

THE EFFECTS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION IN
TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS:
A COMMUNICATION STUDY

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For RASCHNA

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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Non-verbal communication is a widely publicized topic and a newcomer to the study of non-verbal communication will find no shortage of literature reviews and state-of-the-art assessments. Burgoon (1980:179) discusses the transition of non-verbal communication since the 1970s towards a legitimate and identifiable area of scholarship in Communication Science.

The explosion of writing and research on this topic has been, according to Knapp (1984:15), collated, catalogued and analyzed from a variety of perspectives. The enthusiasm of these theorists is well-captured in Sapir's (1949:556) now famous quote: "We respond to gestures with an extreme alertness and, one might almost say, in accordance with an elaborate and secret code that is written nowhere known, to none, and understood by all." That the code is understood by all, is an exaggerated statement, although it underscores the universality of non-verbal signals as a communication coding system.

On the South African scene, Marais (1987:10) indicates that the completed research in South Africa for the period 1980 - 1987 is compiled by the following sub-sections in communication (Table 1.1 gives a summary). In these seven years 182 projects were concluded.

Table 1.1

Percentage of completed research in South Africa 1980 - 1987

1. Mass media	37,0%
2. Advertising	19,9%
3. Guidance	19,3%
4. Interpersonal/intergroup	9,9%
5. Small group	4,4%
6. Political/state	3,9%
7. General	2,9%
8. Organizational	1,7%
9. Methodology	1,1%

There is no separate category for research on non-verbal communication according to this table, but traditionally non-verbal communication falls under interpersonal communication. It seems that advertising (19,9%) is one of the most popular and most researched areas in communication. Interpersonal communication (9,9%) is the fourth most important area. When the present research was started, it seemed that very little had been done in South Africa to address the aspect of non-verbal communication in advertising, and needless to say, television advertising.

1.2 NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION AS A FIELD OF STUDY

The theory and research associated with non-verbal communication has grown rapidly in recent years. Littlejohn (1989:67), Burgoon (1980:179), Knapp (1984:15) and Knapp, Cody & Reardon (1987:385) point out that it had primarily amassed since 1950, and has been summarized and analyzed from several different perspectives. Katz & Katz (1983:i) acknowledge this aspect by adding the fact that non-verbal communication seems to be an established discipline as well as a new one. It is established in the sense that there are volumes of information available on the topic, with a rich past of well-documented research. It is new in the sense that there is not enough information available in certain areas of non-verbal communication. Relatively little information is known about non-verbal elements in advertising. Hecker & Stewart (1988:3-9) refer in this regard

to non-verbal communication as the forgotten elements of advertising.

Disparate aspects of non-verbal communication have been discussed in the contexts of cultural anthropology, psychology and sociology, but attempts at a comprehensive and integrated approach to the field as a whole have been much more in recent years (Katz & Katz, 1983:i). It seems as if this search for an integrated approach could be solved if the emphasis were to fall on the interpersonal communication context. Knapp, Cody & Reardon (1987:385) conclude that: "Throughout this seeming analytic diversity, however, lies the virtually uniform application of the findings from non-verbal theory and research to dyadic or interpersonal communication contexts."

Knapp, Cody & Reardon (1987:385) specify a variety of studies under different perspectives. There are several studies on, for example (i) sex differences by Hall (1984 & 1985) and Mayo & Henley (1981); (ii) methodology by Scherer & Eckman (1985); (iii) the body region by Knapp (1978) and Harper, Wiens & Matarazzo (1978) and lastly (iv) Burgoon (1980 & 1985), Burgoon & Saine (1978) and Heslin & Patterson (1982) represent their outcome approach. This approach brings together research from various body regions and body extensions to show how multi-sign clusters and sequences work together in communicating the nature of individuals' relationships to one another.

1.3 ADVERTISING AS A FIELD OF STUDY

As in the case of non-verbal communication, advertising can also be analyzed from a variety of approaches. Loudon & Bitta (1979:7), Burton & Ryan (1980:160) and Russell, Verrill & Lane (1988:398) indicate the relevance of the Social Sciences to advertising. Russell & Verrill (1986:364) indicate that: "Although these behavioral sciences often overlap, they are all of interest to the advertiser. The field of consumer behavior brings together all of the behavioral sciences in the study of how and why we make buying decisions. Understanding consumer behavior is the key to what makes advertising work."

These behavioural sciences include the following areas: Anthropology, sociology and psychology. Cultural anthropologists study the cultures of all societies. From their work they have found that certain needs and activities are common to people wherever they are. Bodily adornment, cooking, courtship, food, taboos, gift-giving, language, marriage, sex, status and superstition are present in all societies, although each society attaches its own values and traditions to them (Russell & Verrill, 1986:365). Under the anthropological classification the changing role of women and role portrayals and the rites of passage are important.

The sociological perspective over-emphasizes the social class and stratification, the perceptions of opinion leadership, society and the study of human relationships. Russell, Lane & Verrill (1988:403) indicate that the basic unit of buying behaviour is the family. Most households pass through an orderly progression of stages, which are referred to as the family life-cycle. These stages include the bachelor stage up to the solitary survivor stage. These stages cannot, however, be applied without any alterations to the South African market. Khoza (1987:91-98) makes it clear that the black consumer in South Africa has a different life-style, and life-cycle than its white counterpart.

In the broad sense psychology is the study of human behaviour and its causes. Russell, Lane & Verrill (1988:404) explain three important variables in consumer behaviour: Motivation, cognition and learning. It is also increasingly popular to apply psychological theories to advertising. Bandura's (1977) social learning theory has been successfully applied by numerous South African scholars (some of which are communicologists) such as Basson (1986), Van der Waldt (1986), Lunz (1983), Fullagar & Barling (1983) and Fullagar (1980) in order to explain the advertising phenomenon.

The social scientist has within these different approaches to the study of advertising a mosaic of variables to take into account. This diversity helps to understand the consumer in order to try and satisfy the needs, whether these needs are for more information, products or services. The contribution of psychology and sociology to the study of advertising and

consumer behaviour is evident, but little has been done from a communication perspective to enhance the understanding and contribution of advertising.

This study has, however, been conducted on the basic assumption that television advertising should be seen as a specific communication system. As a system, television advertising consists of a structure as well as a process. The structure comprises of interdependent elements such as the sender, message, receiver and feedback. The process describes the way in which these interdependent variables in the structure function. Through the process the communicator passes intentional information to a preconceived target group by means of a selected medium with the expectation of a desired outcome through feedback. Within advertising research the emphasis is on the process dimension of the system. This assumption will be explicated fully in Chapter 2.

Advertising, in any form, as Sandage & Fryburger (1975:73) and Stanley (1982:137) explain, contains within itself an element of persuasion. It is therefore relevant to pay attention to this aspect in any study of advertising. As persuasion involves more than the use of strong words and phrases to urge people to buy or to accept an idea, the importance of this element in advertising may not be overlooked. Non-verbal elements of the persuasive message should also be taken into account. On the one hand, these elements could add more detail to the spoken and written words, phrases, appearances or physique of the persuasive message or product. As a result it could enhance persuasion. On the other hand, it could also distract the consumer in such a way that less or even no attention is given to the persuasive message. The necessity of the correct application of non-verbal elements in the advertising message is therefore of paramount importance.

Regarding persuasion as a two-way process, Sandage & Fryburger (1975:73) say that in advertising terms it involves a recognition or belief on the part of the receiver that the advertised product will satisfy a need or desire. Chapters 3 and 4 explain more thoroughly the perception and the persuasive nature of the message.

1.4 ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The need for a well-structured and sound theoretical approach to advertising has already been indicated. Puth (1981) and Van der Waldt (1986, 1988 & 1989) are amongst the theorists who have addressed this need. Several theorists claim that non-verbal communication has been ignored in the past. Needless to say, non-verbal communication in advertising is also a relatively new area of interest.

The work by Haley, Richardson & Baldwin (1984) and Hecker & Stewart (1988) on non-verbal communication in advertising indicates that very little attention has been paid to this aspect as well: "Despite the prominent use of nonverbal elements as message cues, surprisingly little research has examined the effects of nonverbal cues..." (Houston, Childers & Hecker, 1987:359). When this research started in 1987, the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) indicated that there were 106 registered research projects on advertising and only eight on non-verbal communication. These eight projects dealt with psychology, education and interpersonal communication. As a result, it became clear that a need existed for research on non-verbal communication in advertising and more specifically in television advertising. This need has also been identified by Van der Waldt (1986, 1988, 1989 & 1990).

With regard to non-verbal communication in advertising, Holbrook & Grayson (1986:374) anticipate that research could contribute to the understanding of consumer behaviour. Mick (1986:196) explains: "The study of signs promises to contribute much to our understanding of consumer behavior." In the same breath Bonoma & Felder (1977:169-179) point out that non-verbal communication has never been analyzed in the marketing communication context, and advise that it should be analyzed from a communication perspective.

Confusion seemingly exists on the issue of where non-verbal communication belong within marketing and advertising. Different theorists use different concepts to describe non-verbal communication. Childers & Houston (1984:643) refer to pictorial and verbal forms in the advertising message: "Information presented in verbal and/or pictorial form is a fundamental feature of the consumer information environment."

Mitchell (1986:12) refers to non-verbal communication when he uses the term visual components in advertising. He further indicates that most advertisements contain visual elements, and many advertisements provide little product attributable information. Advertisements that provide little product attributable information seem to be designed to either trigger an emotional reaction or visually portray the typical users of the brand: "Current models of persuasion, however, generally assume that attitude information and change, and eventually behavior, are based on the acquisition and retrieval of verbal information about the product." Holman (1986:66) uses context when referring to non-verbal communication. Swartz (1983:59) and Holbrook & Grayson (1986:374) use the term symbolic consumer behaviour to embrace non-verbal communication. Peters (personal interview: March 19, 1987) uses mise-en-scene to refer to non-verbal communication in advertising. Noller (1986:24) uses symbolic communication as a substitute for non-verbal communication.

On face value, these terms could lead to misunderstanding and incorrect conclusions about the meaning and understanding of the non-verbal phenomenon. This could lead to conceptual as well as methodological problems, because in most cases the above terms include non-verbal variables. These terms do not accurately specify non-verbal communication. However, non-verbal elements could not be contributors to the interpretation of these terms. The better understanding and use of the non-verbal communication phenomenon could enhance the application thereof by advertising and marketing practitioners and theorists. Since this area of research is relatively new within the advertising and marketing traditions, research from a communication perspective on this area could contribute to the understanding of it.

Greenwald (1968) and Wright (1974) state that the cognitive response approach focuses on the verbal thoughts about the product generated during exposure to a persuasive communication. The cognitive structure approach focuses according to Lutz (1975), Olson & Mitchell (1975) and Mitchell (1986) on the product attributable beliefs acquired or changed by a persuasive message. Mitchell (1986:12) argues that one reason why these approaches have such a strong verbal emphasis, is that most persuasive communication used as experimental stimuli in developing these approaches contained only written information.

The aforementioned models assume that individuals translate the visual and emotional elements of advertisements into product-related information. Dissatisfaction with this assumption has led, according to Mitchell (1986:12) a number of researchers away from strict verbally-oriented models of persuasion and caused them to examine other mechanisms that may effect attitude formation and change. These mechanisms could be the visual components in the advertisement, which includes non-verbal communication.

Lysonski (1985:37), Manstead & McCulloch (1985:171) and Allen & Hatchet (1986:97), amongst others, explain that the context of the mass media and especially that of advertising, is mainly a projection of society's preferences and values. In this regard Gudykunst & Kim (1984:149) indicate: "Just as verbal behaviors are conditioned by the overall cultural milieu, non-verbal behaviors reflect many of the cultural patterns we acquire throughout the socialization process." As a result television advertisements influence the socialization process, which as a result, also strengthens or imprint non-verbal communication on the destination.

The functions of non-verbal communication could be regarded as the most basic purposes of non-verbal communication. However, Haley, Richardson & Baldwin (1984:15) hypothesized that their research indicate the opposite: "The non-verbal cues in television advertising do not complement the verbal word, but are more likely to work against an advertisement than to enhance its effectiveness."

1.5 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

With regard to the orientation of the research problem, it seems that the following problems emerged:

(i) Little research focused on the impact of non-verbal communication in television advertisements. A need exists for research on the effects of non-verbal communication in advertising, especially television advertising. Schmalensee (1983:51) asks the following question as one of the top priority advertising research questions: "What are the effects of nonverbal elements on advertising and how can the effects be measured?." Rademeyer (1990) compiled a comprehensive report on the factors in advertising effectiveness and advertising testing in South Africa. Unfortunately his research does not include any reference to non-verbal elements in advertisements. As a result, the question concerning the effects of non-verbal elements in advertising remains unanswered. The present study is an attempt to answer this question.

(ii) Much emphasis has been placed on the strict verbal elements of persuasion in the past. It seems as if non-verbal elements do not contribute to the persuasiveness of the message. The influence of non-verbal elements as persuasive variables in advertising should receive more attention, because the advertising message consists of both verbal and non-verbal elements. Traditionally the non-verbal elements are regarded as complementary to the verbal message. Non-verbal communication could be regarded as meta-communication and should therefore be seen in a much wider context. When the verbal message stops, the non-verbal elements continue to provide information. Two examples that illustrate this are used for this research: The Peanut advertisement. The one actor tells the other one "It (the peanut) is about the size of your brain." The expression on the actor's face afterwards indicated a surprised and angry man, without uttering any verbal words.

The second advertisement, Status deodorant, illustrates this aspect excellently. The actress asks the male actor if he wants his Scotch on the rocks or on her patio. The camera, however, focuses on her kinesic behaviour afterwards, where she squeezes his leg as an indication that she invites him to her patio, without any utterance of words.

(iii) Advertising is known to strengthen or imprint aspects of products and services on the consumer. Consumer perceptions of all the elements (including non-verbal elements) in the advertising system have to be taken into account. If the advertisement emphasizes the non-verbal elements wrongly, it could lead to annoyance, irritation or even product rejection.

(iv) A further problem could be anticipated through the different perceptions or reactions of consumers with regard to non-verbal communication in television advertisements. Perceptual differences between different cultures or language groups, race groups and sexes are anticipated.

(v) The South African consumer market consists of a complex mosaic and heterogeneous group of people. The differences in cultures and the First World (mainly developed and westernized) Third World (mainly underdeveloped and Africanized) dichotomy add to this problem. The problem arises where a mainly westernized orientated advertising industry applies their mainly westernized techniques to the consumer. A high percentage of consumers is not as sophisticated as the more westernized groups. Perceptual differences are anticipated with the First and Third World consumer. These different consumers are influenced by different internal and external behavioural factors, such as motivation, needs, wants, cultural and social aspects.

1.6 OBJECTIVES

The fact that the research centers around the television viewer as the consumer of information, has led to a further assumption: The television viewer should be seen as a person who has free access to television viewing; the viewer has money to spend on the mass media and the television viewer should be seen as a person who could be segmented within a certain consumer market.

Communication students were used for the research. Within this defined strata, black and white, male and female students were included. A white male student is not regarded in the same way as a white female student. A white male student is also not regarded like a black male student, and as such these different groups cannot be compared. Although most of the statistical analyses do compare these groups, it must be seen as an indirect comparison.

Race as a demographic variable within the general South African context is a controversial issue, because of its political connotation. But, within the advertising and marketing domain, it is regarded as an important product positioning variable. The concept "race" as a product-positioning variable, should rather be replaced with culture. The white race in South Africa comprises of mainly two cultural groupings, Afrikaans and English. Each of these cultures have their own unique composition, purchasing behaviour and preferences. Within each of these cultures separate and unique sub-cultures are evident. The same applies to the black race, where more cultures are to be found.

Hawkins, Best & Coney (1986:146-151), Schiffman & Kanuk (1987:520-524) and Belch & Belch (1990:115-117) explain the importance of racial sub-cultures as segments of target markets within a society. As a result, different races have to be researched, analyzed and surveyed in order to create more effective advertising for that specific target market. The interesting difference, however, is the fact that in America black consumers are regarded as a sub-culture, because of their small numbers in comparison to

the white consumers. In South Africa, advertisers and marketers traditionally regarded blacks as an insignificant sub-culture, although they in fact constitute the vast majority of the population. This view has changed and blacks are now regarded as an important sub-culture, due to their large numbers, different cultures and purchasing power. Burgoon & Saine (1978:127) emphasize that much of the research on sub-cultural differences in non-verbal communication is racial by nature, focusing on differences between blacks and whites.

Against the background of the research problem and the problems which are posed, the broad objectives of this dissertation are:

(i) To determine the advertising possibilities of non-verbal communication. Certain non-verbal variables, such as facial expressions, body movements, physique of the actors, artifacts and para-language are commonly present in television advertisements. These variables have never been analyzed within the South African context.

(ii) To assess whether different race groups should be approached differently in emphasizing non-verbal communication in television advertisements. It is necessary to determine if there is any perceptual difference between race groups who were exposed to specific non-verbal elements in television advertisements.

(iii) To determine if there is any correlation between television-viewing behaviour and non-verbal variables in television advertisements.

(iv) To assess if there is any correlation between television-viewing behaviour and advertising variables in television advertisements.

(v) To make certain recommendations to the advertising practitioner with regard to the proper use of non-verbal elements in television advertisements as to enhance the effectiveness of the verbal message.

The aims were refined for the specific working hypotheses which were put forward in Chapter 8. These hypotheses determined the different statistical analyses which were used in this thesis.

1.7 METHOD OF STUDY

The thesis comprises of two interdependent divisions. The first division is the theoretical foundation, where certain assumptions are made about the nature and domain of the topic under discussion. It mainly comprises of a literature review. Because of the explorative nature of this research, various relevant phenomena receive attention.

The second division comprises of the empirical section, which includes the different analyses, the presenting and discussion of the results. The research has been conducted by means of a descriptive survey method, in an attempt to describe current conditions that exist concerning the effects of non-verbal communication in television advertisements.

1.8 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

The most important variables in the thesis need to be described, viz: Advertising, communication, non-verbal communication, effects and consumers.

(i) Advertising: It is a message paid for by an identified sponsor and delivered through some medium of mass communication. Advertising is persuasive communication (Belch & Belch, 1990:7).

(ii) Communication: Communication is a purposeful attempt of at least two individuals to establish common meaning (Marais, 1979:15). Van der Waldt & Groenewald (1991:159) emphasize that both verbal and non-verbal symbols are used in order to establish this common meaning.

(iii) Non-verbal communication: The controversy about the definition of non-verbal communication will be discussed in the next chapter, but for this thesis the following definition will be appropriate: "The term 'non-verbal communication' has been applied to a broad range of phenomena: Everything from facial expression and gesture to fashion and status symbols, from dance and drama to music and mime, from the flow of effect to the flow of traffic, from the territoriality of animals to the protocol of diplomats, from extrasensory perception to analog computers, and from the rhetoric of violence to the rhetoric of topless dancers." (Harrison, 1973:93.)

The present researcher acknowledges the intellectual confusion surrounding the investigation of this phenomenon. Harrison & Knapp (1973:343) indicate that this confusion exists on two levels: (a) Where to draw the boundary between verbal and non-verbal communication; and (b) where to chart the far perimeter between communication and non-communication. These matters are discussed in Chapter 2.

By a non-verbal sign, is basically understood, for the purpose of this dissertation, any sign other than spoken or written language used to represent something other than itself. As Littlejohn (1989:67) says: "Such signs would be meaningful to the person or persons using them." In advertising terms it implies that the non-verbal communication in the advertisement should be understandable to the audience. In other words, the non-verbal communication should have the desired impact (from the advertiser's view) on its destination. Within the advertising context, desired impact could be regarded as a reaction, a change in attitude or even a change in behaviour.

(iv) Effects: As indicated in the title of this thesis, effects include the perceptions, attitudes or reactions of the respondents towards the stimulus material. The study is not an effect study per definition.

(v) Consumers: For the purposes of this thesis the undergraduate Communication students are seen as consumers. They consume products, the mass media and they are exposed to advertisements.

1.9 DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH TOPIC

As has already been indicated, this study was conducted from a communication perspective and not from a sociological, marketing, psychological or industrial psychological perspective.

Two distinct aspects form the primary or basic field of study, viz: Non-verbal communication and advertising. Holbrook (1987:237) correctly states that consumer research has long claimed to be an interdisciplinary area of inquiry. The theoretical foundation has been done from a variety of perspectives. Yet the basic field of study remains communication, because advertising relates to persuasive communication, marketing communication and mass communication in various ways.

Empirically the study has been restricted to the following variables: (i) Television advertisements which appeared on the South African Broadcasting Corporation's (SABC) Television 1 (TV1) and Television 4 (TV4) channels were used. (ii) Student samples at all six residential universities in Southern Africa which offer Communication as a major subject. These universities include the following: The Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education (PU for CHE) in Potchefstroom, Transvaal, the University of the Orange Free State (UOFS) in Bloemfontein in the Orange Free State, the University of Bophuthatswana (UNIBO) in Mmabatho in Bophuthatswana, the University of Fort Hare (UFH) in Alice in the Ciskei, the Rand Afrikaans University (RAU) in Johannesburg, Transvaal, and the University of Zululand (UNIZULU) in Kwadlangezwa in Kwa-Zulu.

1.10 INHIBITING FACTORS IN THE EXECUTION OF THIS STUDY

A number of obstructive factors influenced the execution of the present study. Although these factors hampered the execution, the study endeavoured towards an objective scientific character. The following aspects are important:

(i) Since the study is largely exploratory in nature, a large number of different approaches are covered in order to explain the non-verbal phenomenon. This has led to the diversity of approaches which are discussed and applied to the present study. In addition, these different non-verbal communication and advertising approaches made it difficult to apply a single sound theoretical foundation.

(ii) There are only a few sources presently available on non-verbal communication in advertising. Due to this limitation, no blue-print of the analysis and testing of non-verbal communication in television advertisements exists.

(iii) The small size of the television screen could have had an influence on the respondent's perception of the advertisements.

(iv) The duration of the average television advertisement is between thirty and 45 seconds. This short duration complicated the perception of the advertisement. Only the obvious and elementary aspects of non-verbal communication could be tested because of this limitation.

1.11 OUTLINE OF STUDY

Chapter 2 comprises of the orientation, where the communication perspective, certain axioms of communication, persuasion in the advertising process and behaviour has been explained.

In Chapter 3 the emphasis has been placed on the very essence of verbal and non-verbal communication with special attention to the classification and functions of non-verbal communication. Chapter 4 comprises the non-verbal approaches to communication. The different approaches have been evaluated and in conclusion it is indicated which approach has been accepted by the present study. Attention has been given to research in non-verbal communication. In this chapter the research areas indicate the changing trends in non-verbal communication, especially since the Second World War.

Chapter 5 concerns signs and their significance in television advertisements. The main emphasis here is not to conduct an in-depth study of semiology, but to explain the roots of television advertising as a sign system. Television advertising as the mirror of society's life-styles, values and norms is discussed in this chapter. The stereotyping of society in different categories forms part of the discussion in this chapter.

Chapter 6 explains the advertising phenomenon within the South African context. Here the emphasis is placed on the complex South African consumer and the development of television advertising in a changing society.

Chapter 7 marks the start of the empirical section. In this chapter the full research strategy has been explained. The sampling; measurement instrument; the pilot study and the method of data-analyses. Chapter 8 consists of the results of the statistical analyses.

The last chapter, Chapter 9, comprises of general and specific conclusions as a result of the statistical analyses. Certain recommendations are also made in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2

ORIENTATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1 it has been stated that the present study was conducted on the basic assumption that advertising should be seen as a system of communication. In this chapter further attention will be paid to this assumption as well as the communication perspective. The basic distinctions between behaviour and communication will also be discussed. This is followed by a discussion of persuasive aspects in the communication process.

Three broad aspects are discussed in Chapter 2, namely communication, persuasion and behaviour. The aim of this chapter is to give an explanation of the above-mentioned variables and their interdependence for this study.

2.2 COMMUNICATION PERSPECTIVE

Chapter 1 indicated that this study had been conducted on the basic assumption that television advertising should be seen as a communication system. As a system, television advertising consists of a structure which is comprised of interdependent elements such as the sender, message, receiver and feedback. It also consists of a process, which embraces the dynamics of the system, in other words, the way in which these interdependent elements in the structure function. The emphasis is placed on the process of the system for the purposes of the present thesis.

One of the controversies relating to the definition of communication as a process, is according to Borman (1980:26), the proper characterization of the process. Littlejohn (1989:47) indicates that communication is a process of providing other individuals with information about one's own perspective or opinion.

Based on the work by Berlo (1960:24) this assumption indicates that the process has no beginning, end or a fixed sequence of events: "It is not static, at rest. It is moving. The ingredients within a process interact; each affects all the others". According to this description of process, a variety of philosophical and pragmatic perspectives can be developed. Knapp (1984:17) indicates that research which examines the communication process, should: (i) Make observations over time to reflect the continuous, changing nature of a process, (ii) describe the interdependence of behaviours among the interactants to reflect the interactive nature of process elements; and (iii) note the possible influence of the researcher on the process being described.

2.3 CERTAIN AXIOMS OF COMMUNICATION

Francis Bacon recognized gesture as a medium of communication as early as (1605) He suggested that: "... as the tongue speaketh to the ear, so the hand speaketh to the eye." (Keendon, 1983:155.) Shulman & Penman (1981:58) rule that the communication process is more than just the exchange of words; in fact, communication can occur without words at all. Whereas in an interpersonal situation non-verbal communication always occurs, verbal communication occurs only sometimes. Lyons (1972:49) warns that language is not synonymous with verbal communication.

Human interaction is according to Leathers (1986:3) a quest for meaning. The ways in which one communicate are varied and the sources of error in interpersonal communication are multiple. Focussing on non-verbal behaviour as communication, a number of different analogies can be identified. Knapp (1984:16-34) identifies interrelated and commonly accepted assumptions about

the nature of human communication from which non-verbal communication can be viewed. These assumptions are highlighted and summarized as follows:

2.3.1 Human communication involves both purposive and informative messages

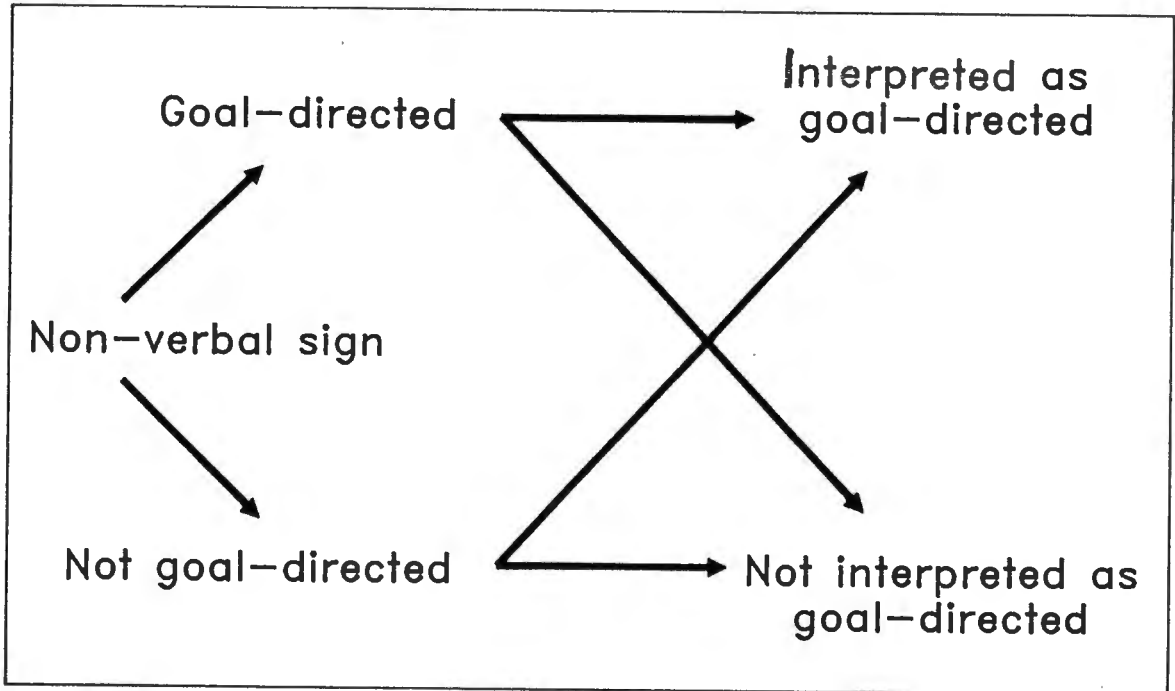
According to Knapp (1984:21) this assumption is based on the belief that human beings use a variety of intentional and unintentional messages which are the bases for responses during everyday interaction. He further states that if one were to study those behaviours which generate meaning, one should examine both purposive and informative behaviours.

Dittmann (1978:82) claims that messages in question are still messages. Whether they are deliberate or not; they still consist of information of some sort that is transmitted from one person to another. Therefore, the term "communication" should have a more general kind of meaning.

Both purposive and informative messages are transmitted between individuals when communicating. The difference is that a purposive message is one that is consciously intended as a message for others. Atkinson & Allen (1983:458) discuss the perceived structure of non-verbal behaviour as either spontaneous or deliberate. The present study holds that purposive and deliberate messages are the same. Spontaneous and informative messages are regarded as the same. It is also possible that both kinds of messages include non-verbal information. The study also acknowledges Samovar & Porter's (1985:254) view that non-verbal behaviour is largely unconscious and the use of symbols are spontaneous. Because non-verbal cues are usually judged to be spontaneous, people are typically more likely to trust the accuracy of non-verbal behaviours than verbal behaviours (Lamar, 1985:42). But, within the advertisement, all non-verbal behaviour and communication is deliberate and purposeful. MacKay (1972:24) seems to support the study of both purpose and informative messages. He used the model in Figure 2.1 to summarize his theoretical perspective.

Figure 2.1

Mackay's model of non-verbal communication



The model is based on the following premises: (a) Non-verbal communication has to involve a socially shared sign system or code; (b) a sender who makes something public using that code; and (c) a receiver who responds systematically to the code.

Ekman & Friesen (1969: 55-58) discuss the repertoire of non-verbal behaviour. In their explanation they distinguish between two layers of meaning (idiosyncratic and shared) with regard to two types of meaning (expressive and interpretive). In order to explain these concepts, they also discuss informative, communicative and interactive non-verbal behaviour.

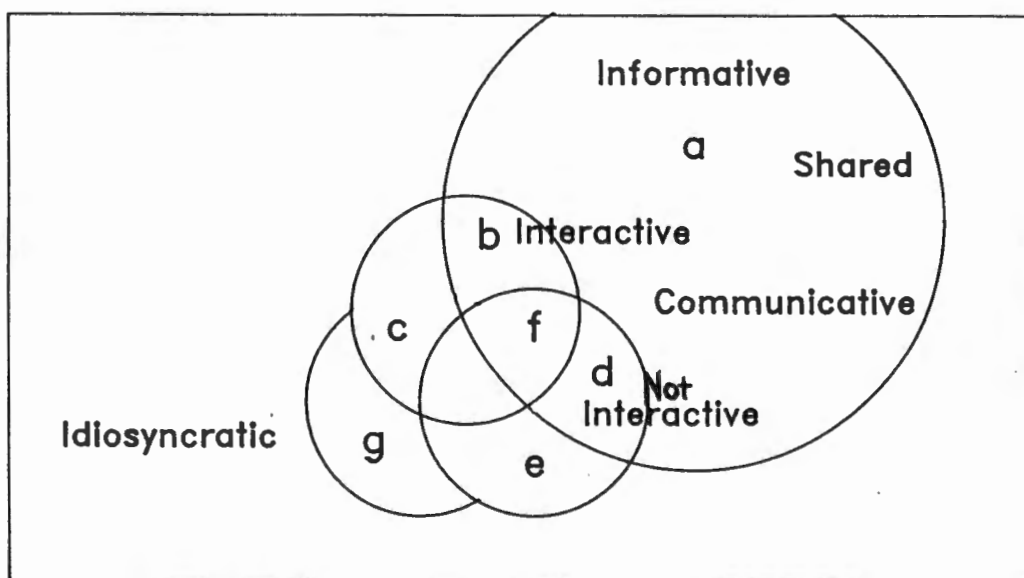
The informative non-verbal behaviour encompasses those acts which have some shared interpreted meaning. The term informative refers only to interpreted meaning. The communicative non-verbal behaviour refers to those acts that are clearly and consciously intended by the sender to transmit a specifiable message to the receiver. Much of the informative behaviour is excluded here. The implication is that many acts which convey shared interpreted meaning are not communicative. Communicative acts need not necessarily have a shared interpreted meaning, because communicative acts are not

necessarily accurate conveyors of information (Ekman & Friesen, 1969:56).

The interactive non-verbal behaviour encompasses those acts which one person in an interaction clearly modify or influence the interactive behaviour of the other person or persons. Figure 2.2 illustrates the relationships among the informative, communicative and interactive non-verbal behaviour, as explained by Ekman & Friesen (1969:57).

Figure 2.2

Ekman & Friesen's (1969) repertoire of non-verbal behaviour



Interactive behaviour may also be informative (b), it may both be informative and communicative (f), or it may be idiosyncratic (c). (c) may refer to acts which regularly influence the behaviour of a wife with regard to her husband, but those acts have no such influence on the interactive behaviour of his other interactants.

Some communicative behaviour is both interactive as well as informative (f). Some are informative, but not interactive (d). Some communicative behaviour is neither interactive nor informative (e). Lastly, there would be a great deal of informative behaviour which is neither interactive nor communicative (a). Ekman & Friesen (1969:57) state: "Many nonverbal behaviours may have interactive effects, but not be intended to communicate nor best be considered as analogous to verbal communication. Similarly, nonverbal behaviour with a shared decoded meaning may not be intended to communicate, nor be best considered as analogous to linguistic phenomena."

The issue of intentionality also seems to be a controversial point for communication theorists in general. For this study the emphasis rather falls on the purposive message. The advertising message as such aims to inform, persuade or to do both. These basic functions play a leading role in the expressing of the message. Therefore a further assumption: All advertising messages are intentional. As opposed to Knapp's (1984:25) statement that scholars should not be restricted to an intentional perspective for studying human communication, this study regards this restriction as important. Due to the assumption that all behaviour, verbal and non-verbal communication in television advertisements are deliberate, purposeful and arranged, it is of little relevance to include the unintentional perspective for studying human communication in television advertisements.

2.3.2 Human communication is primarily composed of multi-sign units

Knapp (1984:25-30) uses the terms signals and multi-signals. The term signal is problematic, however, and could be interpreted in various ways. In order to avoid any misinterpretations, the term signal is therefore replaced with the term sign. Barthes (1978:35) explains that authors have an arbitrary choice of terms which have affinities and dissimilarities with a sign. Chapter 5 discusses the traditional classification of signs, where the emphasis is on the icon, index and symbol. Semiologists traditionally replace the term signal with sign and this thesis is no exception.

On producing messages, communicators display a variety of signs. This assumption recognizes the simultaneity and clustering of non-verbal signs which act as a stimuli for generating meaning in human encounters (Knapp, 1984:25).

Here, two implications seem to have particular relevance: (1) The need to study the nature of multi-sign configurations; and (2) the need to study how these configurations of sign are perceived in everyday interaction. According to Knapp (1984:26) these multi-sign units make it possible to enact complex messages: "Our ability to display a variety of signals at the same time and/or in sequence makes it possible to produce messages which have varying degrees of clarity and intensity. Co-ordinating kinesic, proxemic, olfactory and vocal signals can, of course, make message production difficult on occasions."

The more one learns about the composition of non-verbal signs and about their perception during ongoing interaction, the more one will be able to say about the interactions faced every day. The analogy could be drawn to the multi-signs in television advertisements, where these multi-signs could be categorized and analyzed in order to grasp the intended meaning of the communicator.

2.3.3 Human communication is composed of multi-level signs

This assumption focuses on the interactive functions served by the multi-sign configurations discussed in the preceding assumption. As Knapp (1984:29) states, the main issue here concerns a hierarchy of meanings associated with these signs. It is generally agreed that any given behaviour may, in different circumstances, assume different meanings. However, this assumption suggests that any given behaviour or sequence of behaviours may also communicate several different (and relevant) meanings at the same time. Two further important implications of this assumption is the timing and location in the stream of behaviour which should be analyzed.

2.3.4 Human communication is critically dependent on context for the meanings generated

According to Knapp (1984:31) context includes behavioural, environmental and psychological factors. The sequences and configurations of behaviour performed by both interactants (in an interpersonal communication situation) provide the behavioural context; aspects of the number and placement of other people as well as the physical setting, provide the environmental context. The interactants' ongoing expectations for the nature of communication with a particular person at that particular time comprises the psychological context.

Patterson (1983:37) and Rozelle, Druckman & Baxter (1986:73) also emphasize the context in which communication occurs. It seems that according to this perspective, context is subject to momentary changes. Since every study of non-verbal behaviour is conducted within some context, the criteria for assessing research in this area must transcend the mere existence of a context (Knapp, 1984:31). Due to the fact that non-verbal communication is the focus point, the context for this study comprises the whole advertisement.

The boundary between verbal and non-verbal communication is not easily distinguished. Non-verbal communication is commonly used to distinguish all forms of human communication which are not controlled by the spoken or written word. Katz & Katz (1983:xv) make it clear that non-verbal communication differs from verbal communication in that it concerns itself with the entire range and scope of communication over and above the use of words. Whatever the message, channel, nature of intensity or the nature of intentionality, where words are not involved, the communication is non-verbal.

To summarize the verbal / non-verbal issue, one has to refer to Harrison's dichotomy. Harrison (1984:321) gives a summarized distinction between verbal and non-verbal communication. Table 2.1 refers to his classification.

Table 2.1

Harrison's verbal/non-verbal dichotomy

VERBAL (Numerical) (Logical)	NON-VERBAL (Pictorial) (Music)
Digital	Analogic
Discrete	Continuous
Arbitrary	Natural
Deterministic	Probabalistic
Abstract	Concrete
Complex	Simple
Nurture	Nature
Learned	Earned
Secondary	Primary
Cognitive	Affective
Reason	Emotion
Intellect	Intuition
Left-brain	Right-brain
Conscious	Unconscious
Aware	Unaware
Purposive	Nonpurposive
Intentional	Unintentional
Propositional	Prosody
Communicative	Meta-communicative
Report	Command
Representational	Presentational
Temporal	Spatial
Lineal	Non-lineal
Successive	Simultaneous
Sequential	Relational
Analytic	Wholistic
Easy to encode	Easy to decode
Vocal	Kinesic
	Proxemic
Auditory	Visual
	Tactile
	Olfactory
	Gustatory
	Kinesthetic

2.4 THEORETICAL ORIENTATIONS TO PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION

This study anticipates that the non-verbal message in television advertisements could be as persuasive, if not more persuasive, than the verbal message. In order to understand the very nature of persuasion, one has to delve into the theoretical orientations of this phenomenon in order to understand the persuasiveness of non-verbal communication.

One of the most carefully examined areas related to communication, is the study of persuasion. Fields such as psychology, speech communication and interpersonal communication have lead to the current and past diverse backgrounds, purposes and variety of theoretical orientations. The following classification of the persuasion paradigms was initially done by McGuire (1973:226-229).

2.4.1 Learning paradigm

Psychologists who have interested themselves in the social influence process, have treated persuasion largely as a learning process. These theorists also explained the differences between learning and education but, as Burgoon (1975:133) rightly states: "Present persuasion research is largely divorced from learning and educational research, with studies in both areas neglecting the theoretical and empirical advances of the other. Such a continued divergence of effort may lead to unnecessary redundancy in research and unneeded complexity in development of communication theory."

Larson (1986:47-53) distinguishes between Skinnerian behaviourism and Bandura's social learning theory. According to Skinnerian psychologists learning revolves around the prediction that behavioural change is a response to one's environment: "Given the proper administration of positive or negative reinforcers, patterns of behavior can be established or learned. Thus, the audience is 'persuaded' to repeat the desired behavior - be it purchasing, voting, joining, marching or ignoring." (Larson, 1986:33.)

According to true Skinnerian behaviourism, unfortunately only the stimulus and response are important. This means that there are observable mental events used as explanations for behavioural changes. Larson (1986:33) explains that no internal mechanisms such as motives, drives, desires and attitudes are taken into account when analyzing learning. The behavioural change can be explained only by the stimulus-response relationship.

The social learning theory, according to Bandura (1977:28), states that there is continuous interaction between a person's internal state and the social reinforcements that follow from the person's behaviour with others. Larson (1986:51) puts it as follows: "Thus we learn how to behave from our social interactions. When we perceive that a certain behavior is not socially rewarding or perhaps even leads to social punishment, we learn, or are persuaded to continue the behavior or to cease it." From this one can argue that the reinforcers come from two sources: Internal and external. Internal sources are self-reinforcing systems like the self-concept, while external sources are like role-playing.

2.4.2 Categorizing paradigm

McGuire (1973:227) discusses this paradigm as an alternative to conceptualization of the persuasion process. Man is seen here as a categorizer who enters into any communication situation with a set of preconceived categories and files away the information in the message as best as he can among these categories. How man will respond to the attitude object, will according to McGuire (1973:227), depend on where he fits the information into his preconceptions and what habitual responses he makes to these cognitive categories.

Under this paradigm falls the social judgment which Larson (1986:53) refers to as the social judgement-involvement theory and the perceptual theories. The social judgment-involvement theory predicts that man will compare the proposition with all of the "anchor points" or internal reference points before he makes a judgment.

According to McGuire (1973:227) the difference between the learning and categorizing approaches lies in the fact that the latter stresses the perception side of the communication process, whilst the learning approach emphasizes the response side of the process.

2.4.3 Conflict-resolving paradigm

This approach sees the person receiving the communication as a harassed honest broker, who tries to find a reasonable resolution among many conflicting demands (McGuire, 1973:228). The recipient feels his attitude towards the object has to take into account his own information, his self-interest and this new message he has been exposed to. The recipient in the end adjusts his attitude to keep from getting too far out of line with any of these demands.

Larson (1986:39-47) classifies the following theories under this paradigm: (i) Heider's 1946 balance theory, which was later adjusted by Newcomb (1953), (ii) another approach to the consistency idea is Osgood & Tannenbaum's (1955 & 1968) congruency theory, (iii) Festinger's (1962) cognitive dissonance theory and lastly (iv) Rokeach's belief hierarchy (1973). McGuire (1973:228) adds his own consistency theory of 1960 under this index.

2.4.4 Functional paradigm

It seems as if this approach is less theoretical than the previous three approaches, because the individual in the persuasion process views the person as confronting the communication with a less intellectual stance (McGuire, 1973:228). Under this approach it is stressed that man has many needs which his attitudes must gratify for which satisfaction persuasive communication can be used. McGuire (1973:228) explains that the individual's attitudes conform to his information about the object. With this conformation comes non-rational variables, such as needing to maintain one's self-esteem, the respect of one's loved ones and repression of one's inadmissible drives.

Severn & Tankard (1979:172), Cooper & Croyle (1984:413) and Larson (1986:34) cite the attitude-change theory, which could be classified under this category. Borrowed from the Yale School of Thought, this theory is based extensively on the work by Hovland, Janis & Kelly (1953). This theory holds that actions by humans have certain constraints or harnesses. To summarize, these attitudes control the individual's behaviour.

2.4.5 Information-processing paradigm

McGuire (1973:228) sees this approach as a filter to tease out the logically necessary steps between being presented with a persuasive communication and ultimate compliance with its directives. It underlies much of the work of the Yale School of Thought: "It further analyzes as exhaustively as possible the components of the communication and considers how each of them will affect each of the behavioral steps into which the persuasion process has been analyzed." (McGuire, 1973:228.) Some of these approaches seem extremely intensive. The information-processing paradigm tends to neglect certain insights offered by the other approaches.

Two distinct aspects emerged in the discussion of the paradigms of persuasion, namely internal and external contributors to the understanding and explanation of persuasion. The internal aspects are embraced by the categorizing, conflict-resolving, functional and information-processing paradigm. The external contributors are largely embraced only by the learning paradigm.

From a communication perspective both internal and external contributors are regarded as important due to the dynamic system of communication. With regard to television advertising, it seems that the combination of both internal and external variables of persuasion are relevant. This stance complies with Miller's (1987:452-474) view that the process of persuasion should be analyzed on the intrapersonal as well as the interpersonal levels.

In conclusion, these approaches should rather be seen as complementary to one another, than all-explanatory. Shanteau (1988:43-57) proposes the consumer integration theory (CIT) to the information of advertising

impressions based on visual and verbal information. The label of the theory combines various disciplines in order to explain the bottom line: How does visual information combine with verbal information in the formation of advertising images? It seems that the analyses of the persuasive message can only be done by a multiple analysis, where different approaches are combined.

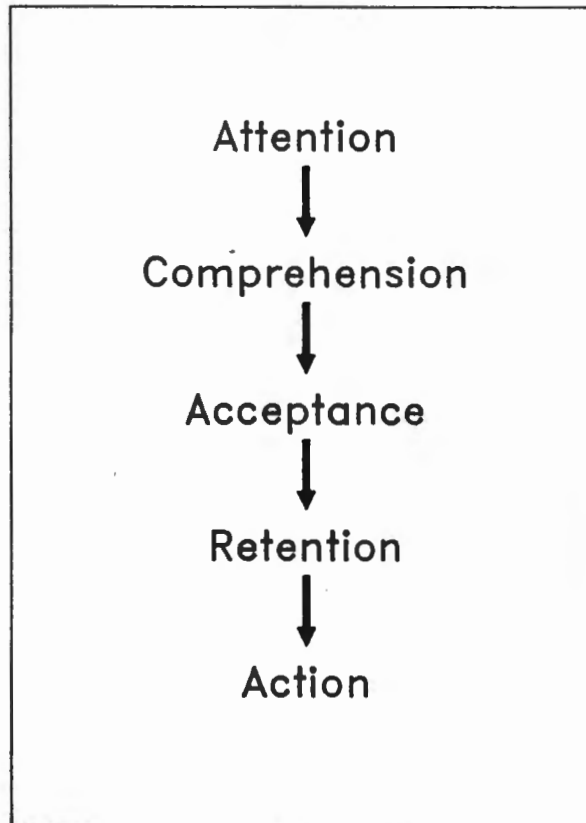
The learning paradigm emphasizes learning, whilst the categorizing paradigm explains the way individuals classify information to his ability. The conflict-resolving paradigm concentrates on the consistencies and balancing of conflicting ideas. The functional paradigm stresses the many needs of the individual which his attitude must gratify.

The main emphasis of the information-processing paradigm is the individual's ability to process incoming information. No single paradigm is all embracing or all explanatory, and it would be advisable to combine all these paradigms for the best results. There will always be the possibility that certain persuasive elements would not be fully theoretically founded in any of the above-mentioned paradigms. It seems that a multi-variate analysis would be more appropriate for the founding of persuasion. As Van Dijk (1987:258) indicates, the theory of persuasion should be embedded into a much broader approach of discursive information processing and cognitive transformation in the interactional and social context.

2.5 TOWARDS A DEFINITION OF PERSUASION

In accordance with the Yale School of Thought (Hovland, Janis & Kelly, 1953) and the fact that it is rooted in the learning and information-processing theories (Larson, 1986:34), it is generally accepted that persuasion is dependent on a chain of five characteristics, as Figure 2.3 indicates:

Figure 2.3
Chain of characteristics



By attention it is explained that if persuadees do not attend to a message, they cannot be persuaded by it. Certain characteristics of stimuli as Loudon & Della Bitta (1984:428) indicate, attract attention themselves. Amongst these are emotion-arousing properties, physically intense values and surprising characteristics. Comprehension is important because if persuadees do not understand or comprehend a message, they cannot be persuaded by it. If the persuadees reject the message after attending to and comprehending it, they will not be persuaded. Larson (1986:34) maintains that persuadees have to withhold action for some time after comprehending and accepting the message. Persuadees therefore must retain or remember the message and its advice until the time for action, therefore the importance of the retention phase.

The Yale approach to persuasion (Larson, 1986:34) contends that people act in logical ways that are consistent with the argument of the persuader. It is argued that the specific behavioural change or action requested in the message must be in accordance with the accepted and retained appeals.

The third phase in the chain of persuasion has been emphasized by the Yale tradition. To put it differently, the Yale tradition tried to discover which factors led most powerfully to acceptance or rejection of a message, therefore the emphasis on the acceptance stage. Within the advertising and marketing domain, persuasion should be seen according to Schwerin & Newell (1981:5) as the central force that pulses through the entire marketing process. It is the end towards which all planning and every single action between the production of a good product and its purchase and use by consumers should contribute. Wright, Warner, Winter & Zeigler (1977:386) contend that the perception process starts when an individual receives a stimulus through one of the five senses.

Littlejohn (1989:69) holds that the study of communication and persuasion is not a new human interest. Severin & Tankard (1979:165) support this statement by emphasizing the fact that it seems inevitable that people will try to influence other people. No attempt is made to explain the historical development and uses of persuasion prior to World War II.

Cooper & Croyle (1984:413) explain that the pervasive fascination with the persuasion phenomena was stimulated by the fascist dictatorship in the 1930s and the emergence of the modern mass media. These authors also utter the warning that most of the research on persuasive communication has been purely descriptive and has not been driven by well-formulated theory.

Miller (1987:448) mentions three limitations of prior research: (i) An ideological aversion to studying a number of variables that doubtless exert a powerful impact in many persuasive transactions; (ii) the tendency of researchers to study persuasion almost solely from the advantage point of mass media and public communication, that is, a one-to-many context; and lastly, (iii) its almost exclusive reliance on a single persuasive message.

A working definition of persuasion is found in Miller (1980:15), which will also act as guideline for this thesis: "The term 'persuasion' refers to situations where attempts are made to modify behavior by symbolic

transactions (messages) that are sometimes, but not always, linked to coercive force (indirectly coercive) and that appeal to the reason and emotions of the intended persuadee(s)."

This definition has several important implications. Persuasion is conceived to be a process that is both symbolic and social. According to Miller (1987:451) this means that persuasion as such involves at least two human beings engaged in an interactional process.

