the 33 items of the independent variable set. As per the literature, the procedure extracted six factors with eigenvalues above 1.0, and these six factors explained 51.52 percent of the total variance. The rotated factors are presented in Table 5-4.

Table 5-4 Rotated factors for the independent variables

Items	Factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1					.461	
B2					.523	
B3					.376	
B4					.323	
B5					.522	
B6					.526	
B7					.565	
B8					.612	
C1			.722			
C2			.743			
C3			.697			
C4			.668			
C5			.343			
D1				.741		
D2				.811		
D3				.809		
D4				.694		

Table 5-4 Rotated factors for the independent variables (continued ...)

Items	Factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
E1		.583				
E2		.708				
E3		.655				
E4		.644				
E5		.579				
E6		.690				
E7		.350				
E8		.514				
F1	.636					
F2	.770					
F3	.764					
F4	.774					
F5	.739					.642
H4						.776
H5						.818
H6						.642
Eigenvalues	6.17	3.34	2.63	2.00	1.47	1.39
% Variance	18.70	10.12	7.96	6.10	4.47	4.21

As indicated in Table 5-4, initial eigenvalues indicated that the first factor, labelled 'materialism' (F1 to F5), explained approximately 19 percent of the total variance. The second factor labelled 'character-product association' consisted of eight items (E1-E8)

and explained 10 percent of the variance. The third factor, labelled 'realism', comprised five items (C1-C5), and explained approximately 8 percent of the variance. The fourth factor labelled 'attitudes toward TV advertising' (D1-D5), explained 6 percent of the variance. The fifth factor, labelled 'ethics' (B1-B8) explained 4.47 percent of the variance. This factor included items related to the placement of ethically charged products such as alcohol and tobacco, as well as items related to the support for government regulation. While some studies measure these items separately (see Gupta & Gould, 1997; Gould *et al.*, 2000), the results of the present study indicate that respondents do not consider them as separate issues. Finally, the sixth factor, labelled 'entertainment', explained 4.21 percent of the variance. This six-factor solution using varimax rotation confirmed the dimensionality of the independent variables because of its previous theoretical support and the fact that all items loaded cleanly without any cross-loadings.

5.6.2 Principle component analysis of the dependent variables

Principle component analysis was then repeated for the dependent variables of the proposed model of the Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement. The dependent variables comprised seven items also measured on a six-point Likert scale with 1=strongly disagree and 6=strongly agree. Results revealed a KMO of 0.844 and a significant Bartlett's test value (chi-square =1069.511, df:21, $p=0.000<0.05$), again confirming the data's suitability for factor analysis.

Principle component analysis, using varimax rotation was performed on items in the dependent variables. In accordance with the literature, two factors were extracted, which had eigenvalues greater than one and explained 67.88 percent of the total variance.

The first factor labelled 'purchase intentions, (G1-G4), explained approximately 52 percent of the variance, while the second factor, labelled 'attitudes toward product placement' (H1-H3), explained approximately 16 percent of the variance. All items loaded effectively and, therefore, none was deleted. The rotated factors are presented in Table 5-5.

Table 5-5 Rotated factors for the dependent variable

Item	Factors	
	1	2
H1		.797
H2		.801
H3		.781
G1	.826	
G2	.735	
G3	.819	
G4	.830	
Eigenvalues	3.64	1.11
% Variance	51.96	15.92

The following section discusses the reliability and validity of the scales used in the main survey.

5.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ANALYSIS OF MAIN SURVEY

Reliability and validity assessments are central to the trustworthiness of the data collected as it ensures interpretability. As such, after principle component analysis, the eight constructs in the measuring instrument of this study were examined to determine their reliability and validity. Table 5-6 lists the Cronbach alpha values and average inter-item correlation values for the eight constructs.

Table 5-6 Cronbach alpha and average inter-item correlation values for the main study

Constructs	Number of variables	Valid N	Cronbach Alpha	Average inter-item correlation
Ethics (I)	8	397	0.636	0.18
Realism (I)	5	397	0.764	0.40
Attitude towards TV advertising (I)	4	397	0.801	0.50
Character-product association (I)	8	397	0.788	0.32
Materialism (i)	5	397	0.834	0.50
Purchase intentions (D)	4	397	0.819	0.54
Attitude towards Product Placement (D)	3	397	0.764	0.52
Perceived entertainment (I)	3	397	0.746	0.50

D= Dependant variables; I= Independent variables

As can be noted from Table 5-6, the Cronbach alpha coefficients ranged from 0.636 to 0.834, thereby indicating satisfactory internal-consistency reliability.

Concerning construct validity, the average inter-item correlation values for each of the constructs computed exceeded 0.15, thereby suggesting convergent validity of the items within each construct. Discriminant validity is also evident given the majority of the constructs had average inter-item correlation values equal to or less than 0.50. The average inter-item correlation values for the two dependent variables exceeded the recommended value of 0.50; however, they did so by a negligible amount of 0.02 and 0.04. As such, it was reasonable to assume convergent and discriminant validity. The third measure of construct validity, nomological validity, is reported on in Section 5.9. In

the following section, the summary measures of the constructs in the study are reported on and discussed.

5.8 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The summary measures selected for computation in this study included the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis. Bearing in mind that the scaled responses were measured on a six-point Likert scale, higher means are indicative of a greater degree of agreement. This section addresses the first eight empirical objectives set out in Chapter 1.

An outline of these descriptive statistical measures are given in Table 5-7.

Table 5-7 Descriptive statistics

Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Ethics	3.53	0.83	0.07	-0.76
Realism	4.49	0.98	-0.42	-0.49
Attitude towards TV advertising	3.92	1.34	-0.25	-0.91
Character-product association	3.92	0.93	-0.15	-0.35
Materialism	4.42	1.04	-0.51	--0.17
Purchase intentions	3.92	1.11	-0.16	-0.51
Attitude towards product placement	4.14	1.07	-0.41	-0.33
Perceived entertainment	4.08	1.10	-0.49	-0.02

As can be noted from Table 5-7, means above 3.5 were computed on all eight of the constructs. The highest means were recorded on the perceived realism of product placement in movies and TV shows (mean=4.49), materialism (mean=4.42), attitude towards product placement in movies and TV shows (mean=4.14) and entertainment value of product placement in movies and TV shows (mean=4.18). in addition, attitude

towards TV advertising, character-product association as well as purchase intentions all recorded the same means (mean=3.92). The lowest mean recorded was on perceived ethicality of product placements (mean=3.28).

