CHAPTER III
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

Advertising is the most vital component of marketing, since it tries to achieve maximum results from the minimum cost incurrence. Television advertising occupies the central role in advertising, because it reaches the masses instantaneously while people view the programs. The reach is felt to be effective because it is carried with audio-visual effect in the background of glamorous settings. Further, beautiful and attractive male and female actors endorse the product with the message delivery focusing on the plus-points of products and services. In fact, the making of an advertisement is labeled as an industry by itself and it is considered to be both a science and an art. Advertising has become an integral part of the society, which cannot escape its presence. It is also omnipresent and omnipotent in the sense that it is present in every place and its influence on people is very high. However, its influence on people is both good and bad or positive and negative. The advertising researchers have looked at these positive and negative sides of advertising and the conclusions broadly cover economic benefits and costs of advertising. Further, most of the empirical studies on these economic benefits and social costs of advertising have been made with a focus on television advertising.

SCOPE OF THE REVIEW

The research on the impact of television advertising is very vast and innumerable studies have been conducted even on the minutest aspect of television advertising. However, in the background of the objectives of the present study and the hypotheses for the study, the review of literature includes a wide spectrum of only television advertising issues covering information content, economic impact, welfare effect of advertising, advertising effectiveness; attitude towards advertising, advertising credibility, misleading advertising, emotional role in advertising, advertising and fear appeals, trust in advertising, ad and stereotyping, advertising and children, sexual contents in advertising, offensive advertising, ad and slender body image, comparative advertising, pseudo scientific jargons, vanity content in advertising, celebrity advertising, puffery, ad and religion, advertising bans,
surrogate advertising, ad and time orientation, intrusiveness of ads, and viewers’ behavior during commercial breaks. In addition to the review of evidences on these dimensions, a brief review of empirical evidences in India has also been presented. One of the serious limitations of the empirical research on television advertising is that the studies cover different issues under one umbrella on one hand and the terms used to study advertising ethics are let loose on the other. As a result, a standard classification of different elements of television advertising ethics and even the standardized dimensions of advertising are totally absent. However, much care was taken to review the empirical literature by focusing on the relevance of the studies in the present work.

**INFORMATION CONTENT OF ADVERTISING**

The sole function of advertising is to attract consumer attention to a purchase opportunity (Kotler and Armstrong: 2009). Basically, advertising works to raise profits in many different ways (Erdem et al: 2008b). These include informing consumers, price reassurance, quality signaling, getting the product included in the consideration set, etc. The marketing literature has addressed these various roles in some detail. While informing consumers is considered by Belch and Belch (1993) price reassurance is studied by Iyer et al (2005) and quality signaling is investigated by Zhao (2000), Yee et al (2007), and Kalra and Li (2008).

Yee et al (2007) and Kalara and Li (2008) look at the firm problem of getting the product included in consideration set. The consideration set is actually the information content. Resnik and Stern (1977: 51) acknowledge that "in a very real sense information is 'in the eye of the beholder'," but they note that having a reliable operational definition of information content may be useful to advertisers, public-policy makers, and others. Hence they define information content as “facts, or cues about specific aspects of a product.” It, therefore, provides a measure of objective information content rather than subjective information use. That perspective directs attention away from the individual toward more general aspects of the advertisement. The evidence on consumer attitudes toward advertising shows that consumers prefer advertising that helps in decision making (Zanot: 1984). Providing information that differentiates a brand from its competitors tends to increase commercial recall, comprehension, and persuasion (Stewart and Furse: 1986; Stewart and Koslow: 1989). A recent empirical study found ad informativeness to be
the single factor most strongly correlated with overall advertising value (Ducoffe: 1995). A detailed review of audiences' perceptions of commercials reveals the informative/effective factor to be the best predictor of ad likability and brand attitudes (Aaker and Stayman: 1990). Further, the literature on advertising as a complementary good was developed by Stigler and Becker (1977) and elaborated upon by Becker and Murphy (1993). The latter authors consider that ads “give favorable notice” (p.942) to the products advertised, and they model this as admitting advertising expenditures as complementary goods in the consumer’s utility function. In sum, advertising information is an important influence on consumers’ responses to the ad and the brand.

With all this, there has been skepticism on advertising having information content. In a seminal work, Nelson (1974) asserts: Advertisements provide direct information about the search quality of a brand. However, in the case of experience qualities, the most important information conveyed by advertising simply is that brand advertises. For experience qualities, word-of-mouth information, may reasonably, be considered as constituting better information than advertising since, in a sense, it provides an avenue for an evaluation of the good or service through a vicarious experience. As buyers rely more on word-of-mouth, they will respond less to advertising (Nelson: 1974). Further, Nayyar (1990) posits that advertising has information asymmetries. To quote him, “Information asymmetries are generally cosidered as leading to costs for both parties in an exchange transaction. They can, however, also be a source of competitive advantage. Potential buyers face information asymmetries in evaluating services prior to purchase. Since such assymetries impose costs on buyers, there exists an incentive to lower such costs…”

The research on information content in advertising has been made through “Content Analysis,” which looks at information contained in ads. Most of the literature has followed the taxonomy of Resnik and Stern (1977) in categorizing 14 possible “information cues” (such as price, quality, performance, availability) that an ad may contain. Information content is described by the number of information cues the ad claims. However, Anderson and Renault (2011) show that quality information takes precedence over price information and horizontal product information.

In a meta-analysis, Abernethy and Franke (1996) identify the research on information content of advertising in these words: “Three major influences on the
(objective) information content of advertising have been examined in the literature: the medium carrying the advertisement, the country where the advertisement appears, and the product category being advertised.” However, it is important to note that information content is influenced by ad size as well as geographical coverage. Hence the review of literature on information content of advertising has been briefly presented under the following: (i) Views on Advertising; (ii) Media Effects on Advertising Information; (iii) Country Effects on Advertising Information; (iv) Product Effects on Advertising Information; and (v) Longitudinal Change in Information Levels; (vi) Ad Size and Information Level; and (vii) Geographical Coverage.

(i) Views on Advertising:

The different views on advertising have been classified under (a) Informative View; (b) Persuasive View; and (c) Complementary View and these views are briefly analyzed below.

(a) The Informative View:

Under the informative view, advertising is attractive to firms as a means through which they may convey information to consumers. An important implication of this view is that advertising may have pro-competitive consequences (Marshall: 1890, 1919; Chamberlin: 1933). Stigler (1961) interprets price dispersion (from manufacturer to retailer) as a reflection of consumer ignorance. Ozga (1960) constructs a model of optimal consumer search behavior, in which advertising effectively reduces consumers’ search costs, since it conveys such information. Telser (1964: 558) concludes: “Advertising is frequently a means of entry and a sign of competition. This agrees with the view that advertising is an important source of information.”

(b) Persuasive View:

In her development of the theory of imperfect competition, Robinson (1933: 5) includes some brief discussion of advertising, in which she argues that “the customer will be influenced by advertisement, which plays upon his mind with studied skill, and makes him prefer the goods of one producer to those of another because they are brought to his notice in a more pleasing and forceful manner.” In total, Robinson (Mrs.) suggests that advertising has strong anti-competitive consequences, since it deters entry and sustains monopoly power in a market where
the conduct of established firms otherwise would be suitably disciplined by competitive pressures.

In a perceptive paper, Braithwaite (1928) regards advertising as a “selling cost,” the purpose of which is to re-arrange consumers’ valuations, so that they are persuaded to value more greatly the advertised product. Advertising shifts out a consumer’s demand for the advertised product, and it thus distorts the consumer’s decisions as compared to those that reflect his “true” preferences (as captured in his pre-advertising demand). The persuasive view of advertising is further advanced by Kaldor (1950), who draws a distinction between the direct and indirect effects of advertising on social welfare. The direct effect of advertising is associated with its role in the provision of price and product-quality information to consumers, while the indirect effects of advertising include any consequent scale economies in production and distribution. In this way, large-scale advertising enables manufacturers to leap over middlemen and establish a direct connection with final consumers. Similar observations are made in other early efforts (Borden 1942; Chamberlin: 1933; Braithwaite: 1928; Marshall: 1919; Tosdal: 1918; Shaw: 1912).

Notably, Galbraith (1958, 1967) propose a very negative view of persuasive nature of advertising, wherein the institution of modern advertising arises with the purpose of creating wants among a population of passive consumers. Persuasive advertising instills brand loyalty and is thus expected to exert an indirect influence on other market variables that correspond to entry barriers, profit rates, concentration ratios and pricing levels (Comanor and Wilson: 1967, 1974).

(c) The Complementary View:

Under the complementary view of advertising, consumers possess stable preferences, and advertising directly enters these preferences in a manner that is complementary to the consumption of the advertised product. This view is logically distinct from the persuasive view (wherein advertising changes the utility function) and the informative view (wherein advertising directly affects utility only if it contains information). In fact, the complimentary view is enshrined in “social prestige” and notable contributions have been made by Telser (1964); Lancaster (1966); Stigler and Becker (1977); and Nichols (1985).
(ii) Media Effects on Advertising Information:

One strand of research on information content has been the relative of different advertising media in providing information. Print media allow almost unlimited message length and processing time, both of which are constrained in the broadcast media by fixed exposure durations. However, aside from general agreement that print ads are able to carry more information than broadcast ads, little evidence is available on information norms for and differences within the print and broadcast media categories.

Because most newspapers are printed daily, they allow information about sales, prices, and other marketing decisions to be communicated rapidly. It is therefore plausible that newspaper ads would carry more information than magazine ads. Similarly, radio ads can be put on the air with less lead time than television commercials, allowing quick communication of price changes and sales. Radio spots are also longer on average than television spots. However, radio is limited to sound, whereas television can also convey visual information. A wide and broadly overlapping range in average information content is reported for magazines (1.17 to 3.94 cues) and newspapers (1.59 to 3.27 cues). A wide range in average cues also is reported for TV (0.46 to 3.64), which encompasses the range reported for radio (1.57 to 2.66) (Abernethy and Franke: 1996). As a result, some studies show only small differences between media (e.g. Pasadeos et al: 1987), whereas in others the differences are pronounced (e.g. Abernethy: 1992). Abernethy and Butler (1992) found price information was given for 68 per cent of newspaper ads; 40 per cent had 4 or more cues.

(iii) Country Effects on Advertising Information:

Understanding cross-national advertising practices is vital for global marketers. Researchers have applied Resnik and Stern's (1977) method to measure advertising information basically in the United States and other countries, including most of Western Europe and the Pacific Rim. Differences in information levels across countries generally have been attributed to three broad factors: advertising regulation, cultural influences, and levels of economic development (Abernethy and Franke: 1996) and this observation is well supported in the studies by Dowling (1980); Martenson (1987) and Keown et al (1992). Advertising practices often vary across levels of economic development (e.g. James and Hill: 1991).
(iv) Product Effects on Advertising Information:

Advertising information levels have been reported to differ across product categories in the United States (e.g. Stern, Krugman, and Resnik: 1981) and elsewhere (e.g. Chi 1990; Weinberger and Spotts: 1989). Other studies in several countries have failed to find significant effects of product types (e.g. Noor Al-Deen: 1991; Stern and Resnik: 1991). Comparisons of product differences across studies are hampered by the varied product classifications used. Some authors have grouped products on conceptual grounds; for example, Norton and Norton (1988) compared search goods and experience goods and Weinberger and Spotts (1989) made a distinction between thinking/feeling and high involvement/low involvement products. However, most authors have used classifications that are more or less ad hoc; for example, Resnik and Stern (1977) used five broad categories plus "other," whereas Chi (1990) made such fine distinctions as men's versus women's clothes.

A broad but useful distinction is between durable and nondurable goods. Product classifications in most studies fit those categories better than the ones used by Norton and Norton (1988) and Weinberger and Spotts (1989). Consumers tend to search for more information for durable goods, which often pose high performance and financial risks to consumers and are generally considered to be high involvement goods (Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard: 1995).

(v) Longitudinal Change in Information Levels:

One longitudinal study of U.S. magazine advertising showed information levels declining from the 1900s through the 1970s (Pollay: 1984). Other research on different U.S. media showed little change since the 1970s (e.g. Chou, Franke, and Wilcox: 1987; Stern and Resnik: 1991). In Korean magazine advertising, Moon and Franke (1996) found stable information levels for international brands but declining levels for domestic brands. In New Zealand, Fay and Currier (1994) found a gradual rise in magazine advertising information levels from 1953 through 1983, followed by a sharp decline in 1988. They attributed the decline to the development of a low-involvement model of consumer behavior, though they cited no external evidence to support that explanation. Abernethy and Franke (1998) find that content was significantly lower when the FTC campaign against misleading ads was more vigorous. Other papers in the content analysis tradition have compared content over
(vi) Ad Size and Information Level:
In the literature, the relationship between ad size and information content has been reported as positive (Pasadeos et al: 1987), negative (Chi: 1990), inconsistent (Noor Al-Deen: 1991), and non-significant (Madden, Caballero, and Matsukubo: 1986).

(vii) Geographical Coverage:
Another strand of information content research in advertising is the effects of geographic advertising scope. It is evidenced that if local and national advertisers have different marketing goals and creative styles, their ads would logically contain different levels and types of information (Abernethy: 1992; Pollay, Zaichkowsky, and Fryer: 1980). Accordingly, information differences across media correspond to relative usage of the media by local and national advertisers (e.g. Stern and Resnik: 1991; Ekelund, Mixon and Ressler: 1995).

ECONOMIC IMPACT OF ADVERTISING
The relevance of advertising has always been discussed from the viewpoint of economic and social impact. The social impact has been argued with almost a negative approach and the economic impact has been argued with more positive impact on the economy. The research on the analysis of the relevance of advertising starts initially with its economic content and then ends with its social content. This initiation of discussion starts with the search for economic truth in advertising. As Nelson (1974a) observes: “What makes the advertising issue fascinating...is that it is fundamentally an issue in how to establish truth in economics.” Hence element of truth in the economics of advertising has been presented under (i) Historical Evolution; (ii) Economic Views on Advertising; and (iii) Economic Effects of Advertising.

(i) Historical Evolution:
Historically, the search for truth in advertising has evolved from a stage of no economic relevance to the stage of excessiveness. The economic analysis of advertising begins with Marshall (1890, 1919), who offers some insightful distinctions, and then gathers momentum with Chamberlin’s (1933) integration of
selling costs into economic theory. The irrelevance-argument of advertising originated in 19th century with the emergence of perfect competition school of thought espoused by Pigou (1924) and Braithwaite (1928). However, the turn-of-the-century technological innovations that were associated with mass production and distribution gave significant encouragement to large-scale brand advertising and mass marketing activities (Galbraith: 1976). The emergence of large-scale advertising is also attributable to income growth, printing and literacy advances, and urbanization (Chandler: 1990; Pope: 1983; Simon: 1970; Wood: 1958; Borden: 1942). Subsequently, the scathing attack on advertising started from 1980s with the argument of excessiveness. This excessiveness-argument starts from the level of advertising expenditures. For example, Advertising Age (2005) reports that, in 2003 in the U.S., General Motors spent $3.43 billion to advertise its cars and trucks; Procter and Gamble devoted $3.32 billion to the advertisement of its detergents and cosmetics; and Pfizer incurred a $2.84 billion dollar advertising expense for its drugs. Hence it is posited that advertising is big business indeed.

A host of criticism follows this excessiveness. For example, Arnold Toynbee (quoted by Ogilvy: 1980, 149), reportedly said, “[I] cannot think of any circumstances in which advertising would not be an evil.” Not to be outdone, a professor at the New School for Social Research in New York (Quoted in Ogilvy: 1983, 206) said: “Advertising is a profoundly subversive force in American life. It is intellectual and moral pollution. It trivializes, manipulates, is insincere and vulgarizes. It is undermining our faith in our nation and in ourselves.”

By comparison, Galbraith (1976:124-126) seems tame. He only accuses advertising of creating desires that otherwise would not exist and of manipulating consumers into buying unneeded new brands of breakfast cereal and laundry detergent. Kirkpatrick (2007: 21) sums up the criticism leveled by researchers in these words: “Advertising, the critics say, increases prices without adding value to the product; it encourages monopoly; it corrupts editors; it foists inferior products on the unwitting and helpless consumer; it makes people buy products they do not need; it promotes dangerous products and encourages harmful behavior; it is deceptive and manipulative; it is intrusive, irritating, offensive, tasteless, insulting, degrading, sexist, racist; it is loud, obnoxious, strident, and repetitive to the point of torture; it is a pack of lies; it is a vulgar bore.” Continuing this argument, Kirkpatrick
(2007: 22) goes on to observe: “The critics who denigrate advertising attack not only advertising but also—by logical necessity—capitalism, ethical egoism, and reason.”

(ii) Economic Views on Advertising:

Initial reflections on advertising are offered by Marshall (1890, 1919). As Marshall (1919) explains, advertising can play a constructive role by conveying information to consumers. Chamberlin (1933: 118-120) argues that advertising affects demand, because it (i) conveys information to consumers, with regard to the existence of sellers and the price and qualities of products in the marketplace, and (ii) alters consumers’ “wants” or tastes.

Along with Marshall (1890, 1919), other early contributors to the economic analysis of advertising include Pigou (1924), Sherman (1900) and Shryer (1912). Aaker (2001) argues that advertising is a positive force for society, since it educates consumers by bringing new goods to their attention. Pigou emphasizes that much advertising is combative and thus socially wasteful. Shaw argues that advertising enables manufacturers to by-pass the middleman and establish their brand names with consumers. Advertising thus gives manufacturers incentive to maintain reputations for high quality. Sherman details the extent and nature of advertising in the U.S. in the 19th century. He also observes that advertising can play constructive and combative roles. However, with Shryer offering one of the first quantitative studies of advertising using mail-order data, he argues that the effect of advertising on sales exhibits decreasing returns.

(iii) Economic Effects of Advertising:

Advertising has a purpose for a firm. It is resorted to have certain effects on the firm’s performance. Basically, these effects have been classified into (1) Direct Effects of Advertising; and (2) Indirect Effects of Advertising.

(1) Direct Effects of Advertising:

The direct effects of advertising include (a) Sales; and (b) Brand Loyalty and Market-Share Stability. The empirical evidences on these issues have been presented below.

(a) Sales:

The early views on the relationship between advertising and sales have been provided by Marshall (1890, 1919), who contends that advertising redistributes sales
within the industry and Braithwaite (1928), who views advertising as having long-lasting reputation effects and Lambin (1976), who finds that advertising has lagged-sales effect and subsequent studies support Lambin’s conclusion (e.g. Ekelund and Suarman: 1988; Hay and Morris: 1991; Schamalensee: 1972, 1989). Many studies establish a positive relation between advertising and primary demand (e.g. Cowling et al: 1975; Seldon and Doroodian: 1989; Kwoka: 1993) and other studies establish no such relationship (e.g. Hamilton: 1972; Baltagi and Levin: 1986; Nelson: 2004). Another important dimension of research on the relationship between advertising and sales is the evidence that advertising has a depreciating impact on sales over a time-horizon (Peles: 1971; Clark: 1976; Boyd and Seldon: 1990; Leone: 1995).

(b) Brand Loyalty and Market-Share Stability:

According to the persuasive view, the direct effect of advertising is that brand loyalty is created and the demand for the advertised product becomes less elastic. Ideally, a direct empirical assessment of this effect would draw from a longitudinal data set that includes household-level advertising-exposure and brand-purchase data as well as the advertising and pricing behaviors of rival firms. The studies by Thomas (1989); Kwoka (1993); and Landes and Rosenfield (1994) offer evidence in support of the view that brand loyalty is associated more with brand-specific factors (like product quality) than with advertising per se. It has also been evidenced that advertising is associated with market-share stability (e.g. Lambin: 1976; Telser: 1962; Ferguson: 1967; Reekie: 1974).

(2) Indirect Effect of Advertising:

The indirect effect of advertising specifically focuses on the associations between advertising and (a) concentration, (b) profit, (c) entry, (d) price and (e) quality. A brief analysis of empirical evidences has been presented below.

(a) Concentration:

According to Kaldor, advertising scale economies exist and big firms are better able to finance large advertising expenditures; as a consequence, advertising promotes greater concentration and leads to an oligopolistic structure. However, the results of empirical studies are highly mixed in nature. If some studies find a positive correlation (e.g. Else: 1966; Telser: 1964; Doyle: 1968b), no such relationship has been found in some other studies (e.g. Guth: 1971; Comanor and Wilson: 1974; Nelson: 1975). Beginning in the 1970s, economists emphasized that
the causality between advertising and concentration might run both ways, with concentration also influencing advertising (e.g. Cable: 1972; Cowling et al: 1975; Weiss et al: 1983; Uri: 1987).

(b) Profit:
Under the persuasive view, advertising creates brand loyalty and works to deter entry. As Bain (1956) and Comanor and Wilson (1967, 1974) argue, this conclusion may be indirectly evaluated by examining the inter-industry association between advertising intensity and profitability. The literature is vast and the universal conclusions is that advertising increases profits (e.g. Conolly and Hirschey: 1984; Connor and Peterson: 1992; Landes and Rosenfield: 1994); and also profitability (Jones et al: 1973, 1977; Caves and Uekusa: 1976; Eckard: 1991).

(c) Entry:
It is also possible to examine the entry-deterrence effect of advertising by exploring the direct relationship between advertising and entry. One group of studies suggests that advertising indeed deters entry (e.g. Orr: 1974a; Harris; 1976; Shapiro and Khemani: 1987). A second group of studies, however, suggests that advertising may facilitate entry (e.g. Telser: 1962; Farris and Buzell: 1979; Conolly and Hirschey: 1984; Kessides: 1986).

(d) Price:
As Chamberlin (1933) explains, advertising has conflicting effects on price, and the overall relationship cannot be deduced on theoretical grounds alone. A variety of evidence suggests that heavily advertised brands are more expensive for final consumers than are less-advertised goods within the same product class (e.g. Borden: 1942; Backman: 1967, 125; Tremblay and Tremblay: 1995). This evidence is consistent with the persuasive view. But, as information- and complementary-view advocates might argue, it is also possible that heavily advertised goods have higher prices, because they have higher (or less variable) quality or embody prestige effects that consumers directly value (Steiner: 1973, 1978, 1984, 1993). In cross-sectional work, a few studies offer evidence that manufacturers’ advertising and retailer margins are inversely related (Farris and Albion: 1987; Reekie: 1979; Nelson: 1978).
(e) Quality:

According to Nelson (1974b), when a product is heavily advertised, it is more likely that the quality of the product is high. In most empirical studies, a positive relationship between advertising and product quality is observed in some circumstances (Tellis and Fornell: 1988), but the relationship fails (or weakens) in other circumstances (Caves and Greene: 1996). Jin and Leslie (2003) find that these relationships are especially strong at later stages in the product life cycle. It is also interesting to note that consumer perception of ad and product quality has an inverted-U relationship (Homer: 1995; Kirmani: 1990, 1997).

Lastly, while analyzing the values cherished by advertising, the study by Nielsen Company (2009) argues that advertising (a) increases value for consumers (through competition); (b) promotes consumer choice (helping consumers exercise their right to choose); (c) powers economic growth (by helping companies succeed); (d) creates jobs (through economic growth and as an industry in itself); (e) becomes the lifeblood of media (funding a diverse, pluralistic media landscape); (f) funds sports and culture (through sponsorship); and (g) helps make a difference (through public service advertisements); (h) gets one’s attention and is entertaining. Based on these values, the study finds that (i) Globally, most consumers agree that advertising delivers these types of value; (ii) Consumers are less convinced of the value of advertising in providing useful information on issues such as safety and health through public service announcements, although even here, 63 per cent of consumers agree that it does so; (iii) The most notable regional variation is on the subject of advertising’s ability to help consumers make more informed choices, by providing information; and (iv) Globally, two-thirds of consumers agree that advertising provides value this way and in Latin America, eight out of 10 consumers agree, but only half of European consumers do.

