CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

THE PROLOGUE

All human activities end up with consumption. To quote Goodwin et al (2008), “Consumption is the process by which goods and services are, at last, put to final use by people. Consumption is at the end of the line of economic activities that starts with an evaluation of available resources and proceeds through production of goods and services and distribution of goods and services (or the means to acquire them) among people and groups. At last, the goods and services themselves come to be used.” As Smith (2001) said: “Consumption is the sole end and purpose of all production and the welfare of the producer ought to be attended to, only so far as it may be necessary for promoting that of the consumer.” However, the consumption pattern is not uniform across countries and regions. To quote World Resource Institute (2008): “The average US resident in a year, consumes 275 pounds of meat, uses 635 pounds of paper, and uses energy equivalent to 7.8 metric tons of oil. Forty-five years ago, the average American ate 197 pounds of meat, used 366 pounds of paper, and used energy equivalent to 5.5 metric tons of oil. In the U.S. there is about 1 passenger car for every two people. Europeans have about 1 passenger car for every 3.1 people. Developing countries have, on average, about 1 passenger car for every 49 people.” It is also gratifying to note that this massive level of consumption in the United States and reducing a huge gap in consumption levels in developing countries is virtually not impossible, because of the presence of mass production realized through technology on one hand and the result of affluence on the other (Galbraith: 1967). This massive consumption spirit is deep-rooted in the very basics of human wants, which are cogently captured in Maslow’s (1954) hierarchy of needs consisting of (1) Physiological needs, such as hunger and thirst; (2) Safety needs, for security and protection; (3) Social needs, for a sense of belonging and love; (4) Esteem needs, for self-esteem, recognition, and status; and (5) Self-actualization needs, for self-development and realization. The Maslow’s needs hierarchy has been put into practice and the central objective is to make people believe that a luxury is no longer a luxury but a necessity without which no one can live happily. An American retailing analyst named Victor Lebow proclaimed: “Our enormously productive economy...demands that we make
consumption our way of life, that we convert the buying and use of goods into rituals, that we seek our spiritual satisfaction, our ego satisfaction, in consumption...We need things consumed, burned up, worn out, replaced, and discarded at an ever increasing rate (Quoted in Sorokin and Berger:1939).” This gigantic mass consumption requires mass communication led by television advertising.

THE PIVOTAL ROLE OF ADVERTISING

The technology-driven mass production requires mass consumption, which is possible only through mass persuasion. The vehicle for mass persuasion is advertising, which is done through various media like print media, bill boards, radio, television, Internet and the like. The mantra of advertising is cogently presented by Goodwin et al (2008: 7-8), when he says: “Advertising is often justified by economists as a source of information about products and services available in the marketplace. While it certainly plays that role, it does much more as well. Advertising appeals to many different values, to emotional as well as practical needs, to a range of desires and fantasies. The multitude of advertisements that we encounter carry their own separate messages; yet on a deeper level, they all share a common message – they are selling the joys of buying, promoting the idea that purchasing things is, in itself, a pleasurable activity.”

Thus advertising occupies a pivotal role in not merely disseminating mere information but in making people desire, want and demand the products and services marketed. In fact, it is the bedrock on which any idea is commercialized. The glimpse of this pivotal role of advertising can also be grasped, if one looks at the evolving definitions of advertising from a passive role to an active role and then on to a dream creation role in the social, cultural and economic fabric of an economy. Advertising has a passive role, when Duncan and Moriarty (1999: 44) define it as “…one-way communication: creating and sending messages…” or when Nwagwu (2006) defines it as “Any place an ‘identified’ sponsor pays to deliver the message through a medium…” Advertising may be characterized as having an active role when it has persuasion as its central theme, when Meyers-Levy and Malaviya (1999: 45) define it as “…persuading target consumers to adopt a particular product, service, or idea.” Advertising has a dream creation role when a selling proposition has been pushed into consumer minds by causing a change in the belief status
through attitudinal changes and this view is well supported in the definition by Jones (2002: 36), who defines advertising as any activity which “…increases people’s knowledge and changes people’s attitudes.” Hence advertising has moved from its role as an *instrument* to its role as an *institution* through the evolutionary phases of passive role (information provisioning), active role (persuasion) and dream creation role (attitudinal change). This pivotal role of advertising has been tried to be achieved through mass persuasion and mass hypnotism with the lowest cost. This assertion is well supported, when Reeves (1961:121) defined advertising in these words: “Advertising is the art of getting a unique selling proposition into the heads of the most people at the lowest possible cost.”

But not all academics accept that advertising works in an informative-persuasive attitude-changing hierarchy. Krugman (1965: 353) pointed out 40 years ago that much of the content of TV advertising did not fit the traditional persuasion models prevalent at the time when he observed: “Does this suggest that if television bombards us with enough trivia about a product we may be persuaded to believe it? On the contrary, it suggests that persuasion as such … is not involved at all and it is a mistake to look for it… as a test of advertising’s impact.” A decade later Lyle and Hoffman(1972), contesting the failure of persuasion-based theory to explain many of the facets of marketing, stated: “Advertising… is not as powerful as is sometimes thought, nor is there any evidence that it actually works by any strong form of persuasion or manipulation.” However, these observations seem to be dying down.

**EVOLUTION OF ADVERTISING**

But the present pervasive role of advertising culminating in dream creation is well supported, if one looks at the evolution of advertising. In ancient times, the most common form of advertising was by word of mouth, however, commercial messages and political campaign displays have been found in the ruins of Pompeii (Nwagwu: 2006). Egyptians used papyrus to create sales messages and wall posters, while lost-and-found advertising on papyrus was common in Greece and Rome. Wall or rock painting for commercial advertising is another manifestation of an ancient media advertising form, which is present to this day in many parts of Asia, Africa, and South America. For instance, the tradition of wall paintings can be traced back to Indian rock art paintings that go back to 4000 BC. As printing developed in the 15th and 16th century, advertising expanded to include handbills. In
the 17th century, advertisements started to appear in weekly newspapers in England (Nwagwu: 2006). The early history of advertising has been briefly presented by Goswami (2008) in these words: “The earliest known evidence of advertising is found in Babylon. A Babylonian clay table of 3000 B.C. bears inscription of an ointment dealer, a scribe, and a shoemaker…The Greeks relied on town criers, accompanied by a musician to keep him in the right key, to announce the arrival of ships with cargoes of wines, spices, and metals…Innkeepers of France used town criers to blow horns, gather a crowd and distribute samples to promote their wines…William Caxton of London printed the first ad in English in the form of a handbill of the rules for the guidance of the clergy at Easter. This handbill was nailed to the doors of the churches…The first ad in any language to be printed in a disseminated sheet appeared in a German News pamphlet in about 1525, and this ad was about the virtues of a mysterious drug.”

