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**CONSUMERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ETHICS AND
ACCEPTABILITY OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT IN MOVIES:
AFRICAN AMERICANS AND ANGLO AMERICANS**

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ACCEPTABILITY OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT IN MOVIES:
AFRICAN AMERICANS AND ANGLO AMERICANS**

by

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Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas at Austin

December, 2008

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Publication No. _____

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The University of Texas at Austin, 2008

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ABSTRACT

The goal of the study was to explore African Americans' perceptions and acceptance of products used for placement in movies and to compare their perceptions to those of Anglo Americans. A mix between and repeated measures ANOVA was run to test four hypotheses dealing with race, gender and product differences. A factor analysis was run on the 30 attitudinal measures. A content analysis was done on the comments obtained from the open-ended question. Cross-tabulations were run on product and media consumption data.

The results indicated that there are differences in the perceptions and acceptance of products used for placement in movies across ethnic and cultural groups in the U.S., specifically African American and Anglo Americans. Not only were African Americans

less likely to accept ethically charged products for product placement in movies than Anglo Americans, their product acceptance ratings, in general, were lower than those of Anglo Americans. In fact, African American males rated all of the products lower than African American females and Anglo American males and females.

The implications are that product, race, gender, frequency of movie watching and attitudinal differences should be considered when the product placement strategy is used. Advertisers and marketers should use caution when using the product placement strategy to target the African American market and when selecting the types of products to be used for placement.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

“The stars of Fox’s summer vacation drama, *Johnson Family Vacation*, are Cedric The Entertainer, Bow Wow, Vanessa L. Williams and a hip hop Lincoln Navigator with Burberry interior, spinning rims, video-game consoles and a running-at-the-mouth navigation system. For the beginning the producers say, the luxury SUV Navigator, which is ‘rigged to the heights of hip hop perfection,’ was considered as another character in the movie, another member of the out-of-control, disaster-prone family of Nate Johnson, who sets out on a cross-country trek from California to Missouri with three unruly children and one unsatisfied wife, to attend the Johnson clan’s annual reunion.”

The above quote is taken from an article in the 2004 issue of *Ebony* magazine.

This is just one example of brand placement where the brand holds a supporting role in a film targeted to the African American market.

Even though advertisers and marketers have increasingly used brand placement in film and television programs, researchers have only recently begun to study the audience’s reactions to the technique. The earliest research studies on this topic were done in the early 1980s and 1990s. The majority of the research centered on effectiveness (d’Astous and Chartier, 2000; DeLorme and Reid, 1999; Gupta and Lord, 1998; Zimmer and DeLorme, 1997; Baker and Crawford, 1995; Babin and Carder, 1996; 1995; Vollmers, 1995; DeLorme, Reid and Zimmer, 1994; Karrh, 1994; Ong and Meri, 1994; Saberwahl, Pokrywczynski, and Griffin, 1994; Vollmers and Mizerski, 1994; Steertz, 1987). Three studies focused on ethical acceptability (Gupta and Gould, 1997; Baker and Crawford, 1995; Nebanzahl and Secunda, 1993). There were two content analyses (Saplosky and Kinney, 1994; Troup, 1991) done in the early 1990s and two studies on practitioners’ beliefs (Pardun and McKee, 1996; Karrh, 1995) in the mid 1990s.

Richmond (1999) did a study on semantics. In early 2000s, four cross-cultural studies (Lee, et al., 2007; McKechnie and Zhou, 2003; Karrh et al., 2001; Gould et al., 2000) that extended Gupta and Gould's (1997) approach were done. The studies focused on the differences and similarities in attitudes toward product placement across countries. However, no research has been done on the differences and similarities in attitudes toward product placement across ethnic and cultural groups (i.e., African Americans and Anglo Americans) within the United States.

The goal of this study is to explore African Americans' perceptions of the ethics and acceptability of product placement in movies and compare their perceptions to those of Anglo Americans.

The justification of this study comes in that it will be the first study to replicate attitudinal and behavioral measures in African American consumers. The present study will address the following questions:

1. Has the acceptance of ethically charged products changed over time?
 - 1a. Will ethically charged products be perceived as *less* acceptable for placement in movies than non-ethically charged products?
2. Will there be a product x race interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies?
 - 2a. Given a product x race interaction, will African Americans be *less* likely than Anglo Americans to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies while not differing with regards to non-ethically charged products?
3. Will there be a product x gender interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies?
 - 3a. Given a product x gender interaction, will African American males be *more* likely than African American females to accept ethically charged

products for placement in movies while not differing with regards to non-ethically charged products?

4. Will there be a product x frequency of movie-watching interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies?
- 4a. Given a product x frequency of movie-watching interaction, will consumers who watch movies more frequently be *more* likely to accept product placement across products than consumers who watch movies less frequently?

The data were analyzed in four ways: A mix between and repeated measures ANOVA was run to test four hypotheses dealing with product, race, gender and frequency of movie-watching differences. A factor analysis was run on the 30 attitudinal measures. A content analysis was done on the comments obtained from the open-ended question. Cross-tabulations were run on product and media consumption data.

OVERVIEW OF REPORT

The paper reports the findings of a study on African American and Anglo American consumers' perceptions of the ethics and acceptance of product placement in movies. Chapter 1 provides the goal and justification for the study, the research questions to be addressed, and a brief description of the methodology to be used in the study. Chapter 2 provides a detailed survey of the literature on product placement. Chapter 3 provides the four hypotheses to be tested. Chapter 4 describes the methodology used in the study. Chapter 5 describes the type of the data analysis used in the study and gives a summary of the results. Chapter 6 summarizes the findings, limitations, and future research, managerial implications and conclusions. A copy of the instrument used to collect data for the study is included in the appendices.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Increasing advertising clutter on television, rising advertising costs and technological advances that give consumers more control over what and how they watch television have led to increased interest and growth in brand placement. Brand placement, known as “advertising-as-entertainment,” is not a new concept. Historically, advertisers and marketers have promoted their brands through sponsor-owned shows. Advertisers and marketers began investing in the production of radio programs in the 1930s (Lavin, 1995). Radio programs were developed by detergent companies (e.g., Procter and Gamble) to promote their products by integrating the brands into the scripts (Stern, 1991). Because soap products were advertised during the radio programs, the shows became known as “soap operas.” Advertisers and marketers had direct control of the soap operas’ storylines and creative design. In the 1950s, the soap operas moved from radio to television and the practice of integrating the brands into scripts continued (Barnouw, 1975). The use of sponsorship and brand placement declined in the late 1970s and early 1980s when advertisers and marketers realized that they could achieve greater reach by spreading their advertising budget across many shows (Savan, 1996). As traditional media became more fragmented in the late 1980s and the early 1990s, brand placement regained the attention of the advertisers and marketers because the strategy gave them the opportunity to pitch their brands to a large audience at a relatively low cost.

Although advertisers and marketers have increasingly used brand placement in film and television programs, researchers have only recently begun to study audiences’

reactions to the technique (Gupta and Gould, 1997). Most of the earlier studies were done in the 1990s and centered on effectiveness (Babin and Carder, 1995, 1996; Gupta and Lord, 1998; Karrh, 1994; Ong and Meri, 1994; Vollmers and Mizerski, 1994) and ethics and acceptability (Gupta and Gould, 1997; Nebanzahl and Secunda, 1993). More recently, cross-cultural studies (McKechnie and Zhou, 2003; Karrh et al., 2001; Gould et al., 2000 and Lee et al., 2007) that built on and extended Gupta and Gould's (1997) approach were done. Although the cross-cultural studies focused on the differences and similarities in attitudes toward product placement across countries, little is known about the differences and similarities across ethnic and cultural groups within the United States. The proposed study will address this issue by focusing on African American and Anglo American consumers' attitudes toward product placement.

This chapter provides a survey of the literature on product placement. The chapter begins with a summary of brand placement definitions and the types of brand placement, the advantages and disadvantages of the technique, the difference between product placement and brand placement, the increased importance of the technique, the types of compensation for product placement, and the legal and ethical issues regarding the practice. A detailed summary and critique of the product placement research is provided. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the African American market and its significance to advertisers and marketers.

Definitions of Brand Product

The literature on brand placement offered a variety of definitions. Brand placement has been defined as “the inclusion of a brand name, product package, signage,

or other trademark merchandise within a motion picture, television show, or music video” (Steertz 1987, p. 22); “a paid product message aimed at influencing movie audiences via the planned and unobtrusive entry of a branded product into a movie.” (Balasubramanian 1994, p. 31); and “the inclusion of commercial products or services in any form in television and film productions in return for some sort of payment from the advertiser.”(Baker and Crawford 1995, p. 2). In “Brand Placement: A Review”, Karrh (1998) criticizes Steertz (1987), Balasubramanian (1994), and Baker and Crawford (1995) for omitting some important components from their definitions. Steertz’s (1987) definition omitted the paid nature of the medium and limited the activity only to visual placement. Balasubramanian (1994) and Baker and Crawford’s (1995) definitions limited the media in which the brands were placed to film and television, omitting other popular media such as video games, Broadway shows, music videos, and novels. Balasubramanian (1994) also suggests that brand placement is unobtrusive, which is not always the case. Karrh (1998) defined brand placement as “the compensated inclusion of brands or brand identifiers, through audio and/or visual means, with mass media programming.” Russell and Belch (2005) defined brand placement as “the purposeful incorporation of a brand into an entertainment vehicle.” Russell and Belch’s (2005) definition is one of the most comprehensive because it does not restrict brand placement to television and movies (Wasko, Phillips and Purdie, 1993), includes radio shows, songs and music videos, video games, plays, and novels (Friedman, 1985), has different modalities and multiple degrees of brand integration (Russell, 2002), and acknowledges that all placements are not paid (Russell and Belch, 2005). Table 1 summarizes the

different brand placement definitions.

TABLE 1 SUMMARY OF BRAND PLACEMENT DEFINITIONS

Author	Definitions
Steertz (1987)	The inclusion of a brand name, product package, signage, or other trademark merchandise within a motion picture, television show, or music video.
Shortcomings:	Omitted the paid nature of the medium. Limited the activity only to visual placement.
Balasubramanian (1994)	A paid product message aimed at influencing movie audiences via the planned and unobtrusive entry of a branded product into a movie.
Shortcomings:	Limited the media to film and television. Omitted other popular media such as video games, Broadway shows, music videos, and novels. Limited brand placement to prominent placement.
Baker and Crawford (1995)	The inclusion of commercial products or services in any form in television and film productions in return for some sort of payment from the advertiser.
Shortcomings:	Limited the media to film and television. Omitted other popular media such as video games, Broadway shows, music videos, and novels. Limited brand placement to prominent placement.
Karrh (1998)	The compensated inclusion of brands or brand identifiers, through audio and/or visual means, with mass media programming.
Shortcomings:	Limited brand placement to paid placements.
Russell and Belch (2005)	The purposeful incorporation of a brand into an entertainment vehicle.

The literature showed that the definition of brand placement changed over time to address its usage in nontraditional media, its different modes and dimensions, and the different types of compensation used to pay for the technique.

THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF BRAND PLACEMENT

Brand Placement Modality

There are different modes and dimensions of brand placement used in film and television. Gupta and Lord (1998) categorized the three modes as follows: visual brand placement, audio brand placement and audio-visual brand placement. Visual brand placement, the first mode of brand placement, is a method where a visual representation of the brand is used as a prop in a scene. There is no audio mention of the brand. The brand is strategically placed in the foreground, usually being used by one of the main characters, or the background, usually displayed as a billboard or some other form of visual advertisement. The second mode, audio brand placement, is a method where there is a verbal mention of the brand either in the screenplay or in the audio track. The third mode, audio-visual brand placement is a combination of the first two methods. In audio-visual brand placement, the brand is used as a prop in a scene along with a verbal mention of the brand's name or a brand relevant message. The brand relevant message is usually the brand's slogan.

Brand Placement Prominence

In terms of the prominence of brand placement, the literature recognizes two dimensions of brand placement: prominent placement and subtle placement. Prominent placement or "on-set placement" is used to classify brands that are overtly displayed in the foreground of a scene, while subtle placement or "creative placement" is used to classify brands that are placed in the background of a scene (Gupta and Lord, 1998). The Lincoln Navigator in the *Johnson Family Vacation* (2004) is a perfect example of

prominent placement. Not only do the characters physically interact with the car, the luxury SUV is “considered as another character in the movie.” The most noted example of prominent placement is the Reese’s Pieces being eaten by the alien in Steven Spielberg’s film, *E.T., The Extra Terrestrial* (1982). We see subtle placement in film and television all the time. Most brand placements can be classified as subtle placements. Unobtrusive by nature, subtle placements include brands and advertisements (i.e. print advertisements and outdoor posters) used in the background of a scene. Because the brands are placed in the background, audiences may fail to recognize and/or recall them. In both cases, the branded products are used as props to add realism to the setting (DeLorme, Reid and Zimmer, 1999). Table 2 summarizes the different modes and dimensions of brand placement.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Brand Placement

Product placement offers many benefits. Some researchers have reported on the positive impact of product placement. Product placement subsidizes the cost of making films or television programs (Macklem, 2000); achieves high reach at a low cost; enhances realism; creates positive association with on-screen characters (Karrh, 1995; Pardun and McKee, 1997); and enriches plot, theme and character of popular cultural texts (Hirshman, 1988, Holbrook and Grayson, 1986).

While product placement offers filmmakers many benefits, it is not without its critics. Both consumers and experts have voiced concern about its possible negative impact. Researchers have noted the negative impact of product placement. The concerns were that product placement lessens the artistic value of film (Macklem, 1995); promotes

ethically charged products (Basil, 1997); and is a form of subliminal advertising (Baker and Crawford, 1995).

Therefore, additional research investigating both the potential positive and negative impact of product placement on audiences and consumers is needed. This study adds to the body of the knowledge of product placement perceptions and acceptance by focusing on ethically charged products

TABLE 2 MODES AND DIMENSIONS OF BRAND PLACEMENT

Mode	
Visual	Method where a visual representation of the brand is used as a prop in a scene. There is no audio mention of the brand. Includes brands placed in the foreground, usually being used by one of the main characters, or the background, usually displayed as a billboard or some other form of visual advertisement.
Audio	Method where there is a verbal mention of the brand either in the screenplay or in the audio track.
Audio-visual	A combination of the first two methods. The brand is used as a prop in a scene along with a verbal mention of the brand's name or a brand relevant message.
Dimension	
Prominent	Method where brands are overtly displayed in the foreground of a scene. or "on-set"
Subtle	Method where brands are placed in the background of a scene. Includes brands and or "creative" advertisements (i.e. print advertisements and outdoor posters) used in the background of a scene.

Product Placement versus Brand Placement

In the literature, the terms "brand placement" and "product placement" were used

interchangeably. “Brand placement” was often and incorrectly called “product placement” in earlier trade and academic articles. The term “product placement” was incorrect because a particular brand, rather than a product type was usually highlighted in these articles (Barbin and Carder, 1996; DeLorme, Reid and Zimmer, 1994; Karrh, 1995; 1994). The term “product placement” will be used in this paper because this study focuses on the perceptions and acceptance of different product types, *not brands*, used in product placement. Product placement will be defined as “the purposeful incorporation of a product into an entertainment vehicle.”

The Increased Importance of Product Placement

As stated earlier, placing branded products in entertainment media is not a new concept. Advertisers and marketers have used “advertising-as-entertainment” since the 1930s. In the last decade, product placement has grown for a number of reasons. One reason is that advertisers want to take advantage of the special characteristics of media (e.g., longer shelf life, global reach). Advertisers also want to take advantage of the strong persuasive power of the programs in which brands are placed. Studies have shown that movies can influence audiences’ social judgments. Yet another reason is that product placement is considered a form of celebrity endorsement known as implied endorsement. Placing brands in various media allows advertisers to obtain implied endorsements from celebrities who do not usually engage in more traditional endorsement deals (Karrh 1997). Implied endorsement is considered “...as powerful as a celebrity endorsement but more subtle... It’s conceivable that viewers will acknowledge and buy products used by idols on the big screen” (J. Walter Thompson USA 1989, p. 2).

Movie producers also see the benefits of product placement. Placing products in movies help to subsidize production costs. Since the 1990s, the number of companies that specialize in product placement has increased.

Compensation for Product Placement in Movies

Advertisers and marketers have increasingly used barter arrangement, cash payments, and promotional tie-ins to secure their brands' placement in film and television programs. In its infancy, no money was exchanged for product placement. Advertisers and filmmakers used the barter arrangement. In the 1930s, advertisers gave filmmakers products to use as props in exchange for signage in the films. By the 1980s, this arrangement began to change. Advertisers began to make cash payments for the inclusion of their product or product's name in a scene. By the 1990s, product placements were more commonplace and were increasingly used as promotional tie-ins in movies. The product placement industry has grown to a \$3.4 billion business (PQ Media, 2005) and makes up a promotional mix of over 1,000 brands in the United States (Marshall and Ayers, 1998).

LEGAL AND ETHICAL ISSUES REGARDING PRODUCT PLACEMENT

Legal Issues regarding Product Placement

Because of the unique nature of each medium, product placement in film and television are treated differently under the law. The product placement in films is largely unregulated because the United States Supreme Court has taken a "hands off" approach to the film industry (Snyder, 1992). On the other hand, television is strictly regulated because the broadcast networks use public resources to produce some of their programs.

The Federal Communication Commission (FCC) rules require specific identification of paid placements. The broadcast networks tend to self-govern by limiting brand appearances in their programs. Even with all of the restrictions, television advertisers can bypass some of the networks' policies and the FCC regulations by making product placements through their advertising agencies (Warner, 1995; Karrh, 1998).

Ethical Issues regarding Product Placement

Some consumer activist groups have expressed concern over product placement and have sought legal barriers to curtail the practice. Two such groups are the Center for Science in the Public Interest (CSPI) and the Center for the Study of Commercialism (CSC). The CSPI is a consumer advocacy organization whose twin missions are to conduct innovative research and advocacy programs in health and nutrition, and to provide consumers with current, useful information about their health and well-being and the CSC was co-founded by CSPI executive director Michael Jacobson.

In 1989, the CSPI petitioned the FCC and State Attorney General "to require either disclosure of placement to movie and television audiences or an outright ban on placement". The request was denied. (Snyder, 1992) The FCC also denied a petition by the CSC asking that "specific disclosures of paid placements be made to audiences." The activists' objections centered around three tenets: "...That consumers believe that placed brands are endorsed by the celebrities who are using them; that advertisers are trying to evade barriers to paid promotion; and that the practice is inherently deceptive because audiences do not perceive these brand appearances as advertising" (Elliot, 1994). Consumer activists' efforts to require disclosure of placement to audiences and/or to

outright ban placement have been unsuccessful to date. Note that the requests to curtail the use of product placement were not based on empirical data.