WELFARE EFFECTS OF ADVERTISING

Some amount of research on the relationship between advertising costs, the level of advertising, and the level of welfare has been done. Existing research demonstrates that this relationship is ambiguous (Motta: 1997). The presence of welfare increase is felt to be contained in informative advertising. “Advertising is informative when consumers get to know the existence of firms and their products or the prices they set. Its main effect is to foster competition, since it allows
comparative shopping and therefore tends to reduce perceived product differentiation created by lack of information (Motta: 1997, 3).” Persuasive advertising is an extension of informative advertising. However, Tirole (1988) posits that it is often difficult to assign real world advertising to one of these two abstract categories. However, the distinction between informative and persuasive advertising has implications. It is held persuasive advertising has implications on the market power of advertisers. According Motta (1997: 4-5), “Persuasive advertising increases brand recognition, enhances loyalty towards the firm’s products and therefore increases product differentiation and allows firms to enjoy more market power. Hence it raises equilibrium prices. This would in turn reduce consumption, unless advertising might also shift outward the aggregate demand function for any give level of prices. A priori, therefore, the effect of persuasive advertising upon total demand is ambiguous.”

Dixit and Norman (1978) examined the welfare effect of advertising. They find that the market equilibrium level of advertising is shown to be socially excessive, even when post-advertising tastes are used as the standard for welfare judgments and the monopoly profits resulting from the advertising are included in welfare. When monopoly, oligopoly and monopolistic competition are examined, the contention that advertising is excessive is found to be strengthened at each stage.

It is evidenced that when customers are imperfectly informed about product characteristics and prices, informative advertising reduces product differentiation (Grossman and Shapiro: 1984). Bester and Petrakis (1995) models advertising expenditures as a capital investment, with the stock of advertising determining the goodwill level of a firm, which in turn affects demand. Becker and Murphy (1993) find that advertising tends to lower the prices of the goods sold by the monopolist and it will increase the demand.

In contrast to informative advertising, persuasive advertising is evidenced to increase product differentiation by affecting consumer preferences and hence prices and profits are increased (Stigler and Becker: 1977; Butters: 1977; Dixit and Norman; 1978). Fairchild (2005) posits that the effect of persuasive advertising is not towards the outward shift of the demand curve of firms, but only the redistribution of the total demand and this leads to no welfare gain for the consumers and finds that: (i) increasing the cost of advertising reduces the amount of persuasive
advertising; (ii) firms engage in too little persuasive advertising; (iii) persuasive advertising does not necessarily maximize welfare.

**Advertising Effectiveness**

Tellis (2009: 240) defines “advertising effectiveness in markets” as “market response to a firm’s (or a brand’s) advertising.” He further defines “market response” as “the firm’s (or brand’s) choices, sales, or market share in real market contexts.” Researchers have examined the effect of advertising from the time mass advertising first began more than a hundred years ago. Scientific research, however, began to accumulate in the last 50 years (Tellis: 2004, 2007).

The empirical research on advertising effectiveness is abundant. Tellis (2009: 241) classifies field research into five groups, depending on which aspect of advertising it researches: advertising elasticity, weight, frequency, wear-in/wear-out, and content.

“Advertising elasticity” is the percentage change in sales of a brand for a 1 percent change in the level of advertising. There are several meta-analyses done to date (Clarke: 1976; Leone: 1995; Sethuraman and Tellis: 1991). The major conclusions of these studies are the following: (i) if advertising changes by 1 percent, sales or market share will change by about 0.1 percent and this implies that advertising elasticity is 0.1; (ii) the advertising elasticity is higher in Europe relative to the United States, for durables relative to nondurables, in early relative to late stages of the product life cycle, and in print over TV; (iii) the advertising elasticity is lower in models that incorporate disaggregate data, advertising carryover, quality, and promotion relative to those that do not; (iv) The advertising elasticity is lower in multiplicative models relative to other model forms, such as the additive model; (v) the advertising elasticity is invariant over the measure of the dependent variable or the method of estimation (vi) the carryover elasticity of advertising seems twice as large as that of the current effect; and (vii) the estimates of the carryover effect of advertising decrease with the interval of the data used to estimate the carryover.

“Weight” refers to the level or intensity of the advertising budget. Typically, the studies in this group examine the effect of differences in advertising budget across time periods or regions. The main focus of such studies is to determine whether an increase in weight translates into a proportional or profitable increase in sales of the advertised product. Alternatively, the studies assess whether a decrease
in weight results in a proportional decrease in sales of the advertised brand. The major studies include Aaker and Carman (1982); Easlack and Rao (1989) and Tellis (2004, 2007). Research from weight studies leads to the following six important and surprising findings: (i) even if advertisers make a big increase or decrease in weight, sales do not increase or decrease by much; (ii) if advertisers make cuts in weight, sales do not immediately decrease; (iii) if advertising is effective, its effects are visible early in the life of a campaign; (iv) conversely, if early advertising is ineffective, then repetition will not create or enhance its effectiveness; (v) if advertisers make changes in media, product, target segments, scheduling, and especially content of the advertising, they are more likely to cause changes in sales than if they merely change weight; and (vi) where profitability of the advertising has been assessed, advertising seems to be profitable less than half the time.

An “advertising campaign” is a series of exposures of an advertisement. Wear-in transpires when the effect of an advertisement keeps increasing with repetition of the advertisement within the campaign. In contrast, wear-out occurs when the effect of an advertisement continues to decrease as the advertisement is repeated within a campaign. If they occur, wear-in normally happens early in the life of a campaign, and wear-out normally takes place later. This summary is based on individual studies or research reviews by Blair (2000), Greenberg and Sutton (1973), Pechmann and Stewart (1992), Pieters, Rosbergen and Wedel (1999), Sawyer (1981), Sawyer and Ward (1976), and Tellis, Chandy, and Thaivanich (2000). Research on wear-in and wear-out leads to the following important findings: (i) wear-in either does not exist or occurs quite rapidly; (ii) wear-in occurs more slowly: (a) when exposures are spread apart; (b) when consumers are not forced to attend to the advertisement; (c) with advertisements that contain emotional appeals rather than arguments; (d) for consumers who are not highly motivated to attend to the advertisement or actively process the advertising content; (e) in markets relative to theater or lab settings; and (iii) wear-in may be stronger with advertisements that have higher persuasion scores than those with lower persuasion scores. The research findings on wear-out are the following: (i) advertising campaigns wear-out if run long enough; (ii) wear-out occurs more slowly: (a) with advertising content that is complex, emotional, or ambiguous; (b) with advertisements that are less effective; (c) with infrequently purchased products; (d) when exposures are spread apart; (e)
with light viewers of TV; and (f) with campaigns that offer a richer variety of advertisements and executions; (iii) a break in a campaign leads to an increase in effectiveness of an advertisement; if that happens, the advertisement wears out even faster than it did the first time around; and (iv) in rare cases (with new products, for instance), advertising seems to have permanent effects: the effect of advertising persists even after the advertising is withdrawn.

“Content” refers to what is in an advertisement as opposed to such external characteristics as weight or frequency. Aspects of content include the appeal (argument, emotion, and endorsement), the duration or length of the advertisement, the use of color, sound, or video, the amount/type of text, etc. While a vast number of studies have examined the effectiveness of various aspects of advertising content, only a few market studies have been found on this issue (Chandy, Tellis, MacInnis, and Thaiyanich: 2001; MacInnis, Rao, and Weiss: 2002). Hence generalizations of findings in this area need to be made cautiously. Research on advertising content seems to suggest the following preliminary findings: (i) changes in the creative, medium, target segment, or product itself sometimes lead to changes in sales, even though increases in the level of advertising by itself does not; (ii) informative appeals are more important early than late in the product’s life cycle; and (iii) conversely, emotional appeals are more effective late rather than early in a product’s life cycle.

To conclude, advertising effectiveness is smaller on consumers than one expects. Its repetition does not increase the realization of intended objective. Advertisements begin with informative appeals and end with emotional appeals. Because of this factor, the product advertised is not remembered but only the advertising sequence. Further, this brings an enduring effect on consumers

**ATTITUDE TOWARDS ADVERTISING**

A substantial volume of research on advertising ethics has been carried out under the broad umbrella of ‘attitude towards advertising,’ popularly labeled as ‘Aad.’ Hence the review of literature has been presented under (i) The Concept; (ii) Measurement Variables; and (iii) Empirical Evidences.
(i) The Concept:

A person’s attitude toward advertising is “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner to advertising in general” (Lutz: 1985: 53). An attitude can be regarded as having two components: beliefs about the topic, combined with an evaluative factor (Muehling: 1987; Lutz: 1985; MacKenzie and Lutz: 1989). A belief about advertising would be that ‘advertising lowers prices’, whereas an attitude is a summary evaluation, or ‘good/bad thing’ (Pollay and Mittal: 1993). One’s attitude towards an object shapes one’s behavior towards that object, although links between attitude and behavior are not always clear (Lodist et al; 1995).

Singh and Vij (2007: 46) observe: “Beliefs are the foundations of attitudes that consumers form about advertising. Attitudes toward advertising are operationalised and measured by positive or negative beliefs about advertising. Conceptually advertising beliefs and attitudes are different, but because of their direct and close connections, practically they have been treated interchangeably in the previous research. In the past, the perception of the consumers regarding social, economic and ethical aspects of advertising has been measured in the form of beliefs and attitudes toward advertising.” Since a long time and even now, attitude towards advertisement, popularly abbreviated as Aad, continues to be the focus of the researchers on advertising ethics. In research parlance, Aad refers to general beliefs about advertising in media by the public, viewers, readers or audience. According to Bohner and Wanke (2002), "Attitude is a summary evaluation of an object of thought. An attitude object can be anything a person discriminates or holds in mind." From this viewpoint, Aad can be defined as a summary evaluation of an advertisement. In the literature, Aad is conceptualized broadly as liking/disliking of an advertisement and has been regarded by some as the best indicator of advertising effectiveness (Haley and Baldinger: 1991; Brown and Stayman: 1992). MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch (1985: 130) defined Aad as a "predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion. Lutz (1985: 53) defined Aad as “a learned predisposition to respond in the consistently favorable or unfavorable manner to advertising in general.” Sometimes, the term is broadly defined to include information value, credibility, irritation and economic effects of advertising
In view of several inferences on the meaning of Aad, it may be said that Aad may broadly refer to one’s reaction based on one’s experience, belief and lifestyle.

**(ii) Measurement Variables:**

Muehling (1987) argued that advertisements are explained by the two dimensions (i.e., institution and instrument), both of which were nearly equally important and highly significant in understanding Aad. According to Muehling and McCann (1993), many studies have relied upon the use of semantic-differential items, accompanied by factor analysis, to support the presence of more than one Aad dimension (Olney, Holbrook and Batra: 1991).

However, measures of attitude towards advertising normally focus on defining sets of belief factors. Bauer and Greyser (1968) developed a set of eight items to measure ‘attitude’ towards advertising classified into two groups: economic items (e.g. in general, advertising results in lower prices) or social items (e.g. advertising often persuades people to buy things they shouldn't buy). Their work has been referred to or taken as a starting point in many subsequent studies (Reid and Soley: 1982; Pollay and Mittal: 1993; Mittal and Lazzar: 1996). Respondents tend to be more critical of the social aspects and more favorable towards the economic aspects of advertising (Ramaprasad: 2001; Larkin: 1977; Haller: 1974). Early models have been made more comprehensive and complex by, for example, including attitude to the instrument used to advertise as well as towards advertising as a whole (e.g. Sandage and Leckenby: 1980; Durvasula et al: 1993; Pollay and Mittal: 1993; Davila and Rojas: 2001). The work of Pollay and Mittal has been used in some field studies (e.g. Korgaonkar et al: 1997), but their 7 factor structure did not emerge in large scale work outside of the USA (e.g. Davies and Rojas: 2001). Beliefs about advertising in the various studies of attitude towards advertising tend to dichotomize into the two sets originally described by Bauer and Greyser, one that acknowledges the benefits to the individual of advertising and one that emphasizes the negative social effect of promoting consumerism.

Many research studies have also showed that the importance of cognitive (utilitarian) aspects of information in leading to purchase intention (Lord, Lee and Sauer: 1995). The hedonic attitudinal dimension is related to the consumer's
experience of pleasure and happiness with the advertised product or service (Tinkham and Weaver-Lariscey: 1994). In other words, consumers attend to the ads that make them feel good and serve their pleasure needs. The ads try to associate the product with good times, enjoyments, and happiness. The interestingness of attitudinal dimension is related to the emotional arousal and curiosity that the ads provoke (Olney, Holbrook and Batra: 1991). High arousal may promote the learning of the physical features of the ads, while at the same time inhibiting processing of the information at a deeper level for people to elaborate on the meaningfulness of their various physical attributes (Singh and Churchill: 1987). Accordingly, interestingness is about the fleeting attention that people give to the ads.

Since Shimp (1981) suggested that Aad might be comprised of multiple dimensions, a few researchers have tried to support his suggestion with empirical evidence (Laczniaik and Teas; 2002). Olney, Holbrook and Batra (1991) proposed that Aad is probably multidimensional instead of considering it as unidimensional and it may be comprised of hedonic, utilitarian, and interestingness dimensions. Muehling (1987) focused the result that Aad was explained by the two dimensions (i.e., institution and instrument), both of which were nearly equally important and highly significant. Mitchell and Olson (1981) showed that unidimensional Aad was not enough to account for the evaluative variance of Aad. Finally, Laczniaik and Teas (2002) showed that unidimensional measures of Aad might inflate the observed relationship between Ad and PI under high involvement conditions. These studies supported the notion that researchers should use decomposed measures of Aad. There have been at least eight dimensions included in various conceptual definitions of Aad, such as affective, cognitive, emotional, hedonic, utilitarian, interesting, claim-related, and non-claim related. According to Muehling and McCann (1993), many studies have relied upon the use of semantic-differential items, accompanied by factor analysis, to support the presence of more than one Aad dimensions (Olney, Holbrook and Batra 1991).

(iii) Empirical Evidences:

Innumerable studies have been conducted on attitudes towards advertising. Broadly, these studies may be classified into (a) Evidences from General Public; and (b) Evidences from College Students and a few important studies under these classifications have been presented below.
(a) Evidences from General Public:

Back in 1959, Gallup (1959) conducted a study of consumer attitudes towards advertising in the USA, which demonstrated that, generally speaking, respondents tend to like advertising for many reasons: advertisements are informative and express consumer preferences for the products advertised as compared to the non-advertised ones.

About ten years later, again in the USA, the first officially studied negative attitudes towards advertising were manifested: in 1968 Bauer and Greys reported that the larger part of respondents considers advertisements irritating because of too frequent repetitions (Bauer and Greys: 1968).

Barnes (1982) confirmed that the growing negative attitudes towards advertising accounted for by the growing share of TV advertisements, where customers had the feeling that they were misled and the number and power of customer protection organizations was increasing. Later, Andrews (1989) showed that most of the respondents did not believe that advertisements presented the objective truth with respect to products advertised and advertisements underestimated consumers’ intelligence. The recent study by Pyun and James (2010) also confirms that consumers’ attitude toward advertising have increasingly become negative.

Reid and Soley (1982) find that there is a significant difference between people’s generalized and personalized attitudes toward advertising’s social and economic effects and that people are more negative on the personalized than generalized attitude level toward both types of advertising effects. Many studies have also shown that respondents differ in attitudes by demographics. Durand and Lambert (1985) indicated that attitudes toward advertising are moderately related to respondents’ age, gender, income, and education. Semenick, Zhou, and Moore (1986) have investigated the attitudes and beliefs held by Chinese managers regarding various economic and social aspects of the use of advertising by highlighting demographic variables.

Hite and Eck (1987) conducted a study to determine the consumers’ and manufacturers’ attitudes with regard to advertising directed toward children. The results indicated that consumer respondents had more negative attitudes regarding
advertising directed toward children. Consumers reported significantly greater disagreement with there being nothing ethically wrong with advertising targeted at children, and that advertisers did not have the right to advertise to whomsoever they wanted because of freedom of speech. It was interesting to note that both the business firm respondents and consumers agreed that companies should be held liable for deceptive and unfair advertising; that parents should discuss with children the purpose of advertising; and tell the difference between a television program and a commercial.

Michael (1994) finds that customers in the USA are convinced that “advertisements lie” and “should not be trusted.” However, some studies on present data different from the already existing findings.

For example, Belch and Belch (1993) studied attitudes toward advertisements from 860 regular magazine readers aged 18-plus. The findings of the study were: (i) the readers who liked advertisements felt that they keep them up-to-date about products and they were of informational value; (ii) one in six respondents agreed that advertised brands were better than those brands that were not advertised; (iii) the persons liking advertisements had a higher recall-rate; and (iv) the buying interest was significant influenced by the advertising belief.

According to a study conducted in Europe by Shavitt, Lowery and Haefner (1998), 84 per cent of the respondents declare their positive attitudes towards advertising. According to another study, carried out in the USA, Americans like rather than dislike advertising (Heyder, Musiol and Perters: 1992). In addition to the above-mentioned so called one-nation studies, a wealth of multinational and cross-cultural research has been published as a part of specialized literature. This type of research compares attitudes towards advertising in one country with attitudes in another country (Rettie and Mojsa: 2003).

Abideen and Muraleedharan (1998) focus on some aspects of unethical practices in advertising used by different advertising agencies and marketing clients. The study reveals that more than three fourth (76%) of the consumers believe that most of the advertisements appearing in mass media contain one or more unethical or deceptive practices. These practices are seen more in product advertisements than in service advertisements.
Yang (2000) compared respondents from the US vis-à-vis five South Asian countries from the viewpoint of beliefs about advertising and attitudes towards advertising in general (AG). The findings indicated that Taiwanese consumers had the same AG as those in five South Asian countries only.

Petrovici and Marino (2007) explored the relationships between determinants and primary antecedents of advertising and attitudes to advertising in the context of European Union accession countries. Drawing on data from consumer surveys conducted in the major urban areas of Bulgaria and Romania the study conceptualizes an extended version of Pollay and Mittal's model of beliefs and attitudes toward advertising. Findings confirm that consumers in the two countries are more positive about advertising as an institution than the instruments used to promote advertising. While product information acquisition is the main personal use of advertising which influences general attitudes to advertising in Bulgaria, the entertaining value of advertising was found the strongest personal use in Romania. However, no significant differences were found in the attitudes toward the institution and instruments of advertising in the two countries.

Katrandjiev (2007) conducted a survey of attitude towards advertising based on the perceptions of 600 adults aged above 18 in the big cities of Bulgaria focusing on information value, credibility, and economic efficiency, moral and ethical value of advertising on a 5-point Likert’s scale. Major findings of the study were: (i) only 52 per cent of the respondents perceived the information value, which according to the researcher was an average score of 3 and which should have more than 3 in view of the main function of advertising being informing people and 26 per cent rejected this statement; (ii) 48 per cent of the respondents felt that most advertisements underestimated human intelligence and 28 per cent rejected this statement; (iii) 49 per cent rejected that advertisements could be trusted and only 20 per cent accepted; (iv) Regarding the quality of advertised products corresponding to what was said in the advertisement, 53 per cent rejected, 19 per cent accepted and 28 per cent could not say anything; (v) 73 per cent denied that advertising resulted in lowering the prices of advertised products as against on 12 accepting it and 15 per cent having no opinion; (vi) 48 per cent of respondents felt that there were exposed too much sexual content; (vii) 49 per cent liked to watched television advertisements and this was almost similar to the finding from Rettie and Mojsa (2003), who quantified it at 44
per cent in the US; (viii) 96 per cent felt that they were deceived by advertisements; (ix) 68 per cent of the respondents felt that they were offended by advertisements as against rejection of this statement by 32 per cent; (x) 84 per cent perceived that they purchased products under the influence of advertisement as against such purchase from 16 per cent; (xi) 80 per cent avoided the purchase because they did not like the advertisement, but 20 purchased the product advertisement because they liked the advertisement; and (xii) 68 per cent called on the phone number given in the advertisement as against 32 per cent not having called on the number.

The empirical study by Grusell (2007) was based on perceptions of 1700 respondents, who were aged between 15 and 25 in Sweden and the report was submitted to Society, Opinion and Media (SOM) at the Goteborg University. The survey comes to several conclusions: (i) traditional media excepting radio commercials have reasonably high level of positive attitude as against negative attitude from respondents; (ii) the modern media including radio commercials have reasonably high level of negative attitude as against positive attitude from respondents; (iii) the indifferent attitude in respondents is higher in traditional media than in modern media; (iv) the highest positive attitude was evidenced in advertising press at 52 per cent as against the lowest of 2 per cent in SMS; (v) the highest level of negative attitude was evidenced at 81 per cent in SMS when compared to the lowest of 9 per cent in advertising in press. Apart from these findings, he also found that (i) even though gender has indifference, men are slightly more negative than women; (ii) age difference appears to be more significant with elderly people perceiving traditional media with positive attitude as against youth having a positive attitude towards modern media; (iii) the group with the highest education has the most negative opinion on advertising in the media context, especially with reference to modern media; (iv) the groups with the lowest grade of education dislike TV-commercial, cinema advertising and billboards the most; (v) people with self-political ideology have more negative opinion than those having no such leanings; (vi) for those who have negative attitude, the TV-commercial irritated at a higher level than for those who have positive attitude or are indifferent.

(b) Evidences from College Students:

Many studies have explored the attitude towards advertising among student samples (Larkin: 1977; Sandage & Leckenby: 1980; Dubinsky & Hensel: 1984;
Zonot: 1984; Muehling: 1987; Mittal: 1994; Ramaprasad & Thurwanger: 1998; Zhou, Zhang and Vertinsky: 2002). The studies were found to have mixed results. A few studies have been emphasized below as illustrative only.

Andrews (1989) found that students viewed the social aspects negatively and the economic aspects positively. Some studies found that students had generally negative attitudes towards advertising (Haller: 1974; Larkin: 1977). Greyser and Reece (1971) made a survey of 2700 HBR subscribers and suggested that businessmen respected advertising as a selling tool but were increasingly uneasy about other aspects, such as its truthfulness and social impact.

Female students found advertising more offensive and felt it used too many sexual appeals (Dubinsky & Hensel: 1984). Petroshius (1986) found that female students had a more favorable attitude towards the institution of advertising while male students had a more favorable attitude toward the ethics of advertising. Private university students were found to have a more critical view of advertising’s social effects than state university students (Andrews: 1989).

Lyonski and Pollay (1990) found that among business students, Danish, Greek, and New Zealand students were more critical than American students and that female were more critical than males of the sexist portrayal of women in advertising. Zhou, Zhang, and Vertinsky (2002) investigated the relationships among demographic variables and experiences, beliefs, and attitudes. They found that younger consumers have more positive beliefs and attitudes toward advertising and those with higher levels of education tend to have more positive attitudes and beliefs.