Today, advertising continues to evolve with such innovations as "guerrilla" promotions, which involve unusual approaches such as staged encounters in public places, giveaways of products such as cars that are covered with brand messages, and interactive advertising where the viewer can respond to become part of the advertising message. This reflects an increasing trend of interactive and "embedded" ads, such as via product placement, having consumers vote through text messages, and various innovations utilizing social networking sites. Commercial advertising media can include wall paintings, billboards, street furniture components, printed flyers, radio, cinema and television ads, web banners, web pop-ups, skywriting, bus stop benches, magazines, newspapers, town criers, sides of buses, taxicab doors and roof mounts, musical stage shows, subway platforms and trains, elastic bands on disposable diapers, stickers on apples in supermarkets, the opening section of streaming audio and video, and the backs of event tickets and supermarket receipts. The modern day advertising does not stop here and it extends to covert advertising embedded in other entertainment media, popularly known as product placement. To conclude, the present day world seems not to move without advertisement being noticed willingly or unwillingly. In fact, Aaker et al (1992) argue that advertising is an institution by itself in the modern socio-economic system in these words: “Advertising is more than advertisements alone. It is an institutional part of our
society, a social force affecting and affected by our style of life (Quoted by Aaker and Batra: 1992).”

TELEVISION IN OUR LIVES

Advertising is disseminated through print, billboards, radio, television and Internet. Of all these media, television is highly pervasive and in fact owning a television, more than a computer or a laptop, has become a household status symbol in all societies. It has also been reported that television has brought about increased cultural homogeneity in dress, customs and language (Robinson: 1972, 419). Television is undeniably a major component of modern society. In the United States, it is not only the dominant media activity but is also considered the most exciting and influential media type (Putnam: 2000; TBA: 2006). However, according to Nakanishi (1965), television changes the way in which man perceives and reacts to his environment, and social critics believe that this pervasive form of mass media debases taste and increases tolerance of violence.

In fact, television has changed our use of time far more than any other technological development (Robinson 1990). Television plays three major roles in our lives: (i) Personal Life; (ii) Family Life; and (iii) Social Life. However, all these three facets of human life affected by television are interrelated. These roles have been briefly analyzed below.

(i) Personal Life:

The personal life of individuals including children seems to be disturbed by a preference to view television. The research on this disturbance of personal life has mainly moved on three streams: (a) Change in Lifestyles; (b) Children’s Lifestyles; and Children’s Food Habits.

(a) Change in Lifestyles:

For many, watching television has become the main leisure experience (Davies and Rojas-Mendez: 2002). Much of the daily life of both children and adults is performed to the accompaniment of the television set. Schramm et al (1961) state that children seem to take television for granted. For the most part, people appear to use television to enrich their lives and/or to fill time. For many people, simply having television to help them pass or fill time is “enrichment.” According to LoSciuto (1972), the overwhelming consensus is that television viewing is primarily
done for relaxation and enjoyment. Curiously, Steiner (1963) found that many respondents expressed embarrassment about the possibility that they might use television for relaxation and enjoyment. Folley (1968) found that many used television to help them forget pressures and problems. Weiss (1970), Bogart (1957), and Harper, Munro and Himmelweit (1970) and long back, Lundberg, Kanarovski and McInerny (1934), and Robinson (1969, 1970) found people spending less time on sleeping, listening to the radio, playing sports and games, talking, pleasure driving. Adults with insomnia were found to engage in increased amounts of television viewing compared with normal sleepers (Marchini et al: 1983).

Oppenheim and Vince (1958) opine that the arrival of the television set obviously displaced leisure activities which are “functional equivalents,” most notably radio listening and movie attendance, and to a lesser extent the reading of newspapers, magazines, and books. To cite Coffin (1955), with the introduction of TV, (i) the total time devoted to media by the respondents increased from 190 minutes per day to 267 minutes per day; (ii) the time devoted for reading of magazine decreased from 17 minutes per day to 10 minutes per day; (iii) the reading of newspapers decreased from 39 minutes per day to 32 minutes per day; and (iv) the listening to radio decreased from 122 minutes per day to just 52 minutes.

(b) Children’s Lifestyles:

Television is a powerful influence in the lives of most children. Children’s television-viewing habits have been reported to be associated with a variety of significant behavioral consequences, including obesity and poor eating habits (Locard, Mamelle and Beillette:1992), decreased physical activity and physical fitness (Durant:1994), and impaired school performance (Gupta, Saini and Achariya:1994). An association between children’s exposure to violent images on television and subsequent aggressive behavior also has been documented repeatedly in the literature. In contrast, one retrospective pediatric study showed no correlation between increased amounts of television viewing and shortened sleep duration (Weissbluth et al: 1981). However, a nine-month prospective study showed that the introduction of television viewing into the lifestyle of children in India was associated with an increased incidence of sleep disturbances (Gupta, Saini and Achariya: 1994). It should be emphasized that this association between television-viewing habits and sleep disturbance emerged even in a sample population in which
many of the reported television-viewing practices, such as average amount of
 television viewed per day, and television viewing during meals were of a modest
 proportion compared with reports from other studies (Taras et al: 1990) and in which
television viewing appeared to be overall closely monitored by parents (Taras et al:
1990; Nelson: 1990). There are also evidences of association between violent and
provocative or disturbing television program content and negative effects on
children’s behavior (Gupta, Saini and Achariya: 1994; and Susser: 1973).

(e) Children’s Food Habits:

   Many individual, social and environmental factors are thought to influence
young people’s eating habits, one of which is television (TV) viewing (Story et al:
2002). Recent results of the 2001/02 Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children
(HBSC) survey, a World Health Organization (WHO) cross-national study on health
and health behaviors among adolescents in 35 countries and regions, indicate that
some 30% of 11–15-year-old boys and 37% of 11–15-year-old girls consume fruit
on a daily basis, 34% of girls and 28% of boys consume vegetables daily and 32% of
However, TV viewing has been shown to coincide with extra calorie intake during
viewing. As reported by Gerbner et al (1982), ‘One thing viewers do while watching
is eat.’ Moreover, while watching TV one is exposed to an increasing number of
advertisements of food high in fat, sugar and salt, whereas food items such as fruit
Additionally, the marketing strategies used in TV commercials may lead to
misconceptions about the nutritional value of the foods (Boynton-Jerrett et al: 2003)
and are often more focused on psychological and emotional needs rather than hunger

   According to Coon et al (2001) and Boynton-Jarrett et al (2003), it is
possible that these marketing strategies may force less popular foods out of a typical
diet in the long term. Coon and colleagues demonstrated that children from families
with TV on during two or more meals a day consumed fruit and vegetables less
frequently and pizza/salty snacks more frequently than did children from families in
which the TV was either not on at meals or on for just one meal. They suggest that
families who turn the TV off during meals are separating the act of eating from the
food culture promoted on TV and are less likely to consume convenience foods which generally contain less fruit and vegetables.

Several studies have documented the increased intake of snack foods and calories among adolescents who watch more TV (Woodward et al: 1997; Van-Den: 2000). The relationship with fruit and vegetable consumption is, however, less clear. For example, Lowry et al (2002) found strong associations between TV viewing and eating insufficient fruit and vegetables for white students. No associations were found for black students and an inverse association was found for Hispanic male students, suggesting that the influence of TV on food habits could be gender-, race- or culture-specific. Stroebele and de Castro (2004) find that those who watch more TV are more likely to consume sweets and soft drinks on a daily basis and less likely to consume fruit and vegetables daily, although the latter associations are not so apparent among Central and Eastern European countries.

