

NHH



# Product Placement in the Norwegian Market

*Is product placement a valid tool for marketers in Norway?*

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**NORWEGIAN SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS**

This thesis was written as a part of the Master of Science in Economics and Business Administration at NHH. Please note that neither the institution nor the examiners are responsible – through the approval of this thesis – for the theories and methods used, or results and conclusions drawn in this work.

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## **Abstract**

Product placement has been experiencing a surge of popularity the past 15 years, often explained by the drop of interest in commercials. Especially in the U.S. it has grown to become a billion dollar industry. However, in Norway it does not experience the same degree of popularity, despite becoming a legal marketing tool in 2013. This paper sets out to see what effects product placement has on the Norwegian people, with Norwegian brands. Cultural differences between continents and even countries highlight the need for a study focused outside the American culture. Contrary to earlier research on the subject, we chose to focus on purchase intention, and how it may change due to the influence from product placement. We also included attitudes, and tested the proposed relationship between the two subjects. In addition, we tried to see how it measures up against the traditional commercial. Through an experiment performed on a representable sample of the population, we discovered that product placement can indeed have a positive effect on the purchase intention of Norwegian consumers. In the right setting it can increase purchase intention without necessarily affecting attitudes. At the same time, our results showed that there is a danger of producing a negative effect on both attitudes and purchase intention. In addition, product placement exhibits a larger, more positive effect in terms of influencing Norwegian consumers than commercials. Due to this, we are suggesting an increased usage of product placement, especially when introducing weaker brands to the market.

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## **Preface**

This thesis is a part of the Master Degree in Economics and Business Administration at the Norwegian School of Economics (NHH), where both authors have specialized in Marketing and Brand Management.

The thesis is written during the spring of 2015, and has the purpose of contributing to the field of product placement in Norway. We chose this topic as it is a common interest of ours, and because of the lack of research conducted in Norway with regards to Norwegian brands and Norwegian Consumers. During our education in Marketing and Brand Management at NHH we have become more aware of the challenges marketers face in terms of reaching consumers. Cristel A. Russell has been a pioneer within the field of product placement, and her contributions have especially intrigued and inspired us.

The process of writing this thesis has been an interesting, enjoyable and challenging journey, which has given us much enduring and valuable knowledge. The end product has provided some interesting findings, and we hope that the readers will feel the same way. However, we owe our family and friends an apology, for forever ruining their experience of movies and TV-shows.

We would like to thank our supervisor Leif E. Hem for his feedback and valuable contributions that helped us throughout the process of this thesis. We would also like to thank the ECO-project by SNF (Samfunns- og Næringslivsforskning) for financial support, enabling us to conduct a proper survey, and therefore raising the quality of our research.

Bergen, 05.06.15

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Erlend Kyrkjeide

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# **Chapter 1:**

# **Introduction**

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## 1.0 Introduction

### 1.1 Why is product placement interesting?

Ever wondered why Tom Hanks used a Wilson volleyball and called it Wilson in *Cast Away*? Why Harry Hole needs his Jim Beam in Jo Nesbø's books? Or, why Manolo Blahnik was Carrie Bradshaw's favourite shoe in *Sex and the City*? This is the use of product placement.

Today consumers have the ability to rewind and skip TV commercials by using DVR recorders and web-based services, e.g. TiVo, Netflix and HBO GO. What once was considered traditional TV commercials no longer reach or influence consumers in the initial and desired manner. This causes advertisers to search for other ways to influence consumers and portray their products. In this regard, product placement is a convenient tool for marketers. In addition, this form of advertising has a long life span because of the way entertainment often is recycled, and so the product placement tool is increasingly becoming one of the most popular within the marketing mix (Soba & Aydin, 2013). Product placements' popularity is further emphasized by numbers showing that the industry is growing fast and that it is reported to continue its booming growth (PQ media, 2012; Al-Kadi, 2013). Numbers reported by PQ Media (2012) showed that spending in product placement grew approximately 11,7% in 2012 to \$ 8,25 billion.

The field of product placement is frequently discussed in current news as there are both ethical and judicial issues regarding the topic. There is an on-going debate regarding product placement and the effect it has on children, the use of alcohol, cigarettes and so on. Further, as social media channels like YouTube, Instagram and Twitter pave their way through society, there will occur even more questions regarding legislations.

As mentioned, the main reason for the increased popularity of product placement as a tool is due to the decline in consumers watching commercials. Commercials have dominated as a marketing tool for years, and if not for the new services allowing consumers to more actively ignore them, product placement might not have gotten to where it is today. Already in 2006, advertisers were starting to lose confidence in TV advertising (Klaassen, 2006), and the trend will most likely continue. Pros and cons between TV advertisements and product placement are to some extent obvious. For example, TV advertisements can fully control how their message is conveyed, while product placement is at the mercy of producers. Opposite,

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product placements can draw on associations linked to popular characters more naturally, while TV adverts provide a more artificial setting. Based on this, we believe it is interesting to measure commercials up against product placement in terms of effectiveness. If one were to choose between the two, what would be the preferred tool? Therefore, we have chosen to include two commercials in our study, and compare these in terms of the same variables we believe product placement to have an effect on. We believe that this will give us further insight into balancing the approaches to reach consumers. Further, even though the field of product placement has been an increasing part of marketing on a global scale the last two decades, it is far from mature (Chan, 2012). There are still big gaps and inconsistencies within the field, which makes this an excellent area to contribute to.

## **1.2 Why is product placement interesting from a Norwegian perspective?**

Research has proven that there are a number of differences regarding product placement and cultures (Khalbous, Vianell, Domanski, Dianoux & Maazoul, 2013). Even within Europe there are bigger differences than what one might expect, and generalization is out of the picture. Research regarding product placement has mainly been conducted by American researchers on American citizens. Considering there has been little research concerning product placement in Norway, this further strengthens why it is interesting to conduct research in Norway.

As of January 1<sup>st</sup> 2013 the EEA Directive on Audiovisual Media Service was introduced in Norway (Regjeringen, 2013; Medietilsynet, 2012). This new initiative was a regulation authorized by the Norwegian Government October 19<sup>th</sup> 2012, and allowed product placement in categories such as film, fiction based series, sports programs and light entertainment programs (Medietilsynet, 2012). With this new regulation some restrictions were made concerning product placement directed at children, and product placement including alcohol, tobacco and other drugs (Medietilsynet, 2012).

There will always be both advantages and disadvantages regarding such a change in the law. The prior Norwegian minister of culture, Hadia Tajik, commented the following in a press release, “an implementation of the directive in Norwegian law will help to strengthen Norwegian broadcasters and TV Producers competitive conditions. The proposal will also help children get an increased protection against advertising content in Internet-based television services” (Hauger, 2012). First of all, the implementation resulted in the



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elimination of a skewed system where programmes produced abroad by channels like TV3 was preferred (Hauger, 2012). This further helped stimulate Norwegian production, and increased the competitiveness of other channels. Additionally, it helped Norwegian produced programs to be more attractive to broadcasters. Lastly, it gave producers the ability to integrate a realistic use of brands in their programs, as well as perhaps the most obvious advantages: giving more possibilities regarding revenues and marketing (Hauger, 2012).

Despite all these advantages, the Norwegian Broadcasting Act highlighted that it is important to avoid one of product placement biggest challenges, namely influencing editorial independence (Aarseth, 2014). Further, they emphasized the challenge of not encouraging the purchase or rental of goods and services. There are also possible disadvantages regarding the brands showed using product placement, e.g. the lack of control of how the brand is portrayed (Soba & Aydin, 2013), accentuating that not all product placement is necessarily good PR.

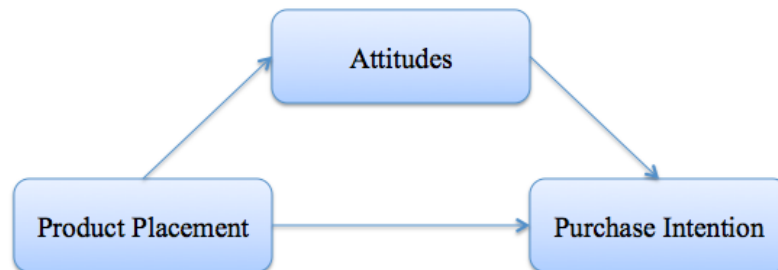
### **1.3 Research questions**

When it comes to the effect product placement should have on Norwegian consumers, previous research has focused on two areas, brand recall and attitudes (Russell, 2002). Much emphasis has been on recall, and less on attitudes however. This study will neglect recall, and is more interested in the attitudinal effect of product placement. We will also try to move beyond attitudes, and measure the impact product placement has on the purchase intention of consumers. Earlier research has tried to establish a relationship between attitudes and purchase intention (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Lutz 1991; Spears & Singh, 2004), but it has not yet been clearly linked, and there have been much discussion as to which degree this relationship exists. We will try to measure both the direct effect of product placement on attitudes and purchase intention, and also if these variables have a connection in any way. We will test for the prominence of the placements and the strength of the brands, to see what effect this has on the impact of the placement. By including a commercial, we will further be able to test between the two different tools. The two research questions for our study will be as follows:

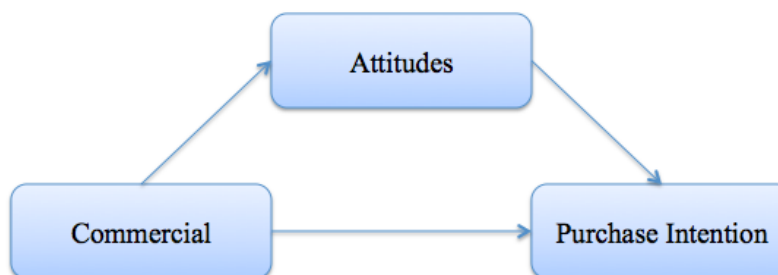
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*Figure 1: Research Questions and Factorial Design*

1. How are Norwegian consumers affected (attitude and purchase intention) by the newly implemented marketing tool of product placement in Norwegian entertainment, with the use of Norwegian brands?



2. How does Norwegian commercials measure up against product placement in terms of influencing (attitude and purchase intention) Norwegian consumers?



## **1.4 Structure**

Chapter 2 will consist of relevant theory for the research we will perform. More specifically it will concern brands, product placement, attitudes and purchase intention. Based on these theories, we have developed five hypotheses in order to answer our research questions. Chapter 3 describes the design of the experiment we performed in order to test the hypotheses. In chapter 4 we present an analysis of our data, as well as the results from our experiment. Chapter 5 is the discussion of our results. Further, chapter 6 consists of implications, strength, weaknesses and validity of our research. Chapter 7 is the final chapter and concludes our research.

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# **Chapter 2:**

# **Theory**

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## 2.0 Theory

This chapter will present different theories that make up the foundation for our research. We will start by establishing a general overview of brand theory. Then, we will define the concept of product placement, give a short summary of its history and give a presentation of its position in Norway. Further, we present the concepts attitude and purchase intention, and illustrate their relationship. We will then continue by looking at the more renowned tool commercial in relations to product placement. Furthermore, brand strength and prominence will be presented. To finish, we introduce our hypotheses, and how our chosen theories interact with these.

### 2.1 Brand

The term *branding* was derived centuries ago from an Old Norse word *brandr*, which means “to burn” (Keller, 2013; Kurtuldu, 2012). It originated as owners burnt their properties, such as cattle, timber and slaves, to define their ownership. This was a typical way to express that “this belongs to me, so leave it”. However, in the 1800’s this way of thinking changed into a more modern way of looking at branding, namely; “this was made by me, so buy it.” This was further emphasized during the 20<sup>th</sup> century by a shift in western culture from being people in need, to people of desire (Kurtuldu, 2012).

The term *brand* is widely used, but it does not necessarily entail the same definition across the lips of the users. The American Marketing Association define the term as a “name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to *identify* the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to *differentiate* them from those of competition” (Keller, 2013, p. 30).

Strongly connected to the term brand is the concept of *brand equity*. Despite being a long-lived and thorough research area, there is no universal definition to conceptualize and measure the concept (Keller, 2013). There are, however, some unified thoughts to what the concepts of brand equity entails as described by Keller (2013, p. 57) “brand equity consist of the marketing effects uniquely attributable to the brand. That is, brand equity explains why different outcomes result from the marketing from a branded product or service than if it were not branded”. Aaker is a renowned researcher on the subject of brand equity, and he has developed a model where he frames and presents the different components that make up the

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concept of brand equity (Aaker, 1991). These components are brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and other proprietary assets. However, his model does not distinguish clearly between consumer and producer added values (EURIB, 2015). Therefore, we will further present different advantages for consumers and producers that help in creating equity for a brand.

There are a number of advantages connected to having a brand, and these can be applicable for both consumers and producers. First of all, having a brand enhances product recognition (Keller & Lehman, 2003; KnowThis.com, 2015). Brands will stimulate senses for example visually through a logo or a name, or maybe through audio by using a jingle. This helps the brand at being both identified, and being differentiated from competitors. Further, brands help building brand loyalty, which is the ultimate goal for a marketer, as loyal users are less likely to switch to other brands (Keller & Lehman, 2003; Yudkin, 2002). Brands are also a part of product positioning. This can be conducted by exposing consumers to a brand, and in turn they can position it with related associations. Potentially, this can evolve in an even more preferable way, as consumers connect certain attributes and associations with the brand (Keller & Lehman, 2003; KnowThis.com, 2015). Having an established brand can also help when introducing new products (Keller & Lehman, 2003; KnowThis.com, 2015; Yudkin, 2002). If the brand is strong with beneficial associations, this can be transferred to the new product, giving it a boost in the introduction phase. Finally, having a brand is a crucial part of building brand equity, in which the brand itself becomes valuable (Keller & Lehman, 2003; KnowThis.com, 2015).

There are some advantages that are stronger related to consumers because brands can help in identifying origin, allocate responsibility to the producer, and reduce risk as they are often a signal of quality (Keller & Lehman, 2003; Yudkin, 2002). Further, brands can help in the reduction of costs in a product searching process, and they can have symbolic values. Advantages closely connected to the producers are, first of all, that creating a strong and beneficial brand can evoke a sense of pride amongst management and employees (Kuppelwieser, Grefrath & Dziuk, 2011). Additionally, it is a mean for legal protection of a product's abilities (Mdg Advertising, 2013), and it can create unique associations (Keller & Lehman, 2003; Keller, 2013). Brands are also sources to a competitive advantage, and to increased financial returns (Keller & Lehman, 2003; KnowThis.com, 2015).

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## **2.2 Product placement**

Product placement is a young research area, with a rather scarce theoretical foundation, where researchers like Russell, Balasubramanian and Homer have been some of the most important contributors. Therefore, when presenting the product placement theory, we will introduce what we consider the most important research that exists at this point of time, as well as its history.

### **2.2.1 Defining product placement**

Product placement is still a relatively young research area, with definitions evolving and changing. Earlier definitions characterized it as “a paid product message aimed at influencing movie (or television) audiences via the planned and unobtrusive entry of a branded product into the movie (or television program)” (Balasubramanian, 1994, p. 31). This definition sets a standard where product placement is limited to movies and television. However, it has shown itself to be rather narrow, and product placement has later been defined as “the purposeful incorporation of a brand into an entertainment vehicle” (Russell & Belch, 2005, p.74). This definition highlights the fact that product placement can be used for all entertainment purposes, including but not exclusive to, games, books and music. The definition also gives us more features regarding product placement. Russell & Belch (2005) use the word brand, which rules out generic products and behaviour. The definition also takes into account that it is a purposeful incorporation of brands. This indicates that accidentally visible brands are not considered product placements, e.g. a random billboard in the background of a televised interview outdoors (Van Reijmersdal, Neijens & Smit, 2009).

In order to understand how product placement has evolved, we will now continue with a brief report of the history.

### **2.2.2 History**

One of the first recognized placements was when Unilever inserted Sunlight Soap into Lumière films around late 1890s (de Gregorio and Sung, 2010). After this, placements occurred in different movies throughout the 1900s. One example is *Wings*, which was the first movie to win an Academy Award for best picture in 1927, where Hershey’s chocolate was represented. Another example is the 1953 film *Roman Holiday* where one can see Audrey Hepburn driving around on a Vespa (Business Pundit, 2011). Product placement was however

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not particularly organized or profiled before the late 1970s. Payment for placements was not common, but rather a process of give and take between movie producers and brand sponsors, where movie producers wanted real-life products in their films, and brand sponsors wanted to showcase their products (Balasubramanian, 1994). According to Balasubramanian, Karrh & Patwardhan (2006), the upswing of product placement started around 1960-1970. However, it took a blockbuster movie to give it the attention it deserved.

One of the biggest breakthroughs for product placement was in 1982, when Reese's Pieces was featured in the movie E.T. Chocolate competitor M&M were given the opportunity of being the preferred candy of the alien in the movie, but they chose not to participate. Reese's Pieces took the chance, and this resulted in a reported 65% increase in sales. This was however a unique event at the time and the success of Reese's Pieces were staggering, illustrated by the fact that beer brand Coors also had a placement in the same movie, with no significant impact (Russell and Belch, 2005). Nevertheless, the success of Reese's Pieces properly introduced product placement as a method with a huge potential for marketers, which further lead to more product placements during the 1980s. Back to the Future featured major brands like Pepsi and Nike, while Ray-Ban was featured in big Tom Cruise movies like Top Gun and Risky Business (Brands and Films, 2011). Top Gun also involved placements from the U.S. navy, with the navy supplying both finances and props in order to be positively portrayed (Shah, 2012).

