



Images of Women in Advertising

A Study of Consumer Reactions to Non-Idealized Models

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And now, we move on to the next chapter.

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Abstract

In a world where the public is constantly bombarded by commercial messages, marketers must rapidly innovate their communication methods in order to capture consumers' attention and affection. Both advertisers and magazines have been criticized of late for the use of overly airbrushed, digitally altered models that appear impossibly perfect. The use of these images has increasingly been called into question, creating an opportunity for certain brands to capitalize on the idea of using 'real women' in their marketing communications.

The literature currently available on the use of real women in advertising is limited as the phenomenon is relatively recent. There are, however, multiple studies that examine how consumers respond to atypical models which deviate from the norm in attractiveness levels, weight or ethnic group. This thesis will aim to fill some of the theoretical gaps in the body of knowledge about the use of non-idealized women in advertising and seek to more fully understand how consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions are affected by their use, as well as examining whether or not the consumers' culture plays a role in formulating these judgements.

This study shows that consumers exhibit stronger attitude towards the ad, brand attitude and purchase intentions when exposed to a non-idealized model who they find more likeable and attractive than to those who do not. Models whose appearances are less shocking to the viewers are better received, indicating that aspirational images, rather than assimilative ones, still play a role in positively influencing consumer behaviour.

Furthermore, this study approached the issue of using non-idealized models in advertising from a cultural viewpoint as well and it was found that there are significant differences between cultures in the strength of their reactions to the models. Though the general patterns of behaviour remain similar, individuals from different cultures express varying levels of acceptance to the idea of using non-traditional models in marketing campaigns.

The results of this thesis provide a foundation upon which future research into the idea of using models which deviate from the typical 'beauty ideal' can be based and provide a broader understanding of the concept as compared to previous research.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background to the Topic

In 2004 Dove created a marketing campaign focused on ‘real beauty’, aiming to challenge the way in which women were portrayed in mainstream advertising (Howard, 2005). Dove’s communications program on this theme began with the ‘Real Women Campaign’ in which ‘normal’, non-professional models were selected to star in a series of poster advertisements, intended to represent ‘real women’. This campaign, run in the UK, increased sales of the range being advertised by 700% in the seven months after its launch (Datamonitor, 2005). Following this success, the company decided to continue building on the theme, briefing PR consultancy Lexis to produce a campaign that would “make women feel beautiful everyday by challenging today’s narrow, one dimensional view of beauty and presenting a multi-dimensional view of beauty” (Datamonitor, 2005). This global campaign was similarly well received, with estimates that sales for Dove’s product range increased from 6 to 20% in the year following the campaign (Spitznagel, 2013). Variations on the same theme are still being used by the brand in its current communications.

Multiple other brands have followed suit, attempting to capitalize on the trend of featuring women in marketing communications that consumers can more closely identify with. These include, but are not limited to, LK Bennett, Nike, Ultimo, Debenhams, Marks & Spencer’s, Aerie and Boots.

In an interview with the Daily Mail, LK Bennett’s creative director explained the rationale behind these types of campaigns: “These days, people want something closer to the real world. We chose four professional women of different ages and backgrounds...when the woman in the photograph is not a supermodel or a celebrity, people think, ‘That could be me’” (Gordon, 2011).

Many of the campaigns mentioned previously have focused on using non-traditional, non-idealized models for their communications. The extent to which these do not conform with ‘normal’ advertisements varies, from using professional models without airbrushing them to using ‘real women’ who are not professional models with body types or features not usually seen in mainstream marketing for the types of products which they are promoting.

1.2 Research Purpose

Current literature on ‘non-idealized’ models is limited as the phenomenon of using non-traditional models is a relatively new one. There has been a recent surge in research into the effects these types of images in marketing communications (Martin and Xavier, 2010; Antioco et al., 2012; Dillavou, 2009; Aagerup, 2011; Sohn and Youn, 2013), however the large majority of these studies focus only on non-idealized models that are of a non-standard body weight for mainstream advertisements and not on cases in which other forms of non-ideal images are used.

Though many of the campaigns using non-idealized models have been successful, such as the Dove campaign discussed in the introduction, some of the positive response may be attributable to the fact that these types of campaigns are relatively novel and accordingly garner a great deal of positive media attention (Johnston and Taylor, 2008). Bearing this in mind, the extent to which the media frames the ways in which consumers react to this marketing device need to be explored to fully understand if the use of non-idealized models in advertising is effective.

1.2.1 Idealized Imagery

The concept of non-idealized models is still nascent and as such there is no commonly accepted definition as to what this constitutes. It is, instead, simpler to attempt a definition of what an ‘idealized’ model is and consider a non-idealized model as one which does not fall within the parameters set.

Idealized images are defined by Phillips and McQuarrie (2011) as those which feature models or settings that consumers would be expected to aspire to. Gane (2007) explains that for women, these images often create a reality in which there is a need to embody that which is traditionally considered feminine. Among the characteristics which must be present to be considered ‘traditionally feminine’ is beauty, which Gane states ‘is constructed with the framework of white hegemony so that Anglo-Saxon norms govern the way that beauty is constructed in Western culture’ (2007). Haboush et al. (2012) describe the ideal of beauty in Western culture in more precise terms, specifying that models must have ‘a very thin body with long legs, light eyes, clear skin and no wrinkles’.

Therefore idealized models can be considered those which conform to the beauty ideal; being feminine, slender, young and with Anglo-Saxon features.

Phillips and McQuarrie (2011) found that the large majority of advertisements featured idealized models; however the recent use of non-idealized models has created more consumer awareness of the practice. One study found three-quarters of young women surveyed would prefer to see un-airbrushed and un-retouched models in advertisements (Costa, 2011).

This thesis will therefore aim to find whether this evidence in support of using more non-idealized models is supported by a similarly positive effect on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions, or if consumers only advocate the position when the issue is debated hypothetically.

1.2.2 Cultural Influence

There has been very little research into whether these campaigns are equally effective across different cultures. This is a crucial issue that companies must address before launching global campaigns that make use of this strategy.

The literature shows that various cultures have different representations of the ideal female (Frith et al., 2005), but also that they have alternate responses to viewing the same types of imagery. However, Haboush et al. (2012) found that women from diverse backgrounds do not associate with the values traditionally linked to beauty ideals of their ethnic group but rather internalize North American ideals. Frith et al.'s (2004) research supports this notion finding that "the tendency to portray women across cultures in the classic beauty type ...indicates that certain aspects of beauty are more or less universal and shared by Eastern and Western cultures".

There is, therefore, the possibility that what is considered non-idealized will translate across cultures; however the ways in which diverse consumer groups will respond to these images has yet to be understood. In an increasingly globalized world, it is critical for marketers to understand how their communications will be interpreted by consumers from a variety of backgrounds; therefore consumer responses to non-idealized images will be explored and interpreted through a cultural lens to add a more nuanced explanation of how these images are received.

1.2.3 Research Question

In light of the recent trend for integrating more non-idealized images into mainstream marketing, this master thesis seeks to explore what the potential effects of this integration on consumer behaviour and whether the effects vary according to demographic factors, most notably culture. Thus the primary research question to be addressed by the study is:

How are consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions affected by the portrayal of non-idealized models in marketing communications; and to what extent is this affected by culture?

2. Theory

2.1 Models in Advertising

2.1.1 Use of Attractive Models

The literature on the topic shows that advertisers have traditionally exhibited a preference for using ‘physically attractive models and actors in advertising’ (Joseph, 1982). This is in part due to the commonly held belief that, in order to be able to secure consumers’ attention, marketers must modify the stimulus presented in multiple ways including making sure that the stimulus is pleasant; one way of achieving this is to use attractive models within the communication (Hoyer and MacInnis, 2010).

The benefits of using physically attractive models in marketing communications is not limited simply to generating more attention and interest in the advertisements, but also can provide other advantages. Research has revealed an overall ‘beauty is good’ stereotype (Eagly et al., 1991), in which attractive individuals are subconsciously associated with other, unrelated, traits, such as possessing a higher degree of social competence. Advertising effectiveness is also positively affected by the attractiveness of the models used (Halliwell and Dittmar, 2004). When the attractiveness of the model is manipulated, there is a significant difference in effectiveness, independently of whether or not the model is of an average or thin body size.

Thus, due to this and other positive impressions created by using attractive models, advertisers have an increased incentive to use such individuals in their communications (Till and Busler, 2000).

The concept of what does and does not qualify as attractive is somewhat subjective however; Solomon et al. (1992) propose that there are ‘cultural gatekeepers’ who help set the frame through which mainstream beauty can be interpreted by the public and includes editors of fashion and beauty magazines as critical in this role. The selection by these gatekeepers will ultimately influence to a great extent what mass consumers see as attractive. Therefore, it is important to keep in mind that the concept of beauty is one that is fluid and can be changed through shifting trends in popular media.

2.1.2 Social Comparison

In his development of the social comparison process, Festinger (1954) identified that humans have an innate desire to evaluate their abilities and characteristics against those of their peers. Festinger posited that in cases when there is no objective measure determining whether one's abilities, individuals look to external sources to evaluate how they compare. To put this into context, the example of attractiveness can be taken. The concept is thought of as relatively subjective and it is difficult for a person to assess accurately whether or not they are attractive, thus in order to do so they will compare themselves to those who are widely considered to be attractive. Attractiveness is considered to be a desirable trait and consequently many highly attractive models are used in advertisements (Buunk and Dijkstra, 2011) and can therefore be used as a basis from which individuals form their benchmark to which they compare their own attractiveness.

A growing body of literature addresses the perceptions of subjects exposed to attractive or idealized models in advertising and how this may have an effect on their subsequent behaviour. Richins (1991) found that showing individuals images of idealized models can result in lower levels of comparative self-satisfaction; this result can be a contributing factor to the effectiveness of using idealized models in marketing communications, as the following lowered sense of self experienced by subjects may be somewhat remedied by purchase and consumption of the products and services in question.

In their survey of how young adults interpret the images shown in mainstream media advertising, Adomaitis and Johnson (2008) found that subjects viewing fashion advertisements do compare themselves to the models depicted in the images presented and either strive to emulate the 'look' portrayed by the models, or feel that it is unattainable. However, their findings revealed that though there may be comparisons to unrealistic ideals of beauty being drawn by the advertisements, participants do not always favour depictions of 'real' people in advertising as they felt that advertisements should inherently focus on unattainable beauty and that 'real' people were commonplace and as such would not aid advertising persuasiveness.

2.2 Congruence

2.2.1 Self Image Congruence

In his review of the literature on self-concepts, Sirgy (1982) identified that there was an indication of more than one form of self-concept in existence, rather than it being a single construct. There are proponents of a dual dimension of self concepts, with a differentiation between the actual self-concept and the ideal self concept defined as ‘the image of oneself as one would like to be’ (Sirgy, 1982). However, there is also the viewpoint that there are many more dimensions, including the social self image, which is the sense of self that an individual believes others hold, or the ideal social self image, which refers to the concept of oneself that an individual would like others to have of them.

These concepts of self image are important to purchase behaviour because the way in which products are used and consumed “is one means by which an individual can express self-image” (Sirgy, 1982). Fashion items, including both clothing and cosmetics, are used for a functional purpose but also in order to signal an individual’s self concept, whether actual or ideal (Evans, 1989). Jamal and Goode (2001) found that congruency between self-image and the image held of the brand can positively influence preferences. Furthermore, the same study found ‘that consumers might prefer a brand on the basis of its symbolic properties rather than its functional qualities’.

2.2.2 Ethical Congruence

Fashion, make-up and other similar products in the same domain can address more than one function for consumers, namely to be able to identify wearers or users with a certain social group and also to distinguish oneself from others (Banister and Hogg, 2004). Aagerup (2011) argues that though consumers may purchase goods that fulfill these needs in a manner that is congruent with their sense of self, they may also be inclined to purchase goods that they identify with for ethical reasons instead of aesthetic ones. This provides a contrasting view to that suggested by proponents of the theory that consumers are more influenced by ideal user imagery.

In order for consumers to be loyal to brands that they exhibit preferences for due to ethical reasons, the consumer must hold the belief that ethical consumption is important and that the

company promoting the ethical product is indeed offering ethical goods (Kim et al., 2010). Thus, if a company were to use non-idealized models in their marketing communications in order to appeal to consumers on the basis of ethical self-congruence, then the company in question would have to ensure that it was credible in its efforts to do so, whilst also making sure that its consumers value this proposition in the first place.

However, brands who choose to appeal to consumers' ethical desires should be wary, as there is a great deal of literature supporting the notion that though consumers indicate that they prefer products they find congruent with their ethical beliefs, they often do not follow this with ethical purchases (Carrington et al., 2010).

2.3 Aspirational Images

Many marketers portray their brands as aspirational goods, in which the product appeals to the buyer because it seems to be a way of realizing one's 'ideal self' (Malär et al., 2011). The images used in these types of advertisements are thought to be inspiring to the viewers and are intended to create a contrast between oneself and the model depicted in the communication, challenging the viewer to become more similar to them and thus the models themselves are also seen as somewhat aspirational (Nichols and Schumann, 2012).

There has been little research into qualifying and quantifying exactly what combination of variables can create an attractive or aspirational image in an advertisement. Existing literature tends to focus only on aspirational images in regards to either body size (Martin and Xavier, 2010; Diedrichs and Lee, 2011; D'Alessandro and Chitty, 2011) or race (Carrabis and Peverill-Conti, 2011; Frith et al., 2005; Frith et al., 2004). However, recent evidence points towards the traditional ideal of being extremely thin as no longer as linked to an ideal aspirational image as it once was (Barry, 2014). In addition to this, the growing trend towards featuring women of a variety of races and complexions in marketing communications adds to the argument that what is being touted as the ideal image to strive towards by the advertising industry is changing to include a broader demographic.

Barry (2014), led research to develop a taxonomy of aspiration in order to further the understanding of what enables women to view an advertisement as aspirational. The taxonomy divides aspiration into 'aspirational criteria' and 'aspirational targets'. Aspirational criteria is defined by Barry as including that which women cognitively interpret

as being relevant criteria to determine whether or not an image can be seen as reflective of their aspirations. According to Barry, these can be grouped into three broad categories which are: honest, empowering and socially responsible. Aspirational targets on the other hand pertain to the physical traits exhibited by the model, such as their race, weight in relation to height and age; the manner in which image and model is styled, including their hair and make-up; and the visual cues used by the model, such as their expression and pose.

Barry (2014) found that women are more likely to find an image of a model to be aspirational when the models are seen to possess shared physical characteristics with the viewers, such as overall appearance, height, age and weight/body type. Images that portrayed physical characteristics that were not seen as unrealistic, but rather as honest and socially responsible were appealing to viewers, as the models were depicted in a way that potential consumers felt they could identify with and, consequently, aspire to.

Advertisements were also perceived as a means through which the viewers could indulge in fantasy and escapism and thus women were able to appreciate images which depicted a reality dissimilar to theirs in multiple ways as being aspirational. However, surprisingly, it was found that when a model was over-idealized there was a degree of 'thin-ideal rejection' (Barry, 2014) exhibited as the viewers felt that the image portrayed was dishonest in some way and were thus not able to view it in a positive light.

However, aspirational images in themselves might not be as much of a persuasive component of marketing communications as previously thought. Malär et al. (2011) found that in order for individuals to create an emotional attachment to brands, marketing communications should appeal more to the individuals' actual rather than ideal or aspirational self. The proposed reasoning for this is that such marketing appeals to consumers' sense of authenticity and they may perceive themselves to be behaving in a more genuine way if they purchase goods which reflect their true self to some extent. Nevertheless, aspirational images were found to be more appealing to consumers in certain situations, such as those when the consumers' self esteem, involvement with the product, or degree to which they are self-conscious in public is low. Malär et al. (2011) propose that a comparison to one's aspirational self as stimulated by marketing communications may have negative repercussions if the perceived gap between one's actual and ideal self is too large, causing consumers to reject the aspirational brand as too unrealistic and unattainable and

thus create distance between the consumer and the brand, effectively cancelling out the positive effect that may have been created through the use of aspirational branding.

Nichols and Schumann (2012) add further nuances to the debate of whether or not consumers prefer what they categorize as ‘assimilative’, close to the actual self, or ‘aspirational’, close to an ideal self or in contrast to one’s current state. Their study reveals that consumers show different preferences depending on the category of products, with consumers preferring assimilative images when presented with a functional product but showing a predilection for aspirational images relevant to symbolic products. Nevertheless, consistent with Barry (2014) and Malär et al.’s (2011) findings, they noted that there is a limit on how different the models portrayed in aspirational images can be from the consumers before they are no longer accepted due to being seen as portraying an overly unattainable ideal.

2.4 Effects of Publicity

Proponents of integrated marketing communications cite synergy as the primary benefit to be reaped by utilizing such integrated campaigns (Pickton and Broderick, 2005). As such, the interplay between the various components of a marketing communications campaign should create a stronger overall reaction in the market than if each had been experienced in a vacuum, additional benefits of this can be cost savings, more efficient use of media spend and a lessened degree of consumer confusion (Linton and Morely, 1995).

Previous campaigns run that feature non-idealized images of women have generated large amount of publicity. For example, the Dove ‘Campaign for Real Beauty’ was surrounded by huge amounts of media attention which has been described as being worth ‘hundreds of millions of dollars’ (Malmelin and Hakala, 2009). However, as more and more brands will begin to employ these methods, the concept of using non-traditional models within marketing communications will become seen as less novel and interesting. As such, it is crucial for marketers to understand whether or not the priming effects caused by exposure to positive media about the campaigns is the main reason for consumer enthusiasm to the campaigns, or if consumers prefer seeing alternative depictions of females within marketing communications regardless.

The context within which the marketing communications are received play a large role in the way that the public interprets the messages encoded within the communication. Yi (1990) found that priming specific attributes causes those on the receiving end of marketing communications to use the attribute in question as a base for their interpretation of the information held within the communication.

The tone used when priming message receivers also had a significant effect on the subjects' subsequent evaluations of brand and communications which were aimed to create a positive impression influenced attitude towards the advertisement and brand evaluations more positively than those which had a negative tone (Yi, 1990).