(ii) Family Life:

The impact of television in our lives can be gauged, if one looks at how television is used in the home. Rideout et al (2003) reported that mothers felt the choice of programs more important than the amount of time their children spent viewing. Niven (1960) found that children controlled the set in the afternoons but in evenings, decisions were made by the family as a unit. Chaffee, McLeod and Atkin (1970) reported that only ten per cent of the families had established viewing rules for the children. Greenberg and Dominick (1969a) found that children in poor homes reported less adult control over viewing than their more fortunate peers. While studying the impact of television in UK, Belson (1960, 1969) found that (i) families with television sets engaged in considerably more entertaining in their homes that did nonowners though owners were far less involved in social activities outside the home; and (ii) there were considerable decreases in theater and ballet attendance and in visits to places of historical interest. While studying the household time management with technology-based household work vis-à-vis installation of television set, Robinson (1972: 428) observes: “Cross-national data…indicates that time spent on housework is not grossly affected by the acquisition of home appliances like washing machines and dryers. Rather, it appears that time saved on these basic chores as a result of laborsaving devices is quickly channelled into other activities designed to improve the apppearance of the home. Thus, at least in the
temporal sense, television appears to have had a greater influence on the structure of daily life than any other innovation in this century.” Further, children form a different segment in the family life. Children are often alone when they watch television, meaning that no adult is present to help them process the marketing messages permeating the medium (Roberts et al: 1999). Thirty-two percent of children aged two to seven have a television in their bedrooms, as do 68 per cent of children ages eight to eighteen and 26 per cent of children under two (Roberts et al: 2005).

(iii) Social Life:

Television was once championed as the “electronic hearth,” which would bring people together. Indeed, television shows provide a common experience, often affording even total strangers a social connection on which to initiate conversation. This effect blossomed in the 1950s when two-thirds of all Americans tuned in to watch “I Love Lucy (Putnam: 2000)” with their families. However, the social connection seems to be missing in recent years. According to Nathan et al (2008: 85), “… a fundamental shift in how we consume media is degrading such social interactions significantly–an increasing number of people are no longer watching television shows as they broadcast. Instead, these users are favoring non-live media sources, such as Digital Video Recorders (DVRs), Video-On-Demand services (e.g. Apple’s iTunes Video Store)…” To complicate matters further, televisions are outnumbering people in the average home; less than a fifth of households have a single television (Fairbank: 1995; Associated Press:2006) and hence four-fifths of the households have more than one television set. This is leading to a decline in ability for people to interact and is eroding once strong social ties. As observed by Putnam (2000), people are increasingly watching TV without their families, with some studies suggesting at least half of Americans usually watch alone. Long back, Cunningham and Walsh (1959) reported that television in homes reduced the gregarious activities considerably: attending meetings, going out to dinner, attending sports events. Extended and frequent television viewing also has been shown to decrease the time and opportunity available for social interaction within the family (Robinson: 1972).

Highlighting that television shows act as a medium for social interaction, Putnam (2000) posits that television shows often act as a conversation starter,
enabling the “water-cooler effect.” However, this positive effect is fast vanishing. The evidences of this decline are in plenty. For example, DVRs are already found in 20 per cent of American homes (Leichtman Research Group: 2007) and worldwide adoption is predicted to reach 250 million users by 2011 (ABI Research: 2006). Further, on-demand commercial video downloads are also booming, jumping 255 percent from 2005 to 2006. Similarly, Netflix, the most popular DVD rental company, has experienced nearly 50 per cent growth in subscribers annually since 2002 (Netflix: 2007). It has been posited that the arrival of television has reduced the quality of social life.

To conclude, Roberts et al (2005: 1) observe: “Few would deny that media play a central role in the lives of today’s children and adolescents. Their homes, indeed their bedrooms, are saturated with media. Many young people carry miniaturized, portable media with them wherever they go. They comprise the primary audience for popular music; they form important niche audiences for TV, movies, video games, and print media (each of these industries produces extensive content targeted primarily at kids); they typically are among the early adopters of personal computers (indeed, of most new media) and are a primary target of much of the content of the World Wide Web.” In spite of the growing popularity of the Internet and computer games, television is still the primary electronic medium with which children engage (Roberts et al: 2005).

EXPOSURE TO TV ADS

Today, majority of the advertising is distributed by the media. Television being the most preferred medium by advertisers, many researchers find that exposure to television is virtually inevitable in modern life (Dunn and Barban: 1986; Green: 1989, 1990). According Goldstein and Tiglao (1989), “Despite increasing competition from the internet, television usage has been steadily increasing and is now at its highest level since viewing data was first collected, a 50% increase since the 1950s, and a 12% increase from 1996.”

A concomitant feature of television is the time devoted to advertisements, popularly going in the name of commercial breaks. There is a general feeling that the time devoted for commercial breaks has increased considerably over the years and the time devoted to commercial breaks is positively related to the viewing duration. It is also true that television watching duration is a country- and culture-
specific. On average, American children spend almost as much time per week watching television (25 hours) as they spend in school (American Academy of Pediatrics: 1990). It was estimated that children in Norway watched about 2 hours of television/day (Sprafkin, Gadow and Abelman: 1992). In 1999, 97 per cent of Swedish children and adolescents between the ages of 9 and 16 watched an average of more than 2 hours of television/day (Livingstone Holden and Bovill: 1999). According to Rydell (2006), an average of 19 per cent of boys between 11 and 15, and 17 hours of girls viewed television for at least four hours/weekday. In Australia, about 30 per cent of advertisement shown during children’s television viewing time was about food (Hill and Radimer: 1997). A study among 13 developed countries found that Australia had the highest amount of food advertisements per hour (Dibb: 1996). In recent years, the television watching duration has been studied along the number of advertisements viewed. Roberts, Foehr and Rideout (2005) estimate that the number of exposures are higher at 3,000 ads per day.

**MAGNITUDE OF AD EXPENDITURE**

Opportunities to advertise on television have grown over the past decades due to technical developments such as cable and satellite, the introduction of commercial television and the growing number of television channels (Van Meurs 1999). Consequently, TV advertising expenditures have been increasing globally.

**TABLE 1.1**

**GLOBAL MEDIA AD EXPENDITURE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>Figures in US$ Billion</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Amt.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Amt.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Amt.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>11.81</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>11.06</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>9.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.68</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cinema</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6.41</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>8.26</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>10.09</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>12.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>25.79</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>24.08</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>22.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>35.60</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>36.32</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>36.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>508</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** (1) Totals are lower because of non-availability for some countries; (2) Values at current prices and currency conversion at 2008 rates; and (3) The figures for 2011 are approximated.

**Source:** Adapted from Zenith Optimedia
Table 1.1 presents an overview of global ad expenditure of the media for the period between 2007 and 2011. Even though the global ad expenditure is decreasing in recent years due to economic slowdown, the television ad expenditure has increased from $181 billion in 2007 to $187 billion in 2011 with the corresponding shares of 35.60 percent and 37.48 percent respectively. If the share of newspaper advertising has decreased from 25.79 per cent in 2007 to 20.24 per cent in 2011, the share of internet advertising has increased tremendously from just 8.26 per cent in 2007 to 14.43 per cent in 2011. Lastly, it may be observed that till internet advertising picks up, television advertising continues rule the advertising world.