Ethics and Acceptability Research

Most consumers have not publicly expressed the concerns that consumer activists have over product placement. The majority of the studies done on the perceptions of the ethics and acceptability of product placement sampled college students because most films are targeted at young adults, 18-24 years old (Dortch, 1996; Johnson, 1981). These studies found a general acceptance of product placement in film.

Nebenzahl and Secunda (1993) were the first to publish a study on product placement. The researchers surveyed 171 college students and found that most respondents generally did not object to product placements in films, considered it an effective marketing communication technique, and preferred the technique to more overt forms of promotion. A small minority of the respondents objected to product placement because they felt it was deceptive.

Baker and Crawford (1995) conducted a study with 43 postgraduates in Scotland and found that 48 percent of the respondents stated that they considered product placement, 'a form of subliminal advertising', only 17 percent had a negative attitude toward the practice and only 23 percent felt a disclosure statement was warranted when placement was used.

Gupta and Gould (1997) conducted a study with 1,012 college students and found that respondents generally had a positive attitude toward product placement, but were opposed to "ethically charged" products, such as alcohol, guns, and tobacco products

(Gupta and Gould, 1997).

While results of earlier studies indicate a generally favorable attitude towards product placement, ethically charged products, such as alcohol, cigarettes and guns, are perceived as less acceptable. Ethically charged products or “emotionally charged” products are brands that promote a negative action or emotions. Gupta and Gould (1997) defined ethically charged products “as products which especially arouse ethical concern and differences across consumers regarding their marketing and consumption” (p.38) and cited alcohol, cigarettes and guns as examples. As stated earlier, Gupta and Gould (1997) results indicate that these ethically charged products are generally viewed as unacceptable for product placement. Subjects were asked to assess 13 products for acceptability for product placement in movies on a three-point scale, (1) for not acceptable, (2) for neither acceptable nor unacceptable, and (3) acceptable. The ethically charged products of alcohol, cigarettes and guns’ frequencies of acceptability were lower than the non-ethically charged products. The frequencies of acceptability were 60 percent for alcohol, 41.3 percent for cigarettes and 38.7 percent for guns. While 60 percent might appear to be a high rating, the lowest frequencies of acceptability for the other products were 86.8 percent for racing cars and the highest was 94.5 percent for soft drinks. The frequencies of acceptability ranged from 38.7 percent (for guns) to 94.5 percent (for soft drinks).

Even though Gupta and Gould (1997) reported that their respondents found gun placement to be the least acceptable, there has been more controversy over the placement of cigarettes in film and television. In 1971, cigarette advertising was banned from

broadcast media. In spite of the ban, tobacco companies continued to place brands in movies using celebrities to help market their products. In 1991, the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) investigated whether cigarette placement in movies shown on television should require a health warning. That same year, the tobacco industry voluntarily agreed to stop paid placement of its products in movies.

Government agencies, concerned citizens and the media have criticized alcohol and tobacco industries for marketing ethically charged products. Since cigarette advertising was banned from broadcast media in 1971, the tobacco industry has greatly increased its spending on print media advertising and corporate sponsorship of sports, the arts and ethnic cultural events. In lieu of advertising, tobacco companies have resorted to nontraditional forms of communication on such as the sponsorship of athletic events; product placement in movies; placement of brand names on clothing and or other products; placement-based media; contests; and cultural, civic, fashion and entertainment events.

More recently, McKechnie and Zhou (2003), Karrh et al. (2001), Gould et al. (2000) and Lee et al. (2007) conducted cross-cultural studies that built on and extended Gupta and Gould's (1997) studies. The cross-cultural studies focused on the differences and similarities in attitudes toward product placement across countries. The results showed that United States students were more accepting of product placement than students in other countries. Table 3 provides a summary of the studies focusing on ethics and acceptability. A summary of the ethics and acceptability studies done between 1997 and 2003 appears in Table 3.

TABLE 3 SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR FINDINGS OF PERCEPTIONS OF THE ETHICS AND ACCEPTABILITY STUDIES

Study	Nebenzahl and Secunda (1993)
Focus	Ethics and Acceptability
Sample	171 College Students
Method	Survey focusing on moviegoers' attitudes toward the practice of brand placement in movies.
Findings	Most respondents did not object to brand placement, thought it was an attitudes toward the practice than toward other, more obtrusive promotional forms. A small minority of respondents objected to brand placement because they felt it was deceptive.
Study	Baker and Crawford (1996)
Focus	Ethics and Acceptability
Sample	43 Postgraduate Students in Scotland
Method	Self-completion survey combined with oral questions after exposure of a particular full-length film containing several brands.
Findings	Found high levels of aided and unaided recall of placed brands. Immediately after viewing, 16 percent of the sample reported preference for placed brands. Respondents had generally neutral attitudes toward practice of brand placement and recognized it as an element in promotional mix.
Study	Gupta and Gould (1997)
Focus	Ethics and Acceptability, Product and Individual Differences
Sample	1,012 College Students at Large Midwestern University
Method	Self-Administrated Survey
Findings	Found that respondents generally had a positive attitude towards brand placement, but were opposed to "ethically charged" products such alcohol, guns, and tobacco products.

TABLE 3 SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR FINDINGS OF PERCEPTIONS OF THE ETHICS AND ACCEPTIBILITY STUDIES

Study	Gould <i>et al.</i> (2000)
Focus	Ethics and Acceptability, Product and Individual Differences
Sample	1,012 American, 204 French, 240 Austrian college students
Method	Self-Administrated Survey
Findings	Country, product and individual differences have an impact on the acceptability of product placement and on potential purchase behavior: country differences exist, but they are not prohibitive to following a standardization strategy; caution is urged for the placement of ethically charged products that seem to generate similar concerns across countries, especially in contrast to non-ethically charged products; and individual differences also persist, often in the form of complex interactions.
Study	Karrh <i>et al.</i> (2001)
Focus	Ethics and Acceptability, Product and Individual Differences
Sample	97 American and 97 Singaporean College Students
Method	Self-Administrated Survey
Findings	Both sets of respondents pay attention to brands in films and TV; American respondents pay more attention to their social identities; Singaporeans are less likely to perceive brand appearances as paid advertising, are more concerned about ethics of brand placement and more supportive of government restrictions on placement activities.
Study	McKechnie and Zhou (2003)
Focus	Ethics and Acceptability, Product and Individual Differences
Sample	American and Chinese college students
Method	Self-Administrated Survey
Findings	Results indicated that the Chinese were generally less accepting of product placement than Americans, while individual differences were not found to have much of an impact given the major differences in cultural values between the United States and the People Republic of China. They also indicated that more ethically charged products generated greater concerns among both American and Chinese consumers than less ethically charged products.

Based on the results of the above studies, it reasonable to assume that there might be differences in the attitudes toward product placement among consumers of different ethnic or cultural backgrounds. This research was designed to assess if such differences exist, especially in regards to ethically charged products.

A SUMMARY OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT RESEARCH

A survey of the literature showed 24 product placement studies were done from 1987 to 2007. Fourteen of the twenty studies focused on efficacy (d'Astous and Chartier, 2000; DeLorme and Reid, 1999; Gupta and Lord, 1998; Zimmer and DeLorme, 1997; Baker and Crawford, 1995; Babin and Carder, 1996; 1995; Vollmers, 1995; DeLorme, Reid and Zimmer, 1994; Karrh, 1994; Ong and Meri, 1994; Saberwahl, Pokrywczynski, and Griffin, 1994; Vollmers and Mizerski, 1994; Steertz, 1987), six on ethical acceptability (Lee, et al., 2007; McKechnie and Zhou, 2003; Karrh et al., 2001; Gould et al., 2000; Gupta and Gould, 1997; Baker and Crawford, 1995; Nebanzahl and Secunda, 1993), four of which were cross-cultural, (Lee, et al., 2007; McKechnie and Zhou, 2003; Karrh et al., 2001; Gould et al., 2000), two focused on practitioners' beliefs and assumptions (Pardun and McKee, 1996; Karrh, 1995), one focused on semantics (Richmond, 1999), and two were content analyses (Salposky and Kinney, 1994; Troop, 1991). A detailed overview of each of those studies, in order of their publication date follows.

Steertz (1987) conducted theater exit surveys and telephone surveys on 304 theatergoers. He used the Burke day-after recall method to assess the communication effects of 29 brands placed in six different full-length films on 304 theatergoers. The

researcher found that aided recall scores averaged 38 percent. However, recall depended on placement characteristics, with visual/verbal placements averaging 57 percent recall, followed by verbal endorsements (51 percent), visual implied endorsements (33 percent), background props (8 percent), and the presence of a logo or brand name (8 percent). Also, character usage of brands produced significantly better recall than brands displayed as background props (Steertz, 1987).

Troup (1991) conducted a content analysis of the frequency and characteristics of brand placements the 25 top-grossing Hollywood feature films of 1989. The researcher found an average of 18 brand placements per movie with comedies having the most placements, followed by dramas. Most brands were displayed in positive or neutral settings. Low-involvement consumer products accounted for 68 percent of all brands in the movies examined. Patterns were found in frequency of brand placement by movie genre, product category, and level of product involvement.

Nebenzahl and Secunda (1993) conducted a survey focusing on moviegoers' attitudes toward the practice of brand placement in movies. The researchers surveyed 171 college students and found that most respondents did not object to brand placement, thought it was an effective marketing communication technique, and had more positive attitudes toward the practice than toward other more obtrusive promotional forms. A small minority of respondents objected to brand placement because they felt that it was deceptive.

DeLorme, Reid, and Zimmer (1994) conducted focus groups with 29 college students who had viewed a 15-minute custom-made videotape to better understand

moviegoers' interpretations of brand placement. They found that participants liked subtle use of brands in movies because it added realism, but disliked excessive brand exposure because it was distracting. Participants thought that generic products were irritating because they interfered with realism and involvement. Participants noticed and liked familiar brands in movies, which were judged to enhance realism. Participants also felt that brands in movies brought them close to movie characters, reported gathering information about characters and their lifestyles, and compared that information with their own lives.

Karrh (1994) conducted an experiment to assess communication effects of five brands placed within a 33-minute clip of *Raising Arizona* (1987). The researcher interviewed 76 college students and found that brand salience was significantly higher only for one brand that was prominently and repeatedly displayed. There was no significant difference in brand evaluations. He concluded that brand placement may heighten brand salience for less familiar products when the brand is the focus of a scene or an integral part of the movie plot.

Ong and Meri (1994) conducted theater exit surveys of the full-length films *Falling Down* and *Point of No Return* to assess viewers' brand recall, purchase intentions, and ethical judgments of the practice of brand placement. The researchers surveyed 75 theatergoers and found low unaided recall of brand props with recall ability and patterns differing greatly among individual respondents. Respondents who did remember brands in movies did not indicate increased purchase intentions. The

researchers also found that respondents had generally positive attitudes toward the practice of brand placement.

Saberwahl, Pokrywczyński, and Griffin (1994) conducted an experiment focusing on viewers' recall of one brand placed in a 10-minute movie clip of *Days of Thunder*, which had two conditions, visual and verbal presentation and visual-only presentation. The researchers interviewed 62 college students and found that more participants recalled the brand placement when it was presented both visually and verbally (65 percent) than when it was presented only visually (43 percent). Combination verbal and visual brand props in movies seem to foster information processing and subsequent brand name recall.

Saplosky and Kinney (1994) extended the Troup (1991) study. The researchers conducted a content analysis of the frequency and characteristics of brand placements in the 25 top-grossing Hollywood feature films of 1991. The researchers found an average of 14 brands per movie with comedies and dramas averaging the same number of brands, followed by action movies. No differences were found in the frequency of brands in positive, neutral, or negative contexts. Low-involvement consumer products accounted for 70 percent of all brands in the movies. Patterns were found in frequency of brand placement by movie genre, product category, and level of product involvement.

Vollmers and Mizerski (1994) conducted an experiment to assess communication effects of one brand placed within a six-minute movie clip of *Gorillas in the Mist* and one brand placed within a six-minute clip of *Mr. and Mrs. Bridge*. The researchers surveyed 71 college students and found high-unaided recall of brands placed within the movie

clips, but no significant difference between the treatment and control groups in terms of affect for the products appearing in the films.

Babin and Carder (1995) conducted a simulated theater-viewing experiment to assess communication effects of 39 brands placed within the full-length movie, *Rocky III* (1982). The researchers interviewed 108 college students and found that brand salience was significantly greater for the treatment group versus the control group for more than 25 percent of the 39 brands appearing in the movie. There were no significant differences found between groups in terms of attitudes toward 15 of the brands examined.

Baker and Crawford (1995) administered a self-completion survey combined with oral questions to participants after viewing *Wayne's World*, which contained several placements. The researchers surveyed 43 postgraduate students in Scotland and found high levels of aided and unaided recall of placed brands. Immediately after viewing, 16 percent of the sample reported preference for placed brands. The results showed that respondents had generally neutral attitudes toward practice of brand placement and recognized it as an element in promotional mix.

Karrh (1995) conducted a national mail survey to examine professionals' beliefs about the practice of brand placement. The researcher surveyed 22 brand placement practitioners who were all members of the professional group, Entertainment Resources and Marketing Association (ERMA), and found that respondents believed that the most effective brand placements have a recognizable package or design, positive portrayal in the movie, and further promotional support. The respondents considered recall and recognition to be the best measures of brand placement effectiveness.

Vollmers (1995) conducted an experiment to assess communication effects of children's exposure to eight placements within the movie *Lassie* (1994). The researcher interviewed 140 second, fourth, and sixth grade children and found that the participants recognized brands in the film and recognition seemed to be influenced by placement type. No change was found in affect or immediate preference toward the placed brands. The children's ability to recognize the promotional intent of brand placements was found to improve with age.

Babin and Carder (1996) extended their earlier study. The researchers conducted a simulated theater viewing experiment focusing on viewers' recognition of 36 brands appearing in each of the full-length movies *Rocky III* and *Rocky V*. The researchers interviewed 98 college students (54 subjects for *Rocky III* and 44 subjects for *Rocky V*) and found that participants correctly recognized brands appearing within their respective movies and also were able to distinguish correctly among brands not present in the movie they viewed. For *Rocky III*, more than 50 percent of brands were recognized by more than 30 percent of its viewers and for *Rocky V* more than 33 percent of brands were recognized by more than 30 percent of its viewers.

Pardun and McKee (1996) conducted a national mail survey of 445 full-service advertising agency media directors at the top 500 advertising agencies in the United States to gain a better understanding of their perspective on the practice of brand placement as part of an overall media strategy. The researchers found that respondents were relatively knowledgeable and enthusiastic about the practice of brand placement in movies. They acknowledged the positive and long-term role of brand placement in

movies, considered brand placements' ability to reach large audience at a relatively low cost to be its most important benefit, and expected to increase their usage of brand placement in the future.

Gupta and Gould (1997) built upon Nebenzahl and Secunda's (1993) study. The researcher surveyed 1,012 college students and found that respondents generally had a positive attitude toward product placement, but were opposed to "ethically charged" products such alcohol, guns, and tobacco products.

Zimmer and DeLorme (1997) conducted a stimulated theater viewing experiment involving the full-length film, *Doc Hollywood* (1991), containing 16 brands to determine effect of placement type and a disclaimer on recall, recognition, and attitude toward brand placement. The researchers interviewed 52 non-student moviegoers and found a 33 percent average level of recall and a 55 percent average level or recognition across the 16 brands. They found that characteristics of the brand props influenced effectiveness. The results showed a positive effect on memory for placements that were in the foreground of a scene, were verbally mentioned, used humor, and involved character usage. The results also showed that a disclaimer heightened recall and recognition in some instances and that participants had generally positive attitudes toward the practice of brand placement, but negative attitudes toward disclaimers.

Gupta and Lord (1998) conducted an experiment comparing the recall effectiveness of common product placement strategies with each other and with advertising. The researcher sampled 274 undergraduate students and found that prominent placements elicited higher recall than did advertisements, which, in turn,

outperformed subtle placements. They also found that the explicit mention of a product in the audio script (without a visual depiction) led to better recall than a subtle visual placement (without audio reinforcement). However, the addition of a complementary audio message did not significantly enhance the recall of a product that already enjoyed prominent visual display.

DeLorme and Reid (1999) surveyed 99 moviegoers (younger/older, frequent/infrequent) and found that regardless of age or movie-going frequency, respondents are active participants in the viewing experience and interpret brands encountered in movies; brands in movies symbolized social change to the older moviegoers and belonging and security to younger ones.

D'Astous and Chartier (2000) surveyed 103 moviegoers and found that a degree of perceived integration of placement in movie scene is positively linked to liking, but is negatively linked to perceived unacceptability, and has a negative impact on memory.

Gould et al. (2000) extended the Gupta and Gould's (1997) study. The researchers surveyed 1,012 American, 204 French, 240 Austrian college students and found that country, product and individual differences have an impact on the acceptability of product placement and on potential purchase behavior. The results showed that country differences exist, but the differences are not prohibitive to following a standardization strategy. The researchers urged advertisers to use caution because the placement of ethically charged products seemed to generate similar concerns across countries, especially in contrast to non-ethically charged products.

Karrh et al. (2001) also extended the Gupta and Gould (1997) study. The researchers surveyed 97 American and 97 Singaporean college students. The results showed that both sets of respondents pay attention to brands in films and television. The results showed that Americans paid more attention to their social identities. The results also showed that Singaporeans are less likely to perceive brand appearances as paid advertising, are more concerned about ethics of brand placement and more supportive of government restrictions on placement activities.

McKechnie and Zhou (2003) surveyed American and Chinese college students and found that there were country differences between the United States and the People's Republic of China. The results indicated that the Chinese were generally less accepting of product placement than Americans, while individual differences were not found to have much of an impact, given the major differences in cultural values between the United States and the People's Republic of China. They also indicated that more ethically charged products generated greater concerns among both American and Chinese consumers than less ethically charged products.

This study is designed to contribute additional knowledge to the subject of product placement. The study will extend the research on product placement of ethically charged products and investigate potential differences across two ethnic groups.

Focus of the Product Placement Studies

The 24 studies on product placement fell into the following categories: content analyses, effectiveness (i.e., recall, recognition and purchase intention), ethics and acceptability, practitioners' beliefs and assumptions, and semantics.

Content Analyses

There were two content analyses done between 1991 and 1994. Troup (1991) was the first to conduct a content analysis of the frequency and characteristics of brand placements. He analyzed the 25 top-grossing Hollywood feature films in 1991. Saplosky and Kinney (1994) followed up the Troup's (1991) study by analyzing the 25 top-grossing Hollywood feature films in 1994. Some of the results of the Saplosky and Kinney (1994) study supported the findings of the Troup (1991) study, while the others did not. Both studies found patterns in the frequency of brand placement by movie genre, product category, and level of product involvement and that low-involvement consumer products were used most often in brand placement.