To conclude, the public is exposed to approximately 3,000 messages per day (Elliot & Speck: 1998; Richards & Curran: 2002: 63). On average this means that the normal citizen is exposed to 200 advertising messages per hour (Grusell: 2007, 87). For example, a recent survey of politicians in the Swedish parliament shows a growing resistance towards advertising, and it also indicates support for different types of advertising restrictions (Dagens Media 9/8-2006). Few debates and discussions are based on “positive effects,” even though international research shows that the public’s relationship towards advertising can be described as mixed (e.g. Shavitt, Lowrey & Haefner: 1998; Mittal: 1994; Pollay & Mittal: 1993; O'Donohoe: 1985; Zanot: 1981, 1984). Lastly, advertising has been accredited with
sins. Olson (1993) has compiled a list of unintended negative effects of advertising and described these effects in terms of eight criticism categories, drawing on the writings of many social scientists and humanists. In fact, the results are elusive and they seem to be influenced more by cultural factors, which are essentially based on innumerable demographic variables.

**ADVERTISING AND CREDIBILITY**

An effective communication should possess certain characteristics including source and message content credibility (Kotler: 1972). Source credibility normally refers to the perceived trustworthiness and expertise of the communicator although additional components may be present depending on the type of communicator and the goals of the audience (Applebaum and Anatal: 1973; Wilding and Bauer: 1968). Message content credibility involves acceptance of the statements and is related, in part, to the similarity between the communicators' and the audiences' positions (Atwood: 1966; Engel et al: 1973).

The traditional view of source credibility as being composed of two components, trustworthiness and expertise, has had two major revisions. First, research has shown that there are additional dimensions of credibility including power/dynamism, likeability, and objectivity (Applebaum and Anatal: 1973). Second, the importance of and response to these dimensions will depend on the audiences' goals in the ‘situation’ (Wilding and Bauer: 1968). This suggests that source credibility may be situation-specific in that the relevant components of credibility are dependent on the type of source, the situation and the audience goals. Hence McDougall and Fry (1975) concluded that the relevant credibility components for the audience depended on the source, the situation, and the objectives of the audience.

A growing body of research has indicated that credibility is one of the most important components of a persuasive message and can often influence the outcome of persuasive messages (Perloff: 1993; Choi and Rifon: 2002). Advertisements that lack credibility are often ignored or avoided by consumers, which is why advertisers have long maintained that to affect attitude change or formation--leading to purchase behavior--the advertisement must be seen as credible by the consumer. Thus, credibility of advertising messages plays an important role in the formation of attitudes and, ultimately, purchase behavior, as dictated by the hierarchy of effects.
models (Thorson: 1996). However, persuasion knowledge, defined as what consumers know about advertisers and advertisers' tactics, can disrupt this process by making additional advertiser information available to help consumers "cope" with persuasion messages, often negatively, by disrupting the flow of advertising information from one stage to the next (Friestad and Wright: 1994).

Scholars have used varying definitions of the concept of credibility, primarily including believability, fairness, completeness, and trustworthiness of the message. Research on source credibility has also examined expertise, bias, trustworthiness, and accuracy (Gaziano and McGrath: 1986; Rimmer, Flanagan and Metzger 2000) as characteristics of the message sender or "speaker" - most often an actor or spokesperson. Media credibility has been examined separate from source or content, relying instead on perceptions of the believability or trustworthiness of the medium (Kiousis: 2001). Advertiser credibility is defined as the perception of whether an advertiser/advertisement can perform according to stated information as well as the truthfulness or honesty of the advertisement's sponsor (MacKenzie and Lutz: 1989).

The landmark social psychology study by Hovland and Weiss (1951) suggested that message effectiveness depends on the credibility of the source. Likewise, research by Kelman (1961) and McGuire (1969) suggests that the more credible the source, the more effective the appeal and the more likely attitude change will take place. Thus, although most of the literature on credibility deals with source - individual, organization, or media - throughout credibility studies, there is an emphasis on experience with perceived trustworthiness, or attitude toward the message provider (Hovland et al: 1953; McCrosky: 1969; Freidman and Freidman: 1979; Freiden: 1982; Freiden: 1984; McCracken: 1989; Kamins: 1990; Ohanian: 1990; Kamins and Gupta: 1994; Lynch: 1994; Lafferty and Goldsmith: 1999; Goldsmith et al: 2000; and Newell and Goldsmith: 2001).

In other attitudinal studies on credibility, print advertisements have consistently been more interesting, useful, and believable as well as less excessive, offensive, and annoying (Haller: 1974; Somasundaran and Light 1991; Magazine Publishers of America 1991) than their broadcast counterparts. Notably, Lafferty and Goldsmith (1999) argue that regardless of media type, advertising credibility is a key influence for attitude formation and resulting behaviors. However, when media
are treated as the source of information, previous research regarding credibility has not produced consistent findings. For example, Johnson and Kaye (1998) found that Internet sources were more credible than traditional media, whereas Mashek (2000) reported that traditional media sources were more credible than non-traditional media. Likewise, Newhagen and Nass (1989) found that television was perceived as more credible than newspapers, whereas Flanagin and Metzger (2000) stated that while print newspaper information was the most credible, Internet information was as credible as the other media compared.

Research comparing attitudes about advertising across media suggests that different media elicit different attitudes and perceptions. One of the most common attitudes when talking about advertising is that of skepticism (Friestand and Wright: 1995). The concept of skepticism has been developed in consumer research as an individual predisposition to doubt persuasive messages (Obermiller and Spangenberg: 1998). Skepticism often forms when individuals create cognitive "categories" of incoming information and treat all information according to a set of stereotypes or beliefs regarding what they feel a particular message is trying to accomplish (Friestad and Wright: 1999). This set of beliefs can be general (i.e. all advertising) or context specific (i.e., Internet advertising). Furthering this line of research, Gunther (1992) posited that individuals develop different attitudes toward media based on messages, including skepticism toward media information.

In the most comprehensive study of credibility of advertising in different media based on the perceptions of 330 college students of Mid-Western Universities in the United States by Rodgers (2005), it was found that (i) advertising credibility was highest for traditional media and lowest for the Internet; (ii) advertising skepticism was highest for new media and lowest for print media; and (iii) knowledge about advertising influenced skepticism toward advertising in radio and newspaper, while suspicion of advertising affected credibility of advertising in each media.

MISLEADING ADS

Consumerism is “the set of activities of government, business, independent organizations, and concerned consumers that are designed to protect the rights of consumers (Louis Harris and Associates, Quoted by Mowen: 1993).” Consumerism entails consumer rights. In 1962 President John F. Kennedy proposed the Consumer
Bill of Rights to guarantee consumers several basic rights fundamental to the effective functioning of our economic system (Executive of Office of the President, US: 1963). These are the rights: Right to safety (Protection from offerings that might be hazardous to health and safety); Right to be informed (Protection from fraudulent or misleading advertising and other forms of communications and access to the information needed to make an informed decision); Right to choose (Access to a variety of offerings at competitive prices wherever possible); Right to be heard: (Full and sympathetic consideration of consumer interests in the formation of government policy); Right to consumer education (Access to knowledge about the offerings acquired and consumed; Right to recourse and redress (Right to a fair settlement of problems encountered; and Right to an environment that enhances the quality of life (Right to live in an environment that is not threatened by pollution and hazardous waste). In tune with this, almost all countries in the world have consumer protection laws. Yet these laws seem to have been thrown into air by the economic institutions. Advertising is the main culprit in this process. None of these avowed objectives of consumerism seem to have been realized. “The producer in his advertising is not interested directly in providing information for consumers. He is interested in selling more of his product. Subject to a few constraints, the advertising message says anything the seller of a brand wishes (Nelson: 1974, 729).” Further, he observes that “…the consumer’s power over advertising is much less potent than his power over search qualities (p.730).” Elsewhere, Nelson (1974, 749) posits that deception requires submission for deception in these words: “Deception requires not only a misleading or untrue statement, but somebody ready to be misled by that statement.” According to him, the main sources for an increasing amount of deceptive advertising are consumer confusion over believability and a non-optimal level of law enforcement, the latter being supported by Stigler (1970). In this background, the issue of misleading ads has been presented under (i) Nomenclature Debate; and (ii) Empirical Evidences.

(i) Nomenclature Debate:

Gao (2007) observes: Implementing the absolute truth in advertising is impossible, advertising is usually used as a device to cheat masses for their money and considered as deceiving, many advertising tactics such as comparative advertising, figures, testimonials, and "puffery" are also considered illegal because
they could potentially deceive consumer. Hence any advertisement short of truth has been labeled with a host of terms: fraudulent, false, misleading, unfair, deceptive as prefixes to advertising. Russo et al (1981, 119-120, footnote) observe: “Fraud focuses on the advertiser and assumes a deliberate intent to create false beliefs about the product” and they also believe that it is neither a valid nor a practical approach. Further, fraud requires legal proving and hence it is not used. Falsity in advertising refers to the existence of claim-fact discrepancy (Russo et al: 1981, 120) and its standardization is highly subjective (Harris: 1977; Harris and Monaco: 1978). Therefore, the term is not used now. ‘Unfair’ and ‘deceptive’ have the legal origin. According to Russo et al (1981: 120), misleadingness focuses exclusively on consumer beliefs. “A demonstration of misleadingness requires the observation of false consumer beliefs in conjunction with exposure to the ad. Whereas falsity refers to a claim-fact discrepancy, misleadingness refers to a belief-fact discrepancy (Russo et al: 1981, 120). However, more disappointing is the failure of researchers to agree on a broadly applicable definition of misleadingness or a procedure for identifying it (Gardner: 1975; Jacoby and Small: 1975; Preston: 1976).

Russo et al (1981) define ‘misleading ads’ as follows: “An advertisement is misleading if it creates, increases, or exploits a false belief about expected product performance…[M]isleadingness focuses exclusively on consumer beliefs. A demonstration of misleadingness requires the observation of false consumer beliefs in conjunction with exposure to the ad. Whereas falsity refers to claim-fact discrepancy, misleadingness refers to a belief-fact discrepancy.” Lastly, Bohrer (2005: 6) observes: misleading statements are those which are literally true and grammatically correct, but which nevertheless have the tendency to mislead, confuse and deceive the consumer.” To quote O’Barr (2007), “Claiming that a product can do something that it cannot is a clear-cut case of deception.” The debate results in no unanimity about what term is to be used to denote anything short of truth. However, a definite antonym for truth is ‘false’ and hence the same is used in the present study but a leeway is adopted in using different terms denoting falsity while reviewing the empirical research.

(ii) Empirical Evidences:

According to research by Davis (1994), when advertising is deceptive, even in the least threatening situations, the consumers are still being fooled into doing or
purchasing something other than what they originally wanted. There has been a vast literature on this issue mainly covered under what is known as deceptive advertising, which has also been labeled as and discussed under ‘misleading advertisement,’ ‘exaggerated advertising,’ ‘misinforming advertisement,’ and sometimes as ‘advertising ethics.’

substantiation for ad claims (Corey and Patti: 1979). Further, Eighmey (1978) posits that not all claim-fact discrepancies can be corrected by natural market mechanisms.

**OFFENSIVE ADVERTISING**

Ambiguities also persist in studying offensive advertising, leaving apart the citation of empirical studies. Hence the review of literature is traversed under (i) The Concept; (ii) Nomenclature Debate; and (iii) Empirical Evidences.

(i) The Concept:

As Boddewyn (1991) argues, offensive advertisements involve products, services, concepts, claims and/or imageries that elicit reaction of distaste, disgust or outrage and quite often, ads accused of offense are legal and truthful. Hence Offensiveness falls in the “soft issues” of advertising. It has nothing to do with “hard matters” such as improper substantiation or deception.

Offensive advertising is context sensitive. Pollay (1996) suggests that the word, “offensive,” is highly associated with the subtleties of relational and situational context. Whether a word or an image is perceived to be offensive depends on the relationship between the parties involved and the occasion/situation where it is exposed. Offensive advertising is also culture specific (Boddewyn: 1991). It is perceived and judged by different criteria across cultures. For example, Chinese consumers are most offended by advertisements with indecent language, anti-social behavior, racist images, and nudity (Waller and Fam: 2001).

A more consumer-oriented perspective for understanding offensive advertising was proposed by Dahl et al (2003). They propose that offensive advertising is an act and/or a process that violates the norm. Offensive advertising includes messages that transgress laws and customs (e.g. anti-human rights), breach a moral or social code (e.g., profanity, vulgarity) or outrage the moral or physical senses (e.g., gratuitous use of violence, use of disgusting images). This definition is more comprehensive and instrumental as it extends the concept of offensive advertising from the marketing of unmentionables (the product or services) to a broader spectrum about advertising contents and forms.

Offensive advertising is compiled of several dimensions (Barnes and Dotson: 1990; Phau and Prendergast: 2001; Waller: 1999). Phau and Prendergast (2001) investigated “the matter” (products or services being advertised), “the manner”
advertising executions) and “the media” (advertising media/vehicles) of offensive advertising. Consumers find an advertisement offensive because the product is not suitable for public display or open discussion, the advertising execution is considered to be vulgar, obscene or irritating or the type of advertisement is not appropriate for a particular medium. For example, Hong Kong and Singapore consumers are more concerned about “the manner” than the other two dimensions for arousing offense among consumers (Prendergast et al: 2002). It is “the manner” that would commonly be perceived controllable by the advertisers and thus inexcusable if it is the cause of offensiveness in the eyes of consumers.

Sexism and racial discrimination are two offensive appeals of major concern in Western literature (Boddewyn: 1991; Ma: 1996). The former is about discrimination against people based on their sex and prejudice towards women in particular. Sexism appeals include female stereotypes (Ford and LaTour: 1993) and sexual appeals (LaTour: 1990). This execution in advertisements is seen when women are portrayed as sexual toys or victims of violence, reinforcing cultural values of subservience, domination and inequality between sexes (White: 1990). Racial discrimination is about disrespecting people based on their race, often in the form of depreciating the customs, religions and cultures of the minority. In the Asian context, empirical studies found that sexist themes, fear, nudity and cultural insensitivity were the most frequently cited reasons for finding advertisements offensive (Phau and Prendergast: 2001; Prendergast et al: 2002).

Offensive advertising is intermittently but frequently and rigorously analyzed in the context of culture. Culture is the “collective mental programming” that distinguishes societies from one another (Hofstede: 1983, 76). Several studies attempt to explain the differences in consumers’ responses to offensive advertising using culture as explaining factors. The underlying belief is that cultural values will influence the consumers’ response to advertising executions in general and offensive executions in specific. The cultural theories tested include Hall’s (1976) cultural theory of information context as well as Hofstede’s (1984) theory of cultural dimensions.

Hall (1976) describes societies as high-context societies and low-context societies according to the importance of the communication message elements to provide meanings. In high-context cultures, there is very little information in the
coded message because most of the information is shared by members of a society. In low-context cultures, mass information is embedded explicitly in the communication messages. Hall and Hall (1990) describe Americans, Germans, and northern European countries as low-context cultures while Korea, Japan, Taiwan, China and southern European countries are high-context cultures. Hofstede’s (1980, 1983) typology of cultural dimensions is adopted by scholars to explain cross-cultural differences in advertising (e.g. Albers-Miller and Gelb: 1996; Taylor et al: 1997; de Mooij: 1998). Hofstede’s original work described four cultural dimensions: individualism/collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity/femininity and later included long-term/short-term orientation (Hofstede: 1991). An and Kim (2006) reviewed the two cultural theories and propose that Hall’s (1976) information context and Hofstede’s (1984) individualism/collectivism cultural dimension would be most relevant for the study of offensive advertising in a cross-cultural setting. In this cultural context, a few relevant studies have been presented below:

Shao and Hill (1994) argue that high-context societies rely more on social norms in restricting marketing communications than explicit laws and regulations. The analysis of regulations of advertisements of socially-sensitive products supported the hypothesis that sexually-oriented products were more strictly controlled by regulations in high-context countries than in low-context countries.

(ii) Nomenclature Debate:


Early definitions of the subject focus on studies of “unmentionables” (e.g., female hygiene products, condoms, birth control, etc.). For example, Wilson and West (1981) discuss the marketing of unmentionables by referring to products, services or concepts that are distasteful, disgusting, offensive or outrageous when
shown in public by the media. Wilson and West (1981) and Jensen and Collins, (2008) asserted "unmentionables" as those goods, ideas and services that for motive of delicacy, politeness, ethics and having opposite reaction of bad taste, hatred and anger when it is advertised or openly presented. They mention the examples of goods as "personal hygiene, birth control, warfare, and drugs for terminal illness", ideas as "political ideas, palliative care, unconventional sexual practice, racial/religious prejudice and terrorism", services as "abortion, sterilization, VD, mental illness, funeral directors, and artificial insemination". However, Rehman and Brook (1987) discuss the controversial products focusing on feminine hygiene, they considered "undergarments, alcohol, pregnancy tests, contraceptives, medications, and VD services" in the controversial product category of advertising.

Wilson and West (1981: 92) discuss “unmentionables,” which they describe as: “...products, services, or concepts that for reasons of delicacy, decency, morality, or even fear tend to elicit reactions of distaste, disgust, offence, or outrage when mentioned or when openly presented.” The examples they present of unmentionables are: “products” (for personal hygiene, birth control, warfare, and drugs for terminal illness), “services” (for abortion, sterilization, VD, mental illness, funeral directors, and artificial insemination), and “concepts” (for political ideas, palliative care, unconventional sexual practices, racial/religious prejudice and terrorism). Feminine hygiene products were the main focus of Rehman and Brooks (1987), but included undergarments, alcohol, pregnancy tests, contraceptives, medications, and VD services, as examples of controversial products. When asked about the acceptability of various products being advertised on television, only two products were seen as unacceptable by a sample of college students, contraceptives for men and contraceptives for women. More often, all these issues are generally discussed and researched under “offensive advertising.”

(iii) Empirical Evidences:

The empirical evidences on offensive advertising on mainly fall into (a) Culture Influencing Offensiveness; and (b) Impact on Advertiser. A brief review of literature has been presented below.
(a) Culture Influencing Offensiveness:

Literature is abundant on how culture influences the ad content. But only in recent years, a few studies have focused on how culture determines the offensive nature of advertising. These studies have been present below.

Fam and Waller (2003) studied the offensive nature of controversial products advertized in the Asia Pacific. A questionnaire was distributed to 1014 students across four different countries in the Asia Pacific region to determine what type of products are seen as offensive and the reasons they are offensive.

The study by Elena and Elliott (2004) examines the case of a controversial beer advertisement which was promulgated in Bulgaria in 2001, and which provoked eight lawsuits against the brewery, its advertising agency, and the Bulgarian National Television. The case set a precedent in Bulgaria and generated considerable public interest and debate. The study concluded that the beer advertisement was completely controversial and in bad taste.

Fam, Waller and Erdogan (2004) studied the influence of religion on attitude towards the advertising of controversial products by sampling 1393 people across six different countries resulting in the sample of four main religious groups. The results indicated some statistically significant differences between the groups, which can have important implications for global marketers.

Waller, Fam and Erdogan (2005) determine attitudes towards the advertising of certain controversial products/services and reasons for being offensive across four different countries, Malaysia, New Zealand, Turkey and the UK. A total of 954 were sampled for this study. The results indicated that geography is not a major determinant of attitudes, and that religious and historical factors play a very important role. Of the 17 products presented, 11 resulted in similar answers for New Zealand and the UK, and seven were similar for Malaysia and Turkey. However, it was apparent that the two countries mostly populated by Muslims had some differences as Malaysia had a multicultural society that must make some allowances for other ethnic groups. It also appears that racism and racist images are of concern to all those sampled.

An and Kim (2006) found that sexually-oriented and addictive products were more offensive among Korean consumers than among U.S. consumers. The authors
attributed it to the argument that high-context societies tend to be more strait-laced about sexually intimate matters. Low-context societies tend to be more liberal towards sex and pornography (Shao and Hill: 1994). Korean consumers were found less accepting of addictive products. It is probably because these products are perceived as social ills with negative impacts on society. So, consumers from collective societies will find them less acceptable (An and Kim: 2006).

Chan, Li, Diehl and Terlutter (2007) examined how Chinese and German consumers react to print advertisements that are potentially offensive. Findings on perceptions of the offensive advertisements among Chinese and German respondents were mixed. Overall, as expected, Chinese respondents were less accepting of offensive advertising, as they liked the advertisements less than German respondents. However, they were also more likely than German respondents to find the advertisements convincing and informative. Results showed that Chinese respondents and German respondents had different dimensions of advertising perceptions. The two print advertisements that received the most negative perceptions both contained sexually oriented body images. The study also found that advertising perceptions had a significant impact on consumers’ intentions to reject the products and the brands.

Chan, Diehl and Ralf (2007) examine how Chinese and German consumers react to print advertisements that are potentially offensive by surveying 563 respondents aged 17 to 58 from urban China (Shanghai) and Germany was conducted in October 2005 and June 2006. Findings on perceptions of the offensive advertisements among Chinese and German respondents were mixed. Overall, as expected, Chinese respondents were less accepting of offensive advertising, as they liked the advertisements less than German respondents. However, they were also more likely than German respondents to find the advertisements convincing and informative. Results showed that Chinese respondents and German respondents had different dimensions of advertising perceptions. The two print advertisements that received the most negative perceptions both contained sexually-oriented body images. The study also found that advertising perceptions had a significant impact on consumers’ intentions to reject the products and the brands.

Christy and Haley (2008) investigate the role of context in advertising offensiveness. Specifically, the combined impact of product type, executioner style,
media channel and audience make-up was measured. Results revealed variability within and across these elements suggesting that offensiveness is subject to contextual influences. Specifically, products influence perceptions primarily in traditional media, and in the use of nudity, religious references and violence. Interestingly, product identification was shown to temper perceptions of offense. Findings also revealed that 'other' media generate the highest overall offense levels and that religious and political values influence perceptions of offense. Contrary to popular belief, nudity and sex were not perceived as offensive, *per se*. rather, offensiveness depended largely upon the level of congruency between advertising scenario elements.

Huhmann and Mott-Stenerson (2008) conducted an experiment to determine the effect that a controversial advertisement execution has on elaborative processing and brand message comprehension when potential contaminating influences are held constant in the controversial and non-controversial execution conditions. Results demonstrate that controversial advertisement executions increase elaboration (i.e. the number of cognitive responses and ratings of elaborative processing) regardless of the level of product involvement. A cross-over interaction reveals that higher product involvement subjects better comprehend a controversial advertisement execution, but lower product involvement subjects better comprehend a non-controversial advertisement execution.

**Impact on Advertiser:**

Only limited evidences are found how offensive advertising impacts the advertiser. It is evidenced that offensive advertisements can be harmful for both the products and the brands. Burke and Edell (1989) found that consumers’ feelings generated by an advertisement would transfer to their evaluation of the brand. Such negative perceptions would also lead to low-purchase intention. Consumers were less likely to buy products from a company using offensive advertisements if a similar alternative was available from a non-offending company (An and Kim: 2006). Consumers in Hong Kong were likely to boycott a company using offensive advertising (Prendergast et al: 2002).
EMOTIONAL ROLE IN ADVERTISING

Driven by the work of Zajonic (1980), emotions have gained renewed attention and are being accepted as an important mediator of cognitive and behavioral consumer responses to advertising (Edell and Burke: 1987; Holbrook and Batra: 1987; Rossiter and Percy: 1991). In fact, researchers in various disciplines including marketing and advertising have emphasized the great importance of emotions for human behavior and decision making (Ambler and Burne: 1999; Du Plessis: 2005; Hall: 2002). An abundance of research shows that people are not fully aware of a lot of things they do and like in daily life but rather process information automatically and behave spontaneously on many occasions (Chartrand: 2005; Zaltmann: 2003). However, social desirability concerns can distort this spontaneous behavior, especially for sensitive topics (e.g. erotica, racial issues, gender issues, age issues etc.) (King and Bruner: 2000; Brunel, Tietje and Greenwald: 2004).