### TABLE 1.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Media</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rs. Crore</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Rs. Crore</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine</td>
<td>1244</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>1495</td>
<td>5.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>702</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>811</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cinema</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>1350</td>
<td>5.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>1125</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>8688</td>
<td>38.24</td>
<td>10018</td>
<td>37.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>10113</td>
<td>44.51</td>
<td>11335</td>
<td>42.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22722</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>26533</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per Capita Media Exp. (Rs.)</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per Capita TV Ad Exp. (Rs.)</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ORG-MAP COFT; Agency estimates; 2005-2006: TAM ADEX DATA; Pitch Magazine, IAMAI; Zenith Optimedia

The trend of media ad expenditure in India is entirely different from global trend as portrayed in Table 1.2. The total media ad expenditure in India increased from Rs. 22,722 crore in 2007 to Rs. 36732 crore in 2010 representing an increase of 61.66 per cent over 2007. The television ad expenditure increased from Rs. 10,113 crore in 2007 to Rs. 14,528 in 2010 and this represented an increase 69.61 per cent over 2007. However, the percentage share decreased from 44.51 in 2007 to 39.56 in 2010 for the television advertising. This decrease in the share of television advertising seems to be temporary due to economic slowdown. Further, the per capita television ad expenditure in India increased from Rs. 89 in 2007 to Rs.122 in 2010 and the increase stood at 37.08 per cent. Television advertising is dominant medium in Indian economy and it is followed by newspaper advertising, and it
continues to provide commercial stimuli in changing or maneuvering the Indian psyche. Since television is the main medium for advertising in many countries, advertisements occupy significant amounts of broadcast time and as total ad expenditure and the amount of television viewing increase people face allocating an increasing amount of time to watching ads (Davies and Rojas-Mendez: 2002). For example, in the USA, it is estimated that an average American sees from 1,200 to 3,000 messages a day, or, more conservatively, 3,000 a week.

**TELEVISION AND ADVERTISEMENTS**

Long back, Moriarty et al (1991) posited that “If your advertising goes unnoticed, everything else is academic.” The goal of advertising is to present products or services in an effective manner so individuals will purchase them. Zanot states that there really is only one goal of advertising, “to sell more stuff to more people more often for more money” (Mittal: 1994). Advertisers seek to promote their products on shows that attract the most viewers especially those between the ages of 18 and 34 years. According to former CBS programming chief, Jeff Sagansky, “The number one priority in television is not to transmit quality programming to viewers, but to deliver consumers to advertisers.” (Kim:1994, 1434). Many advertisers believe that younger viewers are more easily influenced by commercials than are older viewers with more established purchasing habits (Hamilton: 1998). However, television advertising is effective only if viewers see the commercials. After all, if people do not see a commercial for a particular product, then the advertisement cannot affect their likelihood to buy that product. In turn, even if people do see a commercial, they must at least remember the product advertised and the content of the commercial in order for it to affect purchasing behavior. Thus, advertisers seek to make their commercials memorable to their audience (Harris: 1999).

According to Bushman (2005:702), “The goal of advertising is to present goods or services in an effective manner so individuals will purchase them. Television is an ideal medium to advertise goods or services because so many people own TV sets.” In the United States, there are more TV sets than there are toilets (American Psychological Association, 1993). In India, a household may not have an independent toilet or own toilet, but it has a television set. Television reaches more of an advertiser’s potential customers than does any other medium,
and adults spend significantly more time with television than with any other medium (Television Bureau of Advertising (TBA): 2003).

However, product and service advertising is narrow view of advertisements occupying prime position in television. Watching TV and TV advertising are both significant time-absorbing activities. Some viewers see advertising as saving them time by informing them about products and services (Heyder et al: 1992) and hence watch the advertisements. Others may see advertising as a necessary inconvenience (Mittal: 1994), something they have to accept in exchange for the entertainment they receive from the programs themselves (Reid and Solely: 1982).

It is posited that it serves various other goals of an advertiser. To start with, a large body of work indicates that advertising has a direct effect on various firm performance metrics including sales (Leone: 1995), profit (Erickson and Jacobson: 1992) and firm value. Reinforcing these performance rewards to advertising, developments in brand equity (Aaker: 1996; Keller: 1998) suggest that advertising efforts of firms create consumer and distributor brand equity, an intangible market-based asset, with important strategic and performance implications. For example, increased advertising and the resulting brand equity, increase the differentiation of a firm’s products (Kirman and Zeithaml: 1993) and make them less easily substitutable (Mela et al: 1997). Increased brand equity also increases price premiums (Ailawadi et al: 2003) and lowers price sensitivities (Kaul and Wittink: 1995; Sethuraman and Tellis: 1991). Further, increased advertising, with resultant higher brand equity produces an asymmetric sales response to sales promotions (Blattberg et al: 1995) such that highly advertised brands are affected less (than less advertised brands) by competitors’ sales promotions and continuous longitudinal repetition enhances brand recall and thus avoids the problem of consumer perception of obsolescence of the non-advertised.

In addition to the benefits of advertising and brand equity in current product-markets, advertising and the resulting brand equity also strengthen and stabilize the firm’s performance in new product markets. For example, the brand equity of current flagship brands generate greater receptiveness of consumers and distribution channel partners to new product introductions (Kaufman, Jayachandran and Rose: 2006) and will enable the firm to migrate customers to more profitable products and/or cross-sell products to existing customers (Kamakura et al: 2003).
Thus, as suggested by Srivastava et al (1998), brand equity may function as financial hedging contracts when firms enter new markets with new technologies. In addition, brand equity also creates both consumer and distributor loyalty, acts as a barrier to competition and provides bargaining power over distributors—benefits that insulate a firm’s stock from market downturns and, hence, lower its systematic risk (Veliyath and Ferris: 1997).

Finally, a firm’s brand equity may also lower its systematic risk by serving as a capital market information channel to the firm’s stockholders (Frieder and Subrahmanyam: 2005; Grullon et al: 2004). Grullon et al. (2004) reported that firms’ with higher advertising had higher liquidity and greater breadth of stock ownership. Frieder and Subrahmanyam (2005) reported that a firm’s increased brand perceptions (consistent with higher brand equity discussed above), a direct outcome of its increased advertising, increased ownership of the firm’s stock by individual investors, relative to institutional investors, because of individual investors’ preference for stocks with higher quality information (advertising plays an information role for a firm’s stockholders).