These effects are due in part to priming effects, both cognitive and affective. Yi (1990) explains cognitive priming effects as those that occur when consumers refer to active knowledge structures. Researchers have found that activating relevant constructs in the minds of the message receivers increase the probability of those constructs being used as a means to interpret subsequent information received (Shen and Chen, 2007). One proposed theory as to why priming has such an effect is Wyer & Srull's (1980) model of the 'storage bin' which elucidates that constructs used for later interpretation are held within the minds of individuals in a way similar to that of a storage bin; the constructs most recently activated will lie closer to the top and thus be more easily accessible, whilst those that have remained inactive for longer are harder to retrieve. Higgins et al. (1985) propose that more recently primed constructs will be easily accessible, but that the accessibility will decrease over time and frequency of exposure replaces recency as the critical factor in determining whether a specific knowledge structure will be used to interpret a stimulus. Thus how often an individual is exposed to a certain prime, as well as how recently they are exposed to it, will play a role in the way that they understand subsequent related messages.

Affective priming effects, on the other hand, refer to those in which individuals are primed by the immediate context that the advertisement is placed within and thus transfer the affective state experienced at the time to the advertisement in question (Yi, 1990).

2.5 Brand Image

The concept of brand image has been credited to Gardner and Levy (Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990) who proposed that marketers were not adequately identifying the factors that drove

purchase intentions. Since then, the argument has emerged that consumers are increasingly shifting away from processing information about the tangible, physical and functional aspects of products to their intangible features, such as the symbolism associated with use and consumption of products, their expressive value or other such factors (Poiesz, 1989). To this end, much of a brand's positioning, in modern marketing, is tied more closely to the intangible characteristics of a brand rather than its functional features.

There has been much debate and re-definition of the term 'brand image', this has been developed from Gardner and Levy's definition of the brand as 'the set of ideas, feelings and attitudes that consumers have about brands' (cited in Patterson, 1999), to Patterson's conceptualization following a synthesis of the literature stating that brand image is the sum of 'consumer perceptions of brand attributes and associations from which those consumers derive symbolic value' (1999). This 'symbolic value' is of critical value as it highlights that brand image is frequently a subjective understanding and holds meaning that can be used to denote identity or for other means of transferring non-verbal socially indicative information (Patterson, 1999).

2.6 Shocking or Unexpected Images in Advertising

In order to cut through the noise created by thousands of advertisements consumers are exposed to on a daily basis, marketers often use shock tactics to secure the attention of their desired target market (Dahl et al., 2003). Javed and Zeb (2011) define shock advertisements as advertisements that utilize an 'unexpected factor' in order to garner attention in a manner that is intentionally disquieting in some way. Schudson (as cited in Tinic, 1997) stated that 'whether an advertisement...appears striking to an audience will depend very much on how skillfully the object draws from the general culture and from the specific cultural field it is a part of'. Therefore, for an advertisement to be shocking it must be considered as such in the context of what the audience at the time it is produced and consumed perceives to be unexpected.

Other criteria required for an advertisement to be thought of as shocking are that it is distinct from other communication, is ambiguous and also contravenes commonly held norms and taboos (Virvilaite and Matuleviciene, 2013). Communications must be distinct in order for the advertisement, and the unexpected factor, to retain its power, as if it is seen as similar to other, more standard, communication it will be dismissed. Ambiguity is also critical to

consumer engagement with unexpected advertising as consumers must be able to draw multiple interpretations of the advertisement for it to maintain its shock factor; advertisements that are completely unambiguous will also be rejected. Finally, societies' norms and taboos must be challenged by the communication for it to be shocking, with these being defined as 'rules that an individual must follow' (Virvilaite and Matuleviciene, 2013).

Shock advertising is attributed by some as a tactic developed by the clothing brand Benetton (Virvilaite and Matuleviciene, 2013). Benetton successfully used its shock advertising campaigns to express its company philosophy and social concerns (Giroux, 1994). The aims of some of the various shock campaigns that were run by the company were to identify the brand as one concerned with social change. Taking this into consideration, one can extrapolate to the context of this study that many of the brands that make use of non-idealized images in an unexpected manner, such as those used in the Dove campaigns, are also focused on associating themselves with a social issue and gaining consumer attention through this.

Dahl et al. (2003) categorize shock appeals into seven broad types; those that contain 'disgusting images', 'sexual references', 'profanity/obscenity', 'vulgarity', 'impropriety', 'moral offensiveness' or 'religious taboos'. Of these, the type that is most closely aligned with showing non-idealized models in marketing communications is that of impropriety, which is described as 'violations of social conventions for dress, manners, etc.' (Dahl et al., 2003). As it is unusual to portray non-idealized models in advertisements, this can be seen as violating the convention that advertisements must portray highly attractive models that viewers and consumers can and should aspire to.

In a review of the body of literature available on how shocking advertising affects consumer purchase behavior, Virvilaite and Matuleviciene (2013) found that whether or not consumers have a positive or negative view on the practice plays a large role in their response. That is to say that if an individual sees shocking advertising as a positive instrument, for example by interpreting as a vehicle for positive social change, then their purchase behavior would be positively impacted, with the reverse also holding true. Therefore, marketers must consider whether or not their target audience is likely to condone or disapprove of such campaigns.

2.7 Balance Theory

Balance theory was conceived by Heider (1958) to explain the psychological need and motivation to achieve balance through attitude change. In this framework, it is proposed that individuals seek to maintain balance in their relationships; when applied to a marketing context, specifically in cases of celebrity endorsers, they also seek to maintain balance between their perceptions of products advertised and their endorsers.

Heider (1958) asserts that for every situation or advertisement, the viewer will attempt to achieve balance between the product and the spokesperson or individual in the advertisement. Therefore the relationship between the viewer, the spokesperson or endorser and the product form a three way relationship.

In order to achieve balance, the relationship among these three elements must multiply out to be a positive result (Heider, 1958). If this is not the case, the viewer must make psychological decisions as to which changes they will make in terms of opinions regarding one or more of these relationships to achieve that balance. For example, if the viewer exhibits a positive affective response to the endorser, and they also favor the product, all of the relationships between the three variables will be positive resulting in a positive multiplication result. It is assumed that the endorser has a positive relationship with the product, since they are represented in the advertisement as enjoying and promoting it.

If, however, the viewer has a negative affective relationship with either the product or the endorser, the relationship will not be in balance, and the viewer must then make psychological changes in order to recreate this balance. Heider (1958) suggests that consumers will usually follow the path of least resistance, meaning that they will tend to change that which takes the least amount of cognitive effort to achieve balance. In this case, the viewer has three options. They can choose to change their opinion of the endorser to be positive, change their assumption about the relationship between the endorser and the product, or finally may alter their feelings about the product itself. The method the viewer chooses to use to achieve balance will depend on the strength of the existing relationships between the individual, the endorser and the product.

2.8 Cultural Differences

When considering how to assess cultural differences, one of the most cited theories is that proposed by Hofstede who puts forth the six dimensions on which to measure cultural variations between nations. These dimensions include the varying levels of power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, uncertainty avoidance, long term orientation and finally indulgence vs. restraint (Hofstede, 2010).

Trompenaars and Hampden Turner also have their own set of qualifiers for measuring cultural differences across nations. These include universalism vs. particularism, individualism vs. communitarianism, specific vs. diffuse, neutral vs. emotional, achievement vs. ascription, sequential vs. synchronous time, and internal direction vs. outer direction (Hampden-Turner, 1998). As can be seen, some dimensions are similar if not equivalent between the two conceptualizations of culture. As such, in the following review, overlapping dimensions will not be discussed twice. Although there are additional cultural dimensions defined by various scholars, this paper will stick with the two outlined above.

2.8.1 Hofstede

Power distance refers to the expectations within a culture of unequal power distribution, and how both ends of the spectrum accept this distribution (Hofstede, 2010). A simple example of this within a business context would be how acceptable it would be for an entry level employee to walk into a high level executive's office and start a casual conversation. In a high power distance culture, the cognitive as well as often physical distance between levels of an organizational hierarchy may become so large that this situation would not be possible in a normal daily context, such as is typical in some Latin cultures such as Mexico and Guatemala (Clearly Cultural, 2009). In countries such as Austria and Denmark however, power distance is much lower, and is typically reflected in flatter organizational hierarchies with high levels of autonomy and easily accessible superiors (Hofstede, 2010). These cultures tend to be more flexible and have less structured and routine positions of employment than do those cultures holding high rankings on the power distance dimension.

The dimension of individualism focuses on the tendency of members of a culture to identify themselves primarily as individuals or as part of a larger group (Hofstede, 2010). In a highly collective society, such as one would find in China or Venezuela for example, in-groups

form a large portion of each members' identity, and reliance is placed on one another to help each other out and provide a strong support system (Clearly Cultural, 2009). On the opposite end of the spectrum, highly individualistic cultures, such as those found in the US and Australia, place more emphasis on individual rights and achievements, and encourage people to look after themselves (Hofstede, 2010).

The third dimension put forth by Hofstede is masculinity. This dimension describes a culture according to the values each gender typically shares, with the main variations reflected on the male side. Masculine qualities are characteristically seen as competitive, assertive, materialistic, success driven, and self-centeredness among others, and can be found in countries such as Japan and Italy (Clearly Cultural, 2009). Feminine characteristics on the other hand are seen as modest and caring, and can be found in cultures from Norway and Sweden (Hofstede, 2010). In these countries, gender roles are not as clearly defined as in countries with high masculinity, a fact that is reflected in laws regarding paternity leave as an example.

Hofstede's fourth dimension pertains to the level of uncertainty avoidance that is present within a culture. Uncertainty avoidance reflects the level of tolerable ambiguity a society is comfortable with, and is often revealed in legislation, religion, and security practices (Hofstede, 2010). Cultures that score high on this dimension prefer to avoid new and unfamiliar situations and careful planning and structured steps are implemented to circumvent such situations (Clearly Cultural, 2009). On the other side of the spectrum however, there are many cultures which thrive on uncertainty, and take many more risks in everyday life in a variety of aspects. Some such cultures can be found in Singapore, Jamaica, and to a slightly lesser extent, the United Kingdom (Hofstede, 2010).

Long term orientation is an additional dimension to the first and original four on which to compare and contrast various cultures and consists of the difference between future reward orientation, with values such as saving, persistence, and having a sense of shame, as opposed to short term orientation, focusing on past and present issues, respect and tradition (Clearly Cultural, 2009). Given the definition, it may not be surprising that China is ranked the highest on long term orientation, placing a strong emphasis on status based relationships and thrift, whereas Norway and Nigeria for example, fall on the other end of the spectrum, of those countries that were measured for this dimension (Hofstede, 2010).

Finally, the dimension of indulgence vs. restraint is listed under Hofstede's (2010) cultural dimensions. Indulgence refers to the freedom of individuals to enjoy life and achieve gratification of natural human drives, whereas restraint refers to limiting this gratification, often through the use of formal and firm social standards. High scores on the indulgence dimension are found in Latin America and Nordic Europe among others, whereas more restraint oriented cultures are found in East Asia, Eastern Europe and Arab countries (Hofstede, 2010).

Together, these six cultural dimensions provide insights for marketers in terms of what values different countries may hold, despite the levels varying on an individual basis. These dimensions can provide a solid foundation off which to plan a marketing strategy, and how to relate to consumers in a way that can be seen as positive and help to reach organizational goals in that region.

2.8.2 Trompenaars and Hampden Turner

In strongly universalistic cultures, laws and formal regulations are emphasized in order to maintain social order (Hampden-Turner, 1998). Objectivity is prominent in decision making and relationships are often sacrificed in order to maintain legislated standards of behavior and practice. In cultures favoring particularism, decision making is guided by relationships and reactions to certain situations vary according to the strengths of these relationships (Hampden-Turner, 1998). In short, each situation is treated as a particular and unique case, and the reaction of the individual varies according to the variables involved, be they individuals or situational.

The classic example that Trompenaars puts forth for this dimension is as follows: 'you are riding in a car driven by a close friend. He hits a pedestrian. You know he was going at least 35mph where the maximum allowed speed is 20mph. There are no witnesses. His lawyer says that if you testify under oath that he was only driving 20mph it may save him from serious consequences.' (Hampden-Turner, 1998). From a universalist perspective, for example the Canadian culture, fairness depends on treating all similar instances in the same way, focusing on rules and standardized practices, whereas the particularist from for example China, would seek fairness through treating all cases separately and uniquely depending on the relationships involved (Hampden-Turner, 1998).

The second of Trompenaars' dimensions is that of the individual vs. the group in terms of how people within a culture orient and define themselves (Hampden-Turner, 1998). Individualists, such as those found in Canada, the US and the UK typically believe in personal achievement and ownership of their own choices, similar to Hofstede's dimension of similar title. Communitarians, similar to Hofstede's collectivists, prefer to make decisions based on overall group benefit, rather than focusing on any individual gain. This type of culture can be found in Africa and Latin America, among others.

Trompenaars' third tool of measuring different cultures is defined as specific vs. diffuse. In specific focused cultures such as Switzerland and Germany, personal and work lives are kept separate, and straightforward communication is preferred. Diffuse cultures such as those of India and Russia tend to have overlap in social and business standing, and a strong relationship base is the best way to go about doing business with these cultural groups (Hampden-Turner, 1998).

The dimension of neutral vs. emotional is fairly straightforward, in that neutral cultures prefer to control their emotional outbursts in meetings and business dealings, and make decisions rationally and logically, whereas emotionally high ranking cultures accept exhibiting strong emotions as part of everyday life, both socially and professionally. Examples of neutral cultures can be found in Finland and the UK among others, and emotional cultures are located in countries such as Spain, France and Poland (Hampden-Turner, 1998).

Achievement and ascription are opposing beliefs as to where status comes from for individuals. Achievement based cultures such as Australia and Canada believe that individuals in their society earn status through accomplishments in their lives, regardless of who an individual is born or related to. Strongly ascription based cultures however, rely more on this type of information to define one's status in social standings, with positions and titles being of extreme importance within these areas (Hampden-Turner, 1998).

How individuals look at the concept of time is the sixth dimension put forth by Trompenaars. Sequential oriented cultures look at time in a series of scheduled or planned events and strict deadlines, and often embody the philosophy that the 'time is money' (Hampden-Turner, 1998). Synchronous time based cultures prefer to look at the past, present, and future combined, and tend to be more flexible with deadlines and commitments

whenever the situation allows for it. This type of culture can be found in Japan and Mexico, among other regions.

Finally, Trompenaars examines cultures through the lens of being either internal or outer directed when it comes to how individuals relate to their environment. Internal directed cultures look at nature and their environment as if it can be controlled in order to achieve goals. Individuals are encouraged to control their own destinies, and conflict can be seen as a productive concept in cultures that score highly on this dimension, including the UK and New Zealand. Outer directed cultures however, believe in working harmoniously with their environment in order to accomplish tasks, focus on positivity, people pleasing, and avoiding conflict whenever possible (Hampden-Turner, 1998). This dimensional aspect of culture is prevalent in areas such as China and Russia.

2.8.3 Cultural Influence on Advertising and Consumers

Cultural relativism plays heavily in international marketing in today's globally diverse markets, and companies seeking to reach vastly different and varying markets must understand these cultural differences and, in many cases, tailor their advertisements to suit these diverse needs in order to reach their corporate goals and objectives.

An example can be taken using Hofstede's dimension of individualism vs. collectivism, closely related to Trompenaars' aspects of individualism vs. communitarianism. A typical advertisement for a sports car that many westerners have seen time and again features a lone individual driving on a deserted road, usually along a coast line or through uninhabited scenic backgrounds, with not another soul in sight. To western consumers, this may seem like an ideal reason to consider the purchase of this product, in order to achieve individuality and solidarity for themselves. Should this advertisement be shown in a collectivism based, for example Asian market however, it would be unlikely to draw the same feeling of longing for solitude, as this culture places more emphasis on belonging to a group, or part of a greater whole unit (Suh, 2002). In order to market to this culture, one would need the focus of the advertisement to be on attaining group belonging, rather than achieving solidarity and serenity.

In terms of which models to use, idealized or non-idealized, marketers must look at the cultural context and become aware of what their target market strives to be, and how they intend to reach a certain level of esteem, discussed in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs.

Maslow states that there are certain base level needs, that of physiological and safety, that must be met in order to move onto meeting higher level needs, such as those involved in love and belonging, esteem, and finally at the highest level, self-actualization (Maslow, 1943). It is the upper two levels of this needs pyramid that marketers must combine with the various aspects of culture previously discussed from Hofstede and Trompenaars to come up with an ideal marketing campaign tailored specifically to each target market group.

In a strongly collectivist culture, individuals may feel that it is more important to blend into the crowd rather than stand out, and as such, will react more favorably to models that reflect the 'norm' in that society. Highly individualistic cultures however, may place a much stronger emphasis on individual achievement and strive for perfection leading consumers to prefer products promoted by models portraying unattainable ideals. As such, when marketing internationally to different groups and cultures, these preferences need to be understood and catered to in order to avoid falling prey to ignorant market entry and creating an unfavorable reputation within that specific market.

The traditional view of what is considered 'beauty' or 'attractiveness' also varies greatly from culture to culture (Poran, 2002). Some cultures place emphasis on different parts of the models utilized in advertising, such as highlighting the overall body shape in the US, and placing more emphasis on the face in Asian marketing media (Frith, 2005). These preferential variations are important to note for international marketers, and, by the end of this paper, an insight into what various cultures consider appealing in terms of differing types of 'models' or brand representatives will be discussed.

Nevertheless, it is important to note that on an individual basis, consumers may differ drastically from their assigned cultural dimensions based on their national segmentations; but as mass marketing media seeks to cover as many individuals within a target market as possible, these base cultural elements can be relied upon somewhat.