Entering 1990, product placement had triggered an interest among scholars, and research on the subject began to surge. This would further be enhanced when entering the new millennium, and according to the database Business Source Complete (2015), over 2,500 papers have been published on the subject since 2000. Along with the increased attention from the academics, interest from businesses soared after 2000. Television placements had a growth of 46% in 2004, and the placement industry was valued around \$ 3.5 billion (Balasubramanian et al., 2006). Big shows on TV like Ally McBeal, Friends, Frasier and Sex and the City were all frequently used vehicles where brands had the opportunity to show themselves off (Russell and Stern, 2006).

In addition to sitcoms and movies, new platforms like video games, books and songs also proved to be alternatives for placing brands. An example of this is *The Bulgari Connection*, which is a novel written by Fay Weldon in 2001, and it mentions the diamond firm Bulgari 12

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times in the book. Bulgari is said to have paid Fay Weldon an undisclosed fee for these mentions, even inspiring her to write the book in the first place (Kirkpatrick, 2001).

Product placement in movies has also grown in a huge manner during the new millennium. Increasingly, it has become a possible way of financing movies, and not just an alternative form of revenue for movie producers. One of the more describing examples of this is the tie-in the James Bond franchise had with Heineken concerning the movie Skyfall. When having financial trouble with completing the movie, Heineken came in and saved the day, in exchange of replacing the Vodka Martini as the preferred drink of Bond (Cooper, 2012). Without the possibility of being able to get a product placed in the movie, Heineken would probably never have financed it, and it would perhaps never have been produced.

### **2.2.3 General product placement**

The recent rise in popularity of product placement can be traced back to the introduction of services like DVR-recorders that lets you record programs and skip over the commercials, and also web-based services like Netflix, who relies on a monthly payment instead of advertising income. Consumers have gained more control in terms of how they watch television (Russell & Belch, 2005). Further, 90 % of households in possession of DVR-recorders use it to skip ads (Rose, 2014). This has forced advertisers to search for alternative ways of reaching their consumers (Olsen, 2005).

Even though recent definitions have included other platforms than TV and movies, TV is still the most dominating platform in terms of product placement. The U.S. is the most dominating country with a 64% share of the market, while China is the fastest growing country (PQ Media, 2012). Placement in movies and television has become such a big factor, that an entire industry specialized in product placement has risen. Entertainment capital L.A., as well as advertising centres like Chicago, New York and Toronto are all home to firms specializing in product placement. The establishment of associations like the Entertainment Marketing Association (EMA); a professional trade association for the different stakeholders in product placement, further shows how the industry is in fact becoming an institution (Russell & Belch, 2005). Purposes behind product placements differ, and Van Reijmersdal et al. (2009) states that it can be to achieve a more realistic setting, merely for exposure of the brand, or a combination. Movie audiences in the U.S. and Singapore however, are more inclined to



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believe that product placements were paid for, and not a result of adding more realism to a scene (Karrh, 2003).

An important feature of product placement is the narrative story in which the product is presented. Sivertsen (2014) mentions how narratives can contribute to consumers being less able to counterargue the message that is provided, making them easier to persuade. In relation to this, there has also been raised criticism regarding product placement. As the boundaries between advertising and editorial content become less clear (Rose, 2014), there are some challenges that need to be addressed. When it comes to the consumers, product placement is a chance for brands to advertise ethically charged products like alcohol, tobacco and junk food. It also opens up for more advertisements towards children. According to Bachman (2011), junk food producers have made a point of lowering their advertising towards children, but simultaneously increased their use of product placement. During primetime, children between 2-11 are exposed for 211 placements for junk food, while adolescents between 12-17 are exposed for 444 placements. Among others, the British Medical Association has expressed concern regarding such use of product placement (Daily Mail, 2010). At the same time, product placement can be hard to manage. Soba & Aydin (2013) mentions both the lack of control on how the placement is managed by movie producers, and the chance of a product being misinterpreted, leading to negative associations among consumers, as issues with this way of marketing.

#### **2.2.4 Product placement in Norway**

Norway has halted somewhat behind when it comes to product placement, which is something Olsen (2005) believes to be a result of the laws in this country, as well as little knowledge from Norwegian movie producers about the effect of product placement. The estimated market of 50-100 million NOK (Pettersen, 2014), is modest compared to the billion dollars of worth found in the U.S. Norway has had fairly strict rules when it comes to advertising, illustrated by a special amendment to the EU-directive prohibiting ads for products like alcohol and tobacco on TV. The new directive from EU has however loosened up the existing rules (Medie Norge, 2012), and according to Hauger (2014) this will lead to product placement increasing its presence in Norwegian films and TV-shows, and a continued increase in the coming years. It is also believed that this will increase the quality of

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Norwegian entertainment, as shows will become more realistic and producers can be more open regarding what is actually placed (Eriksen & Elnan, 2014).

The growth in Norwegian product placement has however not been that significant since it became legal, which may rest on the fact that knowledge about the subject and its potential is still somewhat low (Eriksen & Elnan, 2013). The process of placing products within the current set of laws has also proven to be a challenge for the Norwegian channels. Medietilsynet is surveilling this in Norway, and channels like TVNorge and TV2 have already been warned for breaching regulations (Medietilsynet, 2014). Still, we have seen a development which is positive, with for example Norwegian café chain Baker Hansen getting a full sized shop placed in the drama series *Hotel Cæsar* on TV2 or the railway company NSB paying to have a comedy/criminal series featured on one of their trains (Pettersen, 2014). These placements would not have been possible before the new directive, and shows that there is interest in placing brands also in Norway.

Considering this, more research regarding product placement and its place in Norway seems important.

### **2.3 Attitudes**

Hoyer, MacInnis & Pieters (2013, p. 128) define an attitude as “a relatively global and enduring evaluation of an object, issue, person, or action.” Hoyer et al. (2013) further describes how attitudes are learned, and how they often are stable over time. They also amplify how attitudes reflect our overall evaluation of elements like a brand, product, ads, people and so forth, and how this is based on a set of associations. There are five dimensions that can describe attitudes, where the first is favourability. This basically entails whether we like or dislike something. The second is attitude accessibility, which refers to how easily an attitude is retrieved from memory. The third dimension is attitude confidence, entailing the attitudes strength. The fourth, persistence, describes the endurance. The fifth and final dimension is attitude resistance. Being able to achieve a positive attitude towards one’s brand/product that entail these dimensions can be considered a goal in marketing.

Because attitudes are overall evaluations of a brand, it is unmistakably important that brands should know how to form these and use them to their advantage. Marketers use product placement as a tool to influence and change attitudes and behaviour. To be able to effectively

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change an attitude, you need to know how they are formed (Hoyer et al, 2013). Consumers form attitudes depending on whether they are based on cognitions or affection, and whether they have a high or low level of elaboration.

There exists a distinction between two categories of attitudes; explicit and implicit. Explicit attitudes are considered more conscious and require a deliberate thought process, while implicit attitudes are considered more automatic and will have a more unconscious nature (Dempsey & Mitchell, 2010; Madhavaram & Appan, 2010). There are differences in how these attitudes form. Implicit attitudes automatically form by experiencing a stimulus from an object, while explicit attitudes results from arguments and propositions (Waiguny, Nelson & Marko, 2013). Implicit attitudes can therefore be said to come from personal experiences, while explicit attitudes come from the attempted persuasion of marketing campaigns and other external sources.

Several researchers have touched upon the connection between product placement and attitude. This is interesting as attitudes are not innate, and so they can be created and modified through communication tools like product placement (Lutz, 1991). Cowley & Barron (2008) states that there are two approaches to the effect product placement has on attitudes, based on implicit and explicit memory. Implicit memory indicates that consumers do not consciously process the placement, but that the placement increases the accessibility of the brand. Consumers will then misinterpret this as brand liking, and therefore increase positive attitude. Explicit memory relates to a more conscious processing, and this can be both positive and negative. Russell (2002) illustrates this effect by finding that incongruent placements adversely affect brand attitudes because they seem out of place and are discounted. However, there are researchers that could not find any or very little attitudinal effects through the use of product placement.

## **2.4 Purchase Intention**

Purchase Intention can be described as cognitive behaviour regarding the intention to buy a particular brand or a product (Hosein, 2012). Business dictionary (2015) defines purchase intention as “a plan to purchase a particular good or service in the future”. The term is of strong importance, as companies want their brands to maximize sales, and thus profits (Tariq, Nawaz, Nawaz & Butt, 2013). Purchase intention is a part of our cognitive behaviour

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regarding the intention to buy a particular brand or product, and thus it is a part of a consumer's decision-making process (Kit & P'ng, 2014). According to Kit and P'ng (2014), this process consists of four steps. First, consumers will discover that they have a need when encountering a problem. In order to satisfy this need, the second step will be to search for a product or service, making use of past experience as well as external information in the shape of marketing and non-commercial information. Third, they will evaluate the alternatives that are available, through both known and unknown brands. The fourth and last step is an evaluation of the purchase, which will decide whether the consumer will regret the purchase or repeat it.

## **2.5 Relationship Between Purchase Intention and Attitude**

The relationship between attitudes and purchase intention has been a source for much uncertainty. It has been recognized that there should be a relationship of dependence between the two concepts, but researchers have not managed to properly establish it (Spears & Singh, 2004). Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) stated that a distinction between attitude and purchase intention is justified and necessary, while empirical evidence has not managed to establish the level of relationship between the two concepts (Spears & Singh, 2004). According to Lutz (1991), if this relationship does not hold, attitude measurements will be both useless and misleading. Two attempts at explaining the relationship is Fazio's Process Model and Ajzen & Fishbein's theory of reasoned action (TORA) (appendix 1). While Fazio's model has gathered much evidence in support of it, TORA is considered generally strong concerning marketing, and suitable as a basis for marketing decisions (Lutz, 1991).

Fazio's process model claims that attitudes are formed by learned associations toward an object (Lutz, 1991). If a consumer then has an encounter with the object, it will be able to retrieve this attitude, and this will in turn guide the behaviour. Further, the strength of the attitude will decide how likely it is for it to be retrieved. A personal experience with the object will lead to a stronger attitude than information about it. The immediate retrieval of attitudes will then guide the behaviour, with influence from the social norm.

TORA is a model used to predict behaviour on the basis of attitudes towards a behaviour as well as social influence, represented by the social norm regarding the behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The underlying logic of the model is that one must be able to measure a consumer's attitude toward performing a behaviour, not just at the object that the behaviour is

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directed. Attitude is determined by perceived consequences of interacting with the object, consisting of belief strength and evaluation (Lutz, 1991). The two factors, attitude and social norm, will have an influence on the intention of performing the behaviour, which decides how much effort they will be willing to apply. A stronger intention will generally increase the likelihood of performing the behaviour. An extension of this model is the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), which also introduces behavioural control to the model (Ajzen, 1991), in line with the “other variables” approach introduced by Wicker, especially the situational factors (Lutz, 1991). This extension accounts for the potential lack of control we have on our own behaviour, suggesting that behaviour is also dependent on some non-motivational factors, opportunity and resource to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

It is worth noting that explicit attitudes were previously believed to have a larger effect on consumer behaviour. However, later research has been able to accentuate the role of implicit attitudes. The automatic process of an unconscious action plays a big role in terms of predicting behaviour (Madhavaram & Appan, 2010).

Research on TORA suggests that attitudes have more control on behaviour than the social norm (Lutz, 1991). This paper believes that product placement may have an effect on purchase intention through its connection with attitudes, in line with TORA. However, we also theorize that it may have a more direct effect on purchase intentions. Considering that empirical evidence points to attitudes and purchase intentions being both distinct and indistinguishable in nature (Spears & Singh, 2004), measuring the direct effect on purchase intentions could prove important in order to improve our understanding of the effects of product placement. There is also the question of whether product placement will contribute to creating implicit or explicit attitudes. In line with Russell (2002), which says that product placement has a goal of working on a subconscious level, one could argue that attitudes may be implicit. However, considering that it is a persuasion from an external source, assuming that it will contribute more to explicit attitudes would seem more natural. Either way, it should have an effect on purchase intentions, in order to be an effective tool of the marketing mix.

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## **2.6 Prominence**

Product placement is subject to variations in terms of how they are done. One of the bigger variations is the prominence of the placement. According to Soba & Aydin (2013, p. 112) “prominence refers to importance, duration, frequency of product placement”. This definition refers to the technical aspects of the placement, and can be interpreted to say that if a placement measures to be big enough in one or more of these criteria, it is prominent. Prominence can also be in reference to what Russell (2002) calls plot connection. This entails to what degree the products are attached to and drives the story of the TV-show or movie it is placed in. Different degrees of plot connection combined with either an auditory or visual placement will have different degrees of modality, and hence carry different levels of meaning. In terms of plot connection, Russell (2002) states that visual placements work best with a low plot connection, while auditory placements should have a high plot connection. According to Homer (2009) there have previous been a belief that prominent placements are more effective towards influencing the attitude of consumers, however empirical research has been inconclusive regarding this. It is also noted that prominent placements may aggravate certain irritation effects that one would not find in more subtle placements. This can have a negative effect on the products that are placed.

## **2.7 Brand Strength**

Brand strength relates, in this setting, to how strongly held the attitudes of consumers towards the brand are. The basic logic of the term is that consumers may hold the same attitudes toward an object, but that these attitudes may differ in the underlying strength (Priester, Nayakankuppam, Fleming & Godek, 2004). According to Pomerantz, Chaiken & Tordesillas (1995), strong attitudes are difficult to change, they are predictive of behaviour and persistent over time. Krosnick & Smith (1994) also states that attitudes which score higher on measurements of strength experience less change when being exposed to persuasive messages. Influencing strong brands are thus harder, and it would naturally follow that product placement will have less effect on strong brands than it will on weaker held brands, in line with other marketing tools seeking to influence attitudes. So far, there seems to be little theory to support any other conclusions. In relation with this, our chosen brands will be the strong brand Tine Melk and the weaker brand Tine Cottage Cheese.

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## **2.8 Product Placement versus Commercials**

Soba & Aydin (2013) have pointed out how product placement has its weak points. Both strengths and weaknesses of this tool can be viewed in light of a comparison to the more traditional tool, commercials. Product Placement and commercials are used to influence audiences of TV and movies, and what proves to be advantages regarding product placement may be disadvantages in commercials, and vice versa. Some of the more obvious differences between product placements and commercials are the lack of control and risk of negative associations, in which commercials may provide a benefit in comparison with product placement. Meanwhile, the obvious attempt at influencing the audience and the reality that less consumers watch commercials, can be seen as downsides.

The differences mentioned are more or less propositions and observations. Unfortunately, studies on the different effectiveness between the two tools seem to be missing. Recent research performed by Maheshwari, Seth & Gupta (2014) claims that comparisons between the different tools of marketing are suffering under a lack of common parameters to measure them. This may seem natural, considering that different tools may have different purposes in terms of affecting consumers. They do however, highlight the need for a comparison between the different ways marketers can advertise (Maheshwari et al., 2014). One study has tried to measure the relationship between commercials and product placement. Gupta and Lord (1998) proposed that advertisements would outperform product placements in terms of brand awareness. They found that prominent placements produced a bigger recall effect than traditional advertisements, with subtle placements coming in third in terms of recall.

The difference in terms of creating an imaginable setting does favour product placement. Sivertsen (2014) states that vivid information is more effective than abstract information in terms of persuading the consumers. Considering that product placement can feature the actual usage of products in real life, it will be easier to present vivid information for product placement than commercials.

The small amount of research on this topic highlights the need for further focus regarding this. This study is not seeking to establish any common dimensions for a comparison between commercials and product placement, however. Nor is it testing differences on the same parameters as Gupta and Lord (1998), but rather in terms of attitudes and purchase intentions.

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## 2.9 Hypotheses

We will now present the hypotheses that our paper will revolve around. We are seeking to prove whether these hypotheses are in fact true, and from this attempt to draw conclusions regarding our research questions.

In relation with the second step of Kit & P'ngs' (2014) process of purchase, where consumers make use of previous experience as well as external information, we believe that product placement will work as a tool to positively affect the purchase intentions of consumers. Consumers receive external information about brands from product placements, and should therefore be affected so that their purchase intention towards the placed brands is increased. Little research regarding this particular effect makes it even more interesting to study. When it comes to the effect of the placement, the beliefs laid out by Homer (2009) lead us to believe that it will be different whether the placements are prominent or subtle, while Pomerantz et al. (1995) and Krosnick & Smith (1994) suggests that the strength of the brands will also determine the effectiveness of product placement. Based on these theories we propose hypothesis 1, including H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d:

**H1:** Product placement has a positive effect on purchase intention.

→ H1a: Prominent p.p. has a positive effect on purchase intention of strong brands

→ H1b: Subtle p.p. has a positive effect on purchase intention of strong brands

→ H1c: Prominent p.p. has a positive effect on purchase intention of weak brands

→ H1d: Subtle p.p. has a positive effect on purchase intention of weak brands

Russell (2002) managed to establish an effect of product placement on attitudes. This area has been further researched, and a link has more properly been established. There has also been a discussion in how attitudes and purchase intentions relate (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Lutz, 1991; Spears & Singh, 2004), and there is a possibility of product placement affecting purchase intentions through this discussed relationship. Therefore, we want to research the effect product placement has on attitudes, and if this effect correlates with a potential corresponding effect on purchase intentions. In order to find out this, we propose H2 and H3:



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**H2:** Product placement has a positive effect on consumer attitudes

→ H2a: Prominent p.p. has a positive effect on consumer attitudes of strong brands

→ H2b: Subtle p.p. has a positive effect on consumer attitudes of strong brands

→ H2c: Prominent p.p. has a positive effect on consumer attitudes of weak brands

→ H2d: Subtle p.p. has a positive effect on consumer attitudes of weak brands

**H3:** Product placement has a positive effect on consumer attitudes, which further positively influences purchase intention.