Saplosky and Kinney (1994) found a slightly smaller average number of brand placements per movie, (14 brands per movies) in 1994 compared to Troup (1991) who found 18 brands per movie in 1991. Saplosky and Kinney (1994) found that comedies and dramas averaged the same number of brands, followed by action movies. These results contradicted the findings of the Troup (1991) study that found that comedies had the most placements followed by dramas. Saplosky and Kinney (1994) found no differences in the frequency of brands in positive, neutral, or negative contexts, which also contradicted the findings of the Troup (1991) study that found that most brands were displayed in positive or neutral settings. It is not surprising that a greater number of brands were placed in comedies or displayed in a positive or neutral setting because marketers would not want their brands associated with a negative feeling or used in a negative context.

Effectiveness Studies

Thirteen studies on effectiveness were done from 1987 to 2007 (d'Astous and Chartier, 2000; DeLorme and Reid 1999; Gupta and Lord, 1998; Zimmer and DeLorme, 1997; Baker and Crawford, 1995; Babin and Carder, 1996; 1995; Vollmers, 1995; DeLorme, Reid and Zimmer, 1994; Karrh, 1994; Ong and Meri, 1994; Saberwahl, et al., 1994; Vollmers and Mizerski, 1994; Steertz, 1987). The studies evaluated efficacy of product placement by measuring: recall and recognition and purchase intentions.

Recall and Recognition Studies

It is not surprising that the majority of the studies focused on effectiveness. Since audience recall is the measure most widely used for evaluating the effectiveness of brand placement, practitioners appear to also consider it the best measure of brand placement effectiveness (Karrh, 1995).

Three studies measured recall of brands from movies seen in their entirety. Steertz (1987) conducted day-after telephone interviews of moviegoers who had seen a full-length feature film and found that recall rates were higher for verbal/visual placements, followed by verbal endorsements, visual implied endorsements, background props and the presence of a logo or brand name. They also found that prominent placements (brands used by character) had higher recall than subtle placements (brands used as background props). Ong and Meri (1994) conducted movie exit surveys of moviegoers who had seen a full-length feature film and found high recall of a prominently displayed familiar brand (Coke), but low unaided recall of brand props. Baker and Crawford (1995) had post graduate students complete a survey after watching

a full-length feature film and found high levels of aided and unaided recall of brand placement.

Two studies measured recall of brands from movie clips, expecting higher recall rates for placed brands. Karrh (1994) used a 30-minute clip and found higher brand salience for a brand that was prominently and repeatedly displayed. Sabherwal, et al., (1994) used a 10-minute clip and found higher recall for combination verbal/visual brand placement than visual brand placement. The results confirmed Steertz's (19987) findings.

One study measured recognition of brands from movies seen in their entirety. Barbin and Carder (1996) had undergraduate students watched one of two full-length feature films and found that 18 of the brands in *Rocky III* and 12 of the brands in *Rocky V* had 30 percent recognition rates, the cutoff point that some professionals use to mark a placement as effective (Steertz, 1987).

Purchase Intention

Baker and Crawford (1995) found that brand placement might affect short-term purchase intention. Immediately after viewing, 16 percent of undergraduates reported preferences for placed brands. It should not be surprising that only a small number of respondents reported purchase intentions since most placements typically involve a few exposures to a familiar brand.

Overall, studies evaluating the efficacy of brand placement found that the type of brand placement impacted both recall and recognition. It was not surprising that brands that were prominently placed or used by the character are recalled at a higher rate. Because moviegoers are captive audiences, they tend to pay more attention to brands that

are prominently placed or used by the character; therefore they are more likely to recall and recognize brands when tested.

However, brand placement's impact on short-term purchase intention was surprising. Additional studies on how brand placement impact purchase intentions should be done to confirm these findings.

Beliefs and Assumptions Studies

Karrh (1995) surveyed 22 ERMA members to determine their beliefs about the practice of brand placement. Karrh's (1995) sample was relatively small, only 22 respondents, and comprised mostly of agency employees. Although the results are not generalizable, they did provide some interesting insights on professionals' beliefs about the practice. The most interesting finding was that the ERMA members considered recall and recognition to be the best measures of product placement effectiveness. The professionals might have stated that recall and recognition were the best measures of product placement because these measures are the most widely used or perhaps because of their lack of knowledge of better measures. Pardun and McKee (1996) surveyed 445 full-service advertising agency media directors about their beliefs on the practice of product placement. The media directors correctly predicted that there would be an increase in the usage of product placement.

Follow-up studies on practitioners' beliefs and assumptions need to be done to determine if the practitioners' predictions were correct and if their beliefs have changed over time.

Ethics and Acceptability Studies

Only seven of the product placement studies focused on ethical acceptability (Lee, et al., 2007; McKechnie and Zhou, 2003; Karrh et al., 2001; Gould et al., 2000; Gupta and Gould, 1997; Baker and Crawford, 1996; Nebenzahl and Secunda, 1993). Four of the seven were cross-cultural studies (Lee, et al., 2007; McKechnie and Zhou, 2003; Karrh et al., 2001; Gould et al., 2000). All of the cross-cultural studies used the Gupta and Gould (1997) as their benchmark study.

Nebenzahl and Secunda (1993) were the first to study the ethics and acceptability of product placement. Baker and Crawford (1995) followed up with a study on the acceptability and recall of product placement. Gupta and Gould (1997) went a step farther by focusing on individual and product differences using American students. Both Baker and Crawford (1995) and Gupta and Gould (1997) results confirmed the findings of the Nebenzahl and Secunda (1993) study. Both studies found that students had generally positive attitudes toward placement, while the Baker and Crawford study (1995) found neutral attitudes toward placement. When respondents did voice concern, it was about the deceptive nature of the practice and the placement of products such as alcohol, cigarettes and guns. It appears that respondents are receptive to placement as long as consumption of the product placed in the movie does not put the consumer at risk.

More recently, McKechnie and Zhou (2003), Karrh et al. (2001), and Gould et al. (2000) conducted cross-cultural studies that built on and extended Gupta and Gould's (1997) studies. These cross-cultural studies focused on the differences and similarities in attitudes toward product placement across countries. All three studies found country and

individual differences. Americans had more positive attitudes toward placement than non-Americans. However, both Americans and non-Americans voiced concern over the placement of ethically charged products such as alcohol, cigarettes and guns. Some of the differences in the attitudes toward placement might be because to differences in the economic development, historical background and/or socialization of the United States and other countries (Singapore, The Peoples' Republic of China, Austria, France) especially Asian countries.

Only seven of the 24 product placement studies focused on ethical acceptability. The Gupta and Gould (1997) study was the only study that focused primarily on American consumers. All of the cross-cultural studies used the Gupta and Gould (1997) study as a benchmark and that study was completed over 10 years ago. No cross-cultural studies were found focusing on the differences and similarities in attitudes toward product placement across ethnic and cultural groups within the United States.

Human Samples used in Product Placement Studies

The human samples used in the product placement studies consisted of practitioners, college students, non-student adults and children. The majority of the researchers' drew their samples from a university population and specified their population of interest as movie-going, young adults between 18 and 34 years of age, studying at a higher education institution. Two researchers sampled non-student adults. Two researchers sampled practitioners. And one researcher sampled children.

The majority of the product placement studies was conducted in the United States and sampled Americans, mostly Anglo American. Five of the studies used foreign

participants. Four of the five studies using foreign participants were cross-cultural studies. The first cross-cultural study compared the attitudes of American students with those of Austrian and French students. The second cross-cultural study compared American students' attitudes with those of Chinese students. The third cross-cultural study compared the U.S. students' attitudes with those of Singaporean students. And the fourth and most recent cross-cultural study is an unpublished study that compared U.S. students' attitudes with those of Korean students (Lee, et al., 2007; McKechnie and Zhou, 2003; Karrh et al., 2001; Gould et al., 2000). No studies were found comparing the attitudes of Anglo Americans with those of other ethnic or cultural groups within the United States.

Types of Methods used in Product Placement Studies

The research methodologies used in product placement studies could be classified as the following: content analyses of placement in various media; surveys of practitioners, qualitative studies on placement's meaning to audiences; studies on audience knowledge of and inferences about placement in films; and experiential studies testing memory, attitude change, and/or purchase intention (Karrh 1998).

Content analyses are useful in identifying patterns in the frequency and characteristics of brand placements. However, the method is limited in that it offers no insight on the perceptions and acceptance of product placement or the effectiveness of the technique. Qualitative studies such as focus groups provide rich data on placement's meaning to audiences, but are primarily useful in exploratory research. Surveys are an economical method for collecting data and widely used by researchers. However,

personal interviews such day-after telephone interviews and movie exit interviews are better than mail surveys because the interviewers can provide feedback to the respondents. The experiential studies testing memory (i.e., recall and recognition), attitude change, and/or purchase intention are best measures for effectiveness of placements.

Types of Products rated in Placement Studies

Three of the ethics and acceptability studies focused on product differences, specifically ethically charged and non-ethically charged products. About 13 product categories were rated for acceptability for product placement. The ethically charged products used in all of the previous studies were alcohol, cigarettes and guns. Gupta and Gould (1997) were the first to focus on product differences. The researchers selected 3 ethically charged products (i.e., alcohol, cigarettes and guns) and 10 non-ethically charged products (i.e., soft drinks, surfing equipment, fatty foods, automobiles, racing cars, healthy consumer products, candy/snacks sunglasses, camera and stereo equipment) because of their constant use in product placement in movies and the likelihood of consumption by college students.

McKechnie and Zhou (2003) rated 13 products in their study. They chose 10 of the 13 product categories used in the Gupta and Gould (1997). They replaced 3 of the products not normally consumed by young Chinese adults (i.e., surfing equipment, automobiles, racing cars) with 4 that are more likely to be consumed by young Chinese adults (i.e., sports equipment, racing bicycles, mobile phones, and computers). In line with the benchmark study, the researchers classified 3 of the 13 products as ethically

charged (i.e., alcohol, cigarettes and guns) and 10 of the 13 products as non-ethically charged (i.e., soft drinks, sports equipment, fatty foods, racing bicycles, mobile phones, computers, healthy consumer products, candy/snacks sunglasses, camera and stereo equipment).

Gould et al., (2000) chose the same 13 product categories used in the Gupta and Gould (1997) study. Gupta and Gould (1997) classified 3 of the 13 products as ethically charged (i.e., alcohol, cigarettes and guns) and 10 of the 13 as non-ethically charged (i.e., soft drinks, surfing equipment, fatty foods, automobiles, racing cars, healthy consumer products, candy/snacks sunglasses, camera and stereo equipment). Their judgment was based on the existing literature and supported by their findings.

The number and types of products were limited in all of the studies; however, efforts being surveyed interest and products that are routinely used for product placement.

Limitations of Product Placement Studies

The previous studies had a variety of methodological limitations; therefore, the results were not always generalizable to the average consumer. Because of budgetary constraints, most researchers were forced to limit their samples to college students. Using non-college students might yield different results. Most of the college students were between 18 and 25 years old. While this age group is representative of heavy moviegoers, younger or older age groups might yield different results. The samples were limited ethnically and geographically. Most of the participants were Anglo American. Using different ethnic groups from different geographic areas might yield different results. The

cross-cultural studies' samples were limited to American college students and some foreign countries' college students. Results might vary from country to country. Budgetary constraints also limited the sample size; the number of participants, the number and types of products rated or analyzed, and the number and types of movie/clips shown. While these studies contributed considerable knowledge to the effectiveness and perceptions of product placement as a promotional tool, much still needs to be investigated.

Limitations of the Gupta and Gould Study

This research extended the Gupta and Gould (1997) study; therefore If it is important the methodological limitations of that particular study. The present study also used the Gupta and Gould (1997) approach and compared the results to the benchmark study. Gupta and Gould (1997) extended Nebenzahl and Secunda's (1993) study by focusing on product differences (i.e., ethically charged and non-ethically charged products) and consumers' differences (i.e., gender differences, frequency of movie watching differences). The study had a number of limitations. The sample, mostly Anglo American college students at a large Midwestern university, was limited ethnically and geographically. Including African Americans in the sample might have yielded different results.

The product categories were limited in type and number. Only 13 product categories were used. Gupta and Gould (1997) selected 3 ethically charged products (i.e., alcohol, cigarettes and guns) and 10 non-ethically charged products (i.e., soft drinks, surfing equipment, fatty foods, automobiles, racing cars, healthy consumer products,

candy/snacks sunglasses, camera and stereo equipment) because of their constant use for product placement in movies and the likelihood of consumption by college students. However, the types of products used for product placement have changed over time and these differences might yield different results. It is important to pursue this line of research by extending the number and types of products used in product placement.

Concerns about the Link between Obesity and Junk Food

Because of the increase in the number of U.S. children and teens that are obese, have Type II diabetes (previously known as “adult onset” diabetes), and are at an increased risk for developing obesity and related chronic illness in adulthood, there is much controversy surrounding the marketing of “junk food” (IOM, 2006). There is no widely accepted definition for “junk food”, but the term is used in popular culture to describe high calorie (e.g., high fat, high sugar), and low-nutrient foods and beverages (e.g., candy/snacks, fast-foods and soft drinks). Health officials’ concern over the rise in obesity has prompted researchers to conduct studies linking obesity to the consumption of “junk foods” (IOM, 2006).

Products such as candy/snacks, fast food, and soda drinks also might arouse ethical concern and attitudinal differences across consumers regarding their marketing and consumption; therefore, they might be considered ethically charged. Products such as candy/snacks, fast-food, and soda drinks are frequently used in product placement, as such the ethical desirability of doing so may not be perceived equally by consumers. Research on this issue is necessary and important.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE AFRICAN AMERICAN MARKET

African Americans were the largest minority population in the United States up until 2002, when Hispanic Americans surpassed them in number. Although Hispanic Americans have surpassed them in number, the African American population still is growing faster than the total U.S. population and its buying power is increasing more rapidly than the total U.S. buying power. The rapid growth in the African American population and buying power combined with the lack of research on the market, especially in regards to their perceptions of the ethics and acceptability of product placement in movies, make them worthy of study.

Rapid Growth in the African American Population

The African American population is large in number. At 38 million, African Americans make up about 13 percent of the U.S. population and their numbers are growing faster than that of the total population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). The African American population rose from 30 million in 1990 to 35 million in 2000, to 38 million in 2007, and is projected to rise to 52 million by 2012. From 1990 to 2007, the African American population grew by 27 percent compared to the 15 percent growth of the Anglo American population and 21 percent growth of the total U.S. population. Table 4 shows the U.S. population statistics from 1990 to 2012.

Growth in African American Buying Power

The African American market wields great economic clout. At \$845 billion, the African American market's buying power is larger than the economies of all but nine countries in the world and is growing more rapidly than total U.S. buying power. At first

glance, it appears that the Hispanic American buying power of \$862 billion is greater than the African American buying power of \$845 billion. We should note that the Hispanic American population is 208% larger than the African American population while Hispanic American buying power is only 102% larger than African American buying power. In other words, the Hispanic American population is twice the size of the African American population, but Hispanic American buying power is only slightly (a mere 2%) greater than African American buying power. This data suggest that African Americans' incomes are higher than that of Hispanic Americans.

The Selig Center for Economic Growth defined buying power as “the total income of residents that is available, after taxes, for spending on virtually everything that they buy, but it does not include dollars that are borrowed or that were saved in previous years” (The Selig Center 2007, pg. 1). The data show that African American buying power rose from \$318 billion in 1990 to \$590 billion in 2000 and to \$845 billion in 2007. The African American buying power in the U.S. is projected to rise to \$1.1 trillion in 2012. However, that same report estimated that from 1990 to 2007, the percentage gain of 166 percent in African American buying power will outstrip the 124 percent increase in Anglo American buying power and the 134 percent increase in total buying power in the U.S. (all racial groups combined). The nation's share of African American buying power will be 8.4 percent, up from 7.4 percent in 1990. African American consumers' share of the nation's total buying power will rise to 8.7 percent in 2012, accounting for almost nine cents out of every dollar that is spent (Selig Center, 2007) Table 5 shows the U.S. buying power statistics by race for 1990 to 2012.

There are a number of important factors leading up to the gains in African American buying power. The first important factor is that the African American population continues to grow more rapidly than the total U.S. population. From 1990 to 2007, the African American population grew by 27 percent compared to 15 percent growth for the Anglo American population and 21 percent growth for the total population.

The second important factor is that the African American population is younger than the Anglo American population. The *2004 American Community Survey* from the U.S. Census Bureau indicated that the median age of African Americans is only 31.2 years compared to 40.1 years for Anglo Americans. Because they are younger, a greater number of African Americans are just entering the workforce for the first time or moving up from entry-level jobs. That will result in an increase in income, compared to the older Anglo American population, since Anglo Americans might be experiencing a peak in income or more of them might be at the traditional retirement age. In 2004, only 8.1 percent of African Americans were older than 65, compared to 14.5 percent of non-Hispanic Anglo Americans. Also, in that same year, 31.4 percent of the African American population was under 18 years old, compared to 22.3 percent of the Anglo American population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004).

The third important factor contributing to the increase in African American buying power is that African Americans than ever before are becoming more educated. U.S. Census (2006) data showed that the proportion of African American high school graduates rose by 10 percent from 1993 to 2003, the largest reported for any group. That

same census data showed that more African Americans are going to college. African Americans with a bachelor degree rose to 17.3 percent.

The fourth important factor is the increase in the ownership and expansion of African American businesses. *The Survey of Minority Owned Businesses Enterprises* released by the Census Bureau in 2001 in showed that the number of African American-owned firms increased almost four times faster than the number of all U.S. firm from 1992 to 1997 (U.S. Census, 2001). This trend was confirmed by the *2002 Survey of Business Owners* that showed that African American businesses increased by 45 percent from 1997 to 2002. This increase is about 4 1/2 times faster than the 10 percent increase in the number of all U.S. businesses during this time period (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006).