This suggests that Generation Y students have a positive attitude towards product placement in movies and TV shows, and feel that it is both entertaining and makes movies and TV shows more realistic by using existing/real brands. Furthermore, the results suggest that the sample feel influenced by scenes containing product placement, are influenced by movie/TV show characters associated with particular brands and are likely to purchase such brands in the future. Even though the sample reported to be in favour of product placements in movies and TV shows, these results also suggest that the Generation Y students are also aware of, although not opposed to, the practice's ethical issues. Interestingly, despite the literature, the evidence in this sample suggests that Generation Y individuals still have a relatively positive attitude towards traditional TV advertising. Moreover, the evidence in this sample indicates that Generation Y students perceive product placements in movies and TV shows as inducing materialistic tendencies among viewers.

The highest standard deviation occurred on attitude towards TV advertising (Std. Dev.=1.34), indicating a greater dispersion in responses to the items in that construct. The data set appears to be distributed normally in that none of the skewness values fall outside the -2 to +2 range. The kurtosis values suggest that the data set is relatively flat.

After computing the descriptive statistics, the relationships between the constructs were assessed in order to assess the nomological validity of the model and to determine whether there were any multi-collinearity issues, as outlined in the following section.

5.9 NOMOLOGICAL VALIDITY ASSESSMENT AND COLLINEARITY DIAGNOSTICS

According to Hair *et al.* (2010:710), constructing a correlation matrix of constructs aids in assessing the nomological validity of a proposed model. As such, prior to conducting canonical correlation, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients between each pair of constructs were calculated.

This correlation matrix is outlined in Table 5-8.

Table 5-8 Pearson's product-moment correlation matrix

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Ethics							
2 Realism	-0.107*						
3 Attitude towards TV advertising	0.258**	0.227**					
4 Character-product association	0.135**	0.339**	0.113*				
5 Materialism	0.197**	0.386**	0.244**	0.345**			
6 Entertainment	-0.114*	0.373**	-0.016	0.373**	0.183**		
7 Attitude towards product placement	-0.092	0.503**	0.109*	0.528**	0.407**	0.526**	
8 Purchase intentions	0.051	0.258**	0.018	0.663**	0.354**	0.330**	0.542**

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

An examination of the correlation analysis coefficients between the two dependent variables was undertaken. Results revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between attitude towards product placement and purchase intentions. These constructs correlated highly at ($r = 542, p \leq 0.01$). Findings from this study suggest that Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows and their consumption-related behavioural intentions are strongly associated with each other. The preoccupation of past researches with the cognitive effects of product placement has been lamented (Karisik, 2014:253) and resulted in calls for the testing the conative effect of product placement by determining the relationship between product placement attitudes and purchase intentions (Morton & Friedman, 2002). Attitude towards product

placement and purchase intentions have been reported in the video gaming context (Nelson *et al.*, 2004) and social games (Zhu & Chang, 2015), but not in movies and TV shows in the South African context, thereby making this finding unique.

Furthermore, there was a statistically significant positive relationship between attitude towards product placement and realism ($r = 0.503, p \leq 0.01$), attitude towards TV advertising ($r = 0.109, p \leq 0.05$), character-product association ($r = 0.528, p \leq 0.01$), materialism ($r = 0.407, p \leq 0.01$) and entertainment ($r = 0.526, p \leq 0.01$). Likewise, there was a statistically significant positive relationship between the purchase intention construct ad realism ($r = 0.258, p \leq 0.01$), character-product association ($r = 0.663, p \leq 0.01$), materialism ($r = 0.354, p \leq 0.01$) and entertainment ($r = 0.330, p \leq 0.01$).

There were no significant relationships between attitude towards product placement and ethics ($r = -0.092, p > 0.05$) or between attitudes towards TV advertising and entertainment ($r = -0.016, p > 0.05$); however, the direction of these relationships were in accordance with the literature. In addition, there was no significant relationship between purchase intentions and ethics ($r = 0.051, p > 0.05$), which was to be expected. With the exception of ethics and attitude towards TV advertising, results of this study are in support of past literature on product placement as reviewed in Section 3.7, and hypothesised in Section 1.4. As such, the proposed model appears to exhibit nomological validity.

Once nomological validity was established, the next step required in the statistical analysis was to run collinearity diagnostics on the constructs intended for inclusion in the proposed model. The results of the collinearity diagnostics are presented in Table 5-9.

Table 5-9 Collinearity diagnostics

Constructs	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Ethics	0.774	1.291
Realism	0.655	1.526
Attitude towards TV advertising	0.832	1.202

Table 5-9 Collinearity diagnostics (continued ...)

Constructs	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Character-product association	0.474	2.109
Materialism	0.677	1.477
Entertainment	0.682	1.465
Attitude towards product placement	0.455	2.199
Purchase intentions	0.491	2.038

Table 5-9 gives the computed results of the collinearity diagnostics. Tolerance values between 0.455 and 0.832 were returned, which are all above the cut-off value of 0.10, and the average VIF value equalled 1.66, which is below the cut-off value of 10. Given these values, there were no serious concerns as regards multi-collinearity

Given that there is evidence of internal-consistency reliability, convergent and discriminant validity (refer to Table 5-6), as well as nomological validity (refer to Table 5-8), the model proposed at the end of Chapter 3 was tested using canonical correlation. The following section outlines the study's hypotheses that were tested through canonical correlation analysis.

5.10 HYPOTHESES TESTING

In undertaking hypotheses testing, the significance level was set at the conventional $\alpha = 0.01$. Based on the relationships observed in the correlation analysis as well as the literature review carried out in Chapter 3, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Ho1: The correlations between all possible linear combinations of the multivariate dependent variables of South African Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows, and purchase intentions towards such products, and the independent variables of their general attitude toward TV advertising, their perceived ethicality, perceived realism, character-product

association, perceived materialism and perceived entertainment value of product placements are zero.

Ha1: There is at least one combination of the multivariate dependent variables of South African Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows, and purchase intentions towards such products, and the independent variables of their general attitude toward TV advertising, their perceived ethicality, perceived realism, character-product association, perceived materialism and perceived entertainment value of product placements.

Ho2: There is no statistically significant difference between male and female Generation Y students' attitude towards TV advertising, and their perceived ethics, realism, character-product association, materialism, entertainment and attitude towards product placement, as well as their purchase intentions towards such products.

Ha2: There is a statistically significant difference between male and female Generation Y students' attitude towards TV advertising, and their perceived ethics, realism, character-product association, materialism, entertainment and attitude towards product placement, as well as their purchase intentions towards such products.

The following section reports on the canonical correlation analysis carried out in order to test the first formulated hypothesis.

5.11 CANONICAL CORRELATION

After the proposed variables were factor analysed, tested for internal-consistency reliability and construct validity, canonical correlation analysis was undertaken to identify any relationships between the variates formed by South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows. This was done to address the ninth empirical objective and test the first hypothesis.

The set of independent variables was defined as product placement's perceived ethicality, perceived realism, attitude towards TV advertising, character-product association, perceived materialism, perceived entertainment. The set of dependent variables was defined as attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows as well as purchase intentions. The canonical correlation analysis was run using the MANOVA and CANCELL macro syntax in SPSS.