With commercials having such a big presence in the advertising world for a long time, and the growth of product placement correlating with the decline of commercial popularity (Klaassen, 2006), we find it interesting to research the effects of a commercial, and compare this with the same group that product placement is compared with. Not only will we be able to compare the two marketing tools with each other, but we will also be able to test the proposed relationship between attitude and purchase intention with two separate tools. We will therefore include a commercial in our study, and test both the purchase intentions and attitudes, as well as potential corresponding changes in the two. This further leads us to propose H4 and H5:

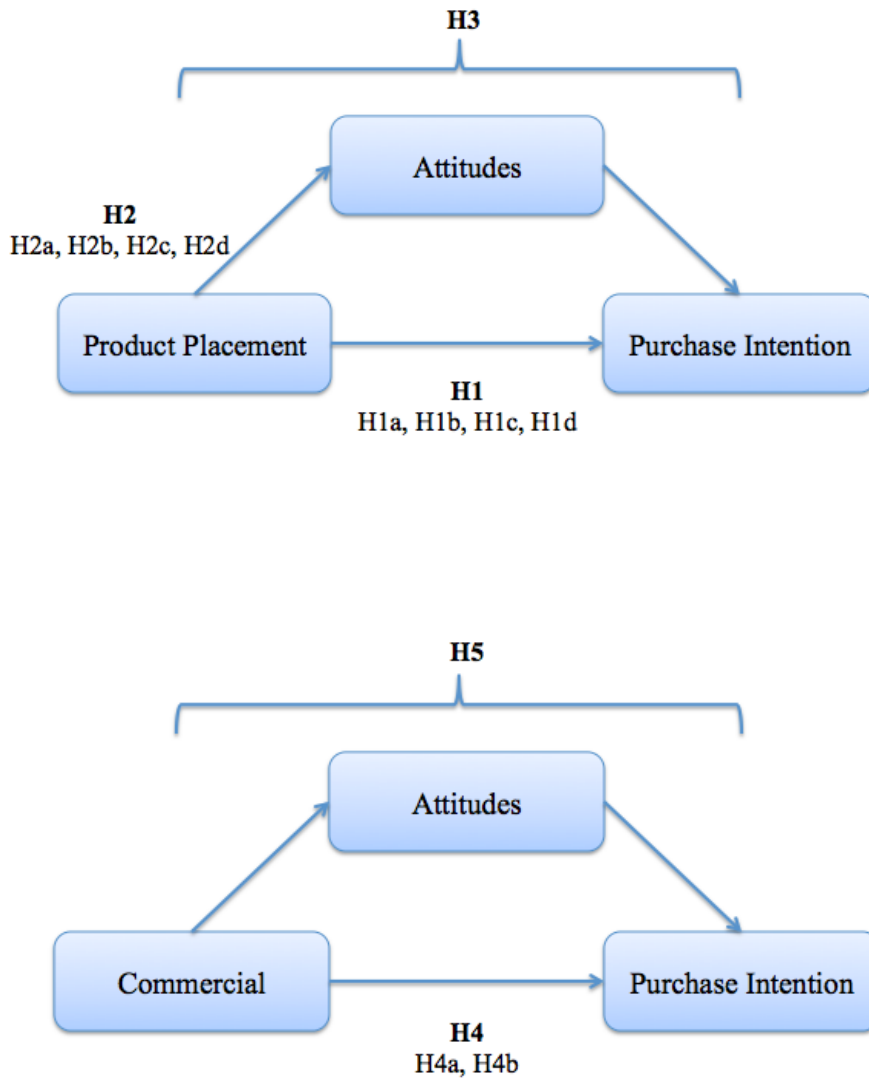
**H4:** Commercials have a positive effect on purchase intention.

→ H4a: Commercials have a positive effect on purchase intention of strong brands.

→ H4b: Commercials have a positive effect on purchase intention of weak brands.

**H5:** Commercials have a positive effect on consumer attitudes, which further positively influences purchase intention

Figure 2: Factorial Design Including Hypotheses



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# **Chapter 3:**

# **Methodology**

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### 3.0 Methodology

Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2009, p. 3) define methodology as “the theory of how research should be undertaken, including the theoretical and philosophical assumptions upon which research is based and the implications of these for the method or methods adopted”. In this chapter we will present the research and experimental design, including instruments and measurements used, and the sample and collection of data.

#### 3.1 Research Design

The research design refers to the general plan to study our scientific problem by answering the research questions (Saunders et al., 2009).

There are three different study methods that capture the purpose of research (Saunders et al., 2009). An exploratory study seeks to clarify the understanding of a problem, if one is unsure of the precise nature of the problem. Further, Saunders et al. (2009, p. 140) define the objective of a descriptive study as “to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations. The last study is explanatory, which is classified by Saunders et al. (2009, p. 591) as “research that focuses on studying a situation or a problem in order to explain the relationships between variables”. The purpose of our study was to determine the effect of product placement on attitudes and purchase intention, and whether the effects follow the traditional theoretical relationship between attitude and purchase intention, or if there are other mechanics at play. Furthermore, we wanted to measure if placement prominence and strength of the brand would influence the effect on both attitude and purchase intention. Based on this, we found that the study fell into what Saunders et al. (2009) classifies as an *explanatory study*. Further, we used a *deductive approach*, as we developed a theory and hypotheses, and through our designed research strategy tested these hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2009).

It was important for us to have a clear strategy concerning the research. Saunders et al. (2009) lay out several research strategies, with experiments being among these. Experiments are often used in explanatory research studies, with a purpose of studying causal links (Saunders et al., 2009). Based on the fact that Churchill & Iacobucci (2010) also notes that experimental approaches often will be able to provide evidence, which is more convincing of causal relationships in contrast to exploratory or descriptive studies, we chose to perform an

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experiment. Moreover, we chose to perform a *classic experiment*. This entails that we had a control group, which did not receive any manipulation, and experimental groups, which were subject to manipulation in the form of different clips. These clips contained product placement in different contexts and degrees of prominence, as well as two groups being exposed to a commercial. By doing this, we were able to compare the groups on a basis of *before* and *after* manipulation, and any difference we would find between the control group and the experimental groups could be attributed to the manipulations they had been subject to. In order for it to be classified as a classic experiment, and not a quasi-experiment, we also made sure to create a random sample of respondents (Saunders et al., 2009).

In order to collect data, we made use of a *questionnaire*. Questionnaires are useful in terms of explanatory research, and especially in terms of examining and explaining cause-and-effect relationships between variables. It also enabled us to collect large amounts of data that are representative for the whole population at a low cost (Saunders et al., 2009). There are several requirements that need to be fulfilled to be able to conduct a proper questionnaire. First of all we made sure that the questionnaire would not be too extensive, neither in length nor in difficulty (School of Liberal Arts, 2015). Further, we did not ask any leading or open-ended questions, and we used scales that were balanced and appropriate. To capture the attention of the respondents we used clips from Hodejegerne, Helt Perfekt and commercials. Because our goal was to achieve as many respondents as possible, we made sure that all the questions were within their frame of reference and that they were relevant to them (MRS, 2011). If we had not accomplished this, respondents would be forced to guess, and hence, our results would be weaker.

In order to measure attitude and purchase intention properly, we chose different approaches. According to Raubenheimer (2004), there is a requirement of three items in order to create a proper scale. When measuring attitude we chose to include several questions that later could be used to create a common attitude variable. Purchase intention is however a more concrete attribute to measure, and according to Rossiter (2002) there is no need to use more than one item to measure such an attribute in a scale. Therefore we chose to have one specific question regarding purchase intention towards the products included in the study. In addition, we added two questions that more concretely measured their previous purchase habits and future purchase intention. Regarding the overall brand Tine, we had two intention questions on the same scale. These questions measured somewhat different purchase intentions, and were

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included in order to get a more complete questionnaire. To see a full overview of the questionnaires, see appendix 2.

### 3.2 Experimental Design

We focused on collecting numerical data, and as such chose a quantitative data collection approach (Saunders et al., 2009). Our design consisted of a mono-method approach, as we did not involve any qualitative collections, but remained true to a numerical technique. We had a certain time constraint based on the fact that this is a master thesis, and so we chose to perform a cross-sectional study. This means that we studied how the effects of product placement were at a particular time, instead of studying the change and development of the effects longitudinal. We performed the experiment through a self-administered, internet-mediated questionnaire. This was done in order to effectively collect the appropriate number of responses. However, this means that we had less control of the response situation, as opposed to what we would in a laboratory experiment. Also, interviewer-administered questionnaires would give us more control of the respondents, which would be more reliable. Nevertheless, in order to prioritize getting a large sample and good response rates, we believed that the questionnaire we chose was more suitable for this study.

Our questionnaire was therefore designed to collect quantitative, cross-sectional data, and the experiment was performed in a 2x2 factorial design. Our control group was not subject to any manipulation, while the other groups were exposed to manipulations of different degrees. The research groups are as follows:

*Table 1: Research Groups*

	<b>Prominent</b>	<b>Subtle</b>
<b>Strong Brand Tine Melk</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>Weak Brand Tine Cottage Cheese</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Control Group</b>	<b>5</b>	
<b>Commercial Tine Melk</b>	<b>6</b>	
<b>Commercial Cottage Cheese</b>	<b>7</b>	

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### **3.2.1 Instrument Design**

#### ***3.2.1.1 Placements***

In order to achieve an authentic study, we chose to use actual clips from a Norwegian movie and TV-show containing product placements. Another alternative would be to create something specific for this study, but we believed that real clips would contribute to create a valid environment. We had two different products from the same brand, which we would analyse. These products were Tine Melk and Tine Cottage Cheese. Tine Melk is featured in the Norwegian movie *Hodejegerne*, while Cottage Cheese is featured in the TV-show *Helt Perfekt* (appendix 3).

Tine is a strong brand in Norway but the products varies in terms of brand strength. Tine Melk can be considered to hold a more distinct position than Cottage Cheese, which is somewhat less known. Consumers will most likely have stronger attitudes toward Tine Melk than to Cottage Cheese. This was, however, an assumption made by us, and preferably we would have performed a pretest to determine this. Nonetheless, considering that Tine Melk have been present in the Norwegian market decades longer than Cottage Cheese, we felt confident in our assumptions.

For both brands, we also had a prominent and a subtle placement. According to Soba & Aydin (2013), prominence is determined by the brand being important, have a certain duration or a certain frequency when placed. Russell (2002) introduces plot connection, which entails to which degree the brand contributes to the story of the show. A high plot connection can be interpreted as being a prominent placement. Subtle placements will be characterized by not fulfilling these requirements or to a much smaller extent. In both *Hodejegerne* and *Helt Perfekt*, we found different placements that we believed fulfilled the criteria of being prominent and subtle.

In addition to the clips containing product placement, we included commercials for the two products. This was compared with the control group and the other primed groups.

#### ***3.2.1.2 Descriptions of placements***

We made sure that the clips were complete scenes, and not just the part containing the product placement. The purpose of this was to distract the subjects away from the focus of product

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placement and create a clip that seemed natural. Pictures from the clips are found in appendix 3.

### ***3.2.1.3 Tine Melk – Prominent***

The prominent placement of Tine Melk is from the movie *Hodejegerne*. The scene starts with one of the characters in the movie, Ove Kjikerud, being poisoned. The main character, Roger Brown, then comes up with the idea of neutralizing the poison with milk. We then see Roger going to the kitchen and getting a carton of Tine Melk. When Roger returns from the kitchen, a gunfight erupts between Roger and Ove, where Ove is killed and the carton of Tine Melk explodes after being hit by one of the bullets. After the gunfight, Roger sits down, with the carton still in hand, before he drops it after a couple of seconds. The milk is mentioned as a solution to the problem of a character, and remains in the frame of the scene for several seconds. It also explodes, and this draws much attention towards it. Therefore, the placement has a plot connection, it lasts for a long duration and it has a certain importance for the scene. Also, the design and brand name is very clearly shown.

### ***3.2.1.4 Tine Melk – Subtle***

The subtle placement of Tine is also from the movie *Hodejegerne*. This scene appears later in the movie, and has a connection to the prominent placement. The main character, Roger Brown, is busy cleaning up different places in order to hide his criminal activities from earlier. One of the places he has to clean up is where the milk carton was previously hit by a bullet. Clas Greve then enters, and him and Roger have a conversation about what is currently going on. The scene mainly consists of Roger being busy cleaning up and the conversation with Clas, and for a brief couple of seconds you can see him wiping up around the carton of milk. The carton is in the middle of the frame, but only for a very small amount of time. It merely works as a prop, and cannot be said to be an important part in the scene.

### ***3.2.1.5 Cottage Cheese – Prominent***

The prominent placement of Cottage Cheese is from the TV-show *Helt Perfekt*, featuring Norwegian comedian Thomas Giertsen in the lead role. The scene with the placement starts with Thomas and his girlfriend Ine Jansen discussing whether Thomas has to attend a party. Thomas is reluctant to go, and among other things uses the excuse of being on a diet to not attend. Ine says that he can bring his cottage cheese with him in order to keep up his diet. They then go into a discussion of how to pronounce the name of the product. This discussion



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goes on while both of them are holding the characteristic container of the cottage cheese in their hands, visible in the frame. The product is visible throughout the scene, they talk about it, and much of the scene revolves around it. It seems clear that this is a prominent placement.

### ***3.2.1.6 Cottage Cheese – Subtle***

The subtle placement of Cottage Cheese is also from the TV-show Helt Perfekt. In this scene, Thomas and Ine are out shopping groceries. First we see them having a conversation in a car where they are discussing something not relevant to the placement. The scene with the placement comes next, and starts with Thomas having gotten a small shopping cart, as he did not have coins to insert into a bigger one. When Ine comments the small shopping cart, the camera points down to it, and for a very brief time, we can see some containers of Cottage Cheese laying on top of the cart. The scene then continues, without showing the Cottage Cheese anymore. The containers of Cottage Cheese are centred in the middle of the frame, but for a very short amount of time. They are not mentioned, and have no connection to the story. It is also just the one time they are shown in the frame. It therefore seems legitimate to classify this as a subtle placement.

### ***3.2.1.7 TineMelk – Commercial***

The commercial for TineMelk is one the most recent commercials for this product. Here, we can see skier Alexander Aurdal, as he attempts to perform tricks and jumps in the slopes. He fails many times, and has many falls that look painful. At the same time, he explains how one will have to expect injuring yourself in the attempt of learning how to perform the tricks. The commercial then ends with an x-ray picture of a human body, as well as a carton of milk. The tagline reads that milk strengthens the body, playing on how one needs to drink milk in order to be able to fall without seriously injuring yourself. The commercial has a functional purpose as it highlights the health benefits of drinking milk.

### ***3.2.1.8 Cottage Cheese – Commercial***

This is also a recent commercial for the product. This commercial is more focused on highlighting how delicious the product looks, and also talking about how healthy it is. While showing the product, there is a voice talking about the nutritional content. It is a short commercial, mostly focused on showing off the product, and presenting the benefits to the audience.

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### 3.2.2 Measurements

To be able to measure the effects of our variables, we had to gather data with the use of different questions and scales. Since we wished to disguise the intention of our study to the end of the questionnaire, we chose to use some questions measuring more general entertainment subjects in the beginning. Even though these questions are defined as more general they are important to include and later consider, as they can help with the mapping of popular genres, quantity of weekly viewed entertainment, and level of involvement. These are all important variables to evaluate when conducting product placement.

Our close-ended questions were graded with the use of the Likert scale. This scale is very useful when measuring attitudes and behaviour (Survey Monkey, 2015), and it is balanced around a neutral option, preferably with a five or seven point scale (Survey Gizmo, 2012). To be able to use a Likert scale properly it is important to ensure that the alternatives are labelled, unipolar, has odd numbers, and are continuous (Survey Monkey, 2015). We used seven options with *one* being “sterkt uenig” (strongly disagree) and *seven* being “sterkt enig” (strongly agree) as the extremities. The other numbers were not named, except from *four*, which we chose to define as “nøytral” (neutral).

Saunders et al. (2009) argue that it is important to have a consistent use of scale throughout the questionnaire to avoid creating confusion among the respondents. We made sure that we primarily used the Likert scale with the same alternatives, but with some exceptions. However, we believe that this did not confuse our respondents, quite opposite; we believe it awakened them. Further, it made sure that they experienced variation, so that we avoided them going into a repetitive mind-set, which often can lead to careless respondents. One example of this is where we made use of a graphic sliding scale, with the same seven-point scale, to measure the respondent’s intention towards actually buying the product connected to the questionnaire. Another example is where we asked the respondents to rank four different Norwegian dairy producers. Towards the end of our questionnaire we had an open-ended question, as we wanted to hear with the respondents own words what they thought the questionnaire was measuring. Lastly, we asked some honest questions regarding the respondents’ thoughts of product placement.

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### **3.3 Sample & Data Collection**

#### **3.3.1 Population & Sample**

##### ***3.4.1.1 Target Population***

This study aimed to find out whether product placement in Norway has an influence on purchase intention. Based on the Norwegian context in this study it was desirable for the research to be conducted to every Norwegian exposed to product placement, which was our target population. This was obviously impossible, at least with the time and money constraint of a master thesis. However, we were fortunate enough to have been given the resources to conduct this research with the help of Norstat. They helped us conduct and collect data from households all over Norway, representing both genders, all ages and all geographical nooks and crannies the country has to offer. By generating such an extensive study we hoped to reach a sample with a proper level of population representativeness so that we could generalize our finding to the whole Norwegian population.

#### **3.3.2 Sample frame, size and procedure**

After identifying the population, the next step was to identify the sampling frame. This is defined by Saunders et al. (2009, p. 214) as “the complete list of all the cases in the population, from which a probability sample is drawn”. The sampling frame should be as up to date and complete as possible (Saunders et al., 2009), which is a factor Norstat ensured. Further, it is important for the sample to properly represent the population (Saunders et al., 2009). This was a factor we stressed the importance of when communicating with Norstat, and so they strived to obtain as much of a representative sample as possible. If the sample had been incomplete, i.e. if it did not represent the target population, findings done in the study could not be completely trusted and the study would lose its credibility.