ADVERTISING LIFE CYCLE THEORY

Greyser (1973: 8) postulates a life cycle wherein an advertising campaign moves with repetition from a period of effectiveness, and presumably audience acceptance, to a period of irritation. Specifically, Greyser visualizes this life cycle under these six stages: (i) Exposure to the message on several occasions prior to serious attention (given some basic interest in the product); (ii) Interest in the advertisement on either substantive (information) or stimulus (enjoyment) grounds; (iii) Continued but declining attention to the advertisement on such grounds; (iv) Mental tune-out of the advertisement on grounds of familiarity; (v) Increasing re-awareness of the advertisement, now as a negative stimulus (an irritant); and (vi) Growing irritation. Further, Greyser (1973: 6) noted: “Consumers dislike only 21 per cent of the advertisements for products used (19 per cent annoying, 2 per cent offensive, whereas they dislike 37 per cent of advertisements for products they don’t use (29 per cent annoying, 8 per cent offensive). For brand preferrers, the tendency is even more marked: only 7 per cent of advertisements for one’s favorite brand are disliked compared with 76 per cent of the advertisements for “brands wouldn’t buy (only product users included).”
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A commercial consists of different scenes that are structured to attract and retain consumers’ attention and to elicit a range of consumers responses that continuously shift as the commercial unfolds (e.g. Alwitt: 2002; Hazlett and Hazlett: 1999; Lang: 1995a; Reeves, Thorson, and Schleuder: 1985; Reeves and Thorson: 1986; Reeves et al: 1985; Vanden Abeele and MacLachlan: 1994).

Advertisers are convinced that advertising “works”; as a result, they increase their marketing budgets to compete for space and time for advertisement in a variety of media (Wongbiasaj and Freeouf: 2000). Advertisements may be constructed to have several functions, e.g., to inform, to advise, to subvert, or to warn. Many advertisers seek to maximize sales of products or services by using every communication process to create need which has not yet existed (Toolan: 1988; Myers: 1994). Further, the floodgates of advertisements are unleashed to several reasons. For example, the unleashing of advertisements may be due to several managerial strategies and approaches, which consist of persuasion strategy, all-you-can-afford strategy, competitive parity strategy, percentage of sales strategy and hence these find their expression in advertising budgets (Dean: 1951, 363-374).

The more customers are exposed to the advertisements, the more their perceptions, ways of thinking, values and behaviors are affected, conditioned, influenced or even manipulated by them (Wongbiasaj and Freeouf: 2000). The result of the huge and still growing number of commercial stimuli (Joyce: 1991) may be one of the reasons for the upward trend in consumers’ avoidance of advertising. Hence the willingness of consumers to pay attention to TV advertising is decreasing (Van Meurs: 1999). For example, two recent studies show that 13 per cent (Siddarth and Chattopadhyay: 1998) to 81 per cent (Tse and Lee: 2001) of consumers avoid television commercials. Because, as most theoretical advertising models postulate (e.g. Rosbergen: 1998; Vakratsas and Ambler: 1999), consumers’ exposure and attention are necessary conditions for ad effectiveness, it is of utmost importance to advertising agencies, advertisers and media agencies to get and keep consumers’ attention at every key moment in the commercial (Kover: 1995).

In a recent survey, Grusell: 2007, 87) 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). Even if there are different opinions about advertising, it is well documented that advertising creates debates as well as stimulates people to form opinions about it. As a consequence, this means that advertising, as well as media, has a self evident place in our everyday life. Since media use is one of our most common practices (Mediabarometer: 2005), the everyday exposure to advertising increases. This constant exposure to advertising in media, especially in television, has resulted in a certain attitude in viewers. The study of this attitude of the public is popularly labeled as ‘attitude towards ad,’ popularly labeled as ‘Aad.’” In fact, this attitude towards ad is broadly encoded in ‘advertising ethics,’ in the sense that attitude towards ad connotes a general feeling of the public and advertising ethics represents judging the rightness and wrongness of advertising.

A general feeling is whether such a high magnitude of commercials is warranted ethically. Moreover, this flooding of commercials in television smacks of any reality or truth in the sense they are false, deceptive, and misleading. It is also true that although advertising is highly regulated voluntarily and statutorily throughout the world, the ad regulation has virtually become a paper tiger and the regulatory authorities are mute observers of the chicanery attitude of the advertisers and the media. This onslaught of television advertising is more serious in emerging countries like India, where gullible general public is likely to the advertising messages at their face value. In fact, advertising indulges in creating virtual dreams, which can never be realized. However, advertising practitioners and academicians are becoming more aware of and concerned about the ethicality of bombarding people with advertisements (Reidenbach and Robin: 1988). This ethicality of advertising has been amply researched either under attitudes towards advertising (popularly labeled as Aad) or under the subsets of Aad, which may broadly include information content, economic benefits, falsity, deception, misleading, materialistic outlook, abuse of women, puffer, non-receptivity, viewing behavior, regulatory impact and the like. In fact, one of the hot topics of the 21st century is advertising ethics, which goes along with governance issue.
DIMENSIONS OF AD ETHICS

Many textbooks on advertising (e.g. Belch and Belch: 1993; Krugman, Reid, Dunn, and Barban: 1994; Wells, Burnett, and Moriarty: 1992) and marketing ethics (e.g. Laczniak and Murphy: 1993; Smith and Quelch: 1993) now include a chapter on advertising ethics. There is a wealth of research on advertising ethics, with studies motivated by various factors. Advertising’s visible and pervasive role in everyday life has attracted the attention of public opinion researchers (Zanot: 1984; Calfee and Ringold: 1988). The research on advertising ethics has mainly moved on two streams: multi-discipline and multi-dimension. It is multidisciplinary in the sense that psychologists, sociologists, cultural anthropologists, media, marketers, consumerists, economists and even philosophers have treaded on this path. If psychologists have focused on emotion and motivational contents of advertising, philosophers, sociologists and anthropologists have mainly moved on the stream of materialistic attitude of societies. The economists have focused on economic effects of advertising.

The multi-dimension approach entails an examination of advertising ethics practiced by marketers. The practical marketers come closer to the approach adopted by the psychologists. However, the academic pundits of marketing, consumerism and advertising have done extensive research on advertising ethics mainly under ‘attitude towards advertising’ (Pollay and Mittal: 1993). Initially, the attitude towards advertising started with the study of brand attitudes and behavior (O’Donohoe: 2001) and the classical studies in this stream have come from Mitchell and Olsen (1981); Brown and Stayman (1992). Later, Bauer and Greyser’s (1968) classic study of American attitudes to advertising found that these general attitudes were related to respondents’ rating of specific ads as informative, enjoyable, annoying or offensive. Since then, the influence of attitude toward the ad (Aad) on brand attitudes and preferences has been established (Mitchell and Olsen: 1981; Brown and Stayman: 1992), with attitudes to advertising in general seen as a potential antecedent of attitudes to specific ads (Lutz: 1985; MacKenzie and Lutz: 1989).

The underlying factor influencing the direction of research on attitude towards advertising has been the favorable or unfavorable belief (Barnes: 1982). Different classifications of the beliefs underlying consumer attitudes to advertising
have been suggested. For example, market segments have been based on views about the extent to which advertising is interesting, entertaining, devious and annoying (Bond and Griggs, 1996). Some fundamental distinctions have been made between attitudes to the *instruments* and to the *institution* of advertising (Bauer and Greyser: 1968; Sandage and Leckenby: 1980), and between *personalized* and *generalized* attitudes (Reid and Soley: 1982). Overall, published research indicates that consumers’ attitudes to advertising are shaped by their cumulative personal experiences of ads, and their beliefs about wider issues regarding its relationship with society. Such issues are brought together in the model offered by Pollay and Mittal (1993). These authors suggest that attitudes to advertising are based on perceptions of its *personal uses* (product information, social role and image, and hedonic/pleasure value) and its *societal effects*, such as its impact on the economy and materialism, the extent to which it corrupts values and appears false or lacking sense.

