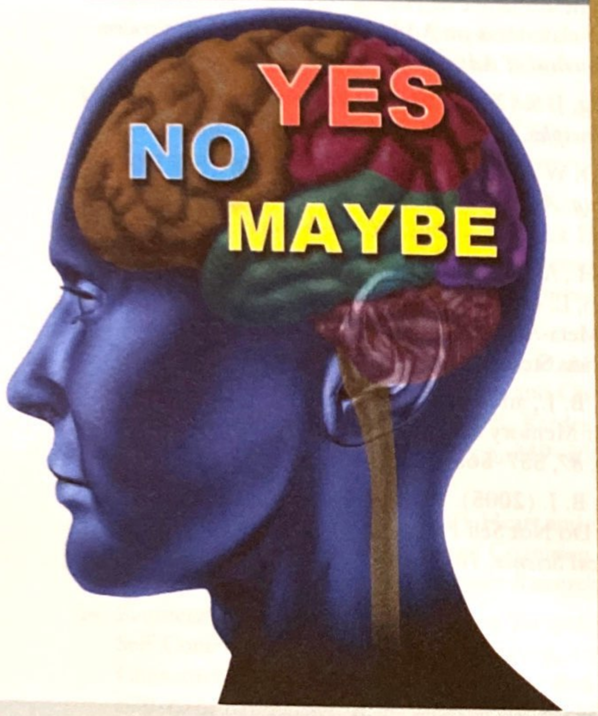
CHAPTER 8

ATTITUDE AND JUDGMENT FORMATION AND CHANGE



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OBJECTIVES *After studying this chapter, you will be able to...*

1 Define search, experience, and credence attributes.

2 Define descriptive, informational, and inferential beliefs.

3 Calculate numerical values for attitudes using expectancy-value models.

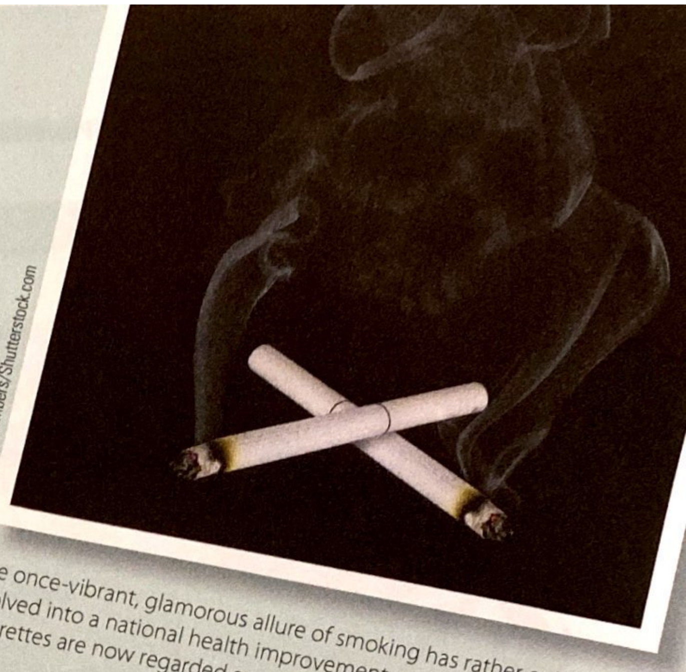
4 Use dual-process models of persuasion to design more effective marketing communications.

5 Use multiple strategies to develop more effective marketing communications.

The Truth

One of the most important jobs of marketers is to develop effective techniques for changing the beliefs and attitudes of consumers. Everyone knows that persuasion is an important topic, and this chapter focuses on the science of persuasion. Effective ads can dramatically increase market shares and revenues for companies. Effective ads influence election outcomes and attitudes toward one's country and its leaders. They can also encourage people to adopt healthier lifestyles. In 2012, the Centers for Disease Control (CDC) and the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) received \$100 million in federal funding to develop more effective anti-smoking public service announcements.[1] This is money well spent because these public service announcements work: the teen smoking rate dropped 40% between 1997 and 2003, and the teen smoking rate continued to drop by 21% between 2005 and 2009. The overall smoking rate also dropped by 20% between 2005 and 2009.

One of the most important national anti-smoking campaigns is The Truth campaign. The Truth ran several different versions of a public service announcement attempting to show, in a concrete fashion, how many people have died from smoking. The Truth print ads and online ads also reveal tobacco company memos ordering factories to add more chemicals that increase the addictive properties of cigarettes, and referring to the target 18- to 25-year-old market segment as the "Scum" segment. This segment consists of sensation seekers with nose rings, tattoos, shabby clothes, and anti-establishment attitudes, and it was reasoned that this segment would be the easiest segment to persuade to achieve cigarette market growth. The Truth campaign was introduced in 2000, and its cost between 2000 and 2002 was $324 million. This cost was trivial considering that the campaign reduced medical costs for tobacco-related illnesses by $1.9 billion. The campaign was developed by the Arnold Agency in Boston, which won several awards for it.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The once-vibrant, glamorous allure of smoking has rather quickly evolved into a national health improvement campaign whereby cigarettes are now regarded as public enemies.

The national smoking rate is currently around 20%, and over the next five years, the CDC and FDA will be spending $390 million to reduce this rate further. The CDC and FDA will also be sponsoring ads from other agencies, including new television commercials showing sick and dying smokers providing advice on how to deal with tracheotomies.

OBJECTIVE 1

Nonevaluative Judgment

Beliefs are nonevaluative **judgments**, or ratings about product attributes and benefits. Marketers define attributes as specific features or characteristics of a brand (e.g., size, price, style), and benefits as the outcomes or consequences that follow from each attribute (e.g., safety, exclusivity, trendiness). Beliefs capture consumers' assessments about a specific relationship between a brand and an attribute or benefit. "Starbucks coffee is strong" describes a belief about the relationship between a brand and an attribute, without making judgments about whether strong coffee is good or bad. Similarly, "McDonald's hamburgers do not contain soy" describes a belief about how much of an attribute is present in a brand,

Following the 1982 poisonings, Johnson & Johnson introduced tamper-proof packaging to reduce perceptions of the likelihood of tampering.

also without placing a positive or negative value on soy in hamburgers. Some people like soy for health reasons; others find the taste objectionable.

More generally, beliefs entail assessments about probability or the likelihood of something occurring.[2] Because consumers often have imperfect information regarding products and brands, they sometimes think about the *likelihood* that a product contains a particular attribute or provides a specific benefit. For example, how likely is it that Bufferin has caffeine or that Tums relieves heartburn quickly? Likelihood judgments can also pertain to past events in the marketplace (e.g., how likely is it that competitors tampered with Tylenol capsules in the 1982 Tylenol crisis?), future events (e.g., what is the probability that a price reduction will occur?), or current events (e.g., how likely is it that aspirin therapy prevents heart attacks?). Likelihood judgments can also pertain to the probability of a cause-effect relationship (e.g., how likely is it that smoking cigarettes causes lung cancer?). In summary, beliefs represent judgments about the likelihood that a particular product claim, event, state of events, or relationship is true.

In addition to having beliefs about how likely it is that a product possesses a given attribute or benefit, consumers also maintain beliefs about the *importance* of a particular attribute or benefit. For example, snacks brands differ from each other in terms of saltiness, automobile brands differ in terms of fuel efficiency, and clothing brands differ in terms of softness and fashion. For some consumers, healthiness is more important than saltiness, style is more valued than fuel efficiency, and comfort is more important than fashion.