To be able to reach the goal of generalizing findings to the population, the size of the sample is crucial. As noted by Saunders et al. (2009) the larger the sample size the lower the likely error in generalising to the population. Saunders et al. (2009) further highlight four compromises that influence the appropriate sample size. The first factor states that the researchers certainty in that the characteristics of the sample represent the population is important. Second, the margin of error that a researcher can tolerate needs to be tolerable for any estimate made from the sample. Third, it must be taken under consideration that it often is

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a minimum threshold of data cases in each cell is you subdivide your data. Finally, the total size of the population in which the sample is drawn needs to be considered.

The central limit theorem describes the relationship in which the larger the absolute size of the sample, the closer to normal distribution the data will be, and hence it will be more robust (Saunders et al., 2009). Furthermore, Saunders et al. (2009) highlights that to be able to reach a sample as close to a normal distribution as possible, a rule of thumb is to have a minimum of 30 respondents as the smallest number within each group. Norstat can offer data collection in 19 different European countries (Norstat, 2015), with 77.000 panels available in Norway. We asked to obtain only a fraction of their total Norwegian panel availability, namely a total of 350 respondents. This corresponds with 50 respondents in each of our 7 groups, exceeding the minimum requirement of 30. Norstat (2015) states that they have a response rate of 30%, meaning that they sent our questionnaires to approximately 1200 people. With the use of statistical inference we then drew conclusions for the entire Norwegian population based on our sample (Saunders et al., 2009).

### **3.4 Reliability**

Reliability measures whether our study can prove to be consistent in terms of its findings (Saunders et al., 2009). There are four threats to the reliability of a study. The first one is subject or participant error. This could for example be that the participants had trouble understanding the questions, or perhaps the timing of the study caught the participants in a particular mood. In order to reduce the danger of the participants misunderstanding the questions, we paid much attention to how we formulated the questionnaire, and particularly the wording and format of the questions. Further, the questionnaire was sent via email, so that the participants would not feel pressured to respond right away, but rather when they felt it to be appropriate.

The second threat is subject or participant bias (Saunders et al., 2009). This means that the participants may answer the questions in a way that is expected of them, and not what they actually feel. We tried to remove this threat as much as possible by making the questionnaire anonymous, and also we tried to hide the purpose of the study. We also included a question at the end where we asked them what they thought the study was about. In case the respondents proved to have understood what we were trying to measure, we would have to assess whether this was disruptive for the dataset as a whole. Because the groups who were exposed for

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manipulation did not receive any questions before watching the clip, we also made sure asking questions about their preference of the clip, we believe this helped in hiding the purpose, and therefore reducing the chances of participator bias.

The two last threats, observer error and observer bias, was taken care of by creating a structured questionnaire, where only the brands were different, and by having rating statements which leaves little room for misinterpretation between observers. By doing this, we hope to have reduced the threats to the reliability sufficiently enough to ensure consistent findings.

### **3.5 Ethics**

Ethical issues will often arise when planning and conducting research, and our experiment was no exception. First of all, we guaranteed that our respondents would be anonymous, allowing them to feel privacy and hopefully collect more honest answers. Regarding the analysis and reporting of the questionnaire, we made sure to maintain our objectivity (Saunders et al., 2009).

Because the clips we showed to our respondents are actual clips from the Norwegian movie *Hodejegerne* and the TV-series *Helt Perfekt*, we made sure to follow Norwegian copyright laws. Norwegian Lovdata (2015) states in §16 that “ The King may issue rules regarding the right of archives, libraries, museums and educational and research institutions to make copies of works for conservation and safety purposes and other special purposes...”. Further, the Association of Higher Education Institutions in Norway have made an agreement with Norwaco, which supports that students are allowed “independent access to the use of digital TV and radio recording in student assignments and projects” (Universitets- og Høyskolerådet, 2014). Our research has non-commercial incentives, with pure academic purposes, and so these laws are applicable. Based on these policies we decided that it was legal to edit the movie and series as well, and use those clips in our academic research. Regarding the displaying of the clips, we made sure, with the help of Norstat, that these were solely connected to the questionnaire. This is important because then the respondents would not be able to share or copy, and hence spread, the clips further.

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The clip used from Hodejegerne contains some graphic violence, and so we assured that the respondents would not be younger than 18 years. Further, we made sure to state that the following clip in the questionnaire would be violent, so that respondents could choose not to participate.

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# **Chapter 4:**

## **Results**

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## 4.0 Results

This chapter consists of an overview of the dataset and presents the results of our survey. First we will describe the data we collected. We will then continue with a factor analysis in order to create new variables. After this we will describe the parametric tests used to measure the dataset. We will then finish the chapter with a test of our hypotheses. For our task in processing the data we have received, we chose to make use of SPSS Statistics Version 22.

### 4.1 Data description

Our dataset consisted of seven different files, which represented each of the groups we tested. These files were treated separately, and we merged parts of them when necessary. In order to control the distribution of the dataset, we performed a descriptive analysis. The final sample consisted of 352 respondents altogether, evenly distributed on the seven different groups. Group 2, the subtle product placement of TineMelk, had 52 respondents while each of the other groups consisted of 50 respondents. The distribution between male and female was even, with a slight overweight of male respondents. However, in group 4 which is the subtle placement of Cottage Cheese, there was an overweight of men with a ratio of 31-19. This was not ideal, but as this was a result performed by Norstat and because of time constraints connected to the thesis, we did not have the time to request a new sample. Therefore, we chose to keep it and treat it equal to the other groups. Age wise, we had an even distribution from 18-86 in the entire sample. For a more complete overview of the final sample, see appendix 4.

We also checked to see whether our respondents understood that our survey was about product placement. This was tested by having them answer a question about what they thought was the purpose of the survey, with a time limit of 30 seconds on the question. Some respondents managed to answer product placement as the purpose, but they represented a very small percentage of the sample. We did not believe this to be disruptive for the sample, and chose to keep these respondents.

We made sure to test for skewness and kurtosis for the variables. This is done to ensure that the variables of the data are distributed normally. Non-normality can create problems later when performing parametric tests, as these tests assume datasets to be normally distributed. According to Field (2009), the probability of our variables being normally distributed



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diminishes the further away skewness and kurtosis are from zero. If we have positive values of kurtosis, this indicates a pointy and heavy-tailed distribution, while negative values give an indication of a flat and light-tailed distribution. Positive values of skewness indicate the distribution to be heavy on the left side, and negative values indicates the distribution to be heavy on the right side (Field, 2009). When deciding which limits we would use to determine the suitability of skewness and kurtosis, there are some different views. Field (2009) originally uses  $-1/1$  as a determining value, but according to Davis & Pecar (2010) one can be a bit more flexible. These are however values on the basis of very strict statistics. This is a marketing study and therefore we can afford to be even more flexible. Kline (2011) sets forth a limit of  $-3/3$  on skewness and  $-10/10$  for kurtosis. Therefore, we decided to accept limits that were higher than what Field (2009) and Davis & Pecar (2010) suggests.

If we were performing a strict statistical study, some of our variables would have proven to have values outside the absolute range. In terms of our attitude variables, the question “Jeg synes Tine produkter har høy kvalitet” had high kurtosis values for the control group and the Cottage Cheese Commercial group, respectively 4.069 and 4.801. This question is one of five items with a purpose of measuring the attitude towards Tine. However, this proves to be well within the limits set by Kline (2011), and when including data from all groups connected to the question, the kurtosis values dropped considerably lower. Therefore, we did not find it necessary to exclude any of the factors. A complete table over the kurtosis and skewness values can be found in appendix 5.

We also chose to keep the remaining factors with kurtosis values slightly higher than the limits set by Field (2009) and Davis & Pecar (2010) (appendix 6). Our proposed parametric test, namely the t-test, is considered robust against non-normality (Rasch & Guiard, 2004; Olson, 1974), and could most likely withstand the risk of some variables not having a perfectly normal distribution. Therefore, we chose to keep the factors in our dataset.

## **4.2 Factorial analysis**

According to Field (2009, p.628) a factor analysis is useful in order “to reduce a data set to a more manageable size while retaining as much of the original information as possible”. Field (2009) also states that it can be used in order to measure an underlying variable. In order to perform a factor analysis, one originally needs to identify factors that describe the variables

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we are trying to research. This can for example be done through a principal component analysis (PCA) (Field, 2009). Due to the design of our questionnaire, in which we included specific questions more or less proven to measure attitude, the factors we believed to measure attitude were already identified. Purchase intention was measured on a single-item scale, which required no factor analysis. Therefore, we saw no need to perform a PCA in order to identify our original factors.

Even though we had a clear picture of which factors we believed were suited to measure attitude, we needed to test whether the factors loaded onto our assumed attitude variable. According to Field (2009), a factor rotation is useful in terms of discriminating between factors. Usually, the variables will load highly on the most important factor, and have small loadings on other factors. A factor rotation makes sure that variables load maximally to only one factor. There are two main types of rotations, orthogonal rotation and oblique rotation. Orthogonal rotation is used when one does not expect the factors to correlate. As mentioned earlier, we expected our factors to correlate, and so we chose an oblique rotation. Since these expectations were based on theoretical backgrounds, we followed the recommendation from Field (2009) and chose the direct oblimin rotation. In the direct oblimin rotation, loadings with a value above 0,4 should be marked. All of our factors included in the rotation had a loading score well above 0,4. Therefore, we considered our chosen factors to be well suited in order to measure attitude. Due to this, we found it to be redundant to perform a factor analysis for the whole dataset. Factor loadings for our factors are found in appendix 7.

Considering that our attitude factors measured well up against the factor rotation, we found reason to include these factors in a common attitude variable. Such an attitude variable was created for each of the groups, which gave us an opportunity to compare the change in attitude for our different groups. With purchase intention being on a single-item scale, we already had a variable to compare between the groups. We chose to keep one question for each of the products placed. We had two other questions concerning the placed products, where one measured the last time they had purchased the product, and one measured when they would purchase the product again. These, however, proved to have different values in the control group, which had received no manipulation. This indicated that the respondents were inclined to give themselves a sort of “error margin” when responding to something that would potentially happen compared to something that already has happened. Due to this, we chose to not include these questions in the testing of hypotheses.

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### **4.3 Variables**

After the factorial analysis we ended up with a set of both old and new variables, and these are the ones we will use further in our analysis of the hypothesis. The table that follows will give an overview over these variables, which questions these are made out of and what the variables entail.

Table 2: Sum Variables

	Variable	Consist of	Entails
<b>Independent</b>	Group	Group 1	1: A prominent placement of the strong brand Tine Melk
		Group 2	2: A subtle placement of the strong brand Tine Melk
		Group 3	3: A prominent placement of the weak brand Cottage Cheese
		Group 4	4: A subtle placement of the weak brand Cottage Cheese
		Group 5	5: The control group with no priming before questions
		Group 6	6: A commercial for the strong brand Tine Melk
		Group 7	7: A commercial for the weak brand Cottage Cheese
<b>Dependent</b>	Attitudes Tine Melk	Q8_1	“My total attitude towards the brand Tine Melk is positive”
		Q8_2	“My perception of the brand Tine Melk is beneficial”
		Q8_3	“I associate something positive with the brand Tine Melk”
	Attitudes Cottage Cheese	Q12_1	“My total attitude towards the brand Cottage Cheese is positive”
		Q12_2	“My perception of the brand Cottage Cheese is beneficial”
		Q12_3	“I associate something positive with the brand Cottage Cheese”
	Purchase Intention Tine Melk	Q9x2_2	“I am willing to buy Tine Melk in the future”
	Purchase Intention Cottage Cheese	Q13x2_2	“I am willing to buy Cottage Cheese in the future”

Table 3: Sum Control Variables

<b>Dependent</b>	Concentration	Q4new_3 Q5new_1 Q5new_2	“I was involved in the plot of the clip” “I was concentrated on the plot” “I was following the plot of the clip”
	Entertainment	Q4new_2 Q4new_3	“There is something appealing about this clip to me” “I found the clip entertaining”

#### 4.4 Cronbach’s alpha

Since we were using a factorial analysis we needed to check the reliability of our research. This was done with the use of Cronbach’s Alpha (Field, 2009). Cronbach’s alpha is represented by a scale in which a desired value should be 0,7 - 0,8 or more. Field (2009) describes that if values are considerably lower than these we are faced with an unreliable scale. All our alpha values were higher than the desired limit of 0.7, and so they are considered reliable (appendix 8).

#### 4.5 Parametric test

In order to test our hypotheses we made use of a parametric test to examine differences between our groups. Parametric tests assume data to be normally distributed, and if they are not normally distributed there is a danger of receiving incorrect results (Field, 2009). There were some instances with high kurtosis among our factors, but overall our data had a normal distribution, see appendix 5. Considering that the parametric test we used, the t-test, is robust against potential non-normality, we were confident our results would be accurate (Field, 2009).

The t-test is a statistical tool used to compare the difference in means between two groups based on numerical data (Saunders et al., 2009). It effectively examines whether a difference between these groups’ average exist because of a random chance in the selection of the sample (Statwing, 2015). More detailed, we made use of the independent T-test, considering that we are not conducting a longitudinal study (Field, 2009). The t-test was used in order to

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compare between the control group and the other groups, which have been exposed to manipulation.

Another assumption for parametric tests is homogeneity of variance. Checking for this can be done through Levene's test (Field, 2009). Levene's test tries to prove a hypothesis stating that the variance is equal for all groups, meaning a difference in variance of zero. If the test is significant at a p-value less than 0.05, then the hypothesis is disproved, and variances are not equal. Which means that a p-value above 0.05 proves that variances are equal. Field (2009) however, argues that Levene's test does not give a clear indication of whether the variances are unequal enough to cause any problems. If there were any significant results where Levene's test indicated a breach on the homogeneity, we would make an assessment of the necessity to compare with a non-parametric test. We did, however, not experience any results that made this necessary.

## **4.6 Hypotheses**

We will now continue with presenting the results of our T-tests on the hypotheses we put forward. This part will proceed by working through each hypothesis, and assess to which degree it proved to be true from the T-test. In order to determine whether a hypothesis was proven we looked for changes between the different groups, which proved to be significant on a 95% confidence interval. An overview of the t-test results is illustrated in appendix 9.

### **4.6.1 Hypothesis 1: Product placement has a positive effect on product placement**

This is our main hypothesis, and it is divided into four parts, H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d. To determine whether H1 was proven remains on how many of the smaller hypotheses was proven.

*H1a: prominent product placement will have a positive influence on strong brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 1. Here we saw the purchase intention decrease in value after manipulation, from 5.7 to 4.96. The result was significant with  $p = 0.034$ . This results in H1a not being true.

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*H1b: subtle product placements will have a positive influence on strong brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 2. Here we saw purchase intention decrease in value after manipulation, from 5.7 to 5.23. The result was not significant with  $\rho = 0.132$ . This results in H1b not being true.

*H1c: prominent product placements will have a positive influence on weak brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 3. Here we saw purchase intention increase in value after manipulation, from 3.84 to 4.1. The result was not significant with  $\rho = 0.533$ . This results in H1c not being true.

*H1d: subtle product placements will have a positive influence on weak brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 4. Here we saw purchase intention increase in value after manipulation, from 3.84 to 4.72. The result was significant with  $\rho = 0.047$ . This results in H1d being true.

As we can see, one of the four hypotheses that make up H1 proved to be true. On the basis of this, we cannot claim H1 to be completely true, but true for certain conditions.

#### **4.6.2 Hypothesis 2: Product placement has a positive effect on consumer attitudes.**

This hypothesis is one of two that try to establish the nature of the relationship between attitudes and purchase intention. Therefore, the first one tries to establish if we could see any significant changes in consumers' attitudes from product placement. This hypothesis was also divided into four parts, with the same parameters as for purchase intention.

*H2a: prominent product placements will have a positive influence on strong brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 1. Here we saw consumer attitudes decrease in value after manipulation, from 5.29 to 4.46. The result was significant with  $\rho = 0.005$ . This results in H2a not being true.

*H2b: subtle product placements will have a positive influence on strong brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 2. Here we saw consumer attitudes decrease in value after manipulation, from 5.29 to 4.75. The result was not significant with  $\rho = 0.055$ . This results in H2b not being true.

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*H2c: prominent product placements will have a positive influence on weak brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 3. Here we saw consumer attitudes increase in value after manipulation, from 4.21 to 4.29. The result was not significant with  $p = 0.799$ . This results in H2c not being true.

*H2d: subtle product placements will have a positive influence on weak brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 4. Here we saw consumer attitudes increase in value after manipulation, from 4.21 to 4.42. The result was not significant with  $p = 0.518$ . This results in H2d not being true.

As we can see from the results, there were no positive changes in attitude for strong brands, regardless of prominent or subtle. There were some positive changes in attitude for weak brands, but these changes were not significant. Therefore, we cannot claim H2 to be true.

#### **4.6.3 Hypothesis 3: Product placement has a positive effect on consumer attitudes, which further positively influences purchase intention.**

This hypothesis tries to establish that purchase intention increases with an increase in consumer attitudes. The question tries to test if the proposed theoretical relationship exists when subdued to product placement.

From the results, we can see attitudes not being positively changed by product placement. The positive changes we saw for weak brands were not significant, and so we did not measure a distinct positive change in attitudes. We did, however, see a positive significant change in purchase intent for weak brands when respondents were exposed to subtle product placement. With no positive change in attitudes, but a significant positive change in purchase intention, we cannot claim H3 to be true.

