

chapter

11

Attitudes and Influencing Attitudes



LEARNING OBJECTIVES

L01 Define attitude and its role in consumer behavior.

L02 Summarize the three components of attitudes.

L03 Discuss attitude change strategies associated with each attitude component.

L04 Describe the elaboration likelihood model of persuasion.

L05 Describe the role of message source, appeal, and structure on attitudes.

L06 Discuss segmentation and product development applications of attitudes.

Companies like Nike, Gatorade, and American Express spend billions on celebrity endorsements each year. In fact, it is estimated that 25 percent or more of ads in the United States contain a celebrity and that spending on celebrity endorsers is roughly \$30 billion annually. In many ways, the use of celebrities as product endorsers makes sense. As we will discuss later in the chapter, celebrities can break through the clutter and grab consumer attention as well as enhance consumer perceptions and attitudes toward the brands they endorse. The downside is when endorsers engage in questionable personal behaviors. What is particularly interesting, however, is which companies decide to stick with their endorsers through scandals while others fire them. Let's look at three examples.¹

Michael Phelps. This Olympic swimmer, who has broken most if not all of the swimming records, has had problems in his personal life. The most recent was a picture that surfaced after the Beijing Olympics showing Phelps smoking a marijuana pipe. Kellogg dropped Phelps, while Speedo did not. Here are statements from each company:

KELLOGG: Michael's most recent behavior is not consistent with the image of Kellogg.
SPEEDO: In light of Michael Phelps' statement yesterday, Speedo would like to make

it clear that it does not condone such behavior and we know that Michael truly regrets his actions. Michael Phelps is a valued member of the Speedo team and a great champion. We will do all that we can to support him and his family.

Tiger Woods. Perhaps the most gifted golfer of his generation, if not of all time, Tiger Woods has performed miracles on the golf course. Unfortunately, personal scandals involving infidelity came crashing down. Tag Heuer dropped Tiger; Nike did not. Here are statements from each company:

TAG HEUER: We recognize Tiger Woods as a great champion, but we have to take account of the sensitivity of some consumers in relation to recent events.

NIKE: Tiger has been a part of Nike for more than a decade. He is the best golfer in the world and one of the greatest athletes of his era. We look forward to his return to golf. He and his family have Nike's full support.

Why such different reactions by each company? No one knows for sure, but in looking at these examples, it appears that it may be a function of what the company gains or loses from the endorser and the scandal. Speedo and Nike arguably gain the most from Phelps and

Woods because of the product performance credibility they bring to their sports brands. Personal scandals may do little to damage this dimension. Alternatively, Kellogg and Tag Heuer appear to have used Phelps and Woods for general credibility and image and these clearly took a hit when the scandals broke.

Outside of sports, Subway has been dealing with the undesirable behavior of its main endorser, Jared Fogle. Jared lost 245 pounds eating low-fat Subway sandwiches but had recently gained back 40 pounds. Rather than walking away from

Jared, they took it as an opportunity to highlight the humanness of Jared in having weight struggles. They entered and trained him for the New York City Marathon. According to Subway:

Jared is kind of like the everyman. He has his ups and downs, and though he hasn't had crazy ups, this one got a lot of attention.

Researchers in sports have reached similar conclusions. Namely, sports fans love the human side of athletes and love a great “comeback” story.

L01

As the chapter's opening example indicates, brands and organizations attempt to influence consumer attitudes and their resulting consumption behaviors.

An **attitude** is *an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of our environment*. It is a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object. Thus, an attitude is the way one thinks, feels, and acts toward some aspect of his or her environment, such as a retail store, television program, or product.² Attitudes are formed as the result of all the factors we have discussed in previous chapters, and they represent an important influence on an individual's lifestyle. In this chapter, we examine attitude components, general attitude change strategies, and the effect of marketing communications on attitudes.

ATTITUDE COMPONENTS

L02

As Figure 11–1 illustrates, it is useful to consider attitudes as having three components: cognitive (beliefs), affective (feelings), and behavioral (response tendencies). Each of these attitude components is discussed in more detail below.

Cognitive Component

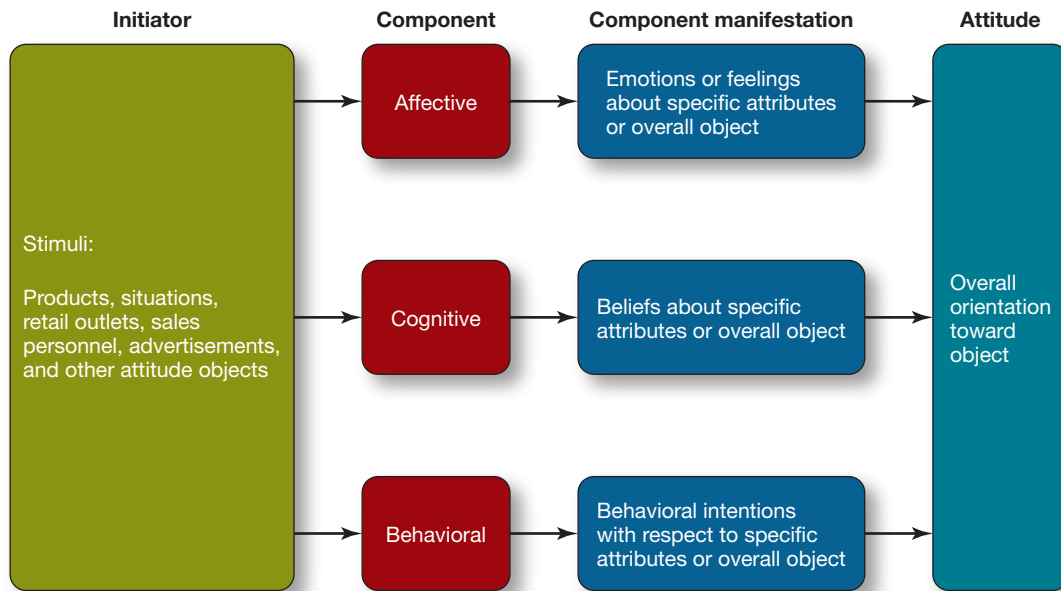
The **cognitive component** consists of *a consumer's beliefs about an object*. For most attitude objects, people have a number of beliefs. For example, an individual may believe that AMP beverages

- Are popular with younger consumers.
- Provide consumers with lots of energy.
- Contain a lot of vitamins.
- Are priced competitively with other energy drinks.
- Are made by a sports-oriented company.

The total configuration of beliefs about this beverage brand represents the cognitive component of an attitude toward AMP. Beliefs can be about the emotional benefits of owning or using a product (one can believe it would be exciting to own or drive a convertible) as well as about objective features.³ Many beliefs about attributes are evaluative

Attitude Components and Manifestations

FIGURE 11-1



in nature; for example, high gas mileage, attractive styling, and reliable performance are generally viewed as positive beliefs. This brings up the distinction between a *feature* and a *benefit*, both of which are beliefs. A product may have five milligrams of sodium per serving (a nonevaluative *feature* belief), which means that it is low in sodium and better for your health (both evaluative *benefit* beliefs). Marketers must promote benefits rather than features, especially for less knowledgeable consumers and for complex products. Otherwise consumers will not know how to evaluate and respond to the claims.⁴ For example, Quaker Oats helps consumers interpret the nutritional information on its package with statements such as “the soluble fiber in oatmeal helps reduce cholesterol.”

The more positive beliefs associated with a brand, the more positive each belief is, and the easier it is for the individual to recall the beliefs, the more favorable the overall cognitive component is presumed to be.⁵ And because all the components of an attitude are generally consistent, the overall attitude is more favorable. This logic underlies what is known as the **multiattribute attitude model**.

Multiattribute Attitude Model There are several versions of this model. The simplest is

$$A_b = \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ib}$$

where

A_b = Consumer's attitude toward a particular brand b

X_{ib} = Consumer's belief about brand b 's performance on attribute i

n = Number of attributes considered

This version assumes that all attributes are equally important in determining our overall evaluation. However, a moment's reflection suggests that frequently a few attributes, such

as price, quality, or style, are more important than others. Thus, it is often necessary to add an importance weight for each attribute:

$$A_b = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i X_{ib}$$

where

W_i = The importance the consumer attaches to attribute i

This version of the model is useful in a variety of situations. However, it assumes that more (or less) is always better. This is frequently the case. More miles to the gallon is always better than fewer miles to the gallon, all other things being equal. This version is completely adequate for such situations.

For some attributes, more (or less) is good up to a point, but then further increases (decreases) become bad. For example, adding salt to a saltless pretzel will generally improve the consumer's attitude toward the pretzel up to a point. After that point, additional amounts of salt will decrease the attitude. Thus, we need to introduce an *ideal point* into the multiattribute attitude model:

$$A_b = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i |I_i - X_{ib}|$$

where

I_i = Consumer's ideal level of performance on attribute i

Because multiattribute attitude models are widely used by marketing researchers and managers, we will work through an example using the weighted, ideal point model. The simpler models would work in a similar manner.