Many different product attributes are potentially important to consumers. Most of these attributes belong to one of three possible attribute categories. **Search attributes** are attributes that can be judged or rated simply by examining a product without necessarily buying it.[3] Brand name, price, and appearance-related attributes (e.g., design and color) are good examples of search attributes. **Experience attributes** are attributes that can be judged or rated only by using a product. Sensory attributes that pertain to the taste, smell, and feel of products are good examples of experience attributes. **Credence attributes**, a special type of experience attributes, are attributes that can be judged or rated only after *extended* use. Reliability, durability, and safety are good examples of credence attributes.

OBJECTIVE 2 Types of Beliefs

Consumers establish beliefs on the basis of several different types of information. **Descriptive beliefs** are based on direct experience with a product or what we see with our own eyes or hear with our own ears.[4] Search attributes and experience attributes are used to form descriptive beliefs. Simply by

Consumers shopping for clothes evaluate search attributes such as design, color, and fabric.

examining the physical dimensions of a laptop, consumers can form descriptive beliefs about the laptop's size and weight. In the same vein, consumers who have experience with a plasma television develop descriptive beliefs about the TV's refresh rate or side-angle viewing.

In contrast, **informational beliefs** are based on indirect experience or on what other people tell us. Friends, relatives, acquaintances, spokespersons, and salespeople have beliefs about products, and they usually are eager to share their viewpoints. In addition, consumers often rely on word-of-mouth to form beliefs about the attributes and benefits of new or unfamiliar products and brands. For example, if a trusted friend describes a brand as durable, a consumer may adapt this belief. **Inferential beliefs** are beliefs that go beyond the information given.[5] Consumers often draw their own conclusions, or infer beliefs about attributes and benefits based on both direct and indirect experiences. For example, if a particular automobile is judged to be sturdy or durable, consumers might infer or assume that it is also safe, even though they were never told this specifically. If a product is expensive, consumers often infer that it is high in quality. Conversely, if a product is inexpensive, consumers often infer that it is low in quality. To the extent that two attributes, such as price and quality, are perceived or expected to be related (or correlated), information about one attribute permits consumers to draw inferences about the other.[6]

Correlation is not the only basis for inferential beliefs. Inferences can also be formed on the basis of overall evaluations about a product.[7] For example, if a consumer's overall evaluation of an Olympus digital camera is very favorable, the consumer may infer that the camera has a high quality zoom lens even if he or she never received any information about this camera's zoom lens specifically. Similarly, if a consumer's overall evaluation of the camera is unfavorable, the consumer may infer that this camera has a low quality zoom lens. The former is referred to as a "halo effect" (if a brand is judged favorably on one key attribute, it must be good on other attributes), while the latter is called the "negative halo effect" (if a brand is judged unfavorably on an important attribute, its other attributes must also be poor). Finally, inferences can be based on prior knowledge.[8] For example,

Global Perspectives

Superstitious Beliefs

Chinese consumers tend to be very superstitious.[9] Many Chinese consumers believe that the number 8 and the color red are lucky. Many also believe that the number 4 and the color black are unlucky. As a result, many products in China have prices with the number 8 featured, and few products in China have prices with the number 4 featured. In the United States, a Continental Airlines ad targeted for Chinese American consumers stated, "$888 to Beijing. Lucky You." In China, a person paid 54,000 yuan for an APY888 license plate, and a Chinese airline paid 2.4 million yuan for an 88888888 telephone number. Also, some buildings in China have no fourth floor, just as some buildings in the United States have no thirteenth floor. Furthermore, the Beijing Summer Olympics opened on August 8, 2008, at 8 P.M.

In a recent experiment performed with Chinese consumers, superstitious beliefs were either primed or not primed, and participants were asked to rate tennis balls, a rice cooker, and a digital camera with lucky price numbers (8) or unlucky price numbers (4). The products were evaluated more favorably when superstitious beliefs were primed and when lucky price numbers were presented. Follow-up studies showed that consumers were more likely to choose safe options over risky options when negative superstitious beliefs were primed.

consumers typically know a good deal about familiar product categories, such as cars. The typical car has four wheels, an engine, an exhaust system, and so on. Consequently, consumers do not need to be told that a brand new car model has four new wheels, a reliable engine, or a quiet exhaust system. Consumers infer or assume that the car has these features by default, even if they receive no information about them.

Overall, inferential beliefs basically involve some type of *evaluative judgment*, whereas descriptive and informational beliefs simply describe likelihoods or relationships between objects. Think of inferential beliefs as a bridge between beliefs and attitudes. In the next section, we discuss attitudes in greater depth.

Evaluative Judgment

Attitudes are evaluative judgments, or ratings of how good or bad, favorable or unfavorable, or pleasant or unpleasant consumers find a particular person (e.g., salesperson, spokesperson), place (e.g., retail outlet, website, vacation site), thing (e.g., product, package, advertisement), or issue (e.g., political platform, economic theory).[10] Evaluative judgments have two main components: *direction* (positive, negative, or neutral) and *extremity* (weak, moderate, or strong). Attitudes often follow from beliefs. When consumers believe that a new product has many features that match their needs, they are likely to form positive attitudes about the new product. For example, suppose consumers believe that Verizon offers a relatively simple service, and these consumers value simplicity. It follows that they will form favorable attitudes toward Verizon.

Marketers need to understand that all consumer attitudes are not created equally. Typically, consumers develop some attitudes that are strongly held or held with conviction and other attitudes that are weakly held or held with low confidence.[11] Strong attitudes tend to be highly accessible from memory, maintained with high confidence, held with little uncertainty, and highly correlated with beliefs. The last property is referred to as high **evaluative-cognitive consistency**. On the other hand, weak attitudes are relatively inaccessible from memory (or difficult to retrieve from memory), kept with low confidence, held with high uncertainty, and exhibit low evaluative-cognitive consistency. Attitude strength is important because strong attitudes are difficult to change and have a great deal of impact on other judgments and on behavior. In other words, strong attitudes guide consumers' thoughts and actions, while weak attitudes do not. So, it's no surprise that marketers strive to elicit strong, favorable attitudes from their target markets toward their brands and limit or reduce strong, negative attitudes.

In addition, marketing practitioners cannot simply assume that all favorable attitudes are the same. For example, two different consumers may express positive evaluations of the Verizon brand, and yet only the first consumer purchases a long-term service contract. This situation may occur because, even though both consumers indicated a liking for Verizon, the first consumer's attitudes were strongly held, whereas the second consumer felt only mildly positive about the brand.

Zanna and Rempel's Model

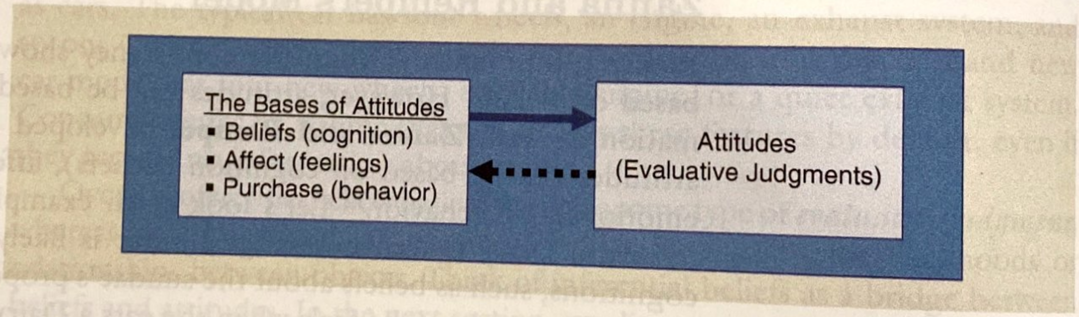
Research on evaluative-cognitive consistency shows that attitudes are often based on beliefs. However, attitudes can be based on other types of information as well. **Zanna and Rempel** developed a theory suggesting that attitudes can be based on cognition (beliefs), affect (feelings, moods, and emotions), or behavior.[12] Let's look at an example. A consumer's attitude toward a Dairy Queen hot fudge sundae is likely to be influenced by her cognitions, such as beliefs about the sundae's properties (e.g., features, taste, size), affect, or how she feels when she eats a Dairy Queen hot fudge sundae (e.g., good mood, refreshed, rewarded). In addition, her attitudes may be influenced by the very act of buying hot fudge sundaes. If a consumer buys a Dairy Queen hot fudge sundae as a reward for completing a difficult task, this *behavior* may encourage strong, favorable attitudes toward the brand. This is not unusual. After buying a product or service (behavior), consumers' attitudes toward brands are often more favorable than their attitudes prior to making the purchase.