#### **4.6.4 Hypothesis 4: Commercials have a positive effect on purchase intention.**

This hypothesis tries to establish that commercials will positively influence purchase intention. Here we divided the hypothesis into two parts, strong and weak brand.



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*H4a: Commercials have a positive effect on purchase intention of strong brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 6. Here we saw purchase intention decrease in value after manipulation, from 5.7 to 5.12. The result was significant with  $p = 0.071$ . This results in H4a not being true.

*H4b: Commercials have a positive effect on purchase intention of weak brands.*

This was tested by comparing group 5 and group 7. Here we saw purchase intention increase in value after manipulation, from 3.84 to 4.18. The result was not significant with  $p = 0.457$ . This results in H4b not being true.

As we can see from the results, there were no significant positive changes in purchase intention from commercials. Therefore, we cannot claim H4 to be true.

#### **4.6.5 Hypothesis 5: Commercials have a positive effect on consumer attitudes, which further positively influences purchase intention.**

This hypothesis tries to establish that purchase intention increases with an increase in consumer attitudes. The question tries to test if the proposed theoretical relationship exists when subdued to commercials.

We could not record any positive significant changes in purchase intention from commercials. As we can see from appendix 9, there were no significant positive changes in consumer attitude from the commercials either. With no significant positive changes in both parameters, we cannot claim H5 to be true.

#### **4.7 Control Variables**

After presenting the results from our hypotheses, we will now present the results of other analyses we performed with the dataset (appendix 10). We had mainly two other areas that we wanted to explore. First we checked for demographic connections; namely differences between male and female, young and old. Second, we checked to see what role concentration and entertainment played in terms of the effectiveness of the clips.

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### **4.7.1 Demographic trends**

When testing for demographic trends, we focused on gender and age. Seeing the difference in how men and women reacts to product placement can be very interesting, and can also have an impact in terms of whom, when and for what products product placement is best suited. Spotting a difference in age can also be of value, as this can limit or expand the possibilities of product placement usage.

#### ***4.7.1.1 Age***

We had different age intervals that the respondents were divided into in the questionnaire. In order to get a more comprehensible overview, we chose to divide the groups into two, 18-44 and 45-86. To separate between these two, we called them young and old. After separating between them, we continued by performing t-tests for differences in means.

As we can see from appendix 10, some of the results were not significant according to a 95% confidence interval. Considering that we were not trying to prove any hypotheses, we did not believe significance to be as important, but in cases of very high p-values, we were more critical. We only found purchase intention towards Tine Melk to be in a very clear breach of significance.

The mean differences between young and old were not remarkably large, but we observed a clear trend. In general, attitudes and purchase intention seemed to be larger for the younger population than for the older. This was true for everything apart from attitudes toward Cottage Cheese. Here the elderly population held a higher attitude than the younger.

#### ***4.7.1.2 Gender***

Gender was naturally split into two groups. By separating the population on the basis of genders, and then performing t-tests between the variables, we could check if there were any big discrepancies between men and women.

Here we also had some results that could not be considered significant. Purchase intention for Cottage Cheese had a very high p-value, and there were also some of the other variables that had p-values that were a bit high. The slightly higher p-values were however, still something we considered to be less problematic for this analysis.

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The differences between men and women proved to be a bit larger than for young and old. There was also a clear trend that emerged, in which women, in general, had a more positive attitude and higher purchase intentions than men. Every variable showed higher values for women than men.

#### ***4.7.1.3 Result assessment***

Of course, this analysis was performed across different manipulations, and must be discussed with some caution. However, we still believed the results to be of interest, because the trends were so clear. Even though the differences were somewhat small, the fact that they pointed in the same direction would indicate that it is representable for the population. The p-values were a bit high, which we could expect from groups that have been getting different treatments. Many of them were however significant, and most of them were close enough for us to accept them as reliable. Therefore, we considered the results so far to be interesting and representable.

#### **4.7.2 Clip interaction**

When checking for the clip interaction, we had to perform another factor analysis, in order to create a common variable for involvement and liking of the clips. We had included questions in the questionnaire that we believed measured these parameters, and performed a factor rotation on three questions for clip concentration and two questions for clip entertainment. A direct oblimin rotation showed that the questions included for both involvement and liking had loading scores well above 0.4 for all groups, and therefore measured the same variable. Cronbach's alpha was well above 0.7 for each group as well. Therefore, we saw no problems with the reliability of these tests.

We then continued by merging the questions into the two variables, clip concentration and clip entertainment. Considering that our control group had not been exposed to any clips, we would not include them at this point. We divided the population in two groups, above and below the neutral value 4. Respondents above 4 were considered to have a high concentration towards the clip, or to consider the clip as entertaining. Opposite, respondents below 4 had a low concentration or did not consider the clip as entertaining. After this, we performed tests to see differences in attitude and purchase intention, but also across age and gender.

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#### ***4.7.2.1 Clip concentration***

For clip concentration most of our results proved to be significant for the 95% interval. Purchase intention Cottage Cheese had the highest p-value with 0.163, but we believed this to be acceptable for this type of analysis. We could also see a clear trend emerging, where a higher concentration towards the clip leads to both higher attitude and purchase intention. Every parameter had a higher value for the respondents that stated to have a concentration above the neutral point.

It is also clear that if the respondents paid attention to the clip, they rated them as much more entertaining. Also, there was a rather big gap between the mean scores of the respondents that had a high concentration and those with low concentration.

When checking concentration for age and gender, there was less information to gather. There seemed to be a difference in terms of the concentration between young and old, but a significance level of 0.887 is rather high. Therefore, we could not really state a difference here. Between women and men, we found little to no difference. Such a small difference, however significant, could not be said to have much impact, and did not reveal any sort of trend.

#### ***4.7.2.2 Clip entertainment***

For clip entertainment we also found most of our results to be significant. The highest p-value was 0.170, which we rate as acceptable. Here we also found that respondents which had rated the clips as entertaining score higher on all parameters, and therefore proved to have a higher attitude and purchase intention than respondents which had reported lower entertainment from the clips.

We also found the same mechanics for entertainment and concentration to be applicable here. Respondents who were more entertained had a higher concentration, and there was a big gap in means for respondents who were entertained versus those who were not.

As we checked for differences in age and gender, we had of much the same results as for concentration. There seemed to be a certain gap between young and old, but the high p-value indicated that this was not something we could claim. Also, there existed a very small difference between men and women, and this seemed to have little impact.

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#### ***4.7.2.3 Result assessment***

We also hold these results of value because they take into account manipulation, and generalize the effects of it. Despite the respondents being exposed to different types of clips, it is important to take into account if they were entertained and concentrated. Also, the results are to a large degree significant, and show clear trends. Therefore, we see no problem in terms of claiming these results to be valid and interesting to discuss. We are, however, aware of the fact that how we divided the population in terms of concentration and entertainment led us to include the neutrals as respondents who were highly concentrated and entertained. Nevertheless, we believe this to be the correct way of dividing the population, and as this was an analysis of control variables, we do not see it as disruptive for the study.

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# **Chapter 5:**

# **Discussion**

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## 5.0 Discussion

In this paper we have tried to test the effects of product placement on purchase intention and attitudes, and compared these effects to commercials. From our designed experiment, we received the results, which we presented in the previous chapter. We will now continue by discussing what these results mean, and how we see them in relevance to our study. We will also discuss the results that we found from our control variables. The discussion is in relation to the research questions presented earlier:

1. *How are Norwegian consumers affected (attitudes and purchase intention) by the newly implemented marketing tool of product placement in Norwegian entertainment, by the use of Norwegian brands?*
2. *How does Norwegian commercials measure up against product placement in terms of influencing (attitudes and purchase intention) Norwegian consumers?*

## 5.1 Hypotheses

Based on these research questions, we deduced five hypotheses. We will now turn to a discussion of our findings from these hypotheses, and what these findings mean (appendix 9).

### **H1: Product placement has a positive effect on purchase intention.**

- H1a: Prominent p.p. has a positive effect on purchase intention of strong brands
- H1b: Subtle p.p. has a positive effect on purchase intention of strong brands
- H1c: Prominent p.p. has a positive effect on purchase intention of weak brands
- H1d: Subtle p.p. has a positive effect on purchase intention of weak brands

Hypothesis 1 had some interesting results for us. This is the main hypothesis for our research, and tries to prove that product placement is effective in terms of influencing consumers purchase intention. It also takes into account the effect of strong versus weak brands, as well as prominent versus subtle placements. Theory regarding influencing purchase intention has mainly focused on its path via attitude change (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Spears & Singh, 2004; Lutz, 1991). A more direct approach enabled us to see what effects it had outside of the proposed theoretical relationship. The variations that we included in order to test different aspects are theoretically linked to attitude (Russell, 2002; Homer, 2009). However, as our

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results show, these factors also have an impact in terms of purchase intention. Even though our results were not exactly as we expected.

We believed that product placement would have a positive effect on the placed brands. We expected to see different degrees of influence across brand strength and prominence, but still positive effects. We ended up with two quite interesting significant results. The first significant result was for the prominently placed strong brand. Here, purchase intention decreased after manipulation. Respondents exposed to manipulation reported less intent to purchase the product. The other significant result managed to prove parts of our hypothesis. This was for the subtle placement of the weak brand, where we actually saw purchase intention increase after manipulation. These findings have an intriguing manner about them. The significant findings are located on each pole, and have opposite results. Based merely on our results one should avoid prominent placements of strong brands, and embrace the subtle placements of weak brands.

Theoretically, it is hard to back up these propositions. Considering that we chose the contextual variations that is said to have an impact on attitudes, we could to some degree foresee the differences that occurred. It is still surprising however, that a prominent placement of strong brands seems to have a negative effect. Consumers who see a placed brand they most likely have a strong connection to, and can be considered loyal towards (Yudkin, 2002), are less interested in purchasing that particular brand. Meanwhile, if they see a brand considered to have a weaker position, their will to purchase it increases. One possible explanation of this may be linked to the fact that they have never considered the weaker brand. The second step in the purchase process laid out by Kit & P'ng (2014) states that consumers search for a product or service that can fulfil the need they have identified on the first step. Here they will make use of the past experience as well as external information. In the case of the weak brand, they may have a slight knowledge of its existence, but they did not possess enough external information to consider it. When realizing that it is in fact a product of interest for e.g. a celebrity or show, they may be more inclined to try it. In some way, this might have the same effect as a free sample. The free sample gives consumers the chance to test the product almost without any risk, as they do not have to pay for it. The placement of a product reduces the risk of trying it, because it is to some degree endorsed by the show, or a character. Meanwhile, consumers are already aware of the stronger brand. They have tried it already, meaning that they have personal experience. Hence, an endorsement



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from a placement does potentially not provide any more information for them to purchase it. Rather, it seems as though the respondents become offended by the attempt of persuading them, and have the reaction of a lesser intent to purchase it.

We must also take into consideration the fact that there is a difference in the prominence of the placements. Theory regarding the difference between these is not directly related to purchase intention, and so there are some speculations to be made here as well. Prominent placements are very clear and have a dominating position while subtle placements are more in the background, and will be less noticeable (Soba & Aydin, 2013). For a prominent placement, the external information toward the consumers is on a very conscious level. Most likely, the consumer will have a conscious processing of the placement (Russell, 2002). This may further enhance the effect of the strong brand, as consumers become more aware of how they are trying to be influenced. The subtle placement is processed more on a subconscious level (Russell, 2002), and therefore may not be considered as external information to the same degree. Perhaps they share an identification with the show, and in some way translates this to be more of a personal experience. Processing on a less conscious, implicit manner can lead to a positive shift in attitudes (Cowley & Barron, 2008), and this may have some ground regarding purchase intention as well. This may also be in line with Sivertsen's (2014) statement, in that vivid information is more effective in terms of persuading the consumers. The fact that the clip shows the main character buying the product can contribute to consumers imagining themselves purchasing the product, and therefore raise their intention to purchase it. This would perhaps also explain why the results are very opposite for the two different brands and placements.

## **H2: Product placement has a positive effect on consumer attitudes**

- H2a: Prominent p.p. has a positive effect on consumer attitudes of strong brands
- H2b: Subtle p.p. has a positive effect on consumer attitudes of strong brands
- H2c: Prominent p.p. has a positive effect on consumer attitudes of weak brands
- H2d: Subtle p.p. has a positive effect on consumer attitudes of weak brands

Hypothesis 2 aims to examine the more researched area of product placements' effect on consumer attitudes. We made it a point to research this effect with regard to the same elements as used for hypothesis 1, namely the same strong and weak brand, in both a prominent and subtle context. The results related to hypothesis 2 did not enable us to prove

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any of them, since neither of them moved in a positive direction. However, we did see a significant negative change in attitude for the prominent placement of the strong brand. A nearly significant negative change was also spotted for the subtle placement of the strong brand.

In terms of attitude, our findings contradict what theory states. According to Krosnick & Smith (1994) brands with a high score on strength measure less change when exposed to external influence. Our assumed strong brand did not only show significant change in attitude, but the change in attitude was also remarkably higher than the non-significant changes for the weak brand. This may have an explanation in terms of the experiment design, something we will reflect on later in the paper. If we consider these results valid, there are other possibilities. Perhaps the clip we used for the strong brand was not designed to influence consumers in terms of attitude. Russell (2002) and Homer (2009) argue for the fact that much use of product placement has been to stimulate awareness of the brand. This has been noted as important in terms of increasing brand equity (Aaker, 1991), and can therefore be a valid motivation for Tine. Placing Tine Melk in a movie, which is so obviously suited for adults, can raise awareness among the adult population of Tine Melk. If so, attitude changes are not that important, and they may be more concerned with adults to some degree increasing their awareness of the product. Experiencing a temporary drop in attitude towards the product may be considered acceptable, if it triggers a more conscious processing of the brand. As we have not intended to measure awareness effects, this will not be further discussed in this paper.

Another possibility is the same argument we used for purchase intention. Perhaps the strong brand argument transcends the resistance to change, and leads to consumers reacting negatively to influence. Tine Melk may be considered a top-tier brand in terms of strength. When dealing with such strength in a brand, consumers might have personal experiences that are so strong, and run so deep, that they react negatively to persuasion. We believe that they can consider this an “intrusion” into their personal experiences with the brand, and therefore have a negative reaction towards such external pressure.

There is also the possibility of a prominent placement aggravating irritation effects for consumers. This has been discussed both by Russell (2002) and Homer (2009), where consumers start to wonder why the product is placed at all, and shield themselves from influence. Homer (2009) states that there has been a belief towards prominent placements

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being best suited to influence attitudes, but that empirical results have been more inconclusive. Our results can also be considered to be inconclusive, with few significant results regarding attitudes. However, the one significant result is in line with consumers reacting negatively to the placement because it does not belong there.

**H3: Product placement has a positive effect on consumer attitudes, which further positively influences purchase intention.**

Hypothesis 3 has the purpose of testing the theoretical relationship between attitudes and purchase intention. We were trying to test this relationship by checking whether attitudes and purchase intention would follow the same pattern when being exposed to manipulation. They would not necessarily have the exact same reaction, but we wanted to see if there was a trend that would indicate attitudes actually having a measurable impact on purchase intention. This type of reaction would be in line with the TORA-model (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and Fazio's process model (Lutz, 1991).

We were not able to prove hypothesis 3 for the strong brands, because of the lack of positive changes, in both attitude and purchase intention. There was a significant positive change in purchase intention for the subtle placement of the weak brand, but non-significant positive effects on attitude. Despite our hypotheses not being proven, these are still interesting results.

First, we have the significant negative changes in both attitude and purchase intention for the prominent placement of the strong brand. However negative, this is a result that follows the proposed relationship. Purchase intention had a drop of 0.74, while attitude measured a drop of 0.83. With both drops being significant, one could make the argument of attitude having a decisive influence on purchase intention. This is of course not a positive result for product placement in general, given that its purpose is to positively affect the relationship. However, for theory regarding the relationship itself, it stands as a somewhat confirming result. When it comes to the subtle placement of the weak brand, the non-significant increase in attitude suggests that there may be a relationship here as well. The fact that it was not significant makes us unable to claim that the hypothesis is true, but we can still see traces of an existing relationship. Considering that both the TORA and Fazio's process model states that attitude is just one of several factors influencing purchase intention (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Lutz,

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1991), perhaps the non-significance is an indicator of just that. There is a relationship existing, but the fact that other factors also have a part to play, downplays the role of attitude.

Unfortunately, we cannot draw any safe conclusions on this hypothesis. Our results are mostly in line with the statement of Spears & Sing (2004), saying that attitude and purchase intention is both distinct and indistinguishable when empirically tested. The relationship seems clear for one group, while it proves to be unstable for the other groups. Therefore we cannot claim any significant findings for the relationship. However, we can more or less state that we find a certain relationship existing. For different situations there are different degrees of connectivity.

We do want to add a speculation as to why the differences occurred between our groups. The fact that there was a significant connection for the prominent placement of the strong brand, while there was a lack of significance for the subtle placement of the weak brand, may be based on attitudes starting after the first purchase. As theory states, there are differences between what is seen as implicit and explicit attitudes (Dempsey & Mitchell, 2010; Madhavarani & Appan, 2010). Explicit attitudes have earlier been seen as important for behaviour, but later research has given a surge to implicit attitudes as a predictor for behaviour (Madhavarani & Appan, 2010). Following this, there might be reason to believe that consumers that possess deeper, more implicit attitudes to a product will exhibit a closer connection to purchase intention when being exposed for external influence. Even though the manipulation is external, if one manages to change the attitude to a strong and implicit brand, it will have a bigger effect on purchase intention. As speculated in the previous hypothesis, one could have a negative effect on attitudes when trying to influence top-tier strong brands with external information. Perhaps we had to change the attitudes of the strong brand to influence purchase intention.