In reality, what we find in research on advertising ethics lands us into a virtual imbroglio in the sense that there is no set boundary within which the research on advertising ethics is conducted. For example, Bauer and Greyser (1968) studied advertising ethics by considering information content, enjoyment, annoying, and offensive, Bond and Brace (1997) include entertainment, informativeness, irritation, credibility, interactivity and demographics as the constituents of advertising ethics. Some researchers have relied upon a few statements related to attitude towards advertising. For example, Mehta and Purvis (1995) use statements on liking, annoying, ad claims, updating about products to study advertising ethics. Cook (1992) studied advertising ethics by eliciting responses on the statements related to keeping up-to-date about products and service, advertised products having higher quality, liking of ads, annoying, and more manipulative than informative. In view of belief system having a strong influence on culture, the research has moved on to the realm of culture and several studies are found (e.g. Twitchell: 1996; Leiss et al: 1990; Fiske: 1989; Brown: 1995; Fowles: 1996; Nava and Nava: 1990; Wernick: 1991; Brown and Stayman: 1992; Crane: 1991; Elliott: 1997; Elliott and Ritson: 1997; Zanot: 1984).

Some researchers examine the ethicality of ads with exploitive appeals (LaTour and Zahra: 1989; Tansey, Hyman, and Brown: 1992), persuasive appeals
(Crisp: 1987; Lee: 1987; Hyman and Tansey: 1990), and stereotyped actors (Green 1993; Peterson 1992). Others examine the ethicality of ads for professional services (Bullard and Snizek: 1988; Mangold: 1987; Stafford: 1988), politicians or political causes (Banker: 1992; Laczniak and Caywood: 1987), and questionable products such as cigarettes (Pomeroy, Castellano, Becker, Johnson, and Brown: 1992; Quinn: 1989; Zinkhan et al: 1989). Still others examine the ethicality of targeting ads to children (Federal Trade Commission: 1981; Kinsey: 1987) and other sub-groups such as the elderly (Benet, Pitts, and LaTour: 1993; Peterson: 1992). Finally, social critiques of the ethicality of consumer advertising remain popular (e.g. Clark: 1989; Ewen: 1988; Schudson: 1984). Infact, the subject matter of advertising ethics is expanding enormously.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Most attitude researchers in psychology have adopted a unidimensional definition of attitude as a ‘summary evaluation.’ Even though attitudes are assumed to encompass affective, behavioral and cognitive responses, most researchers believe that these three response classes are not necessarily separable from each other and do not necessarily represent three independent factors (Bohner and Wanke 2002). Some consumer behavior researchers have claimed that attitudes are referred to affects or general evaluative reactions, and recent research trends in the area have linked the concept to affective construct rather than cognitive one (Mowen 1995). Further, it is observed that ‘Aad’ is a generic term and hence ‘advertising ethics’ denoting an ethical perspective of rightness or wrongness should be adopted for research (Pollay and Mittal: 1993; Bohner and Wanke: 2002). A review of literature suggests that researchers generally used four or five items to measure Aad (Lutz, McKenzie and Belch: 1983; Mackenzie, Lutz and Belch: 1986; Muehling: 1987; Olson and Sentis: 1983). On the whole, the global evidences indicate that advertising ethics has been researched under a piecemeal approach. From the viewpoint of Indian scenario, two notable contributions by Singh and Vij (2007) and Nawathe, Gawande and Dethe (2007) have been made on advertising ethics. If the study by Singh and Vij studied the perceptions of viewers numbering 873 spread over six states in Northern India, the study by Nawathe, Gawande and Dethe (2007) focused on the study of television advertising contents with more emphasis on purchase requests by children. Further, these two studies suffer from an aggregate
analysis in the sense that the variables are not cohesively arranged to draw meaningful conclusions on different dimensions of advertising ethics on one hand and an analysis of benefits and social costs of advertising has not been made on the other. Specifically, the present study has been taken up due to the following gaps in the empirical research on advertising ethics: (i) both international studies and Indian studies have focused on information content, abuse of women, stereotyping, behavior during commercials and falsity (legalistic view) only and hence there is an absence of the study of advertising ethics on a comprehensive basis; (ii) the perceptions of the public on economic impact of advertising, the ethics of puffery, cultural degradation of society by advertising, exploitation of consumer psychology and ineffectiveness of ad regulation have not been researched from different perspectives; (iii) virtually there is no empirical research on how television viewing duration influences the perceptions towards advertising ethics; and (iv) a full-fledged research on advertising ethics from the perspective of benefits and social costs has been non-existent. “There is a need for an independent, comprehensive, and systematic comparative enquiry into advertising in all its many aspects. Such an enquiry, which is long overdue, should ascertain both the direct and indirect, the intended and the unintended effects, and should provide the base for decisions that are found to be required and any new policies that may result from them (MacBride: 1980, 155).” Further, Potter (1954: 177) posited long back: “If one can justifiably say that advertising has joined the charmed circle of institutions which fix the values and standards of society...then it becomes necessary to consider with special care the extent and nature of its influence—how far it extends and in what way it makes itself felt (Potter: 1954, 177).” Hence the present study is a novel attempt to measure the benefits and social costs of advertising from the viewpoint of relevantly selected dimensions of advertising ethics.

UNIQUE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study becomes unique in many respects. First, it is the first comprehensive study on advertising ethics in India, which is an emerging economy. Second, it captures advertising ethics under 47 variables. Third, these 47 variables have been grouped under rationally chosen and presented under 11 dimensions of advertising ethics thereby incorporating both the positive and negative impacts. Lastly, demographic variables consisting of gender, age, education, income and
viewing duration have been identified as independent variables influencing the perceptions of respondents towards all the 47 dependent variables under 11 dimensions of advertising ethics. Thus the study seems to be a unique contribution to the limited empirical evidences in India.

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

In carrying out the study, the following objectives of the study were identified:

(i) To understand the conceptual foundations of television advertising ethics;
(ii) To measure the benefits and social costs of television advertising;
(iii) To measure the perceptions of women and men towards television advertising ethics;
(iv) To analyze the influence of age on the perceptions towards television advertising ethics;
(v) To study the relationship between educational level and perceptions towards television advertising ethics;
(vi) To study the influence of television viewing duration on the perceptions towards television advertising ethics; and
(vii) To offer suggestions to improve ethical content of television advertising and its regulation.

**HYPOTHESES FOR THE STUDY**

In the background of the objectives of the study, the following hypotheses were identified:

\[ H_1: \text{Social costs of television advertising are higher than the benefits;} \]
\[ H_2: \text{Men perceive higher level of unethical television advertising than women;} \]
\[ H_3: \text{Adults perceive higher level of unethical television advertising than youth;} \]
\[ H_4: \text{There is a positive relationship between educational level and perception of unethical television advertising;} \]
\[ H_5: \text{Higher perception of unethical television advertising is positively related to income level; and} \]
\[ H_6: \text{Higher the television viewing duration, higher the perception of unethical advertising.} \]
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In the background of the objectives of the study and hypotheses for the study, the research methodology was developed. The sequence of research methodology has been presented under: (i) Approach Adopted in the Study; (ii) Sources of Information; (iii) Developing the Questionnaire; (iv) Response Designing; (v) Locale of the Study; (vi) Sampling Design; (vii) Response Elicitation; (viii) Collating of Data; (ix) Operational Definitions; and (x) Statistical Tools Used.