As the smallest set of variables contained only two indicators, only two canonical functions were derived. These two functions, together with the measures of the overall model fit are outlined in Table 5-10.

Table 5-10 Measures of overall model fit

Canonical function	Canonical correlation	Canonical R2	F statistics	Probability
1	0.771	0.594	46.937	0.000
2	0.414	0.172	16.163	0.000
Multivariate test of significance				
Statistic	Value	Approximate F statistic	Probability	
Wilk's lambda	0.336	46.937	0.000	
Pillai's trace	0.765	40.302	0.000	
Hotelling's trace	1.669	53.969	0.000	
Roy's gcr	0.594			

As indicated in Table 5-9, the analysis resulted in two functions with squared canonical correlations of 0.594 and 0.172 for each successive function. Collectively, Wilk's lambda, Pillai's trace, Hotelling's trace and Roy's greater characteristic root (gcr) indicate that the overall model across all functions is statistically significant and explained 66 percent ($1 - \Lambda_{CV1}$) of the variance shared between the two variable sets. This result indicates that

there is a relationship between the variable sets. As such, the null hypothesis, Ho1 is rejected and its alternative concluded.

The canonical correlation of the first function was 0.771, while that of the second was 0.414. While both functions were statistically significant ($p \leq 0.01$), only the first function was analysed further because it accounted for substantially higher than the second function; that is, Function 1 explained 59 percent of the amount of shared variance between the two sets of canonical variate scores, while Function 2 only explained 17 percent of the overlapping variance, which, despite being statistically significant, is not practically significant.

A redundancy analysis for the independent and dependent variables of the first function was run and the results are reported in Table 5-11.

Table 5-11 Redundancy analysis for the first canonical function

Standardised variance of the dependent variables explained by					
Canonical function	Shared variance		Redundancy		
	Percentage	Cumulative percentage	Canonical R2	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
1	0.769	0.769	0.594	0.457	0.457

Standardised variance of the independent variables explained by					
Canonical function	Shared variance		Redundancy		
	Percentage	Cumulative percentage	Canonical R2	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
1	0.306	0.306	0.594	0.182	0.182

Table 5-11 illustrates that the redundancy for the dependent variate (0.457) is higher than that of the independent variate (0.182). Therefore, the independent variate is able to predict 18 percent of the variance in the dependent variate. Having established that the canonical relationship was statistically significant and that the redundancy index

acceptable, the next stage was to analyse the canonical weights, canonical loadings and canonical cross-loadings, which are presented in Table 5-12.

Table 5-12 Canonical weights, loadings and cross-loadings

	Canonical weights	Canonical loadings	Canonical cross-loadings
Independent variables			
Perceived ethicality	-0.198	-0.019	-0.015
Perceived realism	0.144	0.580	0.447
Attitude towards TV advertising	-0.012	0.100	0.077
Character-product association	0.654	0.869	0.670
Materialism	0.290	0.566	0.436
Perceived entertainment	0.281	0.646	0.498
Dependent variables			
Attitude towards product placement	0.625	0.903	0.695
Purchase intentions	0.512	0.851	0.656

The canonical weights, loadings and cross-loadings are reported on in Table 5-12. Hair *et al.* (2010:250) indicate that when interpreting the nature of canonical relationships, it is preferable to analyse the canonical cross-loadings. In terms of the squared canonical cross-loadings of the dependent variables, 48.3 percent of the variance in attitude towards product placement in movies and TV shows and 43 percent of the variance in purchase intentions is explained by the first canonical function.

An examination of the independent variables' cross-loadings reveals that the character-product association has the highest correlation with the dependent variate (0.670),

followed by perceived entertainment (0.498), perceived realism (0.447), materialism (0.436), whereas perceived ethicality (-0.015) and attitude towards TV advertising (0.077) have the lowest correlations with the dependent variables. It is interesting to note that even though Generation Y students perceive product placements in movies and TV shows to be materialism inducers, they do not necessarily view that as something negative. This finding is in line with that of Sung *et al.* (2009:259).

Approximately 45 percent of the variance in character-product association, 25 percent of the variance in the perceived entertainment value, 20 percent variance in perceived realism, 19 percent of the variance in perceived materialism, 0.6 percent of the variance in attitude towards TV advertising and 0.02 percent of the variance in perceived ethicality are explained by the dependent variate.

Therefore, it can be deduced that the character-product association, perceived entertainment, perceived realism, perceived materialism and, to a much lesser extent, attitude towards TV advertising have a direct positive relationship with dependent variate and perceived ethicality a direct negative relationship and, as such, are predictors of South African Generation Y students' attitudes and purchase intentions toward product placement in movies and TV shows.

5.12 INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TESTS

In order to address the last empirical objective and second hypothesis of the study, an independent samples t-test was run to determine if any significant differences exist between male and female Generation Y students' attitude towards TV advertising, ethics, realism, character-product association, materialism, entertainment, attitude towards product placement as well as purchase intentions. The significance level was set at the 1 percent level; that is, $\alpha \leq 0.01$.

Table 5-13 shows the mean, standard deviation, t-statistics and p-values for the genders concerning the eight variables of the proposed model.

Table 5-13 Gender difference

	Male Mean N=210	Male Std. Dev.	Female Mean N=187	Female Std. Dev.	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
Ethics	3.532	0.807	3.530	0.867	0.017	0.378	*****
Realism	4.508	0.974	4.478	0.987	0.381	0.966	*****
Attitude towards TV advertising	3.905	1.403	3.935	1.279	-0.220	0.083	*****
Character-product association	3.948	0.867	3.885	0.993	0.677	0.100	*****
Materialism	4.503	0.982	4.332	1.091	1.647	0.410	*****
Entertainment	4.198	1.057	3.941	1.126	2.347	0.405	*****
Attitude towards product placement	4.218	1.020	4.052	1.118	1.545	0.326	*****
Purchase intentions	3.957	1.126	3.869	1.098	0.788	0.789	*****

* Statistically significant at $p \leq 0.01$

** Small effect, practically non-significant

*** Medium effect and moving toward practical significance

**** Large effect, practically significant

***** Cohen's D-statistic not calculated as the variable was not statistically significant

As Table 5-13 shows, there was no statistical significant difference between male and female Generation Y students pertaining to their attitudes towards TV advertising, evaluation of product placement's ethical concerns, perceived realism, entertainment, materialism, character-product association, attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows nor their consumption-related behavioural intentions. Furthermore, as there was no statistically significant difference, there was no need to calculate the

Cohen's D-statistic. Therefore, at the 5 percent significance level the null hypothesis H_0 could not be rejected.

5.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter reported on the empirical findings of the study and provided a discussion concerning the outcomes of the pilot study, including the reliability and validity, which indicated that the scale used was both reliable and valid. The preliminary data analysis, which involved coding, data cleaning and tabulation, was then discussed.