However, this was not necessary for the weak brand. Without significant changes in attitude, we managed to increase their purchase intent. This may be because the link between attitude and purchase intention increases as the attitude becomes stronger and more implicit. This could, perhaps, lead to purchase intention being an independent factor, up to a certain point. That point might be reached when the consumers manage to create their own attitude, based on their own experiences with the product. This attitude may prove more challenging to

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change in a desired direction, but will in turn have a significant impact on purchase intention.

**H4: Commercials have a positive effect on purchase intention.**

→ H4a: Commercials have a positive effect on purchase intention of strong brands.

→ H4b: Commercials have a positive effect on purchase intention of weak brands.

Hypothesis 4 was included to test commercials against product placement, in order to see how they measured up against each other. By comparing purchase intention for the two tools, we could see if there were any big differences in terms of the effectiveness of the tools. Earlier research comparing commercials and product placement has been focused on recall (Gupta & Lord, 1998), but testing for effects on purchase intention has not been done before, to our knowledge.

We were not able to find any significant changes in purchase intention for the commercials. There were some positive changes, but the lack of significance entails that we cannot claim any changes in purchase intention. Considering that we did find a significant, larger change for product placement, this would indicate that it is a more efficient tool than the commercials. It would however, not be appropriate to generalize the findings based on two commercials and four product placements. We can, however, claim that the subtle product placement did, in this exact situation, prove to have a more measurable effect than the commercial for the weak brand.

It is somewhat interesting that the product placement managed to achieve something that a commercial did not. Previously, we have assumed that the recent popularity of product placement is due to the fact that consumers do not watch commercials anymore (Russell & Belch, 2005; Olsen, 2005; Rose, 2014). However, it may also be because product placements can stand up to commercials as a proficient competitor. Perhaps consumers have become so used to commercials that they have developed a form of immunity towards it. In our experiment, they were not able to skip through them, and they were probably more concentrated than what is the case for the everyday consumer watching commercials. Still, commercials did not manage to influence purchase intention in a significant manner. This could also have a connection with the abstract information presented by the commercials compared to the product placements. None of the commercials presents any vivid information

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enabling the consumers to imagine themselves purchasing the product. Product placement does this to a larger degree, and according to Sivertsen (2014), this is important in terms of persuading consumers. One could also argue that product placement provides a narrative, which is a feature Sivertsen (2014) claims to be important when trying to persuade consumers. However, the commercial for the strong brand also presented a narrative, and still performed worse than the product placement. The fact remains that we cannot generalize these results to say that product placement is more effective than commercials, but we may have spotted something that can provide a new argument for the use of product placement as a marketing tool.

**H5: Commercials have a positive effect on consumer attitudes, which further positively influences purchase intention.**

Hypothesis 5 was included to further test the relationship between attitudes and purchase intention. We did however, not find any reason for this hypothesis to be true. We did record a significant drop in attitudes for the strong brand, but every other result lacked significance. Since we were not trying to test the isolated effect of commercials on attitudes, this significant result was not as interesting standing alone, but rather in connection with purchase intention.

Therefore, we did not get any new or confirming findings from the commercial concerning the relationship between attitude and purchase intention. The change in purchase intention for the strong brand was nearly significant, which could prove to strengthen our speculations from Hypothesis 3. However, considering that it remains non-significant, we cannot claim to have reached the same results as we did with product placement.

## **5.2 Control Variables**

After researching our hypotheses, we wanted to examine whether we could find other discoveries for the population with regards to product placement (appendix 10). The four different variables we chose were the demographic variables age and gender, and the respondent's concentration and entertainment connected to the clip.

### **5.2.1 Age**

We found some interesting trends regarding the different age groups. A general approach to the results is that the young age group had higher mean values regarding both attitudes and

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purchase intentions. Not all the results from this t-test were significant, however there was a clear trend in favour of the young generation being more affected by the product placements. These results might not be that surprising based on the fact that product placement is a new tool, and younger generations are often more adaptable and less critical to such changes. However, included in these means are also the commercials. This might tell us that the younger generations, in general, are less sceptical to the world of brand influences, or that they are easier targets, as they obviously were affected to a bigger degree than the population of 46 plus. It should be mentioned that older generations often can be more sceptical to changes, especially regarding technology and media. Hence, they might be less open to marketing measures like product placement trying to influence their attitude and purchase intention patterns. Of course, there is the possibility of the younger sample in general having more positive attitudes and purchase intentions, independently of manipulation. We do, however, believe that manipulation has been an important influence, which makes us confident to these assumptions. Looking at age and gender tested up against concentration and entertainment, we also found that the younger population recorded both higher concentration and entertainment compared to the older age group. These results were far from significant, but can contribute to solidify our argument.

There was one exception from this trend where the attitude towards Cottage Cheese was higher for the older generation. This exception was also significant, which makes it even more puzzling. Especially with regards to the fact that purchase intention for Cottage Cheese also is significant, but higher for the younger generation. Why this occurred, is hard to explain. There is really no reason for the older population to have more favourable attitudes toward Cottage Cheese but nothing else. We have not managed to explain this in any reasonable way.

### **5.2.2 Gender**

Looking at gender we also saw a trend in which females in general have higher means for both attitudes and purchase intention, both for the strong and weak brand. However, the only significant results here were connected to the strong brand Tine Melk. First of all, this result tells us that women in general have been more influenced and might be more positive to product placement of strong brands. We do see this same trend for the weak brand, cottage cheese, but these results are pretty far from a significant value.

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Even though the results from the attitudes towards cottage cheese are not significant, this is where we find the biggest gap between men and women. The difference is almost 1, with means for men and women being respectively 3.8723 and 4.8530. The difference might be a consequence of women's continuous search for nutritional products, and their will to believe in such products self-appointed effects (Roos, 2006). The prominent placement and the commercial for cottage cheese thoroughly highlighted the fact that this is a product with healthy properties. The overall differences might also be the result of women being more positive to the product placement tool, or that they in general are more positive to the products we chose to display.

### **5.2.3 Concentration**

In contrary to the demographic variables, concentration and entertainment can be considered more personal. Therefore we expected to find more intriguing results that can be more directly related to product placement.

The results told us that those in the sample that actually paid attention to the clip generally had higher mean values regarding both attitudes and purchase intention. Meanwhile, those that did not concentrate had consistently lower scores. Further, it is important to note that these results were strongly significant for the strong brand Tine Melk, while we did not end up having significant results for the weaker brand Cottage Cheese. Still, considering that this is an analysis of control variables, we have not paid as much attention to the significance levels. What we believe these trends tell us is that a goal when using product placement, and commercials, is to aim towards meeting the indented population in a way where they will keep their concentration. If we further use the findings from our hypothesis, this should be done with a weaker brand in a subtle matter.

There is also an argument to be made regarding the fact that if one is more concentrated towards the show, one will have a higher chance of recognizing products that are placed. Concentration can be a problem if it leads to consumers reacting negatively towards the placement itself, but if they are concentrated on the show rather than the placement, it could serve to avoid consumers noticing the placement so consciously. Based on this, it can seem natural that high concentration can lead to more positive attitudes and higher purchase intention.



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We also noted some other significant results in that those with a concentration higher than 4 had a substantial higher mean value regarding the entertainment of the clips, compared with those under 4, respectively 2.1637 against 4.3106. This tells us that those who actually paid attention to the clips found them entertaining, which had a positive outcome regarding the mean values for attitudes and purchase intention. However, this might also be a result from us including the neutral respondents in the category of highly concentrated and entertained.

#### **5.2.4 Entertainment**

Looking at the mean values for the entertainment value of the clips, we saw much of the same trends as concentration. The ones that actually felt entertained by the clip, with values equal to or over 4, had clearly higher attitudes and purchase intentions. However, opposite to concentration, the significant values here belong to the weaker brand Cottage Cheese.

The natural argument here would lie in the fact that if one were more entertained by the show, one would see the products placed in a more positive light. If the product is linked to characters that are enjoyable, or to a setting which one generally feels good about, those feelings can be transferred. Also, if there are more enjoyable feelings that are produced from viewing the show, like happiness or comfort, there is a possibility of generally feeling more positive towards any action. Karrh (2003) has stated that program-induced mood has an influence in terms of the advertisement effectiveness among viewers. This translates into happier programs having a greater effect in terms of positive responses towards the placement.

Further, we saw that the part of the sample that felt entertained by the clip also had a higher concentration when watching. These values are respectively 2.2083 for the less entertained part, and 4.9247 for the entertained part. These findings are clearly significant.

There is one insight which is perhaps the most important we can draw from these trends. Namely that if one manages to place a product in a movie or TV-show, which is highly captivating or entertaining, then the chances of raising positive attitudes and purchase intention are significantly higher. Of course, our results are somewhat correlating in the sense that if a show is entertaining the persons watching it will most likely have a high concentration. In addition, vice versa, if someone is concentrated during a show, this is most likely because it is entertaining. The insight however, still stands. Succeeding in terms of

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placing the products in an entertainment vehicle, which proves to score high on either concentration or entertainment, or both, will increase the chances of positively changing the attitude or purchase intention of consumers watching it.

### **5.2.5 Interaction effects**

One very interesting discovery we made was that the comparison between men and women with regards to concentration and entertainment showed no distinct difference, even though the results were significant. The female part of the sample had a slightly higher mean value connected to concentration, while the male part of the sample had a slightly higher mean value connected to feeling entertained. If we compare these findings to the above-mentioned results for the genders, there is really not a clear connection. However, we might say that being concentrated does affect the means for attitudes and purchase intention to a bigger degree than the entertainment factor, since the female part of our sample had higher mean values for attitudes and purchase intention.

We also observed that the relative change from not being concentrated to being concentrated had a bigger leap for the weaker brand. This might entail what we have discussed under our hypothesis, namely that stronger brands are more resistant to change compared to weaker brands.

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**Chapter 6:**

**Implications, Strengths &  
Weaknesses, Validity and Further  
Research**

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## **6.0 Implications, Strengths & Weaknesses, Validity and Further Research**

### **6.1 Implications**

This part will highlight what the results of our study implicate in terms of further use. It is important to recognize what our research has been able to state, and what this means.

In relation to our main focus, we were able to determine a change in purchase intention for consumers through the use of a subtle placement of a weak brand. This may well prove to be an important implication. When wondering whether product placement is a valid tool for the marketing of a product, one should take into account the fact that raising purchase intention is possible for weak products. Having a weak product placed in a subtle manner will potentially reduce the risk for consumers to buy it, and therefore contribute to them purchasing the product.

Strong brands do seem to represent a bigger risk in terms of persuading the consumers. Krosnick & Smith (1994) suggested less influence on strong brands, however we found the effect to be rather negative than smaller. Through our manipulations, there was a decrease in both attitudes and purchase intentions for the strong brands. Due to a danger of insulting the consumers, there exists a risk of having a negative impact. Therefore, one should have a certain amount of caution when trying to manipulate the relationship consumers have with strong brands. Of course, it is important to note that tools such as commercials and product placement are not always meant to have an effect on attitudes and purchase intention. Increasing the awareness of the product can also be the potential goal. Therefore, we are not recommending the immediate stop of all commercials and product placements for strong brands. Rather, we would express caution when making use of such tools, as one should consider the risk of negatively influencing attitude and purchase intention. Perhaps a temporary drop is acceptable in order to attain a higher awareness, but that assessment should be taken into consideration when attempting to influence consumers.

A rather interesting implication is related to the proposed relationship between attitude and purchase intention. According to what we have found, attitude is not related to purchase intention for weak brands. Lutz (1991) has argued that if this relationship does not exist, attitudes measurements are both useless and misleading. However, for strong brands, there is a correlation that seems to exist. Therefore, it is not necessary with a focus on attitudes when

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it comes to weak brands. Rather, one should start by increasing the purchase intention directly, and from there let the consumers create implicit attitudes that are stronger and harder to change. If the attitudes that are created then turn out to be positive, it should translate into a higher purchase intention. However, trying to interfere with strong brands in order to increase purchase intention can be very risky due to the potential negative effect on attitudes. This illustrates the complexity of the relationship, and gives us reason to suggest fewer attempts at trying to influence strong brands.

Homer (2009) has highlighted the need for movie studios to be cautious when accepting product placements, as a bad placement can lead to their productions suffering. This also works the other way. When choosing the stage at which one will place a product, one needs to be critical towards the potential of the movie or TV-show. Being able to pick entertaining or captivating medias will have a positive influence on the effect of the placement. This can be due to different aspects of the shows and characters, but there is little doubt that being placed in something that appeals to many consumers will increase the chances of reaching the desired goal of the placement.

Another interesting aspect of our study, which also leads to an implication, is that commercials seem to be at a disadvantage to product placement. We recorded more positive results with the placements than what we did with commercials. Earlier, Gupta & Lord (1998) have found a bigger recall effect on product placement, but our findings highlight a possible advantage in terms of influencing behaviour. This entails that a consideration of product placement as a necessity due to the falling popularity of commercials is not justified. Product placement can stand as a viable alternative, independent of the relative interest for commercials. Marketers should not view it as a solution to a crisis, but rather an actual possibility to both diversify and improve their marketing campaigns.

It is important to note that the implications we have presented here come as a result of our findings. We have based them on what our research says. Therefore, they are subject to variations in line with the strength and weakness of our study. We will now move on to explain what could be the potential downsides, as well as positives with the study we have performed.

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## 6.2 Strengths & Weaknesses

It is understood that an experiment will have both strong and weak aspects, and this study has not avoided that assumption. We believe that there are certain aspects that strengthen our research, and some that contribute to weaken it. We will now mention some of these aspects and reflect over them.

When performing the experiment, we had the help of Norstat to collect data. If we were not able to receive such help, there would certainly be a challenge in maintaining a sample representable for the population. Saunders et al. (2009) has stated that minimum 30 respondents are necessary to achieve a normally distributed sample, and with the assistance from Norstat we managed to achieve 50 respondents for each group. The alternative would be to survey fellow students, and therefore receiving a much less representable sample. Therefore, we consider this to strengthen our research. Although we were able to use Norstat, we did not possess endless resources, and this did have some less desirable consequences. We made use of a self-administered internet-questionnaire, instead of a laboratory experiment for example. This means that we gave up much control of the response situation, and therefore had less reliable results. For example, we cannot guarantee that the respondents started the clip, and then were present in front of their computer while it was running. There is little doubt that this reflects a weakness in our study.

Regarding the clips, we chose to use examples from an actual movie and TV-show. Having real examples was important for us, and we believe that this contributes to elicit realistic reactions from our respondents. The fact that these products have been placed by a Norwegian brand in a movie and TV-show from Norway means that we were able to get genuine reactions that can translate to real life. However, it should be taken into consideration that the clips are very short. A clip of about 2 minutes is a very intense situation for the product placement to have an effect. In addition, Hosein (2012) has commented on how asking about purchase intention can change the purchase intention itself, and this may have had an effect on the results we had. Especially considering that the questions measuring the effect come directly afterwards, and therefore does not give the respondents much time to reflect over what they just saw. This provides an artificial setting, and must be considered a weakness.

We were able to get some significant results on our hypotheses, which we found to be important for us to be able to draw certain conclusions. However, we also had to base some

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decisions on other results that we could not consider significant. This also represents a form of weakness for our study.

### **6.3 Validity**

Validity is a designation that is concerned about to what extent research findings really are about what they are intended to be about (Saunders et al., 2009). Churchill (1991) defines validity as:

“A term applied to measuring instruments reflecting the extent to which differences in scores on the measurements reflect true differences among individuals, groups, or situations in the characteristic that it seeks to measure, or reflect true differences in the same individual, group, or situation from one occasion to another, rather than constant or random errors.” (p. 1047)

To further research this designation Churchill (1991) mentions that Tomas D. Cook and Donald T. Campbell divides validity into four different concepts, namely; internal, external, statistical conclusion and construct validity.

#### **6.3.1 Internal Validity**

Saunders et al. (2009, p. 372) refers to internal validity as “the ability of your questionnaire to measure what you intend it to measure”. This means you are concerned that what you find with your questionnaire actually was observed as a reaction of your experimental variables, and not to other possible influencing factors. History, testing, instrumentation, mortality, maturation, and ambiguity about causal direction are potential threats to the internal validity, presented by Saunders et al. (2009).

With regards to the history threat, we believe that this was eliminated with the use of our control group. The control group represents the attitudes and purchase intention levels of consumers without being primed, and the changes we measured was in relation to these values. Hence, positive or negative history regarding Tine Melk and Cottage Cheese might have influenced consumers during the last decade, but that is not a problem as we only check for the relative change between the control group and our primed groups. The testing threat is not an issue for us as we started our research open minded, with no particular wishes as to how the respondents would react. Therefore we did not influence them to answer in any particular way to fulfil some predisposed thoughts or wishes of ours.

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The purpose of our study was to see if a change in attitudes and purchase behaviour would occur after respondents were exposed to a clip. Hence, a change in instrumentation was necessary for the research, and not considered a threat. Norstat helped us eliminate the mortality threat as we only got completely answered questionnaires. Since our study was cross sectional, only lasting for approximately 8 minutes, we believe the maturation threat to be minimal. We also checked for careless respondents, which we did not have. Ambiguity was not a big threat for our study as we researched pre and post attitudes and purchase intention after priming. Based on the fact that the threats towards internal validity are minimal, we believe that our research has a high degree of internal validity.

### **6.3.2 External Validity**

Saunders et al. (2009, p. 158) define external validity as “whether your findings may be equally applicable to other research settings”, i.e. if they are generalizable. More closely this tries to explain whether the results found can be expected to occur in other relevant situations. A threat towards the external validity is if the study is implemented by using a small sample with a homogeneous group of respondents, which are significantly different to others (Saunders et al., 2009).