The research on emotional content of advertising is abundant. Emotional reactions have a direct effect on attitude towards the ad (Aad) and it has been true for both verbal (Batra and Ray: 1986; Holbrook and Batra: 1987; Edell and Burke: 1987) and visual measures (Morris et al: 2002). Pleasure reactions had more impact on Aad than arousal reactions (Onley, Holbrook and Batra: 1991; Pieters and de Klerk-Warmerdam: 1996). It has also been evidenced that emotions play a greater role in attitude towards brand (Batra and Ray: 1986; Edell and Burke: 198; Morris et al: 2002); purchase intention (Batra and Ray: 1986; Aaker, Stayman and Hagerty: 1986; Morris et al: 2002); recall (Aaker, Stayman and Hagerty: 1986; Bolls, Lang and Potter: 2001); brand familiarity (Mano: 1996; Pieters, Rosbergen and Wedel: 1999); higher intensity of brand familiarity for unfamiliar brands (Debaix: 1995; Machleit and Wilson: 1988; Machleit, Allen and Madden: 1993). On the whole, these research evidences highlight the consumers fall prey to the emotional content of advertising, especially that of television advertising.

ADVERTISING AND FEAR APPEALS

According to Sheer and Chen (2008:936), “Fear appeals are advertising messages that attempt to create anxiety in the targeted audiences to adopt a recommended response to the threat, and are widely used in health-related communication contexts such as health promotional campaigns and social marketing advertising.” They also state: “Frequent usage of fear arousal is accepted on faith as
a direct effect of the threat contained in the message.” An abundance of empirical evidence has suggested that fear appeal can work for a variety of persuasion endeavors such as anti-smoking messages (e.g. Henley & Donovan: 2003; Smith & Stutts: 2003; Wright, French, Weinman & Marteau: 2006), AIDS prevention (e.g. Hill: 1988; Smith, Ferrara & Witte: 2007; Noar: 2007), consumer product advertising (e.g. LaTour, Snipes, & Bliss: 1996), and self-examination for disease screening (e.g. Morman: 2000).

More literature on fear appeal is devoted to effect-based fear arousal than fear itself. Fear appeal seems to be about “how much fear” rather than “what fear” (e.g. Cochrane & Quester: 2005; Gore & Bracken: 2005; Hastings, Stead & Webb: 2004; Hoeken & Geurts: 2005; Horowitz & Gumenik: 1970). Fear arousal was studied in terms of magnitude (e.g. Tay & Watson: 2002); vividness (e.g. Sherer & Rogers: 1984); and presence or absence of imagery (e.g. Shahab, Hall & Marteau: 2007; and Hale and Dillard: 1995).

Earlier fear message studies (e.g. Hass, Bagley & Rogers: 1975; Sherer & Rogers: 1984) were mostly guided by Rogers’s (1975, 1983) protection motivation theory. Recently, many fear message studies (e.g. Kline & Mattson: 2000; LaTour & Rotfeld: 1997; Smith, Ferrara, & Witte: 2007) have been guided by Leventhal’s (1970) parallel process model and Witte’s (1992) extended parallel process model and improved from Rogers’s and Leventhal’s theories. Theories such as the Elaboration Likelihood Model, the Health Belief model, and the Reasoned Action were used in fear research as moderating or mediating forces for fear effects and are not about fear message construction.

Several studies have been made on the content of fear appeal or its related messages. Hanneman and McEwen (1973) coded 85 presentations of 32 different anti-drug abuse messages in terms of such variables as location, sponsor appearance, people depicted, intended audience, and portrayal of social and physical effects. Dillard, Plotnick, Godbold, Freimuth and Edgar’s (1996) content analysis of fear appeals in the AIDS PSAs investigated affective outcomes from the absence or presence of elements that aroused other emotions such as empathy and sympathy. Kline and Mattson (2000) content-analyzed the breast self-examination pamphlets in terms of the absence or presence of elements such as severity, susceptibility, response efficacy and self efficacy and the results were positive.
Fear appeals have been researched from the viewpoint of theories of fear. Established fear theories, such as drive model (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley: 1953), parallel response model (Leventhal: 1970), protection motivation theory (Rogers, 1975: 1983), and extended parallel process model (Witte: 1992) all deal with individuals’ motivation for action. For example, Sheer (1995) found that male college students were likely to use condoms when they heard the partner’s teaching. Meanwhile, all these studies indicate that most advertisements exploit fear appeals to the maximum.

**TRUST IN ADVERTISING**

As in marketing, trust is also important for effective advertising (MacKenzie and Lutz: 1989). Advertising serves many communication functions (Sheth: 1974); however, a primary function that society has assigned to advertising is the role of informing consumers about products, services, and ideas, to help them weigh one choice against another (Sandage: 1973). Carey (1960:14) defines advertising as market information and suggests advertising’s basic institutional function is to facilitate judgment and free choice on the part of the consumer by providing relevant information. Nelson (1974: 54) agrees with advertising’s value as an information source by postulating that advertising reduces monopoly power and consumer ignorance by increasing the amount of information available for consumer search. However, Gail-Gardern (2010) observes: “Many companies have been misleading consumers for so long that has tainted their trust of every company. The advertisements currently appearing on regular (free - not cable) television are not only full of lies - they depict consumers as bugs, as being hit, as chasing things as though they were dogs chasing a car - they clearly indicate that the companies running them see consumers as "useless eaters" of little more importance than insects…”

According to *Random House Webster’s Unabridged Dictionary* (1998), trust is defined as assured reliance, confident dependence, and confident anticipation. In the research literature, trust has been defined as “a willingness to behave based on expectation about the behavior of others” (Luhman: 1988); as “an expectancy that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another can be relied upon” (Rotter, 1967); or as “a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence” (Moorman, Deshpande, and Zaltman: 1993). Trust means confidence on
exchange partner’s reliability and integrity (Morgan and Hunt: 1994). Trust shows consumer commitment and satisfaction with particular brand. An organization uses trust in brand as a risk-reduction mechanism (Doney and Cannon; 1997). Trust can also be considered as goodwill and willingness that enables the consumer to take risk. Goodwill is developed on the bases of past experiences. Trust is an expectation, which may cause a positive outcome, despite the possibility that it may cause a negative outcome (Worchel: 1979). So expectation of groups or teams in an event is called trust (Deutsch 1958). Trust is not a mere predictability but confidence in the face of risk (Lewis and Weigert: 1985). Trust is a psychosomatic state comprising the intention to recognize susceptibility based upon constructive prospect of the intentions or behavior of another person (Rousseau et el: 1998). For making a strong relationship between buyer and seller, creation of trust is a very important factor in business environment. Trust is a feeling about satisfaction because of its ability to moderate risk in the buying process (Dawyer, Schurr and Oh: 1987).

The literature on trust often suggests that trust has several components not typically included in credibility: confidence in the trusted party’s integrity, competence, benevolence and reliability; mutual emotional investment; and willingness to rely on the trusted party (e.g., Doney and Cannon: 1997; Johnson-George and Swap: 1982; Larzelere and Huston: 1980; McAllister: 1995).

Trust has rarely been investigated in the context of advertising. Although a few published studies have measured trust, (e.g. trust in product information sources, Boush, Kim, Kahle and Batra: 1993), or trust in online pharmaceutical information (Menon, Deshpande, Perri, and Zinkhan: 2002), it is hard to find thoughtful discussions of conceptualizations and measurements of the construct in advertising research. Trust has occasionally been treated as the same as “accuracy” (Menon, Deshpande, Perri, and Zinkhan: 2002), and measured with a nondiagnostic single measure (e.g., trust absolutely-don’t trust at all, Boush et al: 1993).

Instead of trust, credibility, a related concept, has been the focus of much attention in advertising research (Soh: 2006, 35). With recognition of the influence of credibility on effective advertising, many researchers have attempted to conceptualize and measure the construct in a variety of contexts: (i) Source Credibility; (ii) Advertising Credibility; and (iii) Ad Content Credibility. The
evidences on these dimensions have been presented below along with conceptual analysis and it is followed by (iv) Empirical Evidences.

(i) Source Credibility:

Credibility of the source of product information has been an important concern among advertisers and advertising researchers. Source credibility in advertising research has been studied in two categories: endorser credibility and advertiser credibility. Research on endorser credibility heavily depends on the source credibility model originally developed by Hovland and his colleagues. Hovland, Janis and Kelly (1953) identify expertise and trustworthiness as two dimensions of source credibility. Expertise is defined as the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions (Hovland et al:1953) and the ability to provide accurate information coming from the knowledge, experience, training or skills a source possesses (Erdogan: 1999). Trustworthiness refers to the consumer’s confidence or belief in the communicator for carrying messages in an unbiased and honest manner (Hovland et al: 1953; Ohanian: 1990). Ohanian (1990) adds to source credibility the source attractiveness dimension, which is defined as affection for the source as a result of the source’s physical appearance and behavior (Erdogan: 1999; Ohanian: 1990). Endorser credibility is often measured by the semantic differential items, for instance: “experienced-inexperienced,” “knowledgeable-unknownledgeable”, and “qualified-unqualified” for expertise; “honest-dishonest”, “dependable-undependable”, and “trustworthy-untrustworthy” for trustworthiness; and “attractive-unattractive”, “beautiful-ugly”, and “plain-elegant” for attractiveness (Lafferty and Goldsmith: 1999; Ohanian: 1990).

Other research has examined advertiser credibility, where the advertiser who manufactures the advertised product is seen as a source of the communication (e.g. Hammond: 1987; Lafferty and Goldsmith: 1999; MacKenzie and Lutz: 1989; Newell and Goldsmith: 2001). Similar to endorser credibility, advertiser credibility is considered composed of expertise and trustworthiness. Expertise is understood as the extent to which consumers feel that the firm has the knowledge or ability to fulfill its claims and trustworthiness as whether the firm can be trusted to tell the truth or not (Newell and Goldsmith: 2001). Vanden Bergh, Soley and Reid (1981)
include attractiveness and likeability in the elements of a credible advertiser, along with advertising credibility.

(ii) Advertising Credibility:

MacKenzie and Lutz (1989: 51) define advertising credibility as “consumer’s perceptions of the truthfulness and believability of advertising in general, not simply the particular ad in question.” They measured this construct with three items: convincing-unconvincing, believable-unbelievable, and biased-unbiased. Their conceptualization and measurement of advertising credibility suggest that the construct refers to consumer’s generalized beliefs in the integrity of advertising claims. Rare have been attempts to measure advertising credibility with diagnostic, multi-item scales or to treat this construct as separate and distinct. In most cases, advertising credibility has been measured with a non-diagnostic single item (e.g. Calfee and Ringold: 1994) or with subscales of a measurement for attitude-toward-advertising-in-general (e.g. Alwitt and Prabhaker: 1994; Bauer and Greyser: 1968; Ducoffe: 1996; Muehling: 1987; Pollay and Mittal: 1993; Reid and Soley: 1982; Sandage and Leckenby: 1980; Shavitt, Lowrey and Haefner: 1998; Wolin, Korgaonkar and Lund: 2002; Yang: 2003). The frequent items measuring advertising credibility include: most advertising is believable, ads usually present a true picture, and ads are reliable sources of information.

More recently, Obermiller and Spangenberg (1998) approached the construct of advertising credibility from an opposite direction, which they called “advertising skepticism.” They define skepticism toward advertising in general as “the tendency toward disbelief of advertising claims (p. 60).”

(iii) Ad Content Credibility:

Ad content credibility has been considered a key attribute of effective advertising because consumers will not act in the desired manner unless they accept or believe ad claims. MacKenzie and Lutz (1989: 51) define ad content credibility as “the extent to which the consumer perceives claims made about the brand in the ad to be truthful and believable.” Beltramini and Evans (1985) developed a scale to measure believability of advertised product performance claims. Ten adjective bipolar pairs without any assumption of dimensionality comprised their believability scale: believable, trustworthy, convincing, credible, reasonable, honest, unquestionable, conclusive, authentic, likely. O’Cass (2002) utilized this scale to
measure political advertising believability in Australian context. However, believability of ad claims has still been often measured by single item such as believable vs. unbelievable (e.g. Haan and Berkey: 2002).

(iv) Empirical Evidences:

In this background, a few empirical studies having direct relevance to the study have been presented below.

Andaleep and Anwar (1996) examined trust in the context of developing countries. Survey results indicate that salesperson attributes such as expertise, intent, and likability influenced customer trust in salespeople. Confidence in the organization represented by the salesperson also had a significant effect on customer trust. Customers' product knowledge did not influence their trust. However, customers' generalized disposition to trust others did influence.

Soh, Reid and King (2007) examine consumer trust in different advertising media and the relationship of that trust to media credibility. Results indicate that (1) advertising media are neither especially trusted nor distrusted by consumers; (2) there is variation in consumer trust across different advertising media; (3) trust in specific ad media is differentially associated with education and income; and (4) trust in advertising media and media credibility are correlates, though trust in advertising is distinct and separate from the credibility construct.

The Nielsen (2007) survey found that overall, consumers trust other consumers above all else and 78 per cent of respondents say they trust either completely or somewhat the recommendation of other consumers. Further, the survey finds that Filipinos are the world’s most trusting, Danes the most skeptical, Latin Americans and Asians more likely to believe advertising than Europeans.

Nielsen Company (2009) recently surveyed over 25,000 consumers online across more than 50 markets from Europe, Asia Pacific, the Americas and the Middle East on their attitudes toward trust, value and engagement of advertising. The major findings of the study are: (i) Across over 50 countries measured, a majority of online consumers surveyed trust is the most important in advertising and agree that it delivers value by promoting competition and supporting a wide range of media. (ii) Peer recommendation is the most trusted channel, trusted “completely” or “somewhat” by 9 out of 10 respondents worldwide; (iii) Of the major paid
advertising channels (online, outdoor, print, radio, TV and theatre), television and newspaper are the most trusted media; (iv) Latin American consumers tend to be the most trusting of advertising, and European consumers the least trusting; (v) Latin American consumers are the most receptive to online video ads in terms of all three dimensions: humor, emotion and information; (vi) In North America, online consumers under the age of 20 exhibit higher than average degrees of trust in all forms of advertising; (vii) Female consumers in North America are more engaged than males in TV ads in the dimensions of humor, emotion and information, especially when it comes to finding a TV ad emotionally touching; (viii) In North America, the oldest consumer group measured (65 and over) is the least engaged with TV advertising by these same dimensions, while the youngest group (under 20) registers the highest level of engagement with online video ads; (ix) while trust and value perceptions can vary greatly by market and media, global consumer trust in advertising is on the rise and most consumers acknowledge the value advertising offers; (x) Across all channels, an average 56% of respondents indicate that they trust advertising “completely” or “somewhat;” (xi) Peer recommendations top the list, trusted by 9 out of 10 consumers; while text message based ads perform the lowest, trusted by just 24%; (xii) Across the 16 measured channels, non-media channels are more trusted than paid media channels; (xiii) Trust in TV advertising is much higher than average in Latin America, where 74% of consumers trust it, and lower in Europe, where just half (49%) trust it; (xiv) The higher-than-average trust that Latin American consumers exhibit for TV and newspaper advertising is consistent across almost all measured channels.

Afzal et al (2010) find that consumer’s trust in brand increases between ranges 30 percent and 60 percent due to brand characteristic, brand reputation, brand predictability and brand competency. They also find that brand reputation, predictability and its competency have positive impact on trust which is developed when consumer use that brand and gathers data about brand reputation, its predictability and competencies.

Hulme (2010) find that 95 per cent of respondents indicate that they do not trust advertising. Less than a tenth (8%) trust what companies say about themselves and more than half (58%) agreed with the statement "companies are only interested in selling products and services to me, not necessarily the product or service that is
right for me". Perhaps most importantly, and only 17% of respondents believe companies take what they say seriously.

While comparing the attitude of viewers from the USA and Turkey, Moynihan, Kabadayi and Kaiser (2010) find that attitude-intention relationship in viewers is moderated by their trust in the brand names mainly.

**AD AND STEREOTYPING**

A subset of offensive advertising is stereotyping. Societies around the world in general and advertising in particular have been plagued by the malady of stereotyping. Stereotyping in advertising refers to how people shown in advertisements are represented ‘generally’ by the advertisers. The dictionary meaning of it refers to “a conventional or hackneyed expression, custom or mode of thought (Typhoon International: 2003, 1230). The representation of people in the mass media has often been negative (Taylor & Stern: 1997). The media often have reinforced images of negative (Taylor & Bang: 1997) or unrealistic (McArthur & Resko: 1975) stereotypes. Lippmann (1957) defined stereotypes as “preconceptions” that are “not a complete picture of the world, but they are a picture of a possible world to which we are adapted” (pp. 90, 95). One social issue in advertising has been the distorted reflections of people in societies (Pollay: 1986). Williamson (1978: 12) argued that “advertisements must take into account not only the inherent qualities and attributes of the products they are trying to sell, but also the way in which they can make those properties mean something to us.” It is important to note that stereotyping women is most common and there is a tendency in the use of sex appeal in advertising, thereby distorting the social real reality of women. The literature on stereotyping has been presented under (i) Reasons for Stereotyping; and (ii) Empirical Evidences.

**(i) Reasons for Stereotyping:**

Stereotyping in advertising has mainly moved on the lines of gender portrayals. It seems to be based on the natural law of men being stronger than women. McArthur and Resk (1975) found overall that men appeared more often than women in TV advertisements and men and women differed in terms of the following: (i) Credibility: men being authorities and women users; (ii) Role: women being portrayed in terms of their relationships to others and while men’s role being perceived as independent of others; (iii) Location: men being shown in occupational
settings and women in the home; (iv) Persuasive arguments: men characterized by more “scientific” arguments than women; (v) Rewards: women being shown obtaining approval of family and males; and (vi) Product type: men being authorities on products used primarily by women.

Gender representations in advertising can easily reflect “fundamental features of the social structure,” such as values, beliefs, or norms (Goffman: 1979, 8). However, advertisements “signify” or “represent” the desire of objects or “the self” by reproducing images (i.e., desired images) of others who are different from “the self” in most cases (Williamson: 1978).

When do advertisers use stereotypes in advertising? As posited by Kim and Lowry (2005), the possible answer is that they go by popular belief system in any society. However, although any society or culture has multiple values and beliefs, all values are not employed in advertising (Pollay: 1986). Williams (1993: 432) argued that “the magic system” of advertising, which inserts irrelevant values and meaning into advertisements, is “the result of a failure in social meanings, values, and ideals.” Thus, the use of stereotypes in advertising can become selective reinforcement (Pollay: 1986). With all these conflicting views, stereotyping continues unabated even though it is subjective in character. According to Berger and Luckmann (1966), subjective reality cannot be maintained without a certain social base and social processes. Subjective reality is continued by confirmation or alternating possibilities of reality (Berger & Luckmann: 1966). In other words, consistent media images of stereotypical gender roles have reinforced the public’s subjective reality (Pollay: 1986), and those images remain in the public without portraying the actual “reality” of the society (Schudson: 1984).

The main reason for stereotyping is at first the belief system and then it is followed by reinforcement of this belief system through “cultivation” of the perception in target audience. This is called cultivation theory in advertising. According to cultivation theory, the media play an important role in creating distorted views (Gerbner & Gross: 1976). This theory suggests that exposure to media content creates a worldview, or a consistent image of social behavior, norms, values, and structures, based on the stable view of society provided by the media (Gerbner & Gross: 1976; Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, & Signorielli: 1994). In other words, cultivation theory posits that consistent images and portrayals construct a
specific portrait of reality, and as viewers see more and more images, they gradually come to cultivate or adopt attitudes and expectations about the world that coincide with the images they see. Although this model has typically been employed to explain the impact of television violence (e.g. Gerbner & Gross: 1976), it also has been applied successfully to the cultivation of attitudes toward gender roles (e.g. Signorieli: 1989). Although Gunther and Thorson (1992) found that people claimed no negative effects of product commercials on themselves (but did expect negative effects on others), and other researchers (Frueh & McGhee: 1975; McGhee & Frueh: 1980; Schreiber & Boyd: 1980) have found evidence of a cultivated audience or the process of cultivation in advertising.

(ii) Empirical Evidences:

The empirical research on stereotyping has mainly proceeded on the lines of content analysis, which refers to the study of representation of characters in the advertisements from the viewpoint of relative role played by men and women, popularly called gender stereotyping. Research on gender-role portrayals in advertising is not new, as it has evolved from two seminal works: one by Goffman (1978), who argued for the powerful images created by advertising, and one by McArthur and Resko’s (1975) study, which led to subsequent content analysis studies in this line of research. Based on analysis of visual images in more than 400 print ads in the United States, Goffman (1978) demonstrated how advertising portrays gender roles in a narrower way than in reality. McArthur and Resko (1975) also conducted a content analysis of television commercials in the United States. They found that men and women were depicted in different ways, according to traditional gender-role stereotypes. For instance, when the authors examined gender behaviors and credentials or qualifications, men appeared more often than women did in ads. Men were also portrayed as authorities, were viewed as independent from others, and were placed in occupation settings. Conversely, women were usually depicted as product users, were portrayed as dependent on others (particularly on family members or the opposite sex), and were featured in the home.

Interestingly, there have been innumerable empirical researches across the globe in the last decades based on content analysis led by the USA (Craig; 1992; Lovdal: 1989; Ferrante, Haynes and Kingsley: 1988; Vande Berg and Strecjfyss: 1993); Britain (Furnham and Bitar: 1993; Livingstone and Green: 1986); Manstead
and McCullon: 1986); Canada (Moore and Cadeau: 1985; Rak and McMullen: 1987); Australia (Gilly: 1988; Mazzella, Durkin, Cerini and Buralli: 1992); and Italy (Furnham and Voli: 1989). The recent researches falling in this realm in other countries have come from Paek et al (2010); Nelson and Paek (2007, 2008); Acevedo et al (2006) and Kim and Lowry (2005).

The empirical evidences have briefly presented under the following: (a) Women’s Representations; (b) Cultural Stereotyping; (c) Product-type Stereotyping; (d) Voiceovers; (e) Stereotyping across Cultures; (f) Occupational Stereotyping; (g) Dependence Stereotyping; (h) Male Domination Stereotyping; (i) Use of Sex Appeal in Advertising; (j) Masculinity Stereotyping and (k) Trends in Stereotyping.

(a) Women’s Representations:

Many studies have been conducted in the area of women’s representation in television commercials. Researchers have argued that television programs and commercials reinforce conventional gender stereotypes (Gerbner et al: 1994). According to McGhee and Frueh (1980), viewers’ stronger belief in cultural stereotypes correlates with increased television viewing. They reported that heavy viewers of television attributed a higher status to men than to women. Men were perceived as having more diverse and improved life options (McGhee & Frueh: 1980). However, changes in women’s representation in commercials began in the late 1970s and early 1980s (e.g. Caballero & Solomon: 1984; Lovdal: 1989; Scheibe: 1979; Schneider & Schneider: 1979). For example, Schneider and Schneider (1979) argued that marketers and society have begun to accept the changing roles of women. After analyzing 27 hours of prime-time television commercials aired in 1976, they reported that women’s role portrayals were either closer to actual roles held by women in the United States, or were moving toward actual roles at a faster rate than men’s role portrayals were (Schneider & Schneider: 1979). Women have historically been underrepresented in advertising as compared with men (Bretl and Cantor 1988, in the United States). However, many scholars (e.g. Caballero & Solomon: 1984; Lovdal: 1989; Scheibe: 1979) have found that such change was not yet sufficient to overlook the problems of women’s representation in television advertising. Also, many studies have shown that women are portrayed as much younger than men (Caballero & Solomon: 1984; Dominick & Rauch: 1972; Ganahl et al: 2003; Gilly: 1988; McArthur & Resko: 1975).
(b) Cultural Stereotyping:

Advertisers often have used traditional cultural stereotypes in their commercials (e.g. Courtney & Lockeretz: 1971; Franzwa: 1974; Signorielli: 1989). As television is considered the largest of the mass media, considerable research has been conducted in this area. Previous studies done in the United States have demonstrated that men are more likely than women to be portrayed as professionals or workers outside of the home (Allan & Coltrane: 1996; Courtney & Lockeretz: 1971; Dominick & Rauch: 1972; Ferrante, Haynes & Kugsley: 1988; Ganahl et al: 2003; Gilly: 1988). Allan and Coltrane (1996) compared the 1950s through 1960s with the 1980s, and they found that although the number of female main characters had actually decreased by 5.8% in the 1980s, 70% of the women were pictured as “free-floating” consumers with no reference to work or family activity, whereas 50% of the men were shown either working or parenting. According to Craig (1992), advertisements aired in the afternoon, mostly targeted toward women, emphasized traditional stereotypes associated with housewives.