TABLE 4 U.S. POPULATION STATISTICS, 1990, 2000, 2007 AND 2012

	Population (in thousands)			
	1990	2000	2007	2012
Total	249,622.8	282,193.5	301,791.3	316,110.8
Anglo American	209,366.7	228,621.0	241,185.5	249,872.2
African American	30,648.3	35,813.0	38,872.3	41,473.3
Hispanic	22,572.8	35,648.2	45,146.2	52,038.5
American Indian	2,058.7	2,673.5	2,952.5	3,194.8
Asian	7,549.1	11,157.4	13,997.0	16,226.7
Multiracial	N/A	3,928.6	4,783.9	5,343.8

	Percentage Change in Population			
	1990-2007	1990-2012	2000-2007	2007-2012
Total	20.9	26.6	6.9	4.7
Anglo American	15.2	19.3	5.5	3.6
African American	26.8	35.3	8.5	6.7
Hispanic	100.0	130.5	26.6	15.3
American Indian	43.4	55.2	10.4	8.2
Asian	85.4	114.9	25.5	15.9
Multiracial	N/A	N/A	21.8	11.7

	Share of Population (percentage)			
	1990	2000	2007	2012
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anglo American	83.9	81.0	79.9	79.0
African American	12.3	12.7	12.9	13.1
Hispanic	9.0	12.6	15.0	16.5
American Indian	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0
Asian	3.0	4.0	4.6	5.1
Multiracial	N/A	1.4	1.6	1.7

Source: Selig Center for Economic Growth, Terry College of Business, The University of Georgia, May 2007

TABLE 5 U.S. BUYING POWER STATISTICS BY RACE, 1990, 2000, 2007 AND 2012

	Buying Power (billions of dollars)			
	1990	2000	2007	2012
Total	4,270.5	7,187.6	10,006.4	12,976.4
Anglo American	3,816.2	6,231.2	8,552.0	10,965.9
African American	318.1	590.2	845.4	1,134.9
Hispanic	211.1	489.5	861.8	1,261.1
American Indian	19.7	39.0	57.1	77.4
Asian	116.5	268.8	459.3	670.1
Multiracial	N/A	58.3	92.7	128.1
	Percentage Change in Buying Power			
	1990-2007	1990-2012	2000-2007	2007-2012
Total	134.3	203.7	39.2	29.7
Anglo American	124.1	187.3	37.2	28.2
African American	165.7	256.7	43.2	34.2
Hispanic	306.8	495.2	76.1	46.3
American Indian	189.5	292.5	46.5	35.6
Asian	294.3	475.2	70.8	45.9
Multiracial	N/A	N/A	58.9	38.3
	Market Share (percentage)			
	1990	2000	2007	2012
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anglo American	89.4	86.7	85.5	84.5
African American	7.4	8.2	8.4	8.7
Hispanic	5.0	6.8	8.6	9.7
American Indian	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
Asian	2.7	3.7	4.6	5.2
Multiracial	N/A	0.8	0.9	1.0

Source: Selig Center for Economic Growth, Terry College of Business, The University of Georgia, May 2007

Ten States with the Largest African American Population

The African American consumer market is unique in that, unlike the Hispanic and Asian markets, it is spread over numerous states. The 10 states with the largest African American markets were New York (\$78 billion), Texas (\$63 billion), Georgia (\$58 billion), California (\$58 billion), Florida (\$57 billion), Maryland (\$50 billion), Illinois (\$42 billion), North Carolina (\$38 billion), Virginia (\$36 billion), and New Jersey (\$33 billion). However, of the states, Maryland and Virginia are the only two that did not rank among the top 10 markets for all consumers (Selig Center, 2007).

The five largest African American markets account for 37 percent of African American buying power and the ten largest African American markets account for 61 percent of African American buying power. Similarly, the five states with the largest total consumer markets account for 38 percent of total buying power and the ten largest total consumer markets account for 56 percent of total buying power (Selig Center, 2007). Therefore, the distribution of African American's buying power in the U.S. follows the same pattern as that of the overall U.S. population.

States with Fast Growing African American Markets

The top 10 states ranked by the rate of growth of African American buying power over 1990-2007, in order, are Idaho (508 percent), Nevada (497 percent), Utah (429 percent), Montana (400 percent), Minnesota (381 percent), South Dakota (372 percent), Arizona (333 percent), Vermont (319 percent), Maine (318 percent), and Wyoming (293 percent). None of these states is among the nation's ten largest African American consumer markets. Nevada and Arizona rank highest (29 and 30, respectively) in terms of

the size of their African American consumer markets (Selig Center, 2007).

States with the Largest Share of African American Buying Power

The ten states (including the District of Columbia) with the largest share of African American buying power are the District of Columbia (30.6 percent), Mississippi (24.3 percent), Maryland (22.2 percent), Georgia (20.8 percent), Louisiana (20.4 percent), South Carolina (18.4 percent), Alabama (17.4 percent), Delaware (14.9 percent), North Carolina (14.5 percent), and Virginia (13.1 percent). The states with the biggest increases in shares of the African American consumer market were Mississippi (4.8 percent), Georgia (4.8 percent), and Maryland (4.8 percent), followed by Delaware (4.4 percent). The shares of African American buying power rose everywhere except for the District of Columbia (-11 percent), California (-0.5 percent), Alaska (0 percent or no change in growth), and Colorado (0 percent or no change in growth) (Selig Center, 2007). Table 6 shows a list of the U.S. largest consumer markets in 2007 by state.

According to the data, African Americans have enormous buying power that is broad within the U.S. economy and their population is growing at a very rapid rate. Several important factors contribute to the gains in the African American buying power. One factor is the rapid growth of the African American population. Another important factor is that the African American population is younger, compared to the Anglo American population. incomes are peaking or declining. Finally, another important factor is that African Americans are becoming more educated and there is an increase in the ownership and expansion of African American businesses

As African Americans' buying increases, advertisers and marketers can be expected

to devote more resources toward developing products that meet the needs and match the preference of African American consumers.

The fact that the five largest African American markets account for 37 percent of African American buying power and the 10 largest African American markets account for 61 percent of African American buying power makes that market very attractive to potential advertisers and marketers. One of the goals of advertisers and marketers is to reach their targeted group of consumers at the lowest cost per thousand. Thus, market share is important because the higher the market share, the lower the average cost of reaching a potential buyer in the targeted group.

For all these reasons, African Americans' perceptions of promotional efforts such as product placement and its possible effects on their purchasing behavior need to be investigated.

AFRICAN AMERICAN CONSUMPTION HABITS

African American Media Consumption Habits

Research shows that African Americans' media consumption habits differ from those of Anglo Americans. Studies show that African Americans consume more TV and radio, the same amount of newspapers and fewer magazines than Anglo Americans (LaFerle, Lee and Tharpe, 2004). African Americans also subscribe to cable/Pay TV at a higher rate and attend movies more frequently than Anglo Americans. (MRI, 2007).

African American media consumption habits should be of importance to advertisers and marketers because they differ from those of other racial groups. More importantly, African Americans are higher consumers of the type of media that might make use of

product placement.

African American College Students Media Consumption Habits

Since this study's sample consisted of college students, it was important to examine past literature on the media consumption habits of African American college students. This is appropriate because college students represent the age group that is the most frequent consumer of the type of media that might be used in product placement. The homogeneous demographic characteristics of college students allow for a better comparison of perceptions and attitudes of the different groups.

A Student Monitor study found that African American college students consumed a broad range of various forms of electronic and print media. Female African American college students viewed 4 percent more television in a typical week than do males (16.6 hours compared to 16 hours among males). The study also reported that 8 in 10 (80 percent) of African American college students have cable or satellite service on the television they watch most often. Their five favorite networks (i.e., BET, ESPN, HBO, MTV and Lifetime) were cable-based. In addition, in addition, nearly a third watched their campus-based television network. □□ More than 4 in 10 (43 percent) read at least one nationally distributed newspaper in the past week. USA TODAY and The New York Times were the most commonly read national newspapers (23 percent and 17 percent respectively). About a third read the online version of a national newspaper as well (somewhat higher among males, 35 percent compared to 30 percent among females). The

TABLE 6 U.S. LARGEST CONSUMER MARKETS IN 2007 (billions of dollars)**TOTAL
BUYING POWER****Rank**

1	California	1,285.0
2	Texas	777.5
3	New York	712.7
4	Florida	608.2
5	Illinois	447.9
6	Pennsylvania	418.6
7	New Jersey	364.8
8	Ohio	348.7
9	Michigan	316.2
10	Georgia	278.4

**ANGLO AMERICAN
BUYING POWER****Rank**

1	California	1,051.1
2	Texas	676.5
3	New York	582.4
4	Florida	530.1
5	Illinois	381.9
6	Pennsylvania	375.9
7	Ohio	310.0
8	New Jersey	298.9
9	Michigan	271.4
10	Massachusetts	237.4

**AFRICAN AMERICA
BUYING POWER**

New York	77.9
Texas	63.1
Georgia	58.0
California	57.8
Florida	57.4
Maryland	49.6
Illinois	41.8
North Carolina	38.5
Virginia	35.6
New Jersey	33.0

Source: Selig Center for Economic Growth, Terry College of Business, The University of Georgia, May 2007

□□local campus newspaper was also a favorite among African American college students. About 1 in 7 had read all of the last five issues of their campus newspaper and 3 in 4 had read at least one of the last five issues. Ebony, Vibe, Essence, Seventeen, ESPN, African American Enterprise, Sports Illustrated and Cosmopolitan were the most commonly read magazines (Student Monitor, 2008).

African Americans Product Consumption Habits

Research shows that African Americans' spending habits differ from other consumers and that they substantially outspend other consumers in some product categories (Ryan, 1991; Wynter, 1997). A report on consumer spending habits showed that more than any other racial group, African Americans spent more on natural gas, electricity, telephone services, groceries, and women's and girls' clothing. Compared to other consumers, African Americans spent about the same on housekeeping supplies, furniture, floor coverings, appliances, men's and boys clothing, public transportation, reading materials, tobacco products, life and other personal insurance; and spent less on eating out, vehicle purchases, health care, entertainment, pensions and Social Security (Selig Center, 2007).

While researchers appear to agree that the behavior of African American consumers differs from that of other consumers, they cannot agree on the causes of that difference. Some suggest that the differences may be because of ethnic or cultural differences (Williams, 1989). This proposed study could provide marketers and researchers with valuable insight into the African-American consumers' attitudes about the ethics and acceptability of product placement.

Ethical Concerns about Targeting the African American Market

African American consumers, consumer advocates and health officials have voiced concerns about the types of products targeted at the African American market. Companies have been criticized for creating ethically charged products such as cigarettes and malt liquors especially for the African American market. Some consumer advocates have gone as far as stating that they believe that tobacco and liquor companies' goal is to get African Americans addicted to nicotine and alcohol at a young age. In addition, it appears that the majority of accounts serviced by African American advertising agencies are ethically charged products such as cigarettes and alcohol.

When advertisements for tobacco products were banned from television and magazines, tobacco companies began using nontraditional media, such as product placement in movies, to sell their products. This is possible because the film industry does not have the same strict regulations as television. Targeting the African American market is of particular concern to consumer advocates and health officials because there is a disproportionately high rate of addiction in the African American community and African Americans tend to have a low success rate for quitting addictions such as smoking and drinking (Williams and Tharpe, 2001).

More recently, there have been concerns about African Americans being targeted by soft drink, fast food and candy/snacks companies. Obesity has become a health issue because a disproportionate number of African Americans are obese. Obesity is linked to heart disease, diabetes and stroke, three of the top 10 causes of death in the African American community (Statistics Top 10, 2007). Studies focusing on the link between

obesity and the consumption of candy/snacks, fast food and soft drinks have been done (West et al., 2006; Deusinger et al., 2005). West and associates (2006) conducted a study focusing on the link between sugar-sweetened beverages such soft drinks and obesity. They found that college students consumed substantial amounts of sugar-sweetened beverages, mostly soft drinks, which might contribute to obesity. They also found that African American college students might be more at risk for obesity because of their higher sugared-beverage intake, mostly fruit drinks (West et al., 2006). Deusinger and associates conducted a study on focusing on the link between fast-food and obesity and found that high fast food consumption and a sedentary lifestyle among college students might contribute to obesity (Deusinger et al., 2005). There are no empirical studies on African Americans and product placement.

In summary, African Americans have great buying power that is broad within the US economy and growing at a very rapid rate. As African Americans' buying power increases, advertisers and marketers can be expected to devote more resources towards developing products that meet the needs and match the preferences of African American consumers. Data indicate that African American consumers' product and media consumption habits differ from that of Anglo American consumers. They purchase some products at a higher rate than other racial groups and are the highest consumer of the type of media that might use product placement. Researchers have speculated that the differences in consumption habits are due to ethnic and cultural differences, but there is little research to support or refute their theory. Because African Americans have shown differences in product and media consumption habits, we think that is reasonable to

assume that African Americans' perceptions of the ethics and acceptability of product placement might differ.

CHAPTER 3
OVERVIEW OF STUDY,
HYPOTHESES AND METHODOLOGY

The African American market is worthy of study for a variety of reasons. At \$845 billion to date, African Americans' buying power is very large and increasing faster than the total U.S. buying power. At 38 million, they are the second largest minority market in the United States and their numbers are growing more rapidly than that of the overall U.S. population. Researchers found that African Americans have different media and product consumption habits and have attributed these differences to ethnic and cultural factors. African Americans are the highest consumers of media that might use the product placement technique, however, there is no research focusing on African Americans and product placement. This study is needed for all of the reasons above.

More recently, there has been an increase in the use of the product placement technique, yet researchers have just begun conducting empirical studies on this topic. Six studies focusing on the ethical acceptability of product placement have been done to date, four of which were cross-cultural studies. The cross-cultural studies focused on the differences and similarities in attitudes toward placement across countries. However, there is no research on the differences and similarities in attitudes toward placement across ethnic and cultural groups (i.e., African Americans and Anglo Americans) within the United States.

The goal of this study was to explore African Americans' perceptions of the ethics and acceptability of product placement in movies and to compare their perceptions

to those of Anglo Americans. This was the first study to measure the African Americans' perceptions and acceptance of product placement. The population of interest was movie-going adults between 18 and 24 years old studying at an institute of higher education. The age sampled was intended to provide a basis for comparison with Gupta and Gould (1997) study and drew its sample from the student population at a large Midwestern university, which included both undergraduates and postgraduates, intending to reflect a representative cross-section of a major group of moviegoers. Research indicates that young adults between 18 and 34 year olds of age are heavy consumers of movies (Dortch, 1996; Johnson, 1981) and media consumption data on movie attendance supports these findings (MRI, 2007).

A non-probability convenience sampling was used in this study. While the sample is much smaller than the Gupta and Gould (1997) sample, it is balanced for gender split and has an equivalent proportion of subjects in the 18-25 years old age range.

HYPOTHESES

Based on a review of the literature, particularly the Gupta and Gould (1997) study, four hypotheses were developed for an empirical investigation of African American and Anglo American consumers' perception and acceptance of product placement.

Product Differences

Gupta and Gould (1997) found ethically charged products such as alcohol, cigarettes and guns are perceived as less acceptable for product placement in movies than other products. These findings corroborated the findings of Colford (1991), Rothenberg

(1991) and Johnson (1981) who suggested that some products, such as tobacco, were perceived as more ethically controversial than others for advertising and product placement. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H1: Regardless of race, ethically charged products will be perceived as *less* acceptable for placement in movies than non-ethically charged products.

Race Differences

Consumer behavior studies suggest that consumers favor products based on their ethnic or cultural background (Wynter, 1997; Ryan, 1991; Williams, 1989). Based upon this research, it is assumed that products may possess racial identifications and that attitudes differ with more favorable responses being registered toward products targeted to one's own ethnic or cultural background. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H2: There will be a product x race interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies.

As stated earlier, there is much controversy over the targeting of African Americans for the advertising and marketing of ethically charged products. African American consumers and advocates have opposed the advertising and marketing of

products such as tobacco and alcohol to their community (Williams, 2001). Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H2a: African Americans will be *less* likely than Anglo Americans to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies while not differing with regards to non-ethically charged products.

Gender Differences

Gupta and Gould (1997) found that people favored products based on their gender. These findings corroborate the findings by Iyer and Debevec (1986) and Kanungo and Pang (1973) that indicated that many products possess gender identifications and that attitudes differ with more favorable responses being registered toward products targeted to one's own sex. Based upon these findings, it is hypothesized that:

H3: There will be a product x gender interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies.

Gupta and Gould (1997) found that males were more accepting of ethically charged products than females. These findings are consistent with findings of earlier research that indicated that males have more positive beliefs and attitudes toward ethically charged products such as alcohol, cigarettes and guns (Milner et al., 1991; van

Roosmalen and McDaniel, 1992) and that females are more aware of the harmful effects of cigarettes than males (van Roosmalen and McDaniel, 1992). Based upon these findings, it is hypothesized that:

H3a: African American males will be *more* likely than African American females to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies while not differing with regards to non-ethically charged products.

Frequency of Movie Watching Differences

Gupta and Gould (1997) found that consumers' movie-watching frequency had an impact on product placement acceptability. They reported that people who watch movies more frequently were more accepting of product placement across products than consumers who watch movies less frequently. Based upon these findings, it is hypothesized that:

H4: Regardless of race, consumers who watch movies more frequently will be *more* accepting of product placement across products in movies than consumers who watch movies less frequently.

This chapter provided the goal and justification for the present study and stated the four research hypotheses and two sub-hypotheses to be tested. The goal of the study was to explore African Americans' perceptions and acceptance towards product

placement in movies and compare their perceptions to those of Anglo Americans. This was the first study to measure the African Americans' perceptions and acceptance of product placement. Based on a review of the literature, particularly the Gupta and Gould (1997) study's four hypotheses and two sub-hypotheses were developed for empirical investigation of African American and Anglo American consumers' perception and acceptance of product placement. The hypotheses tested dealt with product, race, gender and frequency of movie watching.

METHODOLOGY

Description of the Sample

A sample of undergraduate and graduate college students from a southwestern university was used for this study. The objective was to obtain a least 300 completed questionnaires for the study.

The population of interest for the study was specified as movie-going, young Anglo American and African American adults between 18 and 34 years of age at a higher education institution. The sample used in this study was drawn from the student population at large southwestern state university. The sample age range was established to provide a basis for comparison with the Gupta and Gould (1997) study. Students were assumed to be an appropriate sample since young adults 18-34 years old are heavy moviegoers (Dortch, 1996; Johnson, 1981). Media consumption data on movie attendance supported this judgment. The data showed 18-25 year old attended movies more frequently than any other age groups (MRI, 2007). The final sample was composed of 336 respondents, 204 females and 115 males (17 gender identifications were missing

from the demographic data). Most of the respondents were undergraduates (84.5 percent), although 8.3 percent were graduate students: masters and doctoral students. Most of the respondents were 25 and younger (75.9 percent), 3.9 percent were 26 to 30 and 2.1 percent were over 30. (61 age identifications were missing from the demographic data). One hundred twenty-eight (37.8 percent) of the respondents were Anglo American. One hundred twenty-five (32.2 percent) were African American. The remaining respondents were other ethnicities. (13 ethnicity identifications were missing from the demographic data). Table 7 shows a comparison of the breakdown of the samples of the present study with the Gupta and Gould (2007) study. The table below is provided to illustrate that, in terms of ethnicity, the present sample is representative of Anglo Americans and African Americans and, in terms of age and gender, is reflective of the U.S. college population.