In addition to being formed on the basis of cognition, affect, or behavior, attitudes can also *influence* or change cognition, affect, and behavior. In other words, there is a reciprocal relationship between attitudes and the bases of attitudes. Favorable attitudes lead consumers to focus on favorable beliefs (e.g., sundaes are made from milk and milk is healthy), rather than unfavorable beliefs (e.g., sundaes have a high fat content and are therefore unhealthy). Favorable attitudes also lead consumers to focus on positive feelings rather than on negative feelings. Finally, favorable attitudes toward sundaes increase the likelihood that consumers will buy and consume sundaes.

Attitudes can be based on one's own beliefs, especially if consumers consider themselves to be knowledgeable about a product category.[13] However, attitudes can also be based on the beliefs of other people, especially when consumers consider themselves to be less knowledgeable about a product category than other people. Television advertising often uses experts as spokespersons because experts are more knowledgeable about a topic than the typical person. The beliefs of experts can have a powerful influence on the attitudes of consumers, provided that consumers trust that experts are providing truthful and accurate information. On the other hand, consumers attempt to avoid expert influence when they suspect that an expert is lying in order to take advantage of them.

Mood can also influence attitudes, even if mood has nothing to do with the products or services that consumers evaluate.[14] For example, a sunny day might put people in a good mood, and this can lead people to evaluate products and services more favorably. However, when consumers suspect that their moods might be biasing their judgments, they attempt to avoid letting their moods influence them. So overall, attitudes can be influenced by many different variables—including cognition, affect, behavior, the opinions of others, and unrelated moods. Now that we've discussed attitudes, let's examine the importance of consumer involvement.

FIGURE 8.1 | **The Reciprocal Relationship between Attitudes and Their Bases**



The Inclusion/Exclusion Model Attitudes are also heavily influenced by the context in which they are formed. Any attitude object—including a person, place, or thing—can seem good or bad, hot or cold, big or small, expensive or inexpensive, and so on—depending on what it is compared to. The same average car seems good when compared to a Yugo and seems bad when compared to a Mercedes Benz. The same average temperature seems hot when the previous day was cold and seems cold when the previous day was hot. The same house seems big when the neighboring house is small and seems small when the neighboring house is big. The mass media also influence the context in which objects are judged. In the famous "Charlie's Angels" study, male undergraduates rated the physical attractiveness of a female undergraduate in a photo.[15] The woman was rated as less attractive after the guys watched an episode of Charlie's Angels than after the guys watched a nature documentary. All of these effects are examples of **context effects**, because the background or context in which an object is judged influences judgments. Two types of context effects are possible: an **assimilation effect**—a shift in judgment of the target toward the reference point (or standard or point of comparison)—or a **contrast effect**—a shift in judgment of the target away from the reference point.

The Inclusion/Exclusion Model is the most complete theory of assimilation effects and contrast effects.[16] This model suggests that judgment requires two mental representations: one of a target and one of a reference point. The information that is most accessible from memory is used as a basis for judgment. Information used to form a representation of the target results in assimilation effects: as the amount of favorable information used increases, more favorable judgments of the target are formed, and vice versa. Assimilation effects differ in magnitude depending on the amount of favorable information included in the representation of the target and on the extremity of the favorable information included in the representation of the target (e.g., highly favorable information is more extreme than slightly favorable information).

Information that is excluded from the representation of the target results in contrast effects. Two types of contrast effects are possible: a **subtraction-based contrast effect**, in which information is excluded from the representation of the target, or a **comparison-based contrast effect**, in which information is included in the representation of the reference point or standard of comparison. In the former case, as the amount and extremity of the favorable information excluded from the representation of the target increases, less favorable judgments of the target are formed. In the latter case, as the amount or extremity of the favorable information included in the representation of the standard increases, less favorable judgments of the target are formed. For example, the Republican Party is rated more positively when popular Republicans are included in the representation of the target (an assimilation effect) than when popular Republicans are excluded from the representation of the target (a subtraction-based contrast effect). To elaborate, less positive ratings of the Republican Party were formed when people were reminded that Colin Powell declined to run for President in 1996. When people are asked to rate the trustworthiness of politicians in general, politicians are rated as more trustworthy when no political scandals come to mind than when they are reminded of Nixon and the Watergate scandal.[17] These effects are assimilation effects. However, when people are asked to rate the trustworthiness of a specific politician, Newt Gingrich for example, Gingrich is rated as more trustworthy when Nixon comes to mind than when Nixon does not come to mind. In this case, Nixon influences the representation of the standard, which results in a comparison-based contrast effect.

Inclusion and exclusion effects also influence judgments of products manufactured in different countries.[18] The country of origin is more likely to be included in representations of a target product when the country of origin is presented first, before other product attribute information is presented. Hence, assimilation effects should be observed when the country of origin is presented first. However, the country of origin is more likely to be included in representations of the standard when country-of-origin information is presented last, after other product attribute information is presented. Hence, comparison-based contrast effects should be observed when country-of-origin information is presented last. To test these predictions, participants rated a watch manufactured in a country known for making high-quality watches (e.g., Switzerland) or not (e.g., Mexico), and rated a computer made in a country known for making high-quality computers (i.e., Japan) or not (e.g., Brazil). Even though the other product attribute information was held constant, country of origin had a strong impact on product evaluations: assimilation effects were found when country-of-origin information was presented first, and comparison-based contrast effects were found when country-of-origin information was presented last.

The inclusion/exclusion model is elegant because it integrates the effects of a large set of variables—including ambiguity, typicality, and similarity—and explains their influence on assimilation and contrast effects.[19] When ambiguity (i.e., general categories are more ambiguous than specific examples), typicality (i.e., moderate examples are more typical than extreme examples), or similarity (i.e., similarity increases as the amount of feature overlap between the target and the standard increases) are high, assimilation effects are likely. When ambiguity, typicality, or similarity are low, contrast effects are likely. Subtraction-based contrast effects occur when examples are excluded from the representation of the target, and comparison-based contrast effects occur when examples are included in the representation of the standard.

Overview of Involvement

Sometimes consumers think carefully about their beliefs and attitudes, and sometimes they reflect very little. One of the most important determinants of the amount or extent of thinking is the level of **involvement**, or the personal relevance and importance of an issue or situation.[20] When an issue or situation is relevant and important, higher levels of consumer involvement follow, and consumers think very carefully about the implications of the available information. When an issue or situation is not relevant or important, involvement is low, and consumers reflect very little. Involvement with a particular issue or topic is called *enduring involvement*. Here, consumers' levels of interest in the topic are fundamental—either high or low, and hence, their interest (or lack of interest) endures. For example, consumers who ski regularly become fundamentally involved with many aspects of skiing, including products, services, events, and weather conditions. As a result, their high levels of involvement with skiing endure through many winter seasons and over a variety of product life cycles. On the other hand, consumers who never ski demonstrate very low levels of involvement, which also endure, as even the newest, most interesting ski products and skiing events are likely to elicit only a passing glance.