(c) Product-type Stereotyping:

Some research has suggested that products can be associated with a gender image, which typically portrays the gender of the intended target audience or typical end user (Alreck: 1994; Whipple and McManamon: 2002). For example, retail stores, health and beauty aids/pharmacy, and fashion/clothing have been traditionally viewed as women's product categories (Ganahl et al: 2003; Scott: 1976), whereas automobiles/automobile supplies, electronics/appliances, insurance, financial, and political commercials are usually associated with men (Ahlstrand: 2007; An and Kim: 2007; Neto and Pinto: 1998; Furnham and Bitar: 1993; Furnham and Skae: 1997; Mwangi: 1996). Female characters have been found to be more likely than male characters to represent household products (domestic products), whereas male characters have been found to be more likely than female characters to represent financial or technical products (non-domestic products) (Allan & Coltrane: 1996; Craig: 1992; Caballero & Solomon: 1984; Dominick & Rauch: 1972; Ganahl et al: 2003; Lovdal: 1989; McArthur & Resko: 1975). These product categorizations may be due to the fact that females have been shown to be more publicly self-conscious than their counterpart males (Gould and Stern: 1989). Also, females are associated more often with social approval and/or self-enhancement, which might
be related to home and body products. Men are more frequently shown selling cars and sports products than are women (Mueller: 2004). It should be noted, however, that “with gendered products, the basic characteristics of the goods are acceptable by either sex, but the visible design features, advertising, promotion, and perhaps distribution of the product are modified to include symbols which identify it mainly or exclusively with one sex” (Alreck 1994: 6). Thus spokespersons may be one way in which products can become or signify their ‘gender.’


(d) Voiceovers:

In voice-overs, men’s voices dominated women’s voices (Dominick & Rauch: 1972; Ganahl et al: 2003; Lovdal: 1989; Pierracine & Schell: 1995). Women have been found to be portrayed as product users rather than as product authorities or experts (Coltrane & Messineo: 2000; Gilly: 1988; McArthur & Resko: 1975). Male characters have been found to be more than female characters to appear in voice-overs (Furnham et al: 2000; Furnham & Bitar: 1993; Furnham & Farragher: 2001; Furnham et al: 2000; Gilly: 1988; Mazzella et al: 1992; Neto & Pinto: 1998). There is a lack of research that shows any evaluative results regarding male versus female voice-overs (Debevec and Iyer: 1986; Whipple and McManamon: 2002). Yet, advertisers believe that male voices are perceived as more convincing, credible, and authoritarian than are female voices (Furnham and Farragher: 2000).

(e) Stereotyping across Cultures:

Although the content of programming or commercials may vary because of differences in cultures, most research done outside of the United States, whether in Europe, Africa, or Asia, has revealed that every country studied had similarly distorted or misrepresented stereotypes of women in television advertising in one way or another (e.g. Arima: 2003; Furnham, Babitzkow & Uguccioni: 2000;
In contrast, a few studies done outside of the United States have shown lower differences in terms of stereotyping gender roles in advertising (Furnham & Farragher: 2001; Gilly: 1988).

(f) Occupational Stereotyping:


(g) Dependence Stereotyping:

Moreover, women were more likely than men to be portrayed as dependent (Furnham, Babitzkow, et al., 2000; Furnham & Bitar: 1993; Furnham, Mak, et al: 2000; Furnham & Voli: 1989; Neto & Pinto: 1998; Feguson et al: 1990). Researchers have reported that female characters are likely to represent body or household products, whereas male characters are likely to represent automobile or service products (Furnham, Babitzkow, et al: 2000; Furnham, Mak, et al: 2000; Furnham et al: 2001; Furnham & Voli: 1989; Neto & Pinto: 1998; Mwangi: 1996; Huang: 1995). In terms of argument types, female characters have been found to be more likely to use non-scientific arguments, whereas male characters are more likely to use scientific arguments when representing products (Furnham, Mak, et al: 2000; Manstead & McCulloch: 1981; Mazzella et al: 1992; Neto & Pinto: 1998).

(h) Male Domination Stereotyping:

Studies of the depictions of males in advertising have been few in number (e.g. Kolbe and Albanase: 1996, in the United States). Men are more often portrayed in advertising and are primarily featured in occupation roles (Furnham and Farragher: 2000, in the United Kingdom, and Huang: 1995, in New Zealand) that feature professional occupations (Kolbe and Albanese: 1996). In addition, men are
typically the “voice” of broadcast media not only in the United States (Bretl and Cantor: 1988), but also in several developed countries (Ahlstrand: 2007, in Austria; Furnham and Bitar: 1993, in UK; Furnham and Farragher: 2000, in New Zealand) and developing countries (Wee et al. 1995, in Singapore and Malaysia; Kenya, Ghana and South Africa: Milner and Higgs: 2004, in Kenya, Ghana and South Africa). Some cross-cultural research suggests preference for male voice-overs (Furnham and Farragher: 2000).

(i) Use of Sex Appeal in Advertising:

Sex appeal as an advertising strategy is well adopted in both Western and European countries as advertisers attempt to find ways to break through the media clutter but there is no guarantee that it is effective globally. Price (2002) claimed that sex appeal has become one of the most popular and effective tactics in mainstream consumer advertising in most of the Western countries such as the United States. Reichert et al. (2001) and Hoyer and MacInnis (2001) identified sex appeal as serving a number of important roles in advertising including attracting initial attention, augmenting recognition, bolstering brand image, increasing receivers interest in processing the ad, enhancing persuasion, and evoking emotional responses. On the other hand, Furse (2000) contended that sex appeal might increase attention to the ad, but not necessarily enhance recall or positive attitudes towards a brand. Furthermore, Brown (2002) claimed that overly blatant applications of sex as an attention grabber can be counterproductive.

Research showed that men and women have different perceptions about what is sexually attractive for example, Garrett (1993) found that males are most sexually aroused when presented with nudity or suggested sources but sources that were romantic were most noticeable to their female counterparts. Fang and Jianyao (2006) found that males and females only differed significantly when they were exposed to the ad featured by the male model with a low level of sex appeal. Richert et al. (2001) posited that sex appeal may be effective to one gender but may be offensive to the opposite gender.

(j) Masculinity Stereotyping:

Based on Hofstede’s (1984, 2003) masculinity index, Paek et al (2010) examined the roles of cultural (Hofstede’s Masculinity value dimension—i.e., Gender of Nations), country-level (Gender-related Development Index), and
execution-level (product type or gender of the typical user) factors in understanding gender-role portrayals in television advertising. Using content analysis methodology, they compared the gender and occupation of the prominent character and the gender of the voice-over across 2,608 television commercials in Brazil, Canada, China, Germany, South Korea, Thailand, and the United States. Results of regression analyses revealed that cultural and country factors predicted the gender of the voice-over only, whereas product type consistently conformed to the gender of the prominent character. Overall, males were featured in prominent visual and auditory roles, while females were still portrayed in stereotypical ways. Several researchers have provided ample evidence on masculinity in advertising (e.g. Milner and Collins: 2000; Singh et al: 2005; Stein: 2004; Rustagi: 2004; Firth and Mueller: 2003; Oderkerken- Schröder et al: 2002; Furnham and Mak: 1999; González: 1999; Milner and Collins: 1998; de Mooij: 1998; Huang: 1995; Wiles et al 1995; Huang: 1995; Neto and Pinto: 1998; Chavez: 1985; Pingree: 1978).

Lastly, two contrasting studies in Singapore and Korea may be cited to highlight for mixed results in Asian sub-continent. The study by Lee (2004) focused on the nature of female stereotyping in Singapore's television industry. A content analysis of one working week of television commercials was conducted on Singapore's English-language channel. The study revealed that women were depicted in more diversified roles—ranging from homemaking and childcare, to endorsing beauty products and working in offices. However, some degree of patriarchy was still prevalent. The study by Kim and Lowry (2005) was designed to analyze the representation of gender roles in Korean television advertising. A sample of 878 Korean television advertisements from the MBC network in 2001 was content analyzed. Findings indicated that women in Korean television advertising were portrayed as young (48.2%), as dependents (37.5%), and as nurturing children (12.1%). They were often depicted in the home (37.2%).

(k)Trends in Stereotyping:

commercials in the 1990s, found some degree of improvement in women’s representation in advertising and they argued that such a change did not fully reflect the reality of women in society. Therefore, although far from conclusive, recent evidence suggests that traces of sexism remain; the improvements noted are in the direction of more respectful and realistic portrayals of women in advertising (Coltrane & Messineo: 2000; Ganahl et al: 2003; Pierracine & Schell: 1995). Lastly, advertisers tend to use a limited meaning of values or beliefs about gender roles in advertising by reinforcing the same stereotypical images of gender roles, as if those images are desired by society (Pollay: 1986; Williamson: 1978).

ADVERTISING AND CHILDREN

Without exception, children are recognized as having tremendous spending power and purchase influence in today's market (Macklin: 1994). The growth of children's influence on the purchase decision process has stimulated researchers' interests (e.g. Boush, Friestad, and Rose: 1994; Macklin: 1994; Perrachio: 1992). Seemingly evident is the importance of how children are influenced to make purchase decisions, much of which is through television advertising. The amount of television advertising directed toward children has grown in recent years despite the fact that efforts to regulate children's television advertising have typically been more rigorous than any comparable regulatory efforts pertaining to adult viewers (Goldberg: 1990). A number of authors have addressed the issue of maintaining strict policies regarding children's television advertising (Armstrong and Brucks: 1988; Goldberg: 1990; Muehling, Carlson, and Laczniak: 1992). However, pointing towards the number of ad exposure in children, Conley (2010: I) observes: "An average child would have watched between 10,000 and 15,000 hours of television and more than 200,000 commercials by the time they have turned 18. What they watch and how they are influenced depends upon what is available to them. Television can treat children as ‘Little Consumers,’ or it can be used to have a positive impact. Television can be mindless entertainment, or educational. The problem is that there is little incentive for broadcast television to cater to children’s needs instead of those of an advertiser.”

The review of literature on advertising directed towards children has been presented under: (i) Theoretical Foundation and (ii) Empirical Evidences
(i) Theoretical Foundation:

For children, different sports and hobbies consisting physical work are the source of energy, whereas television viewing is a source of useless energy. Advertisers tend to portray an innocent aspect of daily life in their commercial and hope that this innocent aspect of life would not only attract the attention of potential customers but would also influence them (Adler et al: 2004). The advertisements that are not very complex and say something new have the potential of attracting children’s increased attention (Rice et al: 1988). A direct relationship was found in the repetition of commercial and the ability to attract children’s attention (Wellman: 1990).

Children below 7–8 years group do not have the ability to understand the TV commercial’s cognitive development method. Egocentrism is the common trait of this age group, which means that this age group lacks the ability of perceiving another person’s perspective (Carroll: 1984). Children’s beliefs, desires and motives are not fully developed until they are six years old (Wellman: 1990). Children belonging to age group 3-6 years lack ability to grip advertiser’s persuasive intent but possess interpersonal skills of influencing the behavior of parents, and others (Bartsch & London: 2000). Children understand the purpose of advertising that appears on television as early as 5 years of age (Macklin: 1987). And, later on when children reach the age of 8 years, their awareness to advertising gets refined; they tend to assess the messages in true perspective and are capable of responding to commercial advertisement in an established and informed approach (John: 1999). The age of 8 to10 years possesses an elementary understanding of the advertising purpose (Bartsch and London: 2000). And when the children are between age group of 8 to 12 years, they develop the ability to recall and make valuable use of the information stored in their memory, although this skill is not formed entirely until now. Evidence of the effectiveness of these attempts to lower the total influence of TV advertising on the child is somewhat mixed, but most studies find no or rather small effects of parental concern (Adler et al: 2004).

Some factors that may also contribute in purchasing decisions of the children are their age, socio-economic status and cultural background including the parents’ level of education (Galst & White: 1976). A single advertisement may marginally affect the brand preferences. However, repeated exposure of the commercial may
create a strong desire for the advertised products, as compared to competitive products (Robertson & Rossiter: 1979). Children may not be able to recall TV commercial over time; however, positive attitudes toward an advertised product may last for another week despite the fact that the ad has been forgotten (Silverman et al: 1988). The products such as toys, cereals, and ice creams have a longer impact even if the frequency of these ads is limited to one per program (Zuckerman et al: 1978). The researchers have shown that children’s product knowledge is primarily based on TV commercials (Caron & Ward: 1975). Goldberg’s (1990) study in Quebec used a naturalistic setting and provides reliable evidence that the more television commercials a child sees for cereals marketed for children, the more likely it is that that product will be found in the household. The awareness of brands adds security to the lives of these children. Schoolyards are turned into brand showrooms and this can have the impact of prominence social and economic divisions amongst groups which may direct to social segregation, discrimination, teasing, theft or even destruction (Sleaford: 2000). The major objective of the advertisement is to promote products and its features. But, if it is perceived differently it may have broader sociological influence (Barron et al: 1989). Advertising also encourages materialism in which material goods and money is conceived important for personal happiness and social progress as compared to intellectual or spiritual concerns was increasing amongst children and adults. Several authors suggest that advertising stimulates materialistic values in children (Wulfemeyer & Mueller: 1992). Several authors suggest that advertising stimulates materialistic values in children (Wulfemeyer & Mueller: 2007; Greenberg & Brand: 1993). According to these authors, advertising enhances materialism because it is designed to arouse desires for products that would not otherwise be salient. Advertising propagates the ideology that possessions are important and that desirable qualities, such as beauty, success and happiness can be obtained only by material possessions (Wulfemeyer & Mueller: 1992). Several earlier reviews have discussed the unintended effects of advertising (Kunkel: 2001; Young: 1990). A longitudinal study of teenagers concludes that television advertising exposure had both short-term and long-term impacts on adolescents’ acceptance of materialistic values (Moore: 2004). The results showed a positive relationship between materialism and peer group influence and showed that higher materialism scores were recorded for the children who were more susceptible to peer influence. Generally, different brands can be linked with conceptual or figurative
meanings, conveying standing, their reputation and poise. Adults and children often try to adopt role models, or illusory characters presented in the commercials because they are exposed as smart, powerful, attractive, and dominant in appearance and profligate lifestyles. Children, who watch television extremely, tend to be obese because they indulge less in healthy and fruitful tasks such as running, cycling, jumping and physical exercise. Furthermore, these children take food, high in sugar and fat such as candy, snacks, sugary cereals and drinks (Macklin: 1987).

Research studies have established a positive relationship between food advertisements children remember and the number of foods like soft drink, crisps and savory snacks that children eat (Borzekowski & Robinson: 2001). A strong correlation was found in television viewing habits, poor diet, poor health and obesity between children and adults. While watching, one remains physically inactive and this reduces metabolic rates and displaces physical exercise (Livingstone and Helsper: 2004). Nowadays, due to easy access to fast food products, excessive advertisement through a lot of media vehicles, the frequent promotion of these sorts of foods through television, Internet and other media, the lack of secure play grounds, and video games add to the children being overweight (Ludwig et al: 2002). Easy access to energy-rich foods and drinks, the frequent promotion of these sorts of foods through television, Internet and other media, the lack of safe playing areas and safe cycling routes, increased use of video entertainment and computer-related games playing have all been suggested as adding to the ‘toxic’ environment (Kumanyika et al: 2002). Literature on the information processing characteristics of children reveals that they belong to one of three segments: strategic processors, cued processors and limited processors – based on the information skills they possess (Roedder: 1981).

There has been a substantial amount of research on inter-relationships among watching violent films, videos, TV programs and aggressive behavior by the viewers of such material, in particular the behavior of children. Children’s attitudes are also governed by violence depicted in the media. The amount of programs having violent scenes on television is increasing at an alarming level (Paquette: 2003). The average child views almost 12,000 violent acts and scenes on television annually, most of them have depictions of murder, kidnapping, and sex scenes. Also, more than 1000 studies highlight the fact that excessive exposure to television violence programmes
increases hostile behavior, particularly in boys (Johnson et al: 2002). Television programs and films are generally full of violence and dreadful scenes, which are being watched in almost every home through cable television creating social problems for people with no exclusion to children. Many secrets of adolescence like social and physical matters are watched by children, and accordingly childhood purity and innocence is almost impossible to sustain. Family setup also has a bearing on the violent behavior seen in children. Children in distressed families may be more violent (Josephson: 1995). Whether the television is really harmful to children depends from child to child; it could be harmful to some children in some conditions; while under the same conditions, it may be beneficial to other children (CanterL 1998)

(ii) Empirical Evidences:

It is important to assess the ethical nature associated with children’s exposure to media advertisements. As Ferrell and Gresham (1985) noted, most people agree that a set of moral principles or values should govern the actions of marketing decision makers, and most marketers would agree that their decisions should be made in accordance with accepted principles of right and wrong. It has been shown that if children do not realize that advertising intends to persuade, then the likelihood of accepting that advertisement as truth is intensified (Brucks, Armstrong, and Goldberg 1988).


**SEXUAL CONTENT OF TV ADVERTISEMENTS**

Spanning the second half of the 1970s, the research has established that sex is primarily portrayed through reference and innuendo (Franzblau, Sprafkin, &Rubinstein: 1977), and that the incidence of such references has generally increased from year to year (Greenberg, Graef, Fernandez-Collado, Korzenny & Atkin: 1980; Sapolsky: 1982; Silverman, Sprafkin, & Rubinstein: 1979). Throughout the 1980s, analyses indicated that the incidence of sexual content in television programming rose consistently. For the first time, actors seemingly engaging in sexual intercourse, formerly portrayed exclusively through reference, were depicted directly (Lowry & Shidler: 1993; Sapolsky&Tabarlet: 1991). Even though television’s portrayal of sexual content increased, its portrayal of the risks and possible negative consequences of sexual activity remained infrequent (Lowry & Shidler: 1993). The 1990s witnessed an explosion of televised sexual content not only in prime-time broadcast television but also across time periods and cable
channels. Over time, television depicted or strongly implied sexual intercourse with increasing frequency (Kunkel & Cope, 1999; Kunkel et al: 1999). By 2000, a Kaiser Family Foundation study has found that the incidence of sexual content on television had risen to two out of every three shows and that these shows average more than four scenes with sexual content per hour; in addition, in all shows depicting sexual behavior, only one in 10 make reference to the risks and responsibilities of sexual activity (Kunkel, Cope-Farrar, Biely, Farinola, & Donnerstein: 2001; Farrar et al: 2003).

The empirical research on sexual content of television advertising has mainly focused on (i) Sexual Appeals; (ii) Depiction of Gender Roles; and (iii) Impact on Teens and Adolescents. A brief analysis of these dimensions has been presented below.

(i) Sexual Appeals:

Since the late 1960s, the use of sex in advertising—a controversial practice much discussed among practitioners, scholars, activists, and the public—has also been investigated. Seminal studies analyzed the effects of nudity in print advertisements: who among viewers responded to the sexual appeal and how the appeal affected brand recall and viewer attitudes toward the brand (Alexander & Judd: 1978; Steadman: 1969). In comparative analyses of sexual portrayals in magazine advertisements in 1964 and 1984, scholars found that while the percentage of sexual appeals did not increase, the types of sexual portrayals did, with the sexual appeal becoming more overt (Soley & Kurzbard: 1986). In addition, women were portrayed in a sexually suggestive manner more in 1984 than in 1964, a reflection the authors attributed to “changes in society’s sexual attitudes and behaviors” (Soley & Reid: 1988, 966).

In a comparison of magazine advertisements in 1983 and 1993, scholars found a significant increase in the proportion of sexual appeals, with both genders portrayed more explicitly, although women were three times as likely as men to be portrayed as such (Reichert, Lambiase, Morgan, Carstarphen, & Zavoina: 1999). While the preponderance of sex appeal studies has centered on magazine advertisements, attention has turned more recently to the use of sex appeals in television commercials. For example, Lin (1998) found that while the sexual appeal
accounted for a small fraction of television commercial appeals, three fourths of sexual appeals in the sample presented women as sex objects.

(ii) Depiction of Gender Roles:
In addition to the sexual appeal, the depiction of gender roles has been a major research interest related to the study of sex in advertising. A prevailing assumption is that constant exposure to stereotyped gender roles in the mass media fosters and reinforces gender-typed views and behaviors. In a pioneering analysis of television commercials, McArthur and Resko (1975) found that men appeared more frequently than women and that woman were portrayed as lacking expertise and independent identities. Follow-up studies revealed that while women were portrayed as frequently in television commercials as men by the mid-1980s (Bretl & Cantor: 1988), voiceovers were dominantly male (Bretl & Cantor: 1988; Knill, Pesch, Pursey, Gilpin, & Perloff: 1981; Lovdal: 1989), and women were mainly portrayed in the conventional roles of mother and housewife (Knill et al: 1981). These studies also reveal that a significant proportion of women are portrayed as sex objects. For example, a study of gender roles in magazine ads found symbolic and institutionalized sexism (Cortese: 1999), while an analysis of portrayals of women in ads in 15 years of Ms. magazine found that, even though Ms. policy precludes the publication of ads harmful or insulting to women, advertising in the magazine increasingly portrayed women as sex objects (Ferguson, Kreshel, & Tinkham: 1990).

(iii) Impact on Teens and Adolescents:
Furthermore, in recent years, scholars have begun to systematically examine the role of the media—including advertising—in the lives of children and teens. Many researchers have been concerned in particular with the media’s portrayal of sexual behavior and its effect on beliefs and attitudes. As early as 1963, Bandura and Walters (1963) suggested that children and adolescents, due to a lack of other information sources, turn to the mass media to learn about sexual behavior. As Bandura’s (1977) conception of social learning theory suggests, adolescents are neither the passive dupes of the media nor complete free agents in choosing how the media will and will not influence their behaviors, attitudes, and actions. Rather, adolescent behavior is the result of “a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental determinants (Bandura: 1977, viii).”
Subsequent research has confirmed that the media serve as the primary sex educators in American culture (Courtright & Baran: 1980). As Brown and Keller (2000: 255) asserted, “The mass media—television, music, magazines, movies and the Internet—are important sex educators. Yet, the media seldom have been concerned with the outcome of their ubiquitous sexual lessons.” The prevailing theme in most studies of children and teens is that the sexual images in the media tend to be harmful to impressionable minds. Knowing that teens watch an average of 6 hours of television a day (Klein et al: 1993) causes concern when researchers also know there is a significant relationship between the proportion of sexual matter an adolescent views on television and the level of his or her sexual experience (Brown & Newcomer: 1991).