TABLE 7 COMPARISON OF THE BREAKDOWN OF THE SAMPLE OF THE PRESENT STUDY WITH THE GUPTA AND GOULD (1997) STUDY

Sample Profile	Present Study	Gupta and Gould (1997) Study
Total Sample Size	336	1,012
Anglo American	128 (38.1%)	957 (94.6%)
African American	125 (34.3%)	N/A
Male	115 (34.3%)	515 (50.9%)
Female	204 (60.7%)	491 (48.5%)
18-25 years	225 (75.9%)	902 (89.1%)

Questionnaire

A web survey and a paper and pencil survey were used for this study. The survey was adapted from the instrument used in the Gupta and Gould (1997) study. A sample the questionnaire appears in Figure 1 of the Appendices. The following items were included in the questionnaire:

Product Placement Definition

A definition of product placement was not provided in the questionnaire because of the widespread use of the product placement strategy.

Attitude/Psychographics Questions

This study used the same 30 general attitude questions used in the Gupta and Gould (1997) study. However, the 30 questions were asked, using a 5-point Likert scale with poles of strongly agree (5), slightly agree (4), neither agree nor disagree (3), slightly disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1) instead of the 3-point Likert scale with poles of agree (3), neither agree nor disagree (2), and disagree (1) used in the benchmark study. The items included measures concerning general attitudes toward placement and disclosure of placements (Elliot, 1992), their perceived realism (Killham, 1991), their association with movie stars (Rothenberg, 1991), whether placement should be banned (Rothenberg, 1991; Strass and Reeves, 1992), attitudes toward television advertising in general (Andrews, 1989), the potential deceptive and subliminal nature of placement (Epstein, 1991; Nebenzahl and Secunda, 1993), and behavioral psychographics questions regarding the frequency of watching theatre movies and rented movies.

Number of Movies Watched

The respondents were asked to indicate the number of movies watched in theaters and the number of movies (i.e., rented, cable, pay-per-view, etc.) watched at home in a typical month as was done in the Gupta and Gould (1997) study.

Product Placement Acceptability Scale

Subjects were asked to assess product placement in movies for each of the 16 products on a five-point scale (1) for acceptable, (2) for slightly acceptable, (3) for neither acceptable nor unacceptable, (4) slightly unacceptable, and (5) for not acceptable. Thirteen of the 16 products selected were chosen because they were used in the Gupta and Gould (1997) study. Gupta and Gould (1997) selected the products (i.e., cigarettes, soft drinks, surfing equipment, alcohol, fatty foods, automobiles, racing cars, healthy consumer products, guns, candy/snacks, sunglasses, camera and stereo equipment) based on their constant use as product placements in movies and the likelihood of consumption by a college student sample. For this study, two of the products (i.e., surfing equipment, racing cars) not normally consumed by African American college consumers were omitted. Four products that are consumed by a college student sample (i.e., sports equipment, motorcycles, mobile phones and computers) were added.

Three products (i.e., alcohol, cigarettes, guns) were chosen as being ethically charged products and controversial in terms of product placement. Gupta and Gould (1997) used literature to establish that alcohol, cigarettes and guns were ethically charged products (Balasubramanian, 1994; Hill, 1994; Kattutas, 1993; Rothenberg, 1991) and their findings supported their choice (Gupta and Gould, 1997).

Because of the increase in obesity in the United States and the controversy surrounding advertising non-nutritious food products to teens and children (IOM, 2006), the study assumed that products such as candy/snacks, fast-food, soda drinks might arouse ethical concern and differences across consumers regarding their marketing and consumption; therefore, they might be considered ethically charged.

Open-Ended Questions.

In line with the benchmark study, participants were given an opportunity to record their views on the subject of product placement by answering an open-ended question.

Demographics.

The questionnaire included demographic data such as gender, age, marital status, student class status, and racial identification. Race and gender were used in testing. The other items were solely for classification purposes.

Procedure

Anglo American and African American undergraduate and graduate students were recruited from a large southwestern state university. An invitational email with the link to the URL containing the questionnaire was sent to the students in a student participant pool and on a list serve. Students clicked on the URL to voluntarily take part in the study.

In order to ensure that the participation of African American undergraduate and graduate students in the study, African American student organizations were invited to participate in the study. An invitational email with the link to the URL containing the questionnaire was sent to the head of the organizations that forwarded the link to the membership. Students clicked on the URL voluntarily to take part in the study.

Because of the low response rate from the web survey, paper and pencil surveys were conducted at student organizations' monthly meetings. The membership was offered a chance to receive a \$25 gift check for completing the survey as an incentive.

Although students from a variety of ethnic groups were recruited, only Anglo American and African American students were included in the sample for analysis.

Chapter 3 provided an overview of the methodology used in the present study. The chapter provided a detailed description of the sample, a detailed description of the items on the instrument (i.e., self administered survey/questionnaire) used the study and the details of the sampling procedure. The next chapter contains the data analysis and the results of the present study.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter provides the data analysis and results of the present study. The findings and how they relate to the hypotheses are discussed.

A 2 (race) x 2 (gender) x 2 (frequency of movie watching) x 16 (product) mixed between and repeated measure ANOVA was run to test the four hypotheses: H1, H2, H2a, H3, H3a and H4. The two races surveyed were Anglo American and African American. The two genders were male and female. The two levels of frequency of movie watching were low movie-watchers and high movie-watchers. The repeated measures were the 16 product categories: cigarettes, soft drinks, sports equipment, alcohol, fast foods, automobiles, motorcycle, healthy foods, guns, candy/snacks, sunglasses, cameras, stereo equipment, mobile phones, computers, and clothes/shoes. When a statistically significant reaction was found, a decomposition of the interaction was run to determine the direction and strength of the relationship.

To conduct the above analysis, frequency of movie watching, that is, the number of movies watched in the theater and the number of movies watched at home (i.e., rented movies, cable, pay-per-view, etc.) in a typical month were summed, and then divided through the median split of 7 to form two groups of low movie watchers (below 7) and high movie watchers (7 and higher). A comparison of the frequencies of movie watching is shown in Table 8. The results show that movie watching habits have changed over time with more people watching more movies than they did 10 years ago.

TABLE 8 COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF MOVIE WATCHING

Present Study				Gupta and Gould (1997)			
Number	Total Watched Percent	In Theatre Percent	At Home Percent	Number	Total Watched Percent	In Theatre Percent	At Home Percent
0-3	13.3	78.3	30.6	0-2	12.2	82.4	24.6
4-6	34.4	20.4	32.3	3-5	38.5	16.2	48.1
7-12	00.9	01.0	20.3	6-10	36.4	01.0	22.1
Over 12	43.4	00.3	16.8	Over 10	12.9	00.4	05.2

Note: For the present study, the total number of movies watched was divided at the median of 6 with those watching below 6 being classified as Lo-Movies and those above 6 classified as Hi-Movies. Missing cases of 28, 27 and 26, respectively, are excluded. Thus, percentages are based on 309 or 310 cases out of the original 336.

Note: For the Gupta and Gould (1997) study, the total number of movies watched was divided at the median of 5 with those watching below 5 being classified as Lo-Movies and those above 5 being classified as Hi-Movies. Missing cases of 3, 2 and 3, respectively, are excluded. Thus, percentages are based on 1009 or 1010 cases out of the original 1012.

A detailed analysis of the results for each hypothesis follows:

Analysis of Variance Test of Hypotheses 1-4

The Mauchly sphericity test for homogeneity of covariance in the within subjects product factor was found to be not significant, and the Greenhouse-Geisser Epsilon test statistic (.352, $df=104$) was used.

H1: Regardless of race, ethically charged products will be perceived as *less* acceptable for placement in movies than non-ethically charged products.

There was a significant product main effect ($F(4.7, 978.4) = 115.89, p < .000$). Simple, pair-wise tests revealed that ethically charged products of cigarettes, guns, soft drinks, fast foods, guns and candy/snacks all differed from sports equipment, alcohol, healthy foods and clothes/shoes at the .000 significance level. Alcohol differed from all products at the .000 significance level. Of the other products, sports equipment differed from all products at the .000 significance level, healthy foods differed from all products except clothes/shoes at the .000 significance level, and clothes/shoes differed from all products except healthy foods at the .000 significance level.

Regarding the means for acceptability of product placement for all sixteen products, clothes/shoes (Mean = 2.97) were rated as the least acceptable followed by motorcycles (Mean = 3.14) and sports equipment (Mean = 3.62), while automobile (Mean = 4.65) was rated the most acceptable followed by soft drinks (Mean = 4.56),

computers (Mean = 4.56) and computers (Mean = 4.56). For the six ethically charged products, alcohol (Mean = 4.11) was rated as the least acceptable for product placement followed by guns (Mean = 4.37), candy/snacks (Mean = 4.50), cigarettes (Mean = 4.50), fast food (Mean = 4.55) and soft drinks (Mean = 4.56). For the 10 other products, automobiles (Mean = 4.65) and computers (Mean = 4.65) were rated the most acceptable. The means of traditionally ethically charged product of cigarettes (Mean = 4.50) and the non-traditional ethically charged products of fast food (Mean = 4.54) and soft drinks (Mean = 4.56) were all close in means to the automobiles (Mean = 4.65) and computers (Mean = 4.56); therefore, were generally acceptable for placement to the consumers in the sample. The mean scores for each product category are summarized in Table 9.

Therefore, H1 predicting that ethically charged products will be perceived as less acceptable for placement in movies than non-ethically charged products was not supported.

H2: There will be a product x race interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies.

H2 predicting that there will be a product x race interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies was supported. There was a significant race main effect ($F(1, 208) = 10.45, p < .001$) and a significant race x gender effect ($F(1, 208) = 3.96, p < .048$). Figure 1A shows a plot chart of the product x race

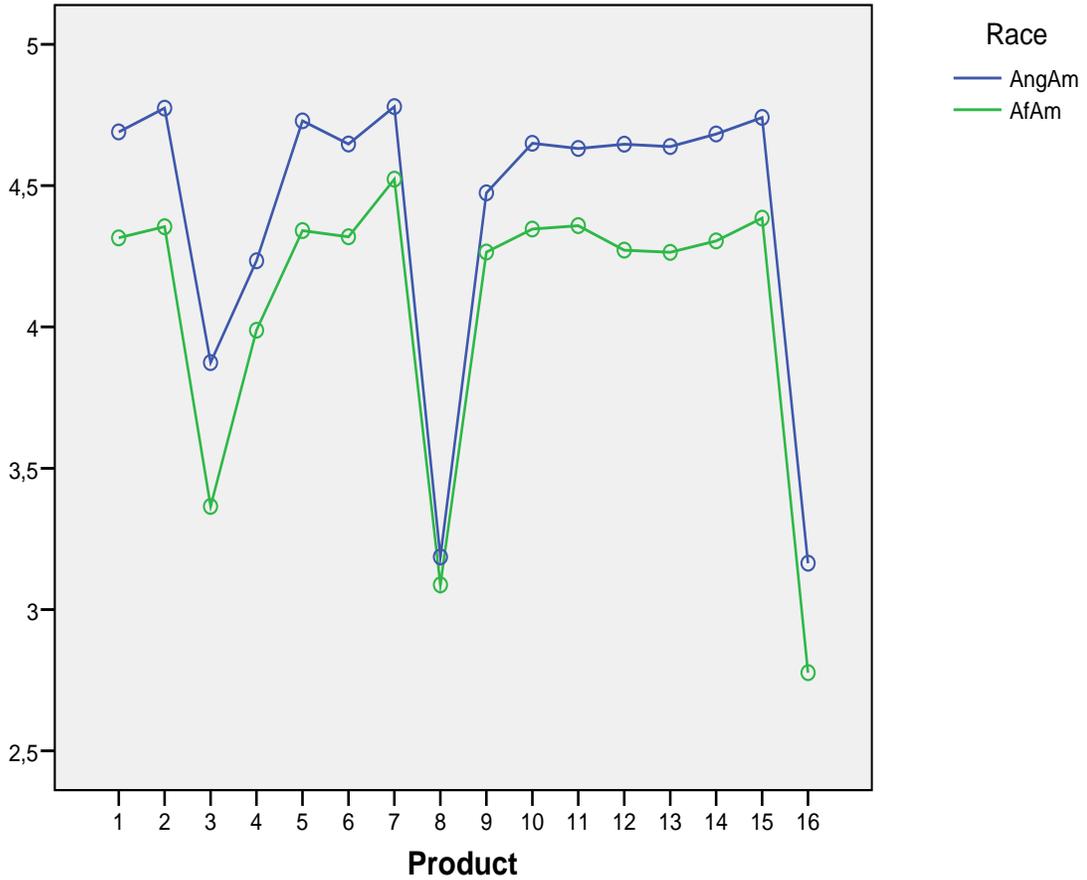
TABLE 9 MEANS OF ACCEPTABILITY OF PRODUCT CATEGORIES

Total		AfAm	AngAm	Male	Female	Lo-Movies	Hi-Movies
Product	Mean n	Mean n	Mean n	Mean n	Mean n	Mean n	Mean n
Cigarettes	4.50	4.32	4.69	4.47	4.53	4.37	4.64
Soft Drinks	4.56	4.36	4.77	4.58	4.55	4.45	4.68
Sports Equipment	3.62	3.37	3.87	3.73	3.51	3.46	3.78
Alcohol	4.11	3.39	4.23	4.20	4.03	3.98	4.24
Fast Foods	4.54	3.34	4.73	4.57	4.50	4.42	4.65
Automobiles	4.48	3.32	4.65	4.52	4.45	4.36	4.60
Motorcycle	4.65	4.52	4.78	4.65	4.65	4.58	4.72
Healthy Foods	3.14	3.09	3.19	3.34	2.93	2.98	3.30
Guns	4.37	4.27	4.47	4.38	4.40	4.22	4.52
Candy/Snacks	4.50	4.35	4.64	4.40	4.60	4.38	4.62
Sunglasses	4.50	4.36	4.63	4.41	4.60	4.36	4.63
Cameras	4.50	3.27	4.65	4.40	4.52	4.32	4.60
Stereo Equipment	4.45	4.26	4.64	4.44	4.47	4.37	4.53
Mobile Phones	4.49	4.30	4.74	4.47	4.52	4.37	4.62
Computers	4.56	4.39	4.47	4.57	4.56	4.51	4.62
Clothes/Shoes	2.97	2.78	3.16	3.25	2.69	2.93	3.01

Note: Numbers of consumers across appropriate cells may vary because of missing values. Acceptability was measured on a 5-point scale from not acceptable at all (1) to acceptable (5). Total movies were divided at the median of 7 with those watching less than 7 movies at month classified as Lo-Movies and those watching 7 and more classified as Hi-Movies. The total means of the six ethically charged products are in bold type.

FIGURE 1A

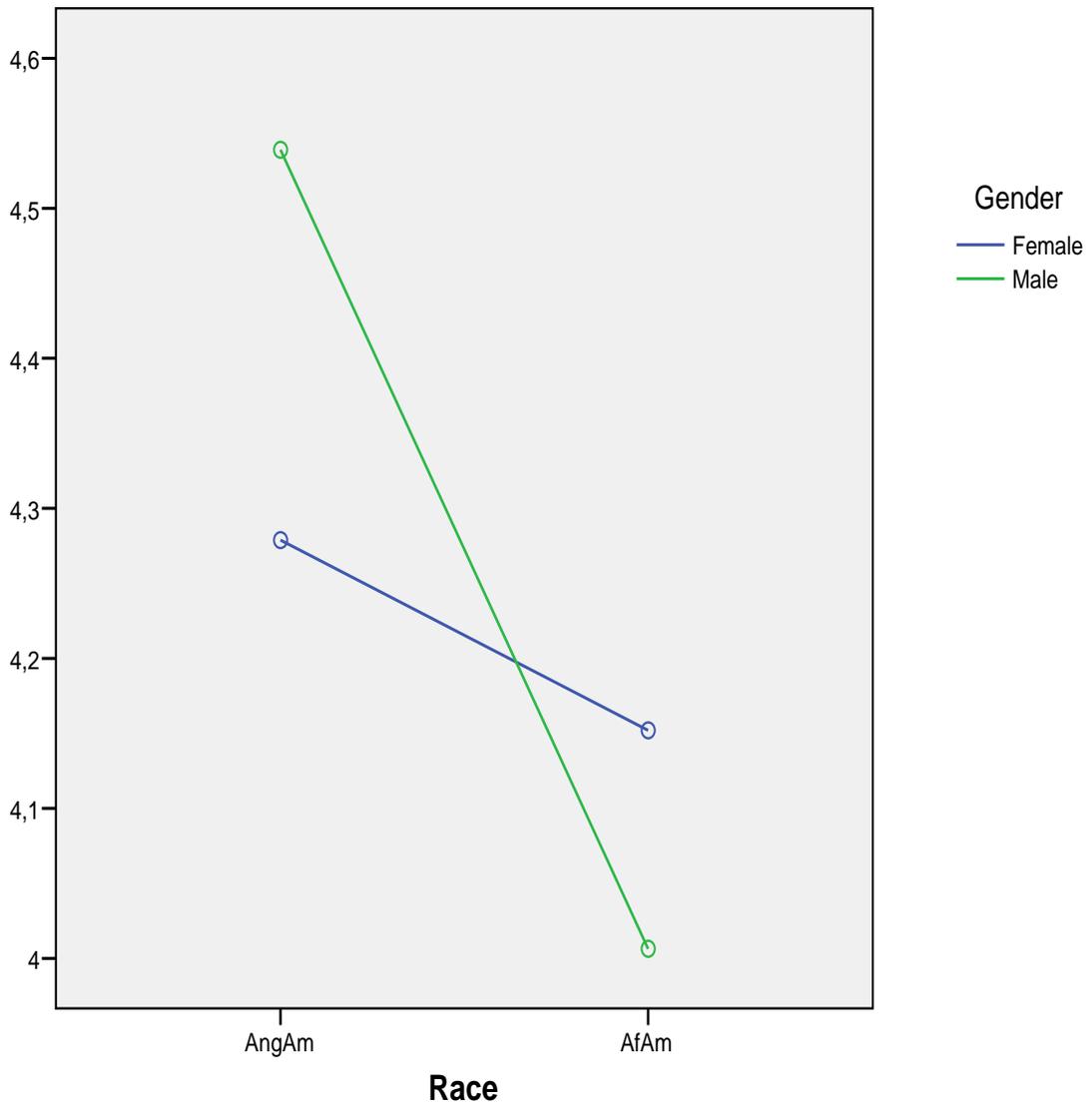
PRODUCT X RACE INTERACTION



Note: The numbers on the y-axis represent the means of acceptability for the 16 products. Products were rated on a 5-point scale, with higher indicating greater acceptance. The numbers on the x-axis represent the 16 products that were rated: 1 = cigarettes, 2 = soft drinks, 3 = sports equipment, 4 = alcohol, 5 = fast foods, 6 = automobiles, 7 = motorcycle, 8 = healthy foods, 9 = guns, 10 = candy/snacks, 11 = sunglasses, cameras, 12 = stereo equipment, 13 = mobile phones, 14 = computers, and 15 = clothes/shoes.