A second type of involvement, based solely on special circumstances or specific conditions, is known as *situational involvement*. Here, any personal relevance that a consumer develops for a situation is ephemeral or short lived. When the situation goes away, the consumer's interest decreases correspondingly. For example, a consumer who travels infrequently is not likely to be concerned about luggage products in a serious or enduring manner. However, if an important travel opportunity suddenly arises, this same consumer may increase his situational involvement with luggage products. But, when this consumer returns from the trip, his interest in luggage will decrease to its prior, low level. His involvement with luggage is not enduring; it is strictly situational.

When a purchase decision is important or consequential, situational involvement is typically high and consumers are likely to think very carefully about the decision. For example, buying a car is consequential for most people, and they think carefully about what characteristics of a car are right for them. However, when a purchase decision is unimportant or inconsequential, situational involvement is low and consumers aren't likely to think carefully about the decision. For example, buying a candy bar is a fairly trivial exercise, and most consumers buy the brand they usually buy without thinking a lot about the purchase decision. Furthermore, when information is complex, inconsistent, or difficult to evaluate, a high degree of situational involvement is needed to appreciate the implications of the information for attitudes. However, when information is simple and easy to evaluate, a high level of situational involvement is not needed to determine its relevance or its implications.

Attitude Models Based on High or Low Consumer Involvement

Several key models of attitude formation deal primarily with high involvement conditions. These models propose that consumers think a good deal about their evaluations of products and services, integrating a relatively large amount of information in a manner consistent with mathematical models. Examples include **expectancy-value models**, the **theory of reasoned action**, and **information integration theory**. Expectancy-value models suggest that attitudes toward a product depend on consumers' subjective evaluation of the product's attributes multiplied by the expectancy that the product possesses each attribute. The theory of reasoned action is one specific type of expectancy-value model that explains how beliefs are combined to influence attitudes and how social norms or rules and attitudes influence behavior. The information integration theory is another type of expectancy-value model that explains how beliefs are combined to influence attitudes. The two theories differ in at least one important way: the theory of reasoned action suggests that beliefs are *added* together, but information integration theory suggests that beliefs are *averaged* together.

Dual-process models of attitude formation assume that consumers think a great deal when involvement is high but they don't think much when involvement is low.[21] The **elaboration likelihood model** and the **heuristic/systematic model** are the most famous examples of dual-process models. Both models suggest that there are two different routes to persuasion: a high involvement route in which consumers think a lot (i.e., the central route of the elaboration likelihood model and the systematic route of the heuristic/systematic model), and a low involvement route in which consumers think very little (i.e., the peripheral route of the elaboration likelihood model and the heuristic route of the heuristic/systematic model). The next section of this chapter looks at the use of expectancy-value models to compute actual values for attitudes.

OBJECTIVE 3

Expectancy-Value Models

Early expectancy-value models were used to determine the value of gambles. For example, would you rather play a gamble that offers a 30% chance to win \$100 or a gamble that offers a 25% chance to win \$125? The answer is simple if you compute the expected values of each gamble. The expected value is the probability of success multiplied by the monetary outcome. So, the value of the first gamble is $0.30 \times \$100 = \$30$. The expected value of the second gamble is $0.25 \times \$125 = \$31.25$. Now it's obvious that the second gamble is the better deal.

Expectancy-value models can also be used to compute attitudes toward products. For example, would you rather buy car A, which offers low maintenance, good gas mileage, and reliability, or car B, which offers quick acceleration, excellent handling, and a quadraphonic sound system? First, you need to rate each attribute on a scale ranging from very bad (1) to very good (7). Next, you need to rate the likelihood that car A actually has the attributes of low maintenance, good gas mileage, and reliability, and the likelihood that car B actually offers quick acceleration, excellent handling, and a superior sound system. Finally, you multiply the attribute ratings by the likelihood ratings and add these ratings up separately for each car. The final calculations represent a specific consumer's attitudes toward each car.

The Theory of Reasoned Action

This type of expectancy-value model suggests that beliefs are added together to form attitudes and, as the number of favorable beliefs increases, the amount of favorable attitude also increases.[22] Specifically, $A = \Sigma be$, where A is the attitude toward a product or an attitude toward buying the product, b is the belief that the product has a given attribute considered important to consumers, and e is the evaluation or the extent to which consumers like each specific attribute. Beliefs (b) and evaluations (e) are measured for each important attribute. To compute an attitude, consumers multiply their b (beliefs) by their e (evaluations) for each attribute, and add these ratings.

For example, suppose a market researcher wanted to compute a group of consumers' attitudes toward Clarks shoes. Consumers would rate the shoes on all important attributes, such as comfort, support, and style. Suppose the belief ratings for these attributes were 4, 3, and 5, respectively, on a scale from 1 (very low likelihood) to 7 (very high likelihood). Furthermore, suppose the evaluation ratings for these attributes were 5, 4, and 5, respectively, on a scale from 1 (very bad) to 7 (very good). $b \times e$ for each attribute is $4 \times 5 = 20$, $3 \times 4 = 12$, and $5 \times 5 = 25$, respectively. The overall attitude rating is $20 + 12 + 25 = 57$. If Clarks shoes return a higher overall rating than other brands of shoes, a consumer develops more favorable attitudes toward Clarks shoes than for other brands (see Figure 8.2). This model also suggests

FIGURE 8.2 | **Theory of Reasoned Action Attitude Formation for Clarks Shoes**

Attribute	Belief (b)		Evaluation (e)		Attitude (A)
Comfort	4	×	5	=	20
Support	3	×	4	=	12
Style	5	×	5	=	25
Overall Attitude					57

that marketers can change consumers' attitudes by changing beliefs (*b*) about the level of the attribute present in a brand, changing evaluations (*e*) about whether the attribute is important, or both. This particular model also informs marketing researchers about the specific attributes that perform well and perform poorly for their brands.

The theory of reasoned action is a simple ***additive*** model—as the number of favorable beliefs increases, overall attitudes increase. This theory also suggests that attitudes influence intentions, which subsequently influence behavior. This should be straightforward: as attitude favorableness toward a product increases, intentions to buy the product increase, and as a result, consumers are more likely to actually purchase the product.

However, variables other than attitudes also influence intentions. Specifically, subjective norms or social rules for behavior also influence consumer intentions. Specifically, $SN = \Sigma(NB \times MC)$, where *SN* refers to subjective norms, *NB* refers to normative beliefs or beliefs about what other people think of you if you use a product, and *MC* refers to the motivation to comply or how concerned you are about what other groups of people think of you if you use a product. For example, to measure normative beliefs about what other people think of you if you wear Clarks shoes, you could rate how much you think your (1) friends, (2) parents, and (3) co-workers would like your Clarks shoes on a scale from 1 (strongly dislike) to 7 (strongly favorable). You could also rate your own motivation to comply with the wishes of your friends, parents, and co-workers on a scale from 1 (very low motivation) to 7 (very high motivation).