Indeed, the media’s portrayal of sexual behaviors and attitudes can serve as scripts for young people as they learn about themselves as sexual beings (Brown, White, & Nikopoulou: 1993; Ward: 1995; Cope-Farrar & Kunkel: 2002). Therefore, as the American Academy of Pediatrics and others have repeatedly suggested, advocacy for responsible media portrayals of sexual content and the introduction of media literacy programs in schools would do much to empower children and adolescents to make healthy sexual choices (Brown & Keller::2000; Committee on Communications: 1995; Committee on Public Education: 2001a, 2001b; Hogan: 2000).

However, the literature exploring the effects of sexual media on children and teens is rather incomplete and inconclusive. Few studies, for example, have examined in detail the sexual images that are portrayed. Kunkel and Cope (1999) studied the sexual content of family-hour programming over three decades (in 1976, 1986, and 1996), but did not study in depth the context in which sexual content was depicted (1999). Further, the preponderance of studies has focused on sexual content in television programming (Cope-Farrar & Kunkel: 2002; Kunkel et al: 1996; Truglio: 1998; Ward: 1995), while relatively few have focused on television advertising or other media.

Although a number of studies use ethnically diverse and gender inclusive samples of the U.S. teen population when studying effects (Kaiser Family Foundation: 2002; Kaiser Family Foundation & Children Now: 1996; Ward: 2002), few have examined the differential effects between genders or among ethnic groups.
In addition, few scholars have used media lists that were derived from the population itself. More common is to use published lists, such as Nielsen data or magazine lists of top-grossing films, to determine the television programs (Cope-Farrar & Kunkel: 2002; Ward: 1995) and movies (Greenberg et al: 1993) teens most attend. While media critics have castigated the advertising industry for the negative effects of much advertising content—including sexual content—on children and teens (Committee on Communications: 1995), relatively few studies have actually examined the advertising that appears within the programs that these early adolescents (12-to-14-year-olds) watch.

COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

In a typical comparative advertising, the advertiser claims superiority over a leading competitor (identified or unidentified, but normally unidentified) based on how superior the advertised brand is on an important attribute. Comparative advertising typically compares quality of one’s own product to that of a rival without disclosing the rival’s brand. Comparative claims differ from generic ones as they open up different strategic opportunities for rivals.” A general comparison would be a statement such as the advertised brand has the best performance (Dröge: 1989). Comparative advertising has been extensively investigated in the marketing literature (Pechmann and Stewart: 1990; Pechmann and Ratneshwar: 1991). While the effectiveness of comparative advertising is context specific, the prevailing view is that it benefits the consumers by providing relevant competitive information (Jain: 1993).

Shy (1992, 1995) assumes that comparative advertising is directly informative and focuses on the matching of heterogeneous consumers with differentiated brands. Research has shown that comparative advertising enhances persuasion by both association as well as differentiation (Pechmann and Ratneshwar: 1991). Several studies have shown that comparative advertising primarily associates the advertised brand with the comparison brand by making their perceived similarity salient (e.g. Droge and Darmon: 1987). A review of the comparative advertising literature based on studies conducted in the United States suggests that most comparative advertising features a *superiority* format, which can be direct or indirect (Droge: 1989;) and they are unethical.
Pechmann and Ratneshwar (1991) consider comparative advertising with respect to horizontal characteristics in a market with known quality differences and analyze the information disclosure by rival firms. By contrast, Aluf and Shy (2001) postulate that (negative) comparative advertising is persuasive and decreases the willingness-to-pay for the competitor’s product. However, Barigozzi et al (2009) find that claims in comparative ads are potentially misleading and an earlier evidence supports this view (Matthews and Fertig: 1990).

Previous research has also investigated differences between comparative and non-comparative advertising in terms of attention (Pechmann and Stewart 1990), comprehension (Droge: 1989), attitude (Rose et al: 1993), and brand beliefs (Pechmann and Ratneshwar 1991). Recently, interest has been directed toward the potential deceptive effects of comparative ads, inspired by the possibility that comparatives ad may achieve a persuasive impact not only by making forthright and favorable comparisons to competing brands but also by fostering inappropriate inferences (Johar: 1995; Pechmann: 1996; Muthukrishnan, Warlop and Alba: 2001).

A series of experiments reveals a robust effect mediated by perceived message credibility through comparative advertising (Droge and Dorman: 1987; Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran: 2000; Muthikrishnan, Warlop and Alba: 2001). Several studies demonstrate that advertisements perceived as carrying more negative/derogatory references to competition result in more counterarguments, few support arguments, lower believability, more associated perceived bias, and lower brand attitude than do advertisements perceived as more positive/non-derogatory (Pechmann and Stewart: 1990; Pechman and Rathneshwar: 1991; Pechmann: 1996; Shiv, Edel and Payne: 1997; Jain, Buchanan and Mahadewaran: 2000; Jain and Posavac: 2004).

In a meta-analysis of more than 75 published and unpublished comparative advertising studies that represent 22 years of research in the field, Grewal et al (1997) report three important persuasion-related findings: (i) Comparative advertisements are less believable than non-comparative advertisements; (ii) on average, comparative advertisements lead to greater purchase likelihood than non-comparative advertisements; and (iii) these effects are particularly strong for advertisers with low shares that compare themselves to brands with larger shares.
According to Beard (2010), many, if not most, advertisers’ principal motive for responding to a comparative advertising attack has been emotional rather than rational. Based on historical analysis of comparative advertising, he posits that advertising wars often became increasingly hostile, leading to negative consequences for all combatants, as well as a broad and negative social consequence in the form of potentially misleading advertising.

Anderson and Renault (2004) conclude: “If firms sell products of similar qualities, both want to advertise detailed product information that enables consumers to determine their matches: there is no role for comparative advertising. If qualities are sufficiently dissimilar, the high-quality one will not want to disclose match information. If legal, the low-quality firm rival would like to advertise match information about its rival. Such "comparative" advertising may have a detrimental impact on welfare by leading more consumers to consume the low quality product: this effect can dominate the benefits from improved consumer information and reduce social welfare if qualities are different enough.”

**PSEUDO SCIENTIFIC JARGONS**

A factor of vital importance for any advertisement is its ability to persuade the consumers. In the process of persuasion, comprehension is one of the important components. Thus to create perceived differences and, possibly, to enhance persuasive strengths, brands often use claims using some specific ‘scientific’ jargons which, by and large, are quite uncommon to the ordinary consumers and often have no genuine scientific validity and for the purpose of the present study we denote them as “pseudo-scientific jargon’(PSJ).” Examples of such advertisements are numerous in the Indian context. This seems to be a global phenomenon especially in case of highly technical products- content analysis study of print advertisements found that technical jargon is frequently used in advertising copy blocks (Meeds: 1998). According to Chaudhuri and Laha (2005: 2-3), “…PSJs to be some abstract and often scientifically unproven or loosely explained terminologies which are designed for and intended to deliver, to a non-technical consumer, a semantic representation of desirable product attribute and generate positive attitude.” It is observed that PSJs are generally used in children’s foods and drinks, and also in cosmetics (Doods, Tseelon and Weitkamp: 2008, 211).
Both food and cosmetics are called “experience” products, which can only be evaluated after purchase. This contrasts with “search” products (which include consumer durables such as cars and white goods). Search products can be evaluated before purchase, through analyzing, for example, advertising. Economics of Information theory suggests that consumers attend to and “process” information in advertisements differently depending on whether they are search or experience products (Ford et al: 1990; Franke et al: 2004). This theory also suggests that consumers will be more skeptical of information that is difficult or costly to evaluate before a purchase is made and that consumers will be more skeptical of subjective claims than objective claims (Ford et al., 1990). Earlier some studies have found that participants have negative initial reactions to message complexity. Visual complexity (i.e., consisting of many heterogeneous elements arranged irregularly) has been shown to foster negative evaluations and these negative evaluations translate into negative attitudes toward the advertisement and brand (e.g. Cox & Cox: 1988; Saegert & Jellison: 1970; Smith & Dorfman: 1975; Holbrook: 1978; Reeves et al (1983); Brucks et al: 1984; Petty and Cacioppo: 1986)

Specifically, Anderson and Jolson (1980) looked at how different versions of the same advertisement for a sophisticated camera affected subsequent attitudes. Greater technical content was found to decrease perceptions of the ease of using the camera and to increase perceptions of its cost. Nevertheless, ‘technically expert’ or ‘sophisticated’ consumers were found to be comfortable with the technical terms and reported higher levels of purchase interest. Technical words were especially effective on consumers with a high degree of technical experience & knowledge with the product, whereas ordinary consumers preferred the simple advertisements.

VANITY CONTENT IN ADVERTISING

Advertising appeals that focus on personal vanity are widely used in the media today. Vanity is a concept that has been discussed for thousands of years. Aristotle stated that the vain have a blown up self-image, but they are not worthy of it. Hume said that "vanity is rather too esteemed as a social passion, and a bond of union among men."

Intellectual discourses on vanity can be found in disciplines as diverse as linguistic anthropology (Kovecses 1986), economics (Hackner and Nyberg: 1996), poetry (Johnson: 1993), and even consumer research (Netemeyer et al: 1995).
Dictionary V-Vei (2009) defines vanity in several ways: (i) the quality or state of being vain; want of substance to satisfy desire; emptiness; unsubstantialness; unrealness; (ii) falsity; (iii) an inflation of mind upon slight grounds; empty pride inspired by an overweening conceit of one's personal attainments or decorations; an excessive desire for notice or approval; (iii) pride; (iv) ostentation, conceit, that which is vain, anything empty, visionary, unreal, or unsubstantial; (v) fruitless desire or effort; trifling labor productive of no good; and (vi) empty pleasure, vain pursuit, idle show, unsubstantial enjoyment.

Within marketing, formal definitions of vanity comprise two primary dimensions: physical vanity and achievement vanity. Physical vanity has been defined as an excessive concern for, and/or a positive (and perhaps inflated) view of one's physical appearance (Netemeyer et al: 1995). Achievement vanity is an excessive concern for, and/or a positive (and perhaps inflated) view of one's personal achievements (Netemeyer et al: 1995). Netemeyer et al (1995) designed a scale to measure both physical and achievement vanity and operationalized vanity in terms of four distinct trait components: (i) A concern for physical appearance; (ii) A positive (and perhaps inflated) view of physical appearance; (iii) A concern for achievement; and (iv) A positive (and perhaps inflated) view of achievement. A fixation with physical appearance and achievement of personal goals are manifestations of an underlying consumer value orientation known as consumer vanity (Netemeyer et al: 1995). According to Wang (2003: 1457), “Western consumer culture is dominated by a preoccupation with both appearance and achievement related vanity. Very few consumer products are sold today without at least an allusion to physical beauty and achievement status.”

With limited research on vanity content in advertising appeals, the research has moved on two main streams: (i) Vanity and Appearance Appeals; and (ii) Vanity and Achievement Appeals. A brief survey of literature on these two streams has been presented below.

(i) Vanity and Appearance Appeals:

There is a strong emphasis on outward appearance in our culture (Bar-Tel and Saxe; 1976; Bloch; 1993; Franzoi and Herzog: 1987; Netemeyer et al: 1995; Richins; 1991). Television programs, magazines, and advertising in all media provide the public with a constant stream of beautiful women and handsome men.
Peirce (1990) analyzed the ideology constructed in Seventeen magazine and suggested that appearance is one of the primary concerns of a teenage girl. Petrie et al (1996) found that the number of messages aimed towards men concerning physical fitness and health in the popular press have increased over the past 30 years, as has the general popularity of health and fitness activities. Numerous products are advertised on the basis of claims of enhancing one’s appearance and/or the benefits associated with being considered physically attractive (Solomon: 1985, 1992).

A few studies have reported that physical attractiveness is positively related to benefits such as increased social popularity and power, as well as increased self-esteem (Adams: 1977; Goldman and Lewis: 1977; Jackson, Sullivan, and Hymes 1987). Krantz (1987: 304) concluded that attractive people are perceived to be "more sociable, dominant, sexually warm, mentally healthy, intelligent, and socially skilled than unattractive people." Several studies have shown that the biases toward attractive people begin in childhood (Clifford and Walster: 1973). Given the substantial benefits of attractiveness in our culture, it is not surprising that many individuals become highly concerned with their appearance and pursue greater physical attractiveness (Bloch: 1993). However, attractiveness does not come without its drawbacks. In his discussion of the attractiveness stereotype, Bassili (1981, 237) notes that although subjects "assume that good looks are instrumental to leading a socially and sexually exciting life, this lifestyle is marred by vanity and self-centeredness.

Watson et al (1999) find that (i) in comparison to people with low levels of vanity, people with high levels of vanity evaluate advertisements that emphasize appearance-related appeals more favorably; and (ii) in contrast to people with low levels of vanity, people with high levels of vanity evaluate advertisements that use sex appeals more favorably.

(ii) Vanity and Achievement Appeals:

In addition to the appearance dimension stressed above, consumers who display high levels of vanity are also characterized as having an "excessive concern for, and/or a positive (and perhaps inflated) view of one’s personal achievements" (Netemeyer et al: 1995). Krebs and Adinolfi (1975) found that physical attractiveness was related to personality characteristics such as achievement for
female college students. This suggests that an attractive female is more likely than her unattractive female peer to show achievement needs.

Netemeyer et al (1995) characterize consumers high in vanity as having positive attitudes toward the achievement of both personal and professional goals, coupled with a desire for such achievements to be recognized not only by themselves, but also by others.

Watson et al (1999) found that in comparison to people with low levels of vanity, people with high levels of vanity evaluate advertisements that use achievement appeals more favorably.

The results of the study by Wang (1999) showed that (i) vanity levels perceived through advertisements varied significantly across both the cultures and gender; (ii) cultural differences in concerns for and perceptions of physical appearance and personal achievement were dominant; (iii) gender differences were mainly on the component of appearance concern; (iv) women across the cultures were more concerned about their physical appearance than were men.

Based on Hofstede’s (1980) individualism hypothesis, Wang (2003) tested the vanity perception in Australia and China, which had the individualism scores of 90 and 20 respectively. The findings were: (i) Australians expressed higher levels of appearance concern than Chinese respondents; (ii) respondents in China were found to be more concerned about personal achievement than those in Australia; and (iii) Australians exhibited higher perception levels than their Chinese counterparts.

Workman and Lee (2010) found that (i) women scored higher on vanity physical concern, vanity achievement concern, vanity achievement view and public self-consciousness than men; and (ii) fashion change agents scored higher on vanity physical concern, vanity physical view and public self-consciousness than fashion followers.

AD AND SLENDER BODY IMAGE

Researchers have suggested that media-portrayed images of the current beauty ideal, the hallmark of which is an ultra slender body, contribute to body dissatisfaction and eating pathology among young women (Levine & Smolak: 1996; Striegel-Moore, Silberstein, & Rodin: 1986; Thompson, Heinberg, Altabe, & Tantleff-Dunn: 1999). According to the dual pathway model (Stice, Ziemba,
Margolis, & Flick: 1996), repeated exposure to ultra-slender models promotes an internalization of the thin-ideal body image for women, which in turn fosters body dissatisfaction. To quote Stice, Spangler and Agras (2001: 270), “This resulting body dissatisfaction is thought to lead to elevated dieting and negative effect, which in turn increase the risk for the onset of bulimic symptoms. Thus, thin-ideal internalization and body dissatisfaction theoretically mediate the relation of media exposure to dieting, negative effect, and bulimic symptoms.”

In addition, certain individual difference factors are thought to moderate the adverse effects of exposure to thin-ideal images. Exposure to thin-ideal images is hypothesized to produce greater than-ideal internalization, body dissatisfaction, dieting, negative effect, and bulimic symptoms in adolescents who also receive elevated pressure to be thin from their family and friends because this should facilitate the internalization of media messages (Austin & Meili: 1994). Similarly, media exposure should produce more body dissatisfaction, dieting, negative effect, and bulimic symptoms for individuals showing greater initial internalization of the thin-ideal (Heinberg & Thompson: 1995). Initially elevated body dissatisfaction is also thought to potentiate these adverse effects because individuals with body image disturbances may be more affected by the social comparison process because their perceptions of their bodies are more discrepant from the thin-ideal (Posavac et al: 1998).

A small group of studies has found that use of media with ideal body content was correlated with thin-ideal internalization, body dissatisfaction, and eating pathology (Abramson & Valene: 1991; Harrison & Cantor: 1997; Stice, Schupak-Neuberg, Shaw, & Stein: 1994; and with a contradictory result in Cusumano & Thompson: 1997). For example, Harrison and Cantor (1997) found that use of media with high ideal-body content was correlated with thin-ideal internalization, body dissatisfaction, and eating disorder symptoms among young women.

Another stream of research found that exposure to thin-ideal images resulted in moderate decreases in self-esteem and increases in depression, stress, guilt, shame, insecurity, and body dissatisfaction among women (Irving: 1990; Ogden & Mundry: 1998; Richins: 1991; Stice & Shaw: 1994). For instance, Irving (1990) randomly assigned women to view slides of thin, average, or overweight models from fashion magazines in a standardized laboratory environment and found that
participants exposed to thin models exhibited lower self-esteem and body satisfaction immediately. As an illustration, Posavac et al. (1998) found that exposure to ultra slender images from magazines only resulted in weight concerns for participants who had initially elevated body dissatisfaction. The evidence that exposure to these images results in greater body dissatisfaction and negative affect is noteworthy because these are documented risk factors for future eating pathology (Attie & Brooks-Gunn: 1989; Stice & Agras: 1998; Stice, Killen, Hayward, & Taylor: 1998; Striegel-Moore, Silberstein, Frensch, & Rodin: 1989). However, the above experiments indicate that exposure to thin-ideal images results in body dissatisfaction and negative effect, it has been suggested that these effects may be short lived (Levine & Smolak: 1996; Thompson et al: 1998).

Stice, Spangler and Agras (2001) tested whether longer term exposure results in lasting effects. Accordingly, they randomly assigned 219 adolescent girls to a 15-month fashion magazine subscription or a no-subscription condition and followed them over time. The results indicated that there were no main effects of long-term exposure to thin images on thin-ideal internalization, body dissatisfaction, dieting, negative effect, or bulimic symptoms. However, there was evidence that vulnerable adolescents, characterized by initial elevations in perceived pressure to be thin and body dissatisfaction and deficits in social support, were adversely affected by exposure to these images. Results suggest that exposure to thin-ideal images has lasting negative effects for vulnerable youth.

**CELEBRITY ADVERTISEMENT**

Marketers spend enormous amounts of money annually on celebrity endorsement contracts based on the belief that celebrities are effective spokespeople for their products or brands (Katyal: 2007). Celebrity Endorsement is viewed as a billion dollar industry in today’s era. (Kambitsis et al: 2002). Various companies are signing deals with celebrities in the hope that by using celebrities they can accomplish a unique and relevant position in the minds of the consumers. (Temperley & Tangen: 2006). Celebrity endorsement is increasingly being employed across various industries regardless of the product type. It is known to be playing the role of a signaling strategy (Mustafa: 2005). Also according to Reynolds (2000) celebrity endorsement can give a brand a touch of glamour. However, one has to weigh the potential risks vs. the potential rewards as celebrity endorsements
are always a high-risk, high-reward situation and there is always a human element that you might not know about (Miller: 1994).

According to Puja Khatri (2006), “The celebrity endorser is a panacea for all marketing woes. It is today a frequently used approach in marketing for all brand building exercises. The star appeal however needs to be perfectly blended intelligently and strategically to reap the benefits and make brands . It serves as an aid to expedite recall and influence purchase. But can also be a nightmare unless accompanied by a powerful idea, effective and impeccable positioning.” However, celebrities are known to be full of different meanings in terms of age, gender, personality and lifestyle. Celebrity endorsers bring their own symbolic meaning to the process of endorsement. Specially the cultural meanings residing in a celebrity go beyond the person itself and are passed on to the products (McCraken: 1989; Brierley: 1995).

About 25 per cent of US advertisements employ celebrity endorsers (Shimp: 2000). These actions suggest many US firms have bought into the premise that celebrity endorsers positively impact consumer attitudes towards an advertisement and the associated brand, consumers’ purchase intention, as well as other measures of effectiveness (Kaikati: 1987; Ohanian: 1991; Tripp: 1994; Goldsmith et al: 2000; Erdogan et al: 2001). There is substantial research on the topic, suggesting celebrity endorsement may materially improve financial returns for companies that employ them in their advertising campaigns (Farrell et al: 2000; Erdogan et al: 2001). In early 2001, approximately one in five marketing programs in the UK featured some type of celebrity endorser, with the number closer to one in four programs in the US (Erdogan et al: 2001).

The widespread use of celebrity product endorsement in marketing programs is not an accident. Research has found that celebrities are more effective than other types of endorsers, such as “the professional expert”, “the company manager”, or “the typical consumer” (Friedman and Friedman: 1979). To capitalise on this effectiveness, in 2003, Nike spent $US 1.44 billion on celebrity endorsers, two of whom were the basket baller Michael Jordan and the golfer Tiger Woods (CNN Money: 2003). In 2004, Gillette signed an endorsement deal with soccer celebrity David Beckham worth between $US 30 and $US 50 million (Thomaselli and Neff: 2004).
On the concept and application of celebrity endorsement Agarwal and Kamakura (1995) cite industry sources who estimate that approximately 20% of all television commercials feature famous people. Certain sets of products feature celebrity endorsements more often. They studied all endorsement contracts over the period 1980-1992. In their sample 60% of the endorsement deals involve soft drink companies and athletic shoes manufacturers. They also provide an event study that examines abnormal stock returns on the day that a company announces the signing of a celebrity for product and endorsement purpose.

Celebrity advertising is much popular because of the identity factor. Unlike the foreign counterparts Indians, for example, have always consecrated them and placed a halo behind their heads implying that their celebrities could do no wrong (Anonymous: 2008). Indeed, some people are seen to admire, imitate, and become besotted with their favorite celebrities, which forms the crux for the celebrity endorsement being quite a sought after advertisement technique (McCutcheon et.al 2003). From a theoretical perspective, celebrities are considered to be effective endorsers as because of the presence of their symbolic desirable reference group alliance (Soloman and Assael: 1987). Assael (1984) suggests that the effectiveness of the celebrity endorsement is present because of its ability to tap into the consumer’s symbolic union with its aspirational reference group. Celebrities are deemed to be referents by consumers, which refers to imaginary or actual individuals envisioned to have significant bearing on the consumer’s evaluations, aspirations and behaviour. The power of the celebrities lies in these influences that they exert on consumers, even though they themselves are physically and socially distant from an average consumer (Choi & Rifon: 2007). Consumers have a tendency to form an attachment to any object that reinforces one’s self identity or desired image, renders feelings of connectedness to a group or to any object that elicit nostalgia, and perhaps the most vivid example of this form of attachment maybe found in the consumers preoccupation with the celebrities. (O’Mahony and Meenaghan: 1998).