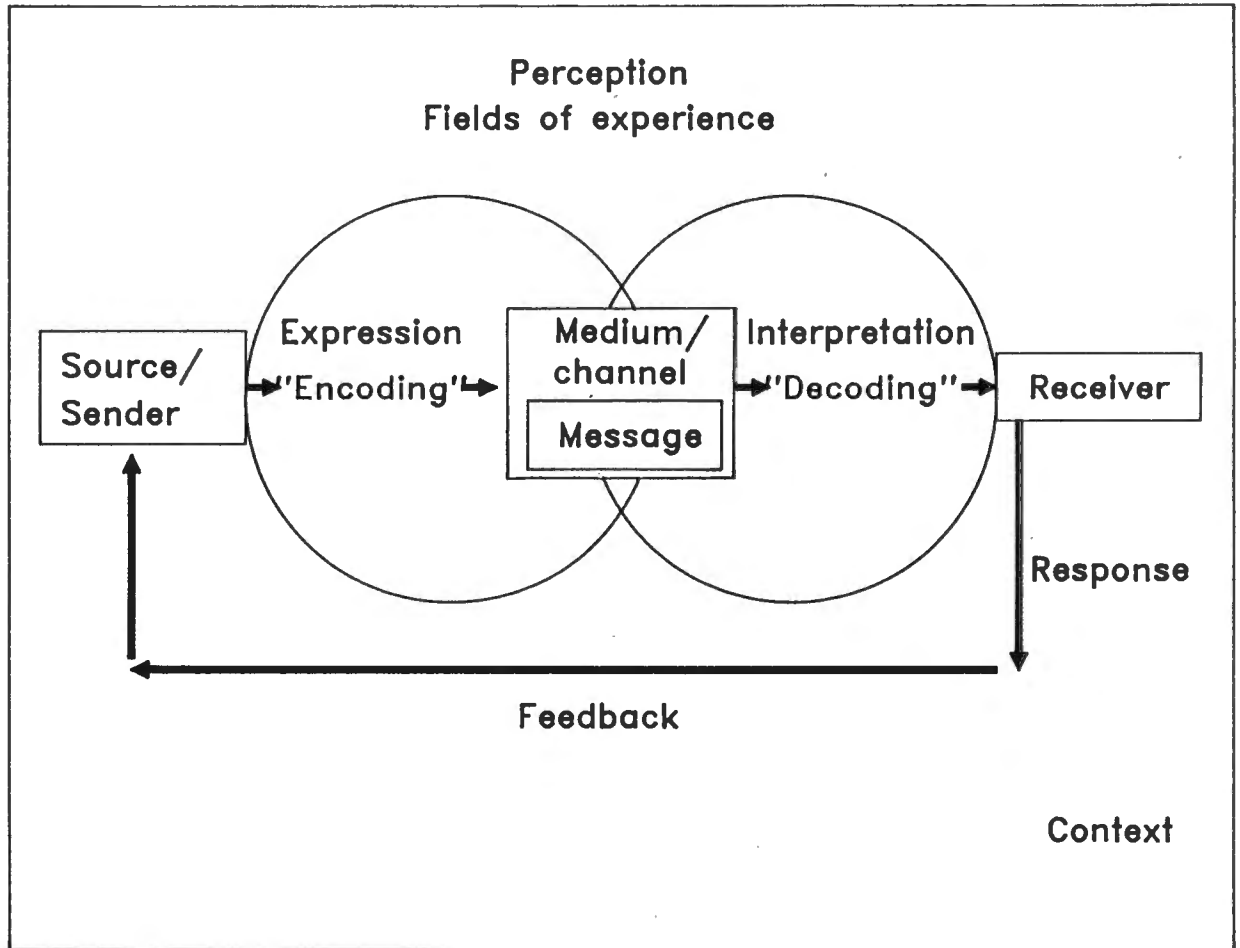
The term 'symbolic' in the afore-mentioned definition underscores the primacy of communication: "...it stresses that the primary interest is directed at the verbal code systems employed by the interactants" (Miller, 1987:451).

The definition also implies that persuasion seeks to modify behaviour. This can happen in one of three ways: (i) By changing existing responses; (ii) by reinforcing existing responses or (iii) by shaping new responses (Miller, 1987:451). Finally, the definition implies that persuasive messages appeal to the reason and emotions of intended persuadees, which dates back to the Aristotelian distinction between logos (logical proof) and pathos (emotional proof). As a result, this definition goes beyond the emphasis of a mainly rational approach which the Yale School of Thought stresses.

2.6 PERSUASION IN THE ADVERTISING PROCESS

As explained, this thesis has been approached on the assumption that advertising should be seen as a unique communication system. Figure 2.4 provides the model of the advertising communication system, adopted from Stanley (1983:138), McQuail & Windahl (1983:10), Aaker & Myers (1987:294) and Belch & Belch (1990:128). According to this adapted model, the different components of communication could be related to advertising.

Figure 2.4
Communication model of the advertising process



2.6.1 Source

The source is important, especially in the acceptance of the persuasive message: (i) Credibility or believability and (ii) attractiveness to the receiver. Physical attractiveness contributes to persuasion. In the research by Puckett, Petty, Cacippo & Fischer (1983:340-343) and Kahle & Homer (1985:954-961) it was found that physical attractiveness of the source indeed facilitates attitude change, but more research is needed to generalize these findings. They further state that physical attractiveness could be central in the attitude-change context, besides the fact that physical attractiveness is a useful source of information. Aaker & Myers (1987:304), Larson (1986:35) and Burgoon & Saine (1978:282) discuss a number of non-verbal cues associated with persuasiveness. A tabled summary follows in Table 2.2, as listed in Burgoon & Saine (1978:282):

Table 2.2

Non-verbal source cues associated with persuasiveness

Type of NVC	Cues used by communicator	Cues seen by receivers as persuasive
Kinesics	More eye contact	More eye contact (especially for females)
	More positive head nods	
	More gesturing by females	More gesturing
	More facial activity	More facial activity
	Moderate relaxation	Moderate relaxation (slightly more tense for females)
	Smaller reclining angle	
	Direct body orientation for females	Indirect body orientation for males
	Indirect body orientation for males	Open body position
Vocalics	Less trunk swivel	
	Higher volume	Higher volume
	More intonation	More intonation
	Faster rate	Faster rate
Proxemics	More fluency	More fluency
		Closer distances
Haptics		Fewer self-manipulations

The essence in effective persuasion according to Cutlip & Center (1978:209) is the source's credibility. Communication starts with a climate of belief, which is built by performance on the part of the source, reflecting an earnest desire to serve the receiver. Disbelief, however, can be changed through credibility and trustworthiness in order to be perceived as the "truth", which is regarded as more persuasive. The receiver on the other

hand, must have confidence in the sender. In other words, the recipient must have a high regard for the source's competence on the subject. Burgoon & Saine (1978:283) confirm that credibility appeals improve the credibility of a source, which in turn improves persuasiveness.

The source of a message in the communication process is where the message originates. The sender is responsible for the formulation and usually, the transmission of the message. In the case of advertising there are at least two types of sources involved: (i) The company or brand that is interested in communicating certain information to the audience, and (ii) the spokesman, the model or personality featured in the advertisement. Aaker & Myers (1987:294) explain that each of these source-types has the following characteristics which will influence the communication process: Credibility (expertness and unbiasedness) and attractiveness (prestigiousness, similarity and physical attractiveness).

2.6.2 Expression (encoding)

Fisher (1978:109) refers to encoding as part of the mechanistic model of human communication. Communication models have moved away from the simplistic mechanistic models. The concepts "encoding" and "decoding" have been replaced by "expression" and "interpretation". Most text books, on advertising still use these dated concepts, however.

Expression is the phase of formulating the information and/or persuasive aspects of communication into message form. Stanley (1982:139) notes that in order to accomplish this purpose, signs and symbols that have common meanings to both the source and the receiver, have to be selected. Puth (1981:114) also confirms the importance of shared meaning, which serves as the object towards which the communicator's intention is directed.

2.6.3 Message

The message refers both to the content and execution of advertisements. It is the result of the communicator's intention to express or formulate something which is understandable to the receiver. Peters (1972:153) and Puth (1981:114) point out that the message is the result of what the

communicator wants to say, as well as how he wants to say it. These concepts of the message are referred to as the content and the form of the message. The content and form of the message are determined by the source's intention and his perception of the receiver as well as the situation and the communication object. The communication object is what the participating parties are communicating about. This can be a concrete object, a person, an event or an abstract idea or concept.

Schudson (1984:5) states that the primary message in advertisements is in most cases quite simple. This does not mean that the message is not persuasive. According to the functions of an advertisement, the message, as indicated previously, should ideally inform and persuade.

More laboratory research on persuasion has, according to McGuire (1973:233) been done on message factors than on any other class of communication variable. Van Dijk (1987:258) confirms that the message has always played an important role in persuasion research: "Attitude change was seen primarily in a 'rhetorical' perspective, that is, as the rather direct result of intentionally persuasive messages in personal or public communication. Less attention was paid to other, for example, non-verbal forms of communication... ."

The message execution can be described in terms of the approach (Aaker & Myers, 1987:294), such as soft sell versus hard sell, the use of message appeals and the use of two-sided messages. Van der Walt (1987:304-309) and Rademeyer (1990:50-54) amongst others, indicates the different message-content strategies. These include card stacking, fear appeals, humorous appeals, message repetition, irritation appeals, labelling, rational appeals and emotional appeals. Each of these appeals has a unique function within a given context. The advertising message consists of both verbal and non-verbal elements. Both verbal and non-verbal communication in television advertisements contribute to the persuasiveness of the advertising message. It is advisable that communicologists are aware of the different applications thereof in order to make the advertising message more persuasive.

2.6.4 Medium

It is obvious that the impact of communication can be different for the different media. Aaker & Myers (1987:294) emphasize the importance of this distinction. It could be argued that the non-verbal cues in the advertising message may be interpreted as the "transmitters" or channels. It could also be seen as that which McLuhan's (1964:36-37) famous aphorism indicates: "The medium is the message." He also classifies media in either "hot" or "cool". Television and films are regarded as hot media, because they provide a great deal of both auditory and visual sensory data. A "cool" medium like the newspaper, usually involves only one sense, visual. Riebstein (1985:180) discusses that the use of a "hot" versus a "cool" medium clearly regulates the amount of information the marketer/advertiser can provide for the destination.

In the words of De Fleur & Dennis (1985:159) this is interpreted as the way a medium interacts with people's minds as more important than the content it delivers. They further contend (p.221) that what is broadcast is not all that important; what matters is the medium, in other words how it is transmitted. Under this section one could classify the role different disturbing variables like noise or barriers play in the clear transmission of information.

2.6.5 Channel

A channel could, according to Belch & Belch (1990:130), be divided into personal and non-personal channels. The first has to do with direct interpersonal contact with the target group, for instance, sales people serve as personal channels. Non-personal channels carry messages without involving interpersonal contact between sender and receiver. The channel also refers to the medium which has been used in order to transmit the information from source to receiver. Stanley (1982:140) says this is accomplished through channels of transmission such as the human voice (personal selling and word-of-mouth), print and broadcast media (advertising and publicity) or any one or a combination of channels (sales promotion). Jefkins (1982:146-167) distinguishes between the traditional mass media

(above-the-line-media) and below-the-line-media, which includes amongst others, sales promotion. In order to prevent any confusion, however, medium will in the present study be used to refer to the carrier of the message between communicator and receiver, as perceived by both of them.

2.6.6 Receiver

The receiver in the advertising process is the target audience. Thus the receiver can be described in Aaker & Myers' (1987:295) terms of audience segmentation variables, life-styles, benefits sought, geographics, sociographics, demographics and psychographics. The receiver is, in other words, the person or group of persons for whom the communicator's message is intended. The communication can have a variety of effects on the receiver, but it should be remembered that messages are directed at mass audiences which comprise individuals. Each individual's unique perceptual field determines whether or not the message received is believed and acted upon (Stanley, 1982:142).

The receiver of the persuasive message is according to Larson (1986:37) the most important element in the persuasion process. Both McGuire (1973:238) and Larson (1986:37) differentiate between personality or individual differences. Here, aspects such as demographic characteristics, ability factors and personality characteristics, influence the reception of the persuasive message. McGuire (1973:240), however, adds another dimension: source-receiver discrepancy. Here, from the source's point of view, the problem is to determine how far to urge the recipient to change in order to produce maximum change.

It is therefore of the utmost importance that the advertiser should analyze, research and understand the factors which influence the receiver (or his target group) most. The purpose of advertising is that the receiver of the advertising message should react on the incoming stimuli. It should be taken into account that the receiver's perceptions are not only formed by advertising. Both internal and external variables influence the receiver's reactions, which are regarded as feedback (purchase in the case of advertising). Internal variables include aspects such as motivation,

attitudes, perception and personality. The external variables include amongst others, culture, family, reference groups and social class.

The model according to Aaker & Myers (1987:295) does not end with the receiver. It allows for the possibility that the initial receiver might engage in word-of-mouth communication to the ultimate destination of the message. As such, the receiver then becomes an interim source and the destination becomes a receiver.

2.6.7 Interpretation (decoding)

Interpretation is the phase in which the receiver attaches meanings to the signs and symbols received in the message. A message can be received without being understood just as when an advertising model speaks to the audience in a language they are not familiar with (Stanley, 1982:142). Verbal language is not the only transmitter of information in the television advertisement. Non-verbal variables also provide information that has to be interpreted.

2.6.8 Feedback

Feedback is the return message from the receiver to the source. In other words, it is the reaction of the receiver on the message from the sender. This reaction could be in the form of a message - verbal or non-verbal. It could also be in the form of action, when the consumer buys the advertised product. Stanley (1982:142) distinguishes between direct feedback (personal selling) and indirect feedback (mass communication). It is important to note that feedback is often, specifically in the case of mass communication, only potentially possible and does not always occur in reality. It is much less efficient, slower and more difficult to obtain.

2.6.9 Perception (fields of experience)

Littlejohn (1989:180) states that one's communicative behaviour is largely shaped by one's perception or experience of the relationship with the communicator. As a result the consumer's communicative behaviour is largely shaped by his perception of advertisements amongst other variables. Perception shapes people's behaviour. The perception process involves the

elements, flows and forces that enhance or inhibit messages to which individuals are exposed. The present research examines the perceptions of consumers of non-verbal elements in television advertisements in order to determine the behavioural impact it has on consumers. Belch & Belch (1990:128) indicate that fields of experience refer to perception within the advertising context.

2.6.10 Context

Advertising operates within the present economical, social, legal, political and ethical system of a given community. These factors have a definite influence on how advertising is practiced. The present thesis holds the same view as Van Dijk (1987:268) in so far that both "content" as well as "form" are major components of the persuasive process. In order to fully understand the persuasive nature of a message, both variables need to be understood. The emphasis in this thesis is on the form, though.

The form concerns the "how" of the advertising message, whilst the content concerns the "what" of the message. Since both verbal and non-verbal elements contribute to the formulation of the television advertisement, it is evident that attention should also be paid to the way these elements are arranged; the way the actors speak, dress or look. Only then could the combined verbal and non-verbal message be fully understood, which in its turn could enhance the persuasiveness of the advertising message.

2.7 COMMUNICATION VERSUS BEHAVIOUR

O'Sullivan, Hartley, Saunders & Fiske (1983:42) discuss two forms of definitions of communication. The first approach aims to identify the stages through which communication passes so that each one may be properly studied and its role in and effect on the whole process can be clearly identified. The second approach is structuralistic in that it focuses on the relationship between constituent elements necessary for meaning to occur. These elements fall into three groups: The text, its signs and the codes.

Attempts to define whole domains of inquiry are usually doomed to be inaccurate or incomplete. Cappella (1987:185) recognizes that definitions will bring certain elements into the foreground and force other elements to the background. Burgoon & Saine (1978:5) add the dispatching and receiving of messages via commonly understood codes. This does not mean that communication should only be intentional. Communication in certain circumstances can also be unintentional. Information consists of both verbal and non-verbal message elements. Communication, as has already been indicated in Chapter 1, is seen as an attempt to establish common meaning between at least two individuals. This attempt to create a common meaning could also be seen as an aim of advertising. Behaviour in this instance, is regarded as the actions or reactions of individuals due to the influence of information in television advertisements.

Behaviour is regarded by Drever (1965:28) as the total response, motor or glandular, which an organism makes to any situation with which it is faced. Gouws, Louw, Meyer, & Plug (1980:95) explain that behaviour is generally regarded as the most important study object in psychology, with different meanings attached to it.

The aforementioned statements seem in line with Patterson's (1983:37) assumption that all behaviour is communication. This means that any verbal or non-verbal behaviour in the presence of another person is defined as communication. This orientation is based on the judgement that communication itself is a system that cannot be segmented as Patterson (1983:37) says, into expressive (encoding) and interpretive (decoding) elements. According to this perspective, people do not really communicate, they rather become a part of communication. From this, one could again quote the cliché: It is impossible not to communicate (Watzlawick, Beavin & Jackson, 1982:23).

Another perspective holds that only some behaviour is communication. In contrast to the above-mentioned perspective in which all non-verbal behaviour is defined as communication, this perspective suggests that only a

few non-verbal behaviours are communication. Many forms of behaviour are informative, but only some of these behaviours qualify as communication (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:5).

It was Wiener, Devoe, Rubinow & Geller (1972:186) who initially proposed that three distinct characteristics should be present in any interactive behaviour pattern before it can be considered as communication: (i) A socially shared sign system or code, (ii) an sender who uses this system to make some message public, and (iii) a receiver who uses the code to interpret the sign. This perspective has the common focus of attention on the receiver's reactions following a particular behavioural sequence by the sender.

These two perspectives differ considerably on important issues. However, these two contrasting perspectives cannot be easily compared in terms of how correct they are. Patterson (1983:42-43) explains four important criteria for evaluating these perspectives. These are firstly that some emphasis should be placed on the motivation underlying an individual's behaviour.

Secondly, the idiosyncratic code should be a sufficient vehicle for communication. It means that if goal orientation of some sort is present and the sender uses a sign known to the receiver in attempting to influence him, it seems unimportant whether such a sign has a relatively universal or a very limited usage. Therefore, the purpose, function and reaction may be comparable, regardless of whether the code is universal or idiosyncratic.

The third characteristic is an emphasis on a multi-channel approach to analyze communication. One cannot understand the significance of a particular approach unless the rest of the behavioural context is known. Attention should be paid to the distinction between informative behaviours that are communicative and those that are not communicative. Behaviour is different from communication in the sense that it can take place without other individuals observing, responding to or understanding it. According to Burgoon & Saine (1978:5) all forms of communication except intrapersonal communication requires (an)other individual(s) to assign meaning to the

transmitted information actions.

To conclude this section on communication versus behaviour, the view of Mortensen (1972:14) seems appropriate: "Communication occurs whenever persons attribute significance to message-related behaviour." According to this viewpoint, when meaning is assigned to behaviour, it is regarded as communication.

For this study the broad description of most human behaviour is accepted as communication. Within the television advertisement, all human behaviour could be regarded as communication, because the actors were told to behave and act in a specific manner. The problem with Mortensen's (1972) view is the fact that he only emphasizes the receiver's ability to interpret the message. By doing this, he stresses only one element in the whole communication system. All elements in the system contribute to the effectiveness of communication, though with regard to advertising, more emphasis is placed on the receiver.

2.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

As indicated, communication is an intentional attempt between a communicator and at least one receiver to share meaning. Since communication is, in Roelofse's terms (1983:83), a process which involves the exchange of meaningful ideas, it is therefore a process referring also to the universally shared reality, but, instead of being that reality, it signifies that reality. Non-verbal signs and symbols signify this reality. Hawkes (1978:124) affirms that the field of semiology is enormous and that it includes the analysis of such signifying systems as human bodily communication (kinesics and proxemics). These two phenomena form part of non-verbal communication.

The intent of this chapter has not been to establish that verbal communication and non-verbal communication are separate or completely separable entities. These two aspects work together and complement each

other. Vestergaard & Schroder (1985:13) are of the opinion that the simultaneous use of verbal and non-verbal communication is extremely important in culture, and one finds it in television, films and advertising amongst others. Shulman & Penman (1981:59) rightly acknowledge the following: "... we cannot be precise about the boundaries between verbal and non-verbal communication".

The study of non-verbal communication is a change of perspective, as Katz & Katz (1983:xvi) say. It is not an attempt to ignore or evade the vital contribution of words to the communication act. It seems that non-verbal communication is an established as well as a new discipline at the same time, because many of the concerns and issues that has been discussed in the context of non-verbal communication, are also old and familiar issues for those who focus on communication theory in general.

Against the background of this chapter, two assumptions are put forward: (i) Mass communication communicates to the "mass". No two individuals will react in the same manner to specific information. Within the multi-cultural consumer context in South Africa, this phenomenon could lead to perceptual differences. As a result there will always be perceptual differences between various consumer groups with regard to television advertising.

(ii) One of the basic aims of advertising is to persuade the receiver of the message to buy the advertised product. One could assume that the advertisement was successful if the persuadee's attitude were changed. Attitude change eventually leads to behavioural change. If the communicator were to know the "language" of the "mass", he could "speak" their language in order to persuade the mass better. As indicated, television advertisements consist of both verbal and non-verbal elements of communication. As a result both verbal and non-verbal elements of communication could influence the television viewer's perception of advertisements.

2.9 SUMMARY

The communication and advertising systems are seen as characterized by the same structure and processes. The emphasis in advertising research, however, is on the process dimension.

This chapter has explained the interdependence of communication, persuasion and behaviour in the advertising process. The next chapter continues with the different approaches to non-verbal communication, in an attempt to embrace a comprehensive and integrated approach to non-verbal communication.

CHAPTER 3

THE NATURE OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The interdependence of communication, persuasion and behaviour for this study were discussed in Chapter 2. It is concluded that when meaning is assigned to behaviour, it is regarded as communication. Television advertising is seen as a specific communication system, with the emphasis on the process dimension.

In this chapter the emphasis is placed on the nature of non-verbal communication, starting with the repertoire of non-verbal behaviour, the classification of non-verbal communication and the social functions of non-verbal communication.

3.2 ORIGIN, USAGE AND CODING OF NON-VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

Under this heading the following variables will receive attention: The origin of non-verbal behaviour, its usage and its coding.

3.2.1 Origin of non-verbal behaviour

It is difficult to conceive of an adequate understanding of human non-verbal communication, as Knapp, Wieman & Daly (1978:278 & 1983:xxvii) contend, without some explanation of how these behaviours had become incorporated into the communicative repertoire. The understanding of developmental non-verbal behaviour has unfortunately been lagging far behind the understanding of verbal skill development. But, admittedly, there are special problems in

studying the origins and development of any behaviour.

Ekman & Friesen (1969:59) explain that the term "origin" refers to how the non-verbal behaviour originally became part of the source of action. They distinguish three types of origin. The first origin of non-verbal behaviour is a relationship between stimulus events and non-verbal activity which is built into the nervous system of every intact member of a species. The most obvious example here is the reflex, like facial expressions of emotions.

A second origin is an experience common to all members of the species. It differs from the first origin in that the individual need not assume that non-verbal behaviour is inherited, but rather that it is acquired as part of the species-constant experience of the human equipment interacting with almost any environment. Ekman & Friesen (1969:59) give the following example to illustrate this origin: "... regardless of culture, the hands will be used, with or without an implement, to place food in the mouth".

The last type of origin of non-verbal behaviour is experience, which varies according to culture, class, family or individual. These non-verbal behaviours are either learnt as part of an instrumental task in which the goal is mastery of a particular activity, such as writing, or as part of a social interaction, where the goal is the establishment or maintenance of a type of social interaction. Ekman & Friesen (1969:59) state that some non-verbal behaviours are learnt and others are merely imitated without the conscious attention of a tutor. Bandura's (1977) social learning theory would be appropriate to give this kind of origin a sound theoretical base. In short, learning refers "to changes in behavior brought about by practice or experience" (Stanley, 1982:52). This includes changes in verbal as well as non-verbal behaviour. People learn through experience, exposure and interaction how to assign meaning to certain behaviours, both verbal and non-verbal. Under the heading, Learning paradigm (Chapter 2) the appropriateness of this theory to persuasive communication has been discussed. It seems as if the learning theory could also be used fruitfully to explain the origin of non-verbal behaviour.

3.2.2 Usage of non-verbal behaviour

The term "usage", according to Ekman & Friesen (1969:53) refers to the regular and consistent circumstances surrounding the occurrence of a non-verbal act. The above-mentioned authors (pp.53-55) also discuss six aspects that deal with the term usage. The first aspect is the external condition, which refers to any of the environmental circumstances which customarily coincide with, inhibit or occasion an act, or qualify its meaning.

The second aspect is the relationship of the act to the associated verbal behaviour. This refers to both the temporal sequence or coincidence of non-verbal and verbal behaviours and to the interrelationships between meanings conveyed by each channel. The third aspect concerns the awareness or internal feedback, which refers to whether the person knows he is engaging in a particular non-verbal act at the moment he does it or whether he can recall with any ease what he has done. This means that a person can be aware of his non-verbal behaviour whether he engages in the act as an intentional attempt to communicate a specific message or not.

The person's intention to communicate (aspect four), refers to the deliberate use of a non-verbal act to communicate a message to another interactant. This does not include behaviour, which is considered to be unconsciously intended. The person should be aware of the intended messages he wants to convey.

The fifth aspect refers to external feedback. This means the feedback from the person observing the act. Such feedback may consist of direct verbal comments on the sender's activity, obvious visual attention, or the receiver's verbal and non-verbal behaviour which is a reaction to the sender's non-verbal message.

Lastly, the type of information conveyed refers to the basic distinction between idiosyncratic and shared information, as well as the distinction between informative, communicative and interactive non-verbal behaviour. Ekman & Friesen (1969:54) explain that an act has idiosyncratic meaning if there is some regularity in the information associated with its occurrence,

but that the association is peculiar to a single individual. An act has shared meaning if the information associated with it is common among some individuals. Both idiosyncratic and shared meaning can refer to either the expression or interpretation of an action.

3.2.3 Coding

Peters (1985:70) states that anyone who wishes to formulate or understand pictorial messages, has to know the pictorial codes. The relevance of coding lies in the correspondence between the act and its meaning: "A code is nothing other than the logical relationship which allows a message to be understood." (Andrew, 1976:224.)

According to Ekman & Friesen (1969:60) the code could be extrinsic or intrinsic. An extrinsic code is one in which the non-verbal act signifies or implies something else, and the coding may be iconic or arbitrary. The intrinsic code is in a sense no code in that the act does not imply something else, but its significance is in other words, the act is intrinsic to the action itself.

3.3 CLASSIFICATION OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Different authors outlined what they consider to be the primary elements of non-verbal communication. Knapp (1978:12) explains that his method or classification system was highly influential in providing a basis for most of the early work done in this field. He further recommends another classification scheme that can be derived by examining the nature of the writing and research currently being conducted. In this the authors either explicitly or implicitly categorize their own work as subsumable under the label non-verbal.

3.3.1 Kinesic behaviour

Ekman & Friesen (1969:62-92) distinguish five categories, which Knapp (1978:12) classifies under body motion or kinesic behaviour. Kendon (1981:1) also highlights the importance of Ekman & Friesen's scheme for the

different aspects of behaviour from a communication perspective. Exhaustive information on kinesic behaviour is to be found in Polhemus' (1978) work, Social aspects of the human body. In this collection of works, the most valuable asset is the fact that it breaks down the fragmentation between the social sciences by means of promoting communication between the various disciplines that is embraced by the study of the human body.

Hargie (1986:69) emphasizes that Ekman & Friesen's (1969) non-verbal characteristic category system has provided a useful means of analyzing and organizing non-verbal behaviours used in communication and is readily applicable in describing processes of information expression-exchange in normal social interactions. These are the following:

(i) Emblems. They are non-verbal acts which have a direct verbal translation and can substitute words. Hargie (1986:67) mentions that the meaning of these emblems is well understood by a particular group, class or culture, and it originates through learning, most of which is culture-specific. According to Ekman (1976:14) emblems are often produced with the hands and an example include the waving of the hands in a greeting. Emblems or symbolic gestures differ from all other things people do with their faces and bodies.

(ii) Illustrators. In Knapp (1978:15) and Ekman's (1980:98) opinion these are non-verbal acts which are directly related to, or accompany, speech-serving to illustrate what is being said verbally. Illustrators are also socially acquired, usually through imitation. An example is holding the hands a certain distance apart to indicate the length of an object.

(iii) Regulators. These non-verbal acts serve to regulate conversation flow between people. Regulators are often also culture-specific. A hand movement or eye contact could inform the communicator that another person wants to speak. Hargie (1988:69) warns that because of their subtle nature, regulators are often involved in mis-communication and lead to inappropriate responses among people of different cultures or ethnic backgrounds.

(iv) Adaptors. These non-verbal behaviours are perhaps the most difficult to define and involve the most speculation (Knapp, 1978:17). Adaptors are objects or self-manipulations. Hargie (1986:69) discusses that the specific behaviours are first learnt as efforts to satisfy bodily needs, usually during childhood. Ekman & Friesen (1969:90) have identified three types of adaptors: Self, object, and alter-directed adaptors: (a) Self-adaptors, such as scratching the head or clapping the hands; (b) object-adaptors, which were originally learnt to perform instrumental tasks and may include tapping a pencil on the table or smoking behaviours; (c) alter-directed adaptors, which may include protective hand movements and arm-folding intended to protect oneself, or establishing closeness or withdrawing. Knapp (1978:17) points out that leg movements may be adaptors, showing residues of kicking aggression, sexual invitation, or flight. Poyatos (1983:156-163) adds another kind of adaptor: body-adaptors. As intermediate between self-adaptors and object-adaptors, he describes body-adaptors as both objects and substances most immediately attached to the body because they are aimed at protecting, nurturing and satisfying it.

These adaptors are regarded socially as virtually inherent in the body as part of its physical appearance, as happens with clothes, jewellery, food, pipes and glasses, sometimes to the extent that one may not recognize a person without those identifiers.

(v) Affect displays. These are primarily facial configurations which display affective states. These displays, like the basic emotions of happiness, anger, surprise, fear, disgust, sadness and interest, are similar across a wide variety of cultures. Kilbridge & Yarczower (1983:40) warn that cultural and ethnic bias can influence the emotional perception of expressions through facial expressions. Hargie (1986:69) also warns that these expressions are usually modified and often hidden by cultural display rules learnt as "appropriate" behaviour. As a result, affect displays may be masked in social settings in order to show socially acceptable behaviour. Henley (1977) illustrates these kinesic variables in a practical manner in her book Body Politics. The above-mentioned five kinesic variables are

important for the understanding of the interpersonal communication situation. The meaningful testing of these variables within the context of television advertising, however, would be problematic due to the short duration of the average television advertisement and the fact that not all advertisements depict an interpersonal situation.

3.3.2 Physical characteristics

Whereas the aforementioned section concerned movement and motion, this category covers aspects which remain relatively unchanged during the period of interaction. Knapp (1978:18) mentions that these are influential non-verbal cues which are not movement-bound - cues such as physique or body shape, general attractiveness, body or breath, height, weight, hair, skin colour or voice tone. These variables can also serve as indicators of communicator attitude or status (Mehrabian, 1973:295). Physical characteristics such as attractiveness and physique of the actor are important for the present study, because these variables influence a person's perception. This influences the credibility of the actors, which may effect the response towards the advertisement.

3.3.3 Touching behaviour

There are seemingly two schools of thought in this classification. Some researchers are concerned with touching behaviour as an important variable in the child's early development; others are more concerned with adult touching behaviour (Knapp, 1978:18). Hanna (1984:379) terms this classification haptics. For the purpose of this study, touching behaviour is included under the kinesic category.

3.3.4 Para-language

Para-language deals mainly with how something is said and not necessarily what is said (Danziger, 1976:69). Knapp (1978:18) points out that it deals with the range of non-verbal cues surrounding common speech behaviour. Voice qualities, such as pitch, tempo, vocal lip control and rhythm control are important. For this research, para-language is also included to be tested in the analysis of advertisements.

3.3.5 Proxemics

This non-verbal category is generally considered to be the study of the use and perception of social and personal space (Knapp, 1978:19). The term territoriality is also frequently used in the study of proxemics to denote the human tendency to stake out personal territory or untouchable space. Shuter's (1976:46-52) research has shown that regional differences in the use and perception of proxemics occur. Hall (1981:162) stresses that space provides valuable information in the sense that it assigns meaning. Within the organizational environment, Tortoriello, Blatt & DeWine (1978:129-130) stress that the higher a person is within an organization, the more and better space he will have, the better protected his territory will be and the easier it will be to invade the territory of lower-status personnel. The proxemics variable is also tested for the purposes of the present study.

3.3.6 Artifacts

Artifacts (Knapp, 1978:19) include the manipulation of objects in contact with the interacting persons, which may act as non-verbal stimuli. These artifacts include clothes, perfume, lipstick, spectacles, wigs, hair-styles and the whole repertoire of make-up or beauty aids. Some of these variables were tested in the present research.

3.3.7 Chronemics

Poyatos (1983:210) proposes the term chronemics for the conceptualization and handling of time as a biopsychological and cultural element, lending specific characteristics to social relationships and to the many events contained within the communicative stream. Henley (1977:43) explains that time is far from a neutral philosophical/physical concept in our society; it is a political weapon. Time can be an indicator of status. The length of time a person waits before an interview suggests the status of such a person. According to Tortoriello, Blatt & DeWine (1978:138), the important manager or director may communicate definite values through the maintenance of his time schedule. To summarize, Bruneau (1980:114) says chronemics is the study of human tempo as it relates to human communication. Due to the nature of chronemics, it is undesirable to include this variable for testing in the present research.

3.3.8 Environmental variables

Environmental factors concern those elements which impinge on the human relationship, but which are not directly a part of it. Knapp (1978:20) lists amongst other factors the following: Furniture, architectural style, interior decorating, lighting conditions, colours, smells, additional noises, music and such. A study by Roach & Musa (1983), explains the importance of dress or clothing as a means of non-verbal communication. These variables can be extremely influential on the outcome of an interpersonal relationship. This category also includes "traces of action". For instance, when a person observes cigarette butts, waste paper and orange peels left by the person to be visited, an impression which will eventually influence your perception, will be formed. Korda (1983:165) discusses various office equipment which could be regarded as power symbols within the non-verbal domain. Environmental aspects were analyzed under the artifact variable for the purpose of this thesis.

3.3.9 Facial expressions

Though one of the oldest areas of non-verbal communication research, the literature does not include facial expressions under a separate entity for the purposes of classification. Malandro, Barker & Barker (1989) are of the opinion that separate attention should be paid to this area. The importance of this area for the present thesis is the fact that most television advertisements with human actors focus at some stage during the short flight on the actors' faces. Ekman, Friesen & Tomkins (1971:37-58) suggested in their facial affect-scoring technique (FAST) that emotional expressions of the face could be divided into three regions: (i) The forehead and brows, (ii) the eyes, eyelids and the bridge of the nose, and lastly (iii) the cheeks, nose, mouth, chin and jaw. All these areas contribute to the perception of the face.

In general, these non-verbal categories are relatively comprehensive. In practice these categories can arbitrarily be reduced for the present research purposes, where certain aspects could be categorized with other variables. Under 3.5 (Concluding remarks) the categories which were used

for the present study are presented.

3.4 SOCIAL FUNCTIONS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Non-verbal communication serves a number of functions, depending on the context in which it is utilized. McQuail (1987:330) explains that communication acts are behaviours that involve producing, sending, receiving, storing, processing or seeking information or messages. The message, for this purpose, and that of the thesis, is symbolic constructs that have a meaningful reference to sender, receiver, or environment. According to this view, communication should convey information and senders should be able to assume that information will be received more or less as intended. Receivers in turn, should have some confidence that what they take as meaning, corresponds with what was intended by the sender.

Broadly speaking, there are seven social functions of non-verbal communication. The present classification of non-verbal functions is compiled by the use of Burgoon & Saine (1978:10-14); Hargie, Saunders & Dickson (1981:19-24); Barker (1984:66-69); and Leathers (1986:6-11). The most exhaustive discussion is found in Burgoon (1985:366-381), on which this classification is based. There are various functions, of which only the most significant ones were discussed here. The classification of the functions should also be seen against the background and interest of the theorists who had initially listed them.

3.4.1 Cognitive processing and learning

Burgoon (1985:366) states that this seldom recognized, but significant function, is in the cognitive processing of messages and social information and in the learning of new concepts and behaviours. The role of non-verbal behaviour can be analyzed at the following levels: (1) Neurophysiological (2) micro-communicative, or (3) macro-communicative level.

The neurophysiological level concerns brain organization and the processing of verbal and non-verbal stimuli. It also concerns memory processes. At the micro-communicative level (the level of understanding single linguistic constructions or short segments of discourse), non-verbal communication serve multiple syntactic functions. Lastly, on the macro-communicative level (or level of understanding larger communicative episodes and discourses) non-verbal cues may also play an important role.

3.4.2 Expressive communication

Expressive communication includes intentional effect displays as well as unintentional cathartic displays. It also includes those non-verbal indicators of attitudinal favourably and intensity that complement and qualify verbal statements (Burgoon, 1985:369). Non-verbal elements add more details, but as Burgoon & Saine (1978:12) state, in this case the details are neither identical to, nor a replacement of, a verbal message. Non-verbal elements therefore serve to expand on the message being conveyed.

Hargie, Saunders & Dickson (1981:20) explain that words uttered by individuals experiencing some kind of emotional state, be it happiness, sadness, anxiety, fear, anger, frustration or affection, are usually elaborated on by the utilization of accompanying non-verbal behaviour. Burgoon (1985:369) points out that aesthetic forms of self-expression such as art, dance and music, could likewise be subsumed under this heading. Redundancy and complementing of the verbal message could also be classified under this function.

3.4.3 Impression formation and management

When individuals meet or talk, they rapidly attempt to categorize one another demographically. Characteristics such as gender, age, socio-economic status, ethnicity and geographic residence are normally used to categorize people. Burgoon (1985:372) maintains that people at the same time attribute such sociological and personal characteristics to one another as political and social attitudes, values and personality traits.

Person perception and attribution theories are used to explain why and how judgments are formed, how accurate or consistent they are, or as Burgoon (1985:372) puts it, why systematic distortions occur, and how context affects the ability to make sense out of cue patterns. A wide range of non-verbal effects researched can be interpreted as applicable to impression management. The most pertinent is according to Burgoon (1985:373) on credibility and attraction. Kahle & Homer (1985:954-961) find that physical attractiveness is a very important variable which could facilitate change of attitude. Sabatelli & Rubin (1986:120-133) also strengthen this view.

3.4.4 Relational communication

Under this function it is understood that non-verbal communication concerns the sending and receiving of messages about interactional partners' definitions of their relationships. It bears a close resemblance to impression management and formation. Burgoon (1985:374) holds that partners may signal how they feel about each other, how they feel about the relationship itself, or how they feel about themselves within the context of the relationship. Relational communication tells people how to interpret other co-present messages within the context of the relational definition that exists.

Aspects such as immediacy (which includes orienting toward, attending to, and signaling involvement and inclusiveness with another), emotional arousal, lack of composure and formality as well as dominance, appear to be expressed by all behaviours cited under impression management.

3.4.5 Mixed messages and deception

Burgoon (1985:377) contends that although people usually attempt to coordinate verbal and non-verbal behaviours into a coherent and congruent performance, there are occasions when they deliberately or unconsciously send mixed signals. Hargie, Saunders & Dickson (1981:20) and Leathers (1986:8) discuss the contradicting and deceptive aspects of non-verbal messages. Burgoon & Saine (1978:12) classify sarcasm under this aspect: People may intend to create sarcasm or an ambiguous messages, or they may intend to mislead someone, but may "leak" concealed message or clues that

deception is occurring. Hocking & Leathers (1983:220) make it clear that a deceiver may effectively control his/her presentation of self for limited periods of time, but lying convincingly for extended periods is much more difficult.

3.4.6 Structuring and regulating interaction

This function deals with the issues surrounding the influence of non-verbal behaviour on the progression and patterning of conversation. Aspects such as the following are evident: (i) The role of contextual non-verbal features in initially defining the situation and the role relationships; (ii) the role static or stable proxemic, artifactual and physical appearance signals play in regulating the amount, frequency and nature of conversation; (iii) the behaviours and sequence of behaviours by which people initiate and end conversations; (iv) turn-taking and the dynamic regulation of conversations, and (v) the interactional synchrony and other mutual influence processes (Burgoon, 1985:379).

3.4.7 Social influence

Non-verbal behaviour can help define acceptable patterns of behaviour in a variety of social settings (Hargie, Saunders & Dickson, 1981:23). Non-verbal aspects in this area have centered on the pragmatics of non-verbal behaviour, specifically on how such behaviour alters attitudes and overt behaviours of message recipients.

Literature related to this function comes from highly diverse disciplines and could be subsumed according to Burgoon (1985:380) under the following affiliation appeals: Credibility appeals; dominance, power and status appeals; threat cues; attractiveness appeals; attention and reinforcement behaviours; distraction; violations of expectations; aversive or pleasant stimulation; modelling and expectancy cues.

These seven functions illustrate some important facets of non-verbal communication. Non-verbal communication should be seen in a much broader sense than to merely clarifying and amplifying the verbal message. These functions should rather complement the verbal message than work against the

effectiveness of it. In other words, it is important that both verbal and non-verbal messages should carry the same message simultaneously in order to be more effective. But, due to cultural differences amongst various other variables, problems may occur where these two kinds of messages contradict each other.

It would seem that Haley, Richardson & Baldwin (1984:11) found enough evidence for concern in their research where it is stated that non-verbal elements actually contradict the verbal message in television advertisements. As a result, the consumer is confused and does not know which message should be believed - the verbal or the non-verbal message.

The functions of non-verbal communication were not tested in the present study, since it was not one of the aims. Its discussion, however, indicated that non-verbal communication is at least as important as verbal communication and in many instances more important. Specific examples were given in Chapter 1 on the viewing of non-verbal communication as meta-communication to illustrate this aspect.

3.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Since this study is mainly concerned with the non-verbal variables within a given context, it should be stressed that this arranged behaviour may have other research implications. Most actors in television advertisements behave artificially; they act the specific behaviour the advertiser ascribes in order to evoke the intended reaction from the intended consumers.

Television is, according to Finn, Weich & Rensburg (1983:45): "... the medium par excellence for advertisements". The reason is that it uses the printed and spoken word, moving pictures, colour, music, animation and sound effects all combined. All these variables contribute to the perception and eventually to the persuasiveness of the message.

Advertising messages that are perceived favourably, obviously have a better chance to persuade the consumer. Schiffman & Kanuk (1987:222) make it clear that a product which is perceived favourably, has a better chance of being purchased. In order to test consumer responses towards non-verbal elements in television advertisements, an arbitrary classification of non-verbal communication is proposed. Most of the non-verbal elements in these broad categories are generally present in television advertisements. The present classification has been compiled from the above discussion:

(i) Facial expressions: Most television advertisements focus on the actor's facial expression. Under this classification eye contact or eye behaviour and the expression of emotion are included.

(ii) Body movements. This includes gestures of the actors, the way the actors touch each other and the personal space between them. These elements usually occur within the single advertisement where more than one actor is involved. The inclusion of touch and space under the body movement classification was done on account of Malandro, Barker & Barker's (1989:108) concept of immediacy, which is related to body posture. Immediacy includes non-postural movements such as touching, proximity and direct body orientation.

(iii) Physique. This classification covers the non-verbal elements of the actor which remains relatively unchanged during the advertisement. The attitude towards the actor's physique in general includes the looks of the actor, the skin colour, the body shape and the attractiveness of the actor.

(iv) Artifacts. For the purpose of the present study, artifacts include the manipulation of objects in order to enhance the perception of the actor's physique. Hair-styles, colours, jewellery, dress and environment are included in this category.

(v) Para-language. General aspects concerned with the actor's voice, the music, the use of sound and silence are classified under this section. The perception of the advertisement's jingle also falls in this category.

The following categories are not included in the research: Chronemics, because of the difficulties to measure time within the short duration of an advertisement. Specific aspects of kinesics like emblems, illustrators, regulators, adaptors and affect displays, are excluded. These non-verbal elements usually occur within an interpersonal conversation. It would have been difficult to specifically analyze these elements within the duration of an advertisement. The purpose of the dissertation is to explore the general reactions of consumers to general non-verbal elements in television advertisements.

The above categories were chosen to be tested. In Chapter 6 other advertising variables are described which were also tested.

3.6 SUMMARY

This chapter expanded on the origin, usage and coding of non-verbal behaviour, the classification of non-verbal as well as the functions of non-verbal communication. Under the concluding remarks five arbitrary categories of non-verbal communication were identified for testing in this research: Facial expressions, body movements, physique of the actors, artifacts and para-language.

Chapter 4 continues with the various approaches, traditions and methodological aspects in non-verbal communication research.

CHAPTER 4

APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 explained the functions, classification and repertoire of non-verbal communication.

This chapter consists of mainly three aspects: (i) Historical development of non-verbal communication research, (ii) research traditions in non-verbal communication, and (iii) approaches to the study of non-verbal communication.

The development of non-verbal communication research indicates that various disciplines have contributed to the understanding of non-verbal communication. The purpose of the inclusion of the historical development in this thesis is to explain how this research developed. Attention was initially given to the research on the face alone; this was followed by the research on body movements and the role of non-verbal signs in communication. This development indicates that communicologists' serious interest in non-verbal communication only emerged in the 1960s. The only comprehensive evidence of non-verbal communication research in advertising is to be found in Hecker & Stewart's book, Nonverbal Communication in Advertising, which was first published in 1988.

4.2 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

Little evidence exists of the research under discussion prior to the 1800s (Harrison, 1973:95), but with the nineteenth century came a chain of research. Wolfgang (1984:461-469) lists the most important studies in non-verbal communication, although several articles of the Greek philosophers were also recorded. Table 4.1 gives a tabled summary of these most important publications on non-verbal communication prior to 1900.

Table 4.1
Landmark publications prior to 1900

Date	Author	Research area in NVC
1806	Bell, C	Philosophy of expression
1859	Bain, A	Emotions and the will
1862	Duchenne, B	Facial muscles
1867	Piderit, T	Mime
1872	Darwin, C	Emotions in man
1888	Kleinpaul, R	Speech without words

Harrison (1973:95) made it clear that the afore-mentioned authors are still regarded as important, since some of their theories, issues and methodologies remain part of the research scene today.

Most of the early studies were influenced by the work of Darwin (1872). In his book The expression of the emotions in man and animals, he argued that facial expressions are innate, thus suggesting certain non-verbal universals (Scherer & Ekman, 1985:2). Scherer & Ekman (1985:3) make it clear that Darwin's research approach compares favourably with that taken in modern single-shot studies, as far as comprehensiveness, appropriateness of the methods and detail of observation are concerned. Other researchers, like Kleinpaul (1888), paid much attention to communication systems such as language, gestures and facial expressions, from an anthropological or psychological viewpoint. However, their reports were mostly compilations of writings from ethnographic studies and did not spawn as Scherer & Ekman

(1985:3) say, much of a research tradition.

According to Harrison & Knapp (1972:339) and Harrison (1973:95) Efron (1941) influenced most of the pre-World War II research. Efron was influenced by Boas, who encouraged him to study the gestural communication of immigrant Jews and Italians in New York. Boas was concerned with countering the Nazi theories of a master race. Efron used motion pictures and drawings to isolate distinctive behavioural patterns. Efron's research unfortunately lay dormant for almost three decades as a result of the war (Harrison, 1973:96).

Scherer & Ekman (1985:3) regard Efron's classic study as one of the best studies in the field of non-verbal behaviour, both in theoretical rigor and in the development of appropriate methodology. He mainly focused on body movement, whilst he almost entirely ignored the face.

Birdwhistell (1952) dominated the scene in the post-World War II era. Harrison & Knapp (1972:340) contend that Birdwhistell's linguistic tradition is well-reflected in his research on kinesics. Birdwhistell attempts to frame a comprehensive coding scheme for body motion like as the linguist had done for the spoken language (Harrison, 1973:96). Birdwhistell's contribution lies in his advocacy of the use of cinematic techniques and the micro-analysis of filmed behaviour (Scherer & Ekman, 1985:5).

Hall's (1959 & 1966) anthropological tradition extended the linguistic analogy beyond body movement to all the primary message systems of culture (Harrison, 1973:96). His main field of interest was space, an area he elaborated as proxemics. Hall (1963:1003) defines proxemics as: "the study of how man unconsciously structures microspace - the distance between men in the conduct of daily transactions, the organization of space in his houses and buildings, and ultimately the layout of his towns".

Another post-World War II theorist who moved away from the linguistic tradition to provide a sociological perspective in his work, is Goffman (1959). Harrison (1973:96) explains that Goffman (1959) and his other

contributions focused on the presentation of self and the collaborative efforts of participants in social interaction. His writings have drawn increased attention to the role of non-verbal signs in the formation, operation and maintenance of communication.

During the 1950s psychotherapists' interest as well as that of experimental psychologists became evident (Harrison, 1973:97). Well known works of Ruesch (1955), Osgood (1959) and Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum (1957) should receive attention here. Scherer & Ekman (1985:5) hold that the developments in the 1960s were strengthened by the interest of psychiatrists and clinical psychologists in non-verbal behaviour - concern resulting in the establishment of many new approaches and methods.

The 1970s are marked by the influences of theorists like Reusch & Kees (1970), Schefflen (1972), Hinde (1972), Harrison (1973), Henley (1977), Burgoon & Saine^m (1978), Knapp (1978), Harper, Wiens & Matarazzo (1978), Sebeok (1978) and Ramsey (1979).

The following theorists have influenced the development in non-verbal communication research during the 1980s: Burgoon (1980), Key (1980), Knapp (1980), Kendon (1981), Rapoport (1982), Patterson (1983), Poyatos (1983), Wolfgang (1984), Scherer & Ekman (1985) and Hargie (1986). The development of non-verbal communication research was influenced by other social sciences, whilst communicologists only emerged during the last two decades.

4.3 RESEARCH TRADITIONS IN NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

The diversity of research traditions in the study of non-verbal communication makes it difficult to analyze the non-verbal phenomenon according to a sound and unified structure. For the present study the inclusion of these research traditions emphasizes the diversity of traditions which may influence social scientists' approach towards the study thereof. Burgoon (1980:180) says that as a result of the diversity of approaches to the study of non-verbal communication, it is difficult to

synthesize it into any coherent framework. However, within research directly relevant to communication, he has classified research under the aforementioned traditions, which is non-mutually exclusive and represent the majority of non-verbal research.

Despite the different approaches, the following broad research traditions have evolved according to Burgoon (1980:179-197): (i) Research in the variable-analytic tradition; (ii) structural research on the source, message, channel or receiver capacities; (iii) the functional tradition; (iv) research based on context, and (v) the development of non-verbal skills.

4.3.1 The variable-analytic tradition

Burgoon (1980:181) explains that three general kinds of research within this tradition is evident: Descriptive research on usage patterns, research in which the non-verbal behaviour is the independent variable and research in which non-verbal behaviour is the dependent variable.