Imagine that Coca-Cola gathers data on a set of beliefs about Diet Coke from a segment of consumers (more details on measuring the various attitude components can be found in Appendix A and Appendix Table A-3). These consumers perceive Diet Coke to have the following levels of performance (the X s) and desired performance (the I s) on four attributes:

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	
Low price	_____	_____	I	X	_____	_____	_____	High price
Sweet taste	_____	I	_____	_____	_____	X	_____	Bitter taste
High status	_____	_____	I	_____	X	_____	_____	Low status
Low calories	IX	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	High calories

This segment of consumers believes (the X s) that Diet Coke is average priced, very bitter in taste, somewhat low in status, and extremely low in calories. Their ideal soda (the I s) would be slightly low priced, very sweet in taste, somewhat high in status, and extremely low in calories. Because these attributes are not equally important to consumers, they are assigned weights based on the relative importance a segment of consumers attaches to each.

A popular way of measuring importance weights is with a 100-point *constant-sum scale*. For example, the importance weights shown below express the relative importance of the four soft-drink attributes such that the total adds up to 100 points.

Attribute	Importance
Price	10
Taste	30
Status	20
Calories	40
	100 points

In this case, calories are considered the most important attribute, with taste slightly less important. Price is given little importance.

From this information, we can index this segment's attitude toward Diet Coke as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_{\text{Diet Coke}} &= (10)(3 - 4) + (30)(2 - 6) + (20)(3 - 5) + (40)(1 - 1) \\
 &= (10)(-1) + (30)(-4) + (20)(-2) + (40)(0) \\
 &= 170
 \end{aligned}$$

This involves taking the absolute difference between the consumer's ideal soft-drink attributes and beliefs about Diet Coke's attributes and multiplying these differences by the importance attached to each attribute. In this case, the attitude index is computed as 170. Is this good or bad? Because an attitude index is relative, to fully evaluate it, we must compare it with the segment's attitudes toward competing brands. However, if Diet Coke were perceived as the ideal soft drink, an attitude index of zero would result. Thus, the closer to zero an attitude index calculated in this manner is, the better. It is important to note that, in general, the multiattribute attitude model merely *represents* a process that is much less precise and structured than implied by the model.

Affective Component

Feelings or *emotional reactions to an object* represent the **affective component** of an attitude. A consumer who states "I like Diet Coke" or "Diet Coke is a terrible soda" is expressing the results of an emotional or affective evaluation of the product. This overall evaluation may be simply a vague, general feeling developed without cognitive information or beliefs about the product. Or it may be the result of several evaluations of the product's performance on each of several attributes. Thus, the statements "Diet Coke tastes bad" and "Diet Coke is not good for your health" imply a negative affective reaction to specific aspects of the product that, in combination with feelings about other attributes, will determine the overall reaction to the brand.

Marketers are increasingly turning their attention to the affective or "feeling" component of attitudes to provide a richer understanding of attitudes than that based solely on the cognitive or "thinking" component. As a consequence, marketers now commonly distinguish *utilitarian* or functional benefits and attitudes from *hedonic* or emotional benefits and attitudes.⁶ For example, one study found that consumer acceptance of handheld Internet devices was influenced by both utilitarian benefits such as usefulness and hedonic aspects such as fun to use.⁷ Another study found that in some cases hedonic aspects of giving blood such as fear and joy were stronger determinants of overall attitude toward blood donation than utilitarian beliefs.⁸

In addition, marketers are beginning to consider both form *and* function in product designs and focus considerable attention on the aesthetic aspects of design (appearance,

ILLUSTRATION 11-1

Aesthetically pleasing or interesting product designs can evoke powerful emotional responses that are such a critical aspect of the affective component of attitudes.



sensory experience). The iPod and iPad are examples of products with high **aesthetic appeal** that tap consumers’ affective reactions by going beyond the cognitive associations of functionality.⁹ Illustration 11–1 shows an ad for a product high in aesthetic appeal.

Affective reactions to a specific product or benefit can vary by situation and individual. For example, a consumer’s belief that Diet Coke has caffeine may result in positive feelings if he or she needs to stay awake to work late but negative feelings if he or she wants to get to sleep quickly. The Swanson ad in Illustration 11–2 is an example of an affective ad which will likely bring about emotional reactions to a number of the captions, such as “feeling like an artist.”

Marketers sometimes measure the affective component on verbal scales much like those used to measure the cognitive component (for more detail, see Appendix A and Appendix Table A–3). So, consumers might be asked to rate Diet Coke overall (or specific attributes such as taste) on the following dimensions by placing an X in the appropriate space:

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	
Good	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Bad
Like	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Dislike
Happy	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Sad
Pleasant	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unpleasant

SAM and AdSAM[®] However, sometimes marketers want to tap feelings and emotions more directly and bypass the cognitive processing that often goes along with verbal scales. One such measure is based on the pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) approach to emotions discussed in Chapter 10. This measure, termed SAM (Self-Assessment Manikin), provides visual representations of 232 “emotional adjectives” underlying PAD. SAM (and AdSAM[®], which applies SAM to ad planning) is a graphical character that is manipulated to portray emotions and more directly tap emotional responses. From a global standpoint, SAM is effective across different cultures and languages because the pictorial representations don’t require translation or alteration.¹⁰ Examples of AdSAM[®] for each dimension of PAD are shown below (top panel—pleasure; middle—arousal; bottom—dominance):

Behavioral Component

The **behavioral component** of an attitude is *one’s tendency to respond in a certain manner toward an object or activity*. A series of decisions to purchase or not purchase Diet Coke or to recommend it or other brands to friends would reflect the behavioral component. Brand interest, as represented by tendencies to seek out the brand on store shelves or search for brand information, also reflects the behavioral component. The behavioral



ILLUSTRATION 11-2

Individuals differ in their affective reactions to product characteristics. Likewise, the same individual will react differently to the same attribute in different situations. Would you enjoy an experience that induced the following, as shown within this Swanson ad?

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Source: Copyright 2000 AdSam Marketing LLC.

component provides response tendencies or behavioral intentions. *Actual behaviors reflect these intentions as they are modified by the situation in which the behavior will occur.*

Direct versus Indirect Approach Actual behaviors and response tendencies are most often measured by fairly direct questioning (for more detail, see Appendix A and Appendix Table A-3). For example, consumers might be asked about their intentions to buy Diet Coke, as follows:

How likely is it that you will buy Diet Coke the next time you purchase a soft drink (put an X in the appropriate space)?

Definitely Will	Probably Will	Might	Probably Will Not	Definitely Will Not
—	—	—	—	—

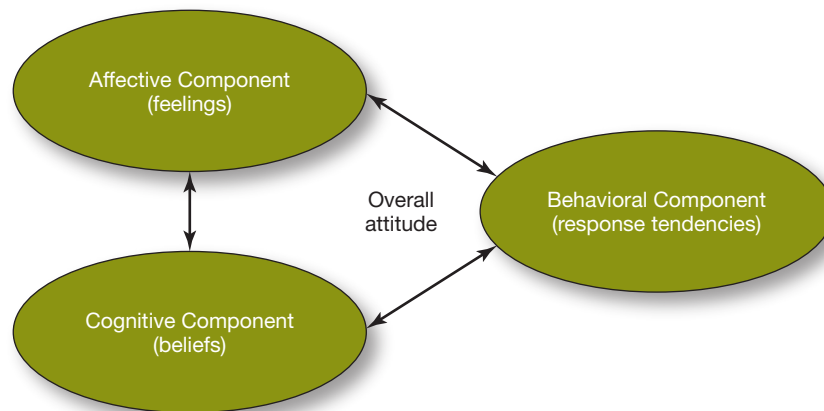
Such direct questioning may work well for most consumption, but not so well for sensitive topics such as alcohol, pornography, and eating patterns where consumers may understate negative behaviors or intentions. In these cases, asking *indirect* questions such as estimating the behaviors of other people similar to themselves (neighbors, those with similar jobs, etc.) may help reduce the bias.

Component Consistency

Figure 11-2 illustrates a critical aspect of attitudes: *All three attitude components tend to be consistent.*¹¹ This means that a change in one attitude component tends to produce related changes in the other components. This tendency is the basis for a substantial amount of marketing strategy.

Marketing managers are ultimately concerned with influencing behavior. But it is often difficult to influence behavior directly. Marketers generally are unable to directly cause consumers to buy, use, or recommend their products. However, consumers will often listen to sales personnel, attend to advertisements, or examine packages. Marketers can, therefore, indirectly influence behavior by providing information, music, or other stimuli that influence a belief or feeling about the product if the three components are indeed consistent with each other.

FIGURE 11-2 Attitude Component Consistency



Some research has found only a limited relationship among the three components.¹² Let's examine the sources of this inconsistency by considering an example. Suppose an individual reports positive beliefs and affect toward the iPod but does not own an iPod or purchases another brand. At least six factors may account for inconsistencies between *measures* of beliefs and feelings and *observations* of behavior.