3. Model and Hypotheses

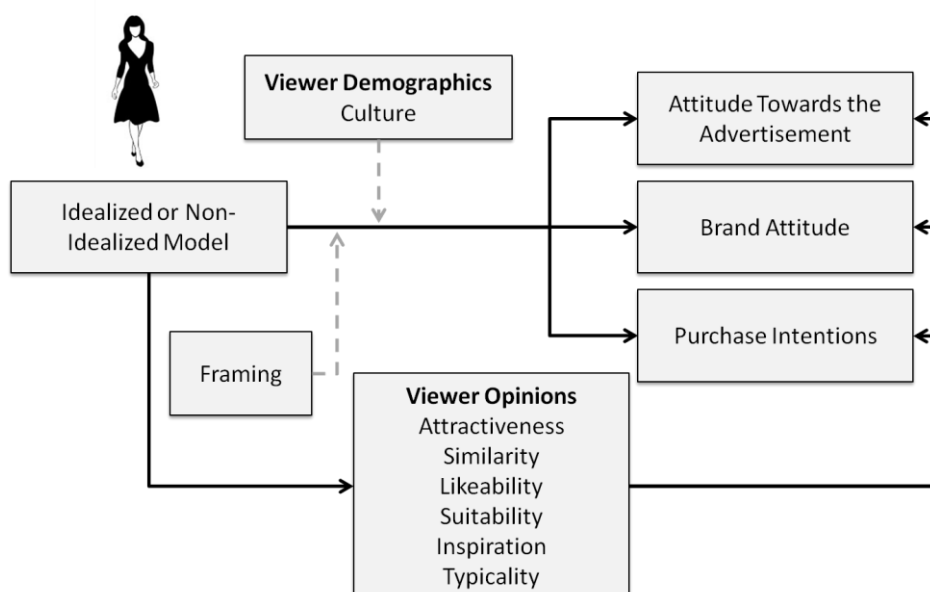
3.1 Conceptual Model

The model proposes that there is a relationship between the type of model used (the independent variable) and the dependent variables of attitude towards the advertisement (A_{Ad}), brand attitude (A_{Brand}) and purchase intentions (PI_{Brand}). Placing emphasis on these variables will provide an indication of whether using non-idealized models in advertisements will affect consumer perceptions and behavior advantageously or disadvantageously.

Furthermore, viewer demographics are expected to play a role; however this study will limit the exploration of demographic influences to cultural background, using nationality as a proxy for culture. The viewer's opinions of the model are expected to have an effect on the relationship between the type of model used and the dependent variables and as such the viewers were asked about their opinions of the model's attractiveness, similarity to themselves, likeability, suitability to be used in an advertisement, degree of inspiration generated by the model and their typicality.

Based on the literature reviewed in Section 2, whether or not the viewers are exposed to a framing message prior to seeing non-idealized models is expected to affect the viewers' opinions on the models themselves and also on the dependent variables.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model



3.2 Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: The type of model used will have an effect on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions

MacKenzie and Lutz (1989) defined the construct of attitude towards the ad “a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion”. Viewers’ brand attitudes are expected to have similar, though distinct, results to those proposed for attitude towards the ad. Rossiter and Bergkvist (2009) define brand attitude as pertaining to the way the brand is evaluated. Thus whilst attitude towards the ad will reveal whether the advertisement generates a positive or negative affective response, brand attitude will show whether viewers think that the brand, and its related communication efforts, are ‘good’ or ‘bad’ (Rossiter and Bergkvist, 2009).

Purchase intentions, however, are related to whether or not a viewer is then motivated enough to perform an action based on these attitudes (Spears and Singh, 2004). Consequently, the threshold of positive affect needed to create a positive attitude is lower than that needed to sufficiently prompt a consumer to indicate a purchase intention. Therefore, it is proposed that the viewers’ behaviour will be directionally the same as when examining attitude towards the ad and brand attitude, however the strength of the behaviour is expected to be less strong.

Bearing in mind the frequently cited adage that “what is beautiful is good” (Dion, Berscheid and Walster, 1972), models similar to the ideals set by other advertisements and media should trigger positive evaluations of the brand.

Images of non-idealized models being used in mainstream marketing campaigns can be considered as ‘shocking’ images and may be treated as such by viewers of an advertisement that include this type of model. Advertisers have long chosen to use highly attractive models in their campaigns (Brumbaugh, 1993) and therefore violating this norm falls within the spectrum of a shock appeal as characterized by Dahl et al. (2003). It is important to question whether or not an advertisement will create a positive consumer attitude as this may engender future competitive advantage (Burton and Lichtenstein, 1988).

Therefore we propose that the use of an idealized model will have a stronger influence on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions than the use of a non-idealized model.

Hypothesis 2: Exposure to a framing message before viewing the models will have an effect on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions

As discussed in Section 2.6, consumers may interpret the shock advertising in a positive manner, particularly if it is seen as a means for social change (Virvilaite and Matuleviciene, 2013). Nevertheless, their ability to understand whether or not the images are being used as a vehicle for social change may be limited when provided with an image of a non-idealized model without context. Therefore, if viewers are exposed to a non-idealized model spontaneously, they may feel disapproval of the use of a shock tactic and respond with weaker attitudes and purchase intentions.

However, the use of an expected non-idealized model in an unframed context is expected to garner a different result. As our characterization of expected non-idealized models refers to those individuals featured in advertisements who are referred to as ‘real people’, non-professional models or those whose appearances are not enhanced in post-production using photo editing software, viewers will likely be unable to tell that there is a difference between the non-idealized model and a more traditional model.

When a framing message is introduced, the results are expected to be reversed. Viewers may then respond favourably to the stimulus of seeing an unexpected non-idealized model in an advertisement as they view it as a means of instigating positive social change. As many campaigns using unexpected non-idealized models have been lauded for their efforts (e.g. Brinded, 2013; Krupnick, 2014), the framing message should roughly mimic the positive tone used by the media. This is expected to have a significant effect as a positive tone should have a directionally similar effect on attitudes and purchase intentions (Yi, 1990).

In a similar vein, if viewers of the image are exposed to a framing message prior to seeing an expected non-idealized model, they may respond unfavourably. We hypothesize this might occur as viewers will find the message and image incongruent and as such deem the image as an attempt at ‘jumping on the bandwagon’ of using non-idealized models in advertising.

Hypothesis 3: Viewer opinions regarding the model affect attitudes and purchase intentions

It is expected that viewer opinions of the model will have an effect on the relationship between the model used and consumer attitudes and purchase intentions. The literature provides numerous factors which may have an impact on the affective responses of consumers who view an advertisement, so a select group of potentially relevant variables were chosen from this set in order to test whether or not they can account somewhat for the relationship between the type of model used in an advertisement and the subsequent attitude formed towards it. These variables are model: attractiveness, similarity to self, likeability, suitability, inspirational qualities and typicality; the reasons for selecting these components in particular are explained below.

Advertisers have long made use of attractive models in advertising, though as Joseph (1982) pointed out, attractiveness is a difficult variable to operationalize as 'beauty is in the eye of the beholder'. Regardless of this difficulty, there is evidence to support the theory that when a physically attractive endorser, or model, is used within a piece of marketing communication, viewers will form more positive attitudes (Joseph, 1982).

Another subjective judgement on the part of the viewers that may influence consumer assessments is the extent to which they perceive the model portrayed to be similar to themselves. In a study of the use of ethnic minorities in advertising, Lee et al. (2002) found that consumers who view an advertisement that contains components which are consistent with their sense of self will 'self-reference the ad'. This action then leads to positive thoughts about the ad which translate into a more favourable attitudes and purchase intentions. We predict that the extent to which viewers identify with idealized or non-idealized models will be consistent with this.

Likeability is an additional variable that may have a role to play in determining viewers' development of consumer attitudes and behaviour. Joseph (1982) notes that although likeability is not enough to directly dictate a viewers' attitude towards an ad, it is a significant antecedent to this variable as a more likeable endorser will command more influence over the viewer, pushing them to form more positive views about the message they are associated with. Petty et al. (1983) found that in certain cases, the degree to which an endorser is likeable is found to be more important than the information contained within an ad.

Kamins and Gupta (1994) found that increased amounts of congruence between the endorser of a product in an advertisement and the product being featured result in more positive attitudes. Bezes and Dubois (n.d.), noted that ‘congruence makes it easy to evaluate objects and stimuli among themselves as well as to appreciate their alignment with the expectations and cognitive schemas of individuals’. Therefore, in this case, we propose that congruent, or well aligned stimuli, will result in viewers feeling that the model used is suitable.

As discussed in Section 2.3, aspirational images are a significant component of many advertisements and are used because of their positive effects on consumer attitudes and subsequent purchase intentions. However, the term ‘inspiration’ rather than ‘aspiration’ was used in the study as inspiration can be considered as either a component of, or an antecedent to, aspiration and it may be an easier term for individuals participating in the study to respond to. Furthermore, when an image used in an advertisement is ‘aspirational’ it is perceived as portraying a state which the viewer should strive to emulate somewhat (Nichols and Schumann, 2012). Therefore, though the term might be relevant for identifying the source of positive attitudes in traditional marketing communications, it is not appropriate when considering non-idealized models as these models are meant to be less aspirational, but instead stimulate positive consumer behaviour by being assimilative and thus inspirational.

The dictionary definition of the word ‘typical’ includes that it ‘conforms to a type’ (Merriam-Webster, 2014), and in this case whether or not a model is viewed as typical will depend on if viewers feel they conform to the type of model usually seen in marketing communications.

Non-conformant models are expected to be viewed as not typical as they do not fit with the expected norms (Virvilaite and Matuleviciene, 2013). Hence viewers’ assessment of typicality will be linked to how shocking they perceive the image to be, which may have positive or negative consequences depending on the audiences’ understanding of the context. Nevertheless, in this case it is believed that the more typical an image is perceived to be, the more likely it will be that consumers will form positive attitudes and purchase intentions towards it, as repeated exposure to certain stimuli has been shown to increase liking by consumers (Cox and Cox, 2002). In this case, the fact that consumers are exposed to a multitude of advertising images on a regular basis which consist of ‘typical’ models who conform to the norms set by the advertising industry means that it is probable they will form more positive affective judgments when exposed to similar stimuli.

Hypothesis 4: The viewer's cultural background will have an effect on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions

Differences in demographic characteristics are also expected to have a role to play in shaping consumers' attitude towards the advertisement, brand attitude and purchase intentions when exposed to different idealized and non-idealized models. Due to the fact that little is known about the effects of culture on attitudes and purchase intentions when related to non-idealized models, the study will aim to shed some light on the issue.

Culture may play a significant role in assessing whether or not a model is well received because what is considered to be 'attractive' is often culturally defined and can vary between different groups (Poran, 2002). Furthermore, many of the dimensions highlighted in Hofstede and Trompenaars and Hampden Turner may be relevant to how viewers form their cognitive and behavioural responses to the models in question. For example, taking Hofstede's dimension of masculinity into account (Clearly Cultural, 2009), it may become evident that certain cultures are more willing to accept images of women that do not conform to the typical ideals of feminine beauty, whilst viewers which are from cultures that typically score highly on the dimension of masculinity may prefer to view images that subscribe more closely to their perceptions of how gender roles should be distributed.

Therefore, culture will be investigated in the exploratory part of this study in order to attempt to create a foundation upon which future understanding of the interaction between this dimension and the perceptions of non-idealized models can be based.

4. Pre-Tests

4.1 Design

4.1.1 Objective

The objective of the pre-test was to determine whether or not the images intended for use in the main study were appropriate to measure the ‘expected’ and ‘unexpectedness’ of non-idealized models.

In order to do this, a variety of images which were predicted to be considered ‘expected’ and ‘unexpected’ were shown to subjects, as well as a set of control images in order to serve as an indicator of how strong subjects’ reactions to the visuals were. The images used were selected from actual campaigns, however all brand related indicators were removed in order to reduce chances of the brand indicators, such as logos or slogans, causing the respondents to react to stimuli unrelated to the models in question.

4.1.2 Sample

The male-female ratio was held at 80-20% as the product categories that generally make use of non-idealized models currently predominantly target females; as such, their brand attitudes and purchase intentions are crucial for companies to understand. Nevertheless, males are often part of the decision making and purchase process and so their views must also be taken into account. Furthermore, as pressure increases on males to conform to their own gender specific idealized images, marketers of products targeted at men may also begin to use more non-idealized models.

As the pre-test group was made use of only to develop the questionnaire to be used in the main part of the study and no statistical inferences are required to be made from the results, convenience sampling was used. The opportunity to participate in the pre-test was publicized to a group of individuals that we were easily able to have access to with efforts made to ensure diversity in English-language abilities to ensure that the different nuances found within the results were due to reactions to the images themselves and not because of linguistic reasons. The participants’ nationalities were as follows; Norwegian, Canadian, British and Colombian.

The pre-test was conducted until data saturation was reached, which Saunders et al. (2012) define as the point at which continued gathering of data reveals minimal, if any, useful new information. A total of five subjects were interviewed as part of the pre-test, with four female subjects and one male subject responding to the full set of questions asked.

4.1.3 Method

The pre-test was carried out face-to-face on a one to one basis. Respondents were asked to answer a series of questions with responses logged on a 7-point Likert scale in order to be able to more accurately judge the strength of their reactions to the images. However, due to the opportunity presented by holding face-to-face interviews subjects were also encouraged to elaborate on the reasons for their answer selections. This allowed for the possibility of drawing additional, deeper insights that could be taken advantage of when selecting the final set of images to be used during the main part of the study. Each interview session lasted for approximately one hour which allowed enough time for the necessary insights to be drawn out.

Prior to beginning the interview, the pre-test subjects were informed that the responses logged would be completely anonymous and that views could be shared freely with no 'right or wrong' response being possible to any question.

The subjects were shown a series of images in a randomized order that included images predicted to represent non-idealized models in a manner that was expected to be seen in commercial marketing communications and alternate images representing the unexpected treatment of non-idealized models not traditionally used in mainstream advertising. In addition to these types of images, normal idealized models were also featured.

The order in which the images were shown to subjects was varied so as to ensure that responses were not being affected by the image order or due to respondent fatigue.

Respondents were not given any time limit to answer the questions, however they were encouraged to not spend a great deal of time thinking their answers through as their spontaneous answers would be more genuine and representative of how they may form conclusions in a more realistic setting.

4.1.4 Analysis

The use of a 7-point Likert scale aided interpretation of the results. From the subjects' responses it was clear which images represented those seen as more 'expected' in mainstream marketing as compared to those which were understood to be 'unexpected'. The images in each category that generated the strongest response as being either 'expected' or 'unexpected' were selected for use in the main study. In addition, the control set of images were neutral enough to be used in the main study as well.

In addition to the use of the closed-ended questions, the reactions of the subjects to the images were also transcribed and examined to see whether there were any reactions of 'expectedness' or 'unexpectedness' that were due to reasons other than those related to the imagery of the models used, be they idealized or non-idealized.

One interesting finding from the pre-test results was that many of the participants paid a great deal of attention to the background of the images presented to them. In particular, when questioned about whether the image seen was typical or not, and more so in the cases where an idealized model or expected non-idealized model was featured, respondents often began first by addressing the background before placing focus on the models themselves. Thus, in order to place less demand on the cognitive facilities of the respondents during the survey conducted for the main study, and because two of the selected images already had relatively plain backgrounds, the images used were placed on a simple background with a grey gradient. This isolated the model's image somewhat more than would ordinarily occur in an advertisement which could lead to a heightened level of sensitivity to the image presented. Nevertheless, this removed the opportunity for extraneous features, such as the background or location, to distort the respondents' assessment of the typicality of the image.

Furthermore, the pre-test revealed that asking respondents to describe whether or not they saw the image presented as typical was an inappropriate question as it encouraged respondents to focus on features other than the physical characteristics of the models. Other than the background, participants chose to highlight a variety of aspects of the images presented. These included the type of photography and picture editing, observations of this included statements such as "kind of a tacky looking picture/style of editing, doesn't look very professional, looks like a girl having a pic [sic] taken by a friend, doesn't look like an ad picture to me"; the way in which the models were posing, with one respondent

characterizing a model as not typical “because [of] the way she’s standing, not showing the clothes very well”; or the styling in the particular photo, with respondents highlighting they did not feel the outfit selected was one appropriate for an advertisement commenting that “the bra and panties don’t even match”.

However, changing the phrasing of the question from “Do you consider this to be a typical image that you would see in advertising today?” to “Does this person reflect what you would consider to be a typical model used in advertising?” yielded far better results, with respondents then reducing the amount of superfluous analysis of unrelated features and focusing primarily on the models’ physical attributes. As such, the survey questions used in the main study will be designed to take this finding into account.

Respondents in the pre-test also experienced difficulties when attempting to propose a product or service category they felt the model could be advertising and exhibited an even stronger resistance to linking the models to specific brands. This reaction created a degree of discomfort for the respondents as they often felt the need to try to identify what the model should be selling, but were unable to do so. In order to reduce the amount of time needed for respondents to the survey to be used in the main study to identify what the models would be advertising, a hypothetical case was proposed in which the models were clearly linked to an unnamed fashion retail brand.

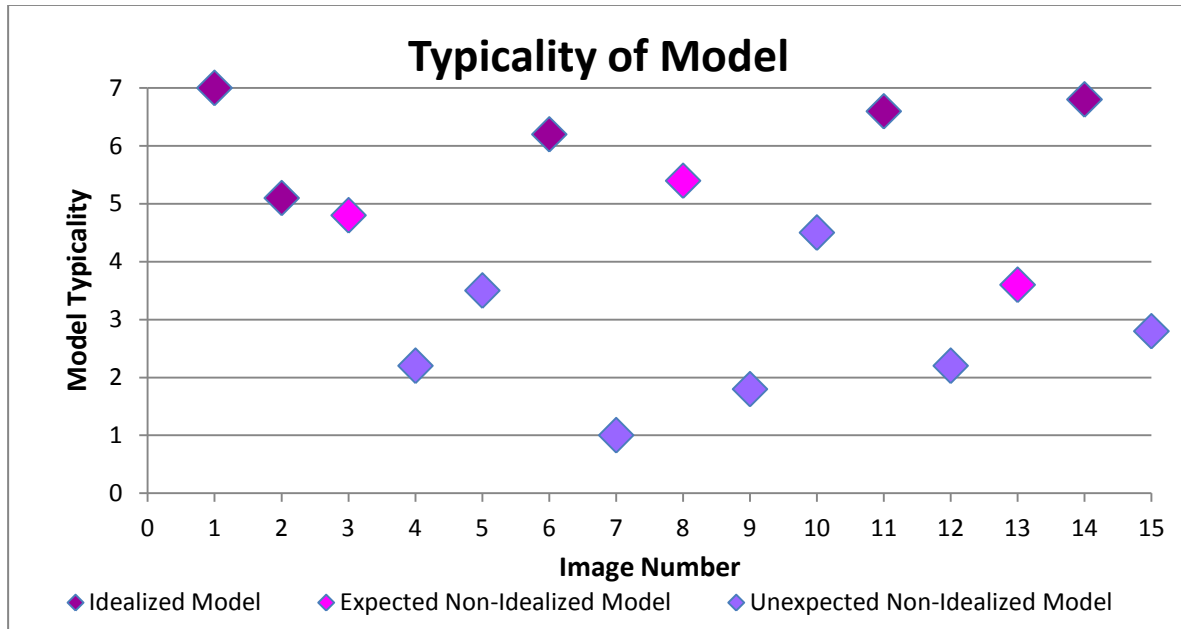
4.1.5 Image Selection

In order to determine which images would be used in the main study, the average scores of respondents’ to the closed ended questions were considered, with the insights gained from the open-ended, more detailed, questions taken into consideration. The factor which was deemed to be most critical was whether or not the respondents felt that the model depicted was typical of the types of model used in current mainstream advertising.