The demographic and media consumption analysis was then carried out. While the sample contained participants from each of the seven age categories specified in the target population definition, the 20-year old category comprised the largest percentage of the sample. In terms of gender, there were slightly more male than female participants in the sample. In line with the population demographics of South Africa, the majority of the participants in the sample were Black African. Each of South Africa's nine provinces was represented in the sample, with the majority of the participants indicating their province of origin as either Gauteng or Limpopo. The majority of the sample indicated a preference for movies and TV shows, and indicated that they typically consume that entertainment content on their laptops.

In order to assess the factorability of the data and the dimensionality of the eight scales used in the study, exploratory factor analysis, specifically principal component, analysis was employed. In accordance with the literature, six independent and two dependent factors were extracted.

The data were then tested for reliability and validity. The results suggest the presence of internal-consistency reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity.

Descriptive statistics, including mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values. Means above 3.5 were returned on each of the eight constructs, suggesting that despite being aware of the questionable ethicality of product placements in movies and TV shows and recognising that it may induce materialism, Generation Y students have a positive attitude and behavioural response to this advertising strategy.

Canonical correlation analysis was then carried out in order to understand the structure of the relationships across the hypothesised variables. The results from the canonical analysis reveal that character-product association, perceived entertainment, perceived realism, perceived materialism and, to a much lesser extent, attitude towards TV advertising have a direct positive relationship with dependent variate and perceived ethicality a direct negative relationship and, as such, are contributors to South African Generation Y students' attitudes and purchase intentions toward product placement in movies and TV shows.

Furthermore, an independent samples t-test revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between males and female participants on any of the eight constructs included in the study.

The next chapter, Chapter 6, provides further interpretations regarding the empirical findings in the study. Furthermore, the objectives will be re-examined to determine whether they have been answered. In addition, the conclusions and final recommendations pertaining to the study will be specified and discussed.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The advent of digital technologies and new advertising platforms has given rise to increasing media clutter, as well as mass audience fragmentation, which, in turn, has caused an increase in advertising scepticism, a decline in traditional advertising effectiveness and a growth in negative consumer attitudes towards traditional advertising. Even though marketers continue to invest heavily in traditional advertising, they face a continuous challenge concerning how best to capture their target audiences' attention and make their marketing communication strategy more effective (Section 2.1).

This study endeavoured to explore the use of product placement as an alternative advertising and brand communication tool that has the potential of breaking through the inadequacies of traditional advertising and succeeding in the battle to capture an audience's attention and influence their consumption-related behaviour. Various studies have suggested that there are differences in the way in which consumers react to product placement based on various demographic factors, including geographic, cultural and even generational differences. With this in mind, this study focused on determining Generation Y students' perceptions of and attitudes towards product placements in movies and TV shows in the South African market.

As discussed in Section 3.2, in 2018 approximately 20.28 million of South Africa's population of 57.72 million fell into the Generation Y age classification, accounting for approximately 35 percent of the country's population, which renders them a market segment of interest, given their sheer numbers. Globally, there are indications that this generation has significant current and future purchasing power and that they exert an influence on the purchasing behaviour of not only their peers but also members of other generations.

Furthermore, as indicated in Section 1.2, the university student portion of this generation is particularly valuable from a marketing perspective in that a graduate qualification generally equates to a higher future earning potential. In addition, a graduate qualification

often results in a higher social status in a community, making them potential opinion setters amongst their peers.

The size of Generation Y, their current and future purchasing power and general ability to influence the consumer behaviour of other generational cohorts, suggests that they are a suitable target population for understanding attitudes towards the practice of product placement – something which is particularly true of the university student portion of this generation, given their potential influence on their peers.

Consequently, understanding the factors that influence Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows is likely to contribute to designing effective product placement campaigns targeting members of this generation. Based on this assumption, the primary objective of this study was to propose and empirically test a model of the relationships between South African Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows, and purchase intentions towards such products, and the independent variables of their general attitude toward TV advertising, their perceived ethicality, perceived realism, character-product association, perceived materialism and perceived entertainment value of product placements.

This chapter represents the climax of the study. To start, it offers a summary of the study, which is then followed by a discourse of the main findings of the study, set out in accordance with the empirical objectives outlined in Chapter 1. Figure 6.1 illustrates a model of the relationships between South African Generation Y students' attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows, and purchase intentions towards such products, and the independent variables of their general attitude toward TV advertising, their perceived ethicality, perceived realism, character-product association, perceived materialism and perceived entertainment value of product placements. This is followed by a discussion of the recommendations based on these findings. In the last section of this chapter there is a discussion of the study's limitations and suggestions for further research, together with the concluding remarks of study.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

In order to aid comprehension of the main findings (Section 6.3) and resulting recommendations (Section 6.4) of this study, this section provides a synopsis of the preceding five chapters.

Chapter 1 provided a brief introduction and background to the product placement market. The chapter briefly outlined the role of product placement in today's advertising strategies and made mention of various product placement success stories that have attracted both industry and academic attention to this area of research. In addition, aspects pertaining to the ethical concerns and legal implications were also touched upon. Based on the problem identified, one primary objective, eight theoretical objectives and nine empirical objectives were formulated in Section 1.3. The empirical objectives were then translated into two hypotheses in Section 1.4. The remainder of the chapter provided a summary of the research methodology (Section 1.5) and a discussion of the ethical considerations (Section 1.6) of the study.

The purpose of Chapter 2 was to address the first four theoretical objectives of the study in the form of a literature review. The concept of advertising is explained in Section 2.2, with particular emphasis on the conceptualisation of advertising especially given the changes in society and how the role of advertising has had to adjust to such changes to incorporate traditional, social, mobile and digital advancements into its structure. In Section 2.3, an examination into the advertising industry is carried out, indicating the size, growth and role of advertising in society.

This is followed by a review of the literature on consumer attitudes in Section 2.4, including a discussion concerning the structure of consumer attitudes (Section 2.5) and the theories of attitude formation and change (Section 2.6). At the heart of advertising effectiveness, is the ability for advertising to change consumer behaviour and it has been argued that consumer attitudes are central to this topic, which warranted discussions in this regard.

Chapter 2 went on to review the literature on the various structural models of attitudes towards advertising in general (Section 2.7), as well as attitudes towards the advertisement (Section 2.8). The main findings emanating from the literature reviewed in

this chapter are that there are many inconsistencies concerning advertising effectiveness research, mainly because such measures have been more abstract in nature and failed to consider specific media. Self-reported evaluations of advertising depend on the respondent's conceptualisation of advertising, thereby subjecting the research to various measurement errors. Attitude towards the advertisement was identified as an important construct mediating the effect of brand attitude and purchase intentions and structural antecedents of attitudes towards the advertisement were outlined as they overlap with product placement literature as well.