1. *Lack of need.* A favorable attitude requires a need or motive before it can be translated into action. Thus, the consumer may not feel a need for a portable player or might already own an acceptable, though less preferred, brand.
2. *Lack of ability.* Translating favorable beliefs and feelings into ownership requires ability. The consumer might not have sufficient funds to purchase an iPod; thus, she might purchase a less-expensive brand.
3. *Relative attitudes.* In the prior example, only attitudes toward the iPod were considered. However, purchases often involve trade-offs across competing brands. Thus, a consumer may have a relatively high attitude toward iPod but a slightly higher attitude toward a competing brand. In a choice situation, relative attitudes are a stronger predictor of behavior.
4. *Attitude ambivalence.* While consumers often strive to hold consistent beliefs, feelings, and intentions toward a specific attitude object, this is not always the case. Sometimes a consumer has an **ambivalent attitude**, which involves *holding mixed beliefs and/or feelings about an attitude object*. Think of seafood. A consumer with an ambivalent attitude toward seafood would agree that "Sometimes I feel seafood tastes good, but other times I feel it tastes bad." Ambivalent attitudes are less stable over time and less predictive of behavior. Firms should avoid ambivalent attitudes by creating consistent messages and experiences over time. Firms may also attempt to gain market share by creating ambivalence among customers of competing brands.¹³
5. *Weak beliefs and affect.* If the cognitive and affective components are weakly held, and if the consumer obtains additional information while shopping, then the initial attitudes may give way to new ones. Specifically, stronger attitudes or those attitudes held with more confidence tend to be stronger predictors of behavior. Attitudes can be weak because of ambivalence. However they can also be weak because of a general lack of experience with the brand. Thus, direct (and consistently positive) experience tends to yield attitudes that are more strongly and confidently held.¹⁴ As a consequence, companies often spend enormous amounts of money on coupons and free samples to generate direct product experience.

In addition to direct experience, factors related to strength of learning such as importance, message involvement, reinforcement, and repetition (see Chapter 9) are also related to attitude strength because attitudes are generally learned.

6. *Interpersonal and situational influences.* An individual's attitudes were measured above. However, many purchase decisions involve others directly or indirectly. Thus, a shopper may purchase something other than an iPod to better meet the needs of the entire family. Situation and other consumers' expectations in those situations can also play a role. For example, it may be seen by some as more desirable to purchase and use an iPod in front of friends (even though they themselves like another brand better) because their friends think the iPod is the coolest brand.

In summary, attitude components—cognitive, affective, and behavioral—tend to be consistent. However, as we see, the degree of apparent consistency can be reduced by a variety of factors. Marketers must incorporate these factors when developing persuasive messages and strategies.

ATTITUDE CHANGE STRATEGIES

L03



Marketers often attempt to influence consumer behavior by changing one or more of the underlying attitude components. Such influence can be positive, as we saw in the chapter's opening vignette. However, social, ethical, and regulatory concerns arise when companies attempt to promote potentially harmful consumption behaviors or when persuasion attempts are deemed deceptive.

Change the Cognitive Component

A common and effective approach to changing attitudes is to focus on the cognitive component.¹⁵ Four basic marketing strategies—change beliefs, shift importance, add beliefs, and change ideal—are used for altering the cognitive structure of a consumer's attitude.

Change Beliefs This strategy involves shifting beliefs about the performance of the brand on one or more attributes.¹⁶ Illustration 11–3 shows one example. Another example is Radio Shack, which is repositioning itself as a more modern and contemporary retailer. They have nicknamed the store “The Shack” and are trying to change existing merchandise beliefs as follows:

Consumers thought this was a place that had private labels and off brands, when in fact we've got leading national brands across every one of our categories. So the goal from the outset was to close those gaps in brand perception [beliefs] and business reality.¹⁷

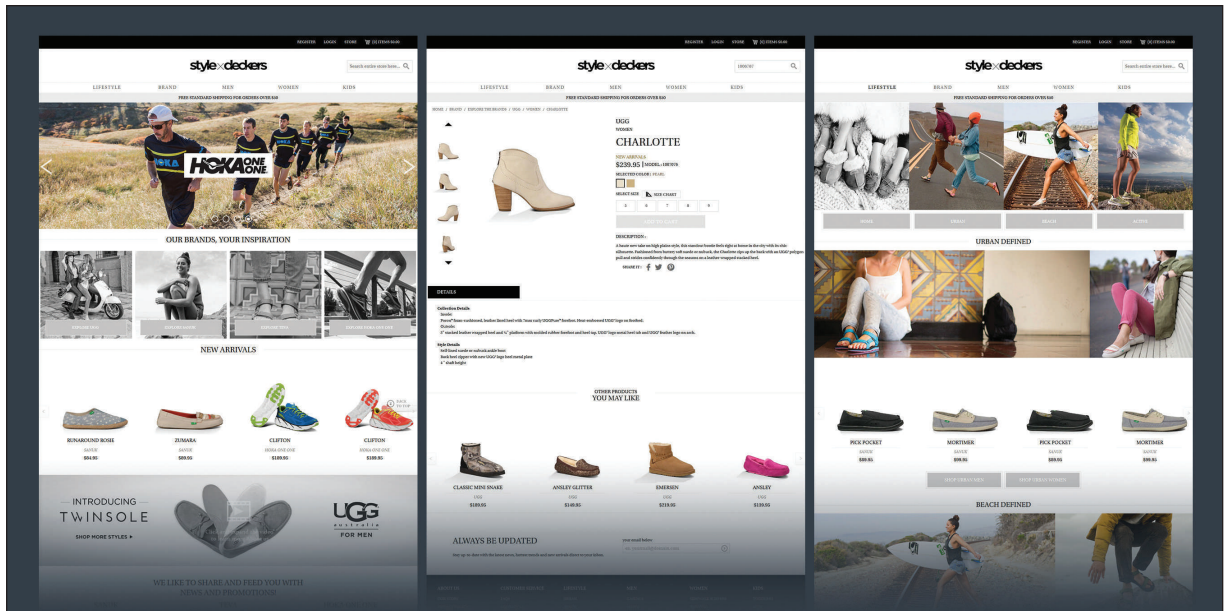
Attempts to change beliefs generally involve providing facts or statements about performance. It is important to realize that some beliefs are strongly held and thus hard to change. As a consequence, marketers may have more success changing overall brand attitudes by targeting weaker brand beliefs that are more vulnerable to persuasion attempts.¹⁸

Shift Importance Most consumers consider some product attributes to be more important than others. Marketers often try to convince consumers that those attributes on which their brands are relatively strong are the most important. For example, General Motors uses detailed narratives of drivers in distress to emphasize the importance of instant communications and emergency assistance, which its proprietary OnStar system provides.

Sometimes evaluative factors that would otherwise not be prominent to consumers can be enhanced by cues in the ad. One study created ads with references to Asian culture (e.g., picture of the Great Wall of China) to enhance “ethnic self-awareness.” When ethnic self-awareness was enhanced, Asian consumers reacted more positively to ads containing an Asian spokesperson.¹⁹

Add Beliefs Another approach to changing the cognitive component of an attitude is to add new beliefs to the consumer's belief structure. For example, the California Pomegranate Council wants consumers to know that beyond possessing vitamins and minerals (already known), new research shows that pomegranates contain “powerful antioxidants [that] help retard aging and can neutralize almost twice as many free radicals as red wine and seven times as many as green tea.”²⁰

Change Ideal The final strategy for changing the cognitive component is to change the perceptions of the ideal brand or situation. Thus, many conservation organizations strive to



influence our beliefs about the ideal product in terms of minimal packaging, nonpolluting manufacturing, extensive use of recycled materials, and nonpolluting disposition after its useful life.

Change the Affective Component

Firms increasingly attempt to influence consumers' liking of their brands without directly influencing either beliefs or behavior. If the firm is successful, increased liking will tend to lead to increased positive beliefs,²¹ which could lead to purchase behavior should a need for the product arise. Or, perhaps more common, increased liking will lead to a tendency to purchase the brand should a need arise,²² with purchase and use leading to increased positive beliefs. Marketers use three basic approaches to directly increase affect: classical conditioning, affect toward the ad itself, and mere exposure.

Classical Conditioning One way of directly influencing the affective component is through classical conditioning (see Chapter 9). In this approach, a stimulus the audience likes, such as music, is consistently paired with the brand name. Over time, some of the positive affect associated with the music will transfer to the brand.²³ Other liked stimuli, such as pictures, are frequently used for this reason.

Affect toward the Ad or Website As we saw in Chapter 10, liking the advertisement (attitude toward the ad, or Aad) generally increases the tendency to like the brand (attitude toward the brand, or Abr).²⁴ Somewhat similar results are associated with liking the website on which an ad appears (Aweb).²⁵ Using humor, celebrities, or emotional appeals increases Aad and Aweb. For example, vivid websites with rich sensory content that appeal to multiple senses produce more positive Aweb than do less vivid sites.²⁶ Illustration 11-4 contains an ad that relies on positive affect.

Ads that arouse negative affect or emotions such as fear, guilt, or sorrow can also enhance attitude change. For example, an ad for a charity assisting refugees could show pictures that would elicit a variety of unpleasant emotions such as disgust or anger and still be effective.²⁷

ILLUSTRATION 11-3

The cognitive component of an attitude can be altered by changing current beliefs, adding new beliefs, shifting the importance of beliefs, or changing the beliefs about the ideal product.

ILLUSTRATION 11-4

Ads can change the affective component of an attitude toward a brand without altering the belief structure if the ad itself elicits a positive response (is liked). Ads that are primarily pictorial are often used for this purpose, though the pictures themselves convey cognitive as well as emotional meanings.