Vast amount of literature on the pros and cons of celebrity advertising has been found. The central theme of celebrity advertising is on how to make product sell through celebrity and how to give the right product/service to the society. Various theories have been put forward and empirical evidences support each of

Amos (2008) made a meta-analysis of celebrity endorsements by selecting 32 studies from 13 journals, unpublished dissertations and unpublished manuscripts out of 266 studies. The main observations were: (i) negative information about the celebrity exercised the largest impact (R= -0.62) on celebrity endorsement effectiveness in advertising and it was the first significant factor; (ii) there were negative information transfers to the product/brands indicating that firms should exercise extreme caution when choosing celebrity endorsers; (iii) source expertise and trustworthiness invariably contribute to source credibility in the sense that celebrity ‘trustworthiness,’ and ‘expertise’ along with attractiveness each exercised more influence on effectiveness than did the celebrity ‘credibility’ source effect; (iv) trustworthiness was the second most important predictive construct, which included trustworthy, dependable, honest, reliable and sincere characters of a celebrity; (v) celebrity expertise was the third most influential celebrity source effect and this indicated whether consumers perceived them as experts; (vi) attractiveness was the fourth most influential source effect; (vii) there was no celebrity-product fit; and (viii) US studies reported more significant findings than non-US studies indicating that consumers in non-US markets may simply be less receptive to celebrity endorsement.
As Cooper (1984) articulates “the product, not the celebrity, must be the star.” Overshadowing or better known as the ‘vampire effect’ occurs “when the celebrity endorser occurs in the presence of multiple other stimuli which all competes to form a link with the celebrity endorser.” (Till: 1996). It is a fairly familiar problem that tends to ‘water out’ the image and association present between the celebrity and the brand being endorsed and one that leads to lack of clarity for the consumer. (Evans: 1998). A universal concern here is that consumers will fail to notice the brand being promoted because they are focusing their attention on the celebrity (Erdogan: 1999).

Two new shortcomings can be seen these days what marketers call Celebrity Trap and Celebrity Credibility. Celebrity trap is when the task to find substitutes becomes more and more difficult and thus celebrity becomes an addiction for the marketing team leading to surfeit of celebrities. Celebrity credibility refers to skepticism by the consumers regarding the celebrities, because of which brand is bound to be affected, especially when there is anything negative regarding the celebrity associated with the brand in the news. (Kulkarni and Gaulankar: 2005).

Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) recommend that there are decreasing returns associated with celebrities in advertising. Also some consumers have termed celebrities to be a ‘puppet’ used by companies implying that they perceive the celebrities to be lying, when endorsing certain products. (Temperley & Tangen: 2006).

PUFFERY

Marketers are constantly searching for new and better ways to increase sales volume. At the same time, it is important for marketers to conduct themselves in ways that are considered ethical. Ethical marketing practices lead to more sales and long-term sales relationships with satisfied customers (Strutton, Hamilton & Lumpkin, 1997). However, advertisers discard ethics and embrace puffery as an advertising strategy.

Derivation of the word “puffery” reveals its Old English roots in pyffan “to swell, or seem to swell, as with pride or air”, a meaning it has retained in the word “puff”. Yet while puffery has always implied exaggeration, researchers have only recently considered its effects on consumers (Preston: 1976). Preston (2002)
describes a spectrum of puffery anchored by apparently factual claims (“the most advanced technology available”) to subjective, or non-factual, claims (“we make the best you can buy”). Puffery includes hyperbolic statements that range from the apparently factual (“the finest ingredients”) to subjective evaluations that imply superiority (“the best ever”) (Wyckham: 1987). Although subjective claims are considered weaker, Preston argues that these imply factual attributes by suggesting a view that is widely held, thus making the claim more persuasive than if it were merely one individual’s opinion (Preston: 1994; 1996). Even though it is receiving more scrutiny than in the past, puffery is still considered an acceptable practice for advertisers and salespeople. This acceptance is rooted in the free market concept of caveat emptor: let the buyer beware. Preston (1996, 1998) places puffs into six categories: best, best possible, better, specially good, good and subjective qualities.

Puffery is a marketing tool about which ethical questions have been raised. Puffery is the language used by marketers to describe their products and/or companies in advertising and sales presentations. Puffery makes positive statements about products that are not necessarily true (Preston: 1996, 1998). Evidence that consumers view advertising sceptically (Calfee and Ringold; 1994), and judgments upholding puffery as a defense against claims of misleading behaviour, have supported the view that it is innocuous exaggeration (Sacasa: 2001). Preston (1997) suggested that puffery both encourages traders to use non-verifiable factual claims and provides them with a defense, should their actions be challenged. Further, puffery may involve a deceitful statement implying “the representation, omission, or practice [that] must be material” (FTC Deception Statement 1983: 691).

Despite this evidence, several researchers have argued that puffery’s effects may be less innocent than regulators have assumed (Jacoby and Hoyer: 1982). Several studies have now concluded that consumers may not dismiss puffed claims, as previously assumed (Preston: 1967l; Preston and Scharbach: 1971; Nord and Peter: 1980; Preston: 1989; Richards: 1990; Preston and Richards: 1992; Haan and Berkey; 2002; Preston: 2002; East: 2003). Researchers (e.g. Cunningham & Cunningham, 1977; Rotfeld, 1997; Bruskin, 1971) have also shown that puffery is believed by a substantial number of consumers. Puffery can also influence consumers’ perceptions of the products about which puffed claims are made (Vanden Bergh & Bartlett: 1982; Vanden Bergh & Reid: 1980). Findings from these
studies also question whether regulators’ laissez faire approach to puffery protects consumers from deception (Richards and Preston: 1992).

Another strand of research on puffery is the level of trust. Earlier evidence suggests that puffery does not lower the trust level (Rotfeld & Rotzell: 1980), but subsequent evidences indicate the decrease in the trust of level of puffery (Preston: 1996, 1998; Haan and Berkey: 1998). The study by Amyx and Amyx (2010) find that women believe more in puffery than men, with men and women believing in puffery done by the opposite sex in the commercial. The study by Haan and Berkey (2006) reveals that the trust in puffery is positively related to age of the viewers.

AD AND RELIGION

All the economic systems in the world are rooted in religion, the gospel of which is ethics in all actions. As Sauer (1999) observes, ethics-based Christianity is still guided by the acceptance of a self-interest and notion of marketing gaining its genius from Smith’s Wealth of Nations. The application of the moral prescriptions of religious texts to economic transactions are considered in Christian and secular societies as putting economic development under the illegitimate control of religious idealism whereas the market has its own constitutive logic. As observed by Choudhury (2000a: 26), ethicizing marketing is a concept where, in the Islamic political economy the notion of ethics gets “induced on the consumption, production and distribution sides” in the market model, thus increasing the social levels of market interaction. Morphitou and Gibbs (2008:5) observe: “Interpreted in term of an Islamic market, marketing is an instrument that mobilises resources towards the moral law whereas advertising for self, contested markets and undue competition is not allowed since advertising is then an act impeding the fair flow of resources for the common good. Such advertising seeks for all to be best informed and where an undue claim by some on the resources (whose ultimate owner is God) is inappropriate, as man is trustee for its good and fair use. Marketing thus seeks to satisfy customer need within his spiritual and physical well-being.”

The role of religion in advertising stems from marketing ethics. The studies by Whysall (2000), Gaski (1999), Smith (2001), and Murphy et al (2005) have established the importance of culture and religion on marketing ethics decisions. The differences that cultural frameworks have on notions of time use (Hall: 1959, McGrath and Kelly: 1992, Bluedorn: 2002) and in consumption (Kaufman et al:

The Islamic marketing ethics have best been discussed in the literature based on the role of Islamic banking in the community (e.g. Choudhury and Hussain: 2005 and Harahap: 2003) and are similar to the view expressed by Saeed et al: (2001), Rice (1999), Marta et al (2004), and Rice and Al-Mossawi (2002) in the international marketing context of Islam, and Gibbs (2004) relating to the well-being of consumers. The few authors (e.g. Rice: 1999, Rice and Al-Mossawi: 2002, and Marta et al: 2004) who have addressed the notion of Islam in the marketing ethics literature have had relatively little concern for the epistemological position of the ideology and have chosen and shown how pragmatic methods can be used to ‘colour’ an existing neo-liberal capitalist approach with a gloss of Islam. This approach is transparent to the faithful for it concentrates on the surface value and can lead to misleading ways of seeing the world. To offer an alternative requires an understanding of the phenomenological ontology of being a Muslim and how that constructs the nature of being.

The studies by Fam et al (2004) and Waller et al (2005) are noteworthy. The study by Waller et al indicated that multi-cultural groups tended to be more liberal in their rules so as “to maintain social and cultural harmony between the various groups.” The study by Fam et al (2004) pointed towards Islamic students being more sensitive to ethical issues and Christians declaring themselves more religious intense but less sensitive to offence.
ADVERTISING BANS

In many countries, complete bans or restrictions on advertising for products which are often thought of as dangerous or associated with health problems such as tobacco and alcoholic drinks have been advocated. Motta (1997:1) observes: “The rationale behind such limitations on advertising is that advertising raises aggregate demand. By banning or limiting advertising, the desire reduction of consumption would be obtained.” However, there is very little evidence that advertising ban has a positive impact on the total demand for the goods advertised, either in general or more specifically in industries which are more frequently targeted by regulations. Duffy (1996) surveys most of the empirical research on the effect of advertising on tobacco consumption (e.g. Baltagi and Levin: 1986; Duffy: 1987; Hamilton: 1972; Johnston: 1980; McGuiness and Cowling: 1975a, 1975b; Radfar: 1985) to conclude that such effect is generally small or non-significant. Regarding alcohol advertising, Nelson and Moran (1995) found that the main effect of alcohol advertising was to reallocate brand sales with small or no effect on total consumption.

In view of several countries banning advertising of alcohol and cigarette smoking, several studies have been conducted on the impact of such bans on aggregate demand. The results are surprising. Schneider, Klein and Murphy (1981) found that the ban on broadcasting advertising of tobacco products increased consumption. Much earlier, Hamilton (1972) found that advertising bans of tobacco in several countries did not result in a decrease of cigarette consumption. Stewart (1993) found that cigarette consumption in six OECD countries for the period between 1964 and 1990 was higher after the ban was introduced. Duffy (1996) concluded that the ban was an ineffective policy instrument since it did not manage to reduce consumption.

If the conclusion is that advertising bans have not decreased the consumption level, the implication is that there is a possibility of an increase rather than a decrease of demand. In this regard, Hamilton (1972) posits that by banning advertising on cigarettes, the anti-smoking publicity has been reduced as well. Schneider et al (1981) argues that the ban brought about a decrease in advertising expenditures of the firms, which in turn led to lower cigarette prices and to an increase in demand. However, the studies by Benham (1972) and Benham and Benham (1975) found that in the states where banning of advertising of eyeglasses
was introduced, prices for eyeglasses and visits were higher than in states where such restriction did not exist in the United States. Similar results were found by Stephen (1994), who looked at the conveyance fees charged by solicitors in Scotland before and after de-regulation of advertising.

Stewart (1993) argues that by banning advertising one also eliminates the space which is devoted to the health warning and this conclusion is supported by the Duffy’s (1996) observation that consumers would not be reminded of the danger of smoking.

According to Motta (1997), “…an advertising ban is more likely to increase total consumption when advertising expenditures do not expand the total market but rather shift market shares across firms; when advertising decreases prices, as is the case for informative advertising, a ban would always decrease consumption.”

**SURROGATE ADVERTISING**

Surrogate advertising arises when there is a ban on the advertising of a product. Surrogate advertising is the promotion of a product, through indirect and devious means. Typically, an advertiser would use the trademark/brand of a product for which promotions are restricted/prohibited to promote a product the advertisement of which is permitted. A surrogate advertisements is one in which a different product is promoted using an already established brand name. According to Sushma and Sharang (2005), “The literal meaning of 'Surrogate Advertising' is duplicating the brand image of one product extensively to promote another product of the same brand. Surrogate advertising is when an advertisement has the logo or brand of another company advertised within it. One essential function that surrogate advertising does is that of brand recall and not necessarily an exercise in increasing sales. The product shown in the advertisement is called the 'surrogate.' The surrogate could either resemble the original product or could be a different product altogether, but using the established brand of the original product. The sponsoring of sports/cultural/leisure events and activities using a liquor brand name also falls in the category of surrogate advertising…”

There are products which have been banned from being advertised due to the addictive nature of the product and the harm that the product ultimately causes to the customer. The two most important products, advertising of which has been banned,
are tobacco and liquor. Most of the countries have banned the advertisements of these products. However, almost all the companies manufacturing these products use surrogate advertising extensively circumventing the legal ban. The literature on surrogate advertising has been briefly analyzed under (i) Tobacco Use; (ii) Alcohol Consumption.

(i) Tobacco Use

Consumption of tobacco is a major risk factor for mortality (WHO: 1997). Recent shifts in global tobacco consumption indicate that an estimated 930 million of the world's 1.1 billion smokers live in developing countries (Jha et al: 2002), with 182 million in India alone (Shimkhada and Peabody: 2003). By 2020, tobacco consumption has been projected to account for 13 per cent of all deaths in India (WHO: 1997; Kumar: 2000).

Smoking is not only associated with lung cancer (IARC: 1985), but is also linked to cardiovascular diseases, tuberculosis, and chronic respiratory diseases (Gajalakshmi et al: 2003). Although 20 percent of total tobacco consumption in India is through cigarette smoking (WHO: 1997), bidis (handrolled cigarettes that contain unprocessed tobacco) and hookahs are alternatives, with bidi smoking accounting for 40% of total tobacco consumption ((WHO: 1997; Shimkhada and Peabody: 2003). Tobacco is also consumed, especially in India and South East Asian countries, through chewing (for example, paan masala, gutka, and mishri) (Critchley and Unal: 2003). Chewing tobacco is a risk factor for oral cancers (Critchley and Unal: 2003). The annual incidence of oral cancer in men in India is estimated to be 10 per 100 000 (Hirayama: 1966). Regardless of how tobacco is consumed, its adverse influence on disease and mortality among individuals and populations is clear. Importantly, the distribution of tobacco consumption is not uniform. Tobacco consumption is often found to be disproportionately higher among lower socioeconomic groups (Giovino: 1995). However, tobacco consumption is often found to be disproportionately higher among lower socioeconomic groups (Giovino et al: 1995; Gupta: 1996).

Smokeless tobacco use is quite prevalent in India. It was estimated that 96 million out of 184 million tobacco users (52%) of India consumed tobacco in smokeless form (Chaudhry: 2002, 9). Use of 'Gutka' and 'Pan Masala with Tobacco' is a common modality of tobacco use especially among the youth. It has been
reported through large-scale representative surveys in Uttar Pradesh and Karnataka (2001) that 77.25 and 83.1% of users of gutka or pan masala-containing tobacco, respectively, from the two states, were below the age of 40 years (Quoted in Chaudhry: 2003).

Tobacco advertising has been highly regulated in India also. To quote Chaudhry et al (1990), tobacco advertisements had been banned on electronic media and on Government controlled print media since the 1980s. This was subsequently made stricter through Cable Television Network Act, 1995, to cover direct, as well as indirect advertising of tobacco products. However, tobacco advertisements were permitted in print media till the implementation of the comprehensive legislation on control of tobacco products (GOI: 2003). Formulation and promulgation of this legislation took a substantial time and the tobacco companies were possibly gearing themselves to circumvent such ban.

Tobacco companies use various methods of advertising for promotion of their product. Having a favorite cigarette advertisement has been observed to be associated with future smoking or likelihood of trying tobacco (Pierce et al: 1998), as well as with earlier age at smoking initiation (Unger and Chen: 1999). According to USDHD (1989), direct mechanisms by which tobacco advertising may increase tobacco consumption include (i) encouragement of initiation of tobacco; (ii) increase in daily consumption of tobacco; (iii) retarding cessation efforts; (iv) encouraging former smokers to resume. Three indirect mechanisms of such increase may happen through (i) media dependence on tobacco advertising revenues discouraging full and open discussion of its hazards; (ii) support to institutions may create political support or mute oppositions to tobacco industry's marketing and policy objectives; (iii) ubiquity of advertising may contribute to a social environment in which tobacco is perceived to be socially acceptable.

(ii) Alcohol Consumption:

Alcohol is the most preferred intoxicating substance used and thoroughly abused in India.

Alcohol use is increasing in developing countries, but reliable data are not available. Since 1970, 47 per cent of developing countries in transition and 35 per cent of developed countries have increased their consumption of absolute alcohol
per adult (WHO: 1999). Mohan et al (2001) conducted a survey in three districts (central, north and north-east India), which involved 32,000 people and they reported a prevalence of current alcohol use of 20–38% in males and of 10% among females. The most consistent finding in all of the studies was that men are the primary consumers of alcoholic beverages. However, the percentage of men who had consumed an alcoholic beverage in the previous year varied widely among different regions, ranging from 16.7 percent in Madras City in southern India to 49.6 percent in a Punjab village in northwest India (Isaac 1998). Conversely, the alcohol consumption rates among women were consistently low (i.e., less than 5 percent) (Isaac 1998). Overall, a growing number of health, social, and economic problems attributable to rising alcohol consumption have been documented throughout India (Isaac 1998).

Many countries have banned advertisements of tobacco products. However, Asunta and Chapman (2004) evidence that tobacco companies often circumvent such efforts through trademark diversification by sponsoring various activities or through surrogate advertisements.

The Cigarettes & Other Tobacco Products (Prohibition of advertisement and regulation of trade and commerce, production, supply and distribution) Act, 2003 was enacted to prohibit the consumption of cigarettes and other tobacco products which are injurious to health with a view to achieving improvement of public health in general

According to Cable TV Network Rules, 1994 Rule 7(2), "no broadcaster is permitted to show an advertisement which promotes directly or indirectly, sale or consumption of cigarettes, tobacco products, wine, alcohol, liquor or other intoxicants…" Now a new clause has been added under the act stating that "any advertisement for a product that uses a brand name which is also used for cigarette, tobacco product, wine, alcohol, liquor or any other intoxicant will not be permitted". Finally, in April 2005, the ministry resorted to a ban on surrogate advertisements of liquor and tobacco products on television. However, surrogate advertising is still prevalent in the media and the existing laws seem to have failed in reducing it.
AD AND TIME ORIENTATION

An offshoot of advertising research has been the study of the relationship between time orientation and advertising. Time orientation is “a person’s tendency to focus on, attach importance to, and consistently use as a frame of reference a particular time zone(s) in the past, present, or future (Lin and Mowen: 1994: 278).” Bergadaa (1990) posits that time orientation is the temporal zone we favor. It describes the way we mentally partition time into past, present, and future (Gonzalez and Zimbardo: 1985) and it explains our tendency to emphasize past, present, or future when making purchase decisions (Henry: 1976). Time orientation is probably acquired during a child’s socialization process (Davies and Omer: 1996). Davies and Rojas-Mendez (2002: 4) explain time orientation in these words: “If a child is taught the value of deferring instant gratification in exchange for future benefit, then a future orientation is more likely. If punishment is given contemporaneously with any misdemeanor, rather than deferred, then a present orientation is encouraged. If the household emphasizes traditional values, for example if there is a dominant grandparent, then a past orientation is more likely. As time orientation is a learnt state, then the individual’s experiences as part of society outside of the family in later life will modify any orientation acquired in early childhood, leading to the idea that societies can have dominant time orientations.”

As time itself is socially constructed, concepts of time and time orientation differ between cultures (Coser and Coser: 1963; Doob: 1971; Graham: 1981; Kelly: 1982; Gross: 1987; Ko and Gentry: 1991) and this is prominent in Western and industrial societies, particularly in the United States, where people also expect the future to be 'bigger and better' and do not like the idea of being called 'old-fashioned'. However, many European countries such as the United Kingdom lean towards a past orientation (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck: 1961). This could explain why the English, who respect tradition, do not appreciate others’ disregard for it. Agricultural societies may have a circular concept of time where events repeat in a predictable cycle. Such societies will be present or past oriented as the future is something that recurs. Both Latin American societies and Spanish-Americans have been identified as present oriented. Planning for the future (or having the hope that in the future they will be better-off than in either the present or the past) is not their way of life (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck: 1961).
Time orientation has been shown to affect attitude to time absorbing activities such as shopping and meal preparation with past oriented people having more traditional attitudes towards such activities (Davies and Madran: 1997). Future oriented people are generally endogenously deterministic, believing that they control their lives while present/past oriented individuals are more exogenously deterministic, believing that the actions of others have a strong, probably dominant influence on their futures (Bergadaa: 1990). For example, future oriented people tend to plan their own holidays while the past oriented rely on package holidays. Past oriented individuals tend to be more cautious (Settle et al: 1978) and more concerned about traditional values. The future oriented will defer gratification, investing in, for example, education in the expectation of a better future, while the present oriented are more concerned about the here and now and tend to seek instant gratification (Davies and Omer: 1996). The time orientation of individuals can be used to segment consumer markets (Chetthamrongchai and Davies: 2000; Holbrook and Schindler 1996). Differences in time orientations between cultures may explain a wide range of differences in behavior at the individual level (Lee and Liebenau: 1999; Schroeder et al: 1993).

Davies and Roja-Mendez (2002) posit that an individual’s time orientation can be expected to influence his/her attitude towards the time absorbing activity of watching television advertising and to affect behavior. Their empirical study substantiated the following hypotheses: (i) Past orientation is positively linked to the belief that advertising promotes consumerism; (ii) Present orientation is positively linked to the belief that advertising plays an important and useful role in one’s life; (iii) Future orientation is positively linked to the belief that advertising plays a positive role in one’s life; (iv) The belief that advertising plays a positive role in the individual’s life will promote an overall positive attitude towards advertising; (v) The belief that advertising has a negative social effect will have a negative effect on overall attitude towards advertising; (vi) The belief that advertising plays a positive role in an individual’s life will be negatively associated with the belief that it has a negative role in society; and (vii) A positive overall attitude towards advertising will reduce television avoidance.
Persuasion attempts are not always perceived as intrusive and met with skepticism, counterarguments, or source derogations; they can be met with support arguments (Petty and Cacioppo: 1979). Advertisements often provide relevant information and/or consumer gratifications, such as escapism, diversion, aesthetic enjoyment, or emotional release (McQuail: 1983). This psychological force, in opposition to reactance, has been termed positive social influence. Glee and Wicklund (1980) posit that persuasive communications elicit both reactance and positive social change and that the net result of any persuasive communication must take into account both forces. Given the existence of a positive social interpretation of persuasive communication, the degree to which viewers perceive benefits or gratifications from persuasion attempts should counter the perception of intrusiveness.

A possible explanation for why consumers view only some advertising as irritating is the concept of intrusiveness. Ha (1996) defines intrusiveness as the interruption of editorial content. Because the first objective of advertising is to get noticed, by definition, advertisements seek to interrupt editorial content. By interfering with the goals of consumers, advertising effectively limits the number of actions that consumers can take to attain their goals. In a survey of U.S. consumers, Bauer and Greyser (1968) identify as the main reasons people criticize advertising the annoyance or irritation it causes, which is believed to lead to a general reduction in advertising effectiveness (Aaker and Bruzzone: 1985). However, research also indicates that consumers' criticisms of advertising are generally directed at the tactics advertisers employ that make the experience of processing advertising negative, rather than at the institution of advertising itself (Bauer and Greyser: 1968; Ducoffe: 1996; Sandage and Leckenby: 1980).

Content that talks down to consumers, is overly exaggerated, or makes confusing statements has been identified as irritating to consumers (Bauer and Greyser: 1968). Advertisements that excessively stimulate consumers' senses can also elicit feelings of irritation. Consumers can become overwhelmed if the ads are too long, too loud, or too big (Aaker and Bruzzone: 1985; Bauer and Greyser: 1968). Consumers may also feel overstimulated when viewing many ads in a short time or seeing a single ad too frequently (Bauer and Greyser: 1968). The likely result is a
retreat away from the source of irritation, or ad avoidance (Krugman: 1983; Soldow and Principe: 1981). Abernethy (1991) finds that consumers often leave the room or change channels to avoid advertising. Others have shown that television viewers simply ignore ads (Clancey: 1994; Krugman and Johnson: 1991). However, what is not clear is why the same advertising is annoying to some but not all consumers.