Chapter 3 sought to address the remaining four theoretical objectives of the study. This chapter began with a discussion pertaining to the profile of Generation Y in terms of its definition, size, economic worth, justification for targeting such a segment and general consumer behaviour, especially the consumption of entertainment media (Section 3.2). As indicated in this section, Generation Y comprises technologically savvy people who grew up in an environment saturated with various media platforms, through which they were inundated with commercial advertising messages. As a consequence of this, while they tend to be better informed than members of the preceding generation, they have also developed a certain degree of scepticism towards traditional advertising methods. In South Africa, the size of Generation Y as a market segment means that they have and will continue to have a significant influence on the country's current and future interaction with brands (Section 3.2).

In Section 3.3, a review of the literature on product placement was carried out in terms of its definition, industry growth (Section 3.4), purpose (Section 3.5) and strategies (Section 3.6). As product placement research is a new and complex topic, scholars have attempted to define, characterise and identify consumer attitudes towards this marketing phenomenon by using various attitudinal models borrowed from the inexhaustible advertising literature as alluded to in Chapter 2 and this literature has been extended to the product placement literature.

The different variables thought to predict attitudes towards product placement and its influence on purchase intentions were reviewed in Section 3.7. The main findings from this literature review suggest that factors such as perceived product placement ethics, realism, entertainment, materialism, attitude towards TV advertising and character-

product association influence attitude towards product placement and resultant purchase behaviour. These variables were subsequently included in the proposed model. The chapter continued with a discussion concerning gender differences in attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows as identified in previous published studies (Section 3.8). The concluding section of Chapter 3, Section 3.9, focuses on the model proposed for empirical testing based on the literature and depicted in Figure 3-1.

Chapter 4 focused on discussing the research methodology that guided the empirical study. As indicated in Section 4.3, the study followed a descriptive research design. The population targeted in the study included Generation Y tertiary students registered at South African public HEI in 2018 (Section 4.4.1). The study's sampling frame consisted of three of these HEI campuses that are located in the Gauteng province. The three campuses consisted of one traditional university, one comprehensive university and one university of technology. Following the definition of the sampling frame, a single cross-sectional convenience sample of 450 Generation Y students (150 per campus) was drawn (Section 4.4.3 & Section 4.4.4).

The data collection process is discussed in Section 4.5. Data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire that included existing validated scales (Section 4.6.1). In Section 4.7, the data preparation process followed on the data gathered is outlined. The statistical methods computed in this study are reviewed in Section 4.8 and include principle component analysis (Section 4.8.1), measures of reliability (Section 4.8.2) and validity (Section 4.8.3), descriptive statistics (Section 4.8.4), collinearity diagnostics (Section 4.8.5), canonical correlation analysis (Section 4.8.6) and independent sample t-tests (Section 4.8.7).

Following on the discussion of the study's research methodology in Chapter 4, Chapter 5 provides a discourse on the empirical findings of the study, in line with the empirical objectives outlined in Chapter 1, Section 1.3.3.

6.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The main findings reported in this section are in accordance with the empirical objectives set out in Chapter 1.

A principle component analysis (Section 5.6) conducted on the independent variables yielded a six-factor solution comprising ethics, realism, attitude towards TV advertising, character-product association, materialism and entertainment, which explained 51.52 percent of the total variance. The second principle component analysis conducted on the dependent variables yielded a two-factor solution, comprising attitude towards product placement in movies and TV shows, as well as purchase intentions towards placed products, which explained 67.88 percent of the total variance. The principle component analyses performed on both the independent and dependent variables yielded factors that are in accordance with the literature.

The Cronbach alpha values and average inter-item correlation coefficients computed and reported in Section 5.7 indicate that each of the scales exhibited internal-consistency reliability and that the items within each scale exhibited both convergent and discriminant validity.

Descriptive statistics (Section 5.8) were computed to address the first eight empirical objectives formulated in Chapter 1. Means in the agreement area of the six-point Likert scale were recorded on all construct-related items. This suggests that Generation Y students have a positive attitude towards product placement in movies and TV shows and feel that it is both entertaining and makes movies and TV shows more realistic by using existing/real brands. Results further suggest that the sample feel influenced by scenes containing product placements, are influenced by movie/TV show characters associated with particular brands and are likely to purchase such brands in the future. Even though the sample reported to be in favour of product placement in movies and TV shows, these results also suggest that Generation Y students are sceptical of the practice's ethical challenges (though not opposed to it), and seem to still enjoy traditional TV advertising despite popular advertising literature. The results also indicate that Generation Y students perceive product placements in movies and TV shows as inducing materialism in viewers.

Correlation analysis (Section 5.9) was performed based on the components extracted from the principle component analyses. This was done prior to the canonical correlation analysis for the purpose of assessing the nomological validity of the proposed model. The results from the correlation analysis indicated that there was significant correlation between the majority of the pairs of constructs. Where there was not significant

correlation, the relationships were in the correct direction (whether positive or negative) and the lack of association made logical sense. For example, there was a negative non-significant association between attitudes towards TV advertising and the perceived entertainment value of product placements. As such, there were no obvious nomological validity concerns. In addition, there were no serious issues of multi-collinearity between the constructs (Section 5.9). As such, canonical correlation analysis was deemed appropriate.

In accordance with the ninth empirical objective, canonical correlation analysis was then undertaken to identify whether there were any relationships between the variates formed by South African Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows, and their attitude towards TV advertising, character-product associations, perceived ethics, entertainment, realism, and materialism of product placements (Section 5.11). The set of independent variables were defined as product placement's perceived ethicality, perceived realism, attitude towards TV advertising, character-product association, perceived materialism, perceived entertainment. The set of dependent variables was defined as attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV shows as well as purchase intentions

The analysis resulted in two functions with squared canonical correlations of 0.594 and 0.172 for each successive function. Collectively, Wilk's lambda, Pilia's trace, Hotelling's trace and Roy's greater characteristic root (gcr) indicate that the overall model across all functions was statistically significant and explained 66 percent ($1-\Lambda_{CV1}$) of the variance shared between the two variable sets.

Despite both canonical functions being statistically significant ($p \leq 0.01$), only the first function was practically significant. As such, only the first function was subjected to further analysis and interpretation. The redundancy analysis indicated that the dependent variate set predicted 45.7 percent of the variance in the independent variate set, whilst the independent variate set predicted 18 percent of the variance in the dependent variate set. Based on an analysis of the canonical cross loadings, it was concluded that character-product association, perceived entertainment, perceived realism, perceived materialism and to a much lesser extent, attitude towards TV advertising and have a direct positive relationship with the dependent variate. Perceived ethicality, as expected, was related

negatively to the dependent variate set. These findings suggest that character-product association, perceived entertainment, perceived realism, perceived materialism, attitude towards TV advertising and perceived ethicality of product placements are all contributors to South African Generation Y students' attitudes and purchase intentions toward product placement in movies and TV shows.