All scores were calculated based on the results of the questions asked using a 7-point Likert scale, with a score of 1 indicating that the model was not at all typical and a score of 7 indicating that the model was highly typical. Consequently, the idealized models should have received high scores of typicality and unexpected non-idealized models should have received relatively low scores of typicality. It was expected that expected non-idealized models, selected for their similarity to professional models, would receive scores similar to those of the idealized models. The range of scores for the idealized models was between 5.1

and 7, the expected non-idealized models' scores were between 3.6 and 5.4 and the unexpected non-idealized models' scores were ranged from 1 to 4.5. The results are shown in a scatter chart in Table 1.

Table 1: Respondents' Assessment of Model Typicality by Advertising Image



Though the non-idealized models who were amputees (Images 7 and 9 in Appendix 1) scored lowest on typicality of model, and as such were good potential candidates to be used in the main study, a decision was taken not to include these images in the survey. The rationale behind this was rooted in the literature review conducted in Section 2.2.1, which discussed that a potential reason for the popularity of campaigns using 'real women' or non-idealized models is that consumers identify with the models depicted and as such exhibit self-image congruence that may positively influence their reaction to advertisements featuring such models. As amputees do not make up a high percentage of the population, the estimated instance of amputation is 1.5 in 1000 individuals worldwide (LeBlanc, 2011), the chances of the individuals within the survey sample identifying with the amputated models was significantly lower than if the models being used were non-traditional in a different way.

Additional filters were implemented in selecting the final images to be used based on the insights from the in depth interviews. In order to ensure relative consistency between the images displayed, all images selected were of fully clothed models, excluding those in lingerie or other forms of covering, and all in colour as opposed to black and white images in order to make them more easily comparable.

Taking these factors into consideration, the images selected for use in the main study were Image 4, Image 8, Image 12 and Image 14 (Appendix 1). For both the idealized and expected non-idealized cases one model was selected as an archetype, however in the case of the unexpected non-idealized case two models were selected to exemplify the category in order to determine whether or not there would be a difference in respondent reactions to different types of non-idealized models. Image 4 and Image 12 depict radically different unexpected non-idealized models, with Image 4 showing an overweight model and Image 12 showing an extremely fit and muscular model. Both of these images, though tending towards different parts of the body shape spectrum, are non-typical characterizations of females in modern advertising but can be somewhat relatable to respondents as the features that make their body types surprising for use in advertisements are attainable to a degree by the public at large.

5. Methodology

In this section, our choices of methods of data collection and analysis will be justified and our reasoning for the same explained. The various strengths and weaknesses inherent within the study will also be assessed and the ethical implications related to conducting the study will be discussed.

Our key research question, as presented in Section 1.2, is:

How are consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions affected by the portrayal of non-idealized models in marketing communications; and to what extent is this affected by culture?

5.1 Research Design

Saunders et al. (2012) describe the difficulty in categorizing research as being purely quantitative or qualitative and explain that much management and business research instead falls somewhere on a continuum between the two. The study will use a quantitative research approach due to the time constraints associated with completing a master thesis, however we recognize that future research incorporating either qualitative methods or a combination of the two would be useful to better explain the results found.

The research approach used will be deductive. Deductive research aims to test a proposed theory using data (Saunders et al., 2012) and thus the use of this approach will enable us to determine whether the hypotheses proposed in Section 3.2 are supported.

Due to the nature of the primary research question and hypotheses proposed, this study will be explanatory in nature. Explanatory studies aim to 'establish causal relationships between variables' (Saunders et al, 2012) and differ from exploratory or descriptive research.

However, our secondary research question, which relates to exploring the differences in consumer reactions to non-idealized models in marketing communications as determined by culture, is more complex and there is too little research on the matter to be able to predict what the expected results will be. Therefore, a portion of this study will be inductive rather than deductive as we attempt to use the data to develop a theory on the role of culture in these situations (Saunders et al., 2012).

5.2 Data Collection

In order to collect the data required to perform our analysis, we chose to utilize an online survey. The popularity of this type of data collection method has seen a steady rise in popularity due to the multiple advantages inherent to the format (Chang and Vowles, 2013). Some of the benefits of online surveys, as characterized in Chang and Vowles' (2013) research are highly pertinent to this study and as such will be discussed further.

Online surveys allow for the administration of the questions to the subject without an interviewer being physically present, thus reducing the chances that interviewer bias will occur (Chang and Vowles, 2013). This is of particular importance in this study as the questions asked will challenge the respondents to provide personal opinions which they may feel could be unpopular with the interviewer. By providing respondents with complete anonymity and without the opportunity for interviewer bias to occur it is more likely that the results will accurately reflect what the subjects' opinions are and thus provide a better basis upon which to base inferences about what these opinions may imply for future consumer behaviour. Chang and Vowles (2013) recognize this benefit by noting that online surveys may also be a means of desensitizing subjects who may otherwise find the topic controversial and potentially embarrassing.

In addition to this, online surveys are useful because they allow the subjects to respond to the survey when they are available to do so, making the process more convenient and flexible to the needs of the respondents (Chang and Vowles, 2013). In providing this increased level of convenience, we expect to be able to draw upon a larger sample of respondents than would be possible using other data collection methods, such as face to face or telephone interviews. Chang and Vowles (2013) also highlight that administering surveys online allows for sample to be from a pool unrestricted by geographic boundaries. This is a key benefit in the case of this study as without being able to study how responses differ between subjects hailing from different countries, we would be unable to account for how different cultures react to images of non-idealized women in advertising.

Nevertheless, the method does not come without its drawbacks, which, according to Chang and Vowles (2013), include 'truthfulness concerns', 'selection/sampling bias' and that respondents are constrained by their access to the internet. The issue of whether or not respondents are truthful in their responses is concerning, as by providing an incentive to

complete the survey there is the chance that certain respondents will complete the survey haphazardly simply in order to be eligible to participate in the draw for the incentive offered. However, using a relatively simple survey structure with limited questions that are straightforward to answer should reduce the chances of this as proper participation will not have a significant increase on the time costs incurred by the respondents.

Though the type of respondents will be limited somewhat by their access to the internet, the increased penetration of internet usage globally (International Telecommunication Union, 2014) reduces this issue somewhat. The study may, however, produce responses biased towards the type of consumer behaviour and opinions expressed by a younger demographic that the population at large due to the age distribution of internet users in general (International Telecommunication Union, 2011).

To collect the data, we elected to use Qualtrics, an internet based survey software. Qualtrics was selected due to the robust nature of the questionnaires that can be designed as compared to certain other online tools, and its suitability to conducting academic research. The software also facilitated analysis of the data collected, as the responses generated could be exported directly to SPSS. In order to ensure that a wide number of respondents could be reached and would have time to complete the survey, the data collection process remained open for 22 consecutive days.

5.3 Sample and Survey Collection

5.3.1 Sample selection

When conducting research a sample of the population is often used to reduce the amount of information needed to be able to make inferences that can be generalized to the population at large (Saunders et al., 2012). Due to the challenges and constraints faced, non-probability sampling was selected as the method for sample selection. Non-probability sampling is likely to contain sampling bias (Sachdeva, 2009) and as such may not yield results that are generalizable to the entire population. However, as the study at hand deals with relatively new subject matter, the conclusions drawn from the non-probability sample used will still be of value and can provide direction for future studies.

When conducting a study using non-probability sampling, the sample size required to generate useful information is less clearly defined than when using probability sampling (Saunders et al., 2012). As a consequence of this, the survey was distributed to as large a sample of respondents as possible in order to increase credibility. The technique used was self-selection sampling, describes by Saunders et al. (2012) as a ‘volunteer sampling technique’ in which respondents elect to participate in the study voluntarily.

5.3.2 Respondents

The survey was started by 474 participants, however only 388 respondents answered all the questions required; the drop-out rate was thus approximately 18%. Of the 388 respondents whose results were usable, 278 (71.6%) were female and 110 (28.4%) were male. A wide age range was also represented in the sample, with respondents falling within the range of 16-80 years old. The sample was, however, skewed towards a younger population with 152 (39.2%) of respondents under 25, 151 (38.9%) falling between the ages of 25 and 34, 26 (6.7%) between 35 and 44, 30 (7.7%) between 45 and 54, and 29 (7.5%) being 55 or above.

In addition to this, respondents reflected a variety of cultural backgrounds with over 45 nationalities represented in the sample. Nevertheless, when grouped together, only four countries had enough respondents to warrant considering them as separate groups: the United Kingdom (49 respondents), Canada (110 respondents), Lebanon (50 respondents) and Norway (50 respondents). The remaining 129 respondents were grouped together under a heading of ‘Others’ during the analysis and no generalizations about the countries from which the respondents in that group represented were able to be drawn.

5.3.3 Survey Collection Procedure

In order publicize the study and encourage participation, the possibility of involvement in the study was advertised in a wide variety of domains, including university classifieds, forums (The Student Room, GradCafe, Cosmopolitan UK and Mumsnet) and through social media (Facebook). There is also the possibility that some participants elected to further distribute the survey link to other individuals, further expanding the potential reach of the study.

To facilitate the data collection process, a survey link was generated which was distributed through the aforementioned channels. The distribution was accompanied by a brief description encouraging participants to take part and explaining that the survey was part of a

thesis project, would be short and that the responses would be anonymous. The tone and style of this message was edited to be suitable to the specific channels used. In order to ensure that the data from the completed surveys would be usable, a 'forced response' was implemented on all items, excluding the last question in which respondents were invited to share their views on women in advertising in an unstructured manner.

The survey was distributed only in English, limiting the number of potential responses and the type of respondents that were able to answer the survey in non-English speaking countries.

5.3.4 Improving the Response Rate

In order to encourage individuals to participate in the survey, all respondents were given the opportunity to participate in a draw for an Amazon gift-card worth \$50 (approximately 300 NOK). This tactic was employed as studies have found that the option of entering into a lottery is the most effective way of positively impacting the response rate to online surveys (Deutskens et al., 2004).

To be able to gather the data needed to run the draw, another, independent, survey was created using a Google Form which requested that interested participants enter their email and name. All participants were given a link to this Form once they had fully completed the survey and they were informed that entering the draw would not affect the anonymity of their results whatsoever. As there was no information overlap between the two surveys (the name and email address needed to complete the Google Form were not asked for at any point during the Qualtrics survey) it was not possible to link the responses and as such respondent anonymity was protected.

Furthermore, the survey was intentionally kept very short in hopes that the respondents would complete the survey in its entirety and not drop out part was through due to time costs. This limited the amount of data that could be collected from each individual participant, however it is likely that the strategy allowed for more individuals overall to participate (Deutskens et al., 2004).

5.4 Questionnaire Design

The survey used for this study was created using Qualtrics. All respondents were very briefly introduced to the topic, with an introductory statement explaining that the study concerned the images of women in advertising, but did not elaborate more on the purpose behind the research. Respondents were asked to imagine a fictitious women's clothing brand which was faced with a decision on which model to select for an upcoming campaign. After receiving this information, all respondents were then shown Model 1 and asked to respond to a series of questions regarding their perceptions of the model and of her potential use in the campaign. Following this, respondents were randomly assigned to one of two groups; one of which then received a framing message before being exposed to the images of the non-idealized models, and one that did not.

From the set of completed surveys, 196 respondents were not exposed to any framing message, whilst 192 were shown the following:

One advertising executive suggested using 'real women' more representative of the public in the campaign to encourage diversity and positive body image, instead of a traditional model.

The following models were selected based on that suggestion.

Respondents were then, again, asked to respond to a series of questions about each model. The images used are displayed in Appendix 2.

In a study conducted by Spears and Singh (2004), which examined how to appropriately measure A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} , brands unfamiliar to the subjects were used to ensure that the respondents' reactions were not being influenced by prior emotional connections or attitudes towards the brands in question. To emulate this approach, images that are likely to be unknown to our sample were used; in addition to this, all non-visual, verbal stimuli were removed from the images in question in order to ensure that the sample's responses were based on reactions to the images of the women being displayed and not to other stimuli such as logos, copy or other extraneous factors.

The survey used was pre-coded, rather than open, meaning that the questions were highly structured and respondents were asked to make a selection between the different options presented to them (Fisher and Buglear, 2010).

All questions relating to consumer behaviour (A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand}) were measured using single item measures as prescribed by Bergkvist and Rossiter (2009). The rationale behind using single item measures, rather than multiple item measures, was to increase the content validity of the survey by including less ‘off-item measures’ (Bergkvist and Rossiter, 2009) which would serve to detract from the specific construct being examined.

Whilst in the study conducted by Bergkvist and Rossiter (2009) measuring A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, we elected to use a 5-point Likert scale in this study. This was due to two reasons. Firstly, research conducted by McDonald (2013) revealed that there were no significant differences between participant answers when using a 10-point or 5-point Likert scale. The study found that the time taken to complete the survey administered was drastically reduced, but there was no trade off in the quality of data collected. Furthermore, during the pre-test a 7-point Likert scale was used to gauge participant responses before asking them to expand on their expressed sentiments more deeply. During the course of these interviews, it became apparent that respondents found it relatively difficult to decide between 7 different options because they felt some of the options were quite similar to one another. Therefore, due to both the findings of McDonald (2013) and those revealed during the pre-test, it was determined that the use of a 5-point scale would be both less cognitively- and time-demanding.

5.5 Operationalization of Variables

When conducting a research project, it is necessary to ensure that the variables are clearly defined and the means through which they are quantified is explicit (Krishnaswami and Satyaprasad, 2010). Krishnaswami and Satyaprasad (2010) explain that variables must be given an operational definition such that the research carried out can be replicated to ensure its validity. As such, the key variables being measured in this study will be operationalized in this section.

5.5.1 Consumer Behavior

Within the scope of this study, consumer behaviour groups together three variables: A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} . These constructs were measured using the single item measures developed by Bergkvist and Rossiter (2009) which measured attitude towards the ad on a ‘like-dislike’

scale, brand attitude on a 'good-bad' scale and purchase intentions on a 'likely-unlikely' to buy scale.

5.5.2 Idealized and Non-Idealized Models

Dillavou (2009) uses the term *traditional-looking models* in the same manner that other researchers, and this study, use the term *idealized models*. Dillavou (2009) defines these as models who have 'slimmer figures, matching thinness ideals; they therefore appear "sexier." Traditional models have body sizes 0-2, with facial and body features not common to the average person, such as large, wide-set eyes, large lips and clear, flawless skin'. Richins (1991) noted that idealized images of women portrayed models that were 'unrealistically attractive and...unrealistically thin'.

The definitions available of what features non-idealized models possess is even less developed than that of idealized models. Agerup (2010) investigated the use of *real women* in marketing communications and noted that 'exactly what a real woman is remains unclear, but it is obvious that weight and body shape is the central factor. It is the common and most emphasized characteristic of the real women displayed by the various companies, and it is also the focus of the copy on their web sites. It is, however, important to note that weight in this context does not mean obesity. The models' weight is high only compared to that of traditional fashion models'. As such images of *real women* may constitute a sub-category of what is being considered by this study as non-idealized models; however it does not encompass the entire category.

For the purposes of this study, non-idealized models are categorized as those women used in advertising campaigns that are not professional models, or that do not conform to the standard beauty ideal portrayed by contemporary advertising. To further clarify this concept we include in this group women who are: larger than the average model (the average BMI of models is 17.5 (Lassek, 2012), whilst the 'normal' range is between 18.5 and 24.9 (NHS, 2012)), older than the average model, alternatively abled (such as those who have had a limb amputated, are in a wheelchair etc.), athletic women and transgendered or transsexual women. This list is by no means exhaustive, but is indicative of both the types of non-idealized model found in advertising campaigns and that have been used in this research. Two factors are important to note; firstly, the use of larger, older or athletic women would not be considered non-idealized if used in a campaign for a brand strongly tied to the

category the model represents. As such, it is not notable if a larger model represents a plus-sized clothing brand, or an athletic woman is featured in a campaign for a sports brand. Secondly, in this study, non-idealized images of women have also been included in the category of non-idealized models. That is to say that if a campaign features women who are not airbrushed or have not had their images modified in any way as is ubiquitous in current advertising, the image would be considered non-idealized.

To further nuance the study, we created a distinction between the types of non-idealized models possible to use in marketing communications. These have been termed ‘expected’ and ‘unexpected’ non-idealized models. Expected non-idealized models are those who individuals would struggle to differentiate from idealized models – therefore their images, if used in a campaign, would largely be what is expected to be seen. These include images of women who are non-professional models but largely conform to the beauty ideals described previously, or images that have not been retouched. Unexpected non-idealized models however, are those that are noticeably different to the types of models normally used. The distinction between these two types of non-idealized models is blurry as many may fall somewhere in between these two categories. These groupings were created for the purposes of this study to better understand consumer reactions and create a simple term which could be used to refer to the broad type of model used in a campaign and are not intended to be thought of as distinct groups. In reality, most images of non-idealized models would lie somewhere on a continuum between the two, as evident in Table 1 in Section 4.1.5.

Our proposed operationalization of this construct was used when selecting the images shown to participants in the pre-tests and their responses validated our perceptions of what constituted idealized and both expected and unexpected non-idealized models.

5.5.3 Culture

Hofstede (2003) defines culture as ‘the collective programming of the mind, distinguishing the members of one group or category of people from others’ and refers to it on a national level. Culture is often not tied strictly to nations and some academics view Hofstede’s theory as misguided (McSweeney, 2002). Nevertheless, in this study Hofstede’s idea of understanding culture on a national level will be used and therefore nationality will be used as a proxy for culture. In the cases that a respondent listed more than one nationality when asked to specify theirs, the first nationality or country listed was logged.