Image Courtesy of The Advertising Archives

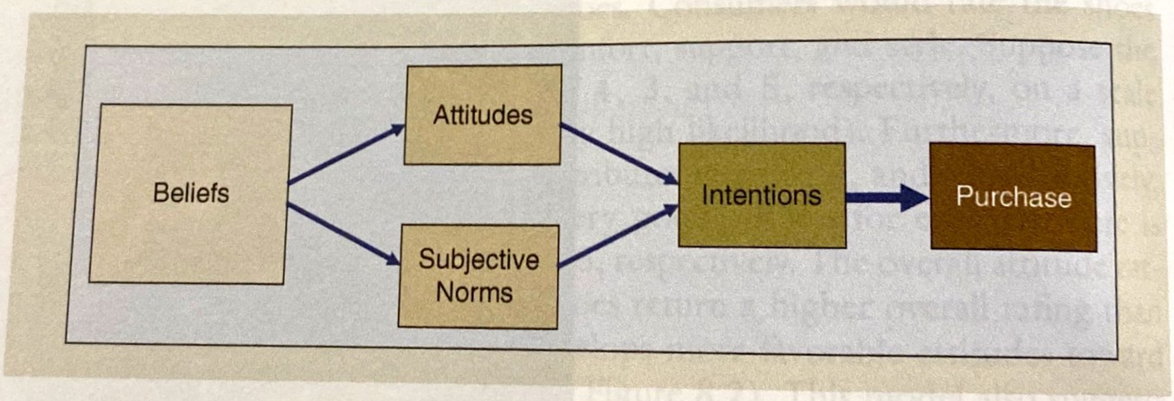
Subjective norms influence consumers' intentions to purchase products and brands.

Suppose your ratings were 5, 7, and 6, respectively, for normative beliefs, and 7, 1, and 6, respectively, for the motivation to comply. Note that the motivation to comply is low (rating of 1) for your parents because you don't really care what they think of your shoes. However, your motivation to comply is high (a 7 rating) for your friends because you really care about what they think of your shoes. $NB \times SN = (5 \times 7) + (7 \times 1) + (6 \times 6) = 78$. The higher this number is, the more likely are normative beliefs to influence intentions. Attitudes plus normative beliefs influence intentions, and as intentions increase, consumers are more likely to buy a product (see Figure 8.3). Taken together, consumers use attitude formation and subjective norms to form their intentions to purchase, and purchase intentions often predict actual purchase. A flowchart for the theory of reasoned action is provided in Figure 8.4.

FIGURE 8.3 | Theory of Reasoned Action Subjective Norms for Clarks Shoes

Source of Compliance	Normative Beliefs (*NB*)		Motivation to Comply (*MC*)		Subjective Norm (*SN*)
Friends	5	×	7	=	35
Parents	7	×	1	=	7
Co-workers	6	×	6	=	36
Overall Subjective Norms					78

FIGURE 8.4 | The Theory of Reasoned Action



Information Integration Theory

The theory of reasoned action suggests that beliefs are *added* together to form attitudes. However, information integration theory suggests that beliefs are *averaged* together to form attitudes.[23] This distinction is important because an addition-based model implies that more is better: as the number of favorable attributes increases, attitude favorableness increases. However, an averaging model implies that *less is more*. Here, advertisers should encourage consumers to focus only on the very best attributes of their products and services, because attributes with lower than average ratings pull the overall rating down. The theory of reasoned action and information integration theory differ in another important respect. The theory of reasoned action computes attitudes as a function of beliefs and evaluations. However, information integration theory estimates, or weights, how important an attribute is on the basis of overall attitude ratings and individual attribute ratings. Specifically,

$$A = \Sigma ws, \text{ with } \Sigma w = 1$$

where A is the attitude toward the product, w is the importance weight of each attribute, and s is the evaluation of each attribute. The weights (w) must sum to one (1.00), and this makes the model an averaging model. The weights (w) are estimated using a statistical analysis—usually analysis of variance (ANOVA) or multiple regression. This procedure is useful because consumers can't always tell researchers how important a particular attribute really is to them. Consumers sometimes overestimate the importance of some attributes and underestimate the importance of others. Information integration theory suggests that marketers can change consumers' attitudes by changing w, s, or both. The model also informs marketers about which attributes perform well, which attributes perform poorly, and which attributes are most important.

Suppose you are forming attitudes toward Clarks shoes by using information integration rather than the theory of reasoned action. You consider style to be most important, followed by comfort and support. Accordingly, you allocate style 50% of the total importance weights ($w = 0.50$), comfort 30% ($w = 0.30$), and support 20% ($w = 0.20$). Note that the weights total 1.00, or 100%. Next, you evaluate style, comfort, and support on a scale of −3 (very bad) to +3 (very good), 2, −1, and 3, respectively. By multiplying each importance weight (w) by each evaluation (s), you arrive at an overall attitude via information integration of +1.3 (see Figure 8.5).

FIGURE 8.5 | **Information Integration Theory Attitude Formation for Clarks Shoes**

Attribute	Weights (w)		Evaluation (s)		Attitude (A)
Comfort	0.50	×	2	=	1.0
Support	0.30	×	−1	=	−0.3
Style	0.20	×	3	=	0.6
Overall Attitude					1.3

Note that information integration theory suggests that overall values below zero indicate unfavorable attitudes, while overall values greater than zero indicate favorable attitudes. Unlike the theory of reasoned action (an additive model), in information integration (an averaging model), adding attributes doesn't guarantee higher overall attitudes. Consumers must rate any new attributes both important *and* positive for their overall attitudes to increase. Now, let's turn our attention to dual-process models, where high involvement is not always assumed.

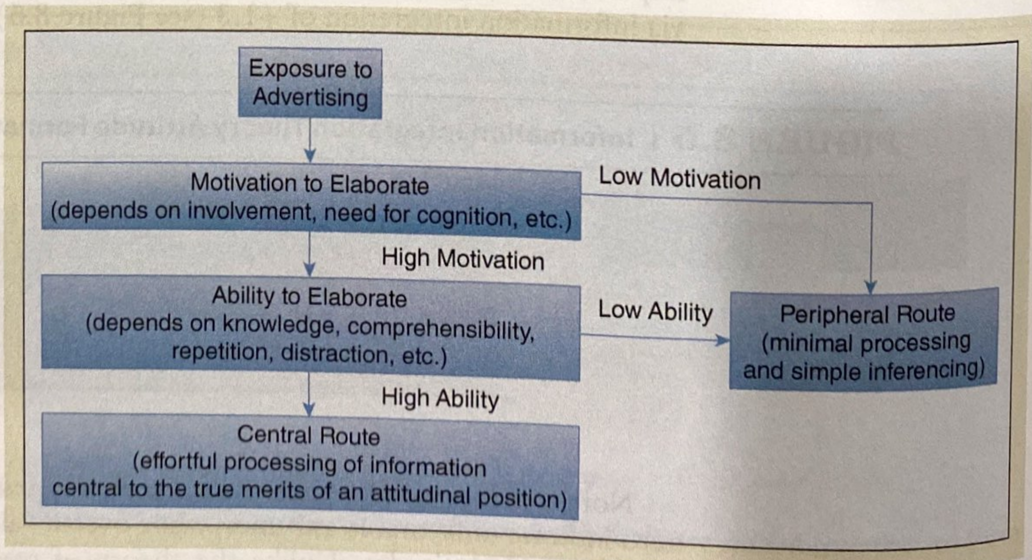
OBJECTIVE 4

The Elaboration Likelihood Model

The name, elaboration likelihood, implies that consumers are sometimes likely to think about and elaborate on ads and other persuasive messages and are sometimes unlikely to do so. When consumers think a great deal, they are likely to consider supportive arguments if they agree with a message or counterarguments if they disagree with it. The elaboration likelihood model also suggests that there are two different routes to persuasion, the **central route** and the **peripheral route** (see Figure 8.6).[24] When involvement is high, and when the ability to think about a marketing claim is high, consumers are likely to follow the central route to persuasion by focusing on information most central to or important for forming an accurate attitude. Strong arguments and reasons for forming a particular attitude are most persuasive when consumers follow the central route to persuasion.