As such, the findings of this study suggest that the model presented in Figure 6-1 may explain the antecedents of Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

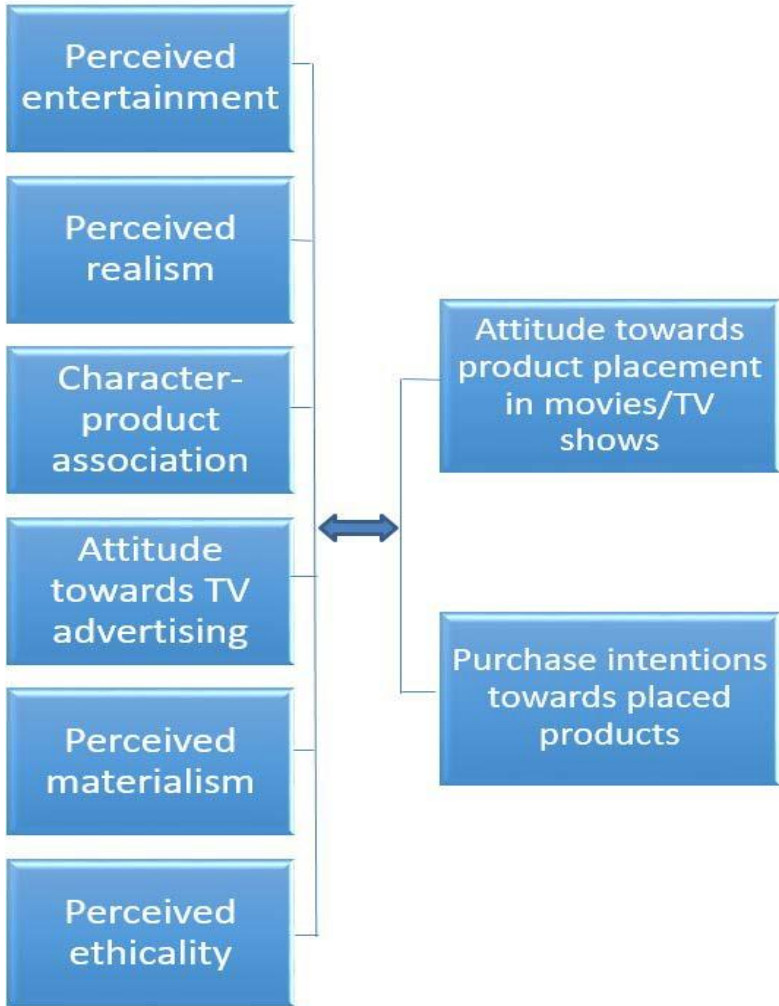


Figure 6-1 Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards product placements in movies and TV shows

In order to address the tenth empirical objective and test the second hypothesis and address the last empirical objective pertaining to gender differences, a two-independent

samples t-tests was conducted. There was no statistically or practically significant difference between male and female Generation Y students pertaining to their evaluations of product placement's perceived ethics, realism, materialism, entertainment, attitude towards TV advertising, character-product association or attitude towards product placement in movies and TV shows and purchase intentions towards placed products (Section 5.12).

The following section explains the contribution made by this study.

6.4 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The popularity of product placement in entertainment media has been a worldwide growing phenomenon over the past decades. Alongside its growing importance however, came with it growing concerns from various critics with regard to its alleged influence on consumers as well as calls for government to regulate the practice. This study seeks to determine empirically how the Generation Y students' segment of consumers react to product placement practices with particular emphasis on their overall evaluation of product placement's ethics, its entertainment value, the realism impact, material influence, character-product association and their attitudes toward TV advertising.

The findings of this study contribute to the limited literature available concerning product placement effectiveness in the South African market, with specific reference to the factors that contribute to Generation Y students' positive attitudes and purchase intentions towards product placement.

This was done by empirically testing a model of factors that contribute towards Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows. The hypothesised model comprised the set of independent variates of attitude towards TV advertising, character-product association, perceived ethics, realism, materialism, entertainment and the set of dependent variates of attitude towards product placement in movies and TV shows and purchase intentions towards placed products.

This model represents an important tool for understanding Generation Y individuals' attitudes towards and behavioural responses towards the placements of brands across a range of entertainment content, including but not limited to movies and TV shows in the

South African context. The model may also have value in shedding some light for policy makers with regards to the ethical concern and regulatory frameworks around the placement of brands in non-commercial content.

Moreover, an understanding in this regard will enable marketers to realise the opportunities presented by product placement techniques in developing markets such as South Africa and thus tailor their brand communication strategies to maximise effectiveness. The study also seeks to shed some light to policy makers with regards to the perceptions of consumers to the regulation of product placement, thereby making legislative contributions in this regard.

In addition, the findings of this study will contribute to the literature on product placement attitudes as well as the literature on South Africa's Generation Y students' consumer behaviour. The latter contribution to the literature is in accordance with the aims of the ProGenY (profiling the consumer behaviour of Generation Y in South Africa) project at North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus).

In addition, the recommendations discussed in the following section will enable marketers targeting the Generation Y cohort with product placements to tailor their marketing efforts accordingly.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

In accordance with the findings of this study, the following section outlines the recommendations for effective product placement.

6.5.1 Self-regulation and continuous monitoring

In this study, results show that Generation Y students are in favour of product placement in movies and TV shows, and while they appear cognoscente of the ethical issues raised by product placement, these concerns only mildly affect their attitude and behavioural responses to such placements. Although caution must be exercised when generalising the findings herein, given that today's youth has demonstrated the ability to influence government policies. This can be illustrated by the recent free education bill passed as a result of mass student protests in South Africa (Heffeman, 2018; Moolman & Jacobs,

2018). Based on the results therefore, the study recommends no need for governmental regulation into product placement, but for government to monitor the developments and practices in the product placement industry continuously, should the need for regulation arise. This is particularly with respect to the type of products placed as well as the type of content within which brands are placed. This will ensure that ethically-charged products such as alcohol, tobacco, guns as well as other controversial products such as prescription medication and political parties do not open a backdoor to commercial advertising through the use of product placement.

In addition, while results show respondents to be against the ban of product placements, marketers are presented with a unique opportunity to take advantage of the benefits of product placements. However, the study recommends that marketers and content producers self-regulate in the absence of formal government regulation, so as not to attract negative perceptions and attitudes towards the practice of product placement from consumer advocate groups and government bodies. Care, therefore, must be exercised as to the type of products placed and the manner in which they are placed.