Mere Exposure While controversial, there is evidence that affect or brand preference may also be increased by **mere exposure**.²⁸ That is, simply presenting a brand to an individual on a large number of occasions might make the individual's attitude toward the brand more positive. A common explanation of the mere exposure effect is that "familiarity breeds liking." Thus, the repetition of advertisements for low-involvement products may well increase liking (through enhanced familiarity) and subsequent purchase of the advertised brands without altering the initial belief structure. Mere exposure effects underlie the use of simple reminder ads as well as product placements.²⁹

Classical conditioning, Aad, and mere exposure can alter affect directly and, by altering affect, alter purchase behavior without first changing beliefs. This has a number of important implications:

- Ads designed to alter affect need not contain any cognitive (factual or attribute) information.
- Classical conditioning principles should guide such campaigns.
- Aad and ad-evoked affect are critical for this type of campaign unless mere exposure is being used.
- Repetition is critical for affect-based campaigns.
- Cognitively based measures may be inappropriate to assess advertising effectiveness.

As these guidelines suggest, classical conditioning, Aad, and mere exposure tend to occur in low-involvement situations (see Chapter 9). There is at least one major exception, however. When emotions and feelings are important product performance dimensions, then such feelings and emotions are relevant to the evaluation. In these situations, Aad

can readily influence *Abr* under high involvement. As we discussed earlier in the chapter, hedonic (versus utilitarian) products are those for which affect and emotion are relevant performance criteria. Not surprisingly, hedonic products are those for which affect, emotions, and *Aad* can play a role in more conscious, high-involvement settings.³⁰

Change the Behavioral Component

Behavior, specifically purchase or use behavior, may precede the development of cognition and affect. Or it may occur in contrast to the cognitive and affective components. For example, a consumer may dislike the taste of diet soft drinks and believe that artificial sweeteners are unhealthy. However, rather than appear rude, the same consumer may accept a diet drink when offered one by a friend due to social norms. Drinking the beverage may alter her perceptions of its taste and lead to liking; this in turn may lead to increased learning, which changes the cognitive component.

Behavior can lead directly to affect, to cognitions, or to both simultaneously.³¹ Consumers frequently try new brands or types of low-cost items in the absence of prior knowledge or affect. Such purchases are as much for information (Will I like this brand?) as for satisfaction of some underlying need such as hunger.

Internet marketers have been particularly concerned about their ability to simulate direct experiences for products in a virtual context. A recent study finds that for experiential products such as sunglasses, creating a *virtual direct experience* (in this case, a video that simulated viewing the content with and without the sunglasses) led to more positive beliefs, affect, and purchase intentions.³² The ability to simulate experiences with products in an online context relates to the issue of “touch,” which is a major online purchasing factor discussed in Chapter 17.

Changing behavior prior to changing affect or cognition is based primarily on operant conditioning (see Chapter 9). Thus, the key marketing task is to induce people to purchase or consume the product while ensuring that the purchase or consumption will indeed be rewarding.³³ Coupons, free samples, point-of-purchase displays, tie-in purchases, and price reductions are common techniques for inducing trial behavior. Because behavior often leads to strong positive attitudes toward the consumed brand, a sound distribution system (limited stockouts) is important to prevent current customers from trying competing brands.

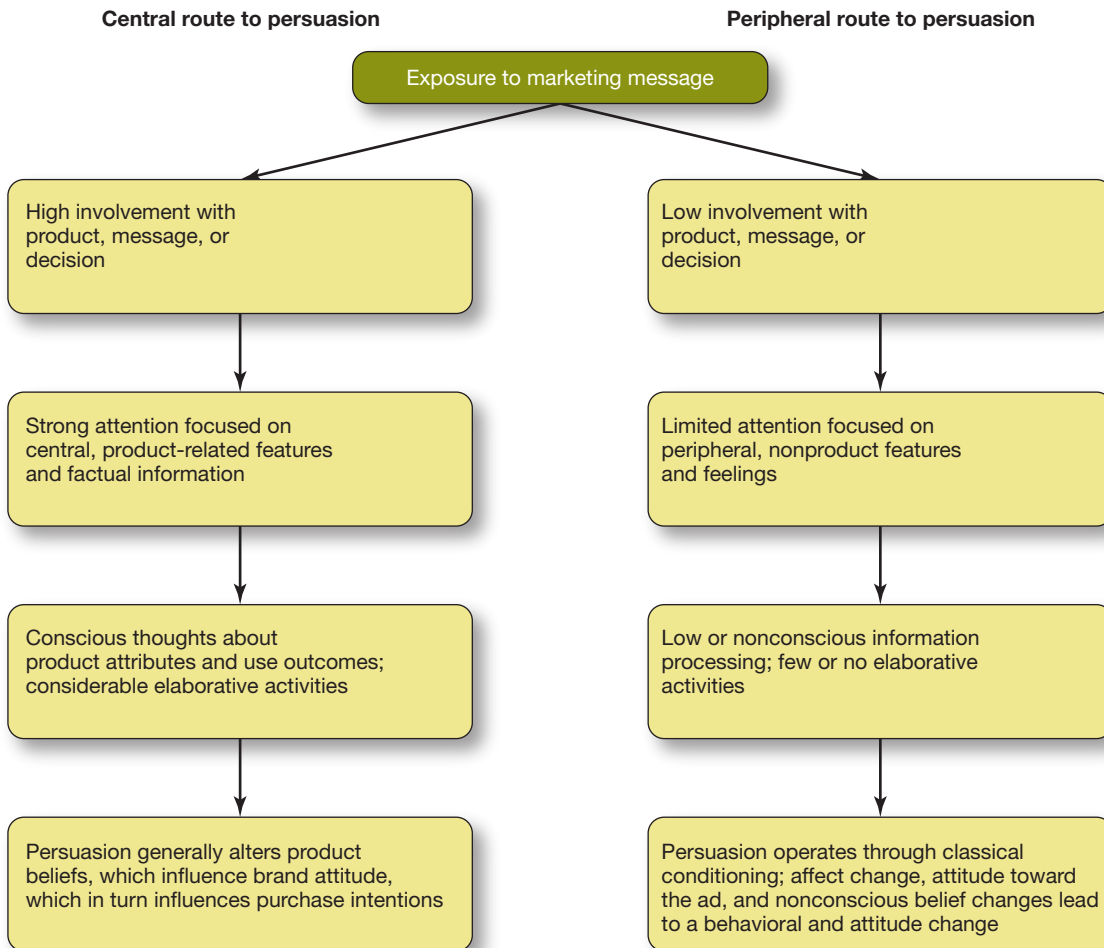
INDIVIDUAL AND SITUATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS THAT INFLUENCE ATTITUDE CHANGE

L04

Attitude change is determined by individual and situational factors as well as marketing activities.³⁴ Individual factors include gender, need for cognition, consumer knowledge, ethnicity, and, as we saw in Chapter 10, regulatory focus. Situational factors include program context, level of viewer distraction, and buying occasion.

Marketers continue to focus considerable attention on consumer involvement, which has both an individual (intrinsic interest) and situational (current need to make a purchase decision) component. Consumer involvement is an important motivational factor that influences elaborative processing, learning, and attitudes. The **elaboration likelihood model (ELM)** is a theory about how attitudes are formed and changed under varying conditions of involvement. Thus, the ELM integrates select individual, situational, and marketing factors to understand attitudes.³⁵

The ELM suggests that involvement is a key determinant of how information is processed and attitudes are changed. High involvement results in a *central route* to attitude

FIGURE 11-3 The Elaboration Likelihood Model


change by which consumers deliberately and consciously process those message elements that they believe are relevant to a meaningful and logical evaluation of the brand (see Figure 11-3). These elements are elaborated on and combined into an overall evaluation. The multiattribute attitude model represents a high-involvement view of attitude change.

In contrast, low involvement results in a *peripheral route* to attitude change in which consumers form impressions of the brand based on exposure to readily available cues in the message regardless of their relevance to the brand or decision. Attitudes formed through the peripheral route are based on little or no elaborative processing. Classical conditioning, Aad, and mere exposure represent low-involvement views of attitude change.

The ELM suggests that vastly different communications strategies are required to communicate effectively with high- versus low-involvement consumers. In general, detailed factual information (central cues) is effective in high-involvement, central-route situations. Low-involvement, peripheral-route situations generally require limited information and instead rely on simple affective and cognitive cues such as pictures, music, and characteristics of people in the ad (peripheral cues). *Which persuasion route is most likely being used in Illustration 11-4?*

Cue Relevance and Competitive Situation

Generally speaking, compared with attitudes formed under the peripheral route, attitudes formed under the central route tend to be stronger, more resistant to counterpersuasion attempts, more accessible from memory, and more predictive of behavior.³⁶

However, it is important to realize that central route processing involves extensive processing of *decision-relevant* information or cues. And what consumers find relevant can vary by product and situation. For example, an attractive picture can be peripheral or central. In an ad for orange soda, a picture of cute puppies would be a peripheral cue (and influence attitudes under low involvement), while a picture of fresh, juicy orange slices would be a central cue (and influence attitudes under high involvement).³⁷ Similarly, emotions likely represent a central cue for hedonic products and thus influence attitudes under high involvement.

In addition, the competitive situation can also work to enhance the role of peripheral cues even under high involvement. For example, if competing brands are comparable in terms of their product features (central cues), highly involved consumers prefer the brand with the strongest peripheral cues in its advertising.³⁸ The basic idea is that relative attitudes are critical in competitive settings and peripheral cues become the tiebreaker between otherwise equivalent (parity) brands. As you can see, the role of peripheral cues can extend beyond low-involvement settings in certain competitive situations.