(i) Usage patterns. Here, much of the research has centered on normative patterns and cultural and individual differences in non-verbal usage. Burgoon (1980:181) stresses that the overriding conclusion is that no simple generalizations about usage can be made for any particular non-verbal behaviour; rather consistent but highly specialized patterns are employed according to the nature of the setting and the cultural, sociological and personality characteristics of the parties involved. The areas of para-language, personal appearance, and artifacts have not received the same kind of normative analysis as have kinesics, haptics and proxemics. A deeper analysis and understanding of these areas as "messages" could enhance the knowledge about habitual or socially prescribed use.

(ii) Non-verbal variables as independent variables. The main point of discussion here is the fact that most communication situations involve the simultaneous co-ordination of multiple codes. According to Burgoon (1980:182) it is an approach focusing on systems of behaviours likely to have more pay-off in uncovering important properties and patterns of non-

verbal messages in the total communication system. Lastly, (iii) non-verbal variables as dependent variables. This research tradition received less attention, but has great potential use, because the interest has been in using non-verbal actions of the individual's internal state or attitude.

4.3.2 Structural research

The second trend in non-verbal communication research has been, according to Burgoon (1980:183), the study of structural features of senders and receivers of non-verbal messages, as well as the channels through which such messages are carried and the codes themselves.

Communicologists' and psychologists' attention have largely centered on behavioural and psychological phenomena, with special emphasis on individual differences in ability to send and receive non-verbal messages accurately. Buck (1976) developed the so-called CARAT measure of non-verbal receiving ability. CARAT is the abbreviation for Communication of Affect Receiving Ability Test, while Rosenthal & De Paulo (1979) developed a test of sensitivity in interpreting (decoding) emotional messages. This test is called the Profile of Non-verbal Sensitivity Test or the PONS-test (Hargie, 1986:79). Among the research concerned with code properties is the research of Ekman & Friesen (1971) and their development of the Facial Action Code (FAC). Burgoon (1980:184) explains that more consideration needs to be given to ways in which the codes interact and modify one another to produce a given meaning.

4.3.3 Functional perspectives

A functional perspective on non-verbal communication is by no means a new endeavour. Patterson (1983:7) points out different authors emphasizing different functions which sometimes overlap. The basic point of departure here is the fact that numerous systems have been proposed for the classification of verbal and non-verbal communication functions, with the emphasis especially on non-verbal communication functions. As indicated in Chapter 3, theorists differ in their classification of these functions. Burgoon (1980:185) proposes a new system that is a synthesis of previous ones. Six broad categories include the following:

(i) Symbolic representations, which include all actions that have a direct verbal translation or can represent an abstraction, correspond to the content or verbal supplement and attitudinal functions; (ii) expressive communication, which encompasses the affective and attitudinal functions; (iii) structuring of interaction, which is consistent with the definition of context and regulatory functions; (iv) impression formation and management, where, combining first impressions with presentation of self, it partly corresponds with defining social identity and managing the social situation; (v) meta-communication, which includes relational messages and meta-messages, and lastly, (vi) the social influence which corresponds with manipulation. Patterson (1983:79) proposed five classifications which are more or less similar to the aforementioned ones.

Burgoon (1980:191) warns that the classification of approaches and perspectives are in its infancy stages and that future research should be more controlled and the theoretical framework in which non-verbal communication operates, should be more sound. Harrison & Knapp (1972:340) advocate that these traditions have been augmented by research, frequently of a more applied nature, in audio-visual communication, cinema, television, advertising, marketing and packaging.

4.4 APPROACHES TO NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

The different approaches towards the study of non-verbal communication clearly indicate that the phenomenon was traditionally not studied from a communication perspective. The inclusion of the approaches for the purposes of the present thesis is an attempt to indicate this deficiency.

Some theorists, like Harper (1987:1), argue that because of the volume of research being conducted on human communication processes in diverse areas of study, many communication scholars have noted a lack of unity in the theoretical development of the discipline. The assumption is made that non-verbal communication also lacks this unity in theoretical development.

Since the scientific study of non-verbal communication is, as has already been indicated, mainly a post-World War II activity, it is relatively young in nature (Knapp, Cody & Reardon, 1987:385 and Burgoon, 1980:179). Though young, it is diverse. Knapp (1978:27) adds that non-verbal studies have never been the province of any particular discipline. Coudert (1983:13) proposes that six disciplines contributed to non-verbal research literature, namely anthropology, linguistics, psycho-analysis, clinical psychology, social psychology and sociology. According to Katz & Katz (1983:i) there have been attempts at a comprehensive and integrated approach to non-verbal communication in recent years. In order to underline this single approach, attention should be paid to the development of the different approaches, since: "...non-verbal communication seems to be, at the same time, an established discipline and a new one" (Katz & Katz, 1983:i).

Literature related to approaches indicate two kinds of classifications, viz:

- (i) Approaches according to the authors, eg. Harrison (1973:98-100), Scherer & Ekman (1985:1-7) and Rozelle, Druckman & Baxter (1986:67-73), and
- (ii) approaches according to the subject of study field: Harrison & Knapp (1972:339-342), Burgoon & Saine (1978:26-51), Ramsey (1979:105-135), Burgoon (1980:184-191) and Andersen, Garrison & Andersen (1981:186-198).

In Harrison's (1973:97) terms, the current trends in non-verbal communication can still be drawn along disciplinary lines. This means that all information under the approaches to non-verbal communication will be categorized under the following: (i) The body language approach, (ii) the ethological approach, (iii) the linguistic approaches, (iv) the psycho-analytic approach, (v) the physiological approaches and (vi) the functional approach. Some of these approaches are strikingly different, while others overlap (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:29). A possible reason for the diverse approaches could be because the majority of work has been done outside the communication discipline, largely because communication has not been the main focus (Burgoon, 1980:181).

4.4.1 Body language approach

Under this approach theorists rely heavily on the anecdotal treatment of non-verbal communication. Burgoon & Saine (1978:29) indicate that the theorists here rely on scenes of body movements or incidents that illustrate how to decipher non-verbal behaviours and to discover the inner thoughts and feelings of others.

Influenced by amongst others Birdwhistell's (1952, 1970) contribution to kinesics, research provides valuable information to extend the linguistic model to body motion. This approach offers many difficulties, especially the informant technique in the linguistic-kinesic analogy. Harrison (1973:99) points out that this technique is critical to the descriptive linguistics, but difficult to use in kinesic research, because "kineme" is not as strong a phenomenon as phoneme.

This approach is based on six assumptions (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:29) viz: (i) Man's inability to read non-verbal messages correctly often leads to interpersonal misunderstandings, (ii) non-verbal messages are more authentic and reliable than verbal messages, (iii) the body is the messenger of the unconscious, (iv) the movements of the body make up a language in which certain movements have special meanings, (v) non-verbal messages indicate sexual motives, and lastly (vi) there is a high degree of uniformity in the way individuals communicate non-verbal messages, providing they are from the same culture.

One of the biggest disadvantages of this approach is that the anecdotal nature of some material is without any sufficient substance to be considered theoretical. Burgoon & Saine (1978:31) warn that if the body language approach were considered as an observational method for studying non-verbal communication, it is fraught with ambiguities.

Questions such as the following may cross the researcher's mind: How would a person read the non-verbal behaviour of another person or which non-verbal cues are important in a specific situation?

In conclusion, Burgoon & Saine (1978:32) explain: "Many of the assumptions underlying the body language approach directly contradict some of the most profound thinking and most disciplined research on non-verbal communication." Knapp, Wiemann & Daly (1978:272) seem to agree and state that the term "body language" is primarily used with non-academic audiences. It is due to this association that it has received limited acceptance in the scientific community. This approach nevertheless lends itself more to popular literature.

4.4.2 Ethological approach

The ethological approach is hampered by criticism, which in some cases are almost a century old (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:34). Since ethology is the comparative study of animal behaviour, it focuses on the origins, developments and functions of non-verbal behaviour among the various classes of animal life.

According to the afore-mentioned authors (p.35) the criticisms center around the fact that most social and behavioural scientists view behaviour not as imitation, but as learned through participation in a particular culture. Critics believe that the mechanism for transferring the behaviours from one generation to another is not biological, but cultural. Ramsey (1979:103-143) explains the role which meaning plays within the intercultural perspective, which relates to the disputed argument that the treatment of non-verbal behaviour as a more primitive mode of communication than the verbal. In some circles there is in fact, reason to believe that many non-verbal behaviours evolved from the spoken language.

4.4.3 Linguistic approach

The term linguistic should not be confused with linguistics. It is not an offspring of the academic discipline of linguistics. Burgoon & Saine (1978:36) explain that the linguistic approach refers to the fact that in many respects the linguistic approach parallel the various perspectives held by linguists towards the study of language. These two terms share many concepts, theoretical goals and assumptions regarding the symbolic nature of behaviour and also share methods of investigating behaviour.

Harrison (1973:98) contends that the tradition of the linguistic approach is to focus on culturally-patterned behaviour. Within this tradition Burgoon & Saine (1978:36) have been able to detect two distinct approaches, since the linguistic approaches are not highly unified. The linguistic approach is therefore divided into the structure-centered approach and the meaning-centered approach.

(i) The main distinguishing feature of the structure-centered approach is the detection of structure in the body movement system. Burgoon & Saine (1978:36) say that just as language has structural elements and rules for organizing these elements, body movements have basic motions and principles that co-ordinate their use as communication. Also known as the linguistic-kinesic approach, the structure-centered approach is based on the following assumptions: (a) Non-verbal behaviour should be approached as a social and not a psychological phenomenon; (b) non-verbal behaviour serves both as informational and integral information; (c) non-verbal communication is a continuous, dynamic and ongoing process; (d) no movement of the body or variation in voice quality is without meaning in a specific context; (e) each part of the human body can function as a different modality or channel of communication; (f) although non-verbal communication is a continuous process, non-verbal behaviour possesses structure and lastly, (g) the systematic body movements of any group of individuals are a function of the socio-cultural system that unifies that group (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:36-40).

(ii) The meaning-centered approach, in contrast to the previous approach, is basically a receiver-oriented approach. Here the emphasis is to analyze how people assign meaning to non-verbal messages. Burgoon & Saine (1978:40) explain two features of the meaning-centered approach which distinguish it from the structure-centered view: (a) The meaning-centered approach focuses on the behavioural cues upon which the recognition of emotion is based, and (b) it also focuses on specific channels and their characteristics.

Limitations of the two linguistic approaches include the following: The first problem, according to Burgoon & Saine (1978:41), has to do with the linguists' attempt to identify the rules underlying the organization of non-verbal behaviour. The second problem deals with the difficulty in using language as an analogue for the structure of non-verbal interaction in that spoken language, with all its rules for grammatical construction, is a conscious venture. Lastly, it has been indicated that language and kinesic action are only partially co-ordinated. There is no one-to-one relationship between most body movements and language.

4.4.4 Psycho-analytical approach

One of the most notable developments of the 1950s and 1960s was according to Scherer & Ekman (1985:5) the strengthened concern of psychiatrists and clinical psychologists with non-verbal behaviour. This has resulted in the establishment of many new approaches and methods.

Freudian psychology has been the dominant intellectual force behind the psycho-analytic view of non-verbal communication (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:42 and Scherer & Ekman, 1985:5). According to this approach, the individual is constantly attempting to outgrow the psychological and physical inadequacies of childhood.

This approach is based on four assumptions: (i) Non-verbal behaviour is a response to the psychological condition of the communicator, (ii) non-verbal behaviours are artifacts of a psychologically primitive past, (iii) any serious or consistent violation of cultural norms regarding the frequency, rate, form or co-ordination of non-verbal behaviours is a symptom of the psychological abnormality of the communicator, and (iv) disparity between non-verbal and verbal codes is a symptom of the psychological abnormality of the communicator (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:43).

Three important limitations to this approach can be cited: Critics to this approach recognize according to Burgoon & Saine (1978:43) that the human being is a versatile and spontaneous creature, capable of radically different behaviours.

Secondly there is the evasive role of consciousness and intent in determining normative non-verbal behaviour. Lastly, there is the fact that psycho-analysts generally give the individual little credit for having control over the actions of the body or being aware of what the body is doing. It is obvious that people do not always monitor all the movements of their body.

A further limitation from a communication perspective seems to be the emphasizing of the communicator. It is indicated that communication is an attempt of at least two individuals which try to establish a common meaning. As a result attention should be paid to the role of the receiver of the message. The question of abnormality is also problematic. It does not specify parameters to define abnormality.

4.4.5 Physiological approach

This approach views non-verbal behaviour in terms of anatomical constraints and causes. It also investigates how the physiological structure influences the ability to formulate, transmit and receive information (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:44). According to the aforementioned authors, this approach can be classified under two separate headings.

(i) The sensory approach: This approach looks at the communicative functions of the various senses and the ways in which messages are constructed or modified in order to suit the senses. The sensory approach is based on the following assumptions: (a) Sensory organs differ in both the amount and kind of information each can receive; (b) sensory organs are interrelated; (c) sensory organs screen information; (d) individual sensory power influences the non-verbal messages transmitted; and lastly, (e) individuals may differ significantly in sensory power, which means that it is extremely difficult to generalize findings (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:45). The major shortcoming of this approach according to these cited theorists, is that it limits the study of how people express (encode) and interpret (decode) non-verbal messages to the simple issue of what the senses can and cannot do. The interpretation and formulation phases are not as easy to

demarcate.

(ii) The neurophysiological approach: This approach focuses on the ways in which the nervous system in conjunction with the brain and sensory organs enable a person to receive non-verbal messages (Burgoon & Saine, 1978:45). Andersen, Garrison & Andersen (1981:186) explain that the basic unit of non-verbal analysis is not likely to be found by using models that are based on linguistic assumptions, but rather on the neurophysiological approach. Burgoon & Saine (1978:46) state that this approach make two provocative assumptions about the nature of non-verbal communication: (a) Verbal and non-verbal elements are conceptually independent phenomena. Verbal elements are digital, logical, linguistic and arbitrary, while non-verbal elements are analogic, non-linguistic and extra-logical. Figure 2.1 in Chapter 2 presents an extensive verbal / non-verbal dichotomy. A behaviour falls into either category. (b) The differences between non-verbal and verbal elements can be accounted for by the different neurophysiological mechanisms that underline each.

Problems surrounding this approach could be summarized as follows: It is basically a reductionist approach, while it attempts to reduce relatively complex issues into a single neurophysiological approach. This approach emphasizes the interpreter and his ability to receive these non-verbal messages. Lastly Burgoon & Saine (1978:47) state that the central issue here is to distinguish between the left and right hemispheric functions of the brain.

4.4.6 Functional approach

The functional approach is based on the following assumptions, as described by Burgoon & Saine (1978:48): (i) The specific communication function being investigated determines the non-verbal behaviours to be observed; (ii) every function has situational characteristics; (iii) the communication context must be interpersonal in nature; (iv) communication is an ongoing dynamic process; (v) the behaviours initiated to achieve a function occur within a finite time; (vi) a single non-verbal code may serve several functions; (vii) a single function may involve several non-

verbal codes; (viii) a single function may involve the co-ordination of verbal and non-verbal codes; and (ix) the study of immediate causes of non-verbal behaviour takes precedence over the study of original causes.

The most important limitation of the functional approach is that it does not make an assumption about the parallel between language and the movements of the body. Lastly, it is difficult to isolate a function, since one's communication objectives are constantly changing. To determine inferences about functions, are often uncertain (Patterson, 1983:10).

These approaches to the study of non-verbal communication have different problem areas from a communication perspective. As indicated in Chapter 2, communication is viewed as a system with a process and structure. If one analyses these above-mentioned approaches, it seems that they contribute only to the clarification of certain elements in the communication system and do not analyze the system in a holistic manner. From the present communication perspective the following criticisms could be drawn:

(i) Body language approach: Only certain aspects of the whole repertoire of non-verbal communication receive attention. The contribution of the body language approach, however, helps to popularize and familiarize non-verbal communication. (ii) Ethological approach: The approach is dated and ignores the contribution of cultural influences.

(iii) Psycho-analytical approach: The emphasis is more from a social-psychological perspective. Criticism against this approach from a communication perspective is the fact that the emphasis is on the communicator as the most important variable within the communication process. The fact is, all the elements in the communication process contribute to the effect of non-verbal communication. (iv) Physiological approach: The emphasis here is the opposite of the psycho-analytical approach in the sense that it singles the receiver out as the important interpreter of the non-verbal message.

(v) Functional approach: It seems as if the functional approach could have the best results for the communicologist. The problem, however, is the fact that non-verbal communication is a dynamic and changing process and that it would be difficult to define and specify the functions at a given time or in a given situation. The function alone is not enough for a proper analyses of non-verbal communication.

4.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

To conclude this chapter, it is necessary to stress the most important implications and considerations of non-verbal communication research: (i) The current trends in non-verbal communication can still be drawn along disciplinary lines, whether it is psychology, sociology, anthropology or social psychology. (ii) The relative merit of the various theoretical approaches should not be overlooked in selecting an approach to non-verbal communication. (iii) The researcher's disciplinary background, scientific interest and perceived research priorities will determine the chosen approach.

Patterson (1984:350) explains that the diversity of approaches was not always characteristic of non-verbal exchange, but that its presence indicates a healthy development in research. This corresponds with Finkelstein's (1976:31) call for a need to integrate the diverse approaches to the study of non-verbal communication.

The diversity of approaches to the study of non-verbal communication initially seems appropriate, but a shift in paradigm could offer a useful means of analyzing non-verbal communication. With the aim and purpose of this study at heart, it seems appropriate to apply a communication approach. This approach entails a comprehensive, integrated description of non-verbal communication in a given context. As indicated in Chapters 2 and 3, communication should be seen as a system with a process and a structure. All the variables within this system should be taken into account in order to analyze the non-verbal phenomenon.

For the present study, the emphasis is obviously on the receiver of the non-verbal message. His ability to interpret and understand the non-verbal elements in television advertisements could offer new meaning to the communicologist and advertiser. Although the emphasis is on the receiver, the message and medium elements are also contributors to the better understanding of this subject. Incorrect diversions could be drawn if the context in which this interactions take place, were not accounted for.

4.6 SUMMARY

This chapter has indicated that different approaches could be followed to study non-verbal communication. It seems as if these approaches had most of their origin in the social psychology and sociology. Communication theories in general also derives from these social sciences, and it would therefore not be incorrect to apply any of these theories to the study of non-verbal communication. It seems, however, that a communication perspective would be most suitable for this study.

Chapter 5 deals with signs in pictorial communication, with special reference to non-verbal codes in television advertising. The general portrayal of society by television advertisements, as well as the social criticism of advertising will also receive attention.

CHAPTER 5
NON-VERBAL CODES IN TELEVISION ADVERTISING
AND THE PORTRAYAL OF SOCIETY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 covered the diversity of approaches to non-verbal communication. A communication perspective has been recommended for the purpose of this study, because it gives a comprehensive description of the elements in the communication process and the communication structure.

This chapter continues with the application of the sign theory and sign analysis as applied to television advertising. The aim of this chapter is not to give an in-depth analysis of semiology, but to trace the sign phenomenon to its roots in order to understand the basic principles and rules that govern the sign, especially with regard to artificial and acted behaviour as depicted in television advertisements. The classification of pictorial signs and the distinction between language and speech will also be discussed. Various aspects of television advertising as a sign system, will be highlighted in this chapter.

Chapter 5 further indicates the relevance of the role of advertising in society and the portrayal of certain stereotypes in television advertisements. Leiss, Kline & Jhally (1986:152) contend that the task of the advertiser is to know the world of the segmented audiences intimately, in order that the advertisements created can evoke associations with whatever is stored in the consumers' memories and imaginations.

5.2 CLASSIFICATION OF SIGNS

Fiske & Hartley (1984:37) report that given the small nuances, the central concern of semiology is the relationship between the sign and its meaning and the way the sign is combined into codes. Semiology simply defined, is a science of signs and this science is being influenced by the works of Peirce and De Saussure. Both terms "semiology" and "semiotics" refer to the same science, but Europeans tend to emphasize the works of De Saussure, a Swiss, whereas the Americans and English are influenced more by the American, Peirce's, work (Hawkes, 1978:124). De Saussure's view holds that semiology develops and exists in a diadic relationship between the sign and what it signifies/object. Peirce adds another dimension and develops the triadic relationship amongst the sign, what it signifies and the ability of the interpreter.

The present study is not concerned with the underlying theoretical distinctions between semiology and semiotics, however, the term semiology is used, since in Culler's (1976:91) terms: "... semiology is based on the assumption that in so far as human actions or productions convey meaning, in so far as they function as signs, there must be an underlying system of conventions and distinctions which makes this meaning possible. Where there are signs, there is a system". Related to television advertising, this definition implies that it would be correct to view advertising as a composition of different signs, both verbal and non-verbal with its own operating system.

Barthes (1978:35) acknowledges that according to the arbitrary choice of various authors, the sign is placed in a series of terms which have affinities as well as dissimilarities. Signal, index, icon, symbol and allegory are the chief rivals of the sign. Peirce (Hervey, 1982:30 and Wollen, 1969:122; Harman, 1977:19; Monaco, 1979:133; Fourie, 1983:118 and Tomaselli, 1981:46) classifies signs into three categories, namely icon, index and symbol. A summarized explanation of these categories follows.

5.2.1 Icon

If a sign denotes its object by virtue of a real similarity that holds between physical properties of the sign and physical properties of its object, that sign is called an icon. Peters (1985:72) states that an iconic sign looks like its referent. It is further explained by Fiske & Hartley (1984:38) that in the iconic or motivated sign, there is a natural relation between the signifier (the person who assigns meaning to it) and the signified (the object which is referred to). In most instances an iconic sign is usually interpreted correctly because of its resemblance between the signifier and the signified. Since the icon/ic or motivated sign has a resemblance to the physical properties with the object it presents, it indicates that most television advertisements could be regarded as consisting of iconic or motivated signs. In most television advertisements there are resemblances between the pictures and what it represents in reality.

5.2.2 Index

Peirce designates a sign as an index when the sign denotes its object by virtue of a real cause and effect link that exists between sign and object. Hawkes (1978:129) says that the relationship here is concrete, actual and usually of a sequential causal kind. For example, an index sign of fire is smoke, although this is an oversimplified example of an index and as such tends to indicate that the meaning ascribed to an index is unambiguous.

Leach (Roelofse, 1982:49) introduced the concept of metonymy into his own classification of signs in order to resolve Peirce's difficulty in defining designators adequately and successfully. This implies an intrinsic prior relationship between the signifier and the signified, which could be described as a relationship wherein the signifier is part of the idea of the whole. Roelofse (1982:49) explains that both the signifier and the idea (signified) should belong to the same cultural context or system. Consequently, this relationship between the signifier and signified is based on a uni-contextual metonymy. For example, in a previous Impulse television advertisement, a handsome young man hands over a bunch of flowers to a beautiful lady. The Xhosa-speaking black assigns no meaning to this

gesture, since in his culture it is not the custom to give flowers to the opposite sex. Consequently, in the light of this example, this study reiterates Roelofse's (1982:43) and Munro's (1984:16) advice that it is essential to interpret signs within their socio-cultural context to reduce the possible occurrence of misunderstanding.

It would be incorrect not to interpret the signs in television advertisements in a given socio-cultural context. The problem arises where the analyst is not familiar with these given socio-cultural signs. One can assume that most advertising signs on the SABC's different channels are from a mainly westernized socio-cultural origin. This could create further problems due to the differences in interpretation of these signs, because of a large underdeveloped consumer market in South Africa.

5.2.3 Symbol

If the sign denotes its object by virtue of a general association of ideas that is in the nature of a habit or convention, in other words, when there is a cultural, arbitrary relationship between the signifier and the signified, Peirce designates that sign a symbol (Hervey, 1982:31). Seiter (1987:20) explains symbolic signs by referring to language. Language uses symbolic signs in which the relationship between signifier and signified is arbitrary. When one studies a second language, the discovery of cognates (words which remain substantially the same between one language and another), may reinforce the feeling of the necessary association between certain words (or signifiers) and certain signifieds. The well-known brand name for chips, Simba, has a different meaning to Afrikaans or English-speaking and the Xhosa or Zulu-speaking individual (of the Nguni language group). Simba signifies a lion or potato chip to the former, whilst to the latter it signifies faeces. This particular example may cause considerable damage to the image and credibility of the product.

According to Seiter (1987:20) objects can also become symbolic signs; roses signify love, champagne signifies celebration, a rainbow symbolizes hope, a flag symbolizes a nation. These symbolic signs may be invested with so much feeling, that the conventionality of the connection between the signifier

(for example, a cloth patterned in orange, white and blue) and the signified (Republic of South Africa) is no longer easy to grasp. Mick (1986:199) uses the example of a point-of-purchase display for wine depicting a young couple lounging by a fireplace which may represent "the good life" or decadence, love or licentiousness, depending on the codes of the interpreter's background.

The individual's background is influenced by his behaviour, motivation, learning and perception. Stanley (1982:39-60) discusses the mind of the buyer or the purchase decision process which is closely related to consumer behaviour and includes among others needs, wants, buying, motives, self-concept, perception, attitudes and learning.

For Peirce, (Mick, 1986:199) these three sign categories are not mutually exclusive, since a sign may function in all three capacities. Since signs may function on all three capacities of the icon, index and symbol, it is of paramount importance that the advertiser understands the implications of the signs and symbols he uses in television advertisements. For most of the black cultures in South Africa it is not the custom to give flowers to beloved ones. To use flowers as a signifier of love, when advertising to blacks, would be incorrect.

On face value it would seem as if television advertisements in South Africa concentrate heavily on the more westernized idiom. In Chapter 6 it is indicated that the emphasis in the 1990s is on the young black consumer. Advertisers should alter their selection of signs and symbols to truly communicate with this market.

5.3 BARTHES' THREE ORDERS OF SIGNIFICATION

The aforementioned discussion leads towards the explanation of meaning. There are many different levels of meaning, or to use the semantic term, different orders of signification (Fiske & Hartley, 1984:40), like the seven types of meaning as discussed by Leech (1977:10-27), where the emphasis is

placed on conceptual (sometimes referred to as 'denotative' or 'cognitive' meaning) and connotative meaning. However, the works of Barthes, Elements of semiology (1978) and Mythologies (1979), reveal the way these different signs (icon, index and symbol) work in different orders of signification.

5.3.1 First order signs (first order meaning)

In short, the first order of signification holds that the sign is self-contained (Fiske & Hartley, 1984:41). For instance, a photograph of a Coke bottle means the individual Coke bottle. In most instances this sign is usually interpreted correctly. In relation to pictorial advertisements, the depicted objects represent a visual resemblance between their compositional elements and the "reality" it presents. In other words, there is a resemblance between the depicted Coke bottle's photographed compositional elements, shape, letter types and colour and the "real" Coke bottle in the cafe's refrigerator. The first order deals with the denotative meaning, with the emphasis on the representational and referential aspects.

5.3.2 Second order signs I: Myth (second order meaning)

The second order signs according to Barthes (Fiske & Hartley, 1984:41) operate on two ways: as myth-makers and as connotative agents. When a sign carries cultural meanings rather than merely representational ones (as in the first order), the sign has moved into the second order of signification (Fiske & Hartley, 1984:42). Consequently the aforementioned authors are of the opinion that in this movement the sign changes its role. The sign of a particular product becomes the signifier of cultural values that it embodies. This "cultural meaning" is what Barthes refers to as a myth.

5.3.3 Second order signs II: Connotation (second order meaning)

In the connotative order signs signify values, emotions and attitudes (Fiske & Hartley, 1984:44). The first order sign of a flag denotes a given country, but connotes the respect individuals from different countries pay to it (second order sign).

Some of the methods used by television in order to connote meaning, are lighting, camera angle, background music and frequency of cutting. Fiske & Hartley (1984:45) state that music in particular is used to clarify and sometimes create the connotative meaning of a shot. These authors also warn that the connotative dimensions of signs in a conventional medium (television) tend to be more limited and explicit than the more aesthetic media (such as painting). Roelofse (1982:89) mentions that symbolism is a second level meaning which is culturally based, operates on the connotative level and differs from both ordinary connotative meanings and myths in that it allows only for specific interpretation. In other words, it is totally culturally-determined.

The second order constitutes the connotative meaning, where the emphasis is placed on the inferential aspects. Variables such as values, emotions and attitudes are important here. The two second orders of signification move away from the view of a sign as an independent entity to the realm of subjective responses. Fiske & Hartley (1984:46) explain that although these responses occur in the individual, they are not, paradoxically, individualistic by nature. As these responses are invoked by signs which mean what they do only through agreement between the members of the culture, they are centered in intersubjectivity.

5.3.4 Third order of signification

The third order of signification deals with the ideological meaning of signs. For the purposes of the present study the ideological meaning of the sign is not important.

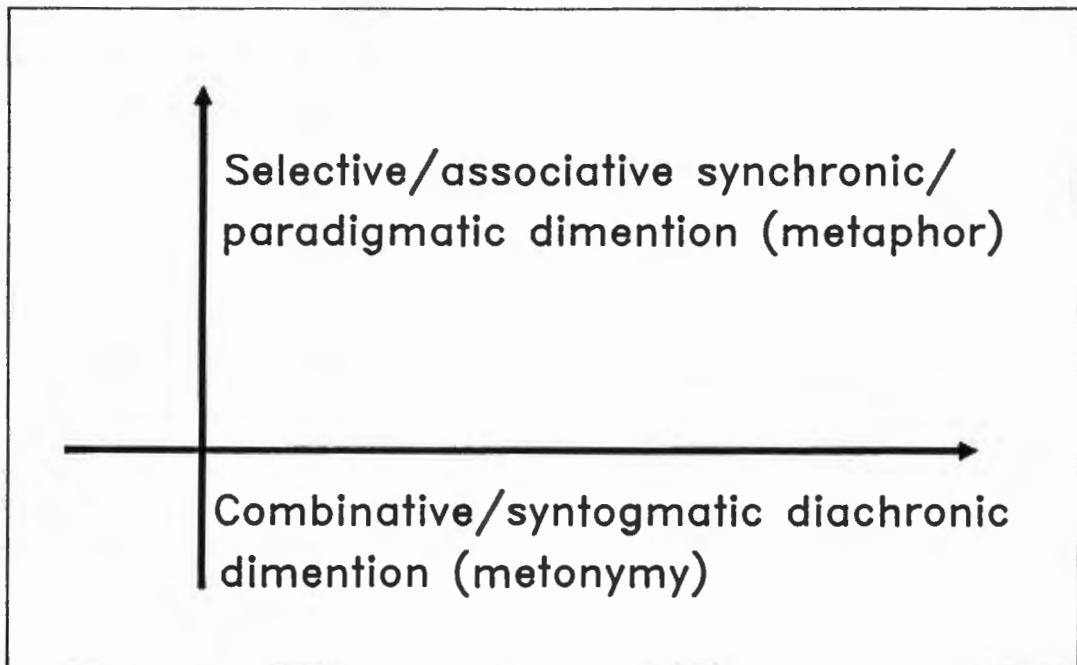
5.4 PARADIGMS AND SYNTAGMS IN PICTORIAL ADVERTISEMENTS

Paradigm in this regard does not indicate a paradigm in the cybernetic sense of the word. It describes, within semiology, the technical possibilities of selection of different signs.

De Saussure (Hawkes, 1978:26) developed the theory that language is "based on relations", where these relations can develop on two axes. In order to be possible to relate these axes to television advertisements, De Saussure's linguistic relations are discussed. De Saussure's two axes are well documented in the literature: Lindekens (1972:12-18), Metz (1974:99-107), Barthes (1978:58-88), Roelofse (1982:51-52), Fourie (1983:141-146), Fiske & Hartley (1984:50-58) and Metz (1985:170-174). The terms paradigm and syntagm within the semiological domain, are used to describe technical possibilities of selection and combination (Roelofse, 1982:51). Figure 5.1 explains the set of axes, one vertical and the other horizontal (Hawkes, 1978:78).

Figure 5.1

Paradigmatic/syntagmatic axis



The syntagm forms the horizontal axis, based on the choice or selection of signs to form a meaningful combination, or whole (Fiske & Hartley, 1984:54). Tomaselli (1981:49) explains that the sign enters into syntagmatic relations with all other signs which may possibly occur on the same axis, but not at the same time. He further states that a syntagm as such is an analogue of thirdness because it is concerned with the methods of combinations of single discrete signs into a unified whole. The paradigm forms the vertical axis (Roelofse, 1982:51) and is based on the extension or substitution of the same sign type used in the horizontal axis. A paradigm therefore evokes meaning through the association of the elements which make up the image.

The paradigm is, therefore, according to Tomaselli (1981:49), an analogue of secondness because it refers to the specificity of a sign which is chosen from amongst the spectrum of alternative signs. Where these two axes intersect, meaning will be deciphered.

According to Peters (1985:82) the different types of camera shots which can be used in photography form the paradigmatic axis. He also discusses (pp. 82-83) the relevance and significance of the use of the active and the passive camera. The long shot, medium shot and close-up are all variants of the same paradigm (model). Since, according to Peters (1985:83), every picture forms a variant of several paradigms simultaneously, it is not easy to distinguish between them. If the form of the shot attaches itself to the depicted object, the shot acquires a connotative or figurative meaning. All other camera codes, excluding the denotative passive camera view, could be regarded as non-verbal camera codes.

In non-verbal communication the emphasis is rather on how one communicates, than on what one says. For this reason the paradigmatic codes are important, because they evoke meaning through the association of elements which make up the image. Consequently, these non-verbal camera codes may be analyzed by semiology as Munro (1984:29) states, because it is based on the pictorially depicted elements which are structured to form a whole. In the present study the television advertisement is the unique whole.

Communication according to Roelofse (1982:52), is always the outcome of a decision-involving selection and combination. Likewise, the content of the television advertisement also consists of a selection and combination of different shots. Consequently, by performing these selections, combinations or techniques, the possibility of different types of meanings can be related. The two most basic levels of meaning which arise from the dual operations of selection and combination are denotation and connotation.

5.5 LANGUAGE AND SPEECH

Worth (1969:315) describes the language-parole distinction as very perceptive with regard to verbal language. This competence-performance distinction of language-parole has been applied to pictorial communication, like film, television and advertising. De Saussure (Hawkes, 1978:20) explains the whole phenomenon of language in terms of two fundamental dimensions which it exhibits: langue (language) and parole (speech). The former means to De Saussure (Mick, 1986:197) the abstract rules and conventions of language or any code that pre-exist any individual's use of it, whilst the latter represents the manipulation of the language system via individual utterances in everyday situations.

Language (langue) is according to Barthes (1978:14) therefore a language minus speech: It is at the same time a social institution and a system of values. For De Saussure it refers to the collective agreement between people of a particular society to ascribe similar meanings to similar signs and to follow similar rules in using those signs to convey meaning (Roelofse, 1982:26). Thus, according to Barthes (1978:15), language is both an institution and a system in an abstract sense, because in order to study language, speech is required.

Parole is the term used by Barthes and coined by De Saussure when referring to speech (Roelofse, 1982:27). For Barthes (1978:14-15) speech is essentially an individual act of selection and actualization in the first place of "the combination thanks to which the speaking subject can use the code of the language with a view to expressing his personal thought". Within the communication domain, one could call parole in Roelofse's (1982:27) terms, the expression or the communication event. In other words, how the individual combines signs (language or langue) in speech to actualize his personal thoughts. Likewise, the advertiser combines signs in a code to formulate his television advertising message. Within this message both verbal and non-verbal elements of communication are included.

Guirand (1971:3) acknowledges the fact that there is disagreement about the scope of semiology. Some semiologists like De Saussure extends the notion of a sign and code to forms of social communication, where rites, ceremonies and polite formulae are important.

Barthes' (1978:9) definition of semiology makes room for language and speech beyond the linguistic system: "Semiology therefore aims to take in any system of signs, whatever their substance and limits; images, gestures, musical sounds, objects and the complex associations of all these, which form the content of ritual convention or public entertainment: these constitute, if not languages, at least systems of signification." With reference to this definition, Barthes (1978:26-27) applied the langue/parole theory of De Saussure to the garment system. Here, clothes are categorized into clothes as written about, photographed and clothes as worn.

The language of the garment or fashion consists, according to Barthes (1978:27), of the following: (i) By the composition of pieces, eg. pieces, parts and details of the particular garment, and (ii) the rules which govern the association of the pieces among themselves. Speech in the garment or fashion comprises all the phenomena of anomic fabrication or of the individual way of wearing, it is the size, degree of cleanliness or free association of pieces (Barthes, 1978:27).

To summarize and relate langue and parole to the study of non-verbal communication, it means that langue is the language system as used in a given group or culture, whilst parole is the individual's use of the language system. For example, the victory sign by Churchill or Lech Waleza indicates victory. When a Xhosa or Zulu-speaking student at the University of Fort Hare uses it, it could be interpreted in a different manner. It could refer to the victorious soccer club, Kaizer Chiefs. Churchill and Waleza do not exist in their frame of reference. Roelofse (1982:42) advises that it is essential to interpret signs within their socio-cultural context to reduce possible misunderstanding: "By relating the forms or signifieds of signs to a specific context, the communicator excludes the other possible contexts and facilitates understanding by making interpretation easier." It

is also important to interpret non-verbal codes in television advertisements within their socio-cultural context.

5.6 NON-VERBAL CODES IN TELEVISION ADVERTISING

In the study of television advertising the single shot consists of visual signs that are structured in specific ways to convey a specific message. This visual sign could be interpreted as one of many different messages, pending on the meaning attached to it. In order to understand what is meant by a sign, the following theorists explain that the sign stands for something else, as indicated by Eco (1976:16), Tomaselli (1980:8), Roelofse (1982:29) and Lacan (1985:203).

Eco (1980:131) explains that with regard to television research, any message research is concerned with television outputs, which includes television advertisements as a system of signs. These signs and their correlations are to be seen in relation to a sender and an addressee, based on a code supposed to be common to both; emitted in a context of communication which determines the meaning of the three previous terms. A code is regarded by Morgan & Welton (1986:67) as a system into which signs are organized, expressing rules agreed to by a community. Codes in pictorial communication, unlike words in verbal language, do not follow in a linear sequence.

The construction of a television advertisement relies on the use of signs which mean something else. According to Seiter (1987:19), this conception of the sign is adapted from the work of Peirce, and not from that of De Saussure. For Peirce, the sign could be divided into three parts, rather than De Saussure's two parts. (It is the difference in the triadic and diadic relationship of the sign, which has been discussed).

According to Hervey (1982:28) the role of a sign in this triadic relationship is to establish a habit or general rule determining both the way the sign is to be "understood" on the occasions of its use and the kind

of perceptible or "imaginable" features of experience to which the sign may be applied. It follows that the way a sign is to be understood implies some kind of mental activity or state, whereas "... the features to which a sign can be applied, presuppose something perceptual or experiential" (p.28).

This mental activity or state is a prerequisite for communication, since people need to be able to signify those things they share in order to come to an understanding about them. This can happen in a number of different ways, as Roelofse (1982:45) notes: Presentation, representation, direct reference or indirect reference.

In this regard, Williamson (1987:31) explains that the product has initially no "meaning" and must be given value by a person or object which already has value to the consumer, i.e. already "means". Therefore, something about the product is being signified and the correlating object or individual is the signifier. The product as signifier means, according to Williamson (1987:35), that after the product has had meaning transferred to it from another object, that product itself comes to "mean". An example could be that a product may be connected with a way of life through being an accessory to it. In order to relate the signification of meaning to consumer behaviour, Mick (1986:205) contends: "Moreover, meaning has been merely ancillary to the inquiry on fundamental human behavior we choose artificially to call consumer behavior ... the problem of meaning is central to our age." Edell (1988:11) states that the past years were particularly concerned with the impact of advertisements labelled as emotional, feeling, image or non-informational advertisements. The same tendency is noticed by Holbrook & Batra (1988:95).

In order that the scientist understand how non-informational advertisements have an impact, one has to develop a better understanding of the effects of the non-verbal elements these advertisements contain. In this regard Hecker & Stewart (1988:3) mention that advertising makes extensive use of non-verbal communication. Since numerous non-verbal elements are present in television advertisements, it is of great importance that the advertiser selects the correct non-verbal elements. The reason for this is an attempt

to create a "universal" message which is understandable to all. The limiting factor here is the fact that the smaller the difference in cultures which are to be reached, the more likely that a more "universal" message could be created. The more differences in the cultures which are to be reached with the same message, the more difficult it will be to find "universal" non-verbal signs.

Little evidence exists to date about the impact of non-verbal effects in advertisements. Edell (1988:12) warns that it appears that the effects of non-verbal elements in advertisements are much more complex than researchers had initially believed. One of the biggest difficulties could be a suitable theoretical mechanism. In fact, it seems that several existing theoretical mechanisms that have been used to explain other phenomena in advertising, are applicable to non-verbal elements in television advertising. Edell (1988:12) lists the following mechanisms: (i) Information processing; (ii) classical conditioning; (iii) distraction; (iv) and mood induction. A further warning to the researcher (Edell, 1988:26) is that in examining the literature and in thinking about the underlying theoretical mechanisms, it is difficult to conclude that non-verbal elements work in only one way.

It is well documented by Harrison & Knapp (1972:345) that by a non-verbal sign is understood any other sign than spoken or written language used to represent something other than itself. Such signs would be meaningful to the person or persons using them.

Since culture is, according to Rosengren (1986:19), acquired and transmitted by means of meaningful systems, it could be argued that advertising is also part of this system that transmit information. Nevertheless, it seems as if advertisements not only create social values or beliefs, but also reflect them since the basic functions of advertising is to inform, persuade and to do both.

Advertising is a method by which the mass media represent ways of communicating with large segments of society. These large numbers of people are exposed to advertising and potentially far-reaching effects are

possible. Information and even misleading information about a product or service are of interest, for their direct effects as well as the possibility that advertisements will provide a role model for acceptable behaviour. Knapp, Cody & Reardon (1987:409) emphasize the role deceptive advertising plays in the influence on consumers: "The issue of what actually constitutes a lie becomes even more ambiguous (the public) when words are omitted and pictures are used to imply a particular message." Their opinion tends to suggest that non-verbal codes in some circumstances deliberately deceive people or could contradict the verbal language.

A code, according to Andrew (1976:224), is nothing other than the logical relationship which allows a message to be understood. With regard to this definition, one can assume, like Ruben (1984:126-128) that there are in a number of respects non-verbal codes that have resemblances to the verbal language system. Roelofse (1983:31) maintains that most semiologists classify communication codes in terms of either the senses involved in communication or simply construct arbitrary categories under the heading of non-verbal communication or body language. This is a simplistic and unrealistic view, because there are determined categories within the non-verbal communication domain. The classification under body language is popular and unscientific.

The most common characteristics of non-verbal codes according to Burgoon (1985:350) are that they are analogic in nature, as distinguished from digital codes such as verbal language. These analogic codes are comprised of an infinite and a continuous range of naturally derived values. According to Harrison (1973:94) there are four broad categories of non-verbal signs:

(i) Performance codes, which include body actions, such as facial expressions, eye movements, gesture, body posture and tactile contact. A sub-category of this classification include para-language phenomena such as voice quality, sighs, yawns, laughter and grunts.

(ii) Artifactual codes include signs that emerge in, among others, the manipulation of dress, cosmetics, status symbols, furnishings, art objects and architecture.

(iii) Mediational codes, where non-verbal signs arise from selections, arrangements and inventions within the media. Harrison (1973:94) mentions the example of an editor who can arrange a photograph in various ways. Related to television the editor can choose from a variety of shots (Peters, 1985:85).

(iv) Contextual codes, where non-verbal signs arise in the use of time and space, through the temporal and spatial location of communication systems and in the arrangement of communicators and their artifacts.

For the purpose of the present thesis the first two non-verbal codes are important, namely, performance and artifactual codes. Mediational and contextual codes, as explained by Harrison (1973) were not tested.

Consumer research is claimed to be an interdisciplinary area of inquiry (Holbrook, 1987:237). The role of semiology and non-verbal communication cannot be overlooked. Mick (1986:201) states that the study of semiology has identified the sign as the fundamental vehicle connecting objects in the broadest sense as well as human reactions. And as such, consumers' behaviour is based on the meanings they ascribe to marketplace stimuli.

5.7 CRITICISMS OF THE DEPICTED SOCIETY IN TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS

Since Eve first displayed her charms to Adam, as Brits & Reekie (1985:320) put it, advertising has been with mankind. Since the Fall, the effect of advertising on society has been evident. Generally speaking, advertising's effect can be classified into two categories: economic and social.

Although modern advertising is according to Burton & Ryan (1980:3) only fifty years old, it has become a powerful force in the social and economic lives of people. The impact or effect of television advertisements is according to Krugman (1965:351) substantial and well-documented. Numerous authors note that the mass media and more specifically advertising, mirrors society's values and norms. Amongst these are Dyer (1988:73), Van der Waladt (1988:54), Allen & Hatchett (1986:97), Durand & Lambert (1985:10), Lysonski (1985:37), Manstead & McCulloch (1985:171), Atkin (1984:206), Repetti (1984:458), White (1983:279), Sutherland & Galloway (1981:25) and Burton & Ryan (1980:65).

The economic and social aspects of advertising are separated and for the purpose of this study more emphasis is placed on the impact of the social aspects of advertising on society. The reason is that this thesis' theme and origin derives from the social sciences and not from the economic science.

5.7.1 Economic aspects

Some of the most important economic criticism of advertising is high lighted by Kaufman (1980:495-501), Stanley (1982:176-178), Van Rooyen (1987:37-41) and Russell, Verrill & Lane (1988:638-641). In view of the fact that criticism does not form a major part of the present study, a short summary of these aspects will follow: (i) Advertising adds to the cost of products; (ii) advertising causes consumers to buy products they do not need; (iii) advertising reduces competition and thereby foster monopolies; (iv) advertising creates economic utility, but no consumer utility; (v) advertising is an unnecessary expense, and lastly, (vi) advertising affects the standard of living.

It would be incorrect to isolate the contribution of advertising on economic efficiency from the non-economic effects on society. No answer exists on what the extent of the impact on society is. Sandage & Fryburger (1975:48) say that the power of advertising is not "that great". The foremost variables are the audience's predispositions, beliefs, motives and attitudes. Values largely determine the advertisements consumers see, and

attach meaning to it. Still, against this background, advertisers, agencies and the media, recognize the possible impact advertising may have in influencing society.

5.7.2 Social aspects

Sandage & Fryburger (1975:47) give an explanation of the strong social influence of advertising and classify it with the long-standing institutions such as the church and the school in the magnitude of its influence. This statement received a further dimension by Belk & Pollay (1985:887) where they contend that advertising, more than any other institution, has been responsible for changes in social values.

Television is the teacher of expectations (Novak, 1975:10). That being the case and the televised aforementioned aspects concerning the hundreds of advertising messages that are encountered each day, it could be assumed that the effect on the social level could be of a higher intensity. In the words of Evans (1974:40), advertising is very much a part of the social scene and its growth has been a direct result of changes and developments in society itself. In fact, it is an integral part of man's existence. This statement could be invalid in a true underdeveloped country, where it is difficult to reach large numbers of individuals due to poorly developed infrastructures and technologies.

Consumers, as Eighmey (1988:3) states, do not anxiously await each advertising message. They pay attention only to what interests them. As a result the messages should be constructed in such a manner that the desired outcome could be achieved. According to (Runyon, 1984:250), the goal of advertising is to affect consumer attitudes, thereby converting non-buying individuals into consumers.

The most important social effects of advertising are characterized by the following main trends, as discussed by Kaufman (1980:495-513), Faison (1980:32-52), Aaker & Myers (1987:512-515), Russell, Verrill & Lane (1988:641-650) and Belk & Pollay (1985:888-889).

(i) Advertising is dishonest. It is very difficult to define untruthful advertising, because the line between truth and falsehood is difficult to define. Voluntary control measures in the Republic of South Africa prohibit advertising to make false claims. Ethical matters covering issues such as decency, honesty, religious and racial sensitivities, are covered by the NPU's (National Press Union) code. The SABC has its own code in order to handle dishonest or fraudulent advertising (Sinclair, 1985:112 and Van Rooyen, 1987:43). The Advertising Standards Authority (ASA) of South Africa has a dual purpose: Firstly it lays down criteria for professional conduct and secondly it gives a clear indication of the self-imposed limitations accepted by those who are using advertising, to the general public.

Stanley (1982:180) explains that deceptive advertising caused problems in areas where testimonials were supposedly written by celebrities who have not used the products and have not written the testimonials, misrepresentation and exaggeration in product claims, erroneous impressions created by advertisements and the use of misleading brand names and labels. Faison (1980:41) claims that advertisers use appeals that are neither true nor false, like the use of the open comparative adjective - "it's better"- without specifying to what it is being compared.

(ii) Advertising is too persuasive. The previous chapter explained the persuasive nature of advertisements with the emphasis on the persuasiveness of the message. Some advertisers overdo the persuasive function within the advertising industry (Stanley, 1982:179). Two schools of thought exist, which are known as the "soft-sell" approach and the "hard-sell" approach (Snyder & DeBono, 1985:586). It seems as if the criticisms were directed towards the "hard-sell" approach, even though it may be quite effective for the seller or advertiser. The criteria against which the persuasiveness of an advertisement should be measured, is not specified. On the other hand, the effect of persuasive messages will differ from individual to individual, due to the personality and other internal as well as external variables. Constant exposure to the same advertising messages could also have an effect on the persuasiveness of the advertisement. The persuasiveness of the advertisement further depends on the chosen message strategy.

(iii) Advertising and good taste. The question arises whether advertising offends the sensibilities of people. Russell, Verrill & Lane (1988:642) admit that taste is a subjective matter. Some people regard the advertising of certain products as distasteful, regardless of their presentation. Aaker & Bruzzone (1985:57) confirm this in their research on causes of irritation in advertising. They conclude that the nature of the product itself and its appropriateness in television advertisements accounts for the high levels of irritation associated with certain products.

The criticism is especially intense with regard to television, because the advertisement may intrude the homes of viewers unexpectedly (Faison, 1980:48), with undesired effects. Belch & Belch (1990:735) further state that many parents prefer that advertisements with undue emphasis on sex should not be broadcast when children are present. Most of the criticism here is more applicable to children, because the adult can more easily decide to ignore irritable advertising or even reject information which does not fall into his frame of reference. Much of this criticism is further related to a person's religious convictions. For example, from a Christian conviction it is unacceptable to exploit the female body.

(iv) Advertising and life-style. As has already been indicated, advertising influences the life-style of consumers. The most important aspect here is whether advertising merely creates or reflects the values of the culture and society of which it is part (Stanley, 1982:181 and Belk & Pollay, 1985:888). Greyser (1972:141) explains that advertising not only tends to reflect society's values, but is also one of the leading forces that can accentuate and accelerate these trends.