(i) Approach Adopted in the Study:

The basic approach adopted in the present study is to understand how the public really feels about advertising and whether advertising is an effective institution in the socio-economic system of a country with a particular focus on television advertising. The feelings of the public are essentially the outcomes of individual belief system. One method of addressing these important questions is to measure Bauer and Greyser's belief statements about advertising in general (Bauer and Greyser: 1968, 96). It has been frequently suggested that these belief statements are primarily composed of two dimensions: the benefits and social effects of advertising (Aaker and Myers: 1982; Bauer and Greyser: 1968; Dunn and Barban: 1986; Shimp and DeLozlier: 1986). In fact, numerous research studies (Bauer and Greyser: 1968; Dubinsky and Hensel: 1984; Greyser and Reece: 1971; Haller: 1974; Larkin: 1977; Muehling: 1987; Petroshius: 1986; Reid and Soley: 1982) have measured variations of Bauer and Greyser's belief statements toward advertising's economic and social effects. However, while all of these studies have contributed to the knowledge of advertising's economic and social role in society, they have also assumed the very existence of a separate, two-dimensional (i.e., economic and social) construct of beliefs about advertising in general. Hence the present study was based on quantification of beliefs of the general public in terms of economic benefits and social costs.

(ii) Sources of Information:

The study was conducted by extensively using the secondary source of information as well as primary source of information. The secondary source of information was used to build basic structure of the fieldwork carried out in the present study. The conceptual and empirical literature related to television
advertising ethics was to make the fieldwork of the present most comprehensive in nature. Based on the fieldwork through eliciting responses from the general public to the structured questionnaire, the various ethical dimensions of television advertising were analyzed to arrive at meaningful conclusions and policy implications.

(iii) Developing the Questionnaire:

The most critical task in carrying out the study on ethics in television advertising was related to developing a comprehensive questionnaire to capture the belief level of the general public, who could understand the subtleties of advertising ethics. Basically, the observations of Pollay (1986: 19) were of immense in designing the questionnaire: “Most of the criticism of advertising comes from those who focus on advertising’s social role, whereas most of its defense comes from those who emphasize its economic functions. Still, not all economists are sanguine about advertising, nor are all other social scientists alarmed. This disparity of perspectives prevents an effective exchange of ideas, as the two sides (if there are but two sides) talk past one another, raising wholly different issues and reaching judgments on wholly different criteria. It will be of no surprise, then, that raising serious questions about advertising’s social role is an inherently critical process. To ponder what advertising as an institution is doing to us as individuals or as a community; to wonder if it aids or impedes rational thought; to ask how it reedits our aspirations, or channels and prompts our emotions; to assess how it may alter our values and morality; to question any of these things is to cast doubt on the social value of advertising. Thus, we should fully expect this inquiry to illuminate those ways in which advertising might be a less than ideal cultural influence. What may be shocking, however, is the verifiable absence of perceived positive influence.” This view influenced the researcher to consider both positive and negative sides of advertising ethics and also this fomed the basic approach adopted in the study. In view of the need for a comprehensive study, an exhaustive but rationally selected list of statements numbering 68 under twelve dimensions of advertising ethics was prepared for a pilot survey. The consumers were drawn for the pilot survey based on different demographic variables. After the pilot survey, the opinions towards the questionnaire from 75 prospective respondents drawn from academicians, ad professionals, social activists and consumers were incorporated with restructuring of statements and elimination of repetitions of the statements and the structured
questionnaire was finalized with 47 statements on television advertising ethics under 11 dimensions. The structured questionnaire has been presented in Table 1.3 and the different variables culminating in 11 dimensions have been appended in Annexure-A.

TABLE 1.3
A BIRD’S EYEVIEW OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Dimensions of Ad Ethics</th>
<th>No. of Statements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Information Content of Advertising</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Economic Impact of Advertising</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Abuse of Women in Advertising</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Falsity in Advertising</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ads Creating Affluence Attitude</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Cultural Degradation of Society</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Exploitation of Consumer Psychology</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Puffery in Advertising</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Non-Receptivity of Ads</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Behavior during Commercials</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Ineffectiveness of Ad Regulation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Dimensions of Ad Ethics</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iv) Response Designing:

It was planned to elicit responses from the sample respondents on 5-point Likert’s (1932) scale with ‘1’ indicating ‘strongly agree,’ ‘2’ indicated ‘almost agree,’ ‘3’ indicating ‘just agree,’ ‘4’ indicating ‘almost disagree,’ and ‘5’ indicating ‘strongly disagree.’ The opinion scale did not include ‘Don’t know’ (variously labeled under ‘cannot say,’ ‘Not sure’ or ‘No opinion,’ because of mainly five reasons. First, television has influenced all sections of society with extreme levels of opinion that it is impossible to perceive a situation of ‘Not sure.’ The survey of Advertising Association (2000, 137) found that ‘Don’t know’ responses were too less to have any statistical significance across any demographic variables on one hand and 76 per cent of respondents approved of advertising ‘a lot’ or ‘a little’ resulting in extreme opinions on the other. Second, Tylee (1988) posits that attitude towards advertising falls in the realm of what he terms ‘love-hate’ relations with advertising and this signifies that society as a whole has extreme opinions on advertising. Third, O’Donohoe (2001) calls it ‘ambivalence,’ which expresses extreme perceptions. Third, a serious problem lies in placing the ‘Don’t know’ scale in the rating order. Wherever it is placed in the scale, the problem of bias is likely to occur and an anomalous result may emerge. In this regard, Smith (1975) explains the extremity bias in responding to rating scales in the sense whether one should start with positive scale and end with negative scale or vice versa. It is certain that the
perception rating will differ according to order of the scale. Amidst this problem, the insertion of the ‘Don’t Know’ scale becomes really an intruder in the orderly research. Fourth, when the pilot survey of 75 probable respondents selected on the basis of different demographic variables was administered for the present study, only one adult respondent to the ‘Don’t Know’ scale responded and the rest of the opinions were either positive or negative. Hence ‘Don’t Know’ scale at the middle of the 5-point scale was substituted with ‘Moderately Agree’ in the structured questionnaire. Fifth, attitudes towards advertising are never polarized and they are likely to co-exist because of the differences in beliefs. For example, Barnes (1982) posits that attitudes towards advertising are multidimensional, or at least based on a range of beliefs; generally positive attitudes often coexist with unfavorable beliefs about particular elements (Barnes: 1982). On the whole, many international studies evidence consumers as generally well-disposed to advertising (Bonnal: 1990; Heyder et al: 1992).