Consumer Resistance to Persuasion

Consumers are not passive to persuasion attempts. Instead, consumers are often skeptical (an individual characteristic) and resist persuasion.³⁹ Also, consumers frequently infer an advertiser's intent and respond in light of that presumed selling intent.⁴⁰ For example, a recent ad for California Almonds stated, "It's uncanny how we raise indulgence and lower cholesterol." A consumer could respond to the ad as follows: "Of course they're going to tell me almonds are healthy for me. They're trying to sell more almonds. I'm still not convinced." To help reduce the likelihood of such responses, the ad makes use of the American Heart Association and scientific research to bolster its health claims.

Strongly held attitudes are harder to change than weakly held attitudes. Think of something you feel strongly about—perhaps your school or your favorite sports team. What would be required to change your attitude? Clearly, it would be difficult. Consumers tend to avoid messages that are counter to their attitudes (e.g., committed smokers tend to avoid antismoking ads). And if they do encounter such messages, they tend to (a) discredit the source as unreliable, (b) discount the importance of the issue or attribute at hand, and (c) if all else fails, "contain" the negative information so it doesn't "spill over" to the entire brand.⁴¹ These behaviors are particularly likely for loyal customers of a brand—thus, it is possible to see why loyal customers can be so valuable to firms.

COMMUNICATION CHARACTERISTICS THAT INFLUENCE ATTITUDE FORMATION AND CHANGE

L05

In this section, we describe communication techniques that can be used to form and change attitudes. Obviously, as with all aspects of consumer behavior, individual and situational characteristics interact with the communication features to determine effectiveness.

Source Characteristics

The source of a communication represents “who” delivers the message. Sources include people (celebrities, typical consumers), animated spokescharacters (Jolly Green Giant, Mr. Peanut), and organizations (the company, a third-party endorser). The source of a message is important because consumers respond differently to the same message delivered by different sources.

Source Credibility Persuasion is easier when the target market views the message source as highly credible. **Source credibility** consists of *trustworthiness* and *expertise*. A source that has no ulterior motive to provide anything other than complete and accurate information would generally be considered trustworthy. However, product knowledge is required for a source to have expertise. Thus, a friend might be trustworthy but lack expertise. Alternatively, salespeople and advertisers may have ample knowledge but be viewed with skepticism by consumers.

Individuals who are recognized experts and who have no apparent motive to mislead can be powerful sources because of their ability to reduce risk.⁴² An example is 1-800-PetMeds[®], with its TV advertisements in which a veterinarian discusses pain management options for your pet. Relatively unknown individuals similar to those in the target market can be effective spokespersons as well, but for different reasons. In a **testimonial ad**, *a person, generally a typical member of the target market, recounts his or her successful use of the product, service, or idea.*⁴³ Testimonials are important on the web as well. Amazon and other online marketers offer customer reviews, which appear to be important determinants of attitudes and purchase behavior.⁴⁴ Similarity of the source enhances the believability and relevance of these testimonials.

Independent *third-party endorsements* by organizations such as the American Dental Association (ADA) are widely viewed as both trustworthy and expert by consumers and are actively sought by marketers. Such endorsements appear to be used by consumers as brand quality cues.⁴⁵ The remarkable success of Crest toothpaste is largely attributable to the ADA endorsement. Other examples include:

- The American Heart Association—Quaker Oats and Subway.
- J.D. Power and Associates—Edward Jones.
- Good Housekeeping Seal of Approval—LiftMaster garage doors.

Of course, the company itself is the most obvious source of most marketing messages. This means developing a corporate reputation or image for trustworthiness can greatly enhance the impact of the firm’s marketing messages.⁴⁶

Source credibility can influence persuasion in various situations. First, a credible source can enhance attitudes when consumers lack the ability or motivation to form direct judgments of the product’s performance.⁴⁷ This is more of a low-involvement process. Second, a credible source can enhance message processing and acceptance. In fact, expert sources can increase attitudes in some high-involvement settings as a result of their perceived decision relevance.⁴⁸

Cultural differences can also play a role. For example, Thai consumers are more influenced by expert sources than are Canadian consumers. Thai consumers are more risk averse and more likely to defer to authority, thus making them more prone to external sources of influence.⁴⁹

One factor that can diminish the credibility of any source is if consumers believe that the firm is paying the source for his or her endorsement.⁵⁰ This is especially relevant for celebrities and athletes who are paid large sums for their endorsements.

Celebrity Sources Celebrities are widely used in advertising. Marketers are increasingly using culturally diverse celebrities to reach an ethnically diverse U.S. population. Eva Mendes (Pantene), Kobe Bryant (Nike), Penelope Cruz (Lancome Tresor Fragrance), and Michelle Wie (Omega watches) are just a few such celebrities with endorsement contracts or their own product lines.

A visible use of celebrity endorsers in recent years has been the mustache campaign for milk. Illustration 11–5 clearly targets the growing ethnic market in the United States.

Celebrity sources are effective for a variety of reasons.⁵¹

- *Attention.* Celebrities may attract attention to the advertisement. Consumers tend to be curious about celebrities and are drawn to ads in which they appear.
- *Attitude toward the ad.* A celebrity's likeability and popularity often translate into higher Aad, which can enhance brand attitudes.
- *Trustworthiness.* Despite being paid for their endorsements, celebrities often develop strong and credible public personas that consumers trust—and this trust translates into purchases. One study finds that private actions are just as important as professional achievements for many consumers, which explains why personal scandals can lead to a company firing an endorser, as we saw in the opener.⁵²
- *Expertise.* Some celebrities are also experts. This occurs frequently in areas such as music and sports. Sabian's partnership with Neil Peart is an example in music. Nike's partnership with Tiger Woods in golf equipment is an example in sports.
- *Aspirational aspects.* Consumers may identify with or desire to emulate the celebrity. As a consequence, they may imitate the behavior and style of a celebrity through purchases of similar brands and styles. For example, popular actresses often lead the way in terms of clothing and hair styles for young women.
- *Meaning transfer.* Consumers may associate known characteristics of the celebrity with attributes of the product that coincide with their own needs or desires. For example, urban youth looking for “street cred” see celebrity athletes like Alan Iverson as powerful icons. As one executive states, “He’s from the streets. They admire him.”⁵³

As the last point suggests, effectiveness of a celebrity endorser can generally be improved by matching the image of the celebrity with the personality of the product and the actual or desired self-concept of the target market.

When the three components shown in Figure 11–4 are well matched, effective attitude formation or change can result.⁵⁴ For example, “Avril Lavigne, known for her pairing of frilly dresses and combat boots, will bring her style to the juniors department at Kohl’s department stores. The edgy, pop-rock star’s clothing line ‘Abbey Dawn’ was named after her childhood nickname.”⁵⁵ In this case, there should be a strong match between the celebrity, the clothing line, and the teen and tween female consumers who want to emulate the singer’s style and personality. Sometimes images don’t mesh and should be avoided. For example, Burger King canceled talks with Paris Hilton when it decided her racy image might be too extreme for the franchise.⁵⁶ A recent study also supports the importance of match-up in sports marketing in China.⁵⁷

Using a celebrity as a company spokesperson creates special risks. One risk is overexposure. If a celebrity endorses many products, consumers’ reactions may become less positive. Thus, marketers might consider limiting the number of products “their” celebrities endorse.⁵⁸ An additional risk, as we saw in the opening example, is that negative behavior involving the spokesperson will affect the individual’s credibility and, in turn,

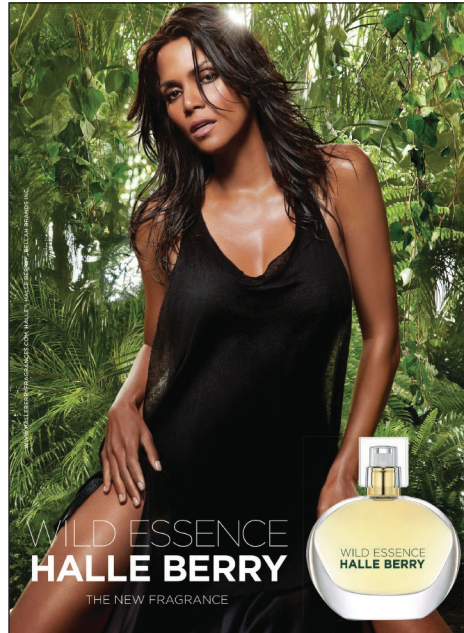
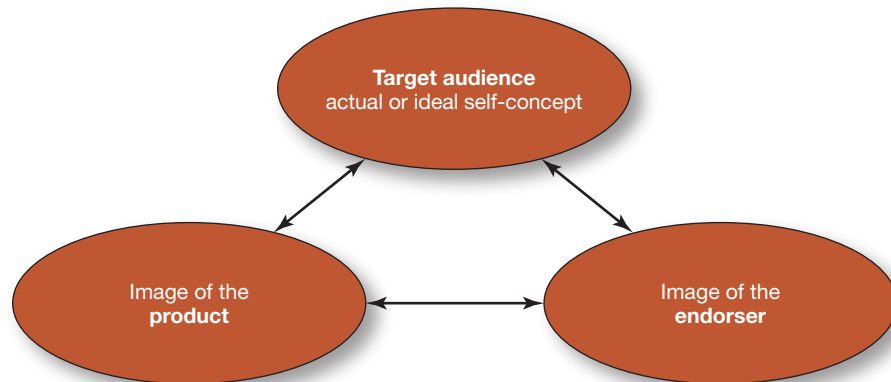


ILLUSTRATION 11-5

Ethnic celebrities are increasingly common in U.S. advertisements as a way to target specific ethnic subcultures.