Dyer (1988:73) affirms that in addition to influencing some values and beliefs of society, advertising interacts with and affects other forms of communication like literature, art and language. An example in this regard could be the butter advertisement of the Dairy Board: "Good, Better, Butter." Here, butter is seen as the "best" spread on bread. By constant exposure to the message, the word "best" is unconsciously imprinted by the

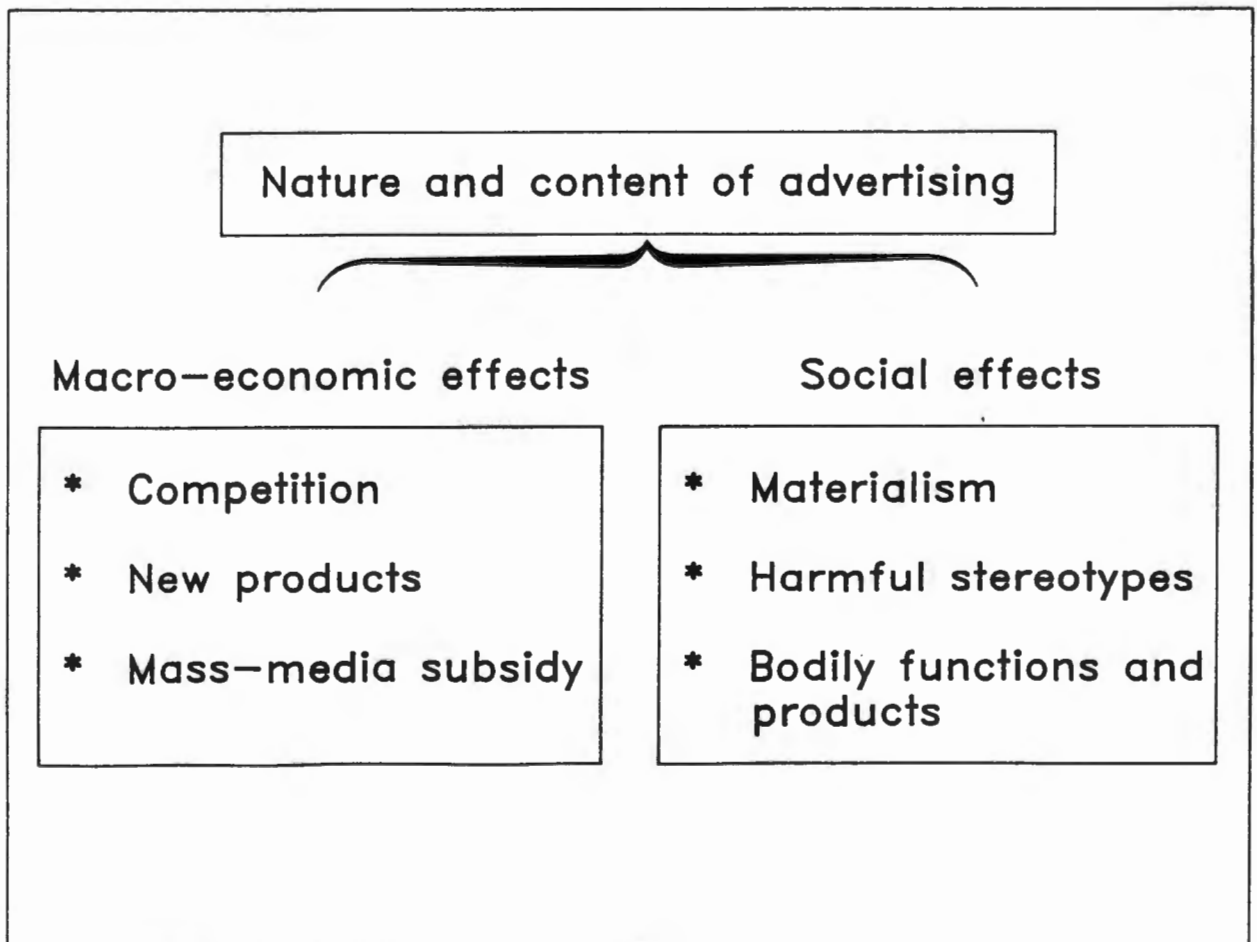
concept "butter".

(v) Advertising destroys the dignity of language. According to Bovee & Arens (1989:46) advertising copywriters violate the grammatical rules of a language to suit their campaign, especially those concerning punctuation and spelling. Consider the following South African example: "Whotalotigot" (What a lot I got) on the Smarties' box.

(vi) Advertising encourages materialism. Advertising has been accused of influencing people to buy products they do not really need. As a result, it encourages materialism according to Bovee & Arens (1989:47) and Belch & Belch (1990:737). In conclusion, in this section, a modified model of Aaker & Myers' (1988:503) structuring of these issues embraces and clarifies all important aspects.

Figure 5.2

Social & economic issues in advertising



According to this classification, both economic and social aspects of advertising and television advertising in particular, depend on the nature of the advertising message.

5.8 TELEVISION ADVERTISING AND STEREOTYPING

A study by Van der Waldt (1986) leads to the subject of non-verbal effects in television advertisements under discussion. In this study it was indicated that the social realities as portrayed by the advertisements on television, are important to the South African advertiser. Van der Waldt (1988:53) found that blacks are more aware and more critical towards these depicted realities. Belk & Pollay (1985:889) indicate that with the lack of death, suffering and hardship in advertising, everyone appears to be perpetually blissful. As a result, advertising has been criticized for the material life it depicts.

Another major point of criticism against advertising, is the fact that theorists say advertising portray people in certain stereotyped roles. These roles vary from sex roles, racial roles, age roles and many more. For the purpose of this study, it was decided to concentrate only on the more popular stereotypes.

5.8.1 Stereotyping minority groups

As early as 1970 Cox (p.41) concluded that the social implications of integrated advertising could no longer be ignored. In the same year Dominick & Greenberg (p.21) affirmed that the television industry had managed to overlook the black American almost entirely.

Numerous studies were conducted during the late 1960s, where the research by Kassarian (1969:29-39) is regarded as the most informative to that date. The 1970s are marked by the studies of Cohen (1970:3-11), Colfax & Sternberg (1972:8-18) and Bush, Solomon & Hair (1977:21-25), amongst others. The later researchers indicate that since Dominick & Greenberg's (1970) findings

it appears that advertisers have made substantial progress in using blacks in roles equal to those played by whites.

During the 1980s Humphrey & Schuman (1984:551-563) made an in-depth study of the portrayal of blacks in advertisements from 1950 to 1982. In their conclusion they stress that whites' attitudes towards blacks in work settings have improved over the three decades and advertisers now portray blacks in equal work status with whites. Baptiste (1986:60-61) finds that the image of the black family as portrayed by television is not as favourable as it should be. Zinkhan, Cox & Hong (1986:568-580), however, disclose notable and positive changes in racial stereotypes in advertisements. More advertisements have blacks and more blacks are in professional role portrayals.

The American texts refer to the portrayal of blacks under the portrayal of "minorities" (Singer, 1986:104). In Southern Africa the situation is quite different, however. Without indulging in politics, blacks are the majority and have a certain majority consumption of specific product categories. Whether blacks are majority mass media consumers in Southern Africa, remains an open question.

On the local South African scene Van der Waldt (1986, 1988 & 1989) indicates that advertisers borrow their ideas from their American counterparts in order to cope with the delicate racial issue in multi-racial television advertisements. Most black actors are in "neutral" roles or in roles that are not threatening, at present.

5.8.2 Stereotyping sex roles

Sex role stereotypes dominate the increasingly active field of stereotype research since the early 1970s (Seiter, 1986:19). Little attention was initially paid to advertising's contribution to sex stereotyping prior to the 1970s, however. Singer (1986:104) says that it was after the advent of the Black Consciousness and Women's Liberation movements that attention was focused not only on these minorities in the media, but specifically on the power of advertising to affect the way people see themselves and the way

they view others. Needless to say, television advertisements are a rich source of information for the social scientist.

Venkatesh (1980:189) affirms that women are historically viewed in the roles of wife, mother, homemaker, hostess, or a single girl, while the roles outside the family, such as a professional worker or career woman, received little attention. With regard to the South African context it seems as if advertisers try to limit the use of sex role stereotypes.

It seems as if most of the recent research on the topic has been influenced by the works of Whipple & Courtney (1980:53-59) and Courtney & Whipple (1983). The majority of these studies concentrated on the manner (or way) of the portrayed sexes. The emphasis on occupational roles, product category associations and sex of voice-over is evidence of this kind of research.

In Brittain the initial research by Manstead & McCulloch (1981:171-180) had a ripple effect on social scientists. It was followed by amongst others Livingstone & Green (1986:149-154) and Harris & Stobart (1986:155-164). It seems that British television advertisements tend to portray men and women in disparate and essentially traditionally stereotyped ways, even in the 1980s. Results in Canada by Rak & McMullen (1987:25) in a separate study also revealed that sex role stereotyping still exists in television advertisements.

Dambrot, Reep & Bell (1988:387-388) report that television sex roles in the 1980s still reflect the following: (i) Men appear more (often) frequently on television than women; (ii) men are more often portrayed as employed in higher status occupations than women; (iii) men are usually portrayed as older than women, and (iv) men are portrayed as more powerful than women. This corresponds with Whipple & Courtney's (1980) and Lysonski's (1985) research findings. The latter explain that women are shown predominantly as housewives and mothers, while men are shown in at least twice as many occupations. From this one could conclude with the assumption that the portrayal of gender roles does not necessarily change over time, or it could

be ascribed to some role portrayals in given cultures. With regard to the South African situation, it seems as if advertisers attempt to portray people from different cultures in equal role portrayals, although this aspect has been neglected in the past.

Defenders of advertising's portrayal of the sexes (Gilly, 1988:75) argue that advertising simply mirrors what is already present in society. Advertising should rather be regarded as being reflective of a culture's sex role norms. Gilly (1988:75) explains that because attitudes towards appropriate roles for women differ among cultures, differences among countries can be expected in the portrayal of woman in advertising. The Xhosa-speaking black consumer has no objection to women working in the maize fields. For the liberated Afrikaans-speaking woman, this would not be acceptable. The above discussion did not include sexism in advertising, merely the stereotyping of different sexes in advertisements. It is not intended to educate the public, as Basson (1988:30) explains, but to emphasize mainly occupational portrayals.

The importance of women in the marketplace, particularly working women, has been neglected for many years (Ferrante, Haynes & Kingsley, 1988:231). Recently, however, advertisers have altered their techniques in an effort to appeal better to women. It is therefore argued that the depicted women's roles in advertisements have not kept pace with women's changing roles in society. Bogart (1988:80) warns about women's changing roles in society and that generalizations about the cultural effects of advertising may be misleading. One should therefore be attentive to misinterpreted findings.

5.8.3 Stereotyping age

As has already been indicated, television advertising has the ability to influence and shape attitudes. In this regard Swayne & Greco (1987:47) argue that television advertisements can play a major role in the socialization of the elderly and in influencing audiences' view of older persons. Barak & Stern (1986:38) acknowledge that age is generally accepted as one of the most important demographic factors influencing product and brand behaviour. They also stress that it appears that the meaning of age

to consumers has been insufficiently examined. Throughout the literature advertising has been criticized for the inferior roles that the aged portray, as well as for the young image advertising creates in order to predict eternal youth. Barak & Stern (1986:45) give an explanation of the consumer's acceptance of youthfulness, which may influence their purchasing decisions. Swayne & Greco (1987:48&50) contend that the majority of elderly people are portrayed in food and health products, and although they may be type-cast or stereotyped in a certain way, they are presented in a favourable way.

It seems that advertisers limit or avoid the inclusion of age-variables in television advertisements, except where it is a necessity to advertise a product specially directed at aged consumers. If the learned stereotype has a negative connotation, the advertising message could be less effective. People only see what they want to see in television advertisements. Tan & Suarchavarat (1988:649) define perception as the process by which an individual selects, organizes and interprets stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world. Bettinghaus (1972:179) explains that when the mass media is used to present a persuasive message, the effects of the message on perception are limited in the same ways that opinion changes are limited. In this regard selective perception operates in a specific way so as to continue the frame of references that individuals already have.

The interpretation (decoding) of marketing information, for that matter the advertising message, hinges according to Van der Walt (1987:295) on the consumer's perception of the communication content. Reibstein (1985:170) argues that perceptions developed through exposure to a stimulus are the result of more than just the stimulus itself. These perceptions are affected by the individual's mood, motives, personality and even the social and physical content of the exposure and other variables.

The presence of the variety of variables pose two major problems to the advertiser (p.170), namely: (i) The way in which consumers develop perceptions as a result of exposure to advertising stimuli is difficult to understand, and (ii) it is not unusual for two individuals who have been

exposed to the same advertising stimuli, to have very different perceptions about the product, and for that matter, the advertisement.

Schiffman & Kanuk (1987:222) explain that the way the advertised product is perceived (also referred to as positioned) is probably more important to its ultimate success than are the actual product characteristics. This view could be extended to the perception of advertising actors as well as variables, such as non-verbal cues. Bettinghaus (1973:179) refers to the study where cartoons were presented to a series of subjects in which ridiculing racial prejudices were presented.

Individuals who exhibited no prejudice perceived the cartoons for what they were. On the other hand, individuals who exhibited racial prejudices, saw the cartoons in a completely different way. This emphasizes the point that prejudice influences the perception of the individual. Selective perception operates in such a manner as to continue the frame of references that individuals already have (Sandage & Fryburger, 1975:237). Van der Walt (1987:296-304) explains in depth the different aspects of the frame of reference which acts as a filter, perceptual defence and the different message content strategies. The latter two authors share the view on the selection of information in order to suit the frame of reference of the individual consumer. These listed stereotypes are some of the most common forms of stereotyping which generally occur in television advertising.

5.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, it is clear that the present discussion and evaluation of semiology and non-verbal codes in pictorial communication reveal a promising contribution to the understanding of consumer behaviour. It also seems, like Haley, Richardson & Baldwin (1984:12) contend, as if non-verbal communication in television advertisements play a key role in consumer research and is clearly worth investigation.

The definition of a sign by Peirce (Eco, 1977:2-9) has certain implications: (i) The notion "sign" is an oversimplification; (ii) the repertoire of a system of sign-function is a code, and (iii) semiology is concerned with ordinary objects in so far as they participate in semiosis. Leiss, Kline & Jhally (1986:165) warn that a purely semiological approach to advertising suffers from a number of weaknesses: (i) It depends on the skill of the individual analyst, and as a result (ii) it does not lend itself to quantification of results, and (iii) it cannot be applied with equal success to all kinds of advertisements. As a result, a pure semiological approach to the study of the effects of non-verbal communication is not recommended. A more useful approach could be an approach where semiological aspects are combined with the communication perspective.

There appears to be widespread controversy between the advertising practitioners and critics as to the usefulness of information communicated through advertising and especially television advertising (Resnik & Stern, 1977:50). It seems as if the debate continues on the role of advertising in society: mirror or agenda setter. Holbrook (1987:95) confirms that advertising should perform the function of accurately reflect - prevailing cultural norms and values in a modern, free society. The repetition of Whipple & Courtney's (1980) research by Oberholzer, Puth & Myburgh (1982) in South Africa revealed a clear indication that the portrayal of sex roles in South African television advertisements showed a similar pattern to findings from studies in other societies.

In some respects the reflection of society by television advertisements is obvious, but in other circumstances it is not. It means more than trying to reflect the situations of everyday life. Advertising does not only mirror how people behave, but also how people dream. Vestergaard & Schroder (1985:117) contend that advertisements construct an imaginary world in which the recipient of the message is able to "make come true those desires which remain unsatisfied in his or her everyday life". It is suggested by Aaker & Bruzzone (1985:47), however, that the consumer's receptivity to advertising depends on the goodwill that is eroded by public dislike of advertising.

A final point of criticism is raised by Dyer (1988:73) in his view that the utopian imagery of advertisements encourages passivity and makes people unaware of the extent to which they are controlled by consumerism and are unable to determine the terms of their own existence. The answer to this criticism could be according to Bogart's (1988:78) standpoint: "Television commercials never intrude distracting and unpleasant touches of reality - nor is there any objective reason they should do so, either in the advertiser's interest or in the social interest. In their idealized representation of what the material world looks like, television commercials reinforce the idea that it is the best of all possible worlds." Van Rooyen (1987:44) rules that it is unfair to single advertising out as the scapegoat that changes values and lifestyles.

Cacioppo, Petty & Morris (1983:805), Snyder & DeBono (1985:586) and Bovee & Arens (1989:49) say that on television alone, viewers are exposed to tens of thousands of advertising messages every year. The analogy by Pollay (1987:107) seems appropriate in this conclusion. Advertisements are compared to raindrops. The individual raindrops are benign and have little, if any, noticeable impact. It can be readily avoided. But, when raindrops abound, people are increasingly likely to get wet and are subjected to attendant risks of discomfort and disease: "In heavy rain individuals become preoccupied, and in extreme conditions overwhelmed, despite the fact that each raindrop by itself is inconsequential."

In this concise review of the portrayal of society in advertising, the following two conclusions can be drawn: (i) Advertising influences society, whether it sets the agenda or merely reflects the present day values within a society. (ii) Advertising does not concentrate on the unpleasant events, but rather stresses generally pleasant and acceptable norms of society. It is therefore important that the non-verbal codes in advertising contribute to the general acceptable norms of society. If it does contribute to the acceptable standards of society, so much larger can the effectiveness of the advertising message be. Consequently, non-verbal codes could positively enhance the impact of the verbal message.

5.10 SUMMARY

Chapter 5 put the study of signs into perspective. The underlying theory of signs helped to clarify the position of non-verbal codes in television advertisements. However, codes (including non-verbal codes) contribute to the portrayal of society through television advertisements.

The next chapter will discuss the milieu in which advertising operates in Southern Africa. Attention will be paid to the complex composition of the consumer.

CHAPTER 6

TELEVISION ADVERTISING IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

6.1 INTRODUCTION

It is evident that large sums of money are spent annually on advertising in this country. De Kock (1982:v) and Van der Waldt (1986:1 & 1990:14) warn that these advertising funds can easily be wasted on advertising missing their objectives. It is therefore vital that advertisements are prepared with the utmost care to avoid the many pitfalls that beset the unwary. According to Anon. (1986b:57), South African advertising is a tiny part in comparison with some of the larger world economies. Van Zyl (1989:12) acknowledges that in some countries the turnover of one agency is bigger than the total advertising expenditure in South Africa. But, also according to the Anon. (1986b:57), this country is the thirteenth largest advertising spender in the world. Besides this fact, advertising time on television in the Republic of South Africa is notably of the cheapest in the world (Baillie, 1987:8 & 1989:26).

The aim of this chapter is twofold: (i) To discuss the development of television advertising in South Africa, and (ii) to explain the difficulties in communicating with the South African consumer market. The chapter concludes with a description of the South African consumer market in the 1990s.

The inclusion of the development of television advertising and the advertising expenditure in South Africa are done to indicate that within the short period since 1978, television advertising has grown into a major

industry. It also shows the increasing media share and expenditure as opposed to the other media in South Africa.

The South African consumer market is regarded as a heterogeneous and complex composition of individuals. Van Zyl (1989:12) acknowledges these difficulties and explains that South Africa is undeniably the most difficult country in which to create advertising. The discussion of the South African consumer is an attempt to indicate some of these problematic areas.

6.2 THE INTRODUCTION OF TELEVISION ADVERTISING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Monday January 5, 1976 was marked by the official transmission of television programmes by the South African Broadcasting Corporation. It was two years later, however, that advertising first appeared on television. On January 2, 1978 the first advertisement appeared on the SABC's television service. According to Sinclair (1985:39), the manufacturers of Big T Burgers, Table Top, paid in excess of R15 000 for that slot in a sealed auction. Much has changed since the introduction of that first advertisement on television.

According to Erasmus (1981:60) the South African television services are characterized by the following landmarks : (i) Television 1 (TV1) is a bilingual channel, with an equal division of alternating Afrikaans and English programmes, (ii) Television 2 (TV2) and Television 3 (TV3), which were introduced on January 1, 1982, initially used the same channel. The mediums of instruction on TV2 are mainly two Nguni languages, Zulu and Xhosa. The predominantly Sotho languages, Northern Sotho, South Sotho and Tswana, are transmitted on TV3. (iii) On April 1, 1986 TV4 was introduced from 21:00 on the same channel as TV2 and TV3 (Basson, 1986:23-24).

The above-mentioned landmarks are refined in various ways. Other influences, such as simulcasting - dubbed programmes broadcast on television simultaneously with the original soundtrack on radio - started on September 1, 1986 (Anon., 1986c:41). During 1986 further changes followed. The SABC allowed television programme sponsorships at a loaded fee, a relaxation of

its 50:50 English/Afrikaans ruling and the introduction of M-Net (Electronic Media Network), the first subscription television station, which is funded and administrated by a consortium, comprising the Press Publishers.

The year 1987 was marked by the introduction of the SABC's programme Good Morning South Africa (GMSA), a breakfast television (Baillie, 1987:9) and the consistently earlier starting times in the afternoons, which are part of the trend towards a 24-hour television service.

The controversial introduction of advertisements during programmes also happened in 1987. Tomes (1987:11) argues quite correctly that the effect of an advertisement placed within a programme is far greater than that of one placed between programmes. The criticism from the South African viewers came, however, because the SABC initially cut the programmes at random, which annoyed the viewers. Had the advertising interruptions been slowly phased in and with carefully edited cuts, it would have had a far less emotive response from the viewers (Tomes, 1987:11).

It seems as if television advertising in South Africa were rigidly controlled by the SABC, with advertisers hardly able to make inputs in this regard. It further seems as if the weakening of the economy and the increased advertising time available with TV4, breakfast television and the introduction of M-Net, forced the SABC TV to switch to a more market-orientated system. Anon. (1986c:41 & 1987d:56) supports this statement.

During 1990 the SABC obtained the rights to transmit programmes from Cable News Network (CNN) during lunch hours. Since the beginning of the War in the Gulf on January 17, 1991, the SABC had continuously transmitted the news events received by CNN. On January 24, this year, the SABC announced several changes in its structures in order to make the co-operation more market-orientated.

6.3 ADVERTISING EXPENDITURE IN SOUTH AFRICA

Against the background of inflation, disinvestment and the falling value of the rand, it looks as if advertising expenditure in South Africa were still growing. During 1988 the total expenditure was 25,7% higher than 1987's R1,03 milliard, bringing the amount spent during 1988 to R1,29 milliard (De Klerk, 1989:9). Table 6.1 gives an overview of the expenditure from 1979 to 1988. Figures were adopted from Louw (1989:30), De Beer (1986:54-57), Anon. (1987a:9) and Lindsay Smithers - FCB Holdings (Pty) (1991a).

Table 6.1
Advertising expenditure in RSA 1979-1990

Year	Rands in millions
1979	289
1985	737
1986	820
1987	1,003
1988	1,290
1989	1,549
1990	1,845

Although some of these figures differ from source to source, it gives a clear indication that there is an upward trend in advertising expenditure, against factors such as inflation, higher GST (general sales tax) and the segmentation of the markets. When one analyses the expenditure trend further, it seems that Louw (1989:30) is correct in his statement that television increased its expenditure to the cost of the printed media. Table 6.2 gives a summarized outline of how the media share had changed between 1978 and 1990. In this table the information is compiled from Louw (1989:30), De Beer (1986:54-57) and Lindsay Smithers - FCB Holdings (Pty) (1991b).

Table 6.2
Television share in South Africa
1979 - 1990

Year	% of the media share
1979	17,4%
1985	28,5%
1986	31,5%
1987	32,7%
1988	34,3%
1989	31,0%
1990	33,2%

According to this table, it seems as if television gradually increased its share in the media expenditure. It is further anticipated by Louw (1989:30) that television's share could increase to more than 50% of the advertising expenditure in the next decade. It seems as if the share of the press were declining (Hobbs, 1987:56-57). Hobbs further states that no medium has been able to "outperform" television in terms of reducing the cost of delivering audiences to advertisers. It could well be that newspapers are becoming almost primarily a retail medium, with television taking over the role as the major mass medium. At this stage it is mere speculation as to how long this trend is to continue. Table 6.3 outlines the growth of television viewers by All Media and Product Surveys (AMPS, 1989:66-69).

Table 6.3
Growth in television viewers
1988 - 1989

	July/August 1988	February/March 1989
TV1 (20:00 - 21:00)	2 823 000	2 869 000
M-Net (1st hour open time)	734 000	1 100 000

With the previous three figures (Tables 1, 2 and 3) in mind, it could well be true that television will ultimately be the most efficient advertising

medium, although for a big percentage of the population this medium is still inaccessible. Baillie (1989:24) mentions that by March 1989 there were a television set in 93% of all white households, as opposed to 28% of all black households. When one analyses the sales figures of television sets during 1988/1989, however, it becomes evident that more than 55% of the 362 000 television sets were bought by blacks. It could be anticipated that this figure/trend will continue to grow with the population and as electricity becomes more accessible to the black population.

Barenblatt & Sinclair (1989:156) in Table 6.4 give the claimed viewership figures and the advertising expenditure for the year ending October 1988. From this it is clear that TV1 is still the most popular channel, followed by TV4. It is also for this reason that the advertisements for the sample were drawn from these two channels. M-Net is in the third place with a viewership of more than two million.

Table 6.4
Claimed yesterday viewership
October 1988

	Viewers	Spent in rands
TV1	4 913 000	234 053 683
TV2	1 422 000	51 654 334
TV3	1 349 000	
TV4	2 045 000	52 723 627
BOP TV	178 000	3 430 978
M-NET	2 018 000	48 987 837
SWAZI TV	2 000	

6.4 THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONSUMER

In Chapter 2 it has been indicated that advertising is a unique communication system. In order to put all the elements of advertising into the communication system, it is appropriate to explain the recipient of the advertising message in order to cover all the elements. In this instance the receiver of various advertising messages is the South African consumer.

Amidst wide speculation whether or not the different consumers should be divided by their skin colour, geo-segmentation, culture or income level, it seems as if advertisers have difficulty in anticipating First World values in a Third World country. With this introduction in mind, it is clear that differences and difficulties occur in the description of the South African consumer. Within the boundaries of this country it seems as if the market were heterogeneous, and difficult to define: "...this is a market that virtually defies description" (Sinclair, 1985:56). It is a country with more than twenty-two different languages: English, Afrikaans, Zulu, Xhosa, Venda, North Sotho, Tswana, Tsonga, Shangaan, Swazi, Ndebele, Hindi, Tamil, Gugerati, Telegu, Urdu, Chinese and a few European languages, of which the major ones are Greek, German, Portuguese, Dutch and Italian. The racial split according to Barenblatt & Sinclair (1989:45) is shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5
South African population

		Black	White	Asian	Coloured	Total
Total in millions		26,7	4,9	0,9	3,1	35,6
Profile	(%)	75,0	13,8	2,5	8,7	100,0
Females	(%)	50,8	50,4	50,4	51,0	50,8
Males	(%)	49,2	49,6	49,6	49,0	49,2
Urban	(%)	34,1	89,6	93,4	77,8	46,9
Rural	(%)	65,9	10,4	6,6	22,2	53,1
Under 14	(%)	42,8	24,4	33,1	35,7	39,4
15-64	(%)	54,2	67,3	64,1	60,8	56,8
65+	(%)	3,0	8,3	2,8	3,5	3,8

According to Barenblatt & Sinclair (1989:45) the present population could be an estimated 35,6 million, with blacks constituting more than 75% of the population. Whites constitute 14%, coloureds 9% and Asians 3%. It is therefore acceptable to reason that the black market can no longer be ignored. In the words of a black research director, Mike Maisela (Sinclair, 1985:61) "Because of its developing nature, it (the black market) is

regarded as the potential and real market, while opinion has it that the White market has reach saturation point." Kessel (1987:29) confirms this with her statement that people realize too that the balance of spending power now lies with blacks. Anon. (1985b:6) indicates that it is important to recognize the black market as the market of the future and that black buying power cannot be ignored.

Farquhar (1986:7) anticipates that by the year 2000 most of the black people will be young and earning high incomes, with the larger proportion urbanized, eager to buy those products which make for better living. Baillie (1989:24) refines this argument further with the assumption that the single biggest market segment in the 1990s will be the young blacks. Because of various reasons, such as the standard of education, most of these young blacks are going to be illiterate.

The SABC's Network Programme (August 16, 1990) revealed that more than three million blacks in Soweto alone are illiterate. This means that they are inevitably going to be the television viewers and the radio listeners, because they are unable to read newspapers or magazines. Lascaris (1989:16) also affirms Baillie's view. Due to this assumption, it is the present study's viewpoint that perceptions of non-verbal variables will necessarily have an impact on these "illiterate" viewers.

Oosthuizen (personal interview: April 17, 1991) reveals that an alarming 50% and more of the black population in South Africa is illiterate, in the sense that they cannot read or write. The figure is even more alarming in the black work force, where more than 60% is illiterate. With these figures, it is evident that the advertisers should be more attentive to the use of non-verbal codes in advertising in order to reach this illiterate mass successfully. As a result, existing well known and accepted signs and symbols will have to be enhanced to its full capacity in the new South Africa.

The demographic features of South Africa, according to the Central Statistical Services (April 1990), are presented in Table 6.6:

Table 6.6
Demographic features of the RSA

Race group	% of the population
Whites	16,7
Coloureds	10,6
Asians	3,1
Blacks	69,6
Total	100,00

Von Ulmenstein (1990:2) affirms that the black population currently numbers 28 million and anticipates that it will grow to 37 million in the next ten years. It is estimated that blacks will constitute 78% of the population and whites only 11% by the year 2000. In addition, the bulk of purchasers in three out of four AMPS categories are black (AMPS, 1989:87-90). According to these demographic features, the question arises whether there still is a "white" market?

6.5 FIRST WORLD VERSUS THIRD WORLD MARKET

Up to this point the discussion has centered around the issue of a black consumer market within a mainly westernized economic context. The aim here is to give a view of how advertising should be seen in the 1990s. This view is assisted mainly by the views of Lascaris (1987:39-40), Bates Wells (1985:13) and Corder (1986:14-17).

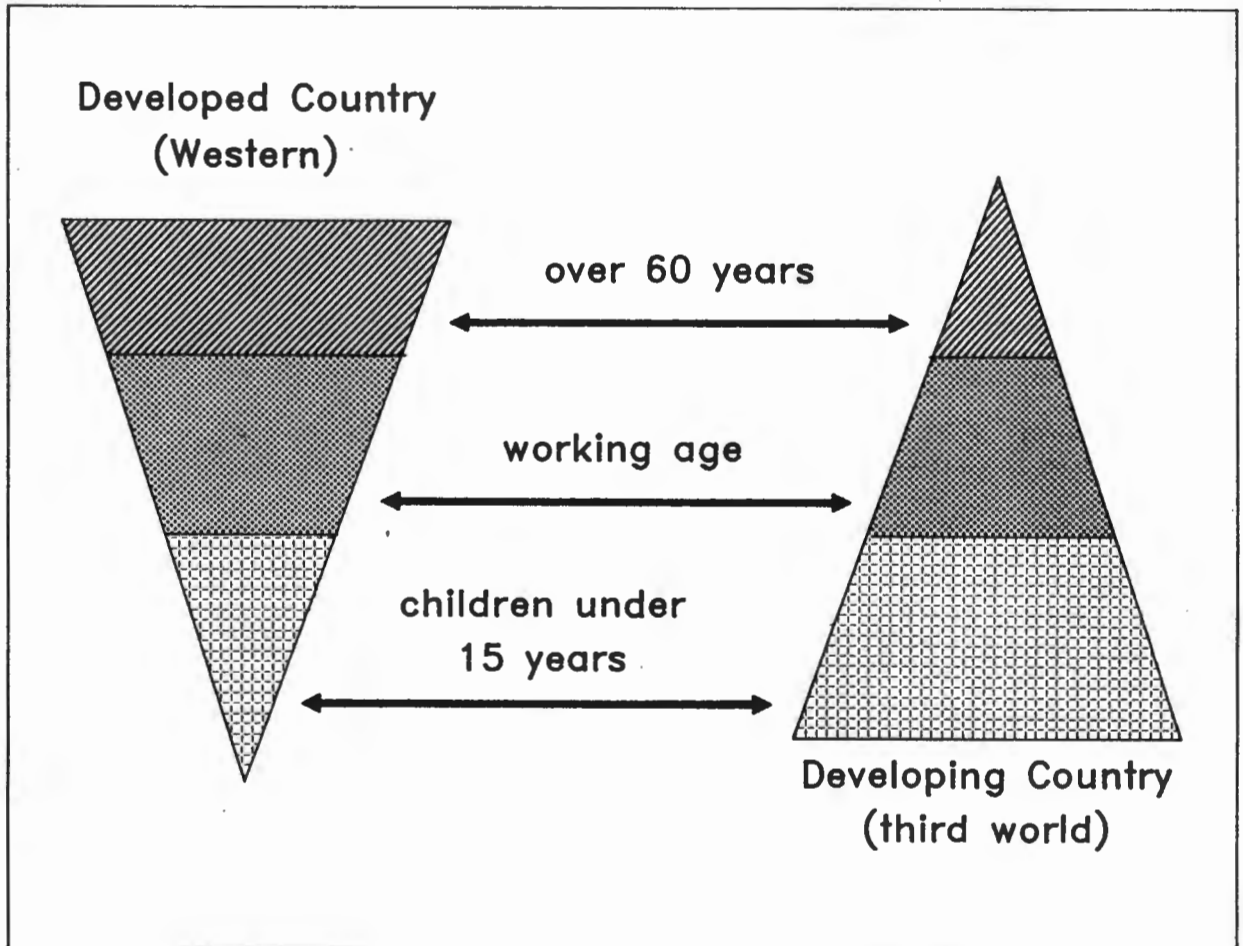
Jefkins (1982:710) explains that typical marketing problems (Jefkins, 1982:7-10) in the Third World include the elitist minorities and the population triangle. Under the elitist minorities there is a minority of well-to-do and middle-class people who form the educated, well-off urban

minority who are often "westernized". In most developing countries elitist may not represent more than 20% of the population. This percentage also represents the literate minority; people able to interpret the advertising message. It could be argued here that the non-verbal messages could more easily be interpreted, whilst the verbal message in an alien language could cause misinterpretation. This is due to the fact that one can understand some signs and symbols of a stranger who speaks a foreign language, though his language is incomprehensible.

The population triangle is the second important problem, which in a way is very different from the typical Western society. Western societies have ageing populations with more old people of increasingly higher age and fewer young people. According to Jefkins (1982:8) it is often true that 50% of the population in a developing country are under 15 years of age. The result is obvious. Half of the population have no income and are outside the market for most advertised products. Although half of this population do not have the means to purchase, it is important to direct the advertising message to them, since they are the buyers of tomorrow. This is especially relevant in the South African context where it is anticipated that the consumer of the 1990s is the young black mass. A further implication is that the mass market does not exist as it does in the developed countries, because 75% of the population who read the popular press, watch television and buy mass consumer products, are the working class.

Television is an elitist medium in many developing countries (Jefkins, 1982:8), whereas it is a mass medium in developed countries. Here the intelligentsia may despair. Figure 6.1 explains the population triangle in a developed and a developing country.

Figure 6.1
Population triangle



The simplistic distinction between "developed" and "undeveloped" countries is biased, unfair and in the terms of Schoeman (1987:178), often misleading. An analysis in South Africa of both white (Anon., 1987b:11) and black (Von Ulmenstein, 1987:85-89) markets reveals that trends are more or less the same for both race groups. The following two social trends are evident in both groups: (i) National identity: This trend measures the pride of South Africans in that they regard themselves as South Africans first, before being English, Afrikaans or Zulu. (ii) Familism, where family ties are important. People feel that family members should have close ties with each other and spend their time together, as well as rely on the family as a hedge against anxiety.

Blacks have another three social trends, according to Von Ulmenstein (1987:89): (i) Anti-bigness, a requirement for blacks to participate in decisions affecting their jobs and the utilization of profits. (ii) The desire for an organized community. There is a feeling that community members should solve the problems of the community. (iii) Rigidity, a desire to do things in the way in which they have always been done and to use products and brands they have always been using.

The implication is that it seems more difficult to introduce new products and ideas through advertising for blacks as opposed to whites. The introduction of new ideas, products or even advertisements in general are usually perceived with mixed reactions, irrespective of race.

Whites on the other hand, have three other different social trends (Anon., 1987b:11), viz: (i) Protestant ethics: According to this classification, self-denial is good for the family, country and future, and work is a virtue and builds strength of character. (ii) Secure future: As a whole, white South Africans are optimistic about the future of the country. Against the background that citizens leave the country, 74% of South African adults see themselves living here five years hence. (iii) Self-improvement: The desire people have to develop their abilities by improving their qualifications.

Given these social trends of South Africans during the 1980s, it is possible to draw certain differences between the First and Third World. Under the concept First World consumer, it is understood that the consumer is more westernized in the sense that their habits, life-styles and behaviours are more in line with the Western culture. The Third World consumer is a person with a more traditional life-style, with traditional customs and habits.

This complicates the selection of non-verbal codes which are commonly shared by most cultures in South Africa, since each culture also has its own unique set of non-verbal codes which are not commonly known to other cultures.

Anon. (1986e:11) reveals that no matter how one analyzes advertising, it remains a tool of the conspicuous consumption life-style, which is an inherent part of the Western culture, and as such advertising is at the center of the free enterprise system (Anon., 1986d:3). This being the case, most advertising campaigns have been created and executed from a Western or First World view for a mainly traditional or Third World consumer. It could be argued that most television advertisements are created mainly for the westernized (First World) audience, because they are the ones with electricity and viewing patterns of the Western consumer. But, when one analyzes the buying behaviour of the upcoming black market, one has to give credit to Bernstein's (1987:12) view that the total communication approach can be a mine field. It is argued by Anon. (1985a:8) that South African audiences had to adapt rapidly to the language of television since the commencement of commercial television in 1977. Language aspects such as the fast cuts, dissolves, flashbacks, dream sequences and parallel action, are commonly in thirty second spots.

Contradicting views are held by (i) Farquhar (1986:7), where he states that too much advertising is produced for a "white" intelligence level, resulting in a high wastage factor as it flows outward into the South African First/Third World heterogeneous market. (ii) Anon. (1986e:11) states that traditional advertising techniques are often too sophisticated for the majority of Third World communities to be successful. (iii) The advertiser must learn to adapt today's communication techniques to the reality of life which is found at the end of the market spectrum in which the black consumer has to survive (Farquhar, 1987:8). Lastly (iv) Lascaris (1987a:10) claims some First World standards will have to be replaced by Third World strategies. It is suggested by Lascaris that South Africans should look towards the strategies used in Brazil, rather than to those which are popular in Western Europe and America.

This change in strategy does not need to be a change in quality. As Farquhar (1986b:7) states, South African advertising, taken on average, is amongst the best in the world. The technical quality has been acclaimed all over the world and the hope is expressed that this will continue.

6.6 A SEPARATE WHITE MARKET?

The debate on this issue continues, as Corder (1986:14) advocates that South Africa has a different sort of marketing mix. The present thesis holds that this statement had to be taken one step further in that it would be incorrect to compare this market to that of a pure westernized or a pure Third World country. In fact, this market is unique in many ways (Anon., 1987a:14).

Mafuna (Barenblatt & Sinclair, 1989:39) categorically denies the fact that black and white consumers are the same. Von Ulmenstein (1987:85) also indicates that although the values and life-styles of the upper strata of urban blacks have become highly westernized, it does not mean that their attitudes to life and products have become similar to those of their white counterparts.

Koekemoer (1985:18) advocates that blacks are sensitive to being treated differently to whites. They want to be treated like human beings and intensely dislike being ignored. In other words, they should be seen in the same way marketers or advertisers see white consumers. This view is strengthened by Shipley's (1986:15) argument that blacks do not take kindly to marketing or advertising strategies that address them as blacks as opposed to simply consumers.

It seems as if views on the black market were contradicting. A possible solution (Van der Waldt, 1988:50 and Anon., 1986a:50) could be to approach the black consumer market from both a First and Third World angle. Most important is the fact that racial considerations should not be a criteria. In this regard Shipley (1986:15) and Anon. (1987e:19) explain that the problem with many advertisers and marketers is that they base market segmentation on the colour of the consumer's skin, not on whether or not the person has the ability to take up the offer being made. An important point to add to this classification, however, is provided by the fact that people of different skin colours have the same level of sophistication. These people have the same aspirations.

6.7 ADVERTISING IN A POST APARTHEID SOCIETY

Looking back on the discussion in this chapter, it appears that the South African consumer is unique in many ways. Given this background, one could anticipate that the role of advertising in the Republic of South Africa is adapting itself for a post apartheid society. This process started when models of different race groups were introduced in advertising. In many respects advertising was the trend-setter for the racial change. Von Ulmenstein (1990:4) contends that since 1980 certain advertisements were designed to prepare South Africans for an integrated future.

February 2, 1990 has been a watershed date in the South African history. State President F.W. de Klerk announced a number of political changes, such as the unbanning of the African National Congress (ANC) and the release of Mr. Nelson Mandela. These changes are only the beginning and it is anticipated that true integration of the different cultures in South Africa should be evident before the end of this century. Unfortunately, according to Von Ulmenstein (1990:4), advertisers and marketers appear not to have understood the ramifications of these political changes or to have adapted Third World marketing and advertising strategies accordingly. Over forty years of apartheid social engineering, as Burgess (1990:4) explains, has seriously influenced the South African social and cultural institutions. As a result, South Africa may be best known for its inability to come to terms with its cultural diversity. For many South Africans the pace of change is too fast, while for others it is too slow. The shift in the major political players makes a prediction of the future difficult. Kellas (1990:1) says that South Africans are living in a time of turbulent change. Corder (1990:1) explains that South Africans are in a time-wrap and Rose (1990:2) concludes that South Africa is in a state of flux.

The socio-political and socio-economical context in which advertising functions, influences the advertising decisions which are to be taken. How the new South Africa will appear, is at this stage an open question. Certain assumptions are put forward in order to anticipate how this change might influence the advertising industry in a post apartheid society.

Assumption 1: Inflation and unrest will continue to be part of the existing consumerism in South Africa on the short term. Because of this uncertainty, consumer boycotts and stay-aways could lead to politicized consumerism. On the medium to long term, all industrial countries may eventually lift their sanction policies, due to the reform initiatives by the State President, Mr. De Klerk. This could lead to new marketing and advertising possibilities, because local advertisers could then follow global marketing techniques and strategies. These techniques and strategies should then be adjusted for the South African situation.

Assumption 2: In order to accommodate the majority of the population in the advertising system, the character of advertisements will have to become more Third World orientated. To reach the illiterate and uneducated masses, the message has to be more perceptive to them. This does not mean that the quality and expertise should be of an inferior standard. In this regard the carefully planned visual sign, symbol or non-verbal cue, could help to overcome the problem of illiteracy. It is anticipated that existing well-known brand names will continue to exist and even be more imprinted, and that the unknown and unpopular brand names will disappear. The demand will be more for everyday consumer products, than for luxury items. Abrahamse (1990:28) stresses that between thirty and forty per cent of South Africa's urban black population are currently under and unemployed. It is therefore evident that the majority of South Africans would purchase everyday consumer items.

Assumption 3: Advertisers, communicologists and marketers will have to move away from a racially segmented approach. Presently, it seems that race as a demographic variable still dominates the segmentation strategies. This does not mean that race as a sub-culture does not exist. This aspect will always be a factor in segmentation. However, it is evident that more racially integrated advertisements will have to reflect the changing social environment of South Africa. Strydom (personal interview: April 16, 1991), Smit (personal interview: April 16, 1991) and Kronenburg (personal interview: April 16, 1991) affirm this statement.

Assumption 4: People of all races with the same level of sophistication consume the same products, because their aspirations are the same. They can therefore be reached by the same media. This assumption could help in the segmentation of a market. It is the present researcher's view that segmentation by consumption should be the recommended method in this country.

Assumption 5: The South African market of the 1990s will consist mainly of urbanized people. Simkins (1990:59) explains that an estimated 39 per cent of the total black population are living in metropolitan areas. When the metropolitan area is combined with the proclaimed urban areas in South Africa, fifty per cent of the black population are urbanized. For them the ethnical heritage will not be very important, and as a result of this, it would be fatal to concentrate on the cultural differences in the market. The emphasis should rather be on cultural similarities.

Assumption 6: The use of more black, coloured and Asian expertise will become more evident in the advertising industry. Their creativity from a Third World perspective will eventually become the norms by which advertising will be judged. This does not mean that the standard or quality will necessarily be lowered. It is a change in perspective, not a change in quality.

Assumption 7: Advances in communication technology will initially not be accepted in the developing market. The newly urbanized person may not understand, use or enjoy the new technology used for advertising, due to a lack of education, experience and finance. Since the majority of the population is illiterate and uneducated, it would on the short term be best to continue to use traditional ways to advertise. By this it is understood that above-the-line and below-the-line media be used to its full potential. The compact disk and beltel could, for example, be too sophisticated for the market of the near future, since the emphasis moves away from the First World to the Third World.

Assumption 8: The believability and credibility of the media will be under suspicion, due to restrictive government legislation. Since advertising is the life-blood of the media, it can play a major role in creating a trustworthy media. It is anticipated therefore that the social role of advertising will develop more rapidly on the short term, because advertising is the heart of the free enterprise system. Only through a credible source and medium will the consumer be able to make an objective, logical and intelligent decision in the face of advertising.

Assumption 9: The present content and programme character of television will change in order to accommodate the illiterate mass consumer. It is therefore anticipated that the existing four channels on the SABC TV will change. The main emphasis on programme content will be to educate this illiterate mass consumer. In order to survive as a mass medium, additional channels will be created to fulfil the other characteristics of the mass media, namely to inform and to entertain. This will open new advertising opportunities.

Assumption 10: The traditional status of the television medium will adjust to the specific needs of society. Given the facts in the previous assumption (9), more subscription television channels will emerge. The sophisticated and intelligentsia's needs will have to be satisfied by alternative viewing on television. Domestic satellite television could fill the need for this segment of the population - again new opportunities for the advertiser. The preferences of the mass viewers will have to be accommodated in a diversity of programmes. This could open doors for a more specialized medium as well as the traditional mass medium.

Assumption 11: As language is an integral part of the elements that contribute to the success or failure of an advertisement in conveying the desired message, it is anticipated that a "common" language will be most appropriate in the diversity of language groups. Coates & Sekgapane (1990:21) and Von Ulmenstein (1990:4) anticipates that English is likely to be the common advertising language. The dubbing of advertising texts will be minimized, with the increasing use of English as a means of communication

in an attempt to reach the diversity of consumers. However, with regard to television, it is anticipated that the strict 50/50 rule for the official languages will gradually become more flexible.

Assumption 12: As indicated, advertising creates an imaginative reality in which to create needs and wants. The non-verbal elements in this imaginative reality should be of such a nature that it addresses the young black mass, since this is the major consumer target of the 1990s. These non-verbal elements should also be of a true South African nature in order to play an even more important role in the transformation of the present society to a New South Africa.

To conclude, it seems as if the traditional views of advertising for, through and by the Western consumer will have to make room for an alternative perspective. Third World views on advertising will necessarily be the order of the day. Increasingly more ideas, creativity, strategies and idioms from the Third World will have to be incorporated in the advertising of tomorrow and especially television advertising. The advertiser needs to be not preoccupied with ideas, ideologies, prejudices, values and norms of a given group, culture or society. This could lead to stereotypes and misinterpretations of reality.

6.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The debate of the South African market still continues. One aspect remains, however, namely that the single biggest market segment in the South African population in the 1990s will be the young black consumer. This means that they will inevitably be television viewers and radio listeners, because the majority will be illiterate. According to Lascaris (1989:24) the mediums of the 1990s and the future will be television and the radio.

Against this background television advertising within the South African context has dynamic and challenging prospects. As a result, the possibilities of non-verbal communication in a changing environment

(First/Third World character) is even more challenging.

Given the background of this chapter, it seems possible that people from different cultural backgrounds will endeavour to create the "ultimate" advertisement to overcome the First/Third World approach to television advertising. In order to explain South African consumers' reactions towards the present trends in television advertising, the researcher should investigate the following variables:

(i) The comprehensibility of the advertising message. Different people read different meanings into an advertisement. The aim from the advertiser's viewpoint, is to convey the same meaning to all receivers.

(ii) Since South Africa is in a state of flux, it is possible that different target groups, cultures and individuals will not identify with the advertised product or the codes which are used in order to advertise these elements. Research has indicated that if one can identify with a certain product or service or even the events in the advertisement, it is easier to persuade the individual (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 1986:212). Memela (1990:11) affirms that blacks who do not know and recognize themselves on television screens, cannot possibly identify with white-created advertisements.

(iii) The acceptability of the advertisement as a whole by all individuals could enhance the effectiveness of the advertisement. South Africa consists of different religious, cultural, race and language groups. The advertisement should be acceptable to all these sub-groupings and should not offend any sensibilities.

(iv) Culture-specific aspects in the advertisement should be addressed. Related to the above discussion, culture-specific aspects in the advertisement may not be acceptable for all sub-groupings. The South-African advertiser should be sensitive

towards these aspects. The emphasis should also be on the product or service which is to be advertised and not only on the consumer who uses it. This will be an attempt to enhance the perceptiveness of the non-verbal elements that contribute to both the product and the consumer.

(v) The aims of advertising are to inform, persuade or to do both. The ultimate aim is to change the attitude of the consumer favourably towards the advertised product. In the past, attention has been paid to strict verbal forms of persuasion. More attention should be paid to the persuasive nature of non-verbal elements within the South African context, because of the over-emphasizing of the persuasiveness of the verbal message in the past.

6.9 SUMMARY

It is evident that many pitfalls exist and the advertiser has to consider the multi-cultural composition of the South African consumer in order to communicate effectively. The implication is that an advertiser should attempt to use both verbal and non-verbal elements which are acceptable to the target market in advertising.

This chapter also concludes the theoretical part of the thesis. Chapter 7 deals with the research method and the different procedures, statistics and methods which were followed in order to obtain the results of the analyses.

CHAPTER 7

THE EFFECTS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION IN TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS: METHOD

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding literature study it was indicated that research on non-verbal communication in television advertisements is a relatively young field of interest. Stewart & Hecker (1988:255) affirm and conclude on this issue the following: "Systematic research on non-verbal communication is only about twenty years old, and rather little of that research has occurred in advertising settings." In the theoretical background against which non-verbal communication in television advertisements were formulated in the present study, a number of allegations and assumptions were made about the state of non-verbal communication in television advertising. These assumptions were tested in this empirical section.

7.2 METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES IN NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

Within the Social Sciences one can distinguish among at least three kinds of research activities, viz discovery, proof and illustration. Scherer & Ekman (1985:15) state that the role of these three is seen very differently. The methodology and techniques that are most appropriate for these research activities, are rather diverse.