Ecological validity is a type of external validity that might be considered a threat to our study. This refers to whether the findings done in our study are generalizable to other groups (Saunders et al., 2009). When studies are laboratory, done outside of a natural setting, this might be a problem. However, as we use real Norwegian brands in real Norwegian movie and TV-show placement, we feel that the ecologic validity is increased. To properly fulfil ecological validity we would have had to perform a more qualitative study of participants in a natural setting, which is unlikely to be graspable with limited resources.

However, we do believe that external validity is considered strong in our study, within reasonable limits, which are our Norwegian borders. Our goal was to be able to generalize findings to be applicable for the Norwegian population, regardless of school, occupation, gender, age and so on. Norstat helped us reach a heterogeneous good-sized sample, which did not discriminate with regards to gender, age or geography. Therefore, we feel that the results we found can transfer to the entire Norwegian population.



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### **6.3.3 Statistical Conclusion Validity**

Churchill (1991, p. 178) states that “statistical conclusion validity addresses the extent and statistical significance of the covariation that exists in the data”. We collected data to examine the relationship between different groups, and when testing for such movements one needs to take into account the statistical conclusion validity. There can occur errors when working with covariation, and these are referred to as Type I and Type II errors. Type I error is described by Saunders et al. (2009, p 452) as “wrongly coming to a decision that something is true when in reality it is not”. Type II error is the other way around, namely that one wrongly comes to the conclusion that something is not true, when it actually is (Saunders et al., 2009). In other words, if we achieve results that are significant, even though they might not really be, this is a Type I error. Whilst, if we are unable to find significant results, even though they exist, there might be a Type II error occurring. However, we have no possibility of confirming that a Type II error has not occurred.

Saunders et al. (2009) states that Type I errors are the most important to prevent. When analysing the data we used the t-test, Cronbach’s alpha and factor rotation to find causal relationships. The t-test is considered a robust parametric test, as we had normally distributed data, and so we have confidence in the results the test gave us. This ensures that the Type I error was unlikely to occur.

### **6.3.4 Construct Validity**

Saunders et al. (2009, p. 373) define construct validity as “the extent to which your measurement questions actually measure the presence of those constructs you intended them to measure”. The constructs we aimed to measure were mainly attitude and purchase intention. To properly measure them we created several questions, and used a factor rotation backed up by Cronbach’s alpha to ensure that the sum variables we ended up with in fact represented what they were intended to represent. Attitude is a wide concept, and so we used several questions to hopefully cover most of what it represents (appendix 7). Purchase intention, on the other hand, is a more specific concept and thus only needed to be represented by one question, according to Rossiter (2002), (appendix 7). Based on our factor rotations we managed to get strong values for attitude, also regarding the Cronbach’s Alpha, and we therefore believe to have a strong degree of construct validity.

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Based on these assessments, we have a strong confidence in the overall validity of our experiment.

#### **6.4 Further Research**

We will now turn to suggest what we believe should be further researched based on the findings of this paper. We find these areas both interesting and important in order to develop a greater understanding of the field of product placement.

The effect product placement has on purchase intention should receive much greater attention in the future. We could not find any articles that focused on this type of research, and found this to be quite astonishing. It would seem as if academics have been very much interested in the recall and awareness effects of product placement, which is definitely an interesting field as well. However, when Russell (2002) studied the effect it has on attitude, it opened up a new interesting area of use. We believe that purchase intention is the next area that deserves attention. In our study we managed to measure a significant change in purchase intent just from a 2-minute clip, which we found very exciting. However, laboratory experiments that provide a more realistic setting, and can be performed in a longitudinal manner, could prove to answer our questions more thoroughly. Then there is a possibility of measuring to which degree purchase intent actually is affected by product placement, how long the effect may last and if it actually can prove to change the behaviour of consumers.

There should definitely be conducted more research on product placement in Norway. Chan (2012) has stated that the focus of product placement should be moved outside of the U.S., and according to Khalbous et al. (2013), differences exist not only between cultures, but also between countries. This will most certainly apply for Norway as well. Considering that the industry has not grown as big as one would expect after it became legal, it shows a certain amount of doubtfulness towards the subject itself among the Norwegian people. Olsen (2005) claims this partly to be because of little knowledge about the subject. One way of taking care of this problem is by performing more research directly related to the Norwegian population. Being aware of how they may react, what kind of placements they welcome the most, and if they believe certain products to be unacceptable for product placement, are all very interesting questions that we believe need answering. Also, we found differences across the population, specifically between genders. Finding out if there are in fact differences in how men and

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women react to product placement is important, for example when deciding both where and for what products the placement should be performed.

Also, we believe that the difference between commercials and product placement should be given more attention. In accordance with our findings, product placements performed better than commercials. As we have mentioned earlier, we cannot generalize that statement based on our findings, but believe it is something worth studying more closely. The preconceived idea of the rise of product placement has been based on the decline of commercials. It is not necessarily so. Finding out if product placement in fact can outperform commercials on a more general basis would provide very important knowledge in terms of where brand managers should have their focus. However, the focus should not stop at commercials. More comparative studies across other marketing tools should be performed, where product placement is included. This need has been highlighted very recently by Maheshwari et al., (2014), and is yet again called for by us. We need to treat product placement as a potential equal, and therefore see how it measures up against the different ways of advertising.

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# **Chapter 7:**

# **Conclusion**

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## 7.0 Conclusion

We started out this project as two students curious about the area of product placement. We knew that earlier research had thoroughly laid out recall effects and awareness, and that there also had been much research towards attitudes. Therefore, we chose to focus on the relation between product placement and purchase intention. In order to get a broader understanding, we included attitudes, the relationship between attitudes and purchase intention, as well as comparing product placement with commercials. We chose to perform a study set to Norway, as this is a very new phenomenon here.

We designed an experiment meant to measure effects that were representable for the Norwegian population, and for different variations in product placements. Brand strength and prominence of the placement are well known subjects, and were therefore natural for us to include in order to understand the mechanics behind a successful placement.

The results of the experiment gave us some interesting answers. We found that for a subtle placement of a weak brand, purchase intention significantly increased. More prominently placed strong brands resulted in both lower attitudes and purchase intention. The relationship between attitudes and purchase intention, however, remains challenging to understand. In addition, product placement proved to perform better than commercials, and therefore highlighted a need to recognize product placement as a valid option, not just a last resort when commercials are not getting enough attention.

We will therefore advise to use product placement more actively in Norway. It can for example prove to be useful in terms of introducing new brands to the market, increasing purchase intention, and then beginning the process of building up an attitude through personal experiences with the brand. If done right, this could be a cost efficient and long-lasting way of building a brand relationship. Commercials are becoming less popular due to the ability to skip them. Considering that product placement may prove to be a better alternative regardless of the decline of commercials, precedence exists to justify the increased usage of product placement. We are however not condoning all sorts of product placements. Our findings also proved that it can be damaging towards both attitudes and purchase intention in certain situations, and therefore one must learn how to manage the tool properly. Either way, we believe to have contributed to the further use of product placement, and hope to see both brands and products in our favourite shows and movies in the future.

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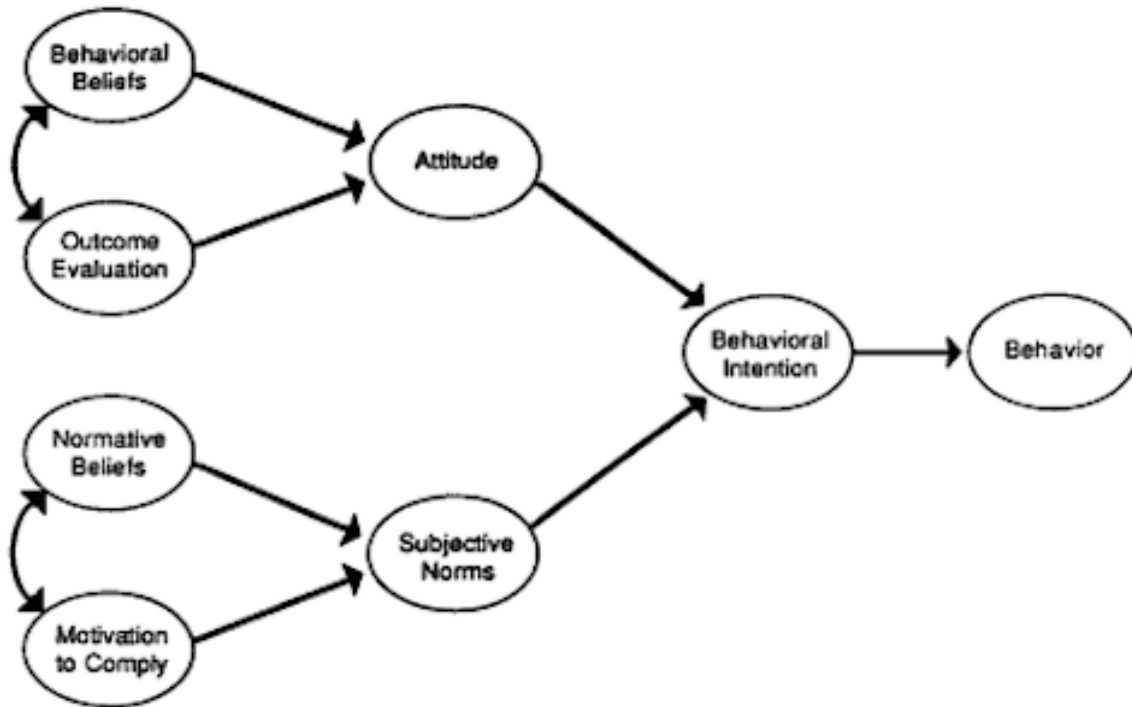
# Appendix



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## 9.0 Appendix

### Appendix 1 - TORA



\* Vallerand, Deshaies, Cuerrier, Pelletier & Mongeau, 1992.

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## Appendix 2 – Questionnaires

The questionnaires used in this study are presented below. We had 7 slightly different questionnaires depending on the priming the different groups were subjected to. In this appendix we therefore show the introduction to the questionnaires depending on whether the group was the control group or subjected to either a Hodejegerne clip, Helt Perfekt clip or a commercial. Further we used the structure from the control group, as this group were asked all the questions the other groups were asked, except from clip specific questions. Those questions will be presented at the end of appendix 2.

### Introductions

Question: situasjon

situasjon

**Hvordan vil du beskrive din daglige situasjon?**

Student

Jobb

Jobbsøkende

Pensjonist

Jump to:

Info1

**Hei.**

**Du vil nå gjennomføre en frivillig anonym spørreundersøkelse knyttet til et forskningsprosjekt ved Norges Handelshøyskole .**

**Denne undersøkelsen vil totalt ta omtrent 8 minutter, hvorav et ca. to minutters klipp fra filmen Hodejegerne blir vist. Husk derfor å ha lyd på din datamaskin når du gjennomfører undersøkelsen. Klippet som følger inneholder voldelige scener, og filmen har en 15 års aldersgrense. Dersom du ikke har noen problemer med dette, trykk "neste" og klippet starter.**

**Takk for at du deltar!**

Jump to:

Info1

**Hei.**

**Du vil nå gjennomføre en frivillig anonym spørreundersøkelse knyttet til et forskningsprosjekt ved Norges Handelshøyskole.**

**Denne undersøkelsen vil totalt ta omtrent 8 minutter, og vi vil stille deg en rekke spørsmål knyttet til merkevaren TINE. Trykk "neste" for å starte undersøkelsen.**

**Takk for at du deltar!**

---

Jump to:

Info1

Hei.

Du vil nå gjennomføre en frivillig anonym spørreundersøkelse knyttet til et forskningsprosjekt ved Norges Handelshøyskole.

Denne undersøkelsen vil totalt ta omtrent 8 minutter, hvorav et ca. to minutters klipp fra TV-serien "Helt Perfekt" blir vist. Husk derfor å ha lyd på din datamaskin når du gjennomfører undersøkelsen. Trykk "neste" og klippet starter.

Takk for at du deltar!

Jump to:

Info1

Hei.

Du vil nå gjennomføre en frivillig anonym spørreundersøkelse knyttet til et forskningsprosjekt ved Norges Handelshøyskole.

Denne undersøkelsen vil totalt ta omtrent 8 minutter, hvor en reklamesnutt for Tine Melk vil bli vist. Husk derfor å ha lyd på din datamaskin når du gjennomfører undersøkelsen. Trykk "neste" og reklamen vil starte.

Takk for at du deltar!

Jump to:

Info1

Hei.

Du vil nå gjennomføre en frivillig anonym spørreundersøkelse knyttet til et forskningsprosjekt ved Norges Handelshøyskole.

Denne undersøkelsen vil totalt ta omtrent 8 minutter, hvor en reklamesnutt for Tine Cottage Cheese vil bli vist. Husk derfor å ha lyd på din datamaskin når du gjennomfører undersøkelsen. Trykk "neste" og reklamen vil starte.

Takk for at du deltar!

## Questions

Question: q1

q1

Hvor mange timer i uken ser du på TV?

0-3

4-7

7-12

12+

Question: q2

q2

Ranger følgende sjangre etter egen preferanse

<input type="checkbox"/>	Drama
<input type="checkbox"/>	Action
<input type="checkbox"/>	Komedie
<input type="checkbox"/>	Romanse
<input type="checkbox"/>	Thriller

Question: q3

q3

Foretrekker du film eller serie?

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

Question: q4

q4

Vennligst spesifiser på en skala fra 1 – 7, der 1 er sterkt uenig og 7 er sterkt enig, i hvilken grad du er enig i følgende påstander:

	Sterkt uenig			Nøytral			Sterkt enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Min totale holdning til merket TINE er positiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Min oppfatning av merket TINE er fordelaktig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg assosierer noe positivt ved merket TINE	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q4x4

q4x4

Hvor sikker er du på disse holdningene?

Svært usikker						7 Svært sikker
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q5

q5

Vennligst spesifiser på en skala fra 1 – 7, der 1 er sterkt uenig og 7 er sterkt enig, i hvilken grad du er enig i følgende påstander:

	Sterkt uenig			Nøytral			Sterkt enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg anser meg selv som lojal til TINE merket	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tineprodukter har høy kvalitet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg liker bedriften TINE	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Merket TINE fremstår som forskjellig fra konkurrerende merker	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hvem som er produsent er ikke viktig for meg når jeg kjøper meieriprodukter	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q6

q6

Liker du melk?

- JA
- NEI
- Aldri smakt

Question: q7

q7

Hvor ofte drikker du melk

- Hver dag
- 3-5 dager i uken
- 1-2 dager i uken
- 1-3 dager i måneden
- Et par ganger i året
- Jeg drikker aldri melk

Question: q8

q8

Vennligst spesifiser på en skala fra 1 – 7, der 1 er sterkt uenig og 7 er sterkt enig, i hvilken grad du er enig i følgende påstander:

	Sterkt uenig			Nøytral			Sterkt enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Min totale holdning til merket Tine Melk er positiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Min oppfatning av merket TineMelk er fordelaktig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg assosierer noe positivt ved merket TineMelk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q9x1

q9x1

	Uken	Måneden	Året
Jeg kommer til å kjøpe Tine Melk den kommende...	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

q9x2

Vennligst spesifiser på en skala fra 1 – 7, der 1 er sterkt uenig og 7 er sterkt enig, i hvilken grad du er enig i følgende påstander:

	Sterkt uenig			Nøytral			Sterkt enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg er villig til å kjøpe Tine Melk i fremtiden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Dersom jeg skulle kjøpt meieriprodukter i fremtiden ville jeg valgt Tine.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

q9x4

	Uken	Måneden	Året
Jeg har kjøpt Tine Melk den siste...	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q10

q10

Liker du Cottage Cheese?

Ja	<input type="radio"/>
Nei	<input type="radio"/>
Aldri smakt	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q11

q11

### Hvor ofte spiser du Cottage Cheese?

Hver dag	<input type="radio"/>
3-5 dager i uken	<input type="radio"/>
1-2 dager i uken	<input type="radio"/>
1-3 dager i måneden	<input type="radio"/>
Et par ganger i året	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg spiser aldri Cottage Cheese	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q12

q12

### Vennligst spesifiser på en skala fra 1 – 7, der 1 er sterkt uenig og 7 er sterkt enig, i hvilken grad du er enig i følgende påstander:

	Sterkt uenig			Nøytral			Sterkt enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Min totale holdning til Cottage Cheese er positiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Min oppfatning av merket Cottage Cheese er fordelaktig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg assosierer noe positivt ved merket Cottage Cheese	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q13x1

q13x1

	Uken	Måneden	Året
Jeg kommer til å kjøpe Cottage Cheese den kommende ...	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

q13x2

### Vennligst spesifiser på en skala fra 1 – 7, der 1 er sterkt uenig og 7 er sterkt enig, i hvilken grad du er enig i følgende påstander:

	Sterkt uenig			Nøytral			Sterkt enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg er villig til å kjøpe Cottage Cheese i fremtiden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Dersom jeg skulle kjøpt meieriprodukter i fremtiden ville jeg valgt Tine.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

q13x4

	Uken	Måneden	Året
Jeg har kjøpt Cottage Cheese den siste ...	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q14

q14

**Ranger meieriproduktene i Norge etter preferanse, 1. – 4. Plass**

<input type="checkbox"/>	Tine
<input type="checkbox"/>	Q-Melk
<input type="checkbox"/>	Synnøve Finden
<input type="checkbox"/>	Eldorado

Question: q15

q15

**Grader din intensjon om å kjøpe produkter fra TINE?"**

	Svak			Nøytral			Sterk
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Grader din intensjon om å kjøpe produkter fra TINE?							