Aaker and Bruzzone (1985) suggest that negative reactions to advertisements occur to the degree that they cause impatience. To the extent that advertisements are recognized as disturbing, negative outcomes such as irritation and avoidance may result (Krugman: 1983; Soldow and Principe: 1981). Therefore, though irritation is a possible emotional reaction and avoidance is a potential behavioral outcome in response to intrusive advertising, the perception of an ad as intrusive is something different.

Pasadeos (1990) finds that, when ads are perceived as valuable (containing useful information), they elicit less irritation and avoidance. According to Ducoffe (1995), advertising value is best understood as an overall representation of the worth of advertising to consumers. Ducoffe's (1995, 1996) studies indicate that ad value is positively correlated with the informativeness and entertainment value of an ad and that both information and entertainment value are essential for communication exchanges between advertisers and consumers. Therefore, the perception of intrusiveness may be affected when an ad offers the viewer either utilitarian or aesthetic value or both. To the degree that advertising does not provide value, it may be perceived as coercive and unwelcome. It is this feeling of intrusiveness that may drive negative reactions toward ads that are recognized as trying to persuade.

Several studies demonstrate that hard-sell tactics are less persuasive than soft-sell tactics (Glee and Wicklund: 1980; Reizenstine: 1971). Brehm and Brehm (1981) point out that the hard-sell messages reveal the intent of the persuader and therefore should be met with greater resistance. Robertson and Rossiter (1974) find that perceptions of persuasion correlated with less favorable attitudes toward the product being sold. To the degree that advertisements are recognized as simply attempts at persuasion, they could evoke a mild form of reactance.
VIEWERS’ BEHAVIOR DURING COMMERCIAL BREAKS

Television viewing is the dominant leisure activity in America (Wilbur et al: 2008) and this view seems to be valid for the other countries also. In a telephone survey Americans reported watching 2.6 hours of television per day, more than half of total leisure time (Bureau Labor Statistics: 2006). Other measures suggest time spent viewing is higher. Nielsen Media Research (2008) estimates the average adult watched 4.9 hours of television per day in 2007. Traditionally, broadcast television networks have provided viewers with nominally free programs in exchange for their attention and sold that attention to advertisers based on program audience measurements. The structure of the industry suggests that most viewers have a relative preference for programs or non-television activities over watching advertising. If this were not the case, networks would presumably refrain from producing such costly programming.

Danaher and Beed (1994) and Danaher (1995) argue that when a commercial breaks starts, individuals watching television have a number of choices: (a) leave the room; (b) switch the TV set to another channel; (c) switch the TV set off; d) watch the ads; (e) mute the sound of the TV set; (f) read a book, magazine, newspaper, etc.; g) talk with other people in the room. Some of these behaviours can be measured using electronic meters (Van Meurs: 1998). In survey studies of avoidance behaviour, individuals’ responses appear to refer more to their behaviour towards television advertising in general rather than towards specific advertisements (Speck and Elliot: 1997). This suggests that self-report surveys provide acceptable behavior (Ferguson 1994), or conservative estimates of general behavior (Bellamy and Walker 1996). Time orientation is argued to influence the type of activity a person chooses (Bergaada 1990) not how much time is allocated, although the two will inevitably converge. Measuring avoidance using a quantitative measure of time allocation is unlikely to be as relevant to time orientation as a measure of activity, such as that from Danaher. It is also evidenced that demographic and media variables appear to have a limited effect on avoidance, suggesting that attitude to advertising may be more useful in explaining such behavior (Heeter and Greenberg: 1985; Clancey: 1994; Speck and Elliot: 1997).

The ad-avoidance behavior of consumers has been studied extensively (Speck and Elliott 1997). Reports of the extent of ad-avoidance behavior have
varied. While Siddarth and Chattopadhyay (1998) report that there is a 2.7 per cent probability of zapping a particular ad, Zufryden, Pedrick, and Sankaralingam (1993) find this probability to be 5 per cent. Other studies have found much higher instances of ad avoidance.

Clancy (1994) reports an estimate of 31 per cent of avoidance of TV advertisements. Dahaner (1995) studied TV viewing behaviour over an 8-day period, for the entire time the TV was on, in each of 18 households. The results demonstrate considerable variation in TV viewing behaviour across households and between individuals. Even so, the rates for avoidance behaviour (channel switching or leaving the room) were consistently higher during ads than during programs and for both ads and programs during programs classified as entertainment compared to programs classified as informational. As informational programs were also the most frequently watched (on average, 30% of the time compared to 12% for the next most frequent program type), these programs produced the largest audiences as well as the highest levels of presence during ad breaks.

Van Meurs (1998) found that channel switching decreased audience size during advertising breaks by a net 21.5 per cent. These finding are buttressed by the large literature on advertising wear-in and wear-out. For example, Siddarth and Chattopadhyay (1998) found the probability that a household switches channels during a particular ad is “J-shaped” with a minimum at 14 exposures.

Brennan and Syn (2001) studied in-home video-recording of the TV viewing behavior of 18 families over an 8 day period in a large New Zealand city. The main findings: (i) when the TV was on for an average daily duration of 3.02 hours, the ad minutes were 37.49 minutes representing 20.69 per cent of viewed hours; (ii) the time the TV was on with no one present ranged from 5 minutes to almost 9 hours, an average of approximately 4 hours (or 15% of time set was on) over the 18 families; (iii) there was at least one person present in front of the TV, on average for 85 % of the time the TV was on; (iv) on average, males were present 43% of the time the TV was on, and females 38%; (v) about 20% of the time when the ads were on there was no one in the viewing room; (vi) of the total time ads were aired, on average males were present 45% of the time while females were present just under 42% of the time; (vii) overall, news and documentaries accounted for almost a third of the time spent in front of the TV, for both males (31%) and females (28%); (viii) the average
leaving rate per hour was 10.6 times; (ix) the average channel zipping (flicking) was 7.2 per hour during ads and 4.9 during programs; and (x) the channel zipping (flicking) during ads was higher in entertainment programs than in informational programs at 6.0 per hour and 4.0 per hour respectively.

Woltman (2003) found that subjects stopped watching 59.6% and 76.1% of all commercials in two experiments. They found that commercial watching increases with entertainment content and decreases with information content.

The study by Wilbur (2007) studied how program usage in television advertising was influenced by the perceptions of advertiser and viewer. The main conclusions of the study were the following: (i) First, viewers tended to be averse to advertising. When a highly-rated network decreased its advertising time by 10%, the model predicted a median audience gain of about 25% (assuming no competitive reactions). (ii) Second, the price elasticity of advertising demand was 2.9, substantially more price-elastic than 30 years ago. (iii) Third, advertiser preferences influenced network choices more strongly than viewer preferences. Viewers' two most preferred program genres, Action and News, accounted for just 16% of network program hours. Advertisers' two most preferred genres, Reality and Comedy, accounted for 47% of network program-hours. (iii) Third, ad-avoidance tended to increase equilibrium advertising quantities and decreased network revenues.

Wilbur, Goeree and Ridder (2008) estimated a random coefficients logit model of viewing demand for television programs, wherein time given to traditional advertising and product placement plays a role akin to the "price" of consuming a program. Data included audience, advertising, and program characteristics from more than 10,000 network-hours of prime-time broadcast television from 2004 to 2007. They found that (i) the median effect of a 10% rise in traditional advertising time was a 15% reduction in audience size; (ii) creative strategy and product category factors were important determinants of viewer response to traditional advertising; and (iii) networks had give price discounts to those advertisers whose ads were most likely to retain viewers' interest throughout the commercial break.

Teixeira, Wedel, and Pieters (2008) estimated the effects of commercial characteristics on commercial avoidance. Their findings include an inverted “U”-
shaped relationship between advertisement attention and visual complexity, and a positive effect of brand presence and duration on viewer switching. Wilbur et al (2008) find that the median effect of a 10% rise in advertising time is a 15% reduction in audience size.

Nelson, Mevvis and Galak (2009) conducted a series of six studies on television-viewing experience through commercial interruptions and arrived at the following conclusions: (i) Consumers prefer to watch television programs without commercials; and (ii) the enjoyment from these interruptions diminishes over time. Commercial interruptions can disrupt this adaptation process and restore the intensity of consumers' enjoyment. Six studies demonstrate that, although people preferred to avoid commercial interruptions, these interruptions actually made programs more enjoyable (study 1), regardless of the quality of the commercial (study 2), even when controlling for the mere presence of the ads (study 3), and regardless of the nature of the interruption (study 4). However, this effect was eliminated for people who are less likely to adapt (study 5), and for programs that do not lead to adaptation (study 6), confirming the disruption of adaptation account and identifying crucial boundaries of the effect.

In addition, several laboratory and in-home observational studies also report that viewers tend to spend relatively less time watching ads than watching programs (Gunter, et al, 1995, Allen (1965), Steiner (1966), Betchel and Atkins (1972) and Collett (1986). These findings suggest that, on average, viewers attended 60% to 70% of the time to programs, but only about 50% of the time to commercials. Furthermore, during commercial breaks, inattention and avoidance was found to be higher than in programs: muting increased by 700%, ignoring by 400%, leaving by 100% and talking by 40% (Moriarty and Everett 1994).

While there is some evidence that being more oriented to a program leads to greater likelihood that the viewers will also view the commercials (Krugman Cameron and McKearney 1992), there is also evidence that viewing behavior varies according to program type. Gunter et al (1995) found that factual programs such as news, documentaries and religion "commanded" the greatest attention. Betchel et al (1972) found that the movies were the most watched program type, with at least one person watching 76% of the time the movie was on. Differences in viewing for different program types have also been noted by other authors (e.g., Danaher and
Laurie 1998). There is less evidence that ad viewing behavior varies across program type.

Recent technological advances have further empowered viewers to avoid commercials. The advent of personal video recorders (PVRs) such as TiVo and Replay TV allow consumers greater choice in skipping ads. Industry analysts estimate that 20% of television-owning households in the United States will have access to PVR technology by 2007 and that up to 70% of PVR owners skip commercials. The diffusion of this technology threatens the business model of current television advertising, which is based on revenue generated from ad placements during breaks in programming. The impact of ad avoidance through the use of PVR technology may be upwards of $5.5 billion (Kim 2003). Industry analysts have been calling for "new business models and marketing schemes" (Kim 2003) to counter the threat posed by this innovation.

An established alternative to traditional television advertising that advertisers have been increasingly relying on is product placement. Product placements are already commonplace in sports telecasts and live entertainment, and they are appearing with increasing frequency on sitcoms and dramas (Steinberg and Vranica 2004). Prior research (e.g. Gupta and Lord: 1998; Law and Braun: 2000) has collectively illustrated a fundamental dilemma with product placements: Placements need to be displayed prominently to be recalled, but they tend to be the most persuasive when they are not "in your face." Moreover, product placements are not a particularly suitable medium for providing details of product benefits as can be done through traditional advertising. Overall, the efficacy of product placements remains to be proven.

Another format for television advertising, the simultaneous presentation of programming and advertising through the use of split screens, has also been proposed as an alternative to the traditional sequential format of television advertising. In essence, this type of advertising reduces the size of the program to fit a smaller part of the screen during the presentation of the advertisement. The simultaneous presentation of advertising and content is already prevalent in the form of banner advertising on the Internet. Currently, some television channels, especially 24-hour news channels, display multiple types of information content simultaneously. This type of advertising is also suitable for particular types of
programming, such as live sports programs that do not have natural breaks to accommodate advertising inserts. Split screen advertising has already been used on North American and European television channels during sports broadcasts such as auto racing and soccer. Simultaneous presentation of advertising and programming in the form of "pop-up" ads, similar to those widely used in on-line advertising, have also been experimented with on television channels in North America (Steinberg 2002).

**INDIAN STUDIES**

With regard to television advertising ethics in India, two notable developments have taken place. First, ample number of write-ups in newspapers, magazines and Internet has been found continuously with almost anonymity and without dating. Most of the times, these write-ups are opinionated. Only a few research papers have been published in journals and periodicals. These studies have been presented under (i) Attitude towards Advertising; and (ii) Ads Targeting Children.

(i) **Attitude towards Advertising:**

Only a few studies have been conducted on attitude towards advertising in India and the major findings of these studied have been presented below.

Varadarajan et al (1990) examined consumers’ attitudes toward marketing practices, consumerism, and government regulations. They found a high level of consumer skepticism regarding the operating philosophy of businesses, discontent with marketing practices, and support for consumer movement and greater government regulation. Further, they compared the responses of consumers in India with those of consumers in Australia, Canada, UK, Israel, Norway, and the US. Their findings suggest that consumers in countries in the "crusading" stage of the life cycle such as India seem to be more dissatisfied with the current status and strongly favor more government intervention on behalf of consumers.

Initiative Media (2002) conducted a study on consumers’ attitudes towards advertising in India and its relevance to media. They found that positive attitude towards advertising is more prevalent amongst women, middle and lower social class.
Chaudhuri and Laha (2005) conducted a small experimental study on the effectiveness of pseudo scientific jargon in advertising in India. The experiment was conducted in which one group was shown an advertisement containing a pseudo-scientific jargon, while the other group was shown the same advertisement without the pseudoscientific jargon. It was found that the use of pseudo-scientific jargon did not significantly change the attitude towards the brand and purchase intentions.

The study by Singh and Vij (2007) focused on social, economic and ethical aspects of advertising in India. The population for the study comprised the general public from seven North Indian states (Punjab, Jammu & Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Haryana and Uttranchal) plus Union Territory of Chandigarh and National Capital Territory of Delhi. The sample consisted of 873 respondents from these geographical areas. The major conclusions of Singh and Vij included the following: (1) 86.8 per cent agreed that advertising was a valuable source of product information; (2) 61.4 per cent respondents agreed advertising helped our nation’s economy; (3) 89.70 perceived that most advertising distorts the values of our youth; (4) 58.9 per cent of the respondents agreed advertising played an important role in educating children about what products are good for them; (4) Overall, 52.3 per cent agreed targeting children through advertising was highly objectionable; (5) 78.6 per cent perceived that advertising led children to make unreasonable purchase demands on parents; (6) about half of the respondents agreed that most parents are not concerned about the advertising directed at their children; (7) 71.2 per cent agreed that there should be a law to control the advertisements targeting children; (8) there was not much difference between the two genders on most of the statements; (9) 64.5 per cent of respondents agreed that there was too much sex in advertising today; (10) 52.1 per cent respondents felt that advertising persuaded people to buy things they should not buy; (11) 59.1 per cent of the respondents agreed advertisements depicting comparisons with competitor’s brands are more useful; (12) only 38.5 per cent of the respondents agreed that advertising was misleading; (13) 57.5 per cent perceived that some products/services promoted in advertising were bad for our society; (14) 45.9 per cent felt that most of the advertisements appearing in mass media were unethical and deceptive; (15) A large majority representing 71.8 per cent felt the need for a judicial regulatory body to enforce ethics in advertising; (16) 59.8 per cent of respondents perceived that
celebrities should be used in advertisements; (17) 73.2 per cent respondents felt that endorsement by celebrities in advertising increased the cost of the products; (18) about half of the respondents (50.5 per cent) agreed that celebrities were used in advertising to mislead the consumer; (19) 61.7 per cent respondents agreed that advertising helped raise our standard of living; (20) 63.2 per cent agreed advertising resulted in better products for the public; (21) only 30.9 per cent respondents agreed that in general, advertising resulted in lower prices; (22) only 31.1 per cent public agreed that mostly advertising is wasteful of our economic resources; (23) 75.4 per cent felt that in general, advertising promoted competition, which benefited the consumer; and (24) only about one third agreed that brands that were advertised were better in quality than the brands that were not advertised.

Verma (2009) posits that substantial number of advertising appeals influence consumer purchase decision positively in India. The study by Jain, Sudha and Daswani (2009) focused on the perception of consumers about celebrity advertising for retail brands in India. The findings of the study revealed that customers preferred female celebrities over male celebrities. The preference for celebrities was more for sensory products than cerebral products. Customers wanted celebrities to entertain them as well as give information pertaining to the products in the advertisements. The factors that customers perceived to be important in selecting the celebrities for retail brands were proficiency, reliability, pleasantness, elegance, distinctiveness, approachability and non-controversial.

Mukherjee (2009) examined the relationship between celebrity endorsements and brands, and the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer's buying behavior as well as how consumer makes brand preferences. He concluded that celebrity endorsement was always a two-edged sword and it had a number of positives - if properly matched it can do wonders for the company, and if not it may produce a bad image of the company and its brand.

Nelson India (2009) surveyed trust in advertising by Indians. The findings are (i) recommendations by personal acquaintances is the most trusted form of advertising by Indian respondents garnering 93 percent votes; (ii) editorial content such as newspaper articles has 87 % votes; (iii) brand websites have 78 percent votes; (iv) ads in newspapers have 77 percent votes; (v) ads in TV have 76 percent in 2007 and 74 percent in 2009 trust; (vi) ads in magazines are trusted by 73
percent; (vii) brand sponsorship has increased from 52 percent in April 2007 to 72 percent in April 2009; (viii) ads before movies is trusted by 61 percent; (ix) Online video ads are trusted by 50 per cent; (x) ads in search engine results are trusted by 50 per cent; (xi) online banner ads are trusted by 46 per cent; and (xii) text ads on mobile phones is the least trusted form of advertising with only 43 percent.

Kalro, Sivakumaran and Marathe (2010) conducted a content analysis on 203 comparative print advertisements in India. They found that as hypothesized that (i) direct comparative advertisements were used more (vis-a-vis indirect ones); (ii) differentiating claims were used more (vis-a-vis associative ones); (iii) maximal claims were higher than minimal claims; (iv) multi-brand comparisons were greater in number (vis-a-vis single-brand comparisons); (v) positive valence was preferred to negative valence; (vi) underdog brands used more comparative advertisements than top-dog brands; and (vii) contrary to expectations, both hedonic and utilitarian products used comparative advertisements equally.

Major cultural values in Chinese and Indian TV commercials were identified in the content analysis of Cheng and Pathwardan (2010). Commercials in both countries were found emphasizing modernity over tradition as a dominant value. Chinese commercials used more traditional values while Indian commercials reflected a more Western value orientation. Foreign brands used modernity more frequently than domestic brands. Foreign brands of Eastern origin used modernity even more often than those of Western origin. Product category emerged as the most important variable affecting cultural values in both countries' commercials.

(ii) Ads targeting Children:

A noteworthy feature of advertising ethics in India is its focus on advertising directed towards children. Indian children have recently attracted considerable attention from marketers because the market for children’s products offers tremendous potential (pegged at Rs. 5000 crore/$1110million) and is rapidly growing (Varadarajan: 1990). According to available industry data, the chocolate and confectionary market is estimated at Rs. 1300 crore/$290 million, the apparel market at Rs. 480 crore /$110mn and kids footwear at Rs. 1000 crore/$220mn (Bhushan: 2002). In addition to this, 54% of India is estimated to be under the age of 25 (Bansal: 2004).
A vast number of children have been found to watch television in India and prefer it to reading (George: 2003). Kaur and Singh (2003) in India, like Jensen (1995) in the U.S., also found that purchase requests by children are strongly stimulated by commercials or by a friend who has recently purchased a product. Retention of advertisements was high among children (for age group 5-15 years), but the percentage of final purchases prompted by exposure to advertisements was low at 30 per cent. This was because the most reliable source for discussion, before buying products, was the family and the child also used his own intelligence and experience to solve the purchase problem.

Mukherji (2005) compared the means of Indian, American, and Japanese mothers (Rose et al: 1998) and found that Indian mothers had the least negative attitudes toward television advertising and children’s advertising. Further, the Indian mothers had least control over their children’s television viewing of the three groups of mothers and had more discussions with their children than her Japanese counterparts. The positive attitudes of Indian mothers toward television advertising was attributed to the fact that ads were associated with fulfilling utilitarian roles in informing and educating the viewer about new product offerings.

Kapoor and Sharma (2005) studied the children's understanding of television advertising from the early childhood to the early adolescence and the role of parent-child interaction in this process. The study has revealed that (i) Indian children are not as easy a target as advertisers and critics believe; (ii) they are able to analyze TV ads and develop a realistic approach towards them; (iii) with increase in the age of the child, there was found to be a significant increase in his/her cognitive understanding of TV ads; (iv) the TV ads contributed significantly towards the Indian children's consumer socialization; (v) even parents admitted the role that TV ads played in shaping their children's buying response; and (vi) early parent-child interaction was a key element if parents did not want their child to be affected adversely by TV ads.

The study of Nawathe, Gawande and Dethe (2007) on the impact of advertising on children’s health found that (i) in 55.00 percent of the cases, the child used to influence the buying decision of the parents particularly buying clothes, food items toy, FMCG items including cosmetics and fashion accessories; (ii) 86 per cent of the parents surveyed feel that there is need for regulation as far as food related
advertisements are concerned and of these about 7 per cent say that all the food Ads targeting children should be banned, about 41 per cent say that Ads should be regulated during certain time period while children’s programs are being telecast and around 38% feel that only fast food Ads should be regulated; (iii) around 84 per cent of children watch TV while eating which may affect their food intake. (iv) around 78 per cent of the children watch cartoon channels, so they are more exposed to the characters shown there and the products endorsed by these cartoon characters which may imbibe bad food habits in children as most of the Ads projected are fast food and cold drink related and not about healthy diet; (v) around 62 per cent of the parents surveyed said that they do discuss the advertisements related to fast foods, cosmetics and funny Ads but rarely the social and health related ADs with their kids; (vi) the kids buy a particular product mostly because he has seen it on TV or some of his friends have it; (vii) an average Indian child watches 14 hrs of Television each week; (viii) more than 60 per cent of commercials promote sugared cereals, candy, fatty foods and toys; and (ix) fast food consisted of 83% of the advertised product.

The study by Priya et al (2010) examined cognitive ability of Indian children in the age group of 5 and 11 years while trying to interpret television advertisements and hence form different attitudes towards them, with a focus on the impact of children's attitudes towards television advertisements on their resultant buying behaviour. The results indicated that (i) the demand for the advertised products was heavily influenced by the children's attitude towards advertisements; (ii) the cognitive changes among the different age groups led to the formation of varying attitudes towards the advertisements.

CONCLUSION

The study of advertising ethics is both multi-disciplinary and multi-dimensional. The researchers find several approaches to study advertising ethics and they are found to be diversified. This occurs because of the absence of a model of advertising ethics. The results of the empirical studies are mixed. Broadly, the researchers conclude that the social costs of advertising outweigh the economic costs but this observation is not very tacit and only an indirect reference is made. The relevance of the present study lies in the direct observation of these economic benefits and social costs. With umpteen empirical studies on various issues related to television advertising, there seems to be some grey areas where there is a need for
meaningful research. For example, there is a host of empirical literature on the influence of culture on ad contents, but no studies have been conducted on the influence of advertising on culture. Similarly, many studies have been conducted on viewers’ time orientation for television viewing, but the impact of time orientation on attitude towards advertising has not been studied anywhere. Further, the review of literature reveals that the variables influencing the evaluation of advertising ethics have been studied individually and no comprehensive study by using the most relevant variables including viewing duration as a variable has not been researched comprehensively under one roof. In addition to these gaps, the research efforts indicate that not much serious thinking has gone into the study of television advertising ethics in India with a few sporadic attempts. With this gap in the research, the present study embarks upon the examination of the perceptions of respondents from Bangalore Urban District towards television advertising in the ensuing chapter.