Scherer & Ekman (1985:16) maintain that two important aspects need to be discussed in order to make the appropriate choice of methodology on the basis of the purpose of the research approach. Firstly, field versus

laboratory research: Within non-verbal communication research the term field is used to refer to "the typical settings of human behaviour, such as living-rooms, schools, public places and a myriad of other social settings which our daily behaviour is situated. The field is any setting that is not a laboratory" (Scherer & Ekman, 1985:16). The laboratory approach has to be used for studies in which instruments for the direct measurement of particular aspects of non-verbal communication are to be used. The choice between these research methods depends on the interest of the researcher and the nature of the question to be asked. Secondly, the researcher has to pay attention to naturally occurring versus arranged behaviour. This should not be confused with the distinction between field and laboratory methods. The cited authors (p.17) recommend that artificiality is always a problem in behavioural research and is just as likely to be found in the field as in the laboratory.

Argyle (1972:244) points out that there is a dilemma about experimental research, which is sometimes impossible to evade. In order to test certain hypotheses, it is necessary to set up particular experimental conditions. These experimental conditions may not be true to real-life behaviour, which in turn may influence the possibility to achieve both internal and external validity at the same time.

Despite the disadvantages of artificial behaviour and the use of audio-visual recordings of behaviour, it is becoming more and more frequent in the analysis of non-verbal communication. Scherer & Ekman (1985:29) point out a few advantages: The possibility of replaying and observing a sequence of behaviour over and over, the viewing of behaviour in slow motion, of doing microscopic frame-by-frame analysis, of using the material for judgement studies and to obtain a permanent record so that it enables one to measure, through repeated passes, many more aspects of behaviour than can possibly be measured in the one real-time pass possible when no record is obtained. Schmalensee (1983:51) suggest that the effects of non-verbal variables in advertising be measured through empirical work and experiments.

Since the present study is exploratory in nature, with the ultimate goal of exploring a relatively unknown research area, certain growing pains were encountered. Due to these issues, the research was carefully designed and selected. The analyses of relevant literature emphasize three important variables which influenced the present survey. The first is the use of effect studies on the influence of non-verbal communication in television advertisements. The second is the measurement of response attitudes towards non-verbal variables in television advertisements. Lastly, it is the testing of respondent reactions towards specific non-verbal elements in television advertisements.

7.2.1 Effect study

Due to the social and psychological context in which research takes place, a study of the effects of non-verbal communication in television advertisements on consumers per definition has been eliminated. Because of the exposure to various other factors, the determination of causality is impossible.

7.2.2 Consumer attitudes

The measurement of consumer attitudes per se towards non-verbal communication was not considered because of the following two reasons: (i) In the first instance the process of perception of advertising takes place against the background of a fast changing socio-political and socio-economical milieu. The result is that the individual's attitude towards a phenomenon changes quickly. (ii) Secondly, marketers have found that attitudes and personality characteristics of individuals have been responsible for declaring only 10% of the consumer behaviour variance (Basson, 1986:229).

7.2.3 Consumer reactions towards specific advertisements

As a result of the so-called halo-effect (Halley-Wright, 1991:2), where reactions would be coloured by previous experience with that product, it was decided to test the respondents' attitudes towards existing television advertisements. According to the halo-effect, the reaction of the respondent would have been contaminated by the positive experience of the

product or service. The purpose was to gain first-hand knowledge of existing depictions of non-verbal communication elements in television advertisements. It was also decided not to test the respondents' reactions towards fictitious products or services.

7.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

In order to obtain the best results, the practical feasibility and the objectives of this research necessitated the use of descriptive survey. The size of the sample, the fact that stimulus material was used and the objectives, influenced this decision. The procedure during the actual survey made it difficult to handle big groups, due to the short duration of a class period. Leedy (1985:133-172) and Wimmer & Dominick (1983:108-123) explain that the descriptive survey attempts to document current conditions or attitudes i.e. an attempt to describe what exists at the moment. The aim of the present thesis was to analyze existing effects of non-verbal elements in television advertisements.

Mouton & Marais (1989:43) indicate that the aims of exploratory studies, such as the present study, may vary quite considerably, and that two important considerations should be borne in mind when selecting a research design: (i) To follow an open and flexible research strategy and (ii) various methods could be used to achieve the best results. The best guarantee for the completion of an exploratory study is to be found in the researcher's willingness to examine new ideas and suggestions and to be open to new stimuli.

Christman (1980:193) explains that statistical inference can be a powerful tool in the interpretation of data gathered from the empirical study of non-verbal communication. It allows the researcher to introduce rules in the interpretation procedure in order to avoid reliance on one's own interpretation or impression of the data. It further allows the researcher to exercise a degree of objectivity in interpreting the results of his study.

7.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

For the purpose of this study advertising was explained and founded within the communication paradigm. Within this paradigm all components of the communication system received attention. The advertising message has been identified as the variable which carries both verbal and non-verbal elements of communication. Marais & Mouton (1989:43) say that hypotheses tend to develop as a result of exploratory research, rather than the research being guided by hypotheses. As indicated in Chapter 1 (under 1.5 Objectives), the primary objectives of this dissertation are:

(i) To determine the advertising possibilities of non-verbal communication. Certain non-verbal variables, such as facial expressions, body movements, physique of the actors, artifacts and para-language are commonly present in television advertisements. These variables have never been analyzed within the South African context.

(ii) To assess whether different race groups should be approached differently in emphasizing non-verbal communication in television advertisements. It is necessary to determine if there is any perceptual difference between race groups who were exposed to specific non-verbal elements in television advertisements.

(iii) To determine if there is any correlation between television-viewing behaviour and non-verbal variables in television advertisements.

(iv) To assess if there is any correlation between television-viewing behaviour and advertising variables in television advertisements.

(v) To make certain recommendations to the advertising practitioner with regard to the proper use of non-verbal communication in television advertisements as to enhance the effectiveness of the verbal message.

These general objectives are refined in Chapter 8 to specific working hypotheses in order to guide the statistical analyses.

7.5 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method is divided into the following sub-categories: Pilot study, sampling method, respondents, stimulus material, questionnaire and research procedure.

7.5.1 Pilot study

In order to test the questionnaire for semantic problems or feasibility, a pilot survey was conducted with twenty first year students in the Faculty of Arts who were not studying Communication at the PU for CHE. The questionnaire which was given to them, is Annex C. A few minor changes were made to the final questionnaire. All statements were changed to the first person, "I" or "me", because the students felt the statements were directed at the general public and not at their own personal feelings. Another reason for the change was the fact that the respondents could have misinterpreted the statements, because the questionnaire was in English. As indicated, this medium of instruction is in most cases a second or even third language. Annex D represents the final questionnaire.

7.5.2 Sampling method

The universum consists of two strata, namely males and females. Traditionally more female students study Communication as a subject, as opposed to male students. Due to this "skewness" of the composition, all males were used in the male strata, whilst the females were selected by means of a systematic sample. As a whole, the sample is regarded as a systematic stratified sample. As Smith (1988:82) states, the systematic

stratified sample ensures that all pertinent sub-groups within a target population are presented in the final sample.

Wimmer & Dominick (1983:65) explain that a stratified sample is likely to be more representative than a simple random sample. This leads to the assumption that this particular sample could be seen as a random sample. As a result all the statistical analysis that could have been applied to a random sample, could also be applied to this sample.

7.5.3 Respondents

Slama & Tashchian (1985:72) contend that most of the consumer behaviour research has been done with upper middle class and often student subjects, who would tend to be more highly involved in purchasing behaviour than other consumer groups. This was the reason for selecting students as subjects.

Stoker (1989:92) explains that the "ideal" sample size has not been determined. The researcher himself defines and determines the population (with size N) and then draws a representative sample from this population (with size n). For the purpose of this thesis, the population consisted of all residential campuses offering Communication as a major subject within the Arts curriculum in Southern Africa. This means that three of these universities were traditionally African (black)-orientated and three were traditionally European (white)-orientated. These universities include: (i) Traditionally black - The University of Fort Hare (UFH) in the Republic of the Ciskei; the University of Bophuthatswana (UNIBO) in the Republic of Bophuthatswana and the University of Zululand (UNIZULU) in the Republic of South Africa. (ii) Traditionally white, which are all situated in the Republic of South Africa - the University of the Orange Free State (UOFS); the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education (PU for CHE) and the Rand Afrikaans University (RAU).

At the UOFS, the PU for CHE and RAU the medium of instruction is Afrikaans. The UFH, UNIBO and UNIZULU use English as an instruction medium. At all these universities most of the subjects' second language is English. All these universities are regarded as "open", because students of all races are

entitled to enrol. The composition of the registered Communication students during 1990 at these universities is reflected in Table 7.1. These tables were provided by the respective heads of departments during the actual survey in September 1990.

Table 7.1
Composition of Communication students
in the population during 1990

University	Com 1	Com 2	Com 3	Total
UFH	118	64	37	219
UNIBO	43	31	16	90
UNIZULU	72	21	11	104
UOFS	176	137	74	387
PU for CHE	288	196	92	576
RAU	334	153	121	608
TOTAL	1 031	602	351 N = 1 984	

*These tables include all Communication students, including those who study Communication as an ancillary subject.

Only students with Communication as a major subject were asked to complete the questionnaire. The reasons for using Communication students for this research were: (i) It is anticipated that Communication students know what non-verbal communication is, and the researcher therefore did not have to explain the complexities of this subject. (ii) The duration of the average television advertisement is usually fifteen to 45 seconds. It would have been difficult to explain to other respondents what was expected of them when evaluating the advertisement. Communication students are attentive to this kind of stimuli. (iii) Due to the nature of this laboratory survey, this group of students was available and accessible. Initially it was felt that students of other disciplines should be used, but due to practical reasons, it was not possible. Only undergraduate students were used. The actual sample realisation is reflected in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2
Sample realisation

University	Com 1	Com 2	Com 3	Total
UFH	65	44	23	132
UOFS	112	47	58	217
UNIBO	27	0	0	27*
PU for CHE	100	85	45	230
RAU	91	44	0	135**
UNIZULU	39	12	8	59
TOTAL	434	229	134	n = 800

* Only the first year students at UNIBO were given permission to complete the questionnaire.

** The third year students at RAU could not be used for research, due to a full lecture load.

According to the sample realisation, more than 40% of the 1 984 registered undergraduate Communication students at the different universities during 1990 were used for the survey.

7.5.4 Stimulus material

The recording of the television advertisements took place on Sunday October 1, 1989 and Tuesday October 31, 1989. All programmes on TV1 and TV4 were recorded between the 19:00 and 23:00 time slot. A total of 246 different advertisements were recorded during this period. On Sunday July 1, 1990 and Tuesday July, 10 1990 the procedure was repeated, including two Monday morning recordings on TV1 from 09:30 to 10:30. An additional 52 new advertisements were recorded. In total 298 advertisements were recorded.

The criteria for selecting the advertisements depended on the following:
(1) Certain identified categories of non-verbal communication had to be present in the advertisement. Five categories were arbitrarily identified, namely facial expressions, body movements, physique, artifacts and para-

language; (ii) all advertisements had to contain at least one human model and (iii) only English advertisements were selected, because it was anticipated that English was the second language of all respondents. Von Ulmenstein (1990:6) explains that English is likely to become the common communication language and advertisements will therefore be mainly in English.

The following steps were used to select the stimulus material: Step 1: Recording of the programmes. Step 2: The programmes were edited, with all advertisements on a single video tape. Step 3: All advertisements were viewed and 36 advertisements were eventually selected by the researcher. Step 4: These 36 advertisements (Annex A) were presented to a panel in order to select the best advertisement for each non-verbal category. A questionnaire (Annex B) was given to the panel in order to help them select a total of ten advertisements as stimulus material. The panel consisted of five people. One person had a Ph.D. degree in Communication, one an M.A. degree in Communication, one an Hons. degree in Communication, one had a B.Ed. degree and one person had a B.Prim Ed. degree. Step 5: The panel selected two advertisements for each non-verbal category. The advertisements which were selected, are presented in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3
Stimulus material

Non-verbal category	Advertisement
Facial expression	Peanuts Firestone
Body movements	Status Schweppes
Physique	Chicken Licken Phillips Television
Artifacts	Pitco Tea BMW
Para-language	Opel Kadett Post & Telecommunication

7.5.5 Questionnaire

After the selection of the stimulus material, the advertisements were analyzed in order to compile suitable statements for the questionnaire. A Likert-type scale was used for the questionnaire. According to Babbie (1983:380) this scale is used very frequently in contemporary survey questionnaires, with a particular value because of its unambiguous ordinality of response categories. The questionnaire consisted of a four point scale: (1) Strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) agree, and (4) strongly agree. This four point scale eliminates the neutral "I do not know" category. A forced choice measure according to Spagna (1984:67) and Leigh & Menon (1986:4) is a useful means of eliminating response biases that are known to contaminate effective assessment. Cronbach (1970:500) and Anastasi (1976:517-520) both agree that the forced choice invites the subject to give the best answer; the question cannot be evaded and acquiescence has no effect.

The content of the statements could be divided into two categories: (a) Aspects related to specific non-verbal elements in the advertisement and (b) aspects related to acceptability, culture, understanding, identifying and persuasion. The same statements regarding non-verbal elements were repeated for the two advertisements within the same non-verbal category. The reason for this was to access if there were any discrepancies between the perceptions of non-verbal elements in different environments. The questionnaire consisted of three broad categories: (i) Demographical aspects, (ii) non-verbal aspects and (iii) general advertising aspects.

(i) The following demographical items were included: University at which the respondent studied, level of study in Communication, sex of the respondent, age of the respondent, home language, geographical or home town area, where the respondent was brought up, the hours the respondent watches television during the week, during week-ends at home and on campus, the amount of pocket money of the respondent and the purchasing of personal consumable products with the respondents' pocket money.

(ii) The non-verbal aspects varied according to the events in the advertisement. Under each category, the same questions were asked.

* Facial expressions: The expression on the face of the actor is credible, the expression on the actor's face is meaningful, the glance of the actor, the actor's look reflects a positive attitude towards the advertised product, and the actor's look reflects a positive attitude towards the television viewer.

* Kinesics: The gestures the actor makes, the body movements the actor makes, the way the actors touch each other, the personal space between the male and female actors, and the personal space between the male actors.

* Physique: Attitude towards the skin colour of the different actors, the physique of the male and female actors, the attractiveness of the male and female actors.

* Artifacts: The suitability of the hairstyles of the actors, the colours used in the advertisement, the jewellery of the actors in the advertisement, the environment and the way the actors are dressed in the advertisement.

* Para-language: The voice of the spokesperson, the voice of the robots or telephone, the music which is used in the advertisement, the use of sound and the use of silence in the advertisement, and the jingle as a strengthening variable of the message.

(iii) General advertising statements consisted of the following general statements which were presented in the questionnaire about each advertisement: (a) As a whole the advertisement is acceptable to me, (b) the

events in the advertisement are familiar to my culture, (c) the advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product, (d) I understand the advertisement, and (e) I can identify with the advertisement.

7.5.6 Procedure during the collection of the data

The actual survey conducted at the various universities took place on August 27 and September 25, 1990. The respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire during a normal lecture or practical period of 45 minutes. In all the classes all males were asked to complete a questionnaire, because of the imbalance of the sexes. Every second female in the class on that particular day was asked to participate in the survey, the other female students were asked to write their views of that particular advertisement down on a piece of paper in order to keep their attention during the procedure.

In the first year classes the traditional monitor was replaced by a 3x2 m film screen. All attending students at the black universities were used for the survey, because of their small numbers.

The researcher welcomed the students and explained the procedure. The respondents were then given time to complete the biographical information on the questionnaire. The first advertisement was shown twice and the respondents were given time to complete the statements related to that specific advertisement. This procedure was repeated until the last advertisement was shown to the respondents.

The questionnaires were collected and only then did the researcher give the respondents full details of the aim and purpose of the study. The problem with non-response as discussed by Stoker (1983:38) was solved by ignoring all incomplete questionnaires.

7.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

The SAS statistical programmes (SAS User's Guide: Basics and SAS User's Guide : Statistics) were used for the analyses of the data. The following analyses were used: Cronbach's coefficient alpha, z-tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA), Tukey's (HSD) test and Pearson's correlation coefficient (r).

7.7 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

The demographic variables are presented mainly by means of a cross tabulation. Since one of the aims of this thesis is to determine the perceptual differences between white and black consumers, the emphasis was placed on the race variable. According to the questionnaire, there is no specific race category. As a result the respondents at UFH, UNIBO and UNIZULU were noted together as black. The UOFS, PU for CHE and RAU were noted together as white. At the black universities no white students were included in the sample. Originally three black students were included in the white sample, (two at UOFS and one at the PU for CHE) but they were ignored for the statistical analyses.

The aim in this section was to record demographical information about the respondents in order to create a demographic profile, by means of using PROC FREQ of SAS (SAS Institute Inc., 1985). Due to the lack of space, a full report is included in Annex F. Only the chief characteristics are recorded here. The most important demographic variables are presented in graphic representations to indicate these characteristics (see Annex F).

7.7.1 University and level of study

The following relevant conclusions could be drawn from the results: (i) Traditional white universities (UOFS, PU for CHE, RAU) contributed 72,75% of the sample, while the traditional black universities (UFH, UNIBO, UNIZULU) contributed 27,25% of the sample. (ii) The total number of first year

students was 54,19%, the second year students was 28,66% and third year students constituted 17,15% of the sample.

7.7.2 Race and sex

As indicated, the university item in the questionnaire also represented the race variable. The university item was divided into traditional white and traditional black universities. The ratio for whites and blacks was 73% to 27%. The ratio for males to females in the sample was 32% to 68%. The imbalance between males and females is a true reflection of the respondents who study Communication as a subject at the residential universities of Southern Africa. The same applies to the imbalance between the white and black respondents at these universities.

7.7.3 Age

The distribution of age is relatively proportional, with the biggest overlapping between 19 and 21 years in both race groups, constituting more than 63% of the sample. With relation to the white students' age, it seems as if the black students were relatively older: 15,92% of the black sample are older than 22 years, as compared to 9,77% of the white sample.

7.7.4 Home language

The biggest grouping was under Afrikaans-speaking respondents - (64%) of the sample. English-speaking respondents was in the third place (7,88%), with Xhosa in the second place (12,50%). Seven per cent of the sample consists of Zulu-speaking respondents, followed by 4,13% of Tswana-speaking respondents. Nearly 2,5% spoke other languages, which varied from Swazi, Greek, Portuguese to German.

7.7.5 Home town and place of upbringing

Twenty one per cent of the sample came from rural areas. More than 44% came from towns and more than 34% from cities. This is a relatively proportional distribution of the place of upbringing of the respondents for both the two race groups. Most of the white sample were from the Cape, Natal, Orange Free State, Transvaal, and other (which in this instance is Namibia, because all respondents who completed the "other" category, are from Namibia). The

black sample was more equally dispersed over the regional areas, except Namibia.

7.7.6 Television-viewing patterns

The television-viewing frequency for both race groups is relatively similar. It seems as if both race groups watch less television during the semester on campus during the week in comparison to weekend viewing during the semester. Both groups show an increase in television-watching during holidays at home, with the most viewing during holiday weekends.

More than 30% of the sample do not watch television during the semester on weekdays, compared to 2,13% during holidays on the same days. Only 1,13% watch more than five hours television during the week on campus, as opposed to more than 12% at home during the week. Of the sample 2,63% watch more than five hours television during weekends on campus. During the same time at home, more than 14% watch television, an increase of more than 11%. Items 8 - 11 measured these differences.

7.7.7 Pocket money

More than 3% of the white respondents, compared to 2% of the black respondents, received no pocket money at all. More than 15% of the white sample received more than R200 a month pocket money, as compared to only 2% of the black sample.

Most of the sample received R51 and R100 pocket money a month, which comprises more than 24% of the sample. The second biggest category is R101 - R150, which is more than 21% of the total sample. Respondents who earn more than R200 were requested to complete the category of more than R200 a month.

7.7.8 Purchasing behaviour

Only 7% of the white and 1,5% of the black respondents never buy products with their pocket money, which is 8,6% of the response. Fifty two per cent of the respondents sometimes buy and more than 39% always buy their personal consumable products with their pocket money.

To summarize the demographic profile, it can be concluded that the two race groups are in many instances the same. As far as the comparison between the white and black perceptions of the various stimulus material is concerned, it is viewed as justified, due to the many similarities in the respondent profile.

Table 7.4 explains the different sample sizes which are used in the chapters to follow. This is done to prevent misinterpretation.

Table 7.4
Different sample sizes for the analyses

N	=	1984 (population size)
n	=	800 (sample size)
n_1	=	583 (white respondents)
n_2	=	218 (black respondents)
n_3	=	149 (white male respondents)
n_4	=	105 (black male respondents)
n_5	=	433 (white female respondents)
n_6	=	113 (black female respondents)
n_7	=	254 (male respondents)
n_8	=	546 (female respondents)

7.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

The purpose of Cronbach's coefficient alpha is to determine the degree in which the respondents consistently completed the questionnaire. The aim in other words, is to determine the general reliability of the measurement instrument (Huysamen, 1983:31). The coefficient alpha would probably have been naught or very low if the respondents had completed the questionnaire indiscriminately, without the necessary attention given to each item. Coefficient alpha is a method to determine the consistency of completion of the questionnaire.

In this instance it could be accepted that there would have been no correlation between the respondent's reaction to a single item and his total counting of all items. This means that the bigger the correlation between the individual items and the sum total on the questionnaire, the higher would coefficient alpha be.

Huysamen (1983:32) explains that coefficient alpha represents a coefficient of internal consistency. Instead of being determined from a single split of the total test, like the split-half reliability coefficient test, coefficient alpha is based on all possible splits. As a result, it reflects the degree to which all possible splits measure the same thing. That is, the internal consistency of the test: "to the extent that different groups of items measure different attributes, coefficient alpha will be reduced. Thus, coefficient alpha will be greater for a test which consists of only vocabulary items, say, than for a test comprising vocabulary as well as arithmetic items". The formula for coefficient alpha is:

$$\alpha = \frac{k}{k-1} \left(1 - \frac{\sum S_i^2}{S_T^2} \right),$$

where $\sum S_i^2$ is the sum of k individual items' variances, S_T^2 being the variance of the total score.

Table 7.5 gives a summary of coefficient alpha for all the variables which were arbitrarily selected. Alpha was also conducted on all the various items in the questionnaire.

Table 7.5
Cronbach's coefficient alpha on separate
non-verbal and advertising variables

Variable	Coefficient alpha
Facial expression	0,73
Body movements	0,54
Physique	0,70
Artifacts	0,80
Para-language	0,76
Understanding	0,80
Identification	0,67
Acceptability	0,60
Culture	0,75
Persuasion	0,67
Television-viewing	0,76
Total (all variables)	0,93

According to the above table, all the individual items under the various variables consistently measured the described variable. Relatively high scores occurred in most of the variables, except body movements (alpha = 0,54). The consistency with which the respondents completed the whole questionnaire is high; alpha = 0,93.

Due to the nature of the present survey, the results are only internally valid to Communication students. No attempt should be made to generalize the results, because it is not externally valid.

7.9 SUMMARY

Attention has been paid to the research strategy and the procedures which were followed in the survey. The questionnaire and the samples were also discussed in this chapter. The specific statistical analyses were also mentioned.

Finally, the reliability of the selected non-verbal and general advertising categories was established. It was indicated that the results were only internally valid. The specific statistical analyses, the description of the data and the results thereof need to be addressed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 8

RESULTS OF THE STATISTICAL ANALYSES

8.1 RATIONALE

As has been indicated in the previous chapter, four other different statistical analyses were conducted on the data, besides the alpha coefficient. These analyses include the z-test, the analysis of variance, Tukey's (HSD) test and Pearson's correlation coefficient.

Z-test

Leedy (1985:204) contends that the function of significance tests like the t-test is to determine whether the means of two independent samples differ from each other to a significant degree. It is indicated by Cohen (1977:19) that the arithmetic mean and the hypotheses about means are by far the most frequently used measure of location by behavioural scientists. Both z and t-tests are techniques for measuring differences in data where the following conditions are met: (i) Measurement scales have intervals, (ii) the observations are independent and (iii) where two or less groups are involved (Luck, Wales, Taylor & Rubin, 1982:389).

The above-mentioned authors explain that the z-test is appropriate when (i) the population standard deviation is known or (ii) the sample size is larger than thirty, the population has a normal distribution and the population standard deviation is unknown. The t-test is appropriate when the sample size is less than thirty and the population's standard deviation is unknown. Steyn (1990:10-1 - 10-11) affirms this explanation.

Different z-tests were conducted for the present study - the first on the means of the two race groups (white and black), the second on the means of white and black females and the last on white and black males. Sawyer & Peter (1983:126) recommend that researchers should avoid the misleading impression of precision or objectivity by reporting the exact statistical significance level to the fourth decimal. The question should rather be asked whether a statistical significant result is of any practical significance to the researcher. To solve the problem of practical significance, Cohen (1977:20) introduces the so-called effect size index: d , which is the difference in means in standard deviation units (i.e. the difference in means divided by their common standard deviation). The use of d is not only a necessity demanded by practical requirements of tabling, but proves salutary in the areas of behavioural sciences. Here raw units are used, which are quite arbitrary or lack meaning outside the investigation in which they are used, or both. Cohen (1977:24-27) divided the d into small, medium and large values. When $d = 0,2$, the effect is regarded as small. A medium size effect is conceived, as in the course of normal experience with $d = 0,5$ to $0,7$. A large effect size is where $d = 0,8$ and more. Wimmer & Dominick (1983:200-202) also affirm the importance of the practical significant size effect.

Analysis of variance

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) is according to Wimmer & Dominique (1983:215) essentially an extension of the t-test. Hardyck & Petrinovich (1975:120) explain that ANOVA is the statistic which allows the researcher to assess the significance of differences between means when more than two groups are involved. The arrangement of the arithmetic is somewhat different, but the purpose and logic are the same.

Three different analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted: (i) Television-viewing on different language groups, (ii) television-viewing on geographical area and (iii) television-viewing on age.

Tukey's (HDS) test

Tukey's (HDS) test is a secondary analysis in order to utilize the experiment-wise error rate, by means of a multiple comparison procedure. This test was conducted with each ANOVA.

Pearson's correlation coefficient

Hardyck & Petrinovich (1975:146) explain that the Pearson correlation coefficient is the principal statistic used to determine whether change in one set of measures is associated with change in another. According to Roscoe (1975:93), the term correlation refers to the correspondence or relationship between two variables. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient can be interpreted as Insko & Schoeninger (1977:119) indicate as the square root of the proportion of accountable variance.

Due to the extent of this survey, the interpretation of the results as well as the account thereof were presented simultaneously. The report of the results is done in the same pattern as the variables in the questionnaire or in the broad categories of variables.

8.2 WORKING HYPOTHESES

In accordance with the working theory or working hypotheses of De Groot (1969), this study also proposes working hypotheses. It seems preferable that the hypotheses accompanying the study should rather be of a tentative than a definitive nature. Since exploratory research (like the present study) is intended to search for data indications rather than an attempt to determine causality as Wimmer & Dominick (1983:193) explain, the following broad working hypotheses were formulated:

- (1) The general difference between race groups is anticipated to be more significant than the general difference between sexes towards the stimulus material.

(ii) It is anticipated that black and white respondents will differ in their reactions towards the following non-verbal variables: (a) Facial expressions, (b) physique, (c) body movements, (d) artifacts and (e) para-language.

(iii) It is anticipated that black and white respondents will differ in their reactions towards the following advertising variables: (a) Understanding, (b) identification, (c) acceptance, (d) culture-specific elements and (e) persuasion.

(iv) A correlation between television-viewing behaviour and the respondents' reactions towards non-verbal variables in television advertisements is anticipated.

(v) A correlation between television-viewing behaviour and the respondents' reactions towards general advertising variables in television advertisements is anticipated.

(vi) The degree of correlations between non-verbal and advertising variables will differ between the two race groups.

8.3 RESULTS OF THE Z-TESTS

A total of six different z-tests were concluded in order to test the working hypotheses. The following symbols need explanation in order to clarify the tables which are presented: \bar{X} (arithmetic mean); s (standard deviation); z (z-value); p (level of significance) and d (level of practical significance or effect size index).

The following values are applicable to all the z-test results, in order to explain the level of significance. Due to the length of the different tables, it was impossible to include under each table: *: $p < 0,05$; **: $p < 0,01$ and ***: $p < 0,001$.

The d-value was ignored for all statistically insignificant results. These insignificant results are reported as not applicable (n.a.): *: small practical size effect ($d = 0,2$); **: medium practical size effect ($d = 0,5$) and ***: large practical size effect ($d = 0,8$). The minimum of the scale is 166 and the maximum is 377.

Only items with both statistical and practical significance were discussed. This means that an item with $p < 0,001$ and $d < 0,8$ was excluded in the discussion. Tables 8.1 and 8.2 give a summary of the z-test on the sum of all items by sex and race respectively.

Table 8.1
Results of the z-test on the sum of all items
on the sex variable ($n_7=254$ & $n_8=546$)

Sex	\bar{X}	s	z	p	d
Male	304,04	30,14	-3,11	0,00***	0,24*
Female	311,02	28,09			

Table 8.1 indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the two sexes' reaction towards the presented stimulus material. The practical size effect is small, however ($d = 0,24$).

Table 8.2
Results of the z-test on the sum of all items
on the race variable ($n_1=582$ & $n_2=218$)

Race	\bar{X}	s	z	p	d
White	371,26	28,13	3,84	0,00***	0,30*
Black	302,25	30,02			

It is indicated on the summed items that there is a statistically significant difference between the two race groups, also with a small practical size effect ($d = 0,30$).

A following z-test was conducted on the non-verbal variables in the different advertisements. There are two advertisements for each non-verbal category. Items which constitute the facial expression variable, include the following: Credibility of expression, significance of expression, glance of actor, looks towards advertised product and towards the viewer. The body movement variable includes gestures of the actors, body movements, touching behaviour, distances between males and females and distances between males.

The attitude towards the actor, physique of the male and female actors and the attractiveness of the male and female actors, constitute the physique variable.

The following items contribute to the artifact variable: hairstyles, colours, jewellery, environment and dress. The para-language variable comprises of the voice of the spokesperson, the voice of the robots or telephone, the music, the use of sound and the use of silence in the advertisement. These variables were discussed in Chapter 7 under non-verbal statements.

The sum of all the non-verbal items per non-verbal category (i.e. the two advertisements concerned with that specific non-verbal category) contribute separately to the measurement scale. This means that the maximum of the scale is 40 and the minimum 10.

Table 8.3
Results of the two sample z-test of non-verbal
variables by race ($n_1=582$ & $n_2=218$)

Race	Variable	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
White	face	31,33	4,00	4,83	0,00***	0,40*
Black		29,74	4,21			
White	body	25,40	2,99	-10,30	0,00***	0,44*
Black		28,52	4,10			
White	physique	30,00	3,95	-10,24	0,00***	0,82***
Black		33,30	4,07			
White	artifacts	34,00	4,04	6,06	0,00***	0,52**
Black		31,80	4,51			
White	para-language	39,38	4,81	3,60	0,00***	0,29*
Black		37,89	5,33			

The results in Table 8.3 indicate that only the physique variable has a practical effect ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,82$). The various items which are grouped under this item include attitude towards the actor, physique of the male and female actors and the attractiveness of the male and female actors ($\bar{x} = 34,00$ white and $\bar{x} = 31,80$ black).

The advertising variables form the sub-section in each advertisement, as discussed in the previous chapter under general advertising statements. A summed z-test of the items in each advertisement is reported in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4
Results of the two sample z-test of advertising
variables by race ($n_1=582$ & $n_2=218$)

Race	Variable	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
White	understanding	33,75	4,19	10,74	0,00***	0,85***
Black		30,20	4,16			
White	identification	28,40	4,31	-0,09	0,03*	n.a.
Black		28,43	3,98			
White	acceptance	31,49	3,67	2,14	0,03*	n.a.
Black		30,82	4,01			
White	culture	28,49	4,45	12,56	0,00***	1,02***
Black		23,76	4,85			
White	persuasion	28,97	4,13	0,17	0,86	n.a.
Black		28,90	4,64			
White	television viewing	18,08	5,84	-3,92	0,00***	0,32*
Black		20,00	6,18			

Two variables show statistically as well as practically significant differences. Understanding of the advertisement ($p < 0,001$, $d = 0,85$), with $\bar{x} = 33,75$ white and $\bar{x} = 30,20$ black, and culture-specific events in the advertisement ($p < 0,001$, $d = 1,02$), with $\bar{x} = 28,49$ white and $\bar{x} = 23,76$ black.

In order to refine the above results, an additional z-test was conducted on each item in each advertisement. The tables are presented according to the advertisements and the continuation of the items. This test includes Tables 8.5 to 8.14: ($n_1=582$ white & $n_2=218$ black).

All remaining z-test results in this chapter are presented on a four point scale, as indicated in the questionnaire: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), agree (3) and strongly agree (4).

Table 8.5
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: Peanuts

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
14	White	3,07	0,65	1,77	0,08	n.a.
	Black	2,98	0,69			
15	White	3,07	0,71	0,70	0,49	n.a.
	Black	3,03	0,80			
16	White	2,47	0,83	-0,86	0,39	n.a.
	Black	2,53	0,93			
17	White	2,86	0,82	-3,47	0,00***	0,27*
	Black	3,08	0,81			
18	White	2,48	0,76	-4,04	0,00***	0,33*
	Black	2,74	0,84			
19	White	3,49	0,71	6,50	0,00***	0,54**
	Black	3,06	0,88			
20	White	2,36	0,90	-6,20	0,00***	0,48*
	Black	2,78	0,83			
21	White	2,86	0,83	0,71	0,48	n.a.
	Black	2,81	0,86			
22	White	2,55	0,91	1,84	0,07	n.a.
	Black	2,41	1,00			
23	White	2,40	0,85	-3,96	0,00***	0,32*
	Black	2,69	0,95			

According to the above table, no practically significant differences occurred between the race groups in the Peanut advertisement, although a number of statistically significant differences did occur.

Table 8.6
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: Firestone Tyres

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
24	White	3,66	0,61	7,35	0,00***	0,64**
	Black	3,18	0,88			
25	White	3,65	0,58	8,48	0,00***	0,73**
	Black	3,14	0,81			
26	White	3,43	0,70	5,55	0,00***	0,46*
	Black	3,06	0,92			
27	White	3,40	0,69	4,86	0,00***	0,42*
	Black	3,07	0,89			
28	White	3,23	0,71	4,91	0,00***	0,40*
	Black	2,92	0,83			
29	White	3,74	0,52	10,87	0,00***	0,95***
	Black	3,12	0,77			
30	White	3,21	0,77	4,58	0,00***	0,36*
	Black	2,93	0,76			
31	White	3,51	0,64	8,72	0,00***	0,74**
	Black	2,96	0,84			
32	White	3,23	0,75	12,00	0,00***	1,0***
	Black	2,40	0,91			
33	White	3,35	0,70	6,25	0,00***	0,53**
	Black	2,92	0,91			

Item 29 (I understand this advertisement) reveals both statistically and practically significant differences: $p < 0,001$, and $d = 0,95$. To the white group $\bar{x} = 3,74$, as opposed to the black group $\bar{x} = 3,12$.

Item 32 (the events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture) also reveals significant differences: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,00$. \bar{x} for the white group is 3,23 and for the black group $\bar{x} = 2,40$. This indicates that the events in the Firestone advertisement are familiar to the white group, but not to the black group, because 2,4 is nearer to disagree than to agree.

Table 8.7
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: Status

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
34	White	2,60	0,84	-2,97	0,00***	0,24*
	Black	2,82	0,97			
35	White	2,60	0,84	-4,73	0,00***	0,38*
	Black	2,92	0,86			
36	White	2,65	0,84	-3,82	0,00***	0,38*
	Black	2,91	0,89			
37	White	2,24	0,78	-12,13	0,00***	0,99***
	Black	3,07	0,90			
38	White	2,30	0,71	-3,64	0,00***	0,30*
	Black	2,55	0,93			
39	White	2,62	0,84	-0,59	0,55	n.a.
	Black	2,66	0,96			
40	White	2,66	0,82	9,34	0,00***	0,77**
	Black	1,97	0,98			
41	White	2,38	0,87	-1,53	0,13	n.a.
	Black	2,50	0,98			
42	White	3,13	0,82	4,79	0,00***	0,36*
	Black	2,82	0,83			
43	White	2,36	0,92	-2,47	0,01*	0,19
	Black	2,54	0,93			

In the Status advertisement only Item 37 has statistical as well as practical significance. The personal space between the male actors and the female actor is not regarded by the white group as too close ($\bar{x} = 2,24$), whilst the black group regarded it as too close ($\bar{x} = 3,07$): $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,99$.

Table 8.8
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: Schweppes

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
44	White	3,20	0,82	-2,99	0,00***	0,24*
	Black	3,39	0,76			
45	White	3,29	0,79	-2,76	0,01*	0,21*
	Black	3,45	0,72			
46	White	2,93	0,74	-0,04	0,96	n.a.
	Black	2,94	0,86			
47	White	1,76	0,69	-8,04	0,00***	0,68**
	Black	2,28	0,85			
48	White	1,82	0,68	-5,97	0,00***	0,50**
	Black	2,19	0,80			
49	White	3,22	0,84	1,14	0,26	n.a.
	Black	3,14	0,87			
50	White	2,78	0,87	3,27	0,00***	0,26*
	Black	2,54	0,94			
51	White	2,95	0,93	0,00	1,00	n.a.
	Black	2,94	0,94			
52	White	3,29	0,79	3,33	0,00***	0,27*
	Black	3,08	0,78			
53	White	2,92	0,92	0,45	0,66	n.a.
	Black	2,89	0,84			

According to the above table, no practically significant differences were recorded in the Schweppes advertisement, although a number of statistically significant differences did occur.

Table 8.9
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: Chicken Licken

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
54	White	3,12	0,89	-10,52	0,00***	0,78**
	Black	3,72	0,64			
55	White	2,38	0,97	-15,11	0,00***	1,14***
	Black	3,38	0,78			
56	White	2,72	0,82	-11,41	0,00***	0,87***
	Black	3,38	0,69			
57	White	2,25	0,92	-12,33	0,00***	0,94***
	Black	3,04	0,76			
58	White	1,61	0,70	-21,34	0,00***	1,53***
	Black	2,97	0,83			
59	White	3,33	0,69	-4,71	0,00***	0,37*
	Black	3,56	0,57			
60	White	2,26	0,95	-20,82	0,00***	1,52***
	Black	3,46	0,62			
61	White	2,35	0,92	-16,93	0,00***	1,30***
	Black	3,44	0,76			
62	White	2,69	0,88	-15,21	0,00***	1,13***
	Black	3,54	0,62			
63	White	2,10	0,92	-15,89	0,00***	1,21***
	Black	3,15	0,81			

A number of statistically and practically significant items occurred in the Chicken Licken advertisement. Item 55 (I like the physique of the male actor) shows that the white group disagrees (\bar{x} = 2,38) and that the black group agrees (\bar{x} = 3,38) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,14$.

The black female actor's physique in Item 56, is more acceptable to the black group than to the white group ($\bar{x} = 2,72$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,38$ black), $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,87$. The female in Item 57 is more attractive to the black group ($\bar{x} = 3,04$) than to the white group ($\bar{x} = 2,25$), $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,94$. The groups differed in their perceptions of the male actor's attractiveness in Item 58, $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,53$ with $\bar{x} = 1,61$ for white and $\bar{x} = 2,97$ for black.

The black group tends to identify (Item 60) with this advertisement, whilst the white group disagrees. The \bar{x} for Item 60 is 2,26 white and 3,46 black, with $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,52$. The white group disagrees with the statement in Item 61. The advertisement does not influence their attitudes favourably towards the advertised product.

The black group on the other hand, agrees that their attitudes is influenced positively: $\bar{x} = 2,35$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,44$ black ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,30$). The advertisement is not acceptable to the white group (Item 62), but definitely to the black group. $\bar{x} = 2,69$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,54$ black with $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,13$. Item 63 reveals cultural differences between the two race groups, with $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,21$. The events in the advertisement are not familiar to the white respondents' culture, but indeed to that of the black group: $\bar{x} = 2,10$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,15$ black.

Table 8.10
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: Philips Television

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
64	White	3,76	0,57	7,56	0,00***	0,62**
	Black	3,39	0,63			
65	White	3,59	0,60	3,46	0,00***	0,28*
	Black	3,42	0,60			
66	White	3,64	0,55	3,76	0,00***	0,31*
	Black	3,46	0,63			
67	White	3,51	0,64	3,80	0,00***	0,30*
	Black	3,30	0,74			
68	White	3,41	0,76	3,09	0,00***	0,27*
	Black	3,22	0,79			
69	White	3,46	0,65	9,98	0,00***	0,84***
	Black	2,83	0,84			
70	White	3,23	0,71	8,20	0,00***	0,68**
	Black	2,69	0,87			
71	White	3,15	0,77	6,62	0,00***	0,54**
	Black	2,70	0,88			
72	White	3,46	0,62	10,02	0,00***	0,86***
	Black	2,82	0,85			
73	White	3,31	0,68	17,55	0,00***	1,48***
	Black	2,14	0,89			

Two items reflect practically and statistically significant differences in the Philips Television advertisement: Item 69 concerns the understanding of the advertisement. The black group does not feel that they understand it. The white group did understand the advertisement: $\bar{x} = 3,46$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,83$ black, with $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,84$. Item 73 (the culture-specific events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture) shows significant differences between the race groups: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,48$. To the black group the events in the advertisement did not occur in their culture ($\bar{x} = 2,14$), whilst for the white group, the events were familiar to their culture ($\bar{x} = 3,31$).

Table 8.11
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: Pitco Tea

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
74	White	3,35	0,66	4,67	0,00***	0,39*
	Black	3,06	0,81			
75	White	2,98	0,87	3,68	0,00***	0,29*
	Black	2,72	0,94			
76	White	3,14	0,70	1,68	0,09	n.a.
	Black	3,03	0,84			
77	White	3,47	0,68	-0,13	0,89	n.a.
	Black	3,48	0,71			
78	White	3,52	0,60	0,88	0,38	n.a.
	Black	3,47	0,65			
79	White	2,68	0,85	1,85	0,07	n.a.
	Black	2,55	0,90			
80	White	2,99	0,90	5,69	0,00***	0,44*
	Black	2,60	0,88			
81	White	2,70	0,86	3,27	0,00***	0,25*
	Black	2,49	0,83			
82	White	3,02	0,85	5,29	0,00***	0,43*
	Black	2,65	0,89			
83	White	2,82	0,81	10,64	0,00***	0,86***
	Black	2,09	0,89			

The only practically significant, as well as statistically significant difference in reaction towards the Pitco Tea advertisement, is to be found in Item 83: the events are familiar to my culture in the advertisement. The events in the advertisement are more unfamiliar to the black culture than to the white culture. The difference is significant, $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,86$. The \bar{x} for the white group is 2,82 and $\bar{x} = 2,09$ for the black group.

Table 8.12
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: BMW

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
84	White	3,48	0,59	8,53	0,00***	0,74**
	Black	2,99	0,77			
85	White	3,51	0,61	6,65	0,00***	0,55**
	Black	3,15	0,71			
86	White	3,26	0,03	1,13	0,26	n.a.
	Black	3,20	0,05			
87	White	3,68	0,54	4,46	0,00***	0,38*
	Black	3,45	0,66			
88	White	3,51	0,59	5,31	0,00***	0,44*
	Black	3,23	0,69			
89	White	3,28	0,74	2,41	0,02*	0,19
	Black	3,14	0,74			
90	White	3,36	0,70	6,43	0,00***	0,51**
	Black	2,99	0,74			
91	White	3,10	0,76	2,88	0,00***	0,23*
	Black	2,93	0,73			
92	White	3,42	0,67	5,90	0,00***	0,50**
	Black	3,07	0,76			
93	White	3,20	0,68	13,68	0,00***	1,28***
	Black	2,30	0,88			

Item 93 (culture-specific events in the BMW advertisement) revealed significant differences. The other items are all statistically insignificant. The events are more familiar to the white group ($\bar{x} = 3,20$) than to the black group ($\bar{x} = 2,30$) where it was not familiar. This difference has a p-value of $<0,001$ and $d = 1,28$.

Table 8.13
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: Opel Kadett

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
94	White	3,36	0,68	5,54	0,00***	0,47*
	Black	3,00	0,84			
95	White	3,06	0,81	7,14	0,00***	0,56**
	Black	2,60	0,82			
96	White	3,62	0,59	6,44	0,00***	0,53**
	Black	3,28	0,69			
97	White	3,54	0,57	5,04	0,00***	0,41*
	Black	3,88	0,70			
98	White	3,50	0,63	7,08	0,00***	0,58**
	Black	3,08	0,80			
99	White	3,53	0,64	4,06	0,00***	0,32*
	Black	3,31	0,71			
100	White	3,03	0,71	14,41	0,00***	1,17***
	Black	2,14	0,80			
101	White	3,39	0,73	6,23	0,00***	0,51**
	Black	2,98	0,87			
102	White	3,53	0,58	8,91	0,00***	0,73**
	Black	3,06	0,70			
103	White	3,21	0,71	7,16	0,00***	0,58**
	Black	2,79	0,74			
104	White	3,59	0,50	10,23	0,00***	0,89***
	Black	2,95	0,84			

Two significant differences occurred in the Opel Kadett advertisement. Item 100 (culture-specific events) reveals that the events are not familiar to the black group ($\bar{x} = 2,14$), but are familiar to the white group ($\bar{x} = 3,03$). The $p < 0,001$ with $d = 1,17$. The advertisement is not acceptable to the black group, whilst it is acceptable to the white group ($\bar{x} = 3,59$ white, and $\bar{x} = 2,95$ black). This difference is also statistically and practically significant: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,89$.

Table 8.14
Z-test results of each item with the race variable
Advertisement: Post & Telecommunication

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
105	White	3,00	0,76	-8,06	0,00***	0,61**
	Black	3,44	0,67			
106	White	3,16	0,70	-0,66	0,51	n.a.
	Black	3,20	0,77			
107	White	3,01	0,81	-3,94	0,00***	0,30*
	Black	3,24	0,73			
108	White	3,12	0,74	-0,67	0,50	n.a.
	Black	3,16	0,72			
109	White	2,91	0,74	0,56	0,56	n.a.
	Black	2,88	0,76			
110	White	3,48	0,67	2,83	0,01**	0,22*
	Black	3,33	0,67			
111	White	2,81	0,77	2,97	0,00***	0,25*
	Black	2,61	0,83			
112	White	3,04	0,80	-0,12	0,91	n.a.
	Black	3,05	0,83			
113	White	3,42	0,62	6,06	0,00***	0,49*
	Black	3,09	0,73			
114	White	3,06	0,79	2,01	0,05	n.a.
	Black	2,94	0,75			
115	White	3,28	0,77	2,27	0,02*	0,18
	Black	3,14	0,80			

Several statistically significant items were recorded in the Post and Telecommunication advertisement, but none of them reveals any practical significance.

Two further z-tests were conducted on each item in the questionnaire, in order to determine any differences between white and black males on the one hand and white and black females on the other hand. The first z-test reveals the result of the males, which includes Tables 8.15 - 8.24: ($n_3=149$ white males and $n_4=105$ black males).

Table 8.15
Z-test results of each item with the male variable
Advertisement: Peanuts

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
14	White	3,09	0,65	1,56	0,12	n.a.
	Black	2,95	0,70			
15	White	2,99	0,74	0,45	0,65	n.a.
	Black	2,94	0,78			
16	White	2,53	0,85	-0,77	0,44	n.a.
	Black	2,62	0,93			
17	White	2,76	0,84	-2,08	0,04*	0,26*
	Black	2,97	0,78			
18	White	2,48	0,80	-2,49	0,01**	0,32*
	Black	2,74	0,83			
19	White	3,42	0,82	3,78	0,00***	0,47*
	Black	3,00	0,95			
20	White	2,37	0,93	-2,58	0,01**	0,33*
	Black	2,66	0,84			
21	White	2,78	0,87	-0,28	0,78	n.a.
	Black	2,81	0,86			
22	White	2,48	0,96	0,53	0,56	n.a.
	Black	2,41	1,03			
23	White	2,34	0,87	-3,27	0,00***	0,42*
	Black	2,72	0,95			

No practically significant differences were recorded in the Peanuts advertisement, although a number of statistical differences did occur.

Table 8.16
Z-test results of each item with the male variable
Advertisement: Firestone Tyres

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
24	White	3,63	0,67	5,24	0,00***	0,69**
	Black	3,08	0,93			
25	White	3,65	0,60	6,13	0,00***	0,80***
	Black	3,09	0,80			
26	White	3,43	0,69	0,48	0,00***	0,54**
	Black	3,00	0,91			
27	White	3,40	0,69	3,48	0,00***	0,53**
	Black	3,03	0,91			
28	White	3,26	0,76	4,22	0,00***	0,54**
	Black	2,83	0,87			
29	White	3,70	0,54	6,99	0,00***	0,92***
	Black	3,09	0,77			
30	White	3,28	0,78	2,94	0,00**	0,37*
	Black	3,00	0,73			
31	White	3,54	0,61	6,51	0,00***	0,84***
	Black	2,88	0,91			
32	White	3,09	0,77	6,33	0,00***	0,79**
	Black	2,40	0,96			
33	White	3,32	0,72	4,08	0,00***	0,52**
	Black	2,90	0,89			

In the Firestone advertisement three items with statistical as well as practical significance were indicated. Item 25 (the expression on the actor's face is meaningful) is interpreted differently (\bar{x} = 3,65 white and \bar{x} = 3,09 black) with $p < 0,001$ and $d = 8,00$. Item 29 (understanding of the advertisement) is also interpreted differently (\bar{x} = 3,70 white and \bar{x} = 3,09 black) the p -value is $< 0,001$ and $d = 0,92$. To the black males the advertisement is not acceptable (Item 31), whilst it is acceptable to the white males: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,84$ (\bar{x} = 3,54 white and \bar{x} = 2,88 black).