On the other hand, when involvement is low or when the ability to think about a marketing claim is low because of distraction, a lack of relevant knowledge, time pressure, and so on, consumers are likely to follow the peripheral route to persuasion. They focus on peripheral cues or superficial information that makes it easy to form an opinion without much thought. Good examples of peripheral cues include attractive, likeable, and expert sources and positive moods and feelings. Attractive, likable, and expert sources seem trustworthy, so if these sources say that an advertised product is good, consumers often believe these sources rather than spend time thinking about the attributes and benefits of the product themselves. Furthermore, positive moods and feelings often transfer to the advertised brand when consumers follow the peripheral route to persuasion.

FIGURE 8.6 | The Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion



The elaboration likelihood model indicates that facts and reason are important when consumers follow the central route to persuasion, but not when consumers follow the peripheral route to persuasion. The model also indicates that celebrities, authority figures, humor, and pleasant background music and scenery are important when consumers follow the peripheral route to persuasion, but not when consumers follow the central route to persuasion. In other words, consumers use different types of information depending on which route to persuasion they are following. Furthermore, the central route to persuasion leads consumers to form strong attitudes that are accessible from memory, persistent, resistant to change, and that have a strong influence on other judgments and behavior. Conversely, the peripheral route to persuasion leads consumers to form weak attitudes that are not accessible from memory, not long-lasting, not resistant to change, and that have a weak influence on other judgments and behavior.

The elaboration likelihood model suggests that a persuasion variable can influence attitudes in one of five ways: (1) by serving as a peripheral cue, (2) by serving as a substantive argument, (3) by influencing the amount of information processing that is performed, (4) by influencing the direction of information processing (e.g., positive information leads consumers to focus on other positive information, whereas negative information leads consumers to focus on other negative information), and (5) by influencing the confidence with which attitude-relevant thoughts are held. The confidence idea is now referred to as the self-validation hypothesis, and recent research has shown that a large number of source related, message related, recipient related, and context related variables influence thought confidence.[25] Confidence is important because thoughts have a greater impact on attitudes and lead to stronger attitudes as thought confidence increases. Credible sources, sources similar to the recipient, and majority opinions tend to increase thought confidence. Feelings, including feeling of ease of processing, affective responses, and bodily feedback can also increase thought confidence. Matching effects (e.g., matching messages to consumers' preferred information processing styles) can also increase thought confidence. Finally, contextual variables such as repetition, distraction, and resource depletion can also influence thought confidence.

The Heuristic/Systematic Model

Another dual-process model of persuasion, the heuristic/systematic model, also suggests two routes to persuasion.[26] When involvement is high and when consumers are able to think carefully about a persuasive message, consumers follow the systematic route to persuasion. In so doing, they analyze all information for its relevance to an attitude and integrate all relevant information into an attitude.

When involvement is low or when consumers are unable to think carefully about a message, consumers follow the heuristic route to persuasion and use persuasion heuristics or shortcuts to form an attitude. A heuristic or mental shortcut is quick and simple; it allows consumers to form an attitude rapidly, but it also encourages them to overlook a good deal of information that they might have needed to form an accurate attitude. Good examples of persuasion heuristics are "experts are usually correct," the "majority is usually correct," and "length implies strength," i.e., long messages imply there are a lot of valid reasons for liking an advertised product. Strong brand names on a product, such as Sony, Disney, and so on, imply that these products are good. Weak or unfamiliar brand names imply that an advertised product is a bad product.

Marketing in Action

When Is Celebrity Advertising Effective?

According to the elaboration likelihood model and the heuristic/systematic model, celebrity advertising is effective only when involvement is low. When involvement is high, money spent on celebrities is often wasted. It is also important to choose the right celebrity for your brand. For example, L'Oreal Garnier decided they needed a glamorous, intelligent, and approachable spokesperson for their products. Sarah Jessica Parker used to be their spokesperson, but their new spokesperson is Tina Fey, the former star of Saturday Night Live and the star of *30 Rock*, *Baby Mama*, *Mean Girls*, and *Date Night*. Several marketing consultants say that this was a good decision. Tom Julian says that she is today's wholesome, scandal-free Mary Tyler Moore, and Randall Stone says, "She's every man's smart person. She has a directness, a dry unpretentiousness, and comes across as very approachable."[27] John Allen says that she's, "funny in a very classy, sophisticated Rodney Dangerfield way."

Liz Lemon, Tina Fey's character on *30 Rock*, also makes fun of product placements on *30 Rock*, thereby drawing even more attention to products placed on the show. In one episode, Liz Lemon and Jack Donaghy (played by Alec Baldwin) extolled the virtues of Verizon Wireless, and Lemon asked, "Can we have our money now?" In another episode promoting Snapple, Donaghy said, "Everyone loves Snapple. Lord knows I do," as a person wearing a walking Snapple bottle costume exited an elevator. Tina Fey has also promoted the American Express Platinum card, and her popularity appears to be growing. Prior to its recent cancellation, about 4.8 million viewers watched *30 Rock* every week.

All persuasion heuristics enable consumers to form attitudes quickly without much thinking. If consumers are sufficiently confident that their attitudes are correct, they stop thinking about a persuasive message. If they're not as confident, however, they think more carefully and follow the systematic route to persuasion. When both routes to persuasion point to the same conclusion (i.e., both routes imply that the advertised product is a good product), both routes influence attitudes. However, when the two routes to persuasion point to opposite conclusions (i.e., one route implies that the product is good, and the other implies that the product is bad), the systematic route overrules the heuristic route to persuasion. Now that we've evaluated various models of attitude formation, let's consider the range of information used in judgment and some general approaches for changing consumer attitudes.

OBJECTIVE 5

Parameters of Judgment

Nearly all types of information can be used in consumer judgment. Information from marketing communications, consumer magazines, other consumers, and prior knowledge and experiences retrieved from memory influence judgment. The information used and how it is used, however, depend on five important parameters:

- perceived relevance of the information
- task demands
- cognitive resources
- nondirectional motivation
- directional motivation[28]

The greater the perceived relevance of a piece of information, the more heavily that information is weighted or used in judgment. For example, word-of-mouth communications are often weighted more heavily than marketing communications because consumers trust their friends and other consumers more than they trust marketers. As the difficulty or complexity of a judgment task increases, consumers are more likely to rely on information that is easy to use (e.g., simple information with straightforward implications). As cognitive resources, or the ability to think carefully about a judgment task or choice task decrease, consumers are more likely to rely on information that is easy to use.

Motivation also influences how extensively consumers use information. Nondirectional motivation refers to a preference to acquire and to think carefully about all judgment-relevant information, regardless of its direction or its implications. As nondirectional motivation increases, consumers typically use more information and think more carefully about the implications of this information. Nondirectional motivation also encourages balanced information processing, or an attempt to use all relevant information, regardless of its ease of use. Directional motivation, on the other hand, refers to a preference for information that supports a consumer's preferred conclusion. This is also known as wishful thinking. For example, after buying an expensive automobile, a consumer usually focuses only on information that suggests that he or she made a wise purchase. The consumer typically prefers to avoid information that discusses potential problems with the car or that better alternatives are available. Wishful thinking often leads a consumer to use less information and to use one-sided information that supports a preferred conclusion, rather than taking a more balanced approach. Together, the five parameters of judgment determine how much information is used, what information is used, and how heavily or lightly this information is weighted in consumer judgment.