FIGURE 1B

RACE X GENDER INTERACTION



Note: The numbers on the y-axis represent the means of acceptability for the 16 products. Products were rated on a 5-point scale, with higher indicating greater acceptance.

interaction and Figure 1B shows plot chart for the race x gender interaction.

H2a: African Americans will be *less* likely than Anglo Americans to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies while not differing with regards to non-ethically charged products.

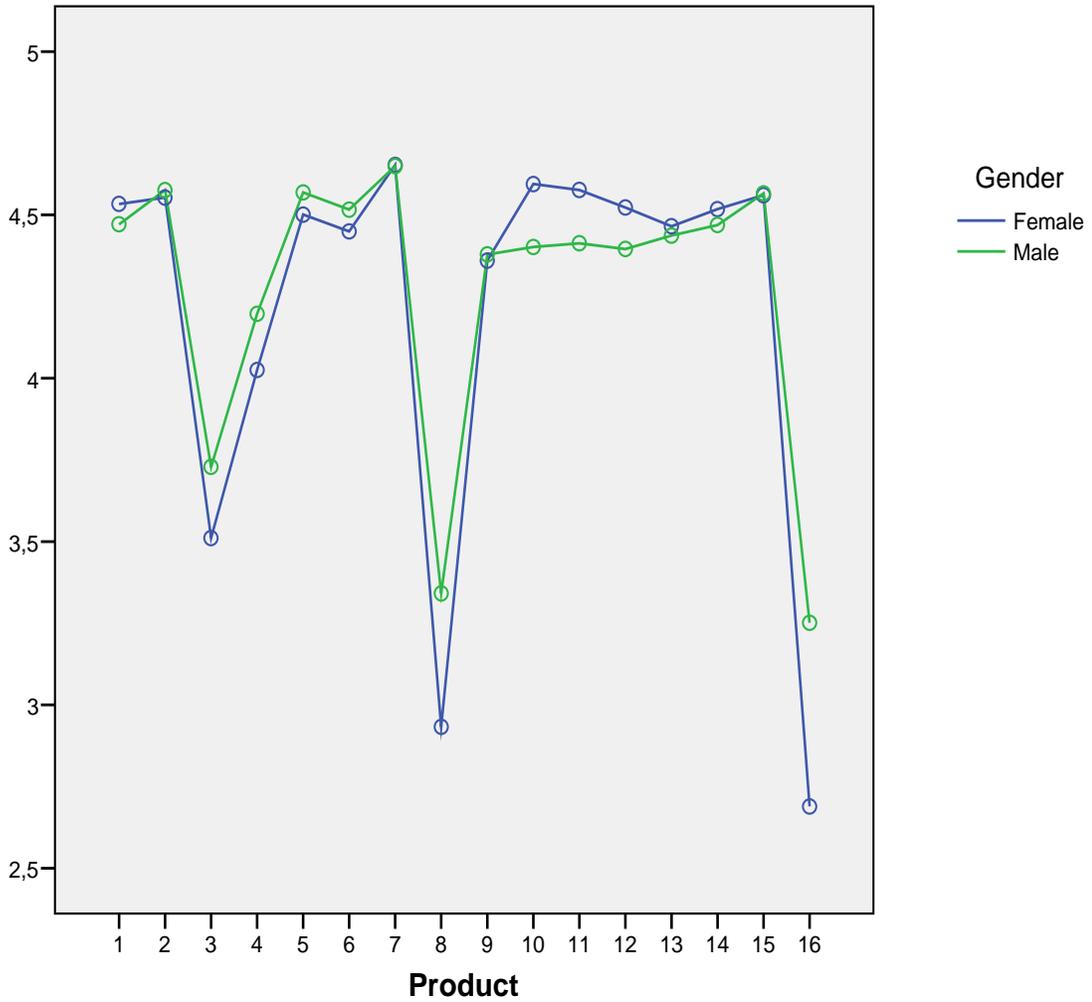
H2a predicting that African Americans would be *less* likely than Anglo Americans to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies while not differing with regards to non-ethically charged products was also supported. The results indicated that African Americans perceived ethically charged products as less acceptable for placement. In fact, African Americans tended to rate all of the sixteen products lower than that of Anglo Americans. See Table 9 for the means of acceptability of product categories.

H3: There will be a product x gender interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies.

H3 predicting that there would be a product x gender interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies was supported. There was a significant product x gender effect ($F(4.7, 978.4) = 4.24, p < .001$). However, the results

FIGURE 1C

PRODUCT X GENDER INTERACTION



Note: The numbers on the y-axis represent the means of acceptability for the 16 products. Products were rated on a 5-point scale, with higher indicating greater acceptance. The numbers on the x-axis represent the 16 products that were rated: 1 = cigarettes, 2 = soft drinks, 3 = sports equipment, 4 = alcohol, 5 = fast foods, 6 = automobiles, 7 = motorcycle, 8 = healthy foods, 9 = guns, 10 = candy/snacks, 11 = sunglasses, cameras, 12 = stereo equipment, 13 = mobile phones, 14 = computers, and 15 = clothes/shoes.

were mixed. Results indicated that the acceptability of sports equipment, healthy foods and clothes/shoes varied among the sexes, while the acceptability of soft drinks, motorcycles, guns and computers were virtually the same across genders. Figure 1C shows a plot of the product x gender interaction.

H3a: African American males will be *more* likely than will African American females to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies while not differing with regards to other products.

H3a predicting that African American males would be more likely than African American females to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies while not differing with regard to non-ethically charged products was not supported. Results indicated that African American males found ethically charged products less acceptable for placement than did African American females. As mentioned in the section above, there was a significant race x gender effect ($F(1, 208) = 3.96, p < .048$). See Figure 1B for a plot chart of the race x gender interaction.

H4: Regardless of race, consumers who watch movies more frequently will be *more* accepting of product placement across products in movies than consumers who watch movies less frequently.

H4 predicting that consumers who watch movies more frequently would be more accepting of product placement across products than consumers who watch movies less frequently was supported. There was a significant frequency of movie watching main effect ($F(1, 208) = 5.16, p < .024$) and a significant race x frequency of movie-watching effect ($F(1, 208) = 10.09, p < .002$). Results indicated that consumers who watched movies more frequently (7 or higher) found product placement more acceptable than consumer who watched movies less frequently (less than 7). See Figure 1D for a plot chart of the product x frequency of movie-watching interaction.

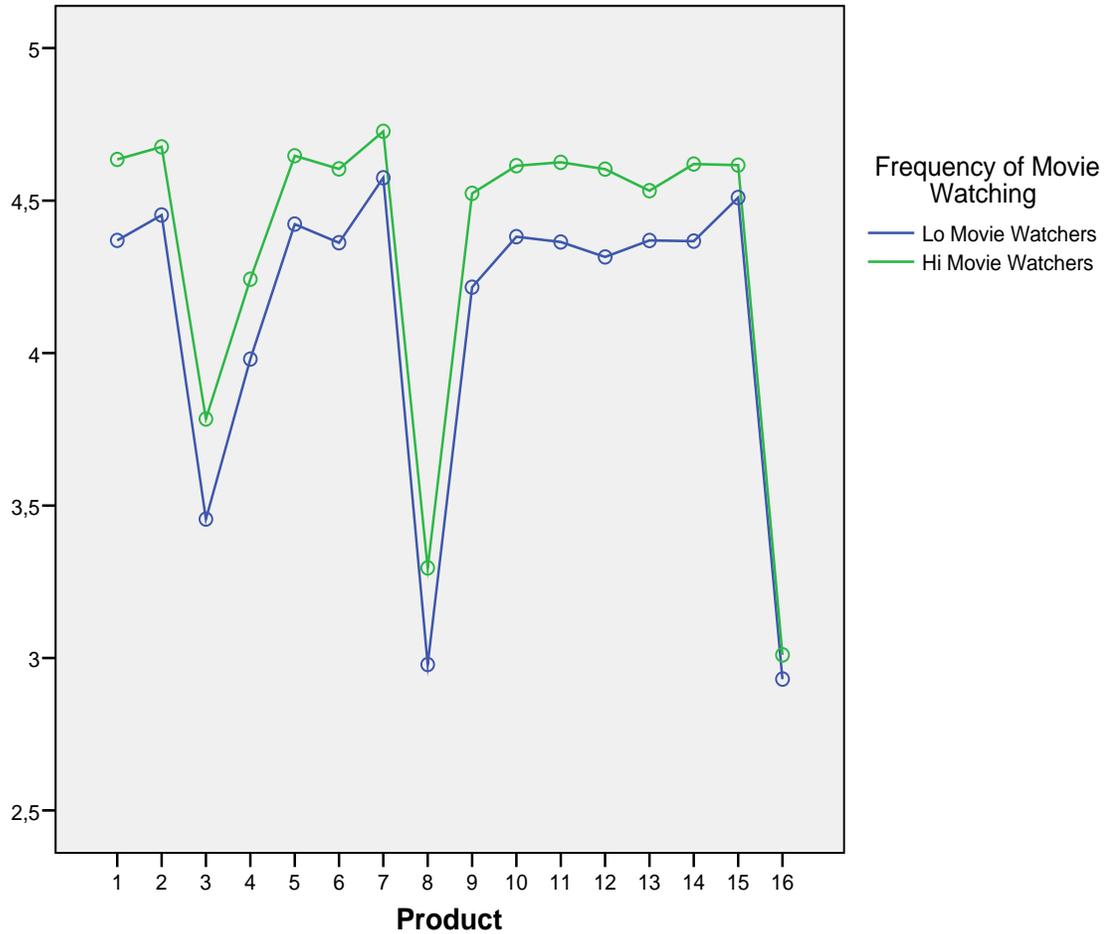
Factor Analysis/Data Reduction

Thirty general attitudes questions were asked using a 5-point Likert scale with poles of (1) stronger disagree, (2) slightly disagree, (3) neither agree and disagree, (4) slightly agree and (5) strongly agree. The items included measures concerning general attitudes toward placement and disclosure of placements (Elliot, 1992), their perceived realism (Killham, 1991), their association with movie stars (Rothenberg, 1991), whether placement should be banned (Rothenberg, 1991; Strass and Reeves, 1992), attitudes toward television advertising in general (Andrews, 1989), the potential deceptive and subliminal nature of placement (Epstein, 1991; Nebenzahl and Secunda, 1993), and behavioral psychographics questions regarding the frequency of watching movies and rented movies.

The thirty individual items were examined thorough factor analysis using principal component analysis and varimax rotation. A reliability test was run on the

FIGURE 1D

PRODUCT X FREQUENCY OF MOVIE WATCHING



Note: The numbers on the y-axis represent the means of acceptability for the 16 products. Products were rated on a 5-point scale, with higher indicating greater acceptance. The numbers on the x-axis represent the 16 products that were rated: 1 = cigarettes, 2 = soft drinks, 3 = sports equipment, 4 = alcohol, 5 = fast foods, 6 = automobiles, 7 = motorcycle, 8 = healthy foods, 9 = guns, 10 = candy/snacks, 11 = sunglasses, cameras, 12 = stereo equipment, 13 = mobile phones, 14 = computers, and 15 = clothes/shoes.

resulting factors. This analysis revealed seven factors that together accounted for 59.78 percent of the variance resulted and items loading at $|.50|$ or better were summed: Attitudes toward product placement in general (assessed by Cronbach's alpha - .66 which is considered an acceptable level). The first factor accounted for 18.9 percent of the variance and contained 8 items (#4, #5, #6, #7, #13, #14, #21, #24), all relating to acceptance of product placement in movies. The second factor accounted for 10.5 percent of the variance and contained 4 items (#10, #11, #12, #13), all relating to using product placement used for realism. The third factor accounted for 8.2 percent of the variance and contained 4 items (#25, #26, #27, #28), all relating to frequency of movie-watching habits. The fourth factor accounted for 6.4 percent of the variance and contained 3 items (#18, #19, #20), all relating to the banning or restriction of product placement. The fifth factor accounted for 6 percent of the variance contained 3 items (#15, #16, #17), all relating to attitudes toward television advertising. The sixth factor accounted for 5.3 percent of the variance and contained 3 items (#28, #29, #30), all relating to subliminal nature of product placement. The seventh factor, labeled accounted for 4.4 percent of the variance, but only contained 2 items (#22, #23), all relating to restricting product placement to realism.

The attitudinal items with the highest mean scores were item 13 (Mean = 4.13), which asked respondents if they agreed with the statement, 'I don't mind if brand name products appear in a movie.' followed by item 27 (Mean = 4.07) that asked respondents if they agreed with the statement, 'I watch movies (at the theater or rented) to escape from the barrage of TV ads.' and item 12 (Mean = 3.88), which asked respondents if they

agreed with the statement, 'The presence of brand name products in a movie makes it more realistic.' The attitudinal items with the lowest mean scores were item 24 (Mean = 1.36) which asked respondents if they agreed with the statement, 'I hate watching ads on television.' followed by item 14 (Mean = 1.62) which asked respondents if they agreed with the statement, 'The placement of brands in movies should be completely banned.' and item 5 (Mean = 1.86) which asked respondents if they agreed with the statement, 'Moviegoers should have the option of receiving a full refund for their tickets if they hated seeing brand name products as props in the movie they watched.' See Table 10 for a summary of the factor loadings and means scores of the attitudinal items for the present study.

Comparison with the Gupta and Gould (1997) Study

In addition to examining the differences and similarities between African Americans and Anglo Americans, another objective of this study was to build upon the Gupta and Gould (1997) approach. The 30 items were replicated from the benchmark study. The factor loadings of the Gupta and Gould (1997) study are shown in Table 11. We also compared the mean scores for 7 identical items from the present study and the Gupta and Gould (1997) study and found the mean scores for the first six items were similar in number. (See Table 12). However, the mean scores for the last item were different in number and direction with respondents agreeing with the statement more than the respondents in 1997. Respondents in the present study agreed more that they bought brands that they saw movie stars using or holding in movies (Mean = 3.43) than

TABLE 10 FACTOR LOADINGS OF ATTITUDINAL MEASURES OF PRESENT STUDY

Variables	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	Mean
1. I will not go to movies if I know beforehand that brands are placed prominently in the movie for commercial purposes.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
2. I hate seeing brand name products in movies if they are placed for commercial purposes.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
3. I don't mind if movie producers receive money or other compensation from manufacturers for placing their brands in the movies.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
4. It is highly unethical to influence the captive audience by using brand name products in movies	.69	-.20	-.10	-.03	-.22	.08	-.06	2.40
5. Moviegoers should have the option of receiving a full refund for their tickets if they hated seeing brand name products as props in the movie they watched.	.61	-.07	.11	-.03	.10	.01	.15	1.86 (Lo)
6. Manufacturers are misleading the audiences by disguising brands as props in movies.	.62	-.23	.11	.04	.25	.01	.11	2.42
7. The government should regulate the use of brand name products in movies.	.68	-.07	-.03	.14	.23	-.02	-.10	2.22 (Lo)
8. If movies are making money from product placements, ticket prices should be reduced.	.32	-.10	.21	-.01	.46	-.12	-.02	3.5
9. Brands placed in a movie for which the producers receive payment from brand name manufacturers should be disclosed in the movie credits at the beginning of the movie.	.42	-.05	.29	.20	.23	-.04	.04	2.88
10. I prefer to see real brands in movies rather than fake/fictitious brands.	-.01	.85	-.08	-.07	.06	.05	-.02	3.71
11. Movies should use fictitious brands rather than existing brands.	.38	-.63	-.02	.07	.04	-.09	.17	2.36
12. The presence of brand name products in a movie makes it more realistic.	-.24	.75	.6	.11	.12	.09	.09	3.88 (Hi)
13. I don't mind if brand name products appear in a movie.	-.51	.54	-.10	.07	.09	-.06	.02	4.13 (Hi)
14. The placement of brands in movies should be completely banned.	.78	-.18	.05	.14	-.08	-.09	.09	1.62 (Lo)
15. Use of brand name tobacco, beer and liquor products should be banned from PG and PG-13 rated movies because kids watch such movies.	.06	-.05	.05	.87	.16	.01	.04	3.47
16. Brand name tobacco, beer and liquor products should only be used in R-rated movies, as kids don't watch such movies.	-.00	.01	.06	.84	.16	.12	-.00	3.26
17. Cigarette product placement in movies should be banned completely since cigarette ads are banned from TV.	.20	.05	.03	.70	-.02	-.11	.12	3.04
18. I hate watching ads on television.	.56	.08	-.16	.61	-.30	-.32	.15	1.36 (Lo)
19. While watching a TV program, I frequently flip channels to escape watching ads.	.24	.07	-.04	.17	.60	-.12	-.01	3.51
20. When an ad appears on my TV, I stop looking at the screen until the program starts again.	.15	.16	-.04	.21	.70	.01	.00	3.63

21. I watch movies (at the theater or rented) to escape from the barrage of TV ads.	-.28	.45	-.06	.02	.52	.11	.02	4.07 (Hi)
22. I frequently watch rented movies.	.01	-.12	.20	-.13	.46	-.04	.58	3.75
23. I frequently watch movies in theaters.	.07	-.10	.04	.24	-.01	.08	.80	3.45
24. I hate watching movies.	.20	.37	-.17	-.01	-.27	-.07	.56	2.40
25. Movies should not give too much importance to a particular brand (e.g. showing the same brand very frequently in a movie).	.15	-.02	.79	-.02	.08	.02	-.01	3.19
26. Movies should contain only those brand name products that are essential to the program's realism.	-.05	.01	.81	-.03	.04	.08	.00	3.78
27. I don't mind seeing brand name products in movies as long as they are not unrealistically shown.	.18	-.05	.74	.05	-.06	-.06	.05	3.06
28. I would consider product placement as "commercials in disguise".	.50	-.08	.36	.00	-.25	.26	.07	2.52
29. Movies viewers are subconsciously influenced by the brands they see in movies.	.06	.06	-.06	.05	.03	.84	.08	3.46
30. I buy brands I see movie stars using or holding in movies.	-.07	.11	.10	-.04	-.17	.81	-.05	3.41