Table 8.17
Z-test results of each item with the male variable
Advertisement: Status

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
34	White	2,77	0,81	-0,80	0,43	n.a.
	Black	2,87	1,01			
35	White	2,80	0,85	-1,79	0,07	n.a.
	Black	2,99	0,84			
36	White	2,83	0,88	-2,03	0,04*	0,26*
	Black	3,06	0,91			
37	White	2,06	0,80	-9,08	0,00***	1,17***
	Black	3,04	0,88			
38	White	2,48	0,80	-0,43	0,66	n.a.
	Black	2,52	0,89			
39	White	2,75	0,84	-0,34	0,73	n.a.
	Black	2,79	0,92			
40	White	2,66	0,84	4,18	0,00***	0,55**
	Black	2,15	1,02			
41	White	2,56	0,91	0,10	0,92	n.a.
	Black	2,55	0,92			
42	White	3,19	0,83	4,44	0,00***	0,56**
	Black	2,71	0,86			
43	White	2,50	0,94	-0,35	0,73	n.a.
	Black	2,71	0,86			

The Status advertisement revealed only Item 37 (the space between the male actors and the female actor is too close) as significant in p-value and practical size effect. The white males think the space is not too close, as opposed to the black males, who think it is too close (\bar{x} = 2,06 white and \bar{x} = 3,04 black). $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,17$.

Table 8.18
Z-test results of each item with the male variable
Advertisement: Schweppes

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
44	White	2,92	0,92	-2,42	0,02*	0,30*
	Black	3,18	0,79			
45	White	3,03	0,87	-2,33	0,02*	0,30*
	Black	3,28	0,78			
46	White	2,76	0,89	-1,05	0,29	n.a.
	Black	2,88	0,87			
47	White	1,83	0,73	-5,56	0,00***	0,72**
	Black	2,39	0,83			
48	White	2,00	0,71	-2,61	0,01*	0,34*
	Black	2,25	0,77			
49	White	2,99	0,89	0,57	0,57	n.a.
	Black	2,92	0,85			
50	White	2,54	0,88	0,61	0,54	n.a.
	Black	2,47	0,91			
51	White	2,73	0,96	-0,34	0,73	n.a.
	Black	2,77	0,88			
52	White	3,24	0,80	2,83	0,01*	0,36*
	Black	2,96	0,76			
53	White	2,69	1,02	-0,70	0,48	n.a.
	Black	2,77	0,78			

A number of statistically significant differences occurred in the Schweppes advertisement, but none is of any practical significance.

Table 8.19
Z-test results of each item with the male variable
Advertisement: Chicken Licken

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
54	White	3,18	0,85	-5,08	0,00***	0,64**
	Black	3,67	0,67			
55	White	2,50	0,95	-10,16	0,00***	1,26***
	Black	3,51	0,64			
56	White	2,57	0,88	-8,41	0,00***	1,05***
	Black	3,39	0,67			
57	White	1,97	0,93	-11,31	0,00***	1,42***
	Black	3,16	0,75			
58	White	1,54	0,69	-17,59	0,00***	2,27***
	Black	3,22	0,78			
59	White	3,23	0,75	-4,01	0,00***	0,5**
	Black	3,56	0,57			
60	White	2,23	0,97	-12,52	0,00***	1,58***
	Black	3,49	0,62			
61	White	2,37	0,95	-11,41	0,00***	1,43***
	Black	3,51	0,65			
62	White	2,73	0,91	-9,22	0,00***	1,16***
	Black	3,61	0,61			
63	White	2,12	0,92	-8,63	0,00***	1,10***
	Black	3,10	0,86			

The following items in the Chicken Licken advertisement indicate statistically and practically significant differences: Item 55 (the physique of the male actor) was perceived by the white males as negative and to the black males it was more positive (\bar{x} = 2,50 white and \bar{x} = 3,51 black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,26$.

The physique of the female (Item 56) also reveals differences. White males did not like her, but to the black males she is more acceptable (\bar{x} = 2,57 white and \bar{x} = 3,39 black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,05$. To the statement in Item

57, the female actor is attractive (item 57), the white males disagreed ($\bar{x} = 1,97$), but the black males agreed ($\bar{x} = 3,16$) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,42$. Item 58 reveals that the actor is not attractive to the white males, but indeed to the black males: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 2,27$ ($\bar{x} = 1,54$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,22$ black).

The white males could not identify (Item 60) with the advertisement ($\bar{x} = 2,23$) while the black males could ($\bar{x} = 3,49$). This difference is significant: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,58$.

The advertisement did not influence the white males positively towards the advertised product (Item 61), but did influence the black males: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,43$ ($\bar{x} = 2,37$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,51$ black).

Item 62 reveals that the advertisement was more acceptable to the black males than to the white males ($\bar{x} = 2,73$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,61$ black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,16$.

According to Item 63, the events in the advertisement are not familiar to the white males' culture, as opposed to the black males where the events are familiar: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,10$ ($\bar{x} = 2,12$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,10$ black).

Table 8.20
Z-test results on each item with the male variable
Advertisement: Philips Television

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
64	White	3,79	0,47	6,33	0,00***	0,85***
	Black	3,33	0,61			
65	White	3,15	0,67	-2,31	0,02*	0,29*
	Black	3,33	0,57			
66	White	3,70	0,54	3,93	0,00***	0,51**
	Black	3,40	0,63			
67	White	3,66	0,59	4,64	0,00***	0,58**
	Black	3,28	0,70			
68	White	2,75	0,80	-3,00	0,00**	0,39*
	Black	3,05	0,75			
69	White	3,36	0,68	6,07	0,00***	0,79**
	Black	2,76	0,84			
70	White	3,13	0,75	4,16	0,00***	0,52**
	Black	2,70	0,88			
71	White	3,08	0,81	4,23	0,00***	0,54**
	Black	2,63	0,86			
72	White	3,30	0,70	5,00	0,00***	0,65**
	Black	2,79	0,85			
73	White	3,20	0,72	9,92	0,00***	1,28***
	Black	2,16	0,89			

The Philips Television advertisement indicates two items which differed statistically and practically significant. Item 64 (I am not negative towards the white actors) reveals that the white respondents are more positive than the black respondents (\bar{x} = 3,79 white and \bar{x} = 3,33 black), $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,85$.

In Item 73 the events are familiar to the white males' culture (\bar{x} = 3,20), but to the black males this is not the case (\bar{x} = 2,16): $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,28$.

Table 8.21
Z-test results of each item with the male variable
Advertisement: Pitco Tea

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
74	White	3,23	0,72	1,54	0,12	n.a.
	Black	3,09	0,79			
75	White	2,85	0,93	0,46	0,65	n.a.
	Black	2,80	0,88			
76	White	3,05	0,72	0,57	0,57	n.a.
	Black	3,00	0,76			
77	White	3,38	0,73	-0,89	0,37	n.a.
	Black	3,47	0,75			
78	White	3,39	0,68	-0,24	0,81	n.a.
	Black	3,41	0,63			
79	White	2,54	0,88	0,01	0,99	n.a.
	Black	2,54	0,89			
80	White	2,83	0,97	1,50	0,13	n.a.
	Black	2,66	0,88			
81	White	2,56	0,90	-0,30	0,76	n.a.
	Black	2,59	0,85			
82	White	2,89	0,87	1,98	0,05*	0,25*
	Black	2,67	0,87			
83	White	2,68	0,85	5,00	0,00***	0,64**
	Black	2,12	0,91			

The Pitco Tea advertisement has no practically significant size effects.

Table 8.22
Z-test results of each item with the male variable
Advertisement: BMW

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
84	White	3,41	0,64	5,47	0,00***	0,72**
	Black	2,90	0,78			
85	White	3,42	0,67	2,55	0,01*	0,33*
	Black	3,20	0,66			
86	White	3,07	0,85	-0,82	0,42	n.a.
	Black	3,15	0,68			
87	White	3,64	0,55	2,35	0,02*	0,29*
	Black	3,48	0,57			
88	White	3,42	0,59	2,45	0,01*	0,31*
	Black	3,23	0,64			
89	White	3,25	0,82	1,01	0,31	n.a.
	Black	3,15	0,69			
90	White	3,39	0,68	4,06	0,00***	0,52**
	Black	3,01	0,77			
91	White	3,15	0,82	1,91	0,06	n.a.
	Black	2,96	0,72			
92	White	3,38	0,73	3,74	0,00***	0,47*
	Black	3,02	0,78			
93	White	3,16	0,76	8,94	0,00***	1,15***
	Black	2,19	0,91			

Item 93 (culture-specific events) is the only perceived difference in the BMW advertisement between white and black males (\bar{x} = 3,16 white and \bar{x} = 2,19 black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,15$. This means that the events in the advertisement are familiar to the white male respondents' culture, but not to the black males' culture.

Table 8.23
Z-test results of each item with the male variable
Advertisement: Opel Kadett

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
94	White	3,36	0,66	3,56	0,00***	0,46*
	Black	3,02	0,82			
95	White	3,23	0,75	5,08	0,00***	0,64**
	Black	2,75	0,74			
96	White	3,60	0,67	4,79	0,00***	0,61**
	Black	3,17	0,74			
97	White	3,64	0,63	3,54	0,00***	0,46*
	Black	3,32	0,74			
98	White	3,50	0,65	4,98	0,00***	0,63**
	Black	3,07	0,71			
99	White	3,50	0,70	2,39	0,02*	0,31*
	Black	3,28	0,74			
100	White	3,06	0,73	9,00	0,00***	1,16***
	Black	2,14	0,85			
101	White	3,44	0,73	5,09	0,00***	0,65**
	Black	2,93	0,82			
102	White	3,50	0,64	5,88	0,00***	0,75**
	Black	2,98	0,73			
103	White	3,26	0,76	4,68	0,00***	0,59**
	Black	2,82	0,73			
104	White	3,58	0,64	6,66	0,00***	0,88***
	Black	2,92	0,86			

The males differ significantly on two items in the Opel Kadett advertisement. Item 100 (culture-specific events) indicates that $\bar{x} = 3,06$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,14$ black. $p < 0,001$ and $d > 1,15$. The events are perceived as more specific to the white males' culture than to the black males' culture. Item 104 (acceptability) reveals that the advertisement is acceptable to the white males ($\bar{x} = 3,58$) but not to the black males ($\bar{x} = 2,92$) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,88$.

Table 8.24
Z-test results of each item with the male variable
Advertisement: Post & Telecommunication

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
105	White	3,01	0,71	-4,31	0,00***	0,55**
	Black	3,40	0,70			
106	White	3,14	0,67	-0,23	0,81	n.a.
	Black	3,16	0,72			
107	White	3,04	0,80	-1,32	0,19	n.a.
	Black	3,17	0,77			
108	White	3,02	0,82	-1,28	0,20	n.a.
	Black	3,15	0,73			
109	White	2,89	0,74	0,41	0,68	n.a.
	Black	2,85	0,73			
110	White	3,33	0,76	1,80	0,73	n.a.
	Black	3,16	0,71			
111	White	2,75	0,76	2,55	0,01*	0,32*
	Black	2,50	0,81			
112	White	2,99	0,82	0,51	0,61	n.a.
	Black	2,93	0,82			
113	White	3,38	0,68	3,59	0,00***	0,46*
	Black	3,05	0,76			
114	White	3,04	0,76	1,34	0,18	n.a.
	Black	2,91	0,72			
115	White	3,27	0,78	1,70	0,90	n.a.
	Black	3,10	0,81			

All items in the Post and Telecommunication advertisement are practically insignificant and three are statistically significant.

The last z-test reflects the scores of the white and black females' reactions on each item of every advertisement. This test includes Tables 8.25 - 8.34: ($n_5=433$ white females and $n_6=113$ black females).

Table 8.25
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: Peanuts

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
14	White	3,07	0,65	0,94	0,35	n.a.
	Black	3,00	0,68			
15	White	3,40	0,71	-0,08	0,93	n.a.
	Black	3,12	0,82			
16	White	2,45	0,82	-0,01	0,99	n.a.
	Black	2,45	0,92			
17	White	2,90	0,81	-3,40	0,00**	0,35*
	Black	3,19	0,82			
18	White	3,48	0,76	-3,02	0,00***	0,93***
	Black	2,74	0,84			
19	White	3,52	0,66	4,72	0,00***	0,58**
	Black	3,12	0,81			
20	White	2,35	0,89	-6,10	0,00***	0,62**
	Black	2,88	0,81			
21	White	2,88	0,82	0,84	0,40	n.a.
	Black	2,81	0,87			
22	White	2,58	0,89	1,65	0,10	n.a.
	Black	2,42	0,97			
23	White	2,42	0,84	-2,41	0,02*	0,25*
	Black	2,65	0,95			

The females differed statistically and practically on one item in the Peanuts advertisement: Item 18 (the actor's looks reflect a positive attitude towards the viewer). For the white females $\bar{x} = 3,48$, indicating that they agree as opposed to the black females, who disagree, $\bar{x} = 2,74$: $p < 0,00$ and $d = 0,93$.

Table 8.26
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: Firestone Tyres

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
24	White	3,37	0,58	4,66	0,00***	0,13*
	Black	3,28	0,83			
25	White	3,65	0,58	5,56	0,00***	0,66**
	Black	3,19	0,82			
26	White	3,44	0,70	3,55	0,00***	0,40*
	Black	3,11	0,93			
27	White	3,40	0,69	3,21	0,00***	0,36*
	Black	3,12	0,86			
28	White	3,23	0,69	2,54	0,01**	0,29*
	Black	3,01	0,84			
29	White	3,75	0,51	7,76	0,00***	0,92***
	Black	3,16	0,76			
30	White	3,19	0,77	3,81	0,00***	0,40*
	Black	2,88	0,78			
31	White	3,49	0,66	5,84	0,00***	0,63**
	Black	3,04	0,77			
32	White	3,28	0,74	9,39	0,00***	1,05***
	Black	2,41	0,91			
33	White	3,36	0,69	4,35	0,00***	0,51**
	Black	2,95	0,93			

The Firestone advertisement reveals two significant differences between the female race groups. Item 29 (understanding) indicates (\bar{x} = 3,75 white and \bar{x} = 3,16 black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,92$. This indicates that the advertisement is more understandable to the white females than to the black females. Item 32 (culture-specific events) also indicates differences: (\bar{x} = 3,28 white and \bar{x} = 2,41 black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,05$. The events are familiar to the white females' culture, as opposed to the black females' culture, where they are not familiar.

Table 8.27
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: Status

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
34	White	2,55	0,84	-2,49	0,01*	0,27*
	Black	2,79	0,93			
35	White	2,53	0,83	-3,55	0,00**	0,39*
	Black	2,86	0,87			
36	White	2,58	0,82	-2,15	0,03*	0,24*
	Black	2,78	0,86			
37	White	2,30	0,76	-8,58	0,00***	0,96***
	Black	3,11	0,92			
38	White	2,24	0,66	-3,53	0,00**	0,41*
	Black	2,58	0,97			
39	White	2,57	0,84	0,30	0,76	n.a.
	Black	2,54	0,98			
40	White	2,67	0,81	9,19	0,00***	1,01***
	Black	1,80	0,91			
41	White	2,31	0,85	-1,19	0,24	n.a.
	Black	2,44	1,04			
42	White	3,11	0,82	2,35	0,02*	0,25*
	Black	2,91	0,80			
43	White	2,30	0,90	-2,20	0,03*	0,24*
	Black	2,53	0,99			

Two items indicate statistically and practically significant differences in the Status advertisement. Item 37 (personal space between the male actors and female actor is too close) indicates ($\bar{x} = 2,30$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,11$ black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,96$. The white females do not think that the space is too close, as opposed to the black females who agree. Item 40 (culture-specific events) reveals that the black females strongly disagree ($\bar{x} = 1,80$) and the white females disagree ($\bar{x} = 2,67$) that the events in this advertisement are not familiar to their respective cultures: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,01$.

Table 8.28
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: Schweppes

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
44	White	3,30	0,76	-3,77	0,00***	0,39*
	Black	3,58	0,68			
45	White	3,37	0,74	-3,41	0,00**	0,35*
	Black	3,61	0,63			
46	White	2,99	0,68	0,02	0,98	n.a.
	Black	2,99	0,84			
47	White	1,73	0,68	-5,00	0,00***	0,57**
	Black	2,17	0,85			
48	White	1,76	0,66	-4,40	0,00***	0,49*
	Black	2,13	0,83			
49	White	3,30	0,81	-0,51	0,61	n.a.
	Black	3,35	0,84			
50	White	2,86	0,85	2,56	0,01*	0,27*
	Black	2,61	0,96			
51	White	3,02	0,91	-0,87	0,39	n.a.
	Black	3,11	0,97			
52	White	3,30	0,78	1,34	0,18	n.a.
	Black	3,19	0,78			
53	White	2,99	0,88	0,02	0,98	n.a.
	Black	2,99	0,86			

The Schweppes advertisement reveals no practically significant differences in the results between white and black females, although a number of statistically significant differences occur.

Table 8.29
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: Chicken Licken

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
54	White	3,10	0,90	-9,30	0,00***	0,88***
	Black	3,77	0,61			
55	White	2,34	0,97	-9,72	0,00***	1,00***
	Black	3,26	0,87			
56	White	2,77	0,80	-7,79	0,00***	0,79**
	Black	3,37	0,71			
57	White	2,34	0,90	-6,97	0,00***	0,71**
	Black	2,93	0,76			
58	White	1,64	0,70	-13,13	0,00***	1,43***
	Black	2,73	0,81			
59	White	3,36	0,66	-2,97	0,00**	0,29*
	Black	3,54	0,57			
60	White	2,27	0,94	-15,74	0,00***	1,48***
	Black	3,44	0,63			
61	White	2,34	0,91	-11,21	0,00***	1,16***
	Black	3,36	0,85			
62	White	2,68	0,88	-11,06	0,00***	1,05***
	Black	3,47	0,61			
63	White	2,09	0,92	-13,48	0,00***	1,33***
	Black	3,21	0,75			

Several significant differences with large practical size effects occurred between the white and black female responses to the Chicken Licken advertisement.

Item 54 (attitude towards the black actors) reveals that the black females are more positive towards black actors than the white females ($\bar{x} = 3,77$ black and $\bar{x} = 3,10$ white) $P < 0,001$ and $d = 0,88$.

The white females did not like the actor's physique (Item 55), whilst the black females liked it ($\bar{x} = 2,34$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,26$ black), $p = < 0,001$ and $d = 1,00$.

The statement in Item 58 (the male actor is attractive to me) indicates a perceptual difference ($\bar{x} = 1,64$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,73$ black), $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,43$.

Item 60 (identification) indicates that the white females could not identify with this advertisement, as opposed to the black females ($\bar{x} = 2,27$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,44$ black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,48$. Item 61 (persuasion) did not influence the white females, but had an influence on the black females ($\bar{x} = 2,34$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,36$ black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,16$.

Item 62 (acceptability) indicates a difference between the two female groups. The advertisement is more acceptable to the black females than to the white females ($\bar{x} = 2,68$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,47$ black); $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,05$.

Item 63 (culture-specific events) reveals that the events in this advertisement are not familiar to the white females' culture, but are familiar to the black females' culture ($\bar{x} = 2,09$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,21$ black); $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,33$.

Table 8.30
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: Philips Television

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
64	White	3,76	0,60	4,55	0,00***	0,50**
	Black	3,45	0,64			
65	White	3,74	0,49	3,65	0,00**	0,43*
	Black	3,50	0,63			
66	White	3,62	0,56	1,66	0,10	n.a.
	Black	3,51	0,63			
67	White	3,46	0,64	1,79	0,07	n.a.
	Black	3,32	0,78			
68	White	3,64	0,60	3,24	0,00**	0,37*
	Black	3,38	0,79			
69	White	3,49	0,64	7,06	0,00***	0,81***
	Black	2,89	0,84			
70	White	3,26	0,70	6,60	0,00***	0,74**
	Black	2,68	0,86			
71	White	3,18	0,76	4,37	0,00***	0,49*
	Black	2,77	0,91			
72	White	3,51	0,59	7,73	0,00***	0,90***
	Black	2,85	0,86			
73	White	3,34	0,67	13,63	0,00***	1,58***
	Black	2,11	0,89			

The Philips Television advertisement indicates three statistical as well as large practical size effects between females of different race groups. Item 69 (understanding) reveals that the white females understand the advertisement, while the black females do not ($\bar{x} = 3,49$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,89$ black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,81$. Item 72 (acceptable) reflects that the advertisement is acceptable to the white females, but not to the black females ($\bar{x} = 3,51$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,85$ black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,90$.

Item 73 (culture-specific aspects) also reveals a difference. To the white females the events are familiar to their culture ($\bar{x} = 3,34$) while to the black females it is not ($\bar{x} = 2,11$) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,58$.

Table 8.31
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: Pitco Tea

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
74	White	3,39	0,63	4,10	0,00***	0,47*
	Black	3,04	0,84			
75	White	3,03	0,85	3,89	0,00***	0,42*
	Black	2,64	0,98			
76	White	3,16	0,70	1,16	0,25	n.a.
	Black	3,06	0,91			
77	White	3,51	0,66	0,14	0,89	n.a.
	Black	3,50	0,67			
78	White	3,56	0,57	0,44	0,66	n.a.
	Black	3,53	0,67			
79	White	2,73	0,84	1,80	0,07	n.a.
	Black	2,56	0,91			
80	White	3,05	0,86	5,53	0,00***	0,59**
	Black	2,54	0,88			
81	White	2,76	0,84	4,25	0,00***	0,45*
	Black	2,39	0,81			
82	White	3,06	0,84	4,56	0,00***	0,49*
	Black	2,63	0,92			
83	White	2,87	0,80	8,98	0,00***	0,98***
	Black	2,05	0,87			

Item 83 (culture-specific aspects) is the only statement to be perceived significantly different with a large size effect in the Pitco Tea advertisement. To both female groups the events are not familiar to their respective cultures (\bar{x} = 2,87 white and \bar{x} = 2,05 black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,98$. This result indicates, however, that the events are more uncommon to the black females than to their white counterparts.

Table 8.32
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: BMW

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
84	White	3,50	0,57	5,74	0,00***	0,66**
	Black	3,06	0,76			
85	White	3,54	0,58	5,77	0,00***	0,64**
	Black	3,11	0,75			
86	White	3,33	0,75	1,17	0,25	n.a.
	Black	3,24	0,70			
87	White	3,69	0,54	3,46	0,00**	0,41*
	Black	3,43	0,73			
88	White	3,54	0,59	4,14	0,00***	0,47*
	Black	3,23	0,73			
89	White	3,29	0,72	2,04	0,00***	0,22*
	Black	3,12	0,79			
90	White	3,36	0,70	5,02	0,00***	0,54**
	Black	2,97	0,73			
91	White	3,08	0,74	2,34	0,02*	0,25*
	Black	2,89	0,75			
92	White	3,43	0,64	4,04	0,00***	0,45*
	Black	3,12	0,73			
93	White	3,21	0,65	9,58	0,00***	1,08***
	Black	2,40	0,84			

The BMW advertisement reveals only the culture-specific Item (93) as both statistically and practically significant: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,08$. The white females regarded the events as familiar to their culture ($\bar{x} = 3,21$) as opposed to the black females, who opposed this view ($\bar{x} = 2,40$).

Table 8.33
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: Opel Kadett

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	t	p	d
94	White	3,35	0,68	4,15	0,00***	0,47*
	Black	2,99	0,86			
95	White	3,00	0,83	6,09	0,00***	0,65**
	Black	2,45	0,86			
96	White	3,62	0,56	3,80	0,00***	0,42*
	Black	3,37	0,63			
97	White	3,65	0,55	3,26	0,00**	0,38*
	Black	3,42	0,67			
98	White	3,50	0,62	4,73	0,00***	0,55**
	Black	3,09	0,87			
99	White	3,54	0,61	2,90	0,00**	0,31*
	Black	3,34	0,69			
100	White	3,02	0,70	11,16	0,00***	1,22***
	Black	2,13	0,76			
101	White	3,37	0,73	3,81	0,00***	0,42*
	Black	3,02	0,92			
102	White	3,54	0,56	6,08	0,00***	0,68**
	Black	3,12	0,67			
103	White	3,19	0,70	5,39	0,00***	0,58**
	Black	2,77	0,76			
104	White	3,59	0,58	7,39	0,00***	0,87***
	Black	2,98	0,82			

Items 100 and 104 have statistically as well as large practically significant differences in the reaction towards Opel Kadett advertisement. Culture-specific events in the advertisement (Item 100) indicate that the events in the advertisement are familiar to the white females' culture, but not to the black females' culture (\bar{x} = 3,02 white and \bar{x} = 2,13 black) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,22$. Item 104 (acceptability) indicates that the advertisement is acceptable to the white females (\bar{x} = 3,59) as opposed to the black females who indicated that it was unacceptable (\bar{x} = 2,98) $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,87$.

Table 8.34
Z-test results of each item with the female variable
Advertisement: Post & Telecommunication

Item	Race	\bar{x}	s	z	p	d
105	White	2,99	0,78	-6,93	0,00***	0,70**
	Black	3,49	0,64			
106	White	3,16	0,72	-0,79	0,43	n.a.
	Black	3,23	0,81			
107	White	3,00	0,82	-4,11	0,00***	0,41*
	Black	3,31	0,70			
108	White	3,15	0,71	-0,18	0,86	n.a.
	Black	3,17	0,71			
109	White	2,92	0,74	0,15	0,88	n.a.
	Black	2,91	0,79			
110	White	3,53	0,63	0,73	0,47	n.a.
	Black	3,49	0,60			
111	White	2,83	0,78	1,15	0,25	n.a.
	Black	2,73	0,85			
112	White	3,06	0,80	-1,13	0,26	n.a.
	Black	3,16	0,82			
113	White	3,44	0,60	4,40	0,00***	0,49*
	Black	3,12	0,70			
114	White	3,06	0,80	1,30	0,20	n.a.
	Black	2,96	0,77			
115	White	3,28	0,76	1,30	0,19	n.a.
	Black	3,18	0,78			

The Post and Telecommunication advertisement reveals no practically significant differences, although three items differed statistically significant.

8.4 RESULTS OF THE ANOVA AND TUKEY'S (HSD) TEST

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) assumes that (i) each sample is normally distributed, (ii) the variances for each group are equal, (iii) the subjects are randomly selected from the population and (iv) the scores are statistically independent, in other words, they have no concomitant relationship with any other variable or score (Wimmer & Dominick, 1983:215). Three one-way ANOVA analyses were conducted on the television-viewing variable. The aim is to throw light on the difference in television-viewing behaviour amongst various language groups, age groups and individuals from different home town areas. This is an attempt to refine the differences between the race groups' television-viewing behaviour.

Wimmer & Dominick (1983:39) explain that because survey methodology has become so complex, it is rare to find one researcher who is an expert in all phases of a large study. They recommend a secondary analysis to solve this problem, the Tukey test.

Tukey proposed this multiple comparison procedure according to Ott (1977:398), utilizing an experiment-wise error rate. The Duncan multiple range test and Scheffe's procedure have answered the question of which error rate to control inadequately. The following symbols need to be defined in order to clarify the tables which are presented with the analysis of variance: df (degrees of freedom), ss (sum of squares) and F (F value).

Table 8.35
Summary of ANOVA
Language on television-viewing

Source of variation	df	ss	F	p
Language	7	1188,53	4,89	0,00***
Error	792	27523,67	--	

Table 8.35 (continue)
Summary of Tukey's HSD test
Language on television-viewing

\bar{x}	Language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
21,47	1 (Tswana)						*	*	*
23,57	2 (Southern Sotho)								
17,17	3 (Northern Sotho)								
20,02	4 (Xhosa)						*		
20,07	5 (Zulu)								
16,92	6 (English)								
18,24	7 (Afrikaans)								
15,79	8 (Other)								

Tswana vs English (d = 0,13)
Tswana vs Other (d = 0,16)

Tswana vs Afrikaans (d = 0,09)
Xhosa vs English (d = 0,09)

Table 8.35, according to ANOVA, indicates that there are statistical differences among the different language groups and their television-viewing behaviour, $p < 0,001$. The Tukey Test reveals the following specific differences ($p < 0,05$ in all cases): (i) Tswana and English (d = 0,13); (ii) Tswana and Afrikaans (d = 0,09); (iii) Tswana and other languages (d = 0,16*); (iv) Xhosa and English (d = 0,09).

All differences have a minimal practical size effect. This result indicates that no practically significant differences occur amongst different language groups' television-viewing behaviour.

Table 8.36
Summary of ANOVA
Home town area on television-viewing

Source of variation	df	ss	F	p
Home town area	9	923,31	2,94	0,00**
Error	789	27777,92	--	

Table 8.36 (continue)
Summary of Tukey's HSD test
Home town area on television-viewing

\bar{x}	Area 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
18,90	1 (Cape)									
19,19	2 (Natal)									
18,73	3 (OFS)									
17,99	4 (TVL)									
18,50	5 (Venda)									
21,84	6 (Bophuthastwana)									*
19,58	7 (Ciskei)									
23,10	8 (Transkei)									*
15,50	9 (Lesotho)									
15,13	10 (Other/Namibia)									

Bophuthatswana vs Namibia ($d = 0,18$)

Transkei vs Namibia ($d = 0,23$)

Table 8.36 gives the results of the ANOVA of television-viewing on home town area. Statistically significant differences occur ($p < 0,001$). Tukey's test reveals the following specific differences: (i) Bophuthatswana and Namibia ($d = 0,18^*$), and (ii) Transkei and Namibia ($d = 0,23^*$). Both these differences occur on the 95% level with $p < 0,05$. Unfortunately these results have a minimal practical significance. The results show that Bophutatswana and Namibian viewers have different television-viewing behaviours. This finding could be attributed to the fact that these states have their own television stations, with different programmes.

Table 8.37
Summary of ANOVA
Age on television-viewing

Source of variation	df	ss	F	p
Age of respondents	9	397,62	1,23	0,27
Error	788	28310,06	--	

Table 8.37 is the ANOVA of television-viewing on age. This table indicates no statistically significant differences. As a result $p = 0,27$. Tukey therefore also reveals no particular statistically significant differences.

8.5 RESULTS OF PEARSON'S CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (r)

Two identical Pearson correlation coefficient (r) analyses were conducted on the different race groups ($n_1 = 582$ and $n_2 = 218$). The motive for this procedure was to explain the differences in correlation between the two race groups.

The practical effect size according to Cohen (1977) varies according to the following criteria: (i) $r = +/- 0,1$ ($r^2 = 0,01$): small effect (*); (ii) $r = +/- 0,3$ ($r^2 = 0,09$): medium effect (**), and $r = +/- 0,5$ ($r^2 = 0,25$): large effect (***). (*) $r = +/- 0,1$ means $r = -0,1$ or $r = 0,1$.

Only correlations with a r^2 value of $\geq 0,25$ will be discussed in the text. The rest of the correlations are given for the sake of completeness. In all cases p is $< 0,00***$ where $r^2 \geq 0,25$, and it is not reported with a table each time.

The significant level (p) indicates the significance of the r value between the two variables. The smaller the level of p, the bigger the statistical significance of r can be regarded. Tables 8.38 to 8.48 include the different Pearson correlation coefficient (r) results.

Table 8.38
Correlation of variables with facial expression

Variable	Race	r	p	r ²
Body movements	white	0,12	0,00**	0,01*
	black	0,23	0,00**	0,05*
Physique	white	0,10	0,01*	0,00*
	black	0,40	0,00***	0,16**
Artifacts	white	0,28	0,00***	0,08*
	black	0,36	0,00***	0,13**
Para-language	white	0,36	0,00***	0,13**
	black	0,34	0,00***	0,12**
Understanding	white	0,34	0,00***	0,12**
	black	0,43	0,00***	0,18**
Identification	white	0,33	0,00***	0,11**
	black	0,31	0,00***	0,10**
Acceptability	white	0,40	0,00***	0,16**
	black	0,50	0,00***	0,25***
Culture	white	0,32	0,00***	0,10**
	black	0,05	0,43	0,00*
Persuasion	white	0,31	0,00***	0,01*
	black	0,41	0,00***	0,17**
Television-viewing	white	0,10	0,02*	0,01*
	black	0,07	0,32	n.a.

The correlation of variables with facial expression reveals only the acceptability variable (for the black group) to correlate with a great practical effect ($r^2 = 0,25$). The same variable has an $r^2 = 0,16$ for the white group.

Table 8.39
Correlation of variables with body movements

Variable	Race	r	p	r ²
Physique	white	0,09	0,04*	0,01*
	black	0,27	0,00***	0,07*
Artifacts	white	0,27	0,00***	0,07*
	black	0,34	0,00***	0,12**
Para-language	white	0,26	0,00***	0,07*
	black	0,38	0,00***	0,14**
Understanding	white	0,26	0,00***	0,07*
	black	0,33	0,00***	0,01*
Identification	white	0,43	0,00***	0,18**
	black	0,29	0,00***	0,08*
Acceptability	white	0,36	0,00***	0,13**
	black	0,37	0,00***	0,14**
Culture	white	0,34	0,00***	0,12**
	black	-0,03	0,66	-0,03
Persuasion	white	0,41	0,00***	0,17**
	black	0,32	0,00***	0,10**
Television-viewing	white	0,07	0,11	n.a.
	black	-0,07	0,33	n.a.

No practically significant correlations occurred with body movements for both race groups in Table 7.39.

Table 8.40
Correlation of variables with physique

Variable	Race	r	p	r ²
Artifacts	white	0,34	0,00***	0,12**
	black	0,47	0,00***	0,22**
Para-language	white	0,37	0,00***	0,14**
	black	0,48	0,00***	0,23**
Understanding	white	0,24	0,00***	0,06*
	black	0,46	0,00***	0,21**
Identification	white	0,32	0,00***	0,10*
	black	0,37	0,00***	0,14*
Acceptability	white	0,52	0,00***	0,27***
	black	0,51	0,00***	0,26***
Culture	white	0,33	0,00***	0,11*
	black	0,11	0,10	0,01*
Persuasion	white	0,30	0,00***	0,09**
	black	0,42	0,00***	0,18**
Television-viewing	white	-0,04	0,36	n.a.
	black	-0,05	0,45	n.a.

The physique variable reveals a practically significant correlation with acceptability for both groups ($r^2 = 0,27$ white and $r^2 = 0,26$ black).

Table 8.41
Correlation of variables with artifacts

Variable	Race	r	p	r ²
Para-language	white	0,51	0,00***	0,26***
	black	0,53	0,00***	0,28***
Understanding	white	0,48	0,00***	0,23**
	black	0,60	0,00***	0,36***
Identification	white	0,48	0,00***	0,23**
	black	0,47	0,00***	0,22**
Acceptability	white	0,56	0,00***	0,31***
	black	0,55	0,00***	0,30***
Culture	white	0,38	0,00***	0,14**
	black	0,11	0,09	0,01*
Persuasion	white	0,49	0,00***	0,24**
	black	0,49	0,00***	0,24**
Television-viewing	white	0,06	0,14	n.a.
	black	-0,03	0,70	n.a.

The artifact variable correlates with the para-language variable in both race groups ($r^2 = 0,26$ white and $r^2 = 0,28$ black). It correlates in the black group with less practically significant correlation in the white group ($r^2 = 0,23$ white and $r^2 = 0,36$ black) for the understanding variable. The acceptability variable correlates with the artifact variable in both race groups ($r^2 = 0,31$ white and $r^2 = 0,30$ black).

Table 8.42
Correlation of variables with para-language

Variable	Race	r	p	r ²
Understanding	white	0,45	0,00***	0,20**
	black	0,62	0,00***	0,38***
Identification	white	0,51	0,00***	0,26***
	black	0,52	0,00***	0,27***
Acceptability	white	0,64	0,00***	0,41***
	black	0,65	0,00***	0,42***
Culture	white	0,44	0,00***	0,19**
	black	0,16	0,02*	0,03*
Persuasion	white	0,55	0,00***	0,30***
	black	0,58	0,00***	0,34***
Television-viewing	white	0,11	0,01*	0,01*
	black	-0,01	0,88	n.a.

The para-language variable correlates with a number of other variables. With understanding it correlates practically significant, with the black group ($r^2 = 0,38$), whilst the white group has a medium practical size effect of $r^2 = 0,20$.

The para-language variable also correlates with identification on a large practical size effect ($r^2 = 0,26$ white and $r^2 = 0,27$ black). Acceptability is no exception ($r^2 = 0,41$ white and $r^2 = 0,42$ black). Persuasion is the last variable to correlate with para-language on a large practical size effect ($r^2 = 0,30$ white and $r^2 = 0,34$ black).

Table 8.43
Correlation of variables with understanding

Variable	Race	r	p	r ²
Identification	white	0,56	0,00***	0,31***
	black	0,71	0,00***	0,50***
Acceptability	white	0,60	0,00***	0,36***
	black	0,75	0,00***	0,56***
Culture	white	0,48	0,00***	0,23**
	black	0,22	0,00**	0,05*
Persuasion	white	0,44	0,00***	0,19**
	black	0,61	0,00***	0,37***
Television-viewing	white	0,05	0,21	n.a.
	black	-0,01	0,87	n.a.

Several practically significant correlations occur in the understanding variable on a large size effect. For both race groups large size effects are recorded in understanding by identification ($r^2 = 0,31$ white and $r^2 = 0,50$ black) and in understanding by acceptability ($r^2 = 0,36$ white and $r^2 = 0,56$ black). Only the black response correlates with persuasion ($r^2 = 0,37$).

Table 8.44
Correlation of variables with identification

Variable	Race	r	p	r ²
Acceptability	white	0,68	0,00***	0,46***
	black	0,73	0,00***	0,53***
Culture	white	0,66	0,00***	0,44***
	black	0,34	0,00***	0,12**
Persuasion	white	0,66	0,00***	0,44***
	black	0,69	0,00***	0,48***
Television-viewing	white	0,11	0,01*	0,01*
	black	-0,06	0,36	n.a.

The identification variable correlates statistically significantly as well as practically significantly with the following variables: (i) acceptability ($r^2 = 0,46$ white and $r^2 = 0,53$ black), (ii) persuasion ($r^2 = 0,44$ white and $r^2 = 0,48$ black), lastly (iii) culture ($r^2 = 0,44$ white and $r^2 = 0,12$ black which has a medium size effect).

Table 8.45
Correlation of variables with acceptability

Variable	Race	r	p	r^2
Culture	white	0,61	0,00***	0,37***
	black	0,25	0,00***	0,06*
Persuasion	white	0,72	0,00***	0,52***
	black	0,79	0,00***	0,62***
Television-viewing	white	0,06	0,12	n.a.
	black	-0,03	0,68	n.a.

Acceptability correlates both statistically and practically in the persuasion variable ($r^2 = 0,52$ white and $r^2 = 0,62$ black). Culture also encountered large differences between the two race groups: $r^2 = 0,37$ white and $r^2 = 0,06$ black, although only the white group did differed with a large practical size effect.

Table 8.46
Correlation of variables with culture

Variable	Race	r	p	r^2
Persuasion	white	0,50	0,00***	0,25***
	black	0,31	0,00***	0,10**
Television-viewing	white	0,41	0,00**	0,10**
	black	0,10	0,15	0,01*

With regard to the culture variable, only one variable correlated with a large practically significant effect size on the white group: persuasion ($r^2 = 0,25$ white and $r^2 = 0,10$ black).

Table 8.47
Correlation of variables with persuasion

Variable	Race	r	p	r ²
Television-viewing	white	0,12	0,01*	0,01*
	black	0,03	0,61	n.a.

No practically significant correlation occurred between persuasion and television-viewing in Table 8.47.

Table 8.48
Correlation of all variables* with each variable

Variable	Race	r	p	r ²
Facial expressions	white	0,52	0,00***	0,27***
	black	0,57	0,00***	0,32***
Body movements	white	0,49	0,00***	0,24**
	black	0,51	0,00***	0,26***
Physique	white	0,51	0,00***	0,26***
	black	0,63	0,00***	0,40***
Artifacts	white	0,70	0,00***	0,49***
	black	0,71	0,00***	0,50***
Para-language	white	0,75	0,00***	0,56***
	black	0,77	0,00***	0,59***
Understanding	white	0,71	0,00***	0,50***
	black	0,83	0,00***	0,69***
Identification	white	0,82	0,00***	0,67***
	black	0,79	0,00***	0,62***
Acceptability	white	0,87	0,00***	0,76***
	black	0,86	0,00***	0,75***
Culture	white	0,74	0,00***	0,56***
	black	0,38	0,00***	0,14**
Persuasion	white	0,77	0,00***	0,59***
	black	0,81	0,00***	0,66***
Television-viewing	white	0,11	0,00**	0,01*
	black	-0,01	0,91	n.a.

* All variables are Items 14 - 115, summed together.

The following variables correlated with the total (Items 14-115), all statistically significant and some practically significant, with an r^2 value of $>0,25$:

- (i) Facial expression ($r^2 = 0,27$ white and $r^2 = 0,32$ black);
- (ii) body movements ($r^2 = 0,24$ white and $r^2 = 0,26$ black);
- (iii) physique ($r^2 = 0,26$ white and $r^2 = 0,40$ black);
- (iv) artifacts ($r^2 = 0,49$ white and $r^2 = 0,50$ black);
- (v) para-language ($r^2 = 0,56$ white and $r^2 = 0,59$ black);
- (vi) understanding ($r^2 = 0,50$ white and $r^2 = 0,69$ black);
- (vii) identification ($r^2 = 0,67$ white and $r^2 = 0,62$ black) and
- (viii) culture ($r^2 = 0,55$ white and $r^2 = 0,14$ black).

The television-viewing variable shows no statistically and practically significant correlation with the total variable.

8.6 DISCUSSION

The discussion of the results is done according to the set working hypotheses. The hypotheses are mentioned and directly below the discussion of those hypotheses follows.

The general difference between the race groups is anticipated to be more significant than the general difference between the sexes towards the stimulus material.

The results in Tables 8.1 and 8.2 indicate that the differences between the races and sexes are statistically significant. In both cases $p > 0,001$. The practical significance, however, indicates that in both cases the d -value has a small effect. The d -value for the race variable is 0,30 and for the sex variable 0,24. This indicates that the difference between the race groups is more significant than that of the sexes. Due to the fact that non-verbal communication is culture-orientated, the above results were expected. Males and females from the same culture will be able to perceive

non-verbal variables in the same manner.

According to the above discussion, the working hypothesis is accepted.

It is anticipated that black and white respondents will differ in their reaction towards the following non-verbal variables: (a) Facial expressions, (b) physique, (c) body movements, (d) artifacts and (e) para-language.

(a) Facial expressions: Item 25 in the Firestone advertisement (I think the expression on the actor's face is meaningful) reveals a difference between the white and black males ($\bar{x} = 3,65$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,09$ black). This indicates that the expression on the actor's face is more meaningful to the white males than to the black males. The difference is statistically as well as practically significant ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,80$).

Item 18 in the Peanuts advertisement (I think the actor's looks reflects a positive attitude towards the product which is being advertised) indicates that the white and black females differ in their reactions. This difference is statistically and practically significant ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,93$). The \bar{x} for the white females is 3,48 and 2,74 for the black females, an indication that the white females agree with the statement, while the black females do not agree.

With regard to the above discussion, the working hypothesis is accepted.

(b) Physique: The Chicken Licken advertisement reveals significant differences between the two race groups. Item 55 (I like the physique of the male actor) indicates that the difference is significant, both statistically and practically: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,14$, ($\bar{x} = 2,38$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,38$ black). The white respondents indicated that they did not agree with the statement, whilst the black respondents did agree.

Item 56 (I like the physique of the female actor) indicates a difference between the two race groups: $\bar{x} = 2,72$ for the white respondents and $\bar{x} =$

3,38 for the black respondents. The p-value <0,001 and d = 0,87. Item 57 (the black female actor is attractive) shows that $\bar{x} = 2,25$ for the white respondents and $\bar{x} = 3,04$ for the black respondents. This indicates that the address is attractive for the black respondents, but not to the white respondents. This difference is significant: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,94$. Item 58 (the black male actor is attractive) indicates that the race groups differ in their perceptions thereof: $\bar{x} = 1,61$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,97$ black. The p-value = 0,001 and $d = 1,53$.

The white and black females perceived the actors in Item 54 differently: $\bar{x} = 3,10$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,77$ black. This difference is both practically and statistically significant ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,88$). Item 64 (I am not negative towards the white actors in the Philips Television advertisement) shows a difference in the white and black males' responses: $\bar{x} = 3,39$ and black = 3,33. The white males perceived the actors more positively, because $\bar{x} = 3,39$ is closer to 4, which is strongly agree.

Table 8.3 further indicates that the physique variable indeed shows an important difference. The white responses: $\bar{x} = 31,33$ and the \bar{x} of the black responses is 29,74. This difference is both statistically and practically significant. $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,82$.

The working hypothesis is accepted. All the differences are statistically as well as practically significant.

(c) Body movements: Item 37 in the Status advertisement (I think the personal space between the male actors and the female actress is too close) reveals a difference which is both statistically and practically significant: $\bar{x} = 2,24$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,07$ black ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,99$).

As indicated in Chapter 3, space is classified under body movements because it changes due to the movements of the actors. Traditionally it falls under its own independent category.

According to the above discussion, the working hypothesis is accepted.

(d) Artifacts: Tables 8.11 and 8.12 indicate statistically significant differences between the two race groups which occurred in the perception of the Pitco Tea and BMW advertisements. These differences are, however, practically insignificant. Due to this finding, the working hypothesis is rejected.

(e) Para-language: Tables 8.13 and 14 show that statistically significant differences occurred between the two race groups in the perception of the Opel Kadett and Post & Telecommunication advertisements. There are, however, no practically significant differences.

With regard to the above results, the working hypothesis is rejected.

Facial expressions, body movements and physique are direct contributors to the visual perception of the actor. As a result, these non-verbal elements contribute directly to the meaning which television viewers assign to the actor. Some of the first variables noticeable in a television advertisement are the face and the physique of the actor as well as his movements. It is therefore understandable that individuals would be more attentive to these non-verbal elements. Artifacts contribute indirectly to the enhancement of the actor. Para-language is an important non-verbal element, but quite often the actors do not speak in a television advertisement.

It is anticipated that black and white respondents will differ in their reactions towards the following advertising variables: (a) Understanding, (b) identification, (c) acceptance, (d) culture-specific elements and (e) persuasion.

(a) Understanding: Table 8.4 indicates that the perception of understanding between the white and black groups differ significantly, both statistically and practically: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,85$.

Specific differences in the understanding variable occurred in the Philips Television and the Firestone advertisements. Table 8.10 indicates that the white and black respondents differed in their perceptions of understanding in the Philips Television advertisement: $\bar{x} = 3,46$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,83$ black, with $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,84$. The black respondents did not understand the advertisement ($\bar{x} = 2,83$ indicating that they disagree).

The white and black males as well as the white and black females perceived the understanding differently in the Firestone advertisement. The males differed significantly: $\bar{x} = 3,70$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,09$ black, with $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,92$. This means that the advertisement is more comprehensible to the white males (\bar{x} is closer to 4, indicating that they strongly agree to the statement in Item 29).

The females also differed significantly in their comprehension of the Firestone advertisement. $\bar{x} = 3,75$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,16$ black. This is an indication that the advertisement is more comprehensible to the white females than to the black females ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,92$).

According to the above discussion, the working hypothesis is accepted.

(b) Identification: The black and white respondents differed in their identification with the advertisement. Item 60 in the Chicken Licken advertisement indicates this difference, which is both statistically and practically significant.

The white respondents could not identify with the advertisement, $\bar{x} = 2,26$, whilst the black respondents could ($\bar{x} = 3,46$); $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,52$. Specific differences also occur between the sexes of the different race groups. The \bar{x} for the white males is 2,23 and 3,49 for the black males: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,58$. The white females could also not identify with this advertisement, as opposed to the black females who could: $\bar{x} = 2,27$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,44$ black, with $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,48$.

With regard to the above discussion, the working hypothesis is accepted.

(c) Acceptability: Differences in the acceptability of the advertisement occur between the two race groups in the following advertisements: Chicken Licken, Philips Television and Opel Kadett. Specific differences between the black and white male respondents also occur in the Firestone advertisement. All the differences are both statistically and practically significant.

The Chicken Licken advertisement is acceptable to the black respondents (Item 62), but not to the white respondents ($\bar{x} = 2,69$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,54$ black; $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,13$). The Philips Television advertisement is acceptable to the white respondents (Item 72), but not to the black respondents ($\bar{x} = 3,46$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,82$ black; $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,84$).

Item 104 in the Opel Kadett advertisement reveals that the advertisement is acceptable to the white respondents ($\bar{x} = 3,59$), but not to the black respondents ($\bar{x} = 2,95$). This difference is significant: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,89$. Item 31 of the Firestone advertisement indicates that the white males accept the advertisement ($\bar{x} = 3,54$) whilst it is not acceptable to the black males ($\bar{x} = 2,88$). The p-value $< 0,001$ and $d = 0,84$.

According to the above discussion, the working hypothesis is accepted.

(d) Culture: Differences in perception between black and white respondents with regard to events which are culture-specific in the advertisement occurred in the following advertisements: Chicken Licken, Philips Television, Pitco Tea, BMW and Opel Kadett. Specific differences occurred between the white and black female groups in the Firestone and Status advertisements. Table 8.4 also indicates that perceptual differences occurred between the two race groups with regard to culture-specific events in the advertisements. The white group generally perceived the events more culture-specific ($\bar{x} = 28,49$) than the black group ($\bar{x} = 23,76$). This difference is statistically as well as practically significant ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,02$).

The following differences are both statistically and practically significant. The white group disagreed with the fact that the events in the Chicken Licken advertisement (Item 63) is specific to their culture, whilst the black group agreed: $\bar{x} = 2,10$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,15$ black, whilst $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,21$. The Phillips Television advertisement reveals that culture-specific events (Item 73) occurred with regard to the white group, but not with regard to the black group: $\bar{x} = 3,31$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,14$ black ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,48$).

The Pitco Tea advertisement (Item 83) reveals that the events in the advertisement are not culture-specific to either group. Both groups disagree with the statement. It seems, however, that the events are more culture-specific to the white culture ($\bar{x} = 2,82$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,09$ black, whilst $p < 0,001$ and $d = 0,86$).

The BMW advertisement (Item 93) indicates that the events are mostly white culture-specific. The white group's $\bar{x} = 3,20$ and the black group's $\bar{x} = 2,30$. The p -value $< 0,001$ and $d = 1,28$. The Opel Kadett advertisement (Item 100) shows that the events are more culture-specific to the white group ($\bar{x} = 3,03$) but not to the black group ($\bar{x} = 2,14$). This difference is significant - $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,17$.

The white and black females differed in their reaction towards culture-specific events in the Firestone advertisement (Item 32). The $\bar{x} = 3,28$ white and $\bar{x} = 2,41$ black ($p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,05$). This indicates that the events are familiar to the white females' culture, but not to the black females' culture. A difference also occurred in the Status advertisement (Item 40) where the events are not familiar to either culture. It seems, however, as if the events were more unfamiliar to the black females' culture than to the white females' culture ($\bar{x} = 2,67$ white and $\bar{x} = 1,80$ black). This difference is significant: $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,01$.

In view of the above discussion, the hypothesis is accepted.