FIGURE 11-4 Matching Endorser with Product and Target Audience


damage the firm's image.⁵⁹ Rawlings and Nike terminated their deals with Michael Vick after his indictment for dog fighting. And to protect its family image, NASCAR was quick to penalize Dale Earnhardt Jr. for using profanity in an interview. And PLBS, a Pittsburgh company that made Big Ben Beef Jerky, terminated its contract with Ben Roethlisberger after several off-field scandals, citing their "morals clause."

Rather than use celebrities, many firms are creating **spokescharacters**.⁶⁰ Tony the Tiger and the Green Giant are perhaps the most famous, although Geico's gecko and Aflac's duck have quickly become household names. Spokescharacters can be animated animals, people, products, or other objects. A major advantage of spokescharacters is complete image control. This eliminates many of the problems associated with real celebrities. Such characters come to symbolize the brand and give it an identity that competitors cannot easily duplicate. Illustration 11-6 shows how spokescharacters are used as product symbols.

Sponsorship *Sponsorship, a company providing financial support for an event* such as the Olympics or a concert, is one of the most rapidly growing marketing activities and a multibillion-dollar industry.⁶¹ Sponsorships in North America continue to grow and total spending exceeds \$16 billion per year.⁶² One high-profile example is Nextel's replacement of Winston as NASCAR's title sponsor.⁶³ Another example is Coke's sponsorship of the FIFA World Cup.⁶⁴ The potential to generate goodwill in sports sponsorships is particularly high among rabid fans.⁶⁵ These fans may react along these lines: "Reebok supports my team, so I'm going to support Reebok."

Sponsorships often work in much the same manner as using a celebrity endorser, and the matchup described in Figure 11-4 is important (where the sponsor replaces the endorser in Figure 11-4). Mismatches can generate consumer backlash such as the negative reactions over an Ohio hospital's plan to name its children's emergency and trauma center after Abercrombie & Fitch, a company that advocacy groups see as engaging in "not-exactly-child-friendly advertising."⁶⁶ Sponsor match-up is important in countries such as France and Australia as well.⁶⁷

Finally, it is important to remember that sponsorships should be promoted through offline, online, and social media to maximize awareness and effectiveness.

Appeal Characteristics

As you would expect, the nature of the appeal, or "how" a message is communicated, affects attitude formation and change.



**You're going places.
The duck will keep it that way.**

You're following your dreams, and for that we applaud you (or would if ducks could clap). But we aren't just looking at what you're doing today. We're thinking about your plans for tomorrow and helping you reach your goals even if you get sick or hurt. With an average one-day turnaround for online claims¹, you can trust you'll get your cash quickly, so you can get back to making those dreams a reality.

Affac.

Find out why Affac is right for you at affac.com

¹File Company Statistics, October 2012. One day processing turnaround based on business days after all documents are received. Online claims available for Accident, Sickness, Cancer and Wellness claims. Coverage is underwritten by American Family Life Assurance Company of Columbus. In New York, coverage is underwritten by American Family Life Assurance Company of New York. This ad is not intended for residents of Alaska, Idaho, or the Virgin Islands. Worldwide Headquarters | 1932 Winton Road | Columbus, GA 31906

212-2298 12/13

ILLUSTRATION 11-6

Spokescharacters are gaining popularity. They can add credibility to a message as well as attract attention. Some come to serve as a symbol of the product.

Fear Appeals

The picture at the top of an ad is a snapshot of a young couple sitting together on their back deck. The headline reads: “I woke up in the hospital. Patti never woke up.” The copy describes how carbon monoxide poisoning caused the tragedy. The ad, one of a series of similar ads, is for First Alert carbon monoxide detector.

Fear appeals use *the threat of negative (unpleasant) consequences if attitudes or behaviors are not altered*. Fear appeals have been studied primarily in terms of physical fear (physical harm from smoking, unsafe driving, and eating genetically modified foods), but social fears (disapproval of one’s peers for incorrect clothing, bad breath, or smoking) are also used in advertising.⁶⁸

There is some evidence that individuals avoid or distort extremely threatening messages. At the same time, fear appeals tend to be more effective as higher levels of fear are aroused. Thus, those using fear appeals want to maximize the level of fear aroused while not presenting a threat so intense as to cause the consumer to distort, reject, or avoid the message. This task is difficult because individuals respond differently to threats. Thus, the same “threatening” advertisement may arouse no fear in one individual or group and a high level of fear in another.⁶⁹ To further complicate matters, creating fear may not be enough. Recent research suggests that making people feel *accountable* to act by playing on guilt or regret emotions (e.g., ad for heart attack prevention medicine showing what the family goes through if you fail to act and die from a heart attack) may also be necessary to induce desired behaviors.⁷⁰ Consumer Insight 11–1 provides an example of both the tripartite attitude approach and fear appeals in the efforts to decrease cigarette consumption in the United States.



Scare You Smokeless

Prior to the 1970s, cigarette smoking was a “perceived and promoted” healthy habit recommended by doctors, Santa Claus, and infants.⁷¹ Cigarettes were packed with the c-rations provided to soldiers during WWII.⁷² Celebrities, including lovable cartoon characters Fred Flintstone and Barney Rubble of the long-running TV series *The Flintstones*, promoted the enjoyment of smoking cigarettes.⁷³

Today smoking cigarettes is understood to be an unhealthy habit. The three-pronged effort— affective, behavioral, cognitive—to decimate cigarette consumption, along with antismoking advertisements and the increase in cigarette prices, has been credited with the decline of smoking in the United States.⁷⁴ To decrease consumer top-of-the mind awareness (cognitive component), cigarette advertising was banned from TV and radio (1971).⁷⁵ To make it harder to engage in smoking behavior, 38 states have some form of ban on smoking in enclosed public areas—restaurants, offices, theatres (behavioral component).⁷⁶ To induce fear as a deterrent (affective component), cigarette packages were required to carry warning labels proclaiming its health hazard (1984).⁷⁷

In recent years, the suggestion for the United States to follow in the footsteps of 40 other countries, including Thailand, England, and Canada, to include graphics—photos of diseased lungs and rotting teeth—to the health warning labels has been championed as a technique to aid efforts to prevent, decrease, and eliminate the consumption of tobacco.⁷⁸ It is a more severe form of the fear appeal discussed previously and designed to operate directly via the affective component of attitudes (though it also likely indirectly operates via cascading effects on thoughts and behaviors). Research in other countries where the effort has been ongoing finds that consumers report that the graphic images help them to decrease cigarette consumption and prevent initial use.⁷⁹ Whether or not the enactment of such a requirement in the United States would lead to similar results will remain moot. The courts have recently ruled that

requiring cigarette manufacturers to include graphics is a violation of the First Amendment right of free speech.⁸⁰

Cigarette manufacturers and governmental regulation bodies will now have to contend with the recent arrival of e-cigarettes. A battery-powered device that looks like a cigarette, e-cigarettes or electronic cigarettes vaporize a liquid solution that can deliver nicotine or non-nicotine flavorings smoke free. Too new to be a real commercial threat, but growing too fast to be ignored, cigarette manufacturers are hedging their bets by buying e-cigarette companies (in 2012, Lorillard bought e-cigarette company Blu for \$135 million; in 2014 Altria announced it was buying e-cigarette company Green Smoke for \$110 million) and developing their own e-cigarette brands, MarkTen (Altria) and Vuse (Reynolds). With insufficient information to know whether e-cigarettes will act as a deterrent or as a gateway to smoking conventional cigarettes and whether their long-term effect is less threatening to health than traditional cigarettes, governmental regulating bodies have waded tepidly into the regulation waters.⁸¹

E-cigarettes are an interesting case study in attitude formation for new products. Companies are marketing the products as safe (cognitive component) and the users as sophisticated and individualistic (affective component), which will likely drive adoption in the future by consumers. Government regulating bodies are finding it hard to form “attitudes” towards this new nicotine delivery device due to the lack of information and research with which to form those attitudes. As we can see, attitudes are important for consumers, marketers, and government regulators.

Critical Thinking Questions

1. Describe each attitude component used in deterring cigarette smoking in the United States.
2. Using what you know about fear appeals, do you think the graphic approach will work better than verbal warnings?
3. Find and evaluate an advertisement for e-cigarettes using the information from this chapter.



ILLUSTRATION 11-7

Examine Illustration 11–7. *Is this Internet Segura ad an effective use of a fear appeal?*

Fear appeals are frequently criticized as unethical. Frequent targets of such criticisms are fear appeals based on social anxieties about bad breath, body odor, dandruff, or soiled clothes. The thrust of these complaints is that these appeals raise anxieties unnecessarily; that is, the injury or harm that they suggest will occur is unlikely to occur or is not really harmful. Fear appeals used to produce socially desirable behaviors such as avoiding drug use or avoiding acknowledged physical risks such as carbon monoxide poisoning are subject to much less criticism.⁸²



Humorous Appeals At almost the opposite end of the spectrum from fear appeals are **humorous appeals**.⁸³ Ads built around humor appear to increase attention to and liking of the ad, particularly for those individuals high in *need for humor*.⁸⁴ It also increases attitude toward the brand.⁸⁵ The overall effectiveness of humor is generally increased when the humor relates to the product or brand in a meaningful way and is viewed as appropriate for the product by the target audience.⁸⁶ Illustration 11–8 shows an ad that makes effective use of humor.