TABLE 11 FACTOR LOADINGS OF ATTITUDINAL MEASURES OF GRIPTA AND GOULD (1997) STUDY

Variables	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
1. I will not go to movies if I know beforehand that brands are placed prominently in the movie for commercial purposes.	.69	.12	.01	.09	-.08	-.04	.05
2. I hate seeing brand name products in movies if they are placed for commercial purposes.	.60	.05	.03	.11	-.01	.30	-.08
3. I don't mind if movie producers receive money or other compensation from manufacturers for placing their brands in the movies.	-.53	-.25	.00	-.04	.08	1.04	.00
4. It is highly unethical to influence the captive audience by using brand name products in movies	.53	.30	.30	.09	-.05	.06	-.01
5. Moviegoers should have the option of receiving a full refund for their tickets if they hated seeing brand name products as props in the movie they watched.	.48	.28	.16	.07	-.10	-.17	.20
6. Manufacturers are misleading the audiences by disguising brands as props in movies.	.48	.24	.10	.08	.02	.13	.19
7. The government should regulate the use of brand name products in movies.	.42	.27	.25	-.03	-.04	-.01	.36
8. If movies are making money from product placements, ticket prices should be reduced..	.35	.01	.22	.25	.17	.18	-.14
9. Brands placed in a movie for which the producers receive payment from brand name manufacturers should be disclosed in the movie credits at the beginning of the movie.	.34	.07	.25	.02	.00	.14	.18
10. I prefer to see real brands in movies rather than fake/fictitious brands.	-.20	-.75	-.02	-.02	.04	.04	.06
11. Movies should use fictitious brands rather than existing brands.	.12	.74	.04	.01	.03	.04	.08
12. The presence of brand name products in a movie makes it more realistic.	-.06	-.73	-.08	-.02	.10	.14	.09
13. I don't mind if brand name products appear in a movie.	-.37	-.59	.01	-.07	.00	.00	-.04
14. The placement of brands in movies should be completely banned.	.37	.56	.07	.13	.09	.01	.11
15. Use of brand name tobacco, beer and liquor products should be banned from PG and PG-13 rated movies because kids watch such movies.	.10	.05	-.86	-.01	-.02	.03	.01
16. Brand name tobacco, beer and liquor products should only be used in R-rated movies, as kids don't watch such movies.	.04	.02	.80	.08	-.01	-.01	.03
17. Cigarette product placement in movies should be banned completely since cigarette ads are banned from TV.	.19	.06	.60	.03	.08	.11	.10
18. I hate watching ads on television.	.11	.09	.09	.80	-.06	-.03	-.10
19. While watching a TV program, I frequently flip channels to escape watching ads.	-.04	.07	-.08	.73	.09	.09	.03
20. When an ad appears on my TV, I stop looking at the screen until the program starts again.	.15	.01	.02	.68	-.08	-.05	.07
21. I watch movies (at the theater or rented) to escape from the barrage of TV ads.	.34	.01	.17	.46	.03	.12	.13

22. I frequently watch rented movies.	-.01	-.06	.03	.05	.78	.00	-.04
23. I frequently watch movies in theaters.	.00	.03	-.05	-.04	.74	-.06	.10
24. I hate watching movies.	.01	.08	-.03	.02	-.64	-.02	.03
25. Movies should not give too much importance to a particular brand (e.g. showing the same brand very frequently in a movie).	.20	.02	.13	.01	-.01	.64	-.05
26. Movies should contain only those brand name products that are essential to the program's realism.	.26	-.01	-.03	.01	-.10	.58	.11
27. I don't mind seeing brand name products in movies as long as they are not unrealistically shown.	.14	-.27	.01	.01	.09	.54	.03
28. I would consider product placement as "commercials in disguise".	-.20	.30	.25	.23	-.06	.44	.27
29. Movies viewers are subconsciously influenced by the brands they see in movies.	-.01	.03	.13	.01	.02	.18	.74
30. I buy brands I see movie stars using or holding in movies.	.19	-.12	-.03	.03	.01	-.08	.70

Note: Items 24-30 are items 18-25 on the questionnaire. Items 19-23 are items 25-23 on the questionnaire. Numbers were reordered for a direct comparison with the Gupt and Gould (1997).

respondents in 1997 (Mean = 1.77). These findings suggest that not only can product placement create positive associations with the brand and the celebrity endorser, it also might influence purchase intentions and consumption behaviors.

Comments from the Open-Ended Question

It was predicted that the open-ended comments by the respondents would mirror the results of the hypotheses. The results were mixed. A content analysis of the responses found that most respondents were accepting of product placement. The study subjects generally did not object to product placements in movies as long as the brand was “an integral of plot” and “not intrusive.” Respondents expected to see real brands in movies and preferred placement to traditional advertising.

However, when respondents voiced concern, it was over the advertising of ethically charged products (e.g., alcohol, cigarettes, guns) and advertising to children. These results supported the findings of previous studies (Nebenzahl and Secunda, 1993; Gupta and Gould, 1997).

COMPARISON WITH THE MEDIA AND PRODUCT CONSUMPTION DATA

Media Consumption Habits

A cross tabulation of 2007 MRI data was performed to identify individual differences in media consumption habits: television and cable/pay TV viewing, movie theatre attendance and interest shown in product placement. MRI consumption data was broken down by race, (i.e., Anglo American, African American), gender (i.e., male, female), and age (18-24 year olds, 25-34 year olds, 35 years and older). The data obtained was then compared to results of the present study.

Television and Cable /Pay TV Viewing Habits

The results showed that African Americans viewed more television and cable/pay TV than Anglo Americans. These results confirmed the findings of previous studies that indicated that African Americans watched more television and subscribe to cable/pay TV at a higher rate than other racial groups (Lee, et al., 2004). That same data showed that females viewed more television in a week, while males viewed more cable/pay TV. Of the three age groups, 18-24 year olds viewed the most cable/pay TV, followed by 24-34 year olds and then respondents 35 years and older. Adults 35 years and older viewed the most television in a week, followed by 25-34 year olds. 18-24 year olds viewed the least amount of TV in a week. Table 12 provides a summary of the television and cable/pay TV data.

Interest Shown in Product Placement

The respondents were asked to indicate if they had shown an interest in product placement in movies, television and video games. We found that 18-24 year olds showed more interest in product placement in movies than any other age groups. African Americans showed more interest in product placement in movies than Anglo Americans. These results confirmed the findings of previous studies that indicated that African Americans are more interested in advertising than other racial groups (Lee, et al., 2002; Williams and Tharpe, 2001). Males showed more interest in product placement in movies than females. These findings support the results of the present study. Item 13 on our questionnaire that asked respondents ‘I don’t mind if brand name products appear in a movie.’ had the highest mean score (Mean = 4.13). However, we also found that

respondents showed more interest in product placement in television than movies or video games. Table 13 provides a summary of interest shown in product placement data.

Frequency of Movie Theatre Attendance

To determine the frequency of movie theatre attendance, respondents were asked if they attended the movie theatre less than one a month, once a month, 2-3 times a month, or 4 or more times a month. A greater number of African Americans in any attendance category reported going to the movie theatre more than Anglo Americans. Anglo Americans also attended the movie theatre less often than the total respondents. On an average, African Americans reported attending the movie theatre 3.2 times in a month, while Anglo American only reported attending the movie theatre 2.6 times in a month, 0.6 fewer times than African Americans. Total respondents attended the movie theatre 2.8 times a week, 0.4 fewer times than African Americans. These results supported literature that indicated that African Americans attended movies more frequently than other groups. However, the survey results did not confirm H4 that predicted that frequent movie watchers would be more accepting of product placement. The African Americans in the present study were less accepting of product placement in movies. Table 14 provides a summary of the frequency of movie theatre attendance data.

Product Consumption Habits

Cross-tabulations were run on the same (or similar) product categories rated for placement in the present study. 2007 MRI consumption data were broken down by race, gender and age and then comparisons were done. MRI did not have data on the 16 general product categories needed to make a direct comparison of the product categories

TABLE 12 SUMMARY OF TELEVISION AND CABLE/PAY TV USAGE DATA (by percentages)

Traditional Media	Total	AngAm	AfAm	Male	Female	18-24 years	25-34 years	35 years or older
Television	61.80	39.60	62.80	59.20	63.20	51.10	52.20	65.40
Cable/Pay TV	42.00	60.20	76.70	43.70	40.40	45.80	42.10	41.30

Note: Television numbers represent the average number of half hours of television viewed in a week. The cable/pay TV numbers represent the average numbers of hours of cable and Pay TV viewed in a week.

TABLE 13 SUMMARY OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT DATA (by percentages)

Alternate Media	Total	AngAm	AfAm	Male	Female	18-24 years	25-34 years	35 years or older
Product Placement in Movies	28.88	24.58	44.70	29.48	28.32	44.17	38.77	23.51
Product Placement in Television	43.56	39.85	55.00	42.76	44.30	50.34	47.20	41.37
Product Placement in Video Games	14.81	10.98	29.23	17.63	12.19	28.47	22.21	10.39

Note: The numbers represent the number of respondents that reported showing an interest in product placement in that particular medium.

TABLE 14 A SUMMARY OF FREQUENCY OF MOVIE ATTENDANCE DATA (by percentages)

Frequency of Movie Attendance	Total	AngAm	AfAm	Male	Female	18-24 years	25-34 years	35 years or older
Less than once at month	32.11	33.84	27.81	30.11	33.98	30.50	34.97	31.67
Once a month	10.06	10.11	11.61	10.26	9.88	15.23	12.36	8.52
2-3 times a month	6.64	5.97	8.14	6.22	7.02	12.36	9.73	4.78
More than 4 times a month	2.58	2.18	3.48	2.97	2.22	6.56	2.93	1.76
Average number of times attended in a month	2.80	2.60	3.20	3.70	2.90	3.80	3.00	2.40

Note: The numbers in first four rows represent the numbers of times that respondents reported attending a movie in a month. The numbers in the last row represent the average number of times that respondents attended a movie in a month. Source: MRI (2007)

consumed and the product categories rated; therefore, several subcategories were collapsed to obtain the 20 general product categories used as a basis for comparison.

The following 20 product categories were created: cigarette, soft drinks, sports equipment, alcohol, fast foods, automobiles, motorcycle, guns, candy/snacks, sunglasses, camera, audio equipment, mobile phones, computers, men's clothes, women's clothes, shoes, fruits/vegetables, dairy products, and whole grain products.

The cigarette category included any cigarettes smoked in the last 12 months. The soft drinks category included soft drinks, energy drinks, sports drinks and bottled water bought in the last six months. There was no single sports equipment category, but there was a combination sports/recreation equipment category. For the purpose of this study, sports/recreation equipment was listed and reported. The alcohol category included any alcoholic beverage. The fast food category included food in bought at a fast food or drive-in restaurants in the last six months. The automobile category included automobiles bought or leased in the last 12 months. The motorcycles category included any motorcycles. Like "junk food," there is no widely accepted definition of "healthy foods." Therefore, we used products that made up a "healthy diet" as a proxy for "healthy foods." Health officials define a "healthy diet" as a diet rich in fruits and vegetables, whole grain products and low-fat dairy products (IOM, 2006). For the purpose of this report, several subcategories were collapsed to create fruits and vegetables, whole grain products and dairy product categories. The guns category included all handguns, rifles, or shotguns owned or bought in the last 12 months. The candy snack category included candy or snacks bought in the last 6 months. The sunglasses category included

prescription and non-prescription sunglasses. The camera category included any camera owned or bought in the last 12 months. The data did not include any stereo equipment category, but there was an audio equipment category. Therefore, for the purpose of this report, audio equipment category were listed and reported on. The audio equipment category included any audio equipment bought or owned in the last 12 months. The mobile phone category included mobile phones bought in the last 12 months. The computer category included any personal computer at home or work. There was no combination clothes/shoes category. Therefore, for the purpose of this report, women's clothes, men's clothes and shoes, were listed as three separate categories and reported on. The men's clothes category included any men's clothing. The women's clothes category included any women's clothing. And the shoes category included all shoes bought in the last 12 months.

Difference in Product Consumption Habits

Seventeen of resulting 20 product categories were ranked in order according to consumption rates. First, differences in the rankings of the product categories were sought and then differences in the rates of consumption were sought. The ranking and consumption rates of the three "healthy foods" categories (i.e., fruit/vegetables, dairy products and whole grain products) are listed separately.

The 17 products, ranked in order, according to the consumption rates by Anglo Americans were candy/snacks (99.4 percent), soft drinks (96 percent), fast food (91 percent), automobiles (91 percent), mobile phones (80 percent), computers (79 percent), alcohol (61 percent), sports equipment (59 percent), shoes (53 percent), men's clothes (53

TABLE 15 COMPARISON OF ANGLO AMERICAN AND AFRICAN AMERICAN RESPONDENTS' PRODUCT CONSUMPTION HABITS WITH ALL RESPONDENTS (by percentages)

Products	Anglo Americans	African Americans	All Respondents
Cigarettes (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	24	24	23
Soft Drinks (Bought in Last 6 Mos.)	96	96	96
Sports Equipment	59	32	54
Alcohol	60	49	59
Fast Foods (Bought in Last 6 Mos.)	91	89	90
Automobiles (Leased/Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	91	67	87
Motorcycle	7	3	6
Healthy Foods	N/A	N/A	N/A
Guns (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	17	4	14
Candy/Snacks (Bought in Last 6 Mos.)	99.4	99.6	99
Sunglasses	49	32	45
Cameras	52	29	48
Stereo (Audio) Equipment	50	36	48
Mobile Phones (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	80	75	79
Computers (Have at home/work)	79	66	77
Men Clothes	53	39	51
Women Clothes	47	43	46
Shoes (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	54	46	53

TABLE 16 COMPARISON OF ANGLO AMERICAN AND AFRICAN AMERICAN RESPONDENTS' HEALTHY FOODS PRODUCT CONSUMPTION HABITS WITH ALL RESPONDENTS (by percentages)

Products	Anglo Americans	African Americans	All Respondents
Fruit and Vegetables	95	95.7	95
Whole Grains	92.7	92.6	92.7
Dairy Products	99.4	99.5	99.4

Note: The numbers represent the percentages of respondents who reported consuming the product category. Traditional and non-traditional ethically charged products are bolded.

Source: MRI (2007)

TABLE 17 COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE RESPONDENTS' PRODUCT CONSUMPTION HABITS WITH ALL RESPONDENTS (by percentages)

Products	Males	Females	All Respondents
Cigarettes (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	26	21	23
Soft Drinks (Bought in Last 6 Mos.)	96	96	96
Sports Equipment	60	47	54
Alcohol	65	53	59
Fast Foods (Bought in Last 6 Mos.)	90	90	90
Automobiles (Leased/Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	88	85	87
Motorcycle	7	5	6
Healthy Foods	N/A	N/A	N/A
Guns (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	20	8	14
Candy/Snacks (Bought in Last 6 Mos.)	99	99.6	99
Sunglasses	40	49	45
Cameras	46	50	48
Stereo (Audio) Equipment	49	46	48
Mobile Phones (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	79	79	79
Computers (Have at home/work)	77	76	77
Men Clothes	70	34	51
Women Clothes	13	77	46
Shoes (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	57	49	53

TABLE 18 COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE RESPONDENTS' HEALTHY FOODS PRODUCT CONSUMPTION HABITS WITH ALL RESPONDENTS (by percentages)

Products	Males	Females	All Respondents
Fruit and Vegetables	93.8	96.3	95
Whole Grains	91.7	93.6	92.7
Dairy Products	99.3	99.4	99.4

Note: The numbers represent the percentages of respondents who reported consuming the product category. Traditional and non-traditional ethically charged products are bolded.

Source: MRI (2007)

TABLE 19 COMPARISON OF 18-24 YR OLDS, 25-34 YR OLDS AND 35 YR+ OLDS' PRODUCT CONSUMPTION HABITS WITH ALL RESPONDENTS (by percentages)

Products	18-24 yrs	25-34 yrs	35 yrs and older	All Respondents
Cigarettes (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	31	27	21	23
Soft Drinks (Bought in Last 6 Mos.)	98	98	95	96
Sports Equipment	48	53	55	54
Alcohol	56	66	57	59
Fast Foods (Bought in Last 6 Mos.)	93	94	89	90
Automobiles (Leased/Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	82	87	87	87
Motorcycle	6	6	6	6
Healthy Foods	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Guns (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	9	11	15	14
Candy/Snacks (Bought in Last 6 Mos.)	99	99	99.3	99
Sunglasses	33	37	49	45
Cameras	40	54	48	48
Stereo (Audio) Equipment	45	52	47	48
Mobile Phones (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	84	87	75	79
Computers (Have at home/work)	77	83	75	77
Men's Clothes	48	57	50	51
Women's Clothes	45	46	46	46
Shoes (Bought in Last 12 Mos.)	59	61	49	53

TABLE 20 COMPARISON OF 18-24 YR OLDS, 25-34 YR OLDS AND 35 YR OLDS' PRODUCT CONSUMPTION HABITS WITH ALL RESPONDENTS (by percentages)

Products	18-24 yrs	25-34 yrs	35 yrs and older	All Respondents
Fruit and Vegetables	91.5	93.6	96.2	95
Whole Grains	89.9	90	93.9	92.7
Dairy Products	99	99.3	99.4	99.4

Note: The numbers represent the percentages of respondents who reported consuming the product category. Traditional and non-traditional ethically charged products are bolded.

Source: MRI (2007)

percent), camera (52 percent), audio equipment (50 percent), sunglasses (49 percent), women's clothes (47 percent), cigarettes (24 percent), and motorcycles (7 percent).

African Americans consumption rates of the same seventeen products, in rank order, were candy/snacks (99.6 percent), soft drinks (96.4 percent), fast food (89 percent), mobile phones (75 percent), automobiles (67 percent), computers (66 percent), alcohol (49 percent), shoes (46 percent), women's clothes (43 percent), men's clothes (39 percent), audio equipment (36 percent), sports equipment (32 percent), sunglasses (32 percent), camera (29 percent) cigarettes (24 percent), guns (4 percent) and motorcycles (3 percent).

When differences in the ranking of the 17 products were examined, it was found that candy/snacks, soft drinks and fast food ranked first, second and third, respectively, for the two racial groups. The other 14 product categories rankings varied, with guns and motorcycles receiving the lowest ranking for both groups. Guns and motorcycles were ranked seventeenth and eighteenth, respectively, for the two racial groups.

Both racial groups consumed candy/snacks, soft drinks, fast food and cigarettes at about the same rates. However, African Americans consumed fewer automobiles, mobile phones, computers, alcohol, sports equipment, shoes, men's clothes, camera, audio equipment, sunglasses, and women's clothes than Anglo Americans. See Table 15 for comparisons of the Anglo American and African American respondents' product consumption habits with all respondents.

Not surprisingly, both racial groups consumed candy/snacks, soft drinks and fast food at the highest rates. Anglo Americans rated the three products as the most acceptable for placement. African Americans also rated candy/snacks and soft drinks as the most acceptable. However, they rated fast foods as only moderately acceptable. The mean scores for acceptability for placement for Anglo Americans and African Americans were candy/snacks (Mean = 4.65, Mean = 4.35), soft drinks (Mean = 4.77, Mean = 4.36) and fast food (Mean = 4.73, Mean = 3.34), respectively.