(e) Persuasion: The Chicken Licken advertisement (Item 60) persuaded the black respondents to buy the advertised product, but not the white respondents. The $\bar{x} = 2,26$ white and $\bar{x} = 3,46$ black with $p < 0,001$ and $d = 1,52$.

According to this result, the working hypothesis is accepted.

In view of the above discussion, it is evident that white and black respondents differ significantly on all advertising variables. It seems as if the most important advertising variable in this regard is culture. This be the case, it would be easier to explain why the respondents differed towards all the variables. If one assumes that the advertisement is directed at a specific culture, one can anticipate that differences will occur between the different culture groups' perceptions thereof.

When non-verbal variables in a given advertisement is culture-specific, that particular culture would more easily understand these culture-specific non-verbal codes. A television advertisement which is perceived as familiar or part of a group or individual's culture, is more comprehensible to that specific group or person. The chances of the individual or group identifying with and accepting the advertisement, are therefore better. This could lead to a higher degree of persuadability of the advertisement.

The results have indicated that the advertisements were more comprehensible to the white respondents. This is due to the fact that most of the television advertisements are created mainly by Westernized people, who are unable to communicate in a black idiom. It seems as if black respondents could identify themselves with more Western-orientated television advertisements, where mainly white cultural norms and actors are portrayed. In the more black-orientated advertisements, it appeared that the white respondents could not identify with the advertisements. Festinger (1954:117-135) indicated that each individual has a need to evaluate his opinions and ideas. He further indicates that a person would like to evaluate and compare himself to people whose ideas and opinions are not extremely different from his own. Black respondents' willingness to

identify with Western culture-specific events in television advertisements could be ascribed to the following reasons: (a) The events which are portrayed in television advertisements reflect a more wealthy and comfortable lifestyle, and (b) a more Western-orientated culture is presented in the majority of television advertisements.

A correlation between television-viewing behaviour and the respondents' reactions towards non-verbal variables in television advertisements is anticipated.

Items 8-11 in the questionnaire comprise the television-viewing behaviour. This includes a comprehensive analysis of the respondent's viewing behaviour during the week and weekends on campus as well as during the week and weekends at home. No significant correlations were recorded, however. This leads to the presumption that individuals have a preconceived and well-formed attitude towards television advertisements. As a result, it is anticipated that the influence of the individual's immediate environment, like the family peer group and interpersonal interactions, contribute to his preconceived attitude.

No significant correlations occurred between television-viewing behaviour and the following non-verbal variables in television-viewing:

- (i) Facial expression ($r^2 = 0,01$ white and n.a. for blacks);
- (ii) body movements ($r^2 =$ n.a. for both races);
- (iii) physique ($r^2 =$ n.a. for both races);
- (iv) artifacts ($r^2 =$ n.a. for both races) and
- (v) para-language ($r^2 = 0,01$ white and n.a. for black).

According to the above discussion, the working hypothesis is rejected.

A correlation between television-viewing behaviour and the respondents' reactions towards advertising variables in television advertisements is anticipated.

No significant correlations occurred between television-viewing behaviour and the following advertising variables in television advertising:

- (i) Understanding ($r^2 = \text{n.a.}$ for both race groups);
- (ii) identification ($r^2 = 0,01$ white and n.a. for black);
- (iii) acceptability ($r^2 = \text{n.a.}$ for both race groups);
- (iv) culture ($r^2 = 0,10$ white and $0,01$ black) and
- (v) persuasion ($r^2 = 0,01$ white and n.a. for black).

Due to the above results, the working hypothesis is rejected.

The degree of correlation between variables between the two race groups will differ.

Differences between the two race groups occur with each correlation. The most significant differences occur in the following variables between the two groups:

- (i) Acceptability with facial expression ($r^2 = 0,25$ white and $r^2 = 0,16$ black);
- (ii) understanding with artifacts ($r^2 = 0,23$ white and $r^2 = 0,36$ black);
- (iii) para-language with understanding ($r^2 = 0,20$ white and $r^2 = 0,36$);
- (iv) persuasion with understanding ($r^2 = 0,19$ white and $r^2 = 0,37$ black);
- (v) culture with identification ($r^2 = 0,44$ white and $r^2 = 0,12$ black);
- (vi) culture with acceptability ($r^2 = 0,37$ white and $r^2 = 0,06$ black) and
- (vii) persuasion with culture ($r^2 = 0,25$ white and $r^2 = 0,10$ black).

In view of the results in Tables 8.38 - 8.48, the correlations between the non-verbal and television variables seem as though the aforementioned working hypothesis is confirmed. This indicates once again that advertising variables like culture-specific events, understanding, acceptability and identification, influence the persuasiveness of the advertising message.

As a result, the working hypothesis has been accepted.

With regard to the variable relationships Table 8.43 reveals that the comprehension of the advertisement correlates significantly with acceptability ($r^2 = 0,36$ white and $r^2 = 0,56$ black), identification with the advertisement ($r^2 = 0,31$ white and $r^2 = 0,50$ black) and the persuasiveness of the advertisement ($r^2 = 0,19$ white - medium size effect and $r^2 = 0,37$ black). This result strengthens the above discussion that these advertising variables could enhance the perceptibility of non-verbal elements in television advertisements.

8.7 CONCLUSION

In this section specific conclusions are drawn as a result of the responses towards the statements on non-verbal and advertising variables in the television advertisements.

Several differences in response occurred between the sexes and race groups. Since the South African consumer market of the 1990s is going to be dominated by the young black consumer, as indicated in Chapter 6, it seems appropriate to emphasize the differences between the race groups. The reason for this is the fact that the mainly westernized advertising agencies approach the black market with a mainly westernized attitude and techniques towards the black market.

Most of the differences in the results were statistically significant, but less differences were of any large practical significance. For a more complete and thorough explanation of these differences, all statistical

significant as well as the practical significant differences are included in the conclusion to illustrate the perceptual disparities between the black and white race groups. Although statistically and not practically significant, the following aspects could offer a useful means of limiting the perceptual differences between white and black viewers concerning non-verbal and advertising variables in television advertisements.

The following advertisements were selected under the specific categories: Peanuts and Firestone tyres under facial expressions; Status deodorant and Schweppes under body movements; Chicken Licken and Philips Television under physique; Pitco Tea and BMW under artifacts, and Opel Kadett and Post and Telecommunications under para-language.

8.7.1 Facial expressions

In both advertisements, Peanuts and Firestone, the following two perceptual differences occur between the two race groups:

- * Black and white respondents differ in their perceptions of the way the actor looks at the advertised product.
- * The way the actor looks at the advertised product.
- * Black and white respondents differ in their perceptions of the way the actor looks at them during the television advertisement.
- * The way the actor looks at the respondents during the television advertisement.

The following differences only occur in the Firestone advertisement:

- * Black and white respondents differ in the way they perceive credibility on the advertising model's face.
- * Black and white respondents attach different values to the meaningfulness of the actor's face.
- * The way the actor glances is also perceived differently.

8.7.2 Body movements

In both the Status and Schweppes advertisements the following differences between the two race groups occur:

- * Gestures are perceived differently by the two race groups.
- * Body movements in television advertisements are perceived differently.
- * The personal space between the male and female actors is perceived differently by black and white respondents.
- * The personal space between the male actors is also perceived differently by the two race groups.

A further perceptual difference occur in the Status advertisement between the two race groups:

- * The way the actors touch each other are perceived differently. In this advertisement the actors are sitting and a female actor touches the leg of the male actor.

8.7.3 Physique

Perceptual differences in reaction occur in both the Chicken Licken and Philips Television advertisements. In the Chicken Licken advertisement, the main characters are black actors, whilst in the Philips Television advertisement, the two actors are white.

- * Attitudes towards the actors differ between the race groups. It seems as if the white respondents are more in favour of the white actors and the black respondents are more in favour of the black respondents.
- * The physique of the male actors are perceived differently.
- * The physique of the female actors are perceived differently.
- * The attractiveness of the male actors is perceived differently.
- * The attractiveness of the female actors are perceived differently.

8.7.4 Artifacts

Both the Pitco Tea and BMW advertisements reveal perceptual differences between the two race groups:

- * Hairstyles are perceived differently.
- * Colours that contribute to the product image are perceived differently.

The following differences only occur in the BMW advertisement:

- * The perception of an environment as a reflection of a wealthy life-style.
- * The fashionable way in which the actors are dressed.
- * The jewellery reflects no perceptual differences between white and black respondents.

8.7.5 Para-language

Three similar differences occur in both the Opel Kadett and Post & Telecommunication advertisements:

- * Perceptual differences to the spokesperson's voice occur between the white and black races.
- * The music used to suit the advertised product or service is perceived differently by white and black respondents.
- * The jingle is perceived differently.

In the reaction towards the Opel Kadett advertisement, more differences occur between the white and black respondents:

- * The voices of the robots are more acceptable to the white group than to the black group.
- * The use of sound and silence to draw the consumer's attention to specific events in the advertisement, is perceived differently.

8.7.6 Understanding

- * Facial expressions: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Body movements: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Physique: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Artifacts: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Para-language: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.

8.7.7 Identification

- * Facial expressions: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Body movements: A difference only occurs in the Status advertisement.
- * Physique: In both advertisements perceptual differences occur.
- * Artifacts: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Para-language: A perceptual difference only occurs in the Opel Kadett advertisement.

8.7.8 Culture

- * Facial expressions: A perceptual difference only occurs in the Firestone advertisement.
- * Body movements: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Physique: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Artifacts: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Para-language: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.

8.7.9 Acceptability

- * Facial expressions: A perceptual difference only occurs in the Firestone advertisement.
- * Body movements: No perceptual differences occur in these two advertisements.
- * Physique: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Artifacts: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Para-language: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.

8.7.10 Persuasion

- * Facial expressions: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Body movements: No perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Physique: Perceptual differences occur in both advertisements.
- * Artifacts: A perceptual difference only occurs in the BMW advertisement.
- * Para-language: A perceptual difference only occurs in the Opel Kadett advertisement.

8.7.11 Variable relationships

- * A definite relation between facial expression and acceptability to the black respondents exists.
- * No real correlation exists between body movements and any other non-verbal or advertising variables to any of the two race groups.
- * A definite relation exists between the physique of the advertising models to both black and white race groups.

- * There is a relation between artifacts and para-language variables and artifacts and the acceptability to both race groups. There is only a relation between artifacts and the understanding by blacks, not whites.
- * There are two definite relations between understanding and identifying with the advertisement and understanding and acceptability of the advertisement. These findings are identical for both race groups.
- * Understanding correlates with persuasion only with the blacks and not with the whites.
- * Para-language variables have a definite relation to the following variables in both race groups: artifacts, identification, acceptability and persuasion. With blacks it only relates to understanding.
- * The identification variable relates to the para-language, understanding, acceptability and persuasion variables in both race groups. With the white group it only correlates with the culture variable.
- * The acceptability variable relates to all the variables, except to body movements. It correlates only with the facial expression variable in the black group and the culture variable in the white group.
- * The culture variable only correlates with the white group's identification, acceptability and persuasion variables. No effective relation occurs with any of the black group's responses.
- * Persuasion correlates with the following variables in both race groups: para-language, identification and acceptability. It only relates to the black group's understanding and the white group's culture.
- * Television-viewing is the variable summed from four items: (i) Viewing during the week on campus, (ii) viewing during weekends on campus, (iii) viewing during the week at home, and (iv) viewing during weekends at home. This variable does

not relate significantly to any other variable. On a small effect size it only relates to the white respondents' para-language, identification, culture and persuasion variables.

8.8 SUMMARY

Due to the extensive list of conclusions on non-verbal and advertising variables in television advertising in the above section, a short summary will suffice.

This chapter has concentrated mainly on the differences between the white and black race groups' reactions towards non-verbal and advertising variables in television advertisements. Non-verbal communication depends on the setting or context in which the events occur.

The first important finding is the fact that almost all the items in the questionnaire are perceived differently by the two race groups. The second important finding is the fact that there is no real correlation between television-viewing and the reaction to non-verbal communication variables in television advertisements. There is also no correlation between the following: (i) Television-viewing and the understanding of the television advertisement; (ii) television-viewing and the acceptability of the television advertisement; (iii) television-viewing and the persuasiveness of the television advertisement; (iv) television-viewing and the acceptability of the television advertisement, and lastly; (v) television-viewing and the culture-specific events in the television advertisement.

These are the main conclusions that could be drawn from the results on the differences between the groups. The last chapter will elaborate on the wider implications of these findings.

CHAPTER 9

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The general objective of the final chapter of this dissertation is to give a retrospective synopsis of the content and structural nature of the research, in order to come to some critical and general conclusions about the study and field of non-verbal communication in television advertisements.

In order to systematize the summary, each of the chapters will be briefly dealt with individually. The specific aims of this chapter are to make certain specific conclusions about the literature study as well as the empirical analyses.

9.2 SUMMARY

9.2.1 Problems and objectives

In the first chapter a general description was given of advertising and non-verbal communication as a field of study. It was indicated that there has been a new interest in non-verbal communication in advertising, although this field of interest is a relatively new field of study (Stewart & Hecker, 1988 and Van der Waldt, 1990). It was also indicated that the problem with regard to the creation of television advertisements for the South African consumer, is the fact that a mainly Western-orientated advertising industry applies their mainly westernized techniques in advertising. The risk here is that the advertiser could use ineffective non-verbal elements to communicate with the majority of South African consumers. Since non-verbal communication occur in all television advertisements, the objective of this thesis was to determine consumer reactions towards broad non-verbal

categories. These broad categories were selected from an extensive literature study and specific non-verbal elements were classified under (i) facial expressions, (ii) body movements, (iii) physique, (iv) artifacts and (v) para-language.

A second objective was to assess if black and white consumers should be approached differently when emphasizing non-verbal elements in television advertisements.

The third and fourth broad objectives were to determine if there were any correlation between television-viewing behaviour and non-verbal variables on the one hand and television-viewing behaviour and advertising variables on the other hand. Lastly, the objective was to make certain recommendations to the advertising practitioner with regard to the proper use of non-verbal elements in television advertisements.

9.2.2 Orientation

Chapter 2 discussed the interdependence of communication, persuasion and behaviour in the advertising system. As such, all the communication elements occur in the advertising system. According to the communication perspective, television advertising is seen as a unique form of mass communication. Since the function of advertisements are to inform, persuade, or both, new interest in the persuasiveness of the non-verbal elements in advertising have evolved. It is argued that non-verbal communication will not only become a means of drawing attention to the verbal message, but in many instances it will become the message itself. Literature indicates numerous occasions when little research had been conducted on non-verbal communication within the advertising context.

9.2.3 The nature of non-verbal communication

The systematic research on non-verbal communication is only about thirty years old. Theorists conclude that within this period certain contributions were made to the study of non-verbal communication. Some of the main trends which are to be found in most of the literature indicate that:

- * Non-verbal and verbal communication should not be seen as separate forms of communication, but rather as two entities which complement each other;
- * the boundary between non-verbal and verbal communication is not exact;
- * non-verbal communication is more difficult to define than verbal communication;
- * non-verbal communication is more dependent on the situation and context than verbal communication;
- * like verbal communication, non-verbal communication can also be learnt through constant exposure, and
- * both non-verbal and verbal communication are culturally bound, with certain universal codes.

9.2.4 Approaches to the study of non-verbal communication

Different approaches are discussed to explain the diverse variety of angles present when studying non-verbal communication. Research trends in non-verbal communication can be identified by the researcher's academic background and discipline of interest.

Most of the traditional approaches to the study of non-verbal communication derive from the Social Psychology and Sociology. It was recommended that a communication perspective would be the most advantageous approach for the present study to analyze non-verbal communication in television advertisements. Although the emphasis is on the receiver's reactions towards non-verbal elements in television advertisements, other variables in the system of mass communication could also have influenced their perceptions of it. The communication perspective of the study of non-verbal communication in television advertisements nevertheless introduces a shift in paradigm which could contribute to the understanding of this phenomenon.

9.2.5 Non-verbal codes in television advertising and the portrayal of society

Advertising has been criticized for creating an artificial reality with no unpleasant reflections of society. There is an over-emphasizing of pleasant and acceptable norms of society. These images are transmitted by using different codes. The advertising codes are often mere reflections of society.

Television is regarded as an excellent medium for transmitting advertising messages, because of its ability to transmit both sight and sound simultaneously. Attention has been given to the study of signs, its classification and different levels of signification. Non-verbal codes in television advertising revealed four basic types, namely the performance codes, mediational codes, artifactual codes and contextual codes. For the purpose of the present study, the emphasis has been placed on the first two types of non-verbal codes, namely performance and artifactual codes. These codes contribute directly to the perceptual enhancement of the models and events in the television advertisement. These codes include the broad category of non-verbal classifications as discussed in Chapter 3.

9.2.6 Television advertising in the South African context

A problem exists with the effective reaching of most South African consumers, because of the large incidence of illiteracy in the country. Television advertising solves this partly, by presenting a visual as well as the audio message to the destination. Unfortunately television advertising is expensive and a large percentage of the population do not have electricity in their homes for the use of such a medium.

The market for the 1990s will be dominated by the young black mass. Concerning the future of television advertising in South Africa, a number of assumptions were put forward. The most important challenges for the South African advertiser in the 1990s are:

- * To communicate effectively with the dominant young black consumers;
- * advertising contents will have to become more Third World orientated;
- * the emphasis in the advertisements should be on cultural similarities; and
- * to investigate more extensively the following identified advertising variables in order to throw light on the understanding of television advertising perception between the different cultures: Understanding, identification, acceptability, culture-specific events and persuasion.

9.2.7 The effects of non-verbal communication in television advertisements

Chapters 7 and 8 entailed the method and results of the empirical survey on the effects of non-verbal communication in television advertisements. The objectives of the analyses were to investigate the different responses to non-verbal communication between the white and black consumer groups, to indicate any correlations between the different non-verbal and advertising variables and to analyze the most satisfactory predictors of non-verbal communication in television advertisements.

The following are brief descriptions of the most important results:

- * Black and white respondents differed almost entirely in their reactions to facial expressions, body movements and physical attractiveness. No significant differences occurred with regard to their perceptions towards artifacts and para-language.
- * Black and white respondents differed almost entirely in their reactions to the understanding, identifying, accepting of the advertisement, the perception of culture-specific events and the persuasiveness of the advertisement.

- * The amount of television viewing did not correlate with any of the above non-verbal elements, which indicate that the individual's perceptions of certain non-verbal elements have been formed by other influences than the constant exposure to television advertisements.
- * Television-viewing behaviour also did not correlate with any of the following advertising variables: Understanding, acceptability, culture-specific events, identification and persuasion.

The results supported most of the formulated working hypotheses, with the exception of:

- * The correlation between television-viewing behaviour and both advertising and non-verbal variables, and
- * the perceptual differences between black and white respondents with regard to artifacts and para-language revealed no significant differences.

9.3 CONCLUSION

Apart from the specific conclusions in the two previous chapters, there are also a number of general conclusions which should be interpreted from a wider theoretical perspective.

In Chapter 3 an arbitrary classification of non-verbal elements were made. These elements are facial expressions, body movements, physique, artifacts and para-language. Malandro, Barker & Barker (1989:305) indicate that each culture has its own characteristic movements, body positions and inherited meanings for interpreting them. Within this cultural level, certain sub-cultural differences and even individual differences could occur. Specific guidelines for the use of these non-verbal elements in television

advertisements are proposed to facilitate possible implementing of research by the advertising industry and advertising discipline:

9.3.1 Facial expressions in television advertisements

Facial expressions are the most essential part of the actor which are to be seen within the advertisement. According to Malandro, Barker & Barker (1989:123) most facial expressions are universal. Expressions such as happiness, laughter, sadness, loneliness, anger and joy are expressed in the same manner by most cultures.

Related to facial expressions are facial characteristics. People use facial characteristics to make certain predictions about the type of person or the personality of the person.

- * Most facial expressions are universal, and expressions of joy, happiness and sadness are easily portrayable.
- * Attention should, however, be given to the selection of different facial characteristics in television advertisements.
- * Attention should also be given to eye characteristics and the colour of the eyes.

9.3.2 Body movements in television advertisements

Intentionally or unintentionally the human body continues to send messages through movements, gestures, posture, touch and expressions. These body motions subtly influence the interaction process. It provides information about the status, mental and emotional state of the actor.

- * Dance movements seem to reflect no real differences in perceptions between the two race groups.
- * Movements with certain sexual intentions seem to be undesirable in television advertisements. It is more undesirable to the white group than to the black group.

- * Close distances between males are also unacceptable for both race groups.

9.3.3 Physique of the actors in television advertisements

Research indicates that attractive individuals are perceived more socially skilled and more likable than less attractive individuals. Malandro, Barker & Barker (1989:31) mention that attractive persons are perceived as stereotyped to possess more socially desirable characteristics as well. They are rated as higher on perceived popularity, sociability and sexuality as well as on success, persuasiveness and overall happiness.

An important aspect to bear in mind in the physique variable is the fact that it is the only non-verbal variable which an individual is unable to change. The individual's build, shape of the face and length always remain the same. Other non-verbal elements should therefore complement the physique of a person in order to enhance his perceptiveness. Body movements, facial expressions, artifacts and para-language should be arranged in such a manner that they contribute to the general appearance and attractiveness of the actor.

- * The general physique of black actors was less acceptable to the white group, although they were not negative towards the black actors.
- * It seems as if well-built and muscular males were more acceptable to both groups.
- * Fat actors are not favourably perceived. However, within a well-defined context, fat actors could be perceived more favourably.
- * Female actors in general were perceived more favourably by both groups.

9.3.4 Artifacts in television advertisements

Non-verbal elements in television advertisements do not only include the manipulation of the actor, but also the manipulation of objects which are in close contact with the participating actors. Artifacts include a whole range of variables in television advertisements, but only a few were analyzed in this research.

- * Jewellery were perceived more positively by whites than blacks.
- * Fashionable clothes were perceived as more important by whites than by blacks. Clothing enhances the professional image, and help creates source credibility.
- * The use of black and white film images were perceived as not contributory to the image of the product by both groups.
- * The environment helps to reflect reality and is an expression of the social status.

9.3.5 Para-language in television advertisements

The advertising model's vocal cues play an important role in shaping his or her credibility. These vocal qualities shape the viewer's impressions of the individual's credibility, status and power.

- * The spokesperson should strive to speak in a conversational style.
- * Artificial voices (like robots) are more acceptable to whites than blacks.
- * The black group indicated more positively that sound draws attention to specific events in television advertisements, than the white group.
- * The use of silence to focus on specific events in television advertisements was perceived more favourable by whites than blacks.

- * The use of music in the advertisements was positively perceived by both race groups. The type of music used in these advertisements were perceived more positively by the white group than the black group.
- * Hair styles are culturally bound and therefore is more culture-specific.

9.4 TOWARDS A MODEL OF NON-VERBAL PERCEPTIBILITY IN TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS

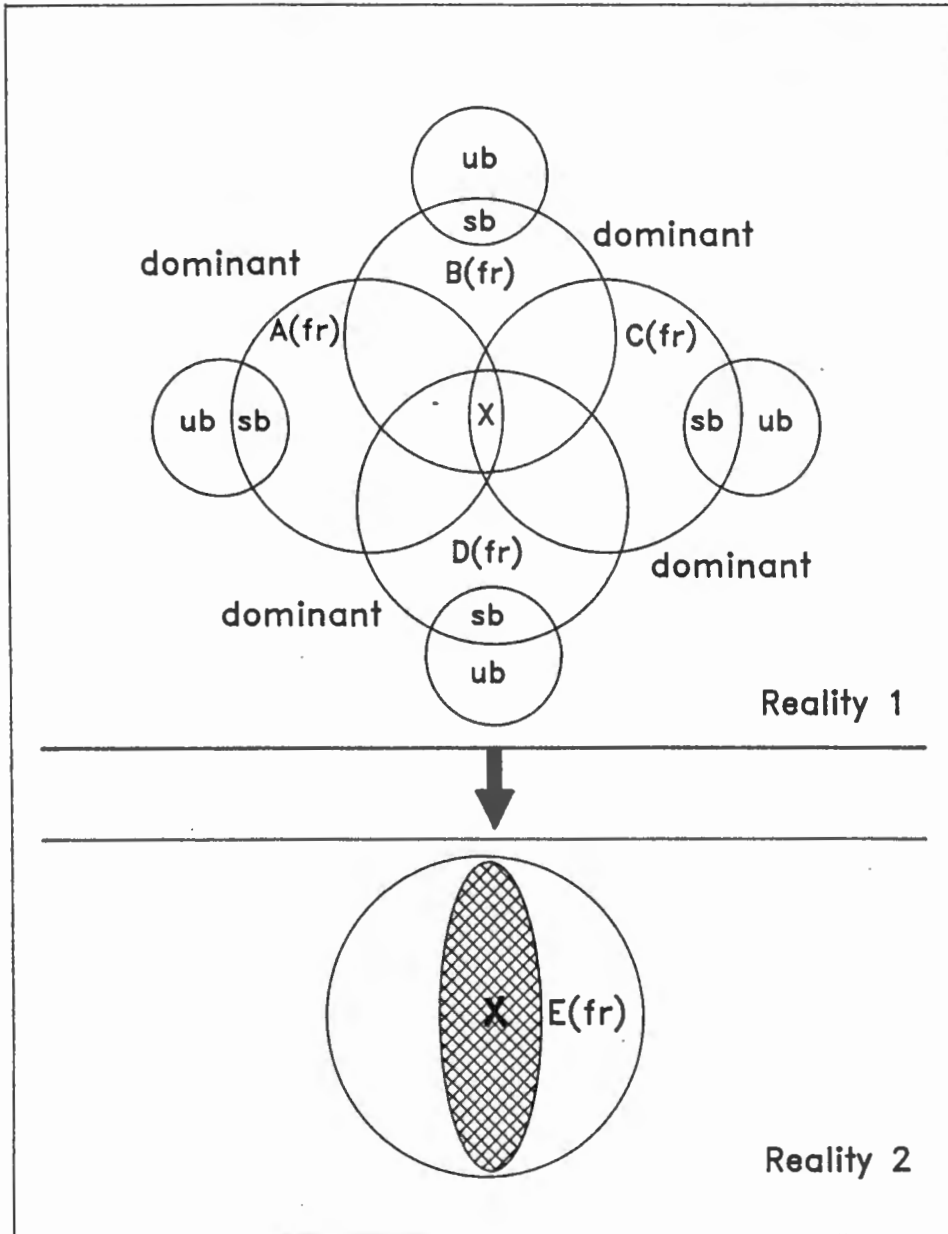
Houston, Childers & Heckler (1987:359) indicate that virtually all forms of marketing communication rely on a combination of verbal and non-verbal elements to convey the intended message. Since both types of messages (verbal and non-verbal) convey the same message simultaneously, efforts should be made to enhance the understanding, perceptibility and acceptability of the advertising message.

A proper understanding of the target group is important in order to understand their preferences, cultures and purchasing behaviours. In an attempt to overcome the difficulties of these variables, this thesis proposes a model to approach the perceptibility of non-verbal communication in television advertisements.

Hawkins, Best & Coney (1986:145) explain that a dominant culture has common behaviours which are known to all members of a culture. Within this dominant culture are certain sub-cultures with their own unique set of behaviours known only to that specific group. The present model of non-verbal perceptibility is an elaboration of Hawkins, Best & Coney's (1986:145) model of sub-cultures. Figure 9.1 gives a explanation of this model.

Figure 9.1

A model of non-verbal perceptibility



A(fr) = Group A
 B(fr) = Group B
 C(fr) = Group C
 D(fr) = Group D
 E(fr) = Newly created frame
 of reference

Existing
 frame of
 reference

R1 = Existing reality
 R2 = Newly created reality



= Mutual or overlapping non-verbal codes within frame of reference

ub = Unique behaviours
 sb = Shared behaviours

The model consists of four different groups (which could be regarded as any race groups, target markets, language groups, cultural groups), but it could easily be extended to all the different groups within a given society. In this case the groups are referred to as A(fr), B(fr), C(fr) and D(fr) which indicate that each group has its own frame of reference. Within each of these dominant cultures different sub-cultures are to be found, each with its own set of unique behaviours (ub) as well as their own shared behaviours (sb). The behaviours in the dominant cultures are regarded as common to all. The sub-culture has common as well as unique behaviours, with the latter specific to the sub-culture alone.

The different cultures, which include dominant as well as sub-cultures, will eventually share the same code system in order to communicate and understand each other. This "mutual" or "universal" code system includes both verbal and non-verbal codes. It can be anticipated that non-verbal codes are more easily recognizable, not necessarily understandable, to most of the members of the different cultures, because one does not have to understand a foreign language of a person to interpret his non-verbal cues. Verbal language differences make it inaccessible for some members of the different cultures. Non-verbal similarities could offer a means of communicating effectively across different groups.

These groups communicate with one another in a given reality (r1), where they use ordinary or conventional methods of conveying messages verbally and non-verbally. Within that reality, the codes are familiar and understandable to the participants in the communication situation.

Advertisers use icons because these signs are by virtue true representations of depicted objects. The iconic sign is mostly interpreted correctly because of its resemblance between the signifier and signified. The emphasis on the using of an iconic sign in advertising has an important relevance, because it gains a central position in the communication system of a culture through frequent repetition and thereby acquires rich and relatively stable connotations (Morgan & Welton, 1986:97).

The model suggests that the most dominant cultural codes and specifically the iconic non-verbal signs in the center (X) of the model, be used in the advertising message construction. It is preferable to use a sign which is known by all dominant cultures and enjoys a relatively stable connotation by most individuals within the dominant culture.

These iconic non-verbal signs should be used in order to construct a new reality (R2), unattached to any of the dominant cultures, but familiar to all. By means of this familiar and newly created reality, all cultures become equally dominant. Here, a newly created frame of reference is formed for all cultures where little ethnocentric behaviours are anticipated. This could result in the strengthening of the non-verbal code system. It has the implication that a higher degree of verbal message complementing can occur. This new reality within a given context will attach a new meaning to the non-verbal elements. It is important to bear in mind that meaning of non-verbal communication exists only within a context.

The results of the correlations in the study emphasize that television-viewing behaviour did not correlate with any non-verbal or advertising variables. The respondents must have had preconceived values and impressions about advertising, which were possibly formed by their families, area where they were brought up and through social interaction. It is within these closely knitted environments that cultural values and norms are formed and imprinted. The practical implications of this model are:

- * the advertiser should gather as much information as possible about his target market within a particular geographical area;
- * he should then establish their universal or common non-verbal icons;
- * arrange these non-verbal icons in a newly created reality, where the context is as relatively neutral as possible, and

- * arrange the persuasive message within this newly created reality for all the dominant cultures within that particular geographical area.

Based on the results of the different correlations, it seems that well-known non-verbal elements in television advertisements should be comprehensible to the viewer. This means that the viewer should be able to recognize it and assign the same meaning to it as the rest of his group or culture. If the individual is unable to understand the non-verbal signs, he would automatically not accept it. This will have the result that he will also not identify with the advertisement. In turn it would then be more difficult if not impossible to be persuaded by these incomprehensible non-verbal signs.

Once the non-verbal sign has been understood and the individual has accepted the sign as familiar to him and he understands the sign in the given context in which it was presented, he will more easily identify with the advertisement in which it appears. If the events followed the sequence of steps, it could be argued that the non-verbal sign should be more persuasive to the individual. This is ultimately what the advertiser wants; to persuade the viewer with all possible means in order to facilitate a positive change in his attitude towards the advertised product or service which will hopefully move the individual to purchase the product.

This model does not provide a tailor-cut solution for applying non-verbal variables in television advertisements, but it may direct the communicologist in strategically planning his advertising campaign. The bigger the number of dominant cultures to be reached with the message, the more difficult it would be to find universal iconic non-verbal signs.

9.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The study under discussion has been empirically limited to exclusively black and white perceptions of non-verbal communication. The results of these responses are also only valid internally, because of the problems encountered with the practical feasibility of the execution of this research. A larger sample with Asians and Coloureds would be preferable.

The interdisciplinary manner with a variety of approaches to the study of non-verbal communication in television advertisements, is not necessarily a disadvantage, because it enhances theory building. Copy testing mainly includes research on verbal and written aspects in advertising, unlike the recent state-of-the-art guidelines which are presented by Rademeyer (1990).

Attempts should be made to include the testing of non-verbal variables on the checklist of the advertising practitioner and communicologist. Since the advertising agency creates the advertisement, it should carefully plan and analyze the modelled behaviour of the actors, because non-verbally they also transmit messages. Advertisers should be careful not to use European or American advertising trends without the necessary alterations or justifications for the South African market. Non-verbal cues should be functional to assign meaning to the South African context.

9.6 A FINAL OBSERVATION

Research on the non-verbal phenomenon in television advertising is in its infancy stage with little attention given to it. This causes problems with the building of a proper theory on which future research could be built, since a variety of methodological and research approaches are presently involved in this kind of research.

Existing theories and approaches to the study of non-verbal communication in television advertisements are not universally accepted. Due to this relatively unstable situation, it is anticipated that during the 1990s a well structured approach to non-verbal communication in advertisements will receive attention. The agenda of unanswered questions in advertising and consumer research according to Bogart (1973:717) continues to remain almost identical to those that face the academic student of communication and persuasion. This statement is still relevant in the early 1990s.

Finally, it is hoped that the present study could contribute in a small way to the understanding of non-verbal effects in television advertisements and that it may stimulate new research.

ABSTRACT

Title

The effects of non-verbal communication in television advertisements: a communication study.

Introduction

Literature related to non-verbal communication reveals that there are a variety of different non-verbal elements. Most of these elements occur within television advertisements.

Little research in related social disciplines have analyzed non-verbal communication within the television advertising context, although a number of researchers have recognized the importance of non-verbal communication in advertising and marketing. The interest and research in this area is therefore in its infancy stage.

Objectives

Since non-verbal communication occur in all television advertisements, the main objective of this thesis was to determine consumer reactions towards broad non-verbal categories. These broad categories were selected from an extensive literature study and specific non-verbal elements were classified under facial expressions, body movements, physique, artifacts and para-language.

A second objective was to access if black and white consumers should be approached differently when emphasizing non-verbal elements in television advertisements.

The third objective was to determine if there were any correlation between the above-mentioned non-verbal variables and television-viewing behaviour. The fourth objective was to determine if there were any correlation between the following advertising variables and television-viewing behaviour:

Comprehensibility, acceptability, identification, culture-specific events and the persuasiveness of the advertising message.

Method

It has been indicated that non-verbal communication research in television advertising is a relatively recent phenomenon. The literature study indicated certain voids in the research and the multi-disciplinary approaches. As a result of the exploratory nature of this research, a descriptive survey method was used in order to assist the present perceptual differences between black and white respondents towards non-verbal communication in television advertisements.

More than 40% of the total registered undergraduate Communication students at residential campuses (during 1990) in South Africa were used in the sample. They were exposed to the selected stimulus material within their ordinary lecture or practical periods and were asked to respond to the questionnaire statements.

Statistical analyses

The following statistical analyses were concluded on the samples' responses: Frequency and cross tabulations, Pearson (r), Cronbach's coefficient alpha, z-tests, analyses of variance, and lastly, Tukey's studentized range (HSD) tests.

Important findings

The most important finding is the fact that white and black respondents react differently to non-verbal communication in television advertisements. Consequently, the effect of these variables on the destination is also different.

Television-viewing behaviour during the week and weekends on campus and at home showed no correlation to any non-verbal variables, or any advertising variables in television advertisements. This finding has lead to the conclusion that the individual's perceptions of these elements are probably formed by the individual's family, his interpersonal relations and the place

where he was brought up.

As a result, this thesis proposes a model of non-verbal perceptibility of television advertisements. Here the emphasis is placed on effectively reaching different dominant target markets by means of non-verbal variables in television advertisements.

OPSOMMING

Titel

Die invloed van nie-verbale kommunikasie in televisieadvertensies: 'n Kommunikasiestudie.

Inleiding

Die literatuur wat verband hou met nie-verbale kommunikasie wys op 'n verskeidenheid nie-verbale elemente. Die meeste van die elemente kom in televisieadvertensies voor. Betreklik min navorsing in verbandhoudende sosiale vakdissiplines handel oor nie-verbale kommunikasie in televisieadvertensies binne die sosiale wetenskappe, hoewel verskeie navorsers al die belangrikheid daarvan binne die reklame- en bemarkingsvelde bevestig het. Die belangstelling in en navorsing op hierdie gebied is gevolglik in die beginstadium.

Doel

Weens die feit dat nie-verbale kommunikasie in alle televisieadvertensies voorkom, was die hoofdoel van die proefskrif om vas te stel wat die verbruikersreaksies op die breë nie-verbale kategorieë is. Hierdie kategorieë is geselekteer uit 'n uitgebreide literatuurstudie en sluit die volgende in: (i) Gesigsuitdrukkings, (ii) liggaamsbewegings, (iii) fisiese voorkoms, (iv) artifakte en (v) para-linguistiese veranderlikes.

Die tweede doelwit was om te bepaal of swart en wit verbruikers verskillend benader moet word wanneer nie-verbale eienskappe in televisieadvertensies beklemtoon word.

Die derde doelwit het bepaal of daar enige verband tussen bogenoemde nie-verbale veranderlikes en televisiekyk-gedrag is. Die vierde doelwit het bepaal of daar enige verband bestaan tussen die volgende reklame-veranderlikes en televisiekyk-gedrag: Verstaanbaarheid, aanvaarding, identifisering, kultuur-spesifieke gebeure en die oorreedbaarheid van die

advertensieboodskap.

Metode

Daar is aangedui dat nie-verbale kommunikasienavorsing in televisieadvertensies 'n betreklik nuwe verskynsel is. Die literatuurstudie dui op sekere leemtes in die navorsing en die multi-dissiplinêre benaderings daartoe. Weens die eksploratiewe aard van die navorsing is 'n beskrywende opname gedoen om te bepaal watter perseptuele verskille tussen wit en swart respondente teenoor nie-verbale kommunikasie in televisieadvertensies voorkom.

Meer as 40% van alle geregistreerde voorgraadse Kommunikasiekundestudente aan residensiële kampusse (gedurende 1990) in Suid-Afrika is in die opname gebruik. Hulle is blootgestel aan die uitgesoekte stimulusmateriaal gedurende 'n gewone lesing of praktiese periode, waarna hulle gevra is om op die stellings in die vraelys te reageer.

Statistiese ontledings

Frekwensie en kruistabulerings, Pearson se korrelasiekoëffisiënt (r), Cronbach se koëffisiënt-alfa, z -toetse, variansie-ontledings, en laastens Tukey se gestudentifieerde variansiewydte, is op die steekproef se response uitgevoer.

Belangrike bevindinge

Die belangrikste bevinding was die feit dat wit en swart respondente verskillend reageer teenoor nie-verbale kommunikasie in televisieadvertensies. Gevolglik is die uitwerking van die veranderlikes op die bestemming ook verskillend.

Televisiekyk-gedrag gedurende die week en naweke op die kampus en tuis, het geen verband met enige nie-verbale veranderlike of enige reklame-veranderlikes getoon nie. Hierdie bevinding het gelei tot die gevolgtrekking dat die individu se persepsies van hierdie elemente waarskynlik deur ander verskynsels gevorm word.

Gevolgtlik stel die proefskrif 'n model van nie-verbale ontvanklikheid in televisieadvertensies voor. Hier is die klem geplaas op die effektiewe bereiking van die verskillende dominante teikenmarkte deur die gebruik van nie-verbale veranderlikes in televisieadvertensies in die reklameproses.

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Annex A

Television advertisements

LIST OF THE SELECTED TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS

Stay alive
Yardley
Mabella
Sunlight
Health
Timotei
Status
Sanex
Opel K
Niknaks
Castle beer
Chicken lickem
Schweppes
Florals
Peanut
Lion beer
Lemon creams
Pitco tea
North star
BMW
Firestone
Ohlssons beer
Gold crest
6th Sense
Coke
Post & T
Gold Cup OK
Tempo
Pay your TV
Phillips TV
Spareco
VW Jetta
Baygon
Chicken lickem
NoBonesChicken
UBS Cheque

Annex B

Questionnaire to panel

ORIENTATION TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS

The following categories of non-verbal communication are selected for the final questionnaire. Under each category are a few items which are going to be tested under that specific category. Make sure that you understand each category which are to be analyzed.

1. Read and understand. Ask questions if you do not understand.
2. View the television advertisements which are going to be presented to you. In your personal opinion, classify the advertisement under the category which you think it will best belong. If it falls under more than one category, place it then under ranking order from most important (1) to least important (5).

 CATEGORIES OF NON-VERBAL ELEMENTS

A. Facial expressions.

- Items: Facial expressions
 Glances
 Smiles
 The way the actor look at you

B. Body movements.

- Items: Gestures
 Standing
 Walking
 Moves
 Dancing
 Ploying arms and legs

C. Physique.

Items: Nose
 Mouth
 Skin Colour
 General looks
 Authoritative
 Likeable
 Trustworthy
 Attractive

D. Artifacts.

Items: Fashion / Dress
 Setting
 Status symbols
 Colours in the ad / Colours of the product, container etc.
 Formal
 Appropriateness to the situation
 Hairstyles
 Jewelry

E. Para-language.

Items: Background music / Jingle
 Language
 Voices

These categories are to be tested against the following variables.

1. acceptable
2. persuadable
3. understandable
4. identifiable
5. culture specific events

These are the only type of questions which are to be seen in each set of questions for each advertisement. The other questions are restricted to a specific category. Eg: if the ad is to be classified under facial cues, only questions regarding facial aspects are going to be asked.

Name of the analyzer:.....

Qualification:.....

Date:.....

ADVERT/ PRODUCT/ SERVICE	Official Use	FACE	KINESIC	PHYSICAL	ARTIFACTS	SOUNDS
Stay alive	154					
Yardley	204					
Mabella	320					
Sunlight	366					
Health	659					
Timotei	680					
Status	700					
Sanex	720					
Opel K	734					
Niknaks	818					
Castle beer	821					
Chicken licken	862					
Schweppes	887					
Florals	1277					
Peanut	173					
Lion beer	255					
Lemon creams	315					
Pitco tea	472					
North star	532					
BMW	720					
Firestone	735					
Ohlssons beer	785					
Gold crest	966					
6th Sense	1008					
Coke	1085					
Post & T	1101					
Gold Cup OK	1156					
Tempo	1194					
Pay your TV	1295					
Phillips TV	1300					
Spareco	1463					
VW Jetta	1541					
Baygon	1558					
Chicken licken	1600					
NoBonesChicken	1658					
UBS Cheque	1700					

COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING:

State which advertisement to your personal preference is the most suitable for each category to be tested. If there is more than one, mention it as well. The final selection of the advertisements will depend on the average score of the viewers.

A. FACIAL CUES

- | | |
|---------|---------|
| 1. | 2. |
| 3. | 4. |

B. BODY MOVEMENTS

- | | |
|---------|---------|
| 1. | 2. |
| 3. | 4. |

C. PHYSIQUE

- | | |
|---------|---------|
| 1. | 2. |
| 3. | 4. |

D. ARTIFACTS

- | | |
|---------|---------|
| 1. | 2. |
| 3. | 4. |

E. Para-language

- | | |
|---------|---------|
| 1. | 2. |
| 3. | 4. |

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME

Annex C

Description of the
chosen advertisements

ANNEX C (Description of the stimulus material)

ADVERTISEMENT 1

Product name: Peanuts
Slogan: Peanuts. A small miracle of nature.
Duration: 30 seconds
Setting: In a bar.
Story: Two men are sitting at the counter in a bar, having a few beers. Between them is a bowl of peanuts. The one actor explains that a peanut is a miracle of nature. The conversation turns humorous, when the same actor says the other actor's brain is about the size of a peanut.
Relevant non-verbal variable: Facial expressions.

ADVERTISEMENT 2

Product name: Firestone tyres
Slogan: Nothing beat them steel stones.
Duration: 35 seconds
Setting: At the counter of a spare parts dealer.
Story: A man walks into the shop with a punctured tyre. He wants a guaranteed tyre, with a guarantee against broken glass and various other obstacles and his claim must be settled on the spot. After listening to the advantages of the advertised product, he insists on taking four tyres.
Relevant non-verbal variable: Facial expressions.

ADVERTISEMENT 3

Product name: Status deodorant

Slogan: Status, you'll hate it if you haven't got it.

Duration: 30 seconds

Setting: In a bar.

Story: The actors' faces cannot be seen in this advertisement. The different body movements and the distances between the different actors are emphasized by the close-ups of the legs. The events emphasize an actress who is attracted to one of the many males who uses the advertised product. Special accent is placed on the way she touches this actor. She asks if she can fetch him another drink and openly attempts to invite him over to her patio.

Relevant non-verbal variable: Body movements.

ADVERTISEMENT 4

Product name: Schweppes

Slogan: Ssschweppssssss.

Duration: 45 seconds

Setting: A dance floor, which creates the impression of a moving train.

Story: The actors are dancing to the rhythm of the music. The camera tilts to the left to create the impression that the train is moving up-hill. Only the silhouettes of the actors against a white background are visible. The last scene emphasizes a female who brings the advertised product to the dancers. The advertisement ends with a dancing couple and two man-size tins of the advertised product.

Relevant non-verbal variable: Body movements.

ADVERTISEMENT 5

Product name: Chicken Licken

Slogan: You ain't tasted chicken 'till you've tasted Chicken Licken.

Duration: 30 seconds

Setting: On the premises where the product is sold and in front of a huge bill board advertising Chicken Licken.

Story: An African man is eating chicken and enjoying every moment of it. He seems to be a very jovial person, without any table manners. An African lady asks him if he would like to have more of the advertised product. She walks out he follows her. He takes her chicken, whilst she runs after him.

Relevant non-verbal variable: Physique.

ADVERTISEMENT 6

Product name: Philips television

Slogan: What did you do with your Philips today?

Duration: 30 seconds

Setting: Luxurious house.

Story: A well-dressed gentleman walks in a very sophisticated house. He picks up the remote control of his television and switches it on. He sees a dancing lady, surrounded by flying white doves. He stares at her picture on the screen. He then moves to the window and all of a sudden, sees her dancing on the patio. He looks back and sees her again on his television screen. The television picture is as real as reality.

Relevant non-verbal variable: Physique.

ADVERTISEMENT 7

Product name: Pitco Tea

Slogan: The taste that made Ceylon Tea famous.

Duration: 40 seconds

Setting: Airport, street scene and luxurious house.

Story: The advertisement consists mainly of a black-and-white sequence and four brief colour scenes. The black-and-white scenes feature two elegant and affluent-looking pairs of young models. They seem contemporary and highly mobile and are haunted by the press. The continuity of the events is interrupted by four colour scenes. The first break reveals the wording: "The Time", followed by a shot of an antique clock with the time given as almost tea time. The second break reveals the wording: "The Place", followed by a shot of a mansion-type lounge setting. The third break displays the words: "The China", followed by a shot of exquisite crockery. The last break is followed by the shots of the advertised product, with the wording: "The Tea". Anon (1989:50-52) explains that this advertisement is hailed as one of the most impactful television advertisements, both creatively and strategically. It took two years to develop.

Relevant non-verbal variable: Artifacts.

ADVERTISEMENT 8

Product name: BMW

Slogan: The new BMW 5 series. For once, the reality is greater than the dream.

Duration: 60 seconds

Setting: Luxurious house.

Story: Inside this luxurious house an architect is working at his drawing board. He is explaining to a wealthy businessman where he is designing the garages. He compares the space of the house to that of the car, the looks of the house to that of the car and then says dreams can become a reality. He offers the advertised product's keys to the businessman and tells him to drive it.

Relevant non-verbal variable: Artifacts.

ADVERTISEMENT 9

Product name: Opel Kadett

Slogan: Opel. Engineering a better way.

Duration: 60 seconds

Setting: Car test grounds.

Story: The advertisement consists of a few workers and two robots. The advertisement commences where a worker takes the robots to the advertised product so that they can crash into a brick wall for an impact test. Instead, the robots become humans and talk to each other, saying they want to have some fun. They do different manoeuvres with the car, to the amusement and astonishment of the workers.

Relevant non-verbal variable: Para-language.

ADVERTISEMENT 10

- Product name:** Post & Telecommunication
- Slogan:** Make a call. Make it happen.
- Duration:** 55 seconds
- Setting:** Inside an artist's studio.
- Story:** A piano player is sitting behind his piano, making a phone call very late at night, to tell his friend about a new song which he has composed. When the other person answers the phone, he starts playing the new song and asks his friend's opinion. On the other end of the phone, the voice says the tune can be improved and the sound of an harmonica with the adjusted melody can be heard from the other end. After a while, both musicians simultaneously play the new tune to complete the duet.
- Relevant non-verbal variable:** Para-language.
-

Annex D

Questionnaire for the pilot study

4. Age in years:.....younger than 18
 18
 19
 20
 21
 22
 23
 24
 25
 older than 25
5. Home language:.....Tswana
 Southern Sotho
 Northern Sotho
 Xhosa
 Zulu
 English
 Afrikaans
 Other (fill in).....
6. Geographical or home town area:.....Cape
 Natal
 Free State
 Transvaal
 Venda
 Bophutatswana
 Ciskei
 Transkei
 Lesotho
 Other (fill in).....
7. Where were you brought up?
 rural area (eg. farm or village)
 town
 city
8. On average, how often do you watch television per day (06:00 to 23:59) during the term on campus?
less than 1 hour per day
 1 hour per day
 1 to 2 hours per day
 2 to 3 hours per day
 3 to 4 hours per day
 4 to 5 hours per day
 5 hours per day
 more than 5 hours per day

1	(8,9)	
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
1	(10)	
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
1	11,12)	
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
1	(13)	
2		
3		

1	(14)	
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		

9. On average, how often do you watch television per day (06:00 to 23:59) during the holidays at home?.....

less than 1 hour per day	1	(15)
1 hour per day	2	
1 to 2 hours per day	3	
2 to 3 hours per day	4	
3 to 4 hours per day	5	
4 to 5 hours per day	6	
5 hours per day	7	
more than 5 hours per day	8	

10. Indicate the amount of pocket money you get per month:

none at all	1
between 1c - R50 p.m.	2
between R51 - R100 p.m.	3
between R101 - R150 p.m.	4
between R151 - R200 p.m.	5
R200 p.m.	6
more than R200 p.m.	7

(16)	

11. Do you buy your own personal consumable products (like soap, sweets, deodorants or cool drinks) with your pocket money?

not at all	1	(17)
sometimes	2	
always	3	

STOP WRITING AND PUT YOUR PEN DOWN. WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS.

You are now going to watch 10 television advertisements. Each advertisement will be shown twice, and then you are requested to complete the following questions concerning that advertisement. This procedure will continue until all 10 advertisements are covered. Put your hand up if you do not understand.

AN EXAMPLE:

Indicate to what extent you agree with EACH of the following propositions, by encircling the figure of your choice.