Here is another effective use of humor:

Snickers' “You’re just not you when you’re hungry” featured Betty White whining during a touch football game, before eating a Snickers bar offered by a friend, and then turning back into himself. This ad aired during the Super Bowl and won *USA Today*’s ad meter award.⁸⁷ The humor points to how being hungry makes one grumpy and that Snickers satisfies that hunger.

Fear appeals such as this Internet Segura ad, can be effective at forming, reinforcing, and/or changing attitudes. The ethics of such appeals should be examined carefully before they are used.

ILLUSTRATION 11-8

Humor is widely used in advertising to attract attention and alter attitudes.



While it is generally recommended that humor be relevant, companies have been successful using humor that is only loosely tied to the product (e.g., Geico's Gecko ads in which the confusion between the two creates the humor, even though the Gecko has nothing to do with auto insurance). In these cases, humor attracts attention, and the positive emotional response may transfer to the brand via classical conditioning or Aad.⁸⁸ Humorous ads also involve risk. What is considered funny varies across individuals, cultures, and situations.⁸⁹ Humor viewed as demeaning or insulting can cost a company image and sales.

Comparative Ads Comparative ads directly compare the features or benefits of two or more brands (see Illustration 11-9). Comparative ads are often more effective than noncomparative ads in generating attention, message and brand awareness, greater message processing, favorable sponsor brand attitudes, and increased purchase intentions and behaviors. However, comparative ads can also have negative consequences for the sponsor brand such as lower believability, lower attitude toward the ad and sponsor brand, and

ILLUSTRATION 11-9

Comparison ads can be very effective at changing attitudes about lesser-known brands.

Product	Calories	Protein	Fiber
49 PISTACHIOS	160	6 grams	3 grams
13 FLAVORED TORTILLA CHIPS	160	2 grams	1 gram

You don't have to be a genius to realize that for the same amount of calories you get more snackification from a fistful of pistachios than you do from a few measly flavored tortilla chips. And get this: pistachios are naturally cholesterol and trans fat free, a good source of protein and fiber, and heart-friendly. Now that's snackin' with smarts.

Scientific evidence suggests but does not prove that eating 1.5 ounces per day of most nuts, such as pistachios, as part of a diet low in saturated fat and cholesterol may reduce the risk of heart disease. See nutrition information for fat content. ©2014 Paramount Farms International LLC. All rights reserved. WONDERFUL, GET CRACKIN', the Package Design and accompanying logos are registered trademarks of Paramount Farms International LLC. WP10214

Get Crackin'

more positive attitude toward the competitor brand(s).⁹⁰ Available evidence suggests that comparative ads should follow these guidelines:⁹¹

- Comparative advertising may be particularly effective for promoting new or little-known brands with strong product attributes to create their position or to upgrade their image by association. When established brands use comparative ads, they may appear “defensive.” This may be particularly true if comparisons are seen as overly derogatory.
- Comparative advertising is likely to be more effective if its claims are substantiated by credible sources. Also, research should be used to determine the optimal number of claims.
- Audience characteristics, especially brand loyalty associated with the sponsoring brand, are important. Users of the named competitor brands appear to resist comparative claims.
- Since comparative ads are more interesting than noncomparatives (and more offensive), they may be effective in stagnant categories where noncomparative ads have ceased to be effective.
- Print media appear to be better vehicles for comparative advertisements because print lends itself to more thorough comparisons.
- Care must be used with *partially* comparative ads because of their misleading potential. A partially comparative ad contains comparative and noncomparative information and may lead consumers to believe the sponsor brand is superior on all attributes, not just the compared attributes.

Emotional Appeals Emotional or feeling ads are being used with increasing frequency. **Emotional ads** are *designed primarily to elicit a positive affective response rather than to provide information or arguments*. Emotional ads such as those that arouse feelings of warmth trigger physiological reactions (see Chapter 10). Emotional advertisements may enhance persuasion by increasing⁹²

- Attention and processing of the ad and, therefore, ad recall.
- Liking of the ad.
- Product liking through classical conditioning.
- Product liking through high-involvement processes.

As we discussed previously, whether emotional ads operate through classical conditioning and Aad (low involvement) or through more analytical high-involvement processes depends on the relevance of the emotion to evaluating key aspects of the product.

In addition, emotional ads appear to work better than rational or informational ads for heavy (versus light) users of a brand and more established (versus new) brands in a market. This effect may be due to the fact that heavy users and established brands already have an established knowledge base for attribute information, making emotions a more compelling differentiating feature.⁹³ The Prize Not Fighter ad by the Humane Society in Illustration 11–10 is designed to elicit emotional responses.

Value-Expressive versus Utilitarian Appeals **Value-expressive appeals** attempt to build a personality for the product or create an image of the product user. **Utilitarian appeals** involve informing the consumer of one or more functional benefits that are important to the target market. Which is best under what conditions?

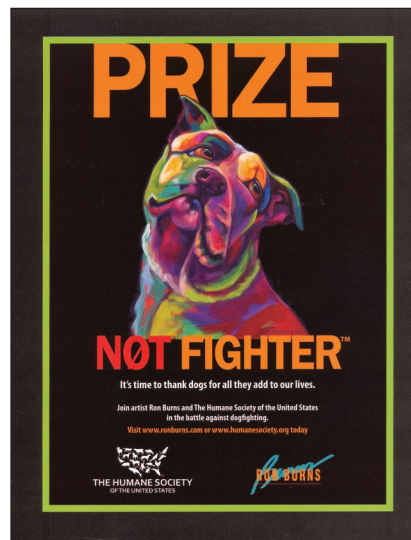


ILLUSTRATION 11-10

Ads such as the Humane Society’s Prize Not Fighter ad evoke powerful emotional responses in some individuals. These emotional responses often facilitate attitude change.

have it all!

COMPLETE SALON MANICURE™
7 benefits. 1 bottle.

- ✓ Salon Color
- ✓ Chip Resistant
- ✓ Base Coat
- ✓ Strengtheners
- ✓ Growth Treatment
- ✓ Top Coat
- ✓ Gel Shine

And with the *flawless finish brush* you get a salon perfect mani!

CSM. The total package.

Nail the look with these shades:
Back to the Fuchsia with Peach of Cake

Sally Hansen
COMPLETE SALON MANICURE

Find your color at sallyhansen.com

Go **BALLISTIC**
THE LIGHTEST WALLET IN THE WORLD

SLIM — STRONG — SAFE

Made from featherweight Carbon Fiber - the Ballistic Wallet™ offers RFID-Blocking*, keeping cards and IDs safe from unauthorized access.

Available Online

* protects against most RFID

www.BallisticWallet.com

f [QR Code]
t [QR Code]

ILLUSTRATION 11-11

Utilitarian appeals such as the Ballistic Wallet ad generally work best with functional products; value-expressive appeals such as the Sally Hansen ad work best with products designed to enhance one's image or provide other intangible benefits.

Both theory and some empirical evidence indicate that *utilitarian* appeals are most effective for functional products and *value-expressive* appeals are most effective for products designed to enhance self-image or provide other intangible benefits.⁹⁴ Which to use can be difficult when, as in the case of automobiles, many consider the product primarily utilitarian while many others consider it primarily value-expressive. Some marketers hedge their bets in such situations by appealing to both aspects simultaneously. Illustration 11-11 contains an example of each approach. Which appeal is primarily being used in the Sally Hansen ad versus the Ballistic Wallet ad?

Research also indicates that banner ads on websites should differ for the two types of products. For utilitarian products, banner ads serve primarily to transport consumers to the more detailed target ads or sites. For value-expressive products, banner ads should influence attitudes on the basis of exposure to the banner ad itself, not on clickthrough to the target ad.⁹⁵

Message Structure Characteristics

One-Sided versus Two-Sided Messages In advertisements and sales presentations, marketers generally present only the benefits of their product without mentioning any negative characteristics it might possess or any advantages a competitor might have. These are **one-sided messages** because only one point of view is expressed. The idea of a **two-sided message**, presenting both good and bad points, is counterintuitive, and most marketers are reluctant to try such an approach. However, two-sided messages are generally more effective than one-sided messages in changing a strongly held attitude. One reason is because they are unexpected and increase consumer trust in the advertiser. They are particularly effective with highly educated consumers. One-sided messages are most effective at reinforcing existing attitudes. However, product type, situational variables, and advertisement format influence the relative effectiveness of the two approaches.⁹⁶

Positive versus Negative Framing **Message framing** refers to presenting one of two equivalent value outcomes either in positive or gain terms (positive framing) or in negative or loss terms (negative framing). There are various *types* of message frames and the type of frame influences whether positive or negative framing is better.⁹⁷ The simplest form appears to be **attribute framing**, where only a single attribute is the focus of the frame. A classic example is describing ground beef as either 80 percent fat free (positive frame) or 20 percent fat (negative frame). In attribute framing situations, positive framing yields the most positive evaluations because it emphasizes the desirable aspects of the specific attribute.