6. Results

6.1.1 Hypothesis 1

All respondents were exposed to images of all four models and a single-item measure was used to determine A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} . The mean results for these measures of consumer attitudes and purchase intentions are shown below in Table 2, where it is evident that Model 1 and Model 3 scored higher than Models 2 and 4. A one-way ANOVA was run to determine whether these results were significant or not, the results of which can be found in Table 3.

Table 2: Mean Viewer Responses to the Various Models

Model Number		Attitude Towards the Ad	Brand Attitude	Purchase Intentions
Model 1	Mean	3.32	3.23	3.07
Model 2	Mean	2.52	2.65	2.46
Model 3	Mean	3.41	3.39	3.35
Model 4	Mean	2.63	2.68	2.47

Table 3: ANOVA Results for Consumer Attitudes and Purchase Intentions by Model

		Sig.
Attitude Towards the Ad	Between Groups	.000
	Within Groups	
	Total	
Brand Attitude	Between Groups	.000
	Within Groups	
	Total	
Purchase Intentions	Between Groups	.000
	Within Groups	
	Total	

The results of the ANOVA show that there was significant divergence between models on A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} . Post hoc tests were carried out to clarify these findings, the results of which are in Table 4.

Table 4: Results of Post Hoc Tests - Multiple Comparisons using Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Model Number	(J) Model Number	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Attitude Towards the Ad	Model 1	Model 2	.799 ⁺	.065	.000
		Model 3	-.088	.065	.536
		Model 4	.688 ⁺	.065	.000
	Model 2	Model 1	-.799 ⁺	.065	.000
		Model 3	-.887 ⁺	.065	.000
		Model 4	-.111	.065	.325
	Model 3	Model 1	.088	.065	.536
		Model 2	.887 ⁺	.065	.000
		Model 4	.776 ⁺	.065	.000
	Model 4	Model 1	-.688 ⁺	.065	.000
		Model 2	.111	.065	.325
		Model 3	-.776 ⁺	.065	.000
Brand Attitude	Model 1	Model 2	.585 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 3	-.157	.066	.082
		Model 4	.554 ⁺	.066	.000
	Model 2	Model 1	-.585 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 3	-.742 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 4	-.031	.066	.966
	Model 3	Model 1	.157	.066	.082
		Model 2	.742 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 4	.711 ⁺	.066	.000
	Model 4	Model 1	-.554 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 2	.031	.066	.966
		Model 3	-.711 ⁺	.066	.000
Purchase Intentions	Model 1	Model 2	.608 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 3	-.281 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 4	.595 ⁺	.066	.000
	Model 2	Model 1	-.608 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 3	-.889 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 4	-.013	.066	.997
	Model 3	Model 1	.281 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 2	.889 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 4	.876 ⁺	.066	.000
	Model 4	Model 1	-.595 ⁺	.066	.000
		Model 2	.013	.066	.997
		Model 3	-.876 ⁺	.066	.000

From these results the null hypothesis can be rejected and Hypothesis 1 is supported. That is to say that the type of model used does have a significant impact on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions.

6.1.2 Hypothesis 2

All respondents were exposed to Model 1 (idealized model) without a framing message as a control (N=388). For the three non-idealized models, respondents were either exposed to the un-primed condition (N=196), or the primed condition (N=192).

From the descriptive statistics displayed in Table 5, it can be seen that scores for A_{Ad} were higher when exposed to models in a framed, rather than unframed, context. These results are similar for the other facets of consumer behaviour measured and the results of these can be found in Appendix 3.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to see if the variance in scores exhibited between those exposed to a framing message were significantly different than those who were not the results of which are found in Table 6.

Table 5: Mean Results of Attitude Towards the Ad in Framed and Unframed Contexts by Model

Model Number	Framed/Unframed	Mean
Model 1	Unframed	3.32
	Framed	3.32
	Total	3.32
Model 2	Unframed	2.48
	Framed	2.56
	Total	2.52
Model 3	Unframed	3.31
	Framed	3.51
	Total	3.41
Model 4	Unframed	2.56
	Framed	2.71
	Total	2.63
Total	Unframed	2.92
	Framed	3.02
	Total	2.97

Table 6: Independent Samples T-Test Between Populations Exposed and Not Exposed to a Framing Message

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Attitude Towards the Ad	Equal variances assumed	2.193	.139	-2.116	1550	.035	-.106	.050	-.205	-.008
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.116	1549.919	.034	-.106	.050	-.205	-.008
Brand Attitude	Equal variances assumed	.694	.405	-1.320	1550	.187	-.065	.050	-.163	.032
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.320	1549.956	.187	-.065	.050	-.163	.032
Purchase Intentions	Equal variances assumed	3.786	.052	-2.040	1550	.041	-.102	.050	-.201	-.004
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.041	1549.999	.041	-.102	.050	-.201	-.004

In line with the mean results, the t-tests confirmed that for A_{Ad} and PI_{Brand} , showing viewers a framing message prior to exposing them to the models did have a significant effect, whilst there was no significant effect for A_{Brand} . Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is partially supported.

6.1.3 Hypothesis 3

The means of viewer opinions displayed in Table 7 indicate that the models used elicit opinions of varying strengths.

Table 7: Means of Viewer Opinions by Model

	Model Number	Mean
Model Attractiveness	Model 1	3.47
	Model 2	2.09
	Model 3	3.48
	Model 4	1.94
Similarity of Self to Model	Model 1	2.20
	Model 2	1.55
	Model 3	2.70
	Model 4	1.55
Likeability of Model	Model 1	3.41
	Model 2	2.24
	Model 3	3.32
	Model 4	2.39
Suitability of Model	Model 1	3.63
	Model 2	2.44
	Model 3	3.70
	Model 4	2.49
Degree of Inspiration Elicited by the Model	Model 1	2.68
	Model 2	2.65
	Model 3	2.88
	Model 4	2.33
Typicality of Model	Model 1	3.15
	Model 2	1.59
	Model 3	3.64
	Model 4	1.97

Table 8: ANOVA Results for Dimensions of Viewer Opinions by Model

		Sig.
Model Attractiveness	Between Groups	.000
	Within Groups	
	Total	
Similarity of Self to Model	Between Groups	.000
	Within Groups	
	Total	
Likeability of Model	Between Groups	.000
	Within Groups	
	Total	
Suitability of Model	Between Groups	.000
	Within Groups	
	Total	
Degree of Inspiration Elicited by the Model	Between Groups	.000
	Within Groups	
	Total	
Typicality of Model	Between Groups	.000
	Within Groups	
	Total	

A one-way ANOVA showed that these differences in viewer opinions of the models were significant. Post hoc tests showed that for half the dimensions tested these differences were, similarly to the trends found previously, predominantly between the idealized or expected non-idealized model (Models 1 and 3) and the unexpected non-idealized models (Models 2 and 4). However, on the dimensions of similarity of self to the model, degree of inspiration elicited by the model and model typicality a different pattern of results emerged. These can be seen in Table 9.

Table 9: Results of Post Hoc Tests - Multiple Comparisons using Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Model Number	(J) Model Number	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Model Attractiveness	Model 1	Model 2	1.381 [*]	.069	.000	1.20	1.56
		Model 3	-.015	.069	.996	-.19	.16
		Model 4	1.531 [*]	.069	.000	1.35	1.71
	Model 2	Model 1	-1.381 [*]	.069	.000	-1.56	-1.20
		Model 3	-1.397 [*]	.069	.000	-1.58	-1.22
		Model 4	.149	.069	.136	-.03	.33
	Model 3	Model 1	.015	.069	.996	-.16	.19
		Model 2	1.397 [*]	.069	.000	1.22	1.58
		Model 4	1.546 [*]	.069	.000	1.37	1.72
	Model 4	Model 1	-1.531 [*]	.069	.000	-1.71	-1.35
		Model 2	-.149	.069	.136	-.33	.03
		Model 3	-1.546 [*]	.069	.000	-1.72	-1.37
Similarity of Self to Model	Model 1	Model 2	.655 [*]	.071	.000	.47	.84
		Model 3	-.495 [*]	.071	.000	-.68	-.31
		Model 4	.649 [*]	.071	.000	.47	.83
	Model 2	Model 1	-.655 [*]	.071	.000	-.84	-.47
		Model 3	-1.149 [*]	.071	.000	-1.33	-.97
		Model 4	-.005	.071	1.000	-.19	.18
	Model 3	Model 1	.495 [*]	.071	.000	.31	.68
		Model 2	1.149 [*]	.071	.000	.97	1.33
		Model 4	1.144 [*]	.071	.000	.96	1.33
	Model 4	Model 1	-.649 [*]	.071	.000	-.83	-.47
		Model 2	.005	.071	1.000	-.18	.19
		Model 3	-1.144 [*]	.071	.000	-1.33	-.96
Likeability of Model	Model 1	Model 2	1.173 [*]	.069	.000	1.00	1.35
		Model 3	.090	.069	.556	-.09	.27
		Model 4	1.015 [*]	.069	.000	.84	1.19
	Model 2	Model 1	-1.173 [*]	.069	.000	-1.35	-1.00
		Model 3	-1.082 [*]	.069	.000	-1.26	-.91
		Model 4	-.157	.069	.102	-.33	.02
	Model 3	Model 1	-.090	.069	.556	-.27	.09
		Model 2	1.082 [*]	.069	.000	.91	1.26
		Model 4	.925 [*]	.069	.000	.75	1.10
	Model 4	Model 1	-1.015 [*]	.069	.000	-1.19	-.84
		Model 2	.157	.069	.102	-.02	.33
		Model 3	-.925 [*]	.069	.000	-1.10	-.75

Suitability of Model	Model 1	Model 2	1.191 ⁺	.075	.000	1.00	1.38
		Model 3	-.070	.075	.789	-.26	.12
		Model 4	1.139 ⁺	.075	.000	.95	1.33
	Model 2	Model 1	-1.191 ⁺	.075	.000	-1.38	-1.00
		Model 3	-1.260 ⁺	.075	.000	-1.45	-1.07
		Model 4	-.052	.075	.901	-.24	.14
	Model 3	Model 1	.070	.075	.789	-.12	.26
		Model 2	1.260 ⁺	.075	.000	1.07	1.45
		Model 4	1.209 ⁺	.075	.000	1.02	1.40
		Model 1	-1.139 ⁺	.075	.000	-1.33	-.95
Model 4	Model 2	.052	.075	.901	-.14	.24	
	Model 3	-1.209 ⁺	.075	.000	-1.40	-1.02	
Degree of Inspiration Elicited by the Model	Model 1	Model 2	.036	.083	.972	-.18	.25
		Model 3	-.201	.083	.072	-.41	.01
		Model 4	.351 ⁺	.083	.000	.14	.56
	Model 2	Model 1	-.036	.083	.972	-.25	.18
		Model 3	-.237 ⁺	.083	.022	-.45	-.02
		Model 4	.314 ⁺	.083	.001	.10	.53
	Model 3	Model 1	.201	.083	.072	-.01	.41
		Model 2	.237 ⁺	.083	.022	.02	.45
		Model 4	.552 ⁺	.083	.000	.34	.76
		Model 1	-.351 ⁺	.083	.000	-.56	-.14
Model 4	Model 2	-.314 ⁺	.083	.001	-.53	-.10	
	Model 3	-.552 ⁺	.083	.000	-.76	-.34	
Typicality of Model	Model 1	Model 2	1.564 ⁺	.073	.000	1.38	1.75
		Model 3	-.485 ⁺	.073	.000	-.67	-.30
		Model 4	1.186 ⁺	.073	.000	1.00	1.37
	Model 2	Model 1	-1.564 ⁺	.073	.000	-1.75	-1.38
		Model 3	-2.049 ⁺	.073	.000	-2.24	-1.86
		Model 4	-.379 ⁺	.073	.000	-.57	-.19
	Model 3	Model 1	.485 ⁺	.073	.000	.30	.67
		Model 2	2.049 ⁺	.073	.000	1.86	2.24
		Model 4	1.670 ⁺	.073	.000	1.48	1.86
		Model 1	-1.186 ⁺	.073	.000	-1.37	-1.00
Model 4	Model 2	.379 ⁺	.073	.000	.19	.57	
	Model 3	-1.670 ⁺	.073	.000	-1.86	-1.48	

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

However, to better understand the relationship between these different variables prior to further testing, a factor analysis was conducted. The factor analysis showed that many of the dimensions grouped together under the umbrella of ‘viewer opinions’ were correlated with each other and overlapped producing redundant results. The six dimensions could be grouped into one factor based on the findings shown in Tables 10 and 11, using averages weighted by their factor loadings (shown in Table 12), which were then subsequently rounded to the nearest integer.

Table 10: Total Variance Explained by Factors of Viewer Opinions

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.699	61.651	61.651	3.300	55.001	55.001
2	.762	12.693	74.344			
3	.613	10.218	84.562			
4	.421	7.021	91.583			
5	.263	4.381	95.964			
6	.242	4.036	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table 11: Scree Plot Showing Total Variance Explained by Factors

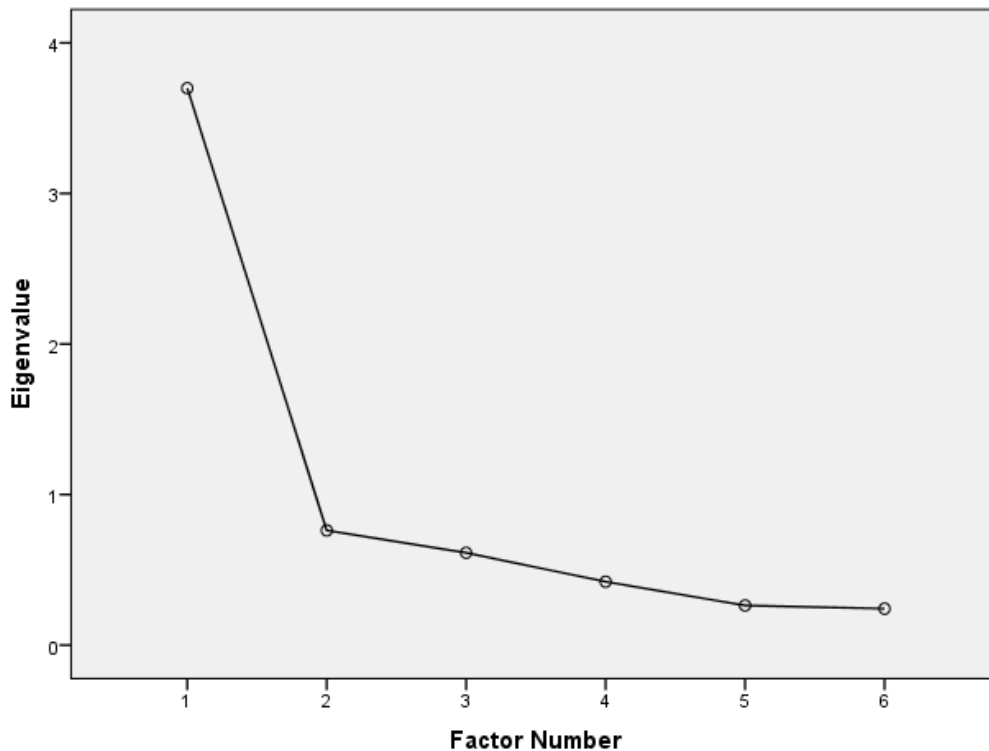


Table 12: Factor Matrix for Viewer Opinions

	Factor
	1
Likeability of Model	.870
Model Attractiveness	.862
Suitability of Model	.833
Degree of Inspiration Elicited by the Model	.619
Similarity of Self to Model	.610
Typicality of Model	.592

Following the creation of the 'viewer opinions' average, a MANOVA was conducted. Table 13 shows that consumer behavior is significantly dependent on overall viewer opinions.

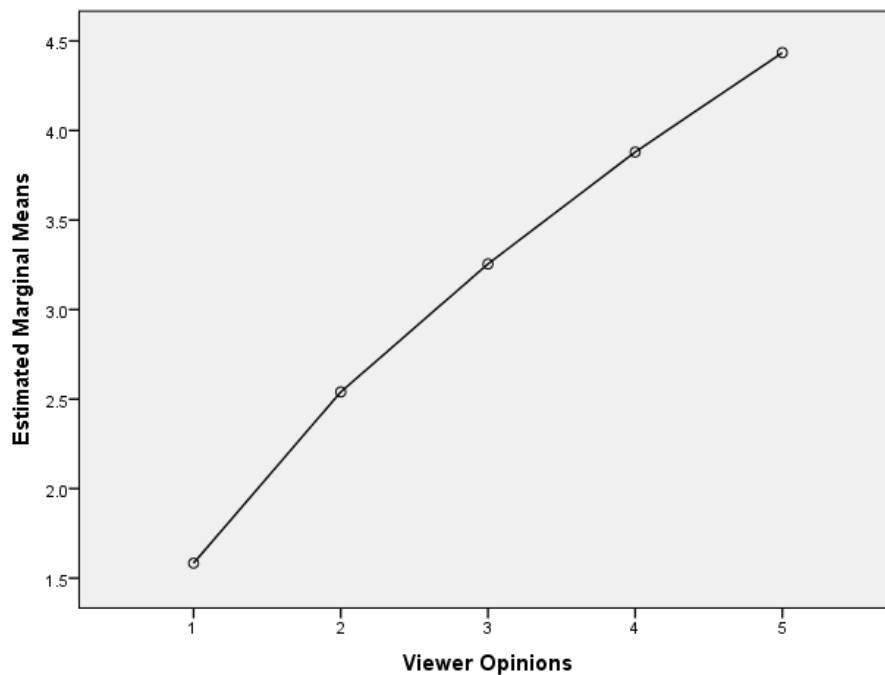
Table 13: Multivariate Tests of Viewer Opinions on Consumer Behavior

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.893	4319.268 ^b	3.000	1545.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.107	4319.268 ^b	3.000	1545.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	8.387	4319.268 ^b	3.000	1545.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	8.387	4319.268 ^b	3.000	1545.000	.000
Viewer Opinions	Pillai's Trace	.608	98.231	12.000	4641.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.398	141.729	12.000	4087.977	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	1.495	192.329	12.000	4631.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	1.485	574.310 ^c	4.000	1547.000	.000

The results shown in Table 14 further elaborate on this and show that for all three measures of consumer behavior examined in this study: attitude towards the ad, brand attitude and purchase intentions, viewer opinions have a significant effect. Graphs showing the estimated marginal means for viewer opinions on A_{Ad} are presented in Table 15, and the same for A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} can be found in Appendix 4. All show a similar trend, namely that as overall viewer opinion scores rise, there is a similarly positive effect on the dependent variable. These results, coupled with those testing the relationship between model type and viewer opinions, show that Hypothesis 3 is supported and the null hypothesis can be rejected.