(v) Locale of the Study

The locale of the study was Bangalore (Urban) District. The former Bangalore District was divided into Bangalore Rural and Bangalore (Urban) on 15th August 1986. As per the Census 2011, the Bangalore Urban District has a population of 8.47 million up from 4.59 million in 2001. Since the population is below 10 million, Bangalore city remains a B-class city. The Bangalore District almost comes under Bruhat Bengaluru Mahanagara Palike (BBMP, Greater Bangalore Municipal Corporation and it has control over the city (Yasmeen: 2007). It was formed in 2007 by merging 100 wards of the erstwhile Bangalore Mahanagara Palike with seven neighboring City Municipal Councils, one Town Municipal council and 110 villages around Bangalore (Yasmeen: 2007). Bangalore is the third most populous city in India and the 28th most populous city in the world (World-Gazetter.Com: 2007). The cosmopolitan nature of the city has resulted in the migration of people from other states to Bangalore, which has given rise to multi-lingual and multi-cultural confluence to Bangalore city. It is also the headquarters of several public sector undertakings such Bharat Electronics Limited (BEL), Hindustan Aeronautics Limited (HAL), National Aerospace Laboratories (NAL), Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited (BHEL), Bharat Earthmovers Limited (BEML), Hindustan Machine Tools (HMT), and also the Indian Space Research Organization.
(ISRO). Bangalore is also called Silicon Valley of India, in which the electronics industry has blossomed into the most flourishing sector at the international level (Ramesh: 2007). It is also the home for the Indian Institute of Science and the Indian Institute of Management, which provide the academic ambience for intellectual unfolding. In view of these multi-faceted social, economic and cultural underpinnings characterizing the city, the present study focuses on the sample respondents from this City along with its neighboring areas of the District.

(vi) Sampling Design:

The perceptions of 451 sample respondents from Bangalore formed the primary source of information. In view of 4.59 million civilians in Bangalore as per the 2001 Census, an up-hill task was faced in the selection of sample respondents. Multi-cultural setting was the basic strategy adopted in sample in the sense that the areas selected should represent religion and modernism. Based on religion, the oldest areas consisting of Rajajinagar, Shivajinagar and Frazer Town were selected as sampling areas. From the viewpoint of modernism, the recently formed layouts consisting of Indiranagar, HSR Layout and Dollars Colony were identified for sampling purpose. The basis for selection of sample respondents was stratified random sampling, in which the demographic variables consisting of gender, age, education, income and viewing duration seemed to play an important role in the perceptions towards television advertising ethics. From each area, one household for every 10th street was selected for the sample population of 480. Table 1.4 presents an overview of the number of planned responses, the number of responses actually received, the number of rejections and the number of completely filled-in questionnaires from the sample respondents from each area for the study. The response rate was found to be 93.96 per cent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Planned</th>
<th>Partial Completions</th>
<th>Rejected</th>
<th>Fully Filled-in</th>
<th>Response Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rajajinagar</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>96.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shivajinagar</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>90.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frazer Town</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>93.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiranagar</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>91.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSR Layout</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>97.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dollars Colony</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>95.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>93.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey.
(vii) Response Elicitation:

The survey was conducted between March 2010 and August 2010 covering a span of six months. The response elicitation was conducted by personal interviews with the prospective respondents and many of the respondents voluntarily completed the questionnaires with their responses after clarifications sought by the respondents on certain statements. The questionnaire was designed in English and majority of the respondents were familiar with English. However, for a few respondents having no or a little knowledge of English, regional language (mother tongue) was used to convey the relevant point of each statement of the questionnaire and their responses were recorded by the researcher.

(viii) Collating of Data:

The responses from 451 completed questionnaires were entered into master data Excel Program by coding each statement and each independent variable consisting of gender, age, education, income and viewing duration. The results were obtained under universal perceptions and this was followed by the results for independent variable identified in the study for all the 47 statements arranged under 11 dimensions of advertising ethics. The relevant statistical values were also obtained for the purpose of analysis and interpretation.

(ix) Operational Definitions:

In carrying out the study, the following operational definitions were used for the purpose of grouping of the sample respondents to study perceptional differences. Based on the hypotheses for the study, the following independent variables were defined by identifying the criteria for grouping (a) Gender; (b) Age; (c) Education; (d) Income; and (e) Viewing Duration. A brief explanation of these bases of classification for the identification of groups has been presented below.

(a) Gender: The respondents were classified into women and men on the basis of natural classification.

(b) Age: The respondents were classified into youth and adults on the basis of mean value of ages of all respondents. With the age level ranging between 18 years 18 years 64 years, the mean age stood at 27.63 years. Hence those below the mean age of 27 years were defined as youth and those aged 27 years and above were defined as adults.
(c) **Education:** The respondents who had studied up to 12th standard were defined as having lower education (LE) and those who had passed degree level were defined as having higher education (HE).

(d) **Income:** The respondents were classified into low income group (LI) and high income (HI) group on the basis of mean value of the incomes of all the respondents. With the annual income of respondents ranging between Rs. 1.20 lakh and 7.80, the mean income value of respondents stood at Rs.2.36 lakh. The respondents whose income was below the mean value of Rs.2.36 lakh were defined as low income (LE) group and the respondents with Rs.2.36 lakh and above were defined as high income (HI) group.

(e) **Viewing Duration:** Based on the viewing duration of the respondents on weekly basis, the respondents were classified into short duration viewers (SV) and long duration viewers (LV). The viewing duration per week ranged between ranged between 8.25 hours and 25.50 hours as per the open-ended question on this phenomenon. The aggregate mean value stood at 14.37 hours per week. Hence those respondents who watched television for less than 14.37 hours per week were grouped as short duration (SV) viewers and those respondents who watched 14.37 hours per week and above were grouped as long duration (LV) viewers.

(ix) **Statistical Tools Used:**

The statistical tools used in the study were weighted mean value, standard deviation, t-test and p-value. The values were arrived at through SPSS 15 to arrive at meaningful conclusions.

**LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The study has been carried out with the following limitations and hence the validity for broader conclusions is limited:

(i) The study was based on the perceptions of respondents selected from Bangalore Urban District only and hence the generalization of conclusions was very much limited, but at the same time much care was taken to make the sample having universal representation;

(ii) The study did not include the perceptions of children because the sample respondents included those who were aged 18 and above and their exclusion was prompted for their possible inability to comprehend the subtleties of
advertising ethics while responding to the questionnaire; and

(iii) Only five demographic variables were included in the study and the inclusion of other variables influencing perceptions would have led to significantly different results, but such inclusion would have resulted in the study being unwieldy.

With all these limitations, the study was conducted with the main emphasis on sample selection to make it representative on one hand and the analysis and interpretation of data was carried out with a focus on the objectives of the study and hypotheses for the study.

HOW THE STUDY PROCEEDS

The study has been presented in five chapters along with the questionnaire, frequency distribution tables and lastly bibliography.

Chapter I introduces the television advertising phenomenon as the background information to introduce the need for the study, objectives of the study, hypotheses for the study, research methodology and limitations of the study.

Chapter II presents an overview of television advertising ethics by introducing the theoretical background of advertising message and delivery and then highlighting the various dimensions of advertising ethics.

Chapter III brings out the status of empirical research on the various dimensions of advertising around the world and in India.

Chapter IV presents the results of the empirical study on the perceptions of respondents towards advertising ethics covering 11 dimensions arranged under universal analysis and group analysis.

Chapter V summarizes the findings of the study, hypotheses testing, suggestions and future course of research.