6.5.2 Design realistic product placement campaigns with integrated strategies

Theoretical and empirical evidence leave no doubt that movie and TV audience appreciate the realism enhancing abilities of product placements through the use of non-fictional brands as they portray everyday lived experiences of consumers. Product placement strategies that integrate brands in plots, rather than throwing them in a conspicuous manner such that audiences are aware of the commercial intent, have proven more effective (Gillespie *et al.*, 2018; Naderer *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, this study recommends that marketers design campaigns that seamlessly integrate brands into the storyline and create an authentic scene rather than commercial advertisements in movie scenes and TV programming.

In addition, realistic product placements may aid in achieving the information objective of advertising since audiences are able to relate to how brands are used and receive real-time demonstrations, features and benefits of the product depending on how the products are placed. The use of the Mini Cooper car brand in the movie, *The Italian Job* may be

an example of product demonstration, while the Chevrolet Camaro in the movie Transformers is used for static entertainment and brand awareness purposes.

6.5.3 Design entertaining product placement campaigns

The results of the study show that respondents find product placements entertaining to watch. The entertainment construct was also found to be a significant predictor of product placement attitudes and purchase intentions. These results are in support of the literature reviewed in Section 3.7.2 of the study. Based on the findings, this study recommends that marketers incorporate entertainment when integrating brands into the movie plot or TV scene. Marketers should consider using humorous appeals or thought-provoking scenes and avoid negative depictions of the brand that may give the brand a negative image or have audiences questions its appearance. Pranam (2018:125) asserts that even great products can unintentionally tarnish their reputation through careless placements, as every single element of the product tells a piece of the complete story and, thus, product placement needs to be handled with care. Such placements have already been evident such, as among others, the placement of Sony products, including the Sony PlayStation in the Johannesburg based movie plot *Chappie*, produced by Sony. Whilst the placements were meant to be entertaining, the unrealistic portrayal of Sony products in the movie saw the movie appearing in the category of movies with worst product placement scenes.

6.5.4 Use product placement as part of the integrated marketing communication (IMC) strategy

Empirical evidence in this study show that respondents prefer product placements in movies and TV shows over traditional TV advertising. Approximately 63 percent of respondents admitted to using their mobile devices such as laptops and tablets to access movie content just so they can avoid TV advertisements. Theoretical evidence, however, shows that traditional TV advertising is still dominant, especially in the South African market (PQ Media, 2018; PWC, 2018).

Based on the findings, therefore, this study, recommends that marketers increase promotional budgets and use product placements to reinforce their promotional

strategies. Product placements may be used in conjunction with the traditional TV advertising campaigns as part of the integrated marketing communication mix strategy to reinforce brand awareness and spontaneous recall (Van Reijmersdal, 2011; Uribe, 2016).

6.5.5 Increase brand exposure through increased product placement budget

Notwithstanding the reluctance of South African brand marketers to invest in product placement the same as or even more than traditional advertising, results from the present study show that approximately half of the respondents are aware of product placement's commercial intent. Furthermore, the results indicate that materialism is one of the most significant predictors of product placement attitudes and subsequent consumption-related behavioural intentions. Past research also suggest that high exposure to mass media increases brand consciousness and awareness (Nelson & McLeod, 2005), and people with high material tendencies are associated with increased consumption behaviours either for status or utilitarian reasons (Bevan-Dye *et al.*, 2012).

Based on the notion that the more people see brands on marketing platforms, the more they want to acquire and own them, this study recommends that marketers invest more in product placement campaigns in movies and other TV shows so as to increase brand exposure and take advantage of the already materialistic consumers who enjoy seeing brands in movies. Both theoretical and empirical evidence exist that increased exposure to advertising stimuli influences brand attitudes and consumption behavioural intentions (Gardner, 1985; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1986; Mittal, 1990; Nelson & McLeod, 2005; Ganesan, Sridhar & Priyadharsani, 2017).

Whiles the study recommends increased product placement exposure, marketers should also be careful of movie saturation and placement prominence as placements still need to appear seamless and natural so as not to be perceived negatively by consumers (Beneke, 2012).

6.5.6 Create brand image by associating brands with appropriate characters/shows

As alluded to in Section 3.7.5, celebrity endorsements have proven to be a less effective tool today as consumers become more and more sophisticated. Marketers also have to battle with the enduring reputation and credibility of the celebrity endorser. Product placement, however, provides an opportunity for subtle endorsements by movies and TV characters. Results from the present study reveal that respondents pay attention to brands used by their favourite characters, are more likely to buy such brands and in some cases feel closer to their favourite movie characters through the consumption of the associated brands. The successful association of the Austin Martin car brand with the James Bond character in the James Bond franchise is a classic example that tying a brand with a successful character or show can increase the shelf life of a product and achieve prominent exposure, visibility, interest and brand recall.

As such, this study recommends that marketers create brand image or brand status by associating their brands with appropriate movie or TV show characters. Bevan-Dye *et al.* (2012) have also previously suggested that international brands enjoy more status-related consumption compared to South African brands, which makes Generation Y consumers less prone to the consumption of the latter brands. Therefore, local brands with a status-conferring cue (as a result of character-product association) present opportunities for these brands to compete with their international brand counterparts. These recommendations are also supported by the theories of character-product interaction as previously researched by Russell and Stern (2006, Muzellec, Kanitz, and Lynn (2013), as well as Kamleitner and Khair (2013), who all postulate that consumers are more inclined to purchasing brands used by their favourite characters if they feel attached to such characters, thus making product placement in movies and TV shows more effective.

6.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

This study measured the antecedents of attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placements in movies and TV shows amongst Generation Y students in South

Africa. As with any other study, this study had certain limitations that may present several future research opportunities.

A non-probability convenience sampling method was utilised to select the sample. Despite the inclusion of a several demographic questions to determine the extent to which the sample was representative of the target population, care should be taken in generalising the results to the population (Section 4.4.3). In addition, a single cross-sectional research design was undertaken (Section 4.3). Future research, utilising a longitudinal study, may provide a more accurate reflection of the extent to which the factors identified in this study influence Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows.

This study relied on self-reporting to measure purchase intentions. An observational research approach may provide a more accurate measure of product placement purchase behaviour.

Future research directed at testing this model amongst non-student members of South Africa's Generation Y, as well as amongst other generational cohorts would also contribute to the literature on South African's overall reactions to product placement and its effectiveness as a marketing tool.

Future research directed at testing this model against genre specific content (for example, comedy, drama and action), other online media platforms (for example, social games) and other video-on-demand/streaming platforms (for example, TVOD, SVOD, AVOD, and the like) may also contribute to the literature on South African's overall reactions to product placement marketing tactics.

6.7 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, there is little dispute that product placement is the future of advertising in old media, digital media and beyond, and that the old and intrusive ways of pushing commercial messages onto consumers are a thing of the past. This study empirically tested a model of the antecedents of Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows. Understanding the factors that influence different segments to interact favourably with placed brands helps

marketers to tailor their brand communication efforts. This model may be applied to predict attitudes and purchase intentions towards product placements across various entertainment content in various media platforms and amongst different segments of the population.