Goal framing is where “the message stresses either the positive consequences of performing an act or the negative consequences of not performing the act.”⁹⁸ The act could be purchasing a specific brand, having a yearly mammogram, and so on. In each case the act is beneficial. However, in the positive frame, the benefits of the act are emphasized (e.g., increased chance of finding a tumor), while in the negative frame, the risks of not engaging in the act are emphasized (e.g., decreased chance of finding a tumor). In goal framing situations, the *negative* frame is generally more effective. This is likely due to the risk-averse nature of consumers coupled with the risk-enhancing nature of the negative goal frame.

Framing effects can vary across products, consumers, and situations. Thus, decisions to use positive or negative framing should ultimately be based on research for the specific product and market.⁹⁹

Nonverbal Components In Chapter 9, we discussed how pictures enhance imagery and facilitate learning. Pictures, music, surrealism, and other nonverbal cues are also effective in attitude change. Emotional ads, described earlier, often rely primarily or exclusively on nonverbal content to arouse an emotional response. Nonverbal ad content can also affect cognitions about a product. For example, an ad showing a person drinking a new beverage after exercise provides information about appropriate usage situations without stating “good to use after exercise.” Thus, nonverbal components can influence attitudes through affect, cognition, or both.

MARKET SEGMENTATION AND PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES BASED ON ATTITUDES

L06

Market Segmentation

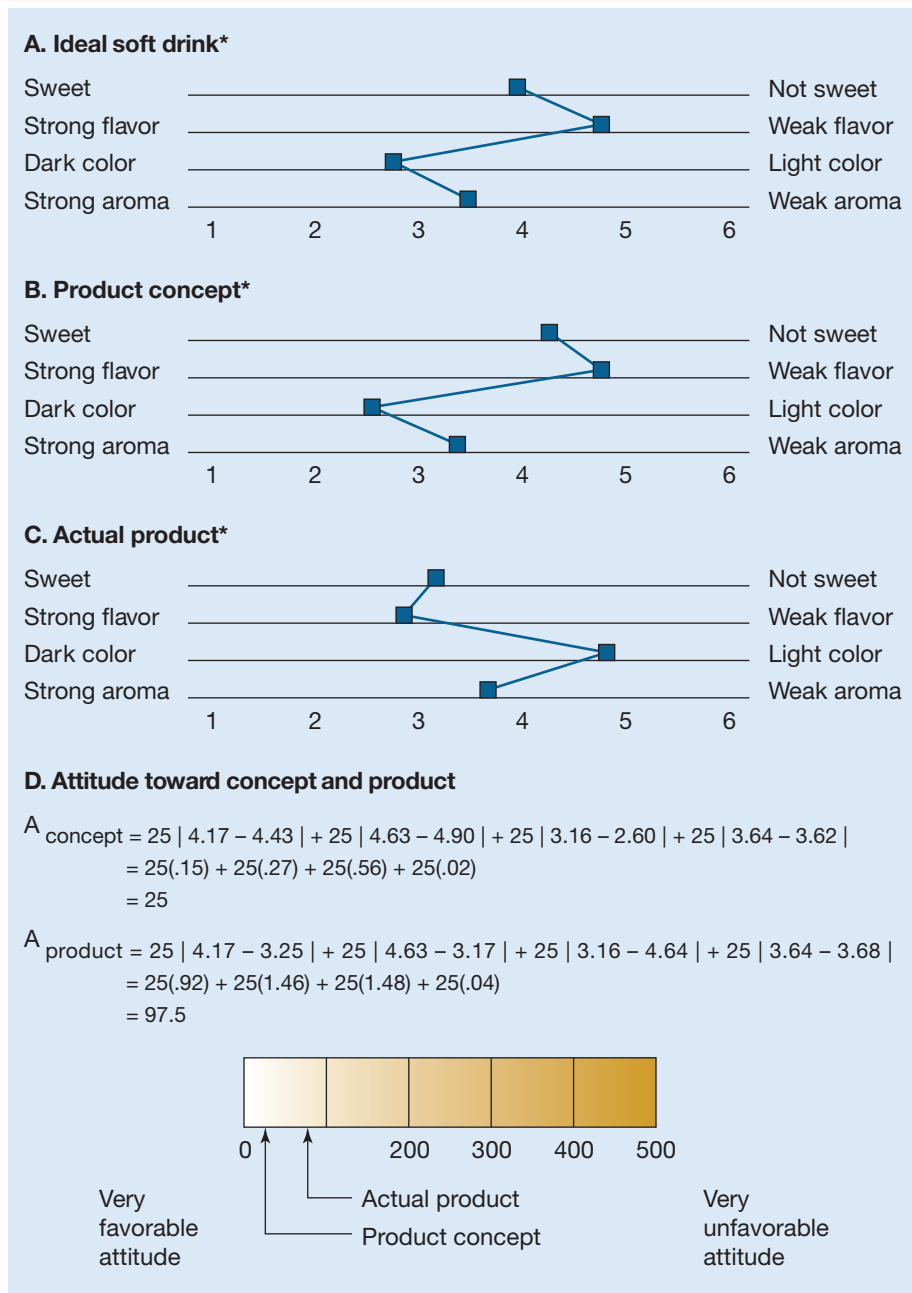
Identifying market segments is a key aspect of marketing. Properly designed marketing programs should be built around the unique needs of each market segment. The importance of various attributes is one way of defining customer needs for a given product. *Segmenting consumers on the basis of their most important attribute or attributes* is called **benefit segmentation**.¹⁰⁰

To define benefit segments, a marketer needs to know the importance that consumers attach to various product or service features. This allows consumers who seek the same benefits to be grouped into segments. Additional information about consumers within each segment can then be obtained to develop a more complete picture of each segment. Based on this information, separate marketing programs can be developed for each of the selected target segments.

Product Development

While the importance consumers attach to key attributes provides a meaningful way to understand needs and form benefit segments, the ideal levels of performance indicate the consumers’ desired level of performance in satisfying those needs. These ideal levels of

TABLE 11-1 Using the Multiattribute Attitude Model in the Product Development Process



*Measured on a six-point semantic differential scale.

performance can provide valuable guidelines in developing a new product or reformulating an existing one.

Table 11-1 describes how Coca-Cola used this approach in developing a new soft drink.¹⁰¹ The first step is constructing a profile of a consumer segment’s ideal level of performance on key soft drink attributes. As shown in Table 11-1, four attributes were

identified for a particular type of soft drink, and ideal performance was obtained from consumer ratings as shown in section A.

A second step is creating a product concept that closely matches the ideal profile. The concept could be a written description, picture, or actual prototype. As section B in Table 11–1 shows, consumers evaluated the product concept developed by Coca-Cola as being fairly close to their ideal on each of the four attributes. Only color appears to be off target slightly by being a little too dark.

The next step is translating the concept into an actual product. When Coca-Cola did this and presented the product to the consumers, they did not perceive it to be similar to either the product concept or their ideal (see section C in Table 11–1). Although the actual product achieved a reasonable attitude rating, the product concept scored higher (section D, Table 11–1). Thus, the product could benefit from further improvements to better align it with the ideal profile. This same basic procedure can be used to help design ads, packages, or retail outlets.

SUMMARY

LO1: Define attitude and its role in consumer behavior

Attitudes can be defined as the way people think, feel, and act toward some aspect of their environment. A result of all the factors discussed so far in the text, attitudes influence, as well as reflect, the lifestyle individuals pursue.

LO2: Summarize the three components of attitudes

Attitudes have three components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. The *cognitive component* consists of the individual's beliefs or knowledge about the object. It is generally assessed by using a version of the multiattribute attitude model. Feelings or emotional reactions to an object represent the *affective component* of the attitude and can be assessed in various ways including AdSAM®. The *behavioral component* reflects overt actions and statements of behavioral intentions with respect to specific attributes of the object or the overall object. In general, all three components tend to be consistent with each other. However, a number of factors can create inconsistencies and marketers must understand and incorporate these in their marketing research and communications strategies.

LO3: Discuss attitude change strategies associated with each attitude component

Attitude change strategies can focus on affect, behavior, cognition, or some combination. Attempts to change affect generally rely on classical conditioning. Change strategies focusing on behavior rely more on operant conditioning.

Changing cognitions usually involves information processing and cognitive learning. It can involve changing beliefs about such things as a brand's attribute levels, shifting the importance of a given attribute, adding beliefs about new attributes, or changing the perceived ideal point for a specific attribute or for the brand concept overall.

LO4: Describe the elaboration likelihood model of persuasion

The *elaboration likelihood model (ELM)* is a theory about how attitudes are formed and changed under varying conditions of involvement. The ELM suggests different communications strategies depending on involvement. In general, detailed factual information (central cues) is effective in high-involvement, central route situations. Low-involvement, peripheral route situations generally require limited information and instead rely on simple affective and cognitive cues such as pictures, music, and characteristics of people in the ad (peripheral cues). The ELM has found general support. However, what is perceived as relevant can depend on the situation (e.g., attractive model and hair may be “central” in shampoo ad but “peripheral” in car ad), and the nature of competition can bolster the role of peripheral cues even under high involvement.

LO5: Describe the role of message source, appeal, and structure on attitudes

Three communication characteristics are important to attitudes. They are source characteristics, message appeal characteristics, and message structure characteristics.