The Message-Learning Approach to Persuasion

All complete theories of persuasion or attitude change suggest that it is important to choose an appropriate source or spokesperson, to use a suitable message or type of message, and to tailor the message to appeal to the intended audience or market segment. Source factors, message factors, and recipient factors are all important, and the study of persuasion concerns the study of who says what to whom. *Who* refers to the source, *what* refers to the message, and *whom* refers to the recipient.[29]

Effective sources tend to be attractive, likable, knowledgeable, trustworthy, and credible. The effectiveness of a particular type of source depends on the situation. For example, expert sources are most effective when the message is complex, and attractive sources are most effective when the message is simple. Factual messages are most effective when consumers are likely to think carefully about the message, but emotional messages are most effective when consumers are unlikely to think carefully.

Courtesy of Ford Motor Company

Factual messages are most effective when consumers think carefully about an advertisement.

Two-sided messages that discuss the pros and cons of an advertised product are most effective for knowledgeable consumers. On the other hand, one-sided messages that discuss the pros only are most effective for consumers who know little about the product. Comparative advertising argues that the advertised brand is superior to competitors' brands in important ways, whereas noncomparative advertising presents information about the advertised brand only. Research shows that comparative advertising should not be used by leading brands because comparative advertising increases the perceived similarity of the brands that are compared.[30] On the other hand, new brands and unfamiliar brands benefit from comparison to leading brands.[31] Comparative ads are also more effective when they focus on positive differences (rather than negative differences) and when these differences pertain to the same attribute dimension (e.g., 30 miles per gallon versus 25 miles per gallon).[32] Hence, a wide variety of source related, message related, and recipient related variables should be considered when designing a persuasive message.

To a large extent, persuasion depends on the likelihood that consumers will receive and comprehend a message and on the probability and strength of counterarguments.[33] More formally, $A = R\ (1 - CA)$, where A refers to attitude, R refers to the likelihood of receiving and comprehending a message, and CA refers to the likelihood of counterarguing. This equation implies that persuasion is greater when R and CA are moderate than when both are high or both are low. Consequently, distraction can increase persuasion when it decreases the ability to counterargue more than it decreases the ability to receive and comprehend a message. Counterarguing is most likely when a message is inconsistent with consumers' prior beliefs. However, when a message is consistent with what consumers already believe, consumers are likely to think of support arguments rather than counterarguments. When this is the case, distraction decreases persuasion.

Consumers differ on many persuasion-relevant individual difference dimensions—including intelligence, knowledge, and self-esteem. For most individual difference variables, comprehension and counterarguing counteract.[34] For example, as the intelligence of the message recipient increases, comprehension increases and this facilitates persuasion, but counterarguments also increase and this inhibits persuasion. As a result, these processes tend to cancel each other out, especially when intelligence is very high (because counterarguing will be very high) or very low (because comprehension will be very low). At moderate levels of intelligence, however, comprehension is moderate and counterarguing is moderate. Furthermore, similar relationships between comprehension and counterarguing should occur for all individual difference variables. Hence, the type of consumer that is most susceptible to persuasion is the consumer who is moderate or average on many different individual difference variables. This is good news for advertisers because the average segment is also the largest segment.

The media used to convey persuasive messages are also important. Because audiovisual messages (e.g., television ads, Internet ads) and audio messages (e.g., radio ads) are brief and must be processed quickly, simple messages are more persuasive than complex messages for these media.[35] However, because print messages (e.g., magazine and newspaper ads) can be processed at the consumer's own pace and because the opportunity to deliberate is greater, complex messages are more persuasive than simple messages for print media. Furthermore, the likability of the message source is more important for audiovisual messages and audio messages because the source is more salient for these media.

Resistance to Persuasion

Most persuasion models—including the message-learning approach, the elaboration likelihood model, and the heuristic/systematic model—focus mainly on approach forces, such as developing more or stronger reasons for buying, using a more credible source, providing incentives for buying, etc. In many situations, however, these approach forces are canceled out by avoidance forces that lead consumers to avoid, resist, or reject persuasion attempts.[36] Several types of avoidance forces have been identified: (1) exposure control, (2) counterarguing, (3) reactance, and (4) correction. Exposure control involves avoiding the unwanted message by not reading it, changing the channel, leaving the room, or otherwise disengaging. Many consumers pay for premium television channels with no commercial interruptions, and many consumers do not want to be exposed to marketing communications in print media, television, radio, or on the Internet.[37] Consumers also resist persuasive messages by counterarguing, or by generating reasons why the messages cannot be true. Reactance involves doing the opposite. If a parent tells a child that a place is off limits, the child often sneaks into the place. If someone tells you not to step across a line in the sand, you often step across the line. If someone is too forceful in telling you that you must buy Brand X, you often buy Brand Y instead. Reactance occurs when an important freedom is threatened. People often try to reinstate their freedom by doing the opposite. Finally, when consumers believe that their judgments have already been contaminated by an unwanted message, they often correct or adjust their judgments in the opposite direction in an attempt to remove the bias.

The **persuasion knowledge model** suggests that when consumers suspect ulterior motives on the part of marketers, they attempt to resist the marketers' persuasion attempts.[38] Consumers use persuasion knowledge (or knowledge about the tactics of marketers and their appropriateness), topic knowledge (or knowledge about the product), and agent knowledge (or knowledge about the traits, characteristics, and goals of a specific marketer, such as a particular salesperson) to develop coping responses to persuasive messages. When the intent to persuade on the part of marketers is too obvious, consumers often suspect ulterior motives and unfair marketing practices. Suspicion is aroused by many different "hard sell" approaches—including flattery from salespersons, rhetorical questions in ads, incongruent product placements in movies and television programs, cause-related marketing, negative comparative advertising (e.g., mudslinging), partially comparative pricing, expensive default options, and obviously biased sources (e.g., a Hair Club for men ad for hair replacement asking, "why should I lie to you? I'm the President of the company."). When suspicion is aroused, consumers form negative evaluations of marketers and their tactics. Consumers' coping responses include resistance to persuasion (e.g., leaving the store, counterarguing, becoming more closed-minded), and attempting to negotiate with the marketer to get a better deal.

How can marketers reduce consumer resistance to persuasion? One approach is to use a "soft sell" approach instead of a "hard sell approach." A "soft sell" approach involves providing consumers with information and letting them draw their own conclusions, rather than using a "hard sell" approach in which marketers tell consumers what conclusions they must believe.[39] The "soft sell" approach reduces reactance and counterarguing, but if consumers are insufficiently motivated or able to draw their own conclusions they often miss the main point of the marketing message. Hence, the "soft sell" approach is effective only when consumers are motivated and able to draw their own conclusions, and when they are likely to draw the conclusions marketers wish them to draw.

Using a soft-sell approach, marketers present consumers with the tools to make their own decisions.

Dave and Les Jacobs/Blend Images/Getty Images

Fortunately, extensive research on consumer inference processes has made it possible to predict what conclusions consumers are likely to infer in many different situations.[40] An inference is a conclusion derived from available information based on a rule that associates the information to the conclusion in a subjectively logical fashion. If a marketer understands consumers' subjective rules for linking information and conclusions, the marketer can guide consumers' inference processes by leading them down the garden path.

For example, one inference rule used by consumers is the syllogistic inference rule. Syllogistic arguments have the following form: if A implies B, and B implies C, then A implies C. For instance, a Burger King ad stated that, "People prefer their hamburgers at home flame-broiled" (if A, then B). "Now if McDonald's and Wendy's fry their hamburgers and Burger King flame-broils theirs" (if B, then C), "where do you think people should go for a hamburger?" No answer was provided to this question; instead, consumers were invited to draw their own conclusions. Consumers who believe that these arguments are true will also believe that people should go to Burger King (A implies C).