Table 14: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects of Viewer Opinions on Consumer Behavior

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Attitude Towards the Ad	837.118 ^a	4	209.280	471.632	.000 ^a
	Brand Attitude	700.466 ^b	4	175.117	347.203	.000 ^b
	Purchase Intentions	710.193 ^c	4	177.548	340.130	.000 ^c
Intercept	Attitude Towards the Ad	4433.871	1	4433.871	9992.155	.000
	Brand Attitude	4372.807	1	4372.807	8669.958	.000
	Purchase Intentions	4115.334	1	4115.334	7883.761	.000
Viewer Opinions	Attitude Towards the Ad	837.118	4	209.280	471.632	.000
	Brand Attitude	700.466	4	175.117	347.203	.000
	Purchase Intentions	710.193	4	177.548	340.130	.000
Error	Attitude Towards the Ad	686.458	1547	.444		
	Brand Attitude	780.250	1547	.504		
	Purchase Intentions	807.536	1547	.522		
Total	Attitude Towards the Ad	15211.000	1552			
	Brand Attitude	15323.000	1552			
	Purchase Intentions	14026.000	1552			
Corrected Total	Attitude Towards the Ad	1523.577	1551			
	Brand Attitude	1480.716	1551			
	Purchase Intentions	1517.729	1551			

Table 15: Estimated Marginal Means of Attitude Towards the Ad by Viewer Opinions

6.1.4 Hypothesis 4

Table 16 highlights the various means for A_{Ad} elicited for each model by viewer nationality. In order to examine whether or not the differences in these means was significant, ANOVA tests were run, the results of which are shown in Tables 17 and 18.

Table 16: Descriptive Statistics of Attitude Towards the Ad by Model and Nationality

Model Number	Nationality	Mean
Model 1	Canadian	3.35
	Norwegian	3.36
	British	3.12
	Lebanese	3.48
	Other	3.29
	Total	3.32
Model 2	Canadian	2.76
	Norwegian	2.70
	British	2.45
	Lebanese	1.92
	Other	2.50
	Total	2.52
Model 3	Canadian	3.37
	Norwegian	3.52
	British	3.41
	Lebanese	3.46
	Other	3.37
	Total	3.41
Model 4	Canadian	2.68
	Norwegian	2.64
	British	2.78
	Lebanese	2.44
	Other	2.60
	Total	2.63

From the results of the ANOVA found in Table 17, it can be seen that the differences between nationalities (V2), the differences between the responses to each model (Q34), as well as the interaction effect between the two variables (Q34*V2) all hold significant differences. Post hoc tests were thus examined to determine which nationalities in particular differed from each other in a statistically significant way.

Table 17: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects of Model Type by Nationality for Attitude Towards the Ad

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	278.680 ^a	19	14.667	18.050	.000
Intercept	11347.581	1	11347.581	13964.609	.000
Q34	226.721	3	75.574	93.003	.000
V2	8.606	4	2.152	2.648	.032
Q34 * V2	25.660	12	2.138	2.631	.002
Error	1244.897	1532	.813		
Total	15211.000	1552			
Corrected Total	1523.577	1551			

Table 19 shows the results of the post hoc tests which reveal that the nations that had statistically significant differences in A_{Ad} were respondents from Canada and Lebanon.

Table 18: Estimated Marginal Means of Attitude Towards the Ad by Nationality and Model

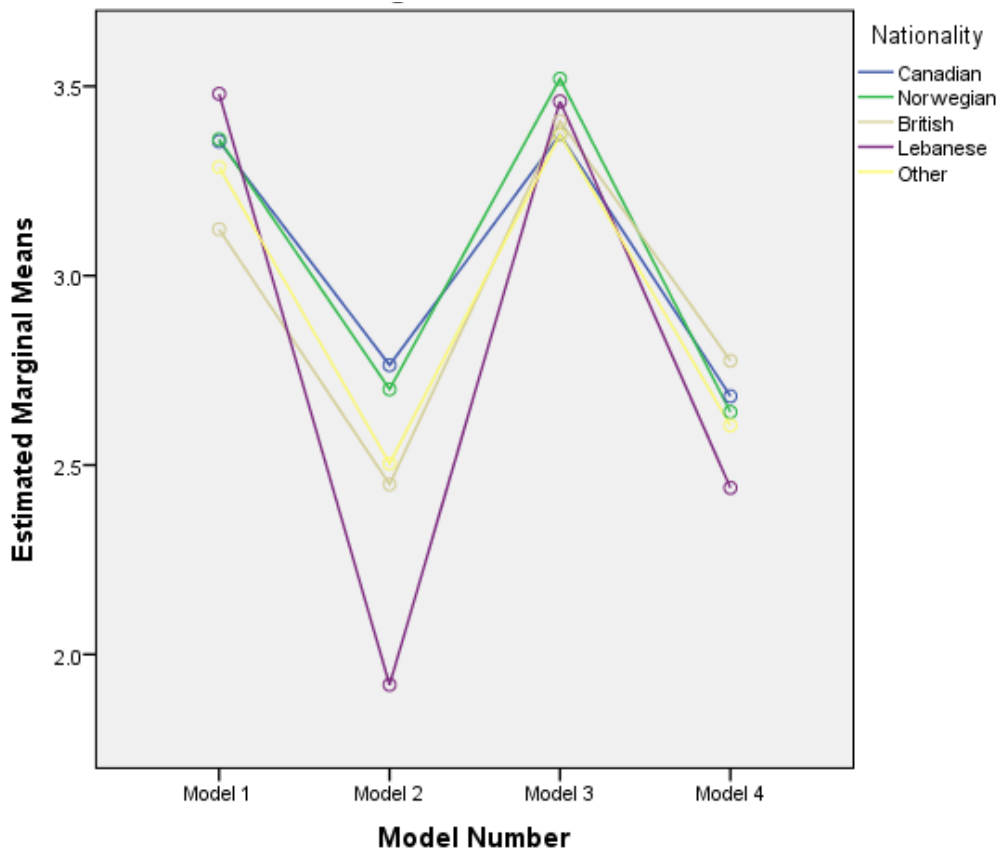


Table 18: Multiple Comparisons by Nationality for Attitude Towards the Ad

(I) Nationality	(J) Nationality	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Canadian	Norwegian	-.01	.077	1.000	-.22	.20
	British	.10	.077	.661	-.11	.32
	Lebanese	.22*	.077	.037	.01	.43
	Other	.10	.058	.414	-.06	.26
Norwegian	Canadian	.01	.077	1.000	-.20	.22
	British	.12	.091	.702	-.13	.36
	Lebanese	.23	.090	.080	-.02	.48
	Other	.11	.075	.558	-.09	.32
British	Canadian	-.10	.077	.661	-.32	.11
	Norwegian	-.12	.091	.702	-.36	.13
	Lebanese	.11	.091	.718	-.13	.36
	Other	.00	.076	1.000	-.21	.20
Lebanese	Canadian	-.22*	.077	.037	-.43	-.01
	Norwegian	-.23	.090	.080	-.48	.02
	British	-.11	.091	.718	-.36	.13
	Other	-.12	.075	.526	-.32	.09
Other	Canadian	-.10	.058	.414	-.26	.06
	Norwegian	-.11	.075	.558	-.32	.09
	British	.00	.076	1.000	-.20	.21
	Lebanese	.12	.075	.526	-.09	.32

Viewers' reactions by nationality for A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} were similar to those for attitude towards the ad. Tabulated results for these can be found in Appendix 5. Based on the results found, there is evidence of culture, using nationality as a proxy, having some effect on viewer judgement of the models used. Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected and Hypothesis 4 is supported.

7. Discussion

7.1 Theoretical Implications

By surveying a wide range of respondents from diverse countries, this study was able to further develop the understanding of using non-idealized models in advertising. Furthermore, because this study exposed respondents to a non-idealized model that had a body type alternative to those usually tested in other studies examining consumer responses to non-standard body types in marketing communications, we were able to add a finer degree of distinction to the results and contribute to the expanding set of literature on the topic.

7.1.1 The Effect of Model Type on Consumer Behavior

The initial findings of how the different model types used affect subsequent viewer attitudes and purchase intentions was relatively unsurprising. Exposure to Model 1 (idealized) and Model 3 (expected non-idealized) resulted in higher scores for A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} , lending support to the idea that the use of attractive models, as discussed in Section 2.1.1, is a sound decision.

Also, as expected, when exposed to the unexpected non-idealized models, respondents reported lower scores for these measures of consumer behaviour. Yakhlef (1999) discussed the notion that the ‘function of advertising is to create desire’ and, as mentioned previously, Adomaitis and Johnson (2008) found that consumers of fashion advertising preferred to be presented with unrealistic ideals of beauty that they could strive to emulate – rather than everyday ‘real people’. Therefore these findings indicate that consumers do want to be presented with images that inspire some sort of aspirational fantasy.

This counters the thinking behind the trend of using ‘real women’ in current advertising, however, while it is not possible to provide an exact reason for this result, some ideas can be put forth. Both the unexpected non-idealized models selected for inclusion in the study were strikingly different to those normally featured in advertisements, but also are likely to be different to the average consumer, therefore it is possible that the respondents did not feel that there was any self-image congruence between themselves and the models. In particular, as these images were not particularly aspirational, there would also be diminished chances

that the respondents would develop positive affect based on the models inspiring consumers to be closer to their ideal self (Sirgy, 1982).

However, the use of models less radically different from the population could yield different results; particularly if the models were not in possession of unattainable beauty but rather were only moderately more attractive than the viewers. These ‘assimilative’ (Nichols and Schumann, 2012) campaigns may be in a better position to stimulate positive consumer behaviour.

7.1.2 The Effect of Framing on Consumer Behavior

Part of the success of campaigns using ‘real women’ may be attributable to the amount of media attention they receive; because of this, it is important to understand how framing the message, in a way similar to the way it would be framed by the media, will affect consumer assessments of the advertisement. At face value, the models generally scored higher when viewers were exposed to a framing message before being shown the models. This was a statistically significant shift for both A_{Ad} and PI_{Brand} , however, not for A_{Brand} .

Exposure to an advertisement is likely to have a stronger effect on A_{Ad} than A_{Brand} (Rossiter and Bergkvist, 2009). As A_{Brand} is harder to influence than A_{Ad} , both the quantity, either frequency or depth, and quality, or tone, of the prime must be considered. As previously mentioned, the success of the Dove ‘Campaign for Real Beauty’ was in part due to the huge amounts of publicity it generated (Malmelin and Hakala, 2009), and therefore may have set the stage for the way in which the public understood the value of the campaign (Yi, 1990). The experiment conducted only exposed respondents to a brief and mildly positive statement as a framing message; as such it may not have effectively mimicked the effects of a strong PR campaign that may create a strong A_{Brand} .

It was presumed that the use of an expected non-idealized model in conjunction with a framing message might cause viewers to score the model lower on the dimensions of consumer behaviour measured as they might feel there is a lack of congruence between the framed message and the actual stimulus. However this was not the case and Model 3 (expected non-idealized) did stimulate a significant positive shift in indicators of consumer behaviour when viewers were exposed to a framing message. We hypothesized that such a message would not seem genuine and thus create a negative affective reaction from the individuals participating in the study, but this did not appear to be the case. This could be

explained by Aagerup's (2010) proposal that consumers are more inclined to favour goods that they can identify with for ethical reasons. Therefore, the idea that the model being used is a means of instigating the acceptance of a wider range of body types or lessening the negative effects created by using idealized models is appealing to consumers, regardless of whether or not they can distinguish the non-idealized model from an idealized one.

This suggests that, to some extent, if advertisers choose to make a bold move by presenting a shocking stimulus in an attempt to garner attention, framing the communication for viewers and placing the stimulus in an appropriate context may make up for the other drawbacks of its use somewhat. This is in accordance with the idea that shocking images are more likely to be accepted by viewers if there is a positive social reason for its employ (Virvilaite and Matuleviciene, 2013).

7.1.3 The Effects of Viewer Opinions on Consumer Behavior

Taken as a whole, the study revealed many interesting insights about how viewer opinions about the model used in an advertisement affect consumer behaviour.

One such insight is that though ratings of attractiveness of idealized and non-idealized models is correlated to positive A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} , it is by no means the most indicative of the 'components' of viewer opinions for these measures. Therefore the idea that 'what is beautiful is good' (Dion, Berscheid and Walter, 1972) must be taken with a pinch of salt, or expanded to include some qualifying statements. Nevertheless, it is one of the stronger determinants of consumer behaviour identified through this study and thus lends support to the idea that the use of attractive models is beneficial to marketers.

As a determinant of A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} , similarity was a relatively poor indicator across the board. Respondents found all the models to be dissimilar to themselves, though the unexpected non-idealized models were seen as more dissimilar than the idealized and expected non-idealized models (see Table 7). This may be in part due to the fact that the unexpected non-idealized models selected represent representations of women that, while 'real', are not the norm and as such are less similar to the average person.

However, that similarity was such a poor predictor of consumer behaviour calls into question Nichols and Schumann's (2012) proposal that consumers' attitudes are strongly influenced

by whether models depicted in advertisements are seen as similar to themselves. It appears that other criteria are much more significant.

The coefficient of determination remained consistently strong for likeability for A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} . This is consistent with research such as that of Petty et al. (1983) who discussed that endorser likeability may be more influential than other information encoded within a piece of marketing communication. Taking in to account the discussion in the previous section, it could well be that a likeable, aspirational, non-idealized model paired with a strong framed message would create very positive effects on consumer judgements and behaviour. From the descriptive statistics, it can be seen that the unexpected non-idealized models received weaker scores on the attribute of likeability (see Table 7), whilst the idealised model and the expected non-idealized model had stronger likeability scores.

However, the current study does not explore the antecedents of what makes a model more or less likeable, which is an avenue that should be pursued further in order to be able to appropriately select models which are likeable – idealized or non-idealized. Chaiken (1979) discussed the theory that attractive individuals may be seen as more likeable, therefore there may be some intersection between the two ‘opinions’ – though evidently ratings of likeability must include other components to account for the differences in coefficient of determination scores.

Another viewer opinion that was consistently a strong indicator was suitability. Again, it is difficult from this study to exactly determine what will result in the assessment that a model is ‘suitable’ for use in an advertisement as this may differ from individual to individual. Nevertheless, the significant correlation between suitability and A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} shows that respondents want to see a model that they feel is appropriate. Additionally, from the descriptive statistics in Table 7, it is clear that the participants in the study did not feel as though the unexpected non-idealized models were as suitable to use in a marketing campaign as the other models tested.

The fact that suitability was a good predictor however is in line with Kamins and Gupta’s (1994) findings that increased congruence between endorser and product result in more positive attitudes.

The degree to which a model was seen as ‘inspiring’ was a moderately strong determinant of A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} . However, as mentioned in regards to the link between consumer

behaviour and likeability, this study has not explored the antecedents to what makes a model 'inspiring'. The rationale that was given previously for expecting that inspirational models would be perceived more positively was that images that were deemed inspiring could be regarded as aspirational. However, from the descriptive statistics shown in Table 7, it can be seen that all the models had relatively similar scores in regards to inspiration and that all were slightly negative. This indicates that consumers are not necessarily inspired more by models typically seen as highly aspirational (conforming to the standard beauty ideal) than those who did not. This challenges the proposition put forth by Nicholas and Schumann (2012) that the images typically used in advertisements are inspiring to consumers and seen as depicting a desirable state which can be remedied by purchase of the goods being touted.

Typicality was the poorest overall indicator, which, when taking the scores for suitability into account, could be a sign that whether or not a model is seen as one that is usually used in an advertisement doesn't necessarily imply that they are suitable to be used in one. This could show that consumers are getting bored by 'typical' models that conform to the standard look usually depicted in advertisements. Drawing from different areas of marketing research, that typicality is not strongly related to consumer behaviour could be evidence of variety seeking behaviour. Simonson (1990) describes consumer motivation for variety seeking behaviour as due to 'people's need for novelty, chance and complexity, which are inherently satisfying'. As consumers seek out this type of variety in their consumption of products and services, it is not a leap to consider that they might seek variety in their consumption of advertising as well. Thus, the use of non-typical models, or non-idealized models, would not necessarily be negative as typicality does not appear to be requisite for positive assessments.

The results of the MANOVA showed that as the collective 'viewer opinions' rose, so did the measures of consumer behaviour measured, in line with balance theory. This shows that there is a relationship between the two variables; however our analysis does reveal that the dimensions of viewer opinions examined in the study do not account for all the shift in consumer behaviour, indicating that there are also other components that serve to affect this.

7.1.4 The Effects of Cultural Background on Consumer Behavior

Some of the most interesting findings from this analysis are the significant differences between model type and nationality on consumer opinions. As would potentially be expected, A_{Ad} holds the only significant interaction effect between model type and nationality. This could be due to a variety of factors, including the fact that according to Spears and Singh (2004), attitudes are easier to manipulate in general than purchase intentions. The other dependent variables, namely A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} ask the viewer to make an assumption, judgment, or purchase decision based on one image of a model, without knowledge of any other brand attributes or characteristics.. Having to come up with all of these factors internally may have led viewers to a place of confusion or having to make too many individual assumptions and decisions on their own, which may have led to increasing frustration, resulting in a weaker reaction and resulting scores.

Typically, to create a strong A_{Brand} and positive PI_{Brand} viewers must be exposed to an advertising message repeatedly and as such require this repeated exposure to be able to make an informed judgment about their future potential intentions to purchase the brand. However in this study, participants were asked to make those decisions relatively rapidly and after only one exposure to the stimulus. For some, this lack of the 'mere exposure effect' (Zajonc, 2001) may have proved to be too much pressure, and in order to avoid (in this case simulated) buyer remorse or purchase dissatisfaction, viewers may have tended to rank scores for A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} lower than they may have should they have been exposed more frequently or over a longer period of time to these specific images.