- Agree very much [4]
- Agree [3]
- Agree a little [2]
- Agree not at all [1]

The colour of water is red..... 1 2 3 4

The colour of blood is red..... 1 2 3 4

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 1 : PEANUTS

Agree very much [4]
 Agree [3]
 Agree a little [2]
 Agree not at all [1]

- 12. The expression on the actor's face is credible.....1 2 3 4
- 13. The expression on the actor's face is irritating.....1 2 3 4
- 14. I like the way the actor looks at me.....1 2 3 4
- 15. The actor's look reflect a positive attitude towards
the product which is being advertised.....1 2 3 4
- 16. The actor's look reflect a positive attitude towards
the viewer.....1 2 3 4
- 17. I understand this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 18. I can identify myself with this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 19. This advertisement is acceptable to me.....1 2 3 4
- 20. The events in this advertisement is common in my
culture.....1 2 3 4
- 21. This advertisement persuades my attitude positively
in fovour of the advertised product.....1 2 3 4

(18)	
(19)	
(20)	
(21)	
(22)	
(23)	
(24)	
(25)	
(26)	
(27)	

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 2 : FIRESTONE TIRES

Agree very much [4]
 Agree [3]
 Agree a little [2]
 Agree not at all [1]

- 22. The expression on the actor's face is credible.....1 2 3 4
- 23. The expression on the actor's face is irritating.....1 2 3 4
- 24. I like the way the actor looks at me.....1 2 3 4
- 25. The actor's look reflect a positive attitude towards
 the product which is being advertised.....1 2 3 4
- 26. The actor's look reflect a positive attitude towards
 the viewer.....1 2 3 4
- 27. I understand this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 28. I can identify myself with this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 29. This advertisement is acceptable to me.....1 2 3 4
- 30. The events in this advertisement is common in my
 culture.....1 2 3 4
- 31. This advertisement persuades my attitude positively
 in favour of the advertised product.....1 2 3 4

(28)	
(29)	
(30)	
(31)	
(32)	
(33)	
(34)	
(35)	
(36)	
(37)	

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO.3 : STATUS

Agree very much [4]
 Agree [3]
 Agree a little [2]
 Agree not at all [1]

- 32. I like the gestures the actors make in this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 33. I like the body movements the actors make in this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 34. I like the way the actors touch each other.....1 2 3 4
- 35. The personal space between males and females is too close.....1 2 3 4
- 36. The personal space between actors of the same sex is too close.....1 2 3 4
- 37. This advertisement is acceptable to me.....1 2 3 4
- 38. The events in this advertisement is common in my culture.....1 2 3 4
- 39. This advertisement persuades my attitude positively in favour of the advertised product.....1 2 3 4
- 40. I understand this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 41. I can identify myself with this advertisement.....1 2 3 4

(38)	
(39)	
(40)	
(41)	
(42)	
(43)	
(44)	
(45)	
(46)	
(47)	

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO.4 : SCHWEPPE

Agree very much [4]
 Agree [3]
 Agree a little [2]
 Agree not at all [1]

42. I like the gestures the actors make in this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
43. I like the body movements the actors make in this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
44. I like the way the actors touch each other.....1 2 3 4
45. The personal space between males and females is too close.....1 2 3 4
46. The personal space between actors of the same sex is too close.....1 2 3 4
47. This advertisement is acceptable to me.....1 2 3 4
48. The events in this advertisement is common in my culture.....1 2 3 4
49. This advertisement persuades my attitude positively in favour of the advertised product.....1 2 3 4
50. I understand this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
51. I can identify myself with this advertisement.....1 2 3 4

	(48)	
	(49)	
	(50)	
	(51)	
	(52)	
	(53)	
	(54)	
	(55)	
	(56)	
	(57)	

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 6 : PHILLIPS TELEVISION

Agree very much [4]
 Agree [3]
 Agree a little [2]
 Agree not at all [1]

- 62. I am not negative towards the skin colour of the actors in this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 62. I like the physique (physical looks, eg. length, weight) of the actors.....1 2 3 4
- 64. The actors seems to be experts in what they are doing.....1 2 3 4
- 65. The actors are attractive to me.....1 2 3 4
- 66. The actors seem assertive (wants things his way).....1 2 3 4
- 67. I understand this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 68. I can identify myself with this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 69. This advertisement persuades my attitude positively in fovour of the advertised product.....1 2 3 4
- 70. This advertisement is acceptable to me.....1 2 3 4
- 71. The events in this advertisement is common in my culture.....1 2 3 4

(68)	
(69)	
(70)	
(71)	
(72)	
(73)	
(74)	
(75)	
(76)	
(77)	

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

 END CARD NO. 1
 #####

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 7 : PITCO TEA

CARD NO. 2

Agree very much [4]
 Agree [3]
 Agree a little [2]
 Agree not at all [1]

- 72. The hairstyles of the actors are instep with the times.....1 2 3 4
- 73. The colours used in this advertisement is exciting and modern.....1 2 3 4
- 74. The jewelry of the actors seems expensive.....1 2 3 4
- 75. The environment reflects status and wealth in society.....1 2 3 4
- 76. The fashion trend of the actors is professional.....1 2 3 4
- 77. This advertisement persuades my attitude positively in favour of the advertised product.....1 2 3 4
- 78. I understand this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 79. I can identify myself with this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 80. This advertisement is acceptable to me.....1 2 3 4
- 81. The events in this advertisement is common in my culture.....1 2 3 4

(01)	
(02)	
(03)	
(04)	
(05)	
(06)	
(07)	
(08)	
(09)	
(10)	
(11)	

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 8 : BMW

Agree very much [4]
 Agree [3]
 Agree a little [2]
 Agree not at all [1]

- 82. The hairstyles of the actors are instep with the times.....1 2 3 4
- 83. The colours used in this advertisement is exciting and modern.....1 2 3 4
- 84. The jewelry of the actors seems expensive.....1 2 3 4
- 85. The environment reflects status and wealth in society.....1 2 3 4
- 86. The fashion trend of the actors is professional.....1 2 3 4
- 87. This advertisement persuades my attitude positively in fovour of the advertised product.....1 2 3 4
- 88. I understand this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 89. I can identify myself with this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 90. This advertisement is acceptable to me.....1 2 3 4
- 91. The events in this advertisement is common in my culture.....1 2 3 4

(12)	
(13)	
(14)	
(15)	
(16)	
(17)	
(18)	
(19)	
(20)	
(21)	

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 9 : OPEL KADETT

Agree very much [4]
 Agree [3]
 Agree a little [2]
 Agree not at all [1]

- 92. I like the voice of the person who speaks in this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 93. I like the music in this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 94. The jingle, slogan or melody of this advertisement is exciting to me.....1 2 3 4
- 95. The sound draws the attention to specific aspects in the advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 96. The use of silence draws the attention to specific aspects in the advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 97. The events in this advertisement is common in my culture.....1 2 3 4
- 98. This advertisement persuades my attitude positively in favour of the advertised product.....1 2 3 4
- 99. I understand this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 100. I can identify myself with this advertisement.....1 2 3 4
- 101. This advertisement is acceptable to me.....1 2 3 4

(22)	
(23)	
(24)	
(25)	
(26)	
(27)	
(28)	
(29)	
(30)	
(31)	

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 10 : POST & TELECOMMUNICATION

	Agree very much [4]				
	Agree [3]				
	Agree a little [2]				
	Agree not at all [1]				
102.	I like the voice of the person who speaks in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4
103.	I like the music in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4
104.	The jingle, slogan or melody of this advertisement is exciting to me.....	1	2	3	4
105.	The sound draws the attention to specific aspects in the advertisement.....	1	2	3	4
106.	The use of silence draws the attention to specific aspects in the advertisement.....	1	2	3	4
107.	The events in this advertisement is common in my culture.....	1	2	3	4
108.	This advertisement persuades my attitude positively in favour of the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4
109.	I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4
110.	I can identify myself with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4
111.	This advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4

(32)	
(33)	
(34)	
(35)	
(36)	
(37)	
(38)	
(39)	
(40)	
(41)	

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

July 23, 1990

Annex E

Final questionnaire

ANNEX E (The final questionnaire)

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

This is an opportunity for you to give your opinion on various matters relating to non-verbal communication in television advertisements. The questionnaire consists of two sections. A demographical section and a section regarding television advertisements.

1. Do not write your name anywhere on the questionnaire, but please provide all the information that is requested.
2. Read every question or proposition carefully before responding to it.
3. Please complete this questionnaire as honestly and as candidly as possible.
4. All questionnaires will be analyzed in the strictest confidence and no individual responses will be revealed.
5. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Your response to each statement should be an honest reflection of your personal feelings and opinion. There is no time limit, but you are requested to complete the questionnaire in one practical session.
6. Indicate your response to each statement with a cross (X) over that response which most accurately reflects your view.

REMEMBER:

Please ignore all the codes or figures between the brackets (eg. (3-5) or (7)). These are for the computer. Please stop after you have completed the first section.

OFFICIAL USE QUESTIONNAIRE NO.

--	--	--

 (1-3)

OFFICIAL USE CARD NO.

1

 (4)

DEMOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION:

Official use

1. University..... FORT HARE.

1
2
3
4
5
6

 (5)
- UOFS
UNIBO
PU for CHE
UNIZULU
RAU
2. Level or year of study in communication.....first year

1
2
3

 (6)
- second year
third year
3. Sex:.....male

1
2

 (7)
- female
4. Age:.....younger than 18

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10

 (8,9)
- 18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
older than 25
5. Home language:.....Tswana

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8

 (10)
- Southern Sotho
Northern Sotho
Xhosa
Zulu
English
Afrikaans
Other (fill in).....

Official use

6. Geographical or home town area:.....Cape Natal Free State Transvaal Venda Bophutatswana Ciskei Transkei Lesotho Other (fill in).....
- | |
|----|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |
| 6 |
| 7 |
| 8 |
| 9 |
| 10 |
- (11,12)

7. Where were you brought up?
rural area (farm or village of less than 3 000 people)
town (between 3 000 and 40 000 people)
city (more than 40 000 people)
- | |
|---|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
- (13)

8. How many hours on average do you watch television per day (06:00 to 23:59) from Monday to Friday during the term on campus?.....not at all less than 1 hour per day 1 hour per day 1 to 2 hours per day 2 to 3 hours per day 3 to 4 hours per day 4 to 5 hours per day 5 hours per day more than 5 hours per day
- | |
|---|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |
| 6 |
| 7 |
| 8 |
| 9 |
- (14)

9. How many hours on average do you watch television per day (06:00 to 23:59) Saturdays and Sundays during the term on campus?.....not at all less than 1 hour per day 1 hour per day 1 to 2 hours per day 2 to 3 hours per day 3 to 4 hours per day 4 to 5 hours per day 5 hours per day more than 5 hours per day
- | |
|---|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |
| 6 |
| 7 |
| 8 |
| 9 |
- (15)

10. How many hours on average do you watch television per day (06:00 to 23:59) from Monday to Friday during the holidays at home?.....not at all (16)
- | |
|---|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |
| 6 |
| 7 |
| 8 |
| 9 |
- less than 1 hour per day
1 hour per day
1 to 2 hours per day
2 to 3 hours per day
3 to 4 hours per day
4 to 5 hours per day
5 hours per day
more than 5 hours per day

11. How many hours on average do you watch television per day (06:00 to 23:59) Saturdays and Sundays during the holidays at home?.....not at all (17)
- | |
|---|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |
| 6 |
| 7 |
| 8 |
| 9 |
- less than 1 hour per day
1 hour per day
1 to 2 hours per day
2 to 3 hours per day
3 to 4 hours per day
4 to 5 hours per day
5 hours per day
more than 5 hours per day

12. Indicate the amount of pocket money you get per month: (18)
- | |
|---|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |
| 6 |
-none at all
between 1c - R50 p.m.
between R51 - R100 p.m.
between R101 - R150 p.m.
between R151 - R200 p.m.
more than R200 p.m.

13. Do you buy your own personal consumable products (like soap, sweets, deodorants or cool drinks) with your pocket money?not at all (19)
- | |
|---|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
- sometimes
always

STOP WRITING AND PUT YOUR PEN DOWN. WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS.

You are now going to watch 10 television advertisements. Each advertisement will be shown twice, and then you are requested to complete the following questions concerning that advertisement. This procedure will continue until all 10 advertisements have been shown. Put your hand up if you do not understand.

AN EXAMPLE:

Indicate to what extent you agree with EACH of the following propositions, by making a cross (X) on the figure of your choice.

Strongly agree [4]				
Agree [3]				
Disagree [2]				
Strongly disagree [1]				

1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4

The colour of blood is red.....

The earth seems as square as a block.....

WAIT FOR INSTRUCTIONS AND THE FIRST ADVERTISEMENT

#####

*** DO NOT TURN OVER ***

#####

*** DO NOT TURN OVER ***

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 1 : PEANUTS

Official use

Strongly agree [4]
 Agree [3]
 Disagree [2]
 Strongly disagree [1]

14. I think the expression on both actors' faces are credible.....	1	2	3	4	(20)
15. I think the expression on both actors' faces are meaningful.....	1	2	3	4	(21)
16. I like the glances of both actors (the way the actors look at me).....	1	2	3	4	(22)
17. I think the actors' looks reflect a positive attitude towards the product which is being advertised.....	1	2	3	4	(23)
18. I think the actors' looks reflect a positive attitude towards the viewer.....	1	2	3	4	(24)
19. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(25)
20. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(26)
21. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(27)
22. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(28)
23. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(29)

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 2 : FIRESTONE TIRES

Official use

Strongly agree [4]
 Agree [3]
 Disagree [2]
 Strongly disagree [1]

24. I think the expression on the actor's face is credible.....	1	2	3	4	(30)
25. I think the expression on the actor's face is meaningful....	1	2	3	4	(31)
26. I like the glance of the actor (the way the actor looks at me).....	1	2	3	4	(32)
27. I think the actor's look reflects a positive attitude towards the product which is being advertised.....	1	2	3	4	(33)
28. I think the actor's look reflects a positive attitude towards the viewer.....	1	2	3	4	(34)
29. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(35)
30. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(36)
31. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(37)
32. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(38)
33. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(39)

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 3 : STATUS

Official use

Strongly agree [4]
 Agree [3]
 Disagree [2]
 Strongly disagree [1]

34. I like most of the gestures the actors make in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(40)
35. I like most of the body movements the actors make in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(41)
36. I like the way the actors touch each other.....	1	2	3	4	(42)
37. I think the personal space between the male actors and the female actor is too close.....	1	2	3	4	(43)
38. I think the personal space between the male actors is too close.....	1	2	3	4	(44)
39. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(45)
40. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(46)
41. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(47)
42. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(48)
43. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(49)

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 4 : SCHWEPPEES

Official use

Strongly agree [4]
 Agree [3]
 Disagree [2]
 Strongly disagree [1]

44. I like most of the gestures the actors make in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(50)
45. I like most of the body movements the actors make in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(51)
46. I like the way the actors touch each other.....	1	2	3	4	(52)
47. I think the personal space between males and females is too close.....	1	2	3	4	(53)
48. I think the personal space between the male actors is too close.....	1	2	3	4	(54)
49. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(55)
50. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(56)
51. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(57)
52. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(58)
53. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(59)

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 5 : CHICKEN LICKEN

Official use

Strongly agree [4]
 Agree [3]
 Disagree [2]
 Strongly disagree [1]

54. I am not negative towards the black actors in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(60)
55. I like the physique (physical looks, eg. length, weight) of the male actor.....	1	2	3	4	(61)
56. I like the physique (physical looks, eg. length, weight) of the female actor.....	1	2	3	4	(62)
57. The female actor is attractive to me.....	1	2	3	4	(63)
58. The male actor is attractive to me.....	1	2	3	4	(64)
59. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(65)
60. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(66)
61. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(67)
62. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(68)
63. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(69)

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 6 : PHILIPS TELEVISION

Strongly agree [4]
 Agree [3]
 Disagree [2]
 Strongly disagree [1]

64. I am not negative towards the white actors in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(70)
65. I like the physique (physical looks, eg. length, weight) of the male actor.....	1	2	3	4	(71)
66. I like the physique (physical looks, eg. length, weight) of the female actor.....	1	2	3	4	(72)
67. The female actor is attractive to me.....	1	2	3	4	(73)
68. The male actor is attractive to me.....	1	2	3	4	(74)
69. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(75)
70. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(76)
71. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(77)
72. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(78)
73. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(79)

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

Official use

CARD NO. 2 (1)

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 7 : PITCO TEA

Strongly agree [4]
Agree [3]
Disagree [2]
Strongly disagree [1]

74. I think the hairstyles of most of the actors are suitable.....	1	2	3	4	(2)
75. I think most of the colours in this advertisement contribute to the image of the product.....	1	2	3	4	(3)
76. I think the jewelry of the actors contribute to the status of the actor.....	1	2	3	4	(4)
77. I think the environment reflects a wealthy life-style.....	1	2	3	4	(5)
78. I think most of the actors are fashionably dressed.....	1	2	3	4	(6)
79. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(7)
80. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(8)
81. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(9)
82. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(10)
83. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(11)

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

Official use

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 8 : BMW

Strongly agree [4]
 Agree [3]
 Disagree [2]
 Strongly disagree [1]

84. I think the hairstyles of both actors are suitable.....	1	2	3	4	(12)
85. I think most of the colours used in this advertisement contribute to the image of the product.....	1	2	3	4	(13)
86. I think the tie-pin on the actor's tie contributes to the status of the actor.....	1	2	3	4	(14)
87. I think the environment reflects wealthy life-style.....	1	2	3	4	(15)
88. I think both actors are fashionably dressed.....	1	2	3	4	(16)
89. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(17)
90. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(18)
91. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(19)
92. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(20)
93. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(21)

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 9 : OPEL KADETT

Official use

Strongly agree [4]
 Agree [3]
 Disagree [2]
 Strongly disagree [1]

94. I like the voice of the person who speaks in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(22)
95. I like the voices of the robots in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(23)
96. I think the music in this advertisement suits the product which is being advertised.....	1	2	3	4	(24)
97. I think the sound draws the attention to specific actions in the advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(25)
98. I think the use of silence draws the attention to specific actions in the advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(26)
99. I think the jingle (Sound of lightning. Opel. Engineering a better way) strengthens the advertising message.....	1	2	3	4	(27)
100. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(28)
101. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(29)
102. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(30)
103. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(31)
104. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(32)

PUT YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR THE NEXT ADVERTISEMENT

ADVERTISEMENT NO. 10 : POST & TELECOMMUNICATION

Official use

Strongly agree [4]
 Agree [3]
 Disagree [2]
 Strongly disagree [1]

105. I like the voice of the piano player in this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(33)
106. I like the voice on the telephone in this advertisement (the voice of the person you cannot see).....	1	2	3	4	(34)
107. I think the music in this advertisement suits the service which is being advertised.....	1	2	3	4	(35)
108. I think the sound draws the attention to specific actions in the advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(36)
109. I think the use of silence draws the attention to specific actions in the advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(37)
110. I think the jingle (Make the call. Make it happen) strengthens the advertising message.....	1	2	3	4	(38)
111. The events in this advertisement are familiar to my culture.....	1	2	3	4	(39)
112. This advertisement influences my attitude favourably towards the advertised product.....	1	2	3	4	(40)
113. I understand this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(41)
114. I can identify with this advertisement.....	1	2	3	4	(42)
115. As a whole, this advertisement is acceptable to me.....	1	2	3	4	(43)

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME

Monday 20 August 1990

Annex F

Demographic profile

ANNEX F (Demographic profile)

Profile 1
University and level of communication
Items 1 & 2

University	First year	Second year	Third year	Total
UFH				
n	65	44	23	132
%	8,14	5,51	2,88	16,50
UOFS				
n	112	47	58	217
%	14,02	5,88	7,26	27,13
UNIBO				
n	27	0	0	27
%	3,38	0	0	3,38
PU for CHE				
n	100	85	45	230
%	12,52	10,64	5,63	28,75
UNIZULU				
n	39	12	8	59
%	4,88	1,50	1,00	7,38
RAU				
n	91	44	0	135
%	11,39	5,49	0	16,88
TOTAL				
n	434	229	134	800
%	54,19	28,66	17,15	100

Profile 2
University and sex
(Items 1 & 3)

University	Male	Female	Total
UFH			
n	68	64	132
%	8,50	8,00	16,50
UOFS			
n	52	165	217
%	6,50	20,63	27,13
UNIBO			
n	8	19	27
%	1,00	2,38	3,38
PU for CHE			
n	40	190	230
%	5,00	23,88	28,88
UNIZULU			
n	29	30	59
%	3,63	3,75	7,38
RAU			
n	57	78	135
%	7,13	9,63	16,75
TOTAL			
n	254	546	800
%	31,75	68,25	100

Profile 3 (a)
Race and sex

Race	Male	Female	Total
White			
n	149	433	582
%	18,63	54,13	72,75
Black			
n	105	113	218
%	13,13	14,13	27,25
Total			
n	254	546	800
%	31,75	68,25	100

Profile 3 (b)
White universities and sex

University	Male	Female	Total
UOFS			
n	52	165	217
%	8,93	28,35	37,29
PU for CHE			
n	40	190	230
%	6,87	32,65	39,52
RAU			
n	57	78	135
%	9,79	13,40	23,19
Total			
n	149	433	582
%	25,59	74,41	100

Profile 3 (c)
Black universities and sex

University	Male	Female	Total
UFH			
n	68	64	132
%	31,19	29,36	60,55
UNIBO			
n	8	19	27
%	3,67	8,72	12,39
UNIZULU			
n	29	30	59
%	13,30	13,76	27,06
Total			
n	105	113	218
%	48,16	51,84	100

Profile 4
Age and race
(Item 4)

Race	<18	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	25>	Total
White											
n	5	68	157	155	119	44	16	4	2	12	582
%	0,63	8,52	19,67	19,42	14,91	5,51	2,01	0,50	0,25	1,50	72,75
Black											
n	1	10	16	34	28	28	18	16	19	46	218
%	0,13	1,25	2,01	4,26	3,51	3,51	2,26	2,01	2,38	5,76	27,25
Total											
n	6	78	173	189	149	72	34	20	21	58	800
%	0,75	9,77	21,68	23,68	18,42	9,02	4,26	2,51	2,63	7,27	100

Profile 5
Home language and university
(Items 5 & 1)

University	T	SS	NS	X	Z	E	A	O	Total
UFH									
n	11	4	8	91	12	0	0	6	132
%	1,38	0,50	1,00	11,38	1,50	0	0	0,75	16,50
UOFS									
n	0	0	0	0	0	16	199	2	217
%	0	0	0	0	0	1,75	24,88	0,25	27,13
UNIBO									
n	21	0	1	2	2	0	0	1	27
%	2,63	0	0,13	0,25	0,25	0	0	0,13	3,38
PU for CHE									
n	0	0	0	0	0	9	219	2	230
%	0	0	0	0	0	1,00	27,38	0,38	28,88
UNIZULU									
n	1	1	3	7	42	1	0	4	59
%	0,13	0,13	0,38	0,88	5,25	0,13	0	0,50	7,38
RAU									
n	0	0	0	0	0	37	94	4	135
%	0	0	0	0	0	4,63	11,75	0,38	16,75
TOTAL									
n	33	5	12	100	56	63	512	19	800
%	4,13	0,63	1,50	12,50	7,00	7,88	64,00	2,38	100

T = Tswana
SS = South Sotho
NS = North Sotho
X = Xhosa
Z = Zulu
E = English
A = Afrikaans
O = Other languages

Profile 6
Home town and race
(Item 6)

Race	C	N	Of	Tr	V	B	C	Tk	L	Ot	Total
White											
n	69	29	134	332	1	0	0	0	1	16	582
%	8,64	3,63	16,77	4,55	0,13	0	0	0	0,13	2,00	72,75
Black											
n	22	49	4	40	1	25	64	12	1	0	218
%	2,75	6,13	0,50	5,01	0,13	3,13	8,01	1,38	0,13	0	27,25
Total											
n	91	78	138	372	2	25	64	12	2	16	800
%	11,39	9,76	17,27	46,56	0,25	3,13	8,01	1,38	0,25	2,00	100

C = Cape Province
 N = Natal
 Of = Orange Free State
 Tr = Transvaal
 V = Venda
 B = Bophuthatswana
 C = Ciskei
 Tk = Transkei
 L = Lesotho
 Ot = Other*

* All other respondents came from Namibia

Profile 7
 Area where respondents are brought up and race
 (Item 7)

Race	Village	Town	City	Total
White				
n	103	275	204	582
%	12,89	34,42	25,53	72,75
Black				
n	66	83	70	218
%	8,26	10,26	8,64	27,25
Total				
n	169	357	274	800
%	21,15	44,68	34,17	100

Profile 8
 Tv viewing and race
 Mon - Fri during term on campus
 average per day
 (Item 8)

Hours	White	Black	Total
<hr/>			
Not at all			
n	83	18	101
%	10,38	2,25	12,63
<hr/>			
< 1 hour			
n	177	64	241
%	22,13	8,00	30,13
<hr/>			
1 hour			
n	84	41	125
%	10,50	5,13	15,63
<hr/>			
1-2 hours			
n	113	51	164
%	14,13	6,38	20,50
<hr/>			
2-3 hours			
n	66	22	88
%	8,25	2,75	11,00
<hr/>			
3-4 hours			
n	37	11	48
%	4,63	1,38	6,00
<hr/>			
4-5 hours			
n	13	4	17
%	1,63	0,50	2,13
<hr/>			
5 hours			
n	4	3	7
%	0,50	0,38	0,88
<hr/>			
> 5 hours			
n	5	4	9
%	0,63	0,50	1,13
<hr/>			
Total			
n	582	218	800
%	72,75	27,25	100
<hr/>			

Profile 9
 TV viewing and race
 Sat & Sun during term on campus
 average per day
 (Item 9)

Hours	White	Black	Total
<hr/>			
Not at all			
n	87	33	120
%	10,88	4,13	15,00
<hr/>			
< 1 hour			
n	89	25	114
%	11,13	3,13	14,25
<hr/>			
1 hour			
n	70	31	101
%	8,75	3,88	12,63
<hr/>			
1-2 hours			
n	127	47	174
%	15,88	5,88	21,75
<hr/>			
2-3 hours			
n	98	24	122
%	12,25	3,00	15,25
<hr/>			
3-4 hours			
n	50	27	77
%	6,25	3,38	9,63
<hr/>			
4-5 hours			
n	32	16	48
%	4,00	2,00	6,00
<hr/>			
5 hours			
n	19	4	23
%	2,38	0,50	2,88
<hr/>			
> 5 hours			
n	10	11	21
%	1,25	1,38	2,63
<hr/>			
Total			
n	582	218	800
%	72,75	27,25	100
<hr/>			

Profile 10
 Tv viewing and race
 Mon - Fri during holiday at home
 average per day
 (Item 10)

Hours	White	Black	Total
<hr/>			
Not at all			
n	8	9	17
%	1,00	1,13	2,13
<hr/>			
< 1 hour			
n	23	9	32
%	2,88	1,13	4,00
<hr/>			
1 hour			
n	42	10	52
%	5,25	1,25	6,50
<hr/>			
1-2 hours			
n	97	28	125
%	12,13	3,50	15,63
<hr/>			
2-3 hours			
n	124	29	153
%	15,50	3,63	19,13
<hr/>			
3-4 hours			
n	132	38	170
%	16,50	4,75	21,25
<hr/>			
4-5 hours			
n	73	28	101
%	9,13	3,50	12,63
<hr/>			
5 hours			
n	31	16	47
%	3,88	2,00	5,88
<hr/>			
> 5 hours			
n	52	51	103
%	6,50	6,38	12,88
<hr/>			
Total			
n	582	218	800
%	72,75	27,25	100
<hr/>			

Profile 11
 Tv viewing and race
 Sat & Sun during holiday at home
 average per day
 (Item 11)

Hours	White	Black	Total
<hr/>			
Not at all			
n	13	7	20
%	1,63	0,88	2,50
<hr/>			
< 1 hour			
n	38	10	48
%	4,75	1,25	6,00
<hr/>			
1 hour			
n	30	8	38
%	3,75	1,00	4,75
<hr/>			
1-2 hours			
n	85	16	101
%	10,63	2,00	12,63
<hr/>			
2-3 hours			
n	129	32	161
%	16,13	4,00	20,13
<hr/>			
3-4 hours			
n	107	32	139
%	13,38	4,00	17,38
<hr/>			
4-5 hours			
n	87	24	111
%	10,88	3,00	13,88
<hr/>			
5 hours			
n	35	32	67
%	4,38	4,00	8,38
<hr/>			
> 5 hours			
n	58	57	115
%	7,25	7,13	14,38
<hr/>			
Total			
n	582	218	800
%	72,75	27,25	100
<hr/>			

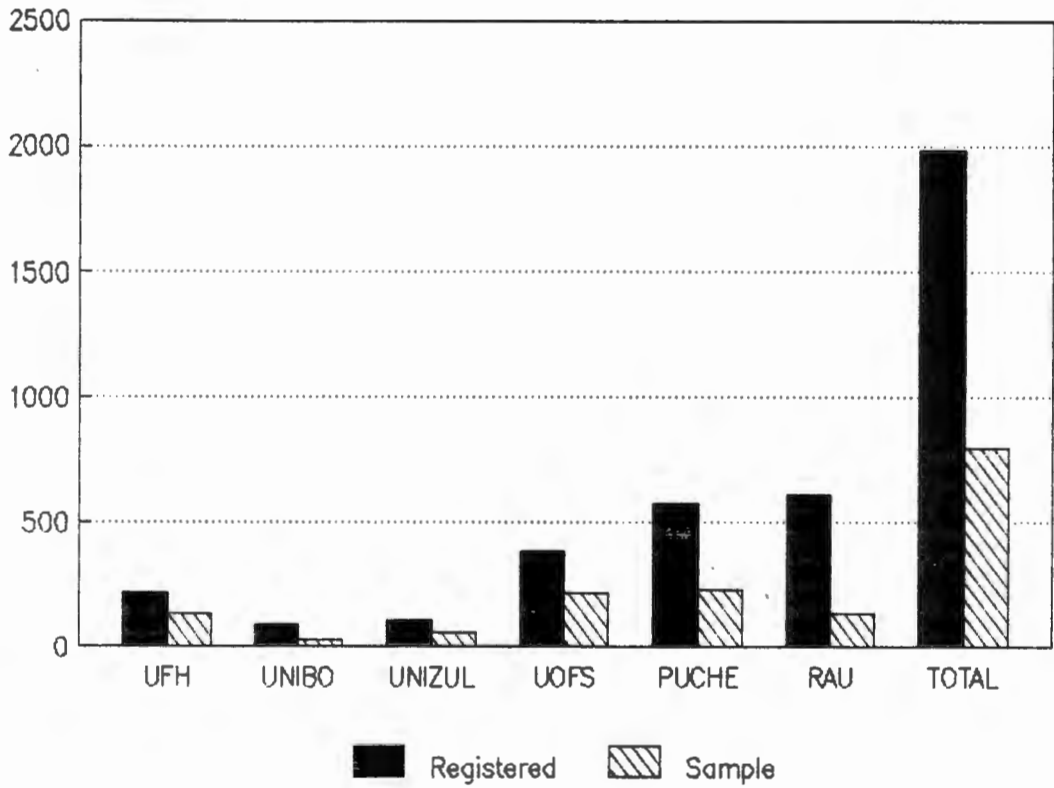
Profile 12
Amount of pocket money and race
(Item 12)

Race	None	1c-R50	R51-R100	R101-R150	R151-R200	>R200	Total
White							
n	25	52	133	143	103	126	582
%	3,13	6,51	16,65	17,90	12,89	15,77	72,75
Black							
n	16	71	60	32	22	17	218
%	2,00	8,89	7,51	4,01	2,75	2,00	27,25
Total							
n	41	123	193	175	125	143	800
%	5,13	15,39	24,16	21,90	15,64	17,77	100

Profile 13
Purchasing behaviour and race
(Item 13)

Race	Not at all	Sometimes	Always	Total
White				
n	57	314	211	582
%	7,13	39,25	26,38	72,75
Black				
n	12	102	104	218
%	1,50	12,75	12,88	27,25
Total				
n	69	416	314	800
%	8,63	52,00	39,25	100

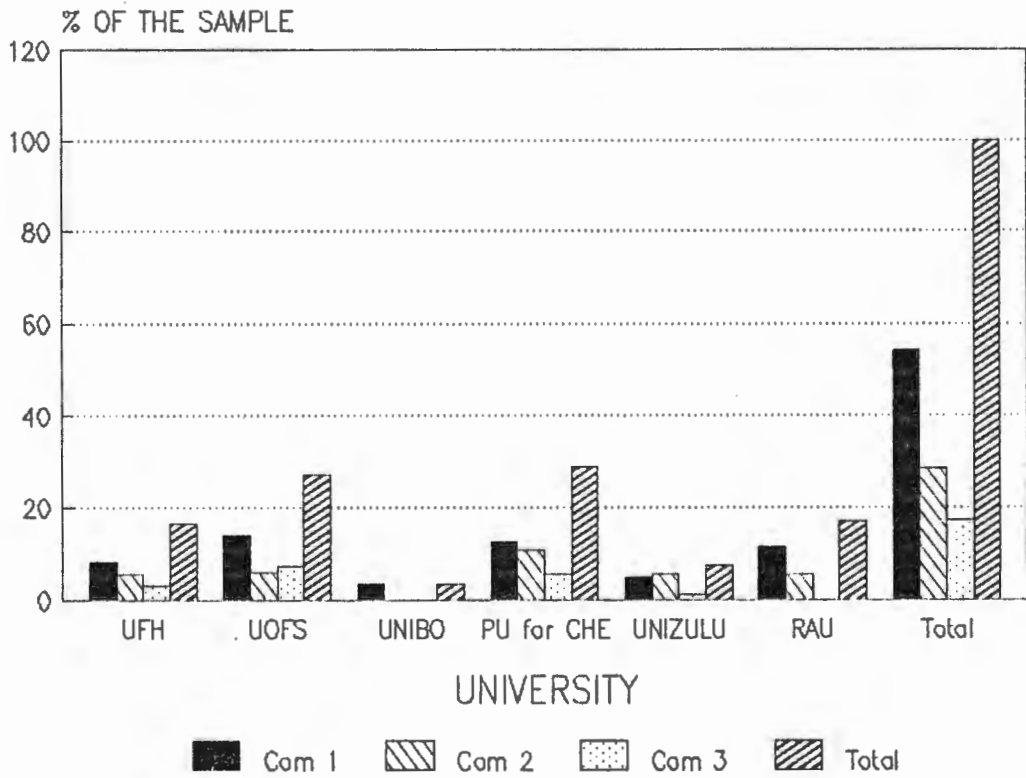
Student & sample Total



September 1990

University by comm

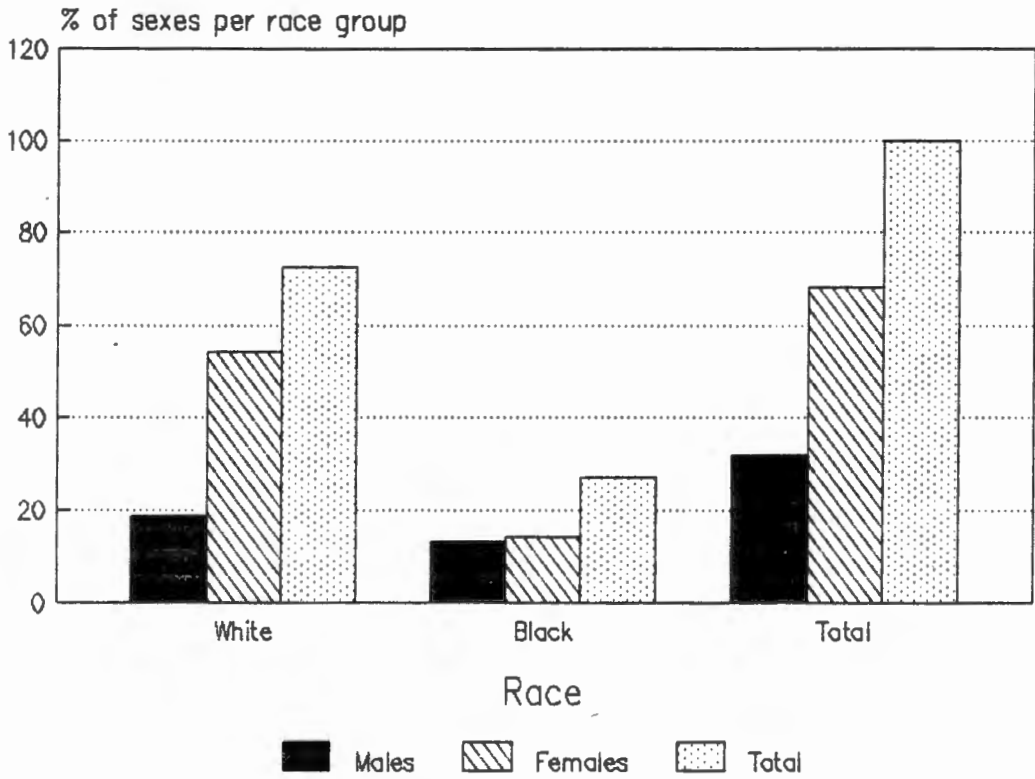
(Items 1 & 2)



September 1990

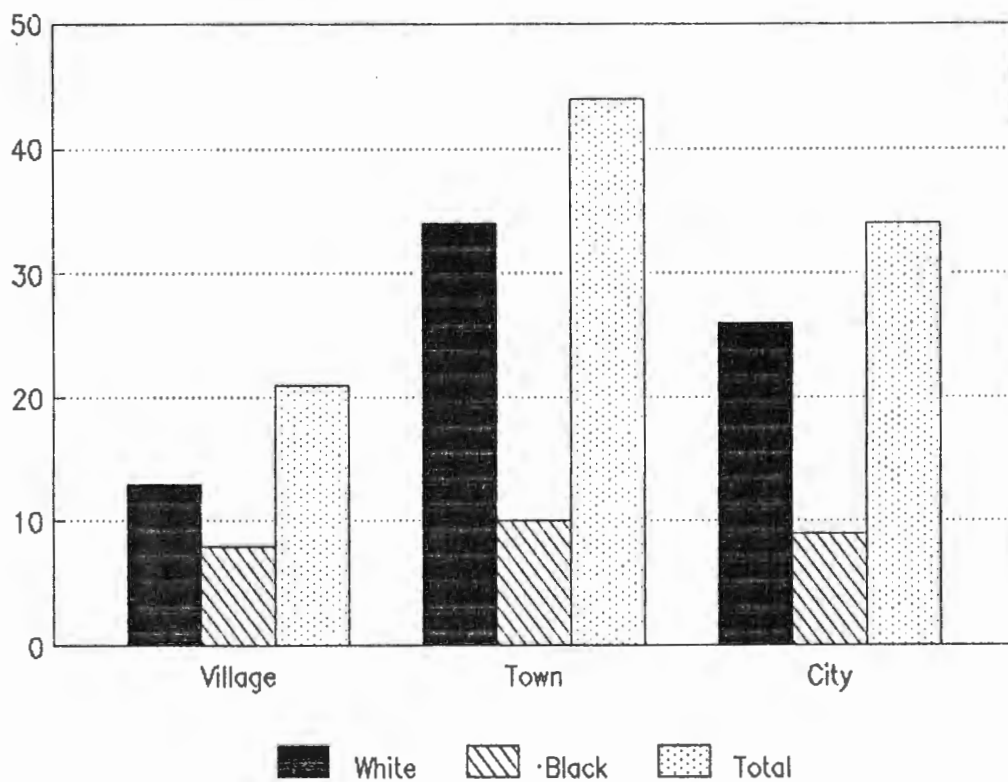
Race by sex

Sample realisation



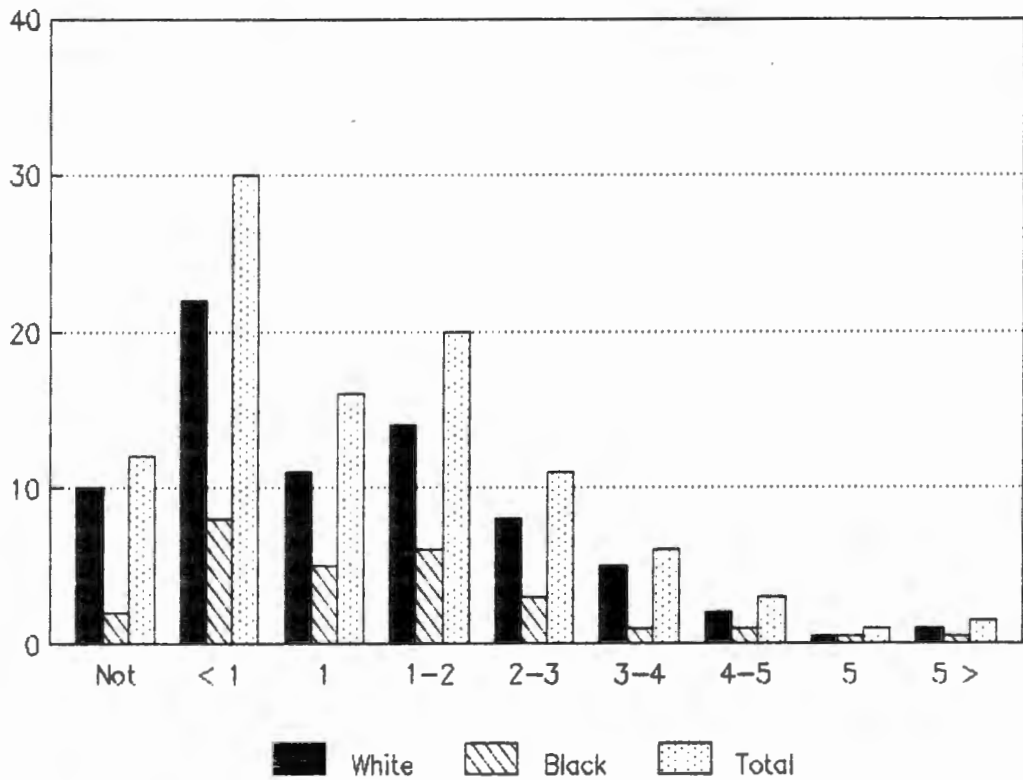
September 1990

Place of upbringing (Item 7)



% in the sample

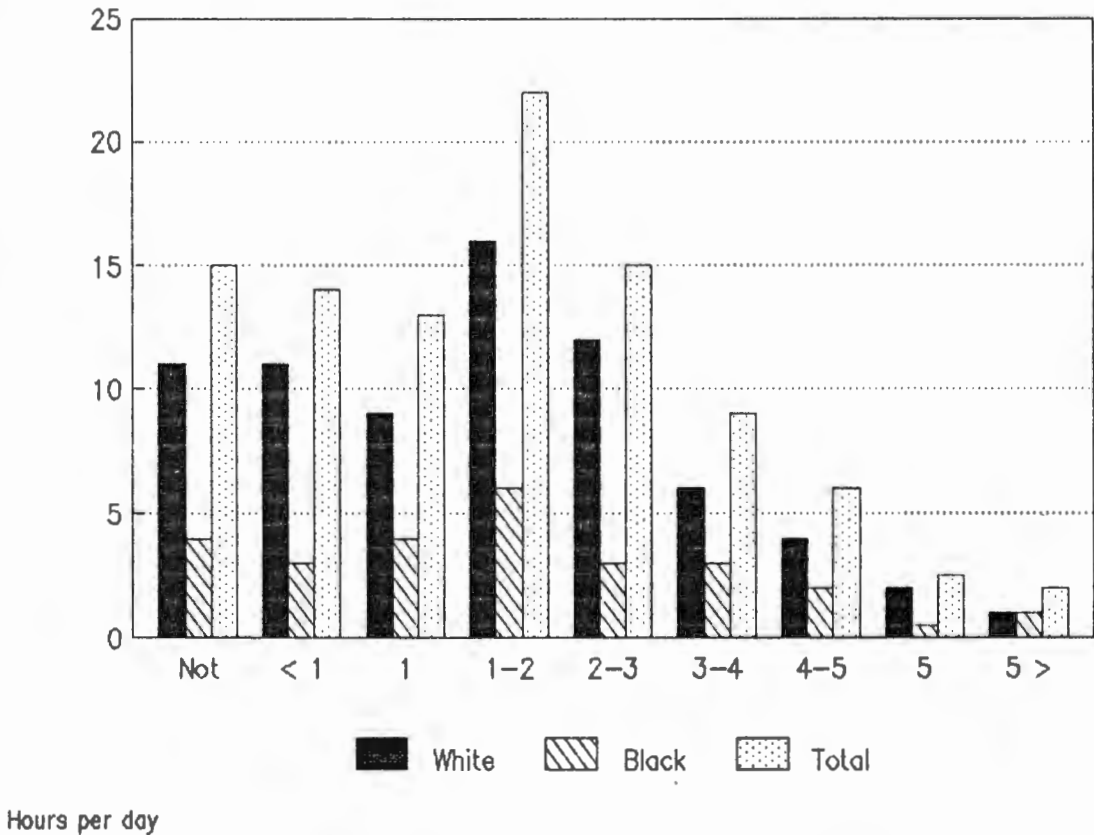
Tv-viewing by race Mon-Fri on campus



Hours per day

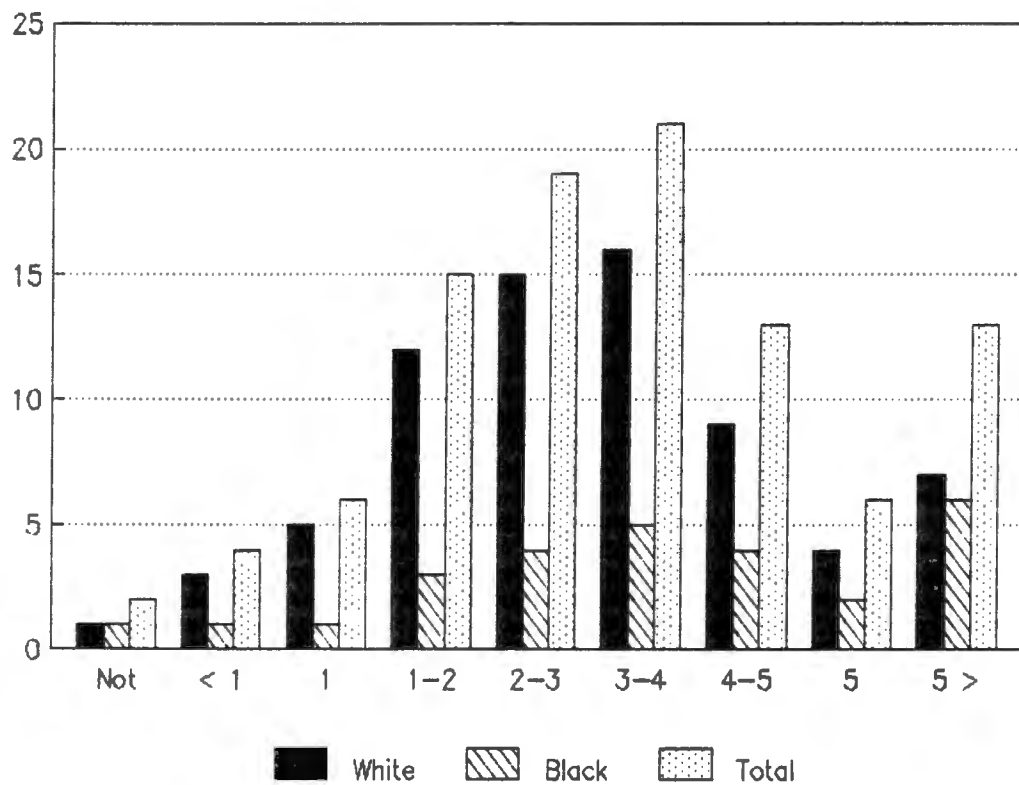
Tv-viewing by race

Weekends on campus



Tv-viewing by race

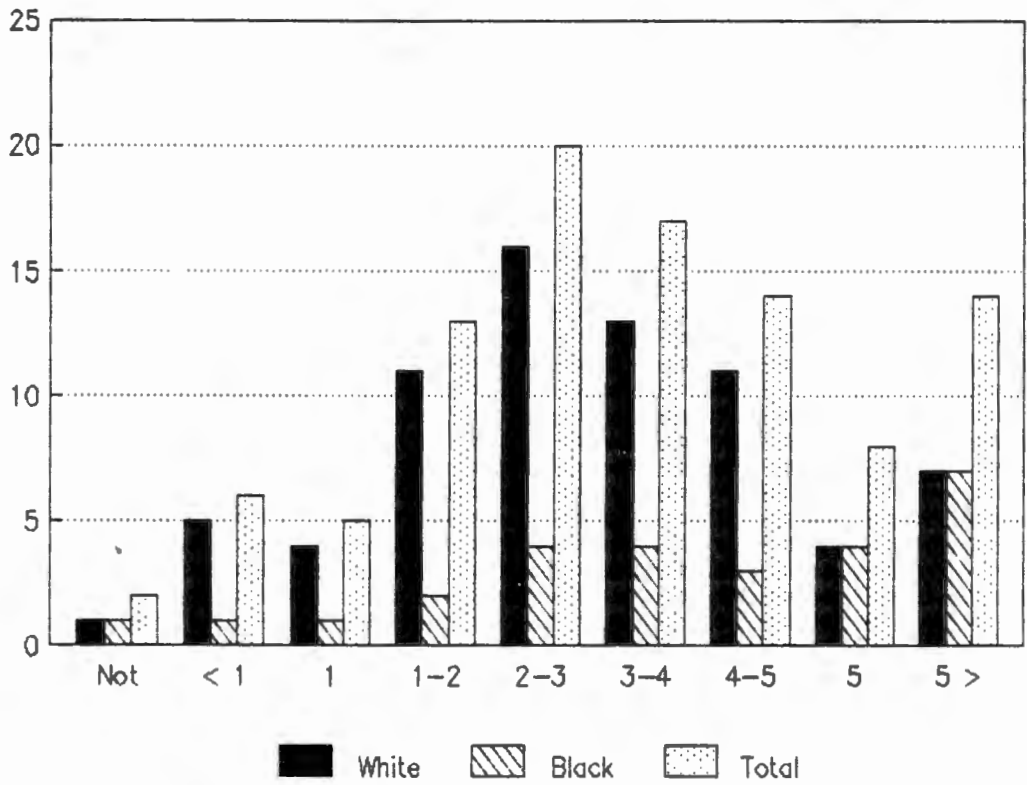
Mon-Fri at home



Hours per day

Tv-viewing by race

Weekends at home



Hours per day