In a study on syllogistic reasoning in advertising, consumers received print ads about a compact disc player called the CT-2000.[41] The ads contained three sets of arguments implying three conclusions about the benefits of the CT-2000. For example, the first set stated that the CT-2000 has a motorized drawer and inserting a disc is easy when the CD player has a motorized drawer. These arguments imply the conclusion that inserting a disc is easy with the CT-2000. A second set of arguments implied the conclusion that the CT-2000 filters out sampling frequency distortions at less cost, and the third set implied the conclusion that the CT-2000 reduces distortion from surface irregularities. All three conclusions were either presented explicitly or implied by omission, allowing consumers to draw their own conclusions. Involvement was also manipulated within the ad. In high involvement conditions, the header stated: "You will own a Compact Disc Player Sooner than you Think, Some CD Players are Very Bad and Some are Very Good." This header implied that product relevance is high and product variability is high, which suggests that consumers should think carefully about their purchase decision. In low involvement conditions, the header merely stated, "Compact Disc Players." The results showed that when involvement was high, consumers inferred the appropriate conclusions spontaneously (or on their own without any prompting or encouragement) and consumers formed stronger, more accessible brand attitudes. When involvement was low, however, consumers missed the main point of the message and explicit conclusions were more persuasive than implicit conclusions.

Other techniques can also be used to reduce resistance to persuasion. For example, consumers are more likely to watch and be influenced by pleasant ads (i.e., amusing, humorous, entertaining ads) than by neutral or unpleasant ads.[42] Furthermore, marketing communications are more persuasive when consumers believe that other people are more influenced by these messages than they themselves are.[43] Ironically, when consumers believe that marketing communications do not influence them personally, they are more likely to be influenced because they lower their guards and stop trying to resist persuasion when they think resistance is unnecessary. Marketers can also address resistance directly by addressing consumers' concerns, lowering costs, or by offering guarantees.[44] Another approach is to address resistance indirectly by building consumer self-confidence, self-esteem, or self-efficacy. Another approach is to sidestep resistance by creating the illusion that the situation is not a social influence situation. This can be achieved by using product placement, stealth marketing, or by calling the salesperson a consultant or an advisor. Distraction can also be used to reduce counterarguing and other forms of resistance. For example, the disrupt-then-reframe technique involves providing a confusing message and then restating the message in a manner that makes sense.[45] Asking consumers to donate 100 pennies to a worthy cause confuses them, and restating the message to donate one dollar, which seems like a bargain, un-confuses them and reduces resistance. Asking consumers to make many decisions or to perform many activities that use up self-regulatory resources also decreases resistance to persuasion.[46] Finally, acknowledging resistance can be effective paradoxically. Statements such as, "Most people don't think so, but…" "It's really weird and sounds bizarre, but …" "You're not going to believe this, but …" and "I know you won't want to agree with this, but …" have been shown to reduce resistance to persuasion. This technique is interesting because it involves attitude change without persuasion: there is no attack or counterargument. Merely acknowledging resistance can reduce resistance.

Ethics

Skechers Toning Shoes

Misleading ads for Skechers toning shoes claimed that simply wearing these shoes will tone your legs, butt, and abs.[47] In 2012, the FTC forced Skechers to pay $40 million for refunds to resolve consumer complaints about the deceptive ads. The ads featured celebrity spokespersons Kim Kardashian and Brooke Burke, who claimed that Skechers Shape-Ups, Resistance Runners, Toners, and Tone-Ups could give you toned legs, better buttocks, and a slimmer body without setting foot in a gym. Skechers' executives continue to deny making false claims and argue that they paid the $40 million settlement to avoid even more costly court fees. In 2010, toning shoes enjoyed $1.1 billion in sales, and Skechers had 49% of the market share. Skechers is the second toning shoe manufacturer that was forced by the FTC to pay a settlement. In September 2011, Reebok had to pay $25 million for refunds for deceptive ads for their Easy Tones sneakers.

Chapter Summary

Beliefs are nonevaluative judgments, and attitudes are evaluative judgments. Marketers frequently try to change consumers' beliefs and attitudes through using advertising and other persuasion techniques. Attitudes influence and are influenced by cognition, affect, and behavior. The theory of reasoned action suggests that attitudes and subjective norms influence intentions, and intentions influence behavior. This theory also suggests that beliefs are added together to form attitudes. Information integration theory suggests that beliefs are averaged together to form attitudes, and consequently, it is better to tell consumers about a few very positive features of a product than to tell consumers about many fairly positive features of a product.

Dual-process models of persuasion suggest that consumers think carefully about a persuasive message when involvement is high and when they are able to think carefully. The most famous dual-process models are the elaboration likelihood model and the heuristic/systematic model. The elaboration likelihood model predicts that consumers will follow the central route to persuasion when they think carefully about a message and the peripheral route to persuasion when they don't think carefully about a message. The heuristic/systematic model predicts that consumers follow the systematic route to persuasion when they think carefully, but the heuristic route when they don't think carefully. Both theories suggest that it is important to predict how carefully consumers will think about a message before designing a persuasive message. An effective persuasive message uses an appropriate source and an appropriate argument and targets appropriate recipients.

Key Terms

assimilation effect	dual-process models	information integration theory
attitudes	elaboration likelihood model	involvement
belief	evaluative-cognitive consistency	judgment
central route	experience attribute	search attribute
credence attribute	expectancy-value models	subtraction-based contrast effect
comparison-based contrast effect	heuristic/systematic model	theory of reasoned action
context effects	Inclusion/Exclusion Model	peripheral route
contrast effect	inferential beliefs	persuasion knowledge model
descriptive beliefs	informational beliefs	Zanna and Rempel's model

Review and Discussion

1. How do beliefs influence attitudes?
2. How do attitudes influence beliefs?
3. When are search attributes likely to be more important than experience attributes?
4. When are experience attributes likely to be more important than search attributes?
5. What is involvement? What variables influence involvement? How can you create an ad that increases involvement?
6. Think of questions you would ask to measure brand awareness using several semantic differential scales.
7. Think of questions you would ask to measure beliefs about advertising using several Likert scales.
8. When are factual arguments likely to be important? When are emotional appeals likely to be important?
9. In what ways are the elaboration likelihood model and the heuristic/systematic model similar?
10. In what ways are the elaboration likelihood model and the heuristic/systematic model different?

Short Application Exercises

1. Design an ad for a car using the theory of reasoned action. What attributes should you use and how many should you describe? Remember, an adding model implies that more is better.
2. Design an ad for a digital camera using information integration theory. What attributes should you use and how many should you describe? Remember, an averaging model implies that less is more.
3. Design an ad for a new product using the elaboration likelihood model and the heuristic/systematic model.
4. Form groups of two and ask each other which food is disliked the most. Then, take turns trying to convince the other person that the food he or she dislikes is excellent. What persuasion principles did each of you use?

Managerial Application

Imagine you work for a well-known market research firm. Your supervisor has asked you to calculate numerical values for consumer attitudes using the Fishbein expectancy-value model, $A = \Sigma be$. In your preliminary research for a client that manufacturers LCD HDTVs, you learned that the key attributes are picture resolution, screen size, viewing angles, reliability, and easy-to-use inputs.

Attribute	Consumer A		Consumer B	
	b	*e*	*b*	*e*
1080i	7	7	3	4
47-inch screen	6	6	7	7
Viewing angles	6	5	4	3
Reliability	5	6	3	3
Inputs	7	7	2	3

Using the data below, compute attitude scores for consumer A, a highly knowledgeable consumer, and for consumer B, a consumer who knows relatively little about HDTVs.

Your Challenge:

1. Compute attitudes for both consumers. Which consumer likes the product more and why?
2. For the knowledgeable consumer, which attribute(s) need improvement?
3. For the consumer who knows little about the product, which attribute(s) need improvement?
4. Explain how to influence *b* and how to influence *e* for consumer A and for consumer B.

End Notes

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