An example from the results of the analysis in this study proves to solidify this point further. During testing, A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} were measured using ANOVA testing against various cultural backgrounds to determine if cultural factors significantly influenced these outcomes for various models. The most significant differences in opinion when comparing general means appeared in results pertaining to Model 2, the muscular model, and Model 4, the relatively 'plus' size, punk image model. For this example, the previously elaborated on cultural dimension of masculinity vs. femininity will be used as a comparison factor. On this cultural dimension, the scores for the observed countries are as follows: UK 66, Lebanon 65, Canada 52, and Norway 8. To be clear, the higher number indicates a higher level of this dimension, closer to being ranked number one on masculinity in comparison to all other

countries, while a lower numerical score indicates a position closer to the femininity end of the spectrum as a generality for the overall culture.

If these scores are interpreted as gender distinction, in that highly masculine cultures have a significant difference between how a male and female should act, it could be assumed that due to the masculine quality inherent in larger, more defined muscle tone, that this model (Model 2) would be seen as too unconventional, testing the category limits of what a woman should typically fit into within those societies (Clearly Cultural, 2009). Therefore, the strongest dislike scores should come from the UK and Lebanon, followed relatively closely by Canada, with Norway coming closer to having positive A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} , and PI_{Brand} scores. Upon analysis, this is in fact the case, with this order only being slightly challenged in A_{Ad} and PI_{Brand} scores, where Canada and Norway trade places. These scores could also be moderated by extraneous unaccounted for variables in this test, such as which type of body image people are accustomed to seeing in mass media. For example, if a country portrays mainly athletes in advertisements for various products, this body type may seem more 'likeable' than the traditionally thin and weak looking fashion models used in western media.

Furthermore, individualism scores seem to have a correlation to how viewers felt about the idealized model (Model 1). This model was meant to personify the generic, typical model that consumers are normally exposed to through marketing communications campaigns. With the exception of Canada and Norway being in reverse order for PI_{Brand} , the scoring for Model 1, from strongest score to weakest score is Lebanon, Norway, Canada, followed by the UK. The rankings for these countries in terms of individualism from highest level of collectivism down is Lebanon, Norway, Canada, followed by the highly individualistic UK. This may be explained by the proposal that individualistic countries have a higher dislike for 'average' or 'typical' models in advertising, as they prefer to stand out from the crowd rather than become absorbed by a mass group identity. Therefore, this idea could be extended to hypothesize that countries that score higher on the collectivist dimension prefer to see images that are more 'status quo' and expected when being advertised to.

The results for Model 1 also illustrate a difference pertaining to the uncertainty avoidance dimension from Hofstede. Norway, Lebanon and Canada all share relatively similar scores on this dimension (50, 50 and 48 respectively), whereas the UK scores a 35. This could be interpreted as the higher the level of uncertainty avoidance in a country, the more they prefer expected images of endorsers in the media, as is reflected in the preferences of the countries

above, with the UK coming in last for the three dependent variables. The more ‘risk taking’ UK population could be said to be more open to diverse images in advertising, and more open to, for example, shock advertising campaigns than the other cultures involved in this study.

This is also reflected in the scores for Model 4, where despite all responses indicating weaker scores for A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} , and PI_{Brand} , the UK scored this model the least negative, or most positive out of the sampled group. This could have something to do with social toleration of obesity rates in the relative countries and how much individuals on average are exposed to different body types on a regular basis; however this idea must be researched further before creating any concrete hypotheses.

It would be important to note here however, that with today’s rapidly dynamic and mobile consumer base that what may hold true at present for cultural responses in regard to the use of non-idealized models may not remain so indefinitely. As such, any theories introduced into this domain must incorporate some form of flexibility over time.

7.2 Managerial Implications

7.2.1 Model Selection

The results of this research have shown that viewers’ attitudes and purchase intentions are significantly affected by the model type chosen. In keeping with the traditional approach to advertising, it was found that more attractive models fare better than ones deemed less attractive, regardless of whether or not they are idealized. Therefore it appears that the concept of ‘what is beautiful is good’ (Dion, Berscheid and Walter, 1972) applies especially to cases of using ‘real women’. Evidently, respondents do not dislike the idea of using non-idealized models, however they prefer those models still be aspirational – even if only attainably so. This should be kept in mind by marketing managers if they choose to utilize non-idealized models in their campaigns.

7.2.2 Framing

This study has shown that priming can have a significant effect on the A_{Ad} , but it is unclear whether the extent to which a model, or the campaign she features in, is positively primed by the media will have an effect on how strong the change in attitude is. However, bearing in

mind the success of the previous campaigns, such as Dove's 'Campaign for Real Beauty' (Datamonitor, 2005), and the fact that there was evidence to support the hypothesis that priming can have a positive effect on A_{Ad} , it would be prudent for managers seeking to create positive attitudes to ensure that their campaign will generate a lot of positive media attention as this will translate into more positive attitudes.

Furthermore, it is important to bear in mind that though there was a significant positive impact of priming on A_{Ad} , this did not carry forward in the case of A_{Brand} . If the strength of the change in A_{Ad} and A_{Brand} is related to the amount of positive media generated and thus the extent of framing consumers are exposed to, this will not be a key concern for managers. However, if framing effects only have a positive effect on A_{Ad} and not on A_{Brand} , then it may not be wise for managers to invest their time, capital and efforts in to developing a campaign that utilizes non-idealized models as ultimately A_{Brand} is a more significant metric that managers should aim to improve as compared to A_{Ad} .

7.2.3 Viewer Opinions

The findings about viewer opinions also can provide managers with potential guidelines about if and how to use non-idealized models. The key finding is that, above all, the model used must be deemed likeable. This implies that there is the potential for a wider range of women to be featured in advertising as a broader range of women may be thought of as likeable by consumers than the set of women who might be judged as attractive.

However, attractiveness does still play a role in shaping positive consumer behaviour and as such should not be dismissed as a positive attribute to search for in models that may be used in campaigns. That consumers do not necessarily care to see models that look particularly similar to themselves shows that advertising should still have an element of aspiration attached to it. This is supported by the predictive capabilities of 'inspiration' however managers should explore what inspires their target market in particular, as this construct does not seem to be completely linked to that of aspiration.

Again, one of the most interesting findings was that suitability and typicality had markedly different predictive capabilities. Marketing managers should therefore not select models that they feel are simply typical, but should be those that consumers feel are suitable. What is considered suitable may vary greatly between brands, but as noted when referring to model

likeability, a much wider range of models might fall in to the set of models that consumers can think of as ‘suitable’ as compared to those that could be categorized as ‘typical’.

On the whole, our findings show that marketers can afford to be somewhat more adventurous when choosing models for campaigns than they have been historically, however advertisements should still maintain an element of aspiration in order to appeal to consumers.

7.2.4 Campaigns Across Borders

Marketing managers operating in culturally diverse international markets should be aware of theories such as that purported by Hofstede who proposes that not all markets are created equal. This insight is echoed in the findings of this master thesis, where different cultural backgrounds, and even different demographic groupings within these cultures, may require different marketing messages to accurately and efficiently produce the outcomes in terms of A_{Ad} , A_{Brand} and PI_{Brand} that marketers seek to obtain. Taking into account variations in target audiences and tailoring marketing messages when entering new markets are only the tip of the iceberg that marketing managers must be aware of when creating mass media messages to promote their products or services.

The insights provided in the findings of this study present, as previously mentioned, both continuing challenges and opportunities for marketers to evaluate their messages with a variety of lenses, and see how various groups would potentially respond to these messages, and in turn, tailor them appropriately to achieve optimal results. By reviewing cultural dimensions put forth by Hofstede, as an example, marketers can gain a slight insight into general preferences and adapt their marketing message to fit the needs and values of each culture they advertise to. Albeit the generalities for each culture are not necessarily reflected on an individual basis, they will serve their purpose as a guideline to avoid ‘going in blind’.

It is also important to note that demographics must be taken into consideration, such as age, of the target market in question, as their preferences and values on some dimensions, such as what is considered just edgy enough to be popular, when creating said marketing message. To appeal to those you are targeting while avoiding offending others may involve walking a fine line in some cultures, and this balancing act must be carefully undertaken in some cultures more so than others. An example of this from this study is the relatively more openness of the ‘westernized’ cultures, such as Canada and the UK to accept an image of a

muscular woman in a feminine advertisement when compared to a less 'westernized' culture such as Lebanon.

8. Limitations and Future Research

8.1 Limitations

8.1.1 Reliability:

Unlike many studies of this nature, this thesis is not without its limitations. Sampling and analysis methods used, types and format of questionnaires, and accounting for all extraneous unseen variables could all pose potential problems in terms of valid and reliable results. This being said, the foundation of solid methodology, resources, and careful data analysis provide some of the reasons that the authors of this paper feel that the findings presented here are valid and reliable. It is also felt that the model presented here holds considerable consistency, and will hold up should additional re-tests be considered on similar data sets with similar guidelines as are presented here.

That being said, there are some features of this empirical quantitative research study that may be subject to scrutiny and threaten the quality of said results, such as the authors' choice of analytical and statistical testing techniques. Should other methods have been chosen, they may have resulted in varied findings, however it is felt that the general trends found during statistical analysis would hold true, all other factors held constant. Representativeness of the sample utilized in this study may also yield differing results should future studies choose different demographic or other factors on which to base their analysis, such as income grades or educational background ranges. These and other factors, such as un-mentioned moderating or mediating variables not accounted for in this study could potentially provide differing results in future research.

8.1.2 Internal Validity:

The main threat to validity within the confines of this study is the establishment of an isolated causal relationship such as is tested in the various hypotheses presented in this research. The constructs of the model presented in this study control and account for many factors that could moderate the many relationships being tested, however there may be some other underlying factors that could influence the results presented, and that further research and observation may reveal as more powerful causal factors than those presented here. As

this is, in part, an exploratory study with little previous research being performed on this specific topic, the authors hope to have controlled as much as possible, including utilizing a significant sample size, for possible spurious effects from confounding variables that may interfere with data analysis and findings. It is also believed by the authors that future studies are necessary if the exploratory results presented in this thesis are to be taken as confirmatory.

Another potential threat to this study would be response bias, particularly in the use of the Likert scale as was chosen for this study. This was taken into account when designing the questions for the survey used here, and was formatted in the most objective way possible to hopefully anticipate and avoid the majority of this type of bias, however it can never fully be controlled for in a self-administered survey such as was made use of here. Demand characteristics are also cause for caution in this thesis, as respondents have the potential to respond differently to the questionnaires due simply to the fact that they are involved in a study, for example by providing what they consider to be the most socially desirable answers.

Extreme responding is also something to be considered in studies utilizing the Likert scale, as some participants may rush through the questions, answering with only the most extreme responses on either end of the spectrum. To note however, upon reviewing the data set gathered from the survey administered, this did not seem to be an issue from the individual subjects tested for this project. Finally under-coverage bias is a factor that was of concern in the voluntary response survey used in this thesis. This would be crucial if it was found that too few members of one group was represented in the submitted responses; however any groups with relatively minimal members were eliminated from this study.

8.1.3 External Validity:

From the model utilized in this study, the authors of this thesis feel that the results from the questionnaire administered do accurately measure what is intended to measure in this study. Indeed the sampling techniques made use of in this study may limit the broader generalization of findings, however the sheer number of respondents from all relevant categories provides a significant statistically relevant foundation on which to base the results of this thesis on. The cultures chosen for this study were based on convenience sampling, and as such, could look quite different when compared to other, perhaps more diverse

cultures. There also exists the potential of a voluntary response bias, as the survey respondents were basically self-selected, as the survey was presented in a voluntary format.

This being said, the number of respondents from each demographic category should be enough of a solid representation to draw significant conclusions and findings from in the case of this study. Therefore, the generalizability of this study should be limited to areas which are similar in cultural characteristics and demographics to those utilized in this research. From this study, the lower the cultural distance between tested groups, the more similarities in results will be seen. This creates both challenges and opportunities for marketers attempting to please many diverse audiences around the world promoting their products and services internationally. Underlying differing opinions to mass media marketing in general could also pose a threat to this study, as individual preferences and perceptions of traditional modern marketing were not taken into account in this thesis.

8.1.4 Other Limitations:

As with any study involving multiple external participants, ethical issues are almost always called into question. Guidelines from NHH regarding ethical treatment of information and privacy were consulted and abided by in formulating this thesis. Anonymity and confidentiality with respect to primary data collected throughout the duration of this research project were respected in full. In this case, respondents were only asked to divulge relevant, non-identifying information about themselves, and were told upfront what their responses would be utilized for. Only general demographic information was collected and transferred from the Qualtrics software on which it was collected to private SPSS files for analysis. Additional information such as results were also offered to participants should they choose to be interested in the findings their submissions aided in producing. Furthermore, objectivity was always a core principle in writing this thesis and conducting analyses so as to shield findings from any internal bias, intentional or otherwise.

8.2 Future Research

This study has revealed several interesting results, but with them come many directions for valuable future research. Firstly, the effects of framing the marketing communication on consumer attitude formation should be further investigated. Though this study included a framed and un-framed condition, the framing was relatively weak and as such may not effectively mimic the effects of a strong accompanying PR campaign or positive media halo effect. Therefore more research is needed to understand whether the quantity, or indeed the tone, of framing has a significant effect.

More importantly, the study conducted was very limited in the number and types of models used. The results revealed that consumers, and consumers of different cultures, do have different reactions to non-idealized models of different body types. This research can be extended in several ways; firstly, more insights may be gained by examining more of the 'grey area' between expected non-idealized models and unexpected non-idealized models. This study only examined three non-idealized models, one of whom was rated in attractiveness at an equivalent level to a traditional model and two who deviated from this very significantly. However, many advocates of using 'real women' in advertising campaigns place emphasis on the value of using realistic, attainable depictions of female beauty and not the use of shocking or extremely divergent models. With this in mind, a wider range of non-idealized models could be tested for a more accurate representation of how consumers may react to these stimuli. Furthermore, a typography of non-idealized models could be developed to further understand which of the non-traditional aspects of 'real women' are most appealing to consumers.

The study also placed the models in the context of female fashion; therefore future research is needed to understand if the effects observed are consistent across different product categories. Finally, as the images the respondents of the survey were exposed to were intentionally plain, the opportunity to discover whether or not there would be a significant interaction between the copy and message encoded within the advertisement was foregone. If consumers are exposed to a strong message placing the non-idealized model in a relevant context that make the models' use more congruent, different results may be obtained.

The variables included in the set of 'viewer opinions' were based on subjective decisions made after a careful review of the existing literature. However, as research into the use of

non-idealized models is still relatively undeveloped, there may be factors that could be more predictive of consumer attitude formation that have yet to be discovered. We urge other researchers to conduct future exploratory studies in order to gain a greater understanding of what these factors may be, as this will help support practitioners in deciding both whether or not to use non-idealized models, and if the decision is made in favour of their use, what types of models exactly should be used.

Our investigation of the cultural effects on consumer behaviour and attitudes indicated that there are significant differences between cultures; however, from our results it is impossible to state with any certainty why these effects may exist. Important insights could be revealed through further examination of these differences; such as an understanding of whether or not the discrepancies in attitude are concretely linked to any of the specific dimensions of culture proposed by Hofstede or Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, or if there are other variables at play.

Additionally, the survey only examined the reactions of consumers hailing from only a few different nations, namely Canada, Norway, Lebanon and the United Kingdom, as the numbers of respondents from other countries were too low to produce reliable results. As such, it raises questions about whether or not there would be more differences due to culture revealed if a broader range of nationalities and ethnicities were studied.

In conclusion, though we have made an effort to begin understanding if and how marketers should use non-idealized models and how consumers may interpret this use across different cultures, there is still a great deal to be understood about the topic and more research is recommended.