Consumption rates for Anglo Americans were, in rank order, dairy products (99.5 percent), fruit/vegetables (95.7 percent) and whole grain products (92.6 percent), while African Americans were dairy products (99 percent), fruit/vegetables (94.3 percent), and whole grains products (93.1 percent). Anglo Americans consumed dairy products and fruit/vegetables at a slightly higher rate and whole grain products at a slightly lower rate than African Americans. See Table 16 for comparisons of Anglo American and African American respondents' healthy foods product consumption habits with all respondents.

Males and females consumed candy/snacks, soft drinks and fast foods at the same rate. However, males consumed tended to consume alcohol, cigarettes and guns at a higher rate than females. See Table 17 for comparisons of the male and female respondents' product consumption habits with all respondents.

For males the consumption rates were, in rank order, dairy products (99.3 percent), fruits/vegetables (93.8 percent) and whole grain products (91.7 percent), while females were dairy products (99.4 percent), fruit/vegetables (96.3 percent), and whole grain products (93.6 percent). Males consumed all three products categories at a slightly

lower rate than females. See Table 18 for comparisons of the male and female respondents' healthy foods product consumption habits with all respondents.

18-24 year olds and 25-34 year olds consumed candy/snacks, soft drinks and fast foods at the same rate, while 35 years and older consumed slightly less than the two younger age groups. Of the third age groups, 18-24 year olds consumed the most cigarettes, 25-34 year olds consumed the most alcohol and 35 years and older consumed the most guns. See Table 19 for comparisons of the Anglo American and African American respondents' product consumption habits with all respondents.

In rank order, consumption rates for 18-24 year olds were dairy products (99 percent), fruit/vegetables (91.5 percent) and whole grain products (89.9 percent); for 24-34 year olds were dairy products (99.3 percent), fruit/vegetables (93.6 percent), and whole grains products (90 percent); and for 35 years and older were dairy products (99.4 percent), fruit/vegetables (96.2 percent), and whole grains products (93.9 percent). Thirty-five years and older consumed all three product categories at a slightly higher rate than 24-34 year olds followed by 18-24 year olds. See Table 20 for comparisons of 18-24 year old, 25-34 year olds and 35 year olds' respondents' healthy foods product consumption habits with all respondents.

Surprisingly, Anglo Americans and African Americans consumed "healthy foods" at a high rate, but found the products only moderately acceptable for placement. The mean scores for "healthy foods" was mean = 3.19 for Anglo Americans and mean = 3.09 for African Americans. Anglo Americans found "healthy foods" slightly more acceptable for placement than African Americans.

This chapter provided an overview of the data analysis, the results of the analysis and a discussion of the results. The results of the ANOVA and their relationship to the hypotheses were discussed at length and then results of the cross tabulations and their relationships to findings of the ANOVA were discussed.

The next chapter will provide a summary of the findings, limitations and future research, managerial implications and conclusions.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH, MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS,

This chapter provides a summary of the findings, limitations and future research, managerial implications and conclusions.

Summary of the Findings

As stated earlier, the goal of this study is to explore African American consumers' perceptions and acceptance of products used for placement in movies and compares these perceptions to those of Anglo Americans. Many studies have been done on this topic; however, Anglo Americans were the focus of earlier studies. This was the first study to focus on African American and Anglo American consumers.

This study focused on product differences, race differences, gender differences and frequency of movie watching differences. Six ethically charged products, cigarettes, alcohol, and guns, soft drinks, fast foods and candy/snacks, were used in this study. Traditionally, cigarettes, alcohol and guns are considered ethically charged products. More recently, soft drinks, fast foods and candy/snacks have become the objects of controversy because of the increase in obesity in the United States, especially among teens and children. Therefore, these food products are classified as being ethically charged. The 10 other products, sports equipment, automobiles, motorcycle, healthy foods, sunglasses, cameras, stereo equipment, mobile phones, computers and clothes/shoes, used in this study are products that are generally considered as acceptable for product placement.

The present study built on and extended the Gupta and Gould (1997) study. Some of the methodological limitations of the benchmark study were addressed in the present study. The sample in the Gupta and Gould (1997) study was limited ethnically. The majority of the respondents in the study were Anglo Americans. This limitation was addressed by adding race as a variable and including African Americans in our sample. The sample in the benchmark study was limited geographically. This limitation was addressed by conducting the present study at a southwestern university. The ideal solution would have been to use respondents of all races from different regions of the country. Because of budgetary and time constraints, the number of products rated in the benchmark study was limited. This limitation was not addressed because of the same constraints. Some of the products rated in the benchmark study had become outdated. We updated the product list by adding products regularly consumed by college students and frequently used for product placement. Three products were classified as “junk food” products (candy/snacks, fast food and soft drinks) and were considered as being ethically charged. However, the survey results did not support the researchers’ classification of these six products as being considered ethically charged by the respondents.

Gupta and Gould (1997) also noted instrument and priming limitations such as how and which questions were asked. This research addressed the order effect by dispersing the ethically charged products throughout the non-ethically charged products in the listing. The benchmark study used a three-point scale of the product acceptability questions, but noted that a scale with more points might “produce stronger and better

analytical research.” This research addressed this limitation by using a five-point scale for product acceptability.

The results of the current study were mixed. H2, H2a, H3, and H4 were supported. H2 predicted that there will be a product x race interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies and H2a predicted that African Americans will perceive ethically charged products as less acceptable for placement in movies than Anglo Americans. H3 predicted that there will be a product x gender interaction with respect to the acceptability of products used for placement in movies and H4 predicted that consumers who watch movies more frequently would be more accepting of product placement across products in movies than consumers who watch movies less frequently.

Surprisingly, H1 and H3a were not supported. H1 predicted that ethically charged products will be perceived as less acceptable for placement in movies than non-ethically charged products and H3a predicted that African American males will perceive ethically charged products as more acceptable than African American females for placement in movies, while not differing with regards to non-ethically charged products.

H1, H3, and H4 were taken directly from the Gupta and Gould (1997) study. H3 and H4 were supported, which confirmed the findings of the benchmark study. However, H1 was not supported, which contradicted the findings of the benchmark study. Nevertheless, some important product, race and gender differences were found.

Most surprisingly, it was found that the six products that we classified as ethically charged were all considered acceptable for product placement by both genders and races.

The means of the traditional ethically charged products (i.e., cigarettes, alcohol, and guns) and the non-traditional ethically charged products (i.e., soft drinks, fast food and candy/snacks) were all close in means to the non-ethically charged products. Of the 16 products, clothes/shoes (Mean = 2.97) were rated as the least acceptable for product placement followed by motorcycles (Mean = 3.13) and sports equipment (Mean = 3.62), while automobile (Mean = 4.65) was rated as the most acceptable for product placement followed by soft drinks (Mean = 4.56) and computers (Mean = 4.56).

As predicted, this study's results suggest that there are some race differences in the ethical acceptability of individual products used for product placement in movies. African Americans found ethically charged products less acceptable for placement in movies than Anglo Americans. In fact, African Americans tended to rate all 16 products lower than Anglo Americans.

The study also found some gender differences in the ethical acceptability of individual products used for product placement in movies as predicted. Anglo American males were more likely to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies than Anglo American females, while not differing in regard to non-ethically charged products. These results supported the findings of the Gupta and Gould (1997) study. This was not surprising since the majority of the respondents in the 1997 study were Anglo American. In contrast, it was found that African American males were less likely to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies than African American females, while not differing in regards to non-ethically charged products. In fact, African American males found all 16 products less acceptable for placement in movies than did African American

females. These results contradicted the findings of the Gupta and Gould (1997) study that found that males were more accepting of ethically charged products for placement in movies than females.

Some speculations for the African American male college students' lower acceptance ratings of ethically charged products are given. The lower acceptance ratings of ethically charged products might have resulted from the African American male college students' greater sensitivity to the marketing and consumption of such products because of the negative stereotyping of African American males in the media. African American males are more often portrayed as alcoholics, criminals and drug addicts in television programs and movies than Anglo Americans. The African American male college students might not want to perpetuate these negative stereotypes.

Finally, a correlation between the frequency of movie watching and the acceptance of products used for placement was found as predicted. The results confirmed the findings of the Gupta and Gould (1997) study that found that consumers who watched movies more frequently were more accepting of product placement across products than consumers who watch movies less frequently.

Interestingly, MRI media consumption data indicated that, compared to Anglo Americans, African Americans attended the movie theatre more frequently, watched more television and cable/pay TV, and reported showing more interest in product placement in movies than Anglo Americans. According to the results of the Gupta and Gould (1997), high movie watchers were more accepting of ethically charged products for placement in movies than low movie watchers. If these results were confirmed,

African American respondents would have shown a greater acceptance of ethically charged products for placement in movies than Anglo Americans. However, the results of the present study did not support the earlier findings. Compared to Anglo Americans, African Americans were less accepting of ethically charged products for placement in movies, regardless of movie-watching frequency. In fact, not only were African Americans less likely to accept ethically charged products for placement in movies than Anglo Americans, their product acceptance ratings in general were lower than that of Anglo Americans.

A number of explanations for the African Americans' lower acceptance ratings of ethically charged products (i.e., alcohol, cigarettes, guns) could exist. One reason might be that African American college students are less likely to consume ethically charged products than Anglo American college students. A study on alcohol and drug use among college students found that African American college students consumed less alcohol and fewer drugs than Anglo American college students (O' Malley and Johnston, 2002). Another reason might be that African American college students are more religious by conscious than Anglo American college students. A study on religious beliefs and the use of alcohol and drugs found that religious youths were less likely to consume alcohol and drugs and that African American youths were more likely to report that their religious beliefs influence how they make decisions compared to Anglo American youths (Wallace, et al., 2003; SAMHSA 2002). Another reason might be that African American college students are more knowledgeable about or sensitive to the negative consequences of consuming ethically charged products. Studies show that African Americans have a

lower addiction-quit rate than Anglo Americans (Williams, 2001). Future research should note and investigate the importance of these variables.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

There were a number of methodological limitations. The sample was limited to college students; therefore, most of the sample was between 18 and 25 years of age. However, the earlier research, recent media consumption data and the findings of this study indicated that 18-25 year olds are heavy consumers of movies (MRI, 2007; Dortch, 1996; Johnson, 1981). Older or less educated populations might yield different results. The sample was limited ethnically and geographically. Only African Americans and Anglo Americans studying at a southwestern university were used in the present study. Different ethnic groups and geographical areas might yield different results. The number and types of products also were limited. However, many of the products used in the present study are frequently consumed by college students and used for product placement in movies. Different types of products might yield different results. Although based on the literature and supported by the results of the benchmark study (Gupta and Gould, 1997), the determination of which products were designated as being ethically charged was based on the judgment of the investigator and supported by literature, but not by the results.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The implications are that advertisers and marketers should be aware of all types of potential differences (i.e., product, race, gender, frequency of movie-watching, attitudinal differences) when designing multicultural advertising and marketing strategies. When correctly done, advertisers and marketers can use the product placement strategy to reinforce and build brand images across ethics and cultural boundaries by building associations between movies and their celebrity endorsers.

This study reveals ethnic and cultural differences between African American and Anglo American consumers, whereby African Americans generally had a lower level of acceptance of ethically charged products for placement in movies than Anglo Americans. As for product differences between the two racial groups, respondents tended to rate ethically charged and non-ethically charged products the same. The results of the present study did not support the findings of the Gupta and Gould (1997) study and suggest that attitudes toward ethically charged products have changed over time. This change might be to because of the constant use of ethically charged products for product placement in movies, which might have desensitized the younger consumers. However, African Americans generally had a lower level of acceptance of ethically charged products for product placement than Anglo Americans, with African American males having the lowest level of acceptance regardless of product. Therefore, advertisers and marketers should use caution when using the product placement strategy to target the African American market and when selecting the types of products to be used for product placement.

CONCLUSION

The results indicated that there are differences exist in the perceptions and acceptance of product placement in movies across ethnic and cultural groups in the United States, specifically African Americans and Anglo Americans. Not only were African Americans less likely than Anglo Americans to accept ethically charged products for product placement in movies; their product acceptance ratings, in general, were lower than those of Anglo Americans. In fact, African American males rated all of the products lower than African American females and Anglo American males and females.

APPENDICES

PRODUCT PLACEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

You are being asked to participate in a research study. This page provides you with information about the study. The person in charge of this research (principle investigator) will answer all of your questions. Please read the information below and contact the principle investigator, Glynnis Johnson, via email glynnisjohnson@mail.utexas.edu, if you have any questions you might have before deciding whether or not to take part.

Your participation is entirely voluntary. You can refuse to participate without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You can stop your participation at any time and your refusal will not impact current or future relationships with UT Austin or participating sites. To do so, simply tell the researcher you wish to stop participation.

The purpose of this study is to explore viewers' perception of products placed in movies. Approximately 500 people will participate in this study. If you agree to participate in this study, we will ask you to complete a survey online. Your participation in study will take about 15-20 minutes.

The risks associated with the study are no greater than everyday life and there are no benefits or compensation for participation in study.

Confidentiality and Privacy Protections: The data resulting from your participation may be made available to other researchers in the future for research purposes not detailed within this consent form. In these cases, the data will contain no identifying information that could associate you with it, or with your participation in any study.

The **records** of this study will be stored securely and kept confidential. Authorized persons from The University of Texas at Austin, members of the Institutional Review Board, and (study sponsors, if any) have the legal right to review your research records and will protect the **confidentiality** of those records to the extent permitted by law. All publications will exclude any information that will make it possible to identify you as a subject. Throughout the study, the researchers will notify you of new information that may become available and that might affect your decision to remain in the study.

Contacts and Questions: If you have any questions about the study, want additional information, or wish to withdraw your participation, call the researchers conducting the study. Their names, phone numbers, and e-mail addresses are at the top of this page. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, complaints, concerns, or questions about the research please contact Lisa Leiden, Ph.D., Chair of The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, (512) 471-8871 or email: orisc@uts.cc.utexas.edu.

Statement of Consent

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. I indicate my agreement to participate in the study by clicking on the "proceed" button below and filling out the survey.

Proceed

PRODUCT PLACEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

We are interested in moviegoers' opinions about placing products in films. Please read the questions carefully before answering them.

Q1

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by clicking the answer that best represents your opinions.

	Strongly agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Strongly disagree
I will not go to movies if I know beforehand that brands are placed prominently in the movie for commercial purposes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I hate seeing brand name products in movies if they are placed for commercial purposes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't mind if movie producers receive money or other compensation from manufacturers for placing their brands in the movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is highly unethical to influence the captive audience by using brand name products in movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Moviegoers should have the option of receiving a full refund for their tickets if they hated seeing brand name products as props in the movie they watched.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Manufacturers are misleading the audiences by disguising brands as props in movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The government should regulate the use of brand name products in movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Strongly agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Strongly disagree
If movies are making money from product placements, ticket prices should be reduced.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Brands placed in a movie for which the producers receive payment from brand name manufacturers should be disclosed in the movie credits at the beginning of the movie.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I prefer to see real brands in movies rather than fake /fictitious brands.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Movies should use fictitious brands rather than existing brands.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The presence of brand name products in a movie makes it more realistic.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't mind if brand name products appear in a movie.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The placement of brands in movies should be completely banned.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use of brand name tobacco, beer and liquor products should be banned from PG and PG-13 rated movies because kids watch such movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Strongly agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Strongly disagree
Brand name tobacco, beer and liquor products should only be used in R-rated movies, as kids don't watch such movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cigarette product placement in movies should be banned completely since cigarette ads are banned from TV.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Movies should not give too much importance to a particular brand (e.g. showing the same brand very frequently in a movie).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Movies should contain only those brand name products that are essential to the program's realism.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't mind seeing brand name products in movies as long as they are not unrealistically shown.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would consider product placement as "commercials in disguise".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Movies viewers are subconsciously influenced by the brands they see in movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I buy brands I see movie stars using or holding in movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Continue

Q2 Please indicate the extent to which each of the following products is acceptable for placement in a movie in your opinion.

	Not acceptable at all	Slightly unacceptable	Neither unacceptable nor acceptable	Slightly acceptable	Acceptable
Cigarettes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Soft Drinks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sports Equipment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Alcohol	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fast Foods	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Automobiles	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Motorcycles	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Healthy Foods	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Guns	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Not acceptable at all	Slightly unacceptable	Neither unacceptable nor acceptable	Slightly acceptable	Acceptable
Candy/Snacks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sunglasses	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cameras	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stereo Equipment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mobile Phones	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Computers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Clothes/Shoes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Now, we are interested in any additional comments you might have regarding placing products in movies. Please type in your opinions.

Continue



Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by clicking the answer that best represents your opinions.

	Strongly agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Strongly disagree
I hate watching ads on television.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
While watching a TV program, I frequently flip channels to escape watching ads.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When an ad appears on my TV, I stop looking at the screen until the program starts again.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I watch movies (at the theater or rented) to escape from the barrage of TV ads.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I frequently watch rented movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I frequently watch movies in theaters.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I hate watching movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

How many movies do you watch at the theater in an average month?

How many movies do you watch at home (on cable (e.g. HBO), video, DVD, etc.) in an average month?

What type of movies do you like? Please click all that apply.

- Action
- Comedy
- Family
- Sci-Fi
- Suspense
- Animation
- Drama
- Romance
- Sports
- Other

[Continue](#)

Q4 In this section, we would like to ask you about yourself. Please click the answers that best describe you.

What is your gender?

- Female
- Male

In what year were you born?

What is your race?

- Anglo-American
- African American
- Latino-American
- Asian American
- Biracial
- Multiracial
- Other

What is your current class status?

- Freshman
- Sophomore
- Junior
- Senior
- Graduate Student/Masters
- Graduate Student/Doctoral
- Other

What is your current marital status?

- Single/Never Married
- Married
- Divorced/Separated
- Widowed
- Other

This is the end of the survey. Thank you for your participation!

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Vita

Glynnis Michelle Johnson is a Cum Laude graduate of Bogalusa High School. In spring 1981, she was awarded a University Scholarship for undergraduate study at Dillard University in New Orleans, LA. She graduated Cum Laude from Dillard University with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Business Administration in May 1985. In spring of 1985, she was awarded a fellowship for graduate study in the Advertising Graduate Program at The University of Texas at Austin and received a Master of Arts in Advertising in August 1987. From 1988 through 1989, she attended the School of Visual Arts in Manhattan, NY. She worked as an Art Director at BBDO/New York from 1990 until 1999. In fall of 1999, she enrolled in the Intensive Film Program at New York University and received a Certificate in Film in January 2000. From 2000 until 2004, she worked as a Freelance Copywriter for various ethnic market advertising agencies. During that time, she also worked as a Visiting Assistant Professor at Pratt Institute and a Lecturer at Medgar Evers College, a City University of New York school. In spring of 2004, she was awarded a fellowship for doctoral study in the Advertising Doctoral Program at The University of Texas at Austin.

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