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ANNEXURES
ANNEXURE A: QUESTIONNAIRE

**GENERATION Y STUDENTS' ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES
TOWARDS PRODUCT PLACEMENT**

Dear Student,

I am conducting research on the factors that influence Generation Y students' attitudes and behavioural responses towards product placement in movies and TV shows for my Ph.D. at North-West University (Vaal triangle campus) and my study promoter is Prof. Ayesha Bevan-Dye.

Product Placement refers a purposeful inclusion of brand name products into entertainment media such as movies and TV shows (see pictures below). This study focuses on Generation Y students who are between 18 and 24 years of age, who are recorded as being the heaviest consumers of movies and TV shows. As such, your input is invaluable to this study.



Taken from the TV Show: American Idols



Taken from the movie: Taken 2

Please complete all questions in the enclosed questionnaire. I assure you that the information that you provide will be treated with the strictest confidentiality. The responses will be used for academic purposes only. The questionnaire has also been cleared by the ethics committee of the NWU (ethical clearance no: *ECONIT-2016-059*). The questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Many Thanks

Mr. Theo Mareka

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Section A: DEMOGRAPHICS AND MEDIA CONSUMPTION

This section seeks some background information about you. Please indicate your answer by crossing (x) in the appropriate block.

A1	Please indicate your age.								
	Younger than 18 years	18 years old	19 years old	20 years old	21 years old	22 years old	23 years old	24 years old	Older than 24 years

A2	Please indicate your gender.			
	Male	1	Female	2

A3	Please indicate your race								
	Black/African	1	White	2	Coloured	3	Asian/Indian	4	Other (specify)

A4	Please indicate your home province.				
	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal	Limpopo
	Mpumalanga	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape	

A5	Please indicate your level of study.							
	1 st year	1	2 nd year	2	3 rd year	3	Post graduate	4

A6	Please indicate your favourite media entertainment content.											
	Movies	1	TV series	2	Local drama/soaps	3	Reality shows	4	Sports	5	Other	6

A7	Please indicate the means with which you access your favourite entertainment content.							
	Television	1	Laptop	2	Tablet	3	Online	4

A8	How many days per week do you spend on your favourite media content?							
	Every day	6 days	5 days	4 days	3 days	2 days	1 days	Never

A9	On average, how many hours per day do you spend on your favourite programme/content?											
	Less than an hour	1	Up to two hours	2	Two to four hours	3	Four to six hours	4	Six to eight hours	5	More than eight hours	6

A10	Were you aware that product placement is in fact “advertising in disguise”?					
	Yes	1	Not before today			2

SECTION B: Product placement ethics

Please indicate using a cross (X) the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements concerning product placement.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	What you think about the ethics around product placement.						
B1	Advertisers mislead viewers by including their brands as props in movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2	The practice of placing brands in movies/TV shows should be banned completely.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B3	The government should regulate the practice of product placements in movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B4	I would pay more to see a movie/TV show without product placement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B5	If advertisers pay to have their brands shown in movies/TV shows, this information should be disclosed at the beginning of the show.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	What you think about the ethics around product placement.						
B6	The use of brand name tobacco & alcohol products should be banned from PG and PG-13 rated movies/TV shows as kids watch such shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B7	The use of brand name tobacco & alcohol products should only be placed in movies/TV shows that kids do not watch.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B8	The use of brand name tobacco & alcohol products should be banned from all movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION C: Perceived realism

Please indicate using a cross (X) the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements concerning product placement.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	Perceived realism						
C1	I prefer to see real brands in movies/TV shows rather than fake/fictitious brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2	Movies/TV shows should use real brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C3	The presence of brand name products in a movie/TV show makes it more realistic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C4	I don't mind seeing real brands in movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C5	I don't mind if brand name products appear in movies/TV shows, as long as they are not unrealistically shown.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION D: Attitudes towards TV advertising in general.

Please indicate using a cross (X) the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements concerning TV advertising.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	How you feel about TV adverts.						
D1	I hate watching adverts on TV during a movie/TV show.	1	2	3	4	5	6
D2	While watching a TV programme, I frequently switch channels to avoid adverts.	1	2	3	4	5	6
D3	When an advert appears on my TV, I stop watching until the programme starts again.	1	2	3	4	5	6
D4	I watch movies on my laptop/tablet to escape from TV adverts.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION E: Character-product association

Please indicate using a cross (X) the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements concerning movie/TV characters.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	How movie/TV stars influence your choice of brand name products.						
E1	When I see movie/TV show characters I like, I pay attention to the products they use.	1	2	3	4	5	6
E2	I am likely to buy brand name products I see movie/TV characters using.	1	2	3	4	5	6
E3	Movie/TV characters show useful examples of how to present myself to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	How movie/TV stars influence your choice of brand name products.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
E4	The brand name products in movies/TV are “true” to what the characters would use in real life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
E5	Some brand name products help me relate to my favourite movie/TV show characters.	1	2	3	4	5	6
E6	I would like to own brand name products that relate to some of my favourite movie/TV characters.	1	2	3	4	5	6
E7	I would like to meet some of my favourite movie/TV characters someday.	1	2	3	4	5	6
E8	I sometimes imitate (e.g. gestures, phrases, facial expressions or fashion) from the characters in my favourite movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION F: Materialism

Please indicate using a cross (X) the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements concerning product placement.

	How product placement influences people and their choice of products.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
F1	Most people are subconsciously influenced by the brands they see in movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
F2	Product placement promotes a materialistic society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
F3	Product placements makes people want to buy products they cannot afford just to show off.	1	2	3	4	5	6
F4	Because of product placement, people wish to buy a lot of things that they do not really need.	1	2	3	4	5	6
F5	Product placement makes people live in the world of fantasy	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION G: Purchase behaviour

Please indicate using a cross (X) the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements concerning product placement.

	Purchase behaviour measures	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
G1	I would like to use some of the brand name products that I have seen in movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
G2	I would buy brand name products that I have seen in movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
G3	I would actively look for some of the brand name products in a store after seeing them in movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
G4	I have wanted to try a product after seeing it in a movie/TV show.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION H: General attitudes towards product placement

	Your general feelings towards product products.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
H1	Overall, I like product placement in movies/TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
H2	I consider product placement in movies/TV shows a good marketing strategy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
H3	Generally, my opinion of product placement in movies/TV shows is favourable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
H4	Quite often, product placement in movies/TV shows is entertaining.	1	2	3	4	5	6
H5	Product placements in movies/TV shows are more enjoyable than TV adverts.	1	2	3	4	5	6
H6	Overall, product placements in movies/TV shows are fun to watch.	1	2	3	4	5	6