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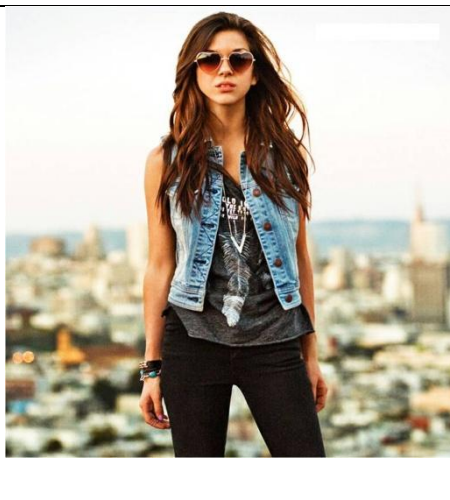
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10. Appendices

10.1 Appendix 1


#	Image	Type of Model	Brand/Source	Reason for use/dismissal
1		Idealized	Abercrombie & Fitch Summer 2011 campaign	Not used Black and white color scheme inconsistent with other images
2		Idealized	GAP <i>'Back to Blue'</i> Autumn 2013 campaign	Not used

3		<p>Expected non-idealized <i>(transgendered)</i></p>	<p>Benetton <i>'Unhate'</i> Spring 2013 campaign</p>	<p>Not used</p>
4		<p>Unexpected non-idealized <i>(plus-sized)</i></p>	<p>Diesel <i>'Reboot'</i> Autumn/Winter 2013 campaign</p>	<p>Used</p>
5		<p>Unexpected non-idealized <i>(androgynous)</i></p>	<p>Diesel <i>'Reboot'</i> Autumn/Winter 2013 campaign</p>	<p>Not used</p>



6		Idealized	H&M Autumn/ Winter 2009 campaign	Not used
7		Unexpected non-idealized <i>(amputee)</i>	Debenhams <i>'Diversity'</i> Summer 2013 campaign	Not used Decision made against using amputee models
8		Expected non-idealized	American Eagle Outfitters <i>'Project Live Your Life'</i> Spring 2014 campaign	Used

9	 <p>© Debenhams</p>	<p>Unexpected non-idealized</p> <p><i>(amputee)</i></p>	<p>Debenhams</p> <p><i>'Diversity'</i></p> <p>Summer 2013 campaign</p>	<p>Not used</p> <p>Decision made against using amputee models</p>
10		<p>Unexpected non-idealized</p> <p><i>(un-airbrushed)</i></p>	<p>Aerie</p> <p><i>'Real'</i></p> <p>Spring 2014 campaign</p>	<p>Not used</p>
11		<p>Idealized</p>	<p>Pimkie</p> <p><i>'Once Upon a Time'</i></p>	<p>Not used</p>

12		<p>Unexpected non-idealized</p> <p><i>(muscular)</i></p>	<p>MAC</p> <p><i>'Strength'</i></p> <p>Spring 2013</p>	<p>Used</p>
13		<p>Expected non-idealized</p>	<p>L.K. Bennett</p> <p><i>'Life is the Occasion'</i></p> <p>Autumn/ Winter 2010</p>	<p>Not used</p>
14		<p>Idealized</p>	<p>Pimkie</p> <p>Spring 2013</p>	<p>Used</p>

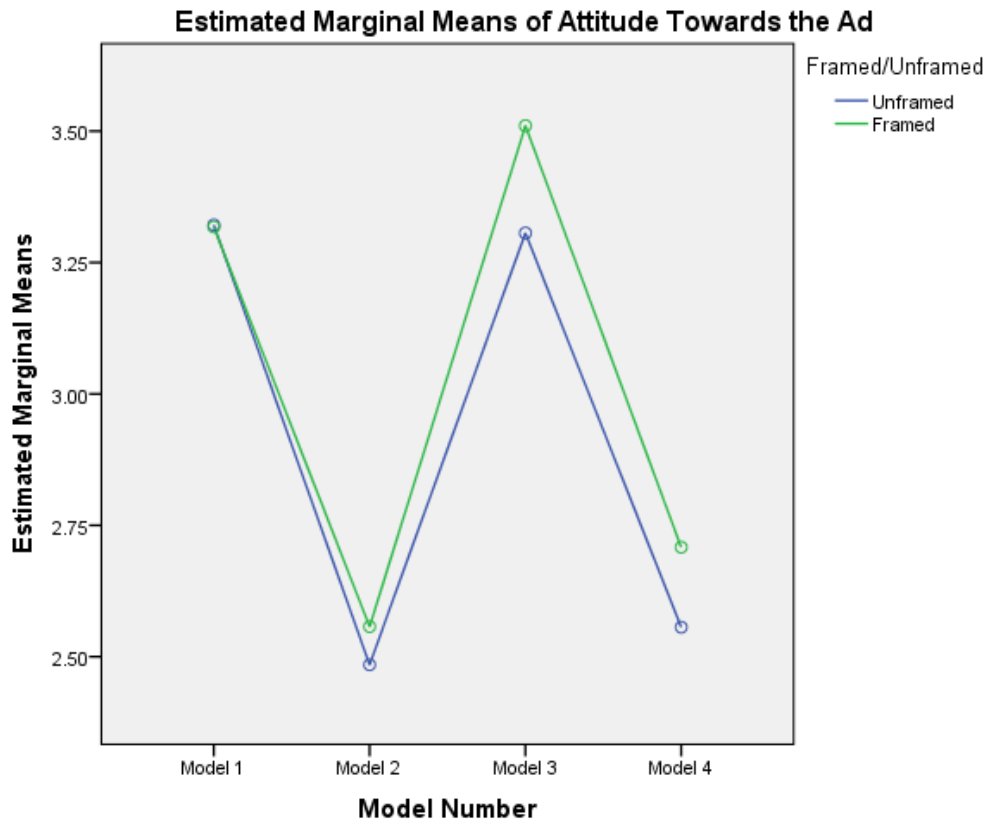
15		Unexpected non-idealized <i>(plus sized)</i>	Debenhams <i>'Diversity'</i> Summer 2013	Not used
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10.2 Appendix 2

#	Image	Type of Model
Model 1		Idealized
Model 2		Unexpected non-idealized

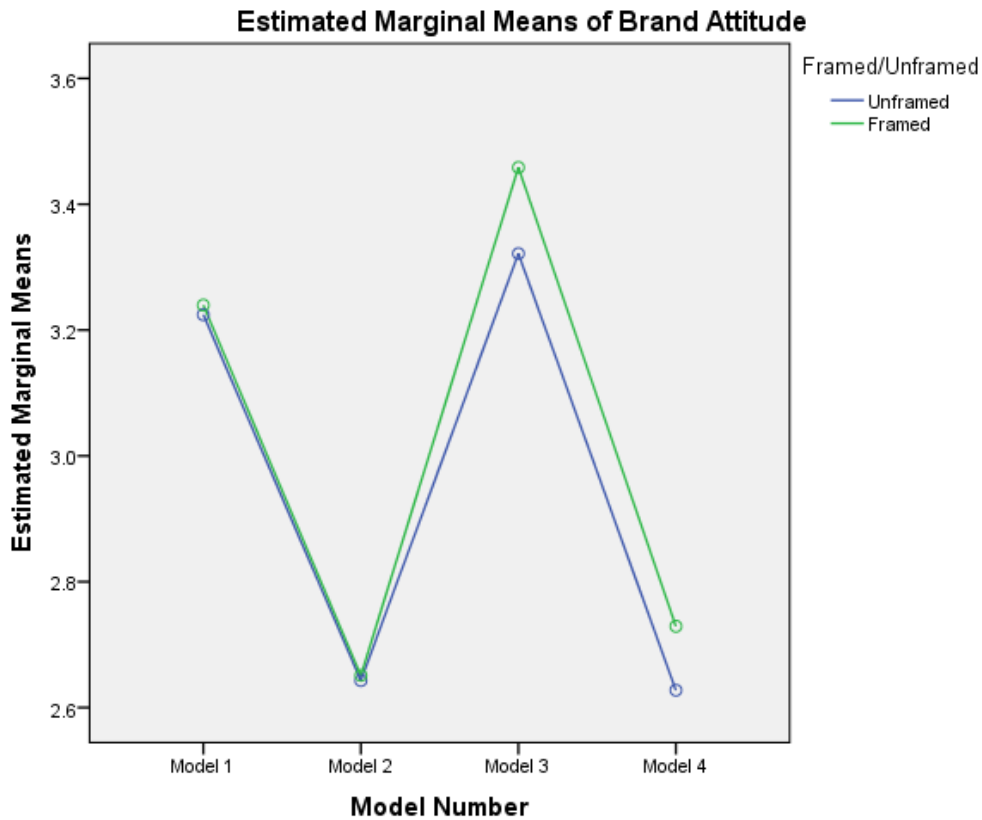
Model 3		Expected non-idealized
Model 4		Unexpected non-idealized

10.3 Appendix 3



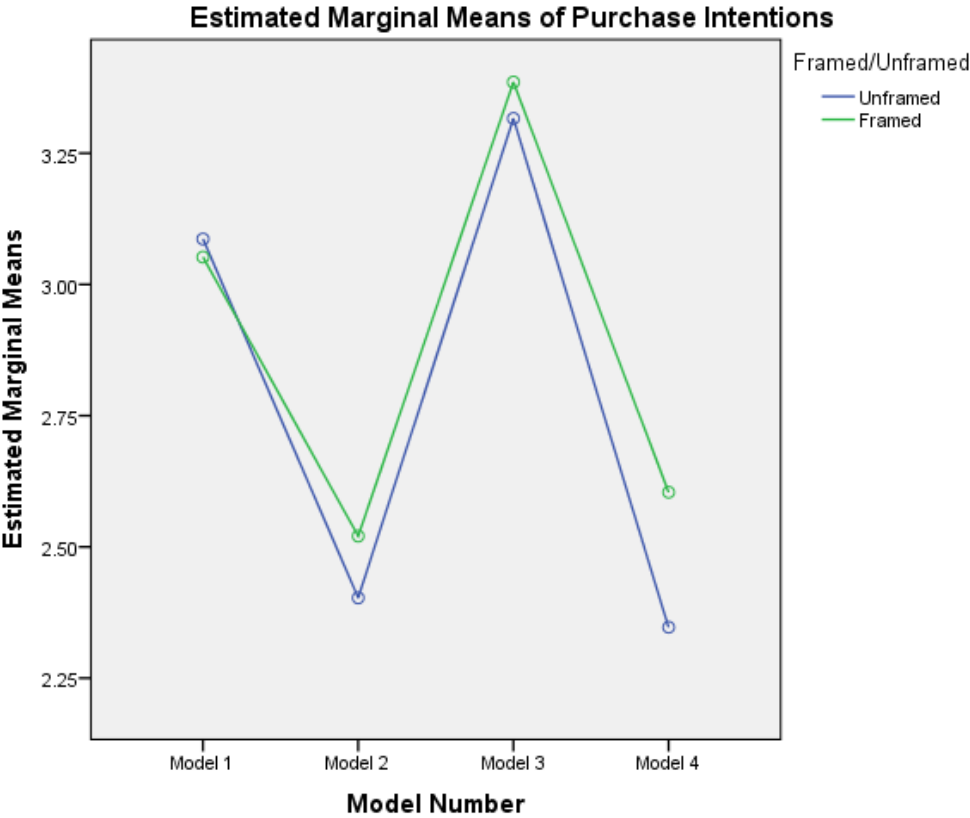
Mean Results of A_{Brand} in Framed and Unframed Contexts by Model

Model Number	Framed/Unframed	Mean	Std. Deviation
Model 1	Unframed	3.22	.848
	Framed	3.24	.769
	Total	3.23	.809
Model 2	Unframed	2.64	1.098
	Framed	2.65	.996
	Total	2.65	1.047
Model 3	Unframed	3.32	.740
	Framed	3.46	.792
	Total	3.39	.768
Model 4	Unframed	2.63	1.022
	Framed	2.73	1.028
	Total	2.68	1.025
Total	Unframed	2.95	.989
	Framed	3.02	.964
	Total	2.99	.977

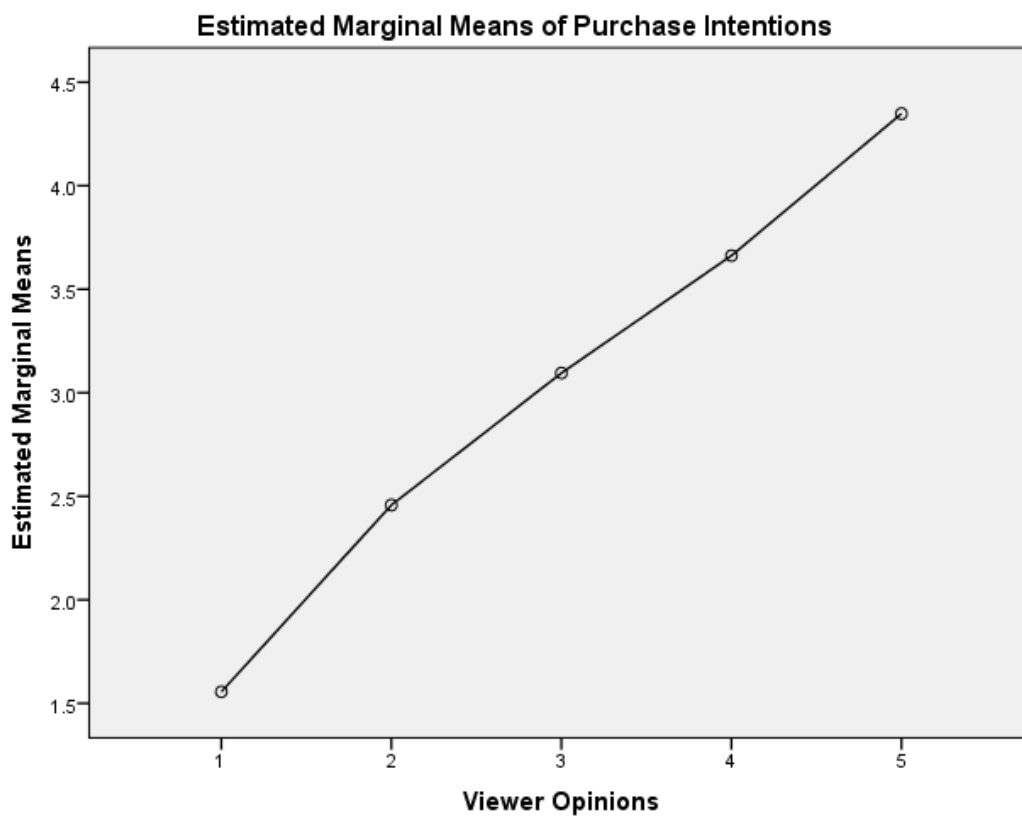
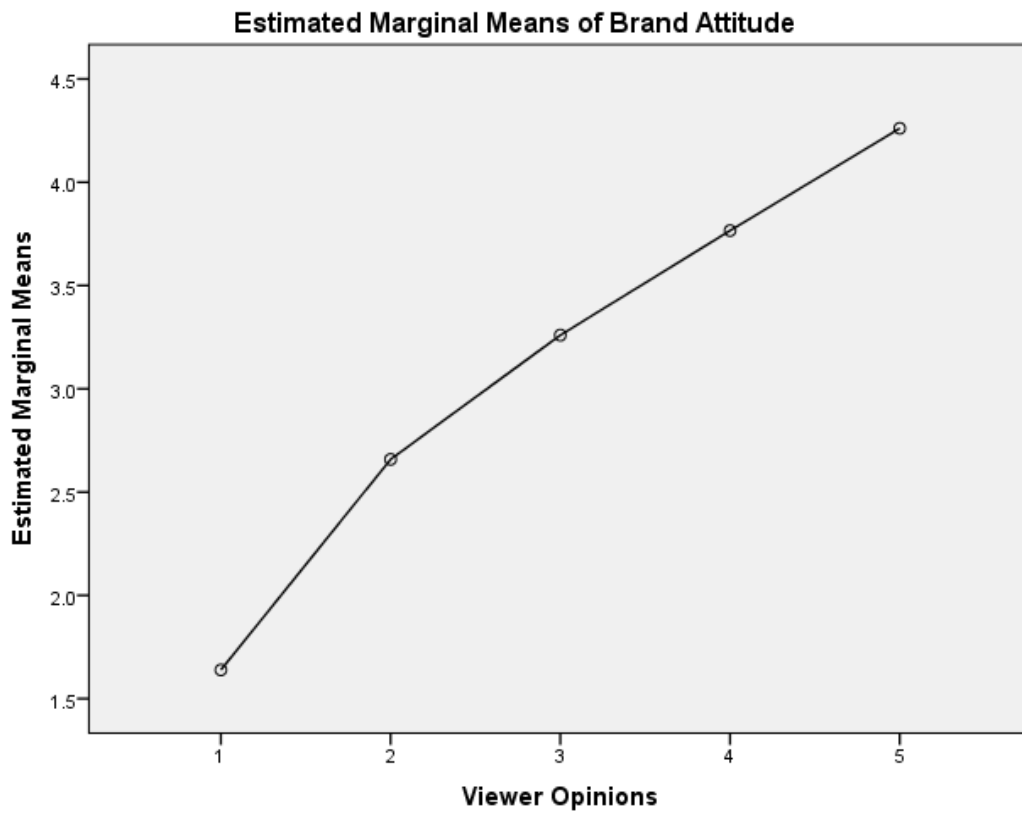


Mean Results of A_{Brand} in Framed and Unframed Contexts by Model

Model Number	Framed/Unframed	Mean	Std. Deviation
Model 1	Unframed	3.09	.834
	Framed	3.05	.823
	Total	3.07	.828
Model 2	Unframed	2.40	.969
	Framed	2.52	.943
	Total	2.46	.957
Model 3	Unframed	3.32	.860
	Framed	3.39	.855
	Total	3.35	.857
Model 4	Unframed	2.35	.957
	Framed	2.60	1.023
	Total	2.47	.997
Total	Unframed	2.79	.999
	Framed	2.89	.977
	Total	2.84	.989



10.4 Appendix 4



10.5 Appendix 5

Descriptive Statistics of Brand Attitude by Model and Nationality

Model Number	Nationality	Mean	Std. Deviation
Model 1	Canadian	3.25	.747
	Norwegian	3.26	.876
	British	2.94	.659
	Lebanese	3.30	.953
	Other	3.29	.812
	Total	3.23	.809
Model 2	Canadian	2.78	.932
	Norwegian	2.80	.969
	British	2.61	.975
	Lebanese	2.08	1.047
	Other	2.71	1.135
	Total	2.65	1.047
Model 3	Canadian	3.33	.814
	Norwegian	3.38	.805
	British	3.37	.602
	Lebanese	3.54	.838
	Other	3.40	.744
	Total	3.39	.768
Model 4	Canadian	2.68	.908
	Norwegian	2.54	.994
	British	2.98	1.090
	Lebanese	2.46	1.092
	Other	2.70	1.065
	Total	2.68	1.025

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects of Model Type by Nationality for Brand Attitude

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	202.101 ^a	19	10.637	12.745	.000
Intercept	11414.142	1	11414.142	13676.101	.000
Q34	152.794	3	50.931	61.025	.000
V2	4.945	4	1.236	1.481	.205
Q34 * V2	29.154	12	2.430	2.911	.001
Error	1278.615	1532	.835		
Total	15323.000	1552			
Corrected Total	1480.716	1551			

Descriptive Statistics of Purchase Intentions by Model and Nationality

Model Number	Nationality	Mean	Std. Deviation
Model 1	Canadian	3.11	.746
	Norwegian	3.06	.767
	British	2.94	.592
	Lebanese	3.48	.995
	Other	2.93	.877
	Total	3.07	.828
Model 2	Canadian	2.70	.873
	Norwegian	2.60	.969
	British	2.41	.814
	Lebanese	1.92	.829
	Other	2.43	1.037
	Total	2.46	.957
Model 3	Canadian	3.34	.870
	Norwegian	3.44	.837
	British	3.31	.652
	Lebanese	3.48	.886
	Other	3.29	.913
	Total	3.35	.857
Model 4	Canadian	2.55	.934
	Norwegian	2.36	.964
	British	2.67	.987
	Lebanese	2.28	1.011
	Other	2.45	1.053
	Total	2.47	.997

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects of Model Type by Nationality for Purchase Intentions

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	270.204 ^a	19	14.221	17.464	.000
Intercept	10424.254	1	10424.254	12801.306	.000
Q34	218.898	3	72.966	89.604	.000
V2	5.855	4	1.464	1.798	.127
Q34 * V2	35.232	12	2.936	3.606	.000
Error	1247.526	1532	.814		
Total	14026.000	1552			
Corrected Total	1517.729	1551			