Jump to:

q16info

**For å gi deg en liten utfordring vil vi begrense tiden du har til å besvare til 30 sekunder på det neste spørsmålet. Er du klar? Klikk på Pilen til høyre og du vil få opp et spørsmål. Da kan du begynne å skrive**

Question: q16

q16

**23 sekunder gjenstår.**

**Spesifiser hva du tror denne undersøkelsen måler**

Question: q17

q17

**Forstod du at dette var en undersøkelse om produkt plassering?**

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



---

Question: q18

q18

Vennligst spesifiser på en skala fra 1 – 7, der 1 er sterkt uenig og 7 er sterkt enig, i hvilken grad du er enig i følgende påstander:

	Sterkt uenig			Nøytral			Sterkt enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg tror produktplassering har en reell effekt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er positiv til produktplassering	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg har lagt merke til en økning av produktplassering de siste årene i Norge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg tror at jeg blir påvirket av produktplassering	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg tror produktplassering har en sterkere markedsføringseffekt enn reklame	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

---

## Questions directed to the primed groups:

These changes dependent of the primer, either movie, TVseries or commercial.

Question: q4new

q4new

Vennligst spesifiser på en skala fra 1 – 7, der 1 er sterkt uenig og 7 er sterkt enig, i hvilken grad du er enig i følgende påstander:

	Sterkt uenig			Nøytral			Sterkt enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg ville sett akkurat denne filmen om den gikk på TV	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Det er noe ved dette klippet som appellerer til meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg ble involvert i handlingen i klippet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question: q4b

q4b

Har du sett klippet tidligere?

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

Question: q5new

q5new

Vennligst spesifiser på en skala fra 1 – 7, der 1 er sterkt uenig og 7 er sterkt enig, i hvilken grad du er enig i følgende påstander:

Da jeg så klippet fra filmen Hodejegerne ...

	Sterkt uenig			Nøytral			Sterkt enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
...Konsentrerte jeg meg om handlingen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
...Fulgte jeg plottet i klippet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
...Syns jeg klippet var underholdende	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
...Ble jeg rørt av klippet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

---

## Appendix 3 - Picture of placement clips

### Prominent placement in Hodejegerne of the strong brand TineMelk



*Roger is lying on the floor with the carton in hand, after having shot Ove.*

### Subtle placement in Hodejegerne of the strong brand TineMelk



*The carton of Tine Melk is lying on the floor, while Roger is cleaning up the mess.*

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### Prominent placement in Helt Perfekt of the weak brand Cottage Cheese



---

*Ine and Thomas discussing how to pronounce Cottage Cheese properly.*

---

### Subtle placement in Helt Perfekt of the weak brand Cottage Cheese



---

*The camera looks down because Ine complains about not getting a bigger shopping cart, where we can see the Cottage Cheese containers lying on top.*

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## Commercial TineMelk



*After showing skiers and people challenging themselves, the commercial ends with this frame, showing a carton of milk and an x-ray picture of a human body.*

## Commercial Cottage Cheese



*After showing the container from different angles, and explaining the benefits of it, the commercial ends with this frame.*

---

## Appendix 4 – Overview of the Final Sample

Age								
Age/Group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sum
18 – 25	12	6	3	6	8	6	6	47
26 – 35	5	8	12	19	11	8	7	70
36 – 45	5	14	5	8	14	12	17	75
46 +	28	24	30	17	17	24	20	160
<b>Sum</b>	50	52	50	50	50	50	50	352

Gender								
Group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sum
Male	28	28	24	31	25	25	27	188
Female	22	24	26	19	25	25	23	164
<b>Sum</b>	50	52	50	50	50	50	50	352

Region								
Group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sum
North	2	6	3	5	5	5	6	32
Mid	5	9	4	13	11	7	4	53
West	8	12	8	9	7	8	10	62
East	19	16	24	12	17	15	20	123

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## Appendix 5 - Skewness and Kurtosis

Control Group					
Question	N	Mean	St. Dev.	Skewness Stat.	Kurtosis Stat.
Q4_1	50	5.38	1.308	-0.754	0.167
Q4_2	50	5.12	1.223	-0.377	0.141
Q4_3	50	5.34	1.171	-0.311	-0.867
Q4x4_1	50	5.66	1.154	-0.616	-0.529
Q5_1	50	4.12	1.686	-0.223	-0.600
Q5_2	50	5.56	1.110	-0.718	0.657
Q5_3	50	4.84	1.218	-0.598	-0.237
Q5_4	50	3.92	1.259	-0.099	0.552
Q5_5	50	3.86	1.690	0.361	-0.779
Q8_1	50	5.36	1.208	-0.742	0.599
Q8_2	50	5.22	1.055	0.080	-0.941
Q8_3	50	5.28	1.126	-0.496	0.109
Q9x2_2	50	5.70	1.403	-1.006	0.873
Q9x2_3	50	4.92	1.426	0.146	-0.882
Q12_1	50	4.24	1.847	-0.388	-0.634
Q12_2	50	4.16	1.670	-0.182	-0.175
Q12_3	50	4.24	1.709	-0.263	-0.338
Q13x2_2	50	3.04	2.280	0.001	-1.563
Q15_1	50	5.26	1.306	-0.163	-0.732
Q18_1	50	5.60	1.125	-1.290	4.285
Q18_2	50	3.44	1.631	-0.080	-0.912
Q18_3	50	5.40	1.385	-0.624	-0.164
Q18_4	50	4.72	1.617	-0.852	0.379
Q18_5	50	5.20	1.370	-0.972	1.662

<b>Hodejegerne - Strong Brand Prominent Placement</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q4new_1	50	3.86	1.702	-0.186	-0.342
Q4new_2	50	3.00	1.750	0.333	-1.051
Q4new_3	50	3.14	1.714	0.103	-1.125
Q5new_1	50	4.64	1.336	-0.687	1.218
Q5new_2	50	4.12	1.350	-0.745	0.668
Q5new_3	50	3.28	1.785	0.119	-1.250
Q5new_4	50	2.00	1.178	0.780	-0.941
Q4_1	50	4.72	1.666	-0.526	-0.264
Q4_2	50	4.40	1.738	-0.311	-0.665
Q4_3	50	4.38	1.883	-0.254	-0.914
Q4x4_1	50	5.38	1.469	-1.222	1.784
Q5_1	50	3.76	1.954	-0.144	-1.230
Q5_2	50	4.82	1.438	-1.257	1.423
Q5_3	50	4.06	1.646	-0.357	-0.430
Q5_4	50	3.82	1.466	-0.160	0.145
Q5_5	50	3.40	1.773	0.320	-0.954
Q5bnew_1	50	5.22	1.183	-0.447	0.029
Q5bnew_2	50	3.48	1.359	-0.236	-0.245
Q5bnew_3	50	3.80	1.340	-0.307	-0.068
Q8_1	50	4.58	1.785	-0.585	-0.579
Q8_2	50	4.40	1.714	-0.329	-0.486
Q8_3	50	4.40	1.874	-0.322	-0.825
Q9x2_2	50	4.96	1.989	-0.866	-0.387
Q9x2_3	50	4.38	1.748	-0.543	-0.335
Q15_1	50	4.50	1.865	-0.717	-0.422
Q18_1	50	4.84	1.315	-0.422	-0.353
Q18_2	50	3.90	1.199	-0.466	1.261
Q18_3	50	5.20	1.512	-0.982	0.775
Q18_4	50	4.16	1.695	-0.471	-0.650
Q18_5	50	4.34	1.319	0.001	-0.576



<b>Hodejegerne - Strong Brand Subtle Placement</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q4new_1	50	4.23	1.895	-0.274	-0.855
Q4new_2	50	3.87	1.783	-0.243	-0.981
Q4new_3	50	3.88	1.789	-0.204	-0.904
Q5new_1	50	5.17	1.396	-0.411	-0.672
Q5new_2	50	4.83	1.382	-0.186	-0.691
Q5new_3	50	4.33	1.768	-0.100	-0.933
Q5new_4	50	2.60	1.624	0.664	-0.499
Q4_1	50	4.83	1.677	-0.831	-0.243
Q4_2	50	4.65	1.714	-0.747	-0.278
Q4_3	50	4.85	1.742	-0.935	-0.146
Q4x4_1	50	5.87	1.085	-0.967	1.552
Q5_1	50	3.96	1.815	-0.207	-1.083
Q5_2	50	5.48	1.291	-1.719	4.069
Q5_3	50	4.40	1.741	-0.494	-0.617
Q5_4	50	4.08	1.770	-0.320	-0.699
Q5_5	50	3.48	1.754	0.169	-0.991
Q5bnew_1	50	5.40	1.107	-0.604	0.533
Q5bnew_2	50	3.81	1.121	0.135	2.500
Q5bnew_3	50	4.33	1.184	-0.896	1.333
Q8_1	50	4.90	1.729	-0.958	0.108
Q8_2	50	4.67	1.665	-0.541	-0.353
Q8_3	50	4.67	1.801	-0.576	-0.685
Q9x2_2	50	5.23	1.699	-1.025	0.167
Q9x2_3	50	4.88	1.580	-0.547	-0.222
Q15_1	50	4.73	1.921	-0.687	-0.762
Q18_1	50	5.02	1.260	-0.649	1.134
Q18_2	50	3.85	1.500	-0.198	-0.696
Q18_3	50	5.58	1.161	-0.585	0.154
Q18_4	50	4.37	1.428	-0.641	0.018
Q18_5	50	4.46	1.434	-0.210	-0.248

<b>Helt Perfekt - Weak Brand Prominent Placement</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q4new_1	50	2.84	1.633	0.473	-0.645
Q4new_2	50	3.06	1.596	0.181	-1.209
Q4new_3	50	3.08	1.602	0.268	-0.764
Q5new_1	50	4.32	1.696	-0.606	-0.155
Q5new_2	50	4.24	1.585	-0.637	0.292
Q5new_3	50	3.64	1.699	-0.134	-0.757
Q5new_4	50	2.14	1.294	0.554	-1.268
Q4_1	50	4.78	1.389	-0.159	-0.643
Q4_2	50	4.56	1.358	-0.157	-0.690
Q4_3	50	4.68	1.421	-0.248	-0.542
Q4x4_1	50	5.56	1.280	-0.443	-1.013
Q5_1	50	3.80	1.979	0.026	-1.192
Q5_2	50	5.10	1.233	-0.469	0.071
Q5_3	50	4.16	1.462	-0.248	-0.015
Q5_4	50	3.94	1.391	-0.126	0.239
Q5_5	50	3.80	1.629	0.100	-0.686
Q5bnew_1	50	5.26	1.006	-0.429	0.992
Q5bnew_2	50	3.50	1.418	-0.022	0.107
Q5bnew_3	50	4.00	1.443	-0.085	0.417
Q12_1	50	4.32	1.634	-0.337	-0.206
Q12_2	50	4.34	1.465	-0.178	0.475
Q12_3	50	4.22	1.475	-0.278	0.585
Q13x2_2	50	4.10	1.854	-0.092	-1.059
Q13x2_3	50	4.22	1.569	-0.149	-0.253
Q15_1	50	4.90	1.359	-0.320	0.205
Q18_1	50	4.72	1.246	-0.692	0.801
Q18_2	50	3.64	1.174	-0.430	0.421
Q18_3	50	4.94	1.168	-0.360	1.410
Q18_4	50	4.28	1.443	-0.176	0.068
Q18_5	50	4.70	1.359	-0.493	0.945

<b>Helt Perfekt - Weak Brand Subtle Placement</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q4new_1	50	3.32	1.789	0.162	-1.066
Q4new_2	50	3.70	1.887	-0.059	-1.356
Q4new_3	50	3.58	1.679	-0.050	-1.161
Q5new_1	50	4.92	1.589	-1.104	1.038
Q5new_2	50	4.68	1.634	-0.744	-0.077
Q5new_3	50	4.12	1.848	-0.163	-1.062
Q5new_4	50	2.32	1.285	0.448	-1.139
Q4_1	50	5.12	1.423	-1.016	1.334
Q4_2	50	4.88	1.409	-0.828	0.748
Q4_3	50	4.96	1.384	-0.887	1.199
Q4x4_1	50	5.76	1.135	-0.725	-0.244
Q5_1	50	3.88	1.986	-0.218	-1.101
Q5_2	50	5.46	1.092	-0.628	0.952
Q5_3	50	4.70	1.432	-0.443	0.300
Q5_4	50	4.06	1.754	0.047	-0.619
Q5_5	50	4.18	1.837	-0.153	-1.008
Q5bnew_1	50	5.28	1.031	-0.249	-0.057
Q5bnew_2	50	3.64	1.453	0.042	0.660
Q5bnew_3	50	4.30	1.359	-0.727	0.653
Q12_1	50	4.52	1.644	-0.582	-0.086
Q12_2	50	4.36	1.495	-0.424	0.048
Q12_3	50	4.38	1.550	-0.399	-0.093
Q13x2_2	50	4.72	2.080	-0.474	-1.066
Q13x2_3	50	4.80	1.498	-0.440	0.075
Q15_1	50	4.90	1.632	-0.801	0.234
Q18_1	50	5.22	1.375	-0.906	1.133
Q18_2	50	3.94	1.671	-0.120	-0.401
Q18_3	50	5.28	1.246	-0.692	1.347
Q18_4	50	4.50	1.693	-0.394	-0.535
Q18_5	50	4.76	1.506	-0.357	-0.033

<b>Commercial Tine Melk</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q4new_1	50	3.30	1.821	0.209	-0.861
Q4new_2	50	3.16	1.822	0.280	-1.126
Q4new_3	50	2.88	1.837	0.369	-1.296
Q5new_1	50	4.22	1.730	-0.478	-0.582
Q5new_2	50	3.76	1.636	-0.179	-0.857
Q5new_3	50	3.78	1.670	-0.239	-1.040
Q5new_4	50	2.52	1.568	0.855	-0.184
Q4_1	50	4.92	1.397	-1.067	1.166
Q4_2	50	4.78	1.375	-0.813	0.481
Q4_3	50	4.72	1.499	-0.823	0.646
Q4x4_1	50	5.72	1.179	-1.450	3.816
Q5_1	50	3.64	1.838	-0.078	-1.015
Q5_2	50	5.28	1.246	-1.088	1.963
Q5_3	50	4.22	1.620	-0.372	-0.409
Q5_4	50	3.72	1.604	-0.201	-0.508
Q5_5	50	3.98	1.985	-0.118	-1.181
Q5bnew_1	50	5.30	1.249	-0.863	1.713
Q5bnew_2	50	3.62	1.260	0.068	1.113
Q5bnew_3	50	4.06	1.316	0.165	0.648
Q8_1	50	4.86	1.498	-0.889	0.849
Q8_2	50	4.64	1.467	-0.711	0.612
Q8_3	50	4.54	1.581	-0.577	0.200
Q9x2_2	50	5.12	1.757	-0.872	0.219
Q9x2_3	50	4.52	1.832	-0.407	-0.572
Q15_1	50	4.62	1.783	-0.610	-0.354
Q18_1	50	5.28	1.310	-0.489	0.741
Q18_2	50	3.52	1.594	-0.227	-0.368
Q18_3	50	4.78	1.389	-0.635	0.813
Q18_4	50	4.66	1.560	-0.512	0.085
Q18_5	50	4.70	1.446	-0.544	0.383

<b>Commercial Cottage Cheese</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q4new_1	50	3.86	1.512	-0.159	0.309
Q4new_2	50	3.72	1.591	-0.120	-0.747
Q4new_3	50	3.08	1.627	0.399	-0.574
Q5new_1	50	4.14	1.539	-0.489	-0.056
Q5new_2	50	3.84	1.543	-0.207	-0.342
Q5new_3	50	3.32	1.596	0.138	-0.654
Q5new_4	50	2.34	1.636	1.170	0.530
Q4_1	50	4.98	1.684	-1.169	0.620
Q4_2	50	4.76	1.546	-0.961	0.550
Q4_3	50	4.78	1.645	-1.122	0.694
Q4x4_1	50	5.92	0.922	-0.650	-0.237
Q5_1	50	3.72	1.715	-0.151	-0.846
Q5_2	50	5.28	1.246	-1.879	4.801
Q5_3	50	4.46	1.693	-0.796	0.056
Q5_4	50	4.04	1.309	-0.361	0.057
Q5_5	50	3.92	1.926	-0.114	-1.087
Q5bnew_1	50	5.26	1.065	-0.339	0.822
Q5bnew_2	50	3.74	0.965	-0.865	1.072
Q5bnew_3	50	4.00	1.161	-0.571	-0.065
Q12_1	50	4.50	2.003	-0.572	-0.807
Q12_2	50	4.34	1.858	-0.621	-0.524
Q12_3	50	4.32	1.889	-0.484	-0.577
Q13x2_2	50	4.18	2.238	-0.178	-1.391
Q13x2_3	50	4.18	1.494	-0.665	0.292
Q15_1	50	4.88	1.507	-1.130	1.061
Q18_1	50	5.14	1.414	-1.250	1.999
Q18_2	50	3.66	1.686	-0.049	-0.596
Q18_3	50	5.10	1.418	-1.392	2.354
Q18_4	50	4.42	1.513	-0.540	-0.426
Q18_5	50	4.78	1.329	-0.881	1.160

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## Appendix 6 – High Kurtosis Values

<b>Control Group</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q18_1	50	5.60	1.125	-1.290	4.285
<b>Hodejegerne - Strong Brand Subtle Placement</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q5_2	50	5.48	1.291	-1.719	4.069
Q5bnew_2	50	3.81	1.121	0.135	2.500
<b>Commercial Tine Melk</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q4x4_1	50	5.72	1.179	-1.450	3.816
<b>Commercial Cottage Cheese</b>					
<b>Question</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Skewness Stat.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Stat.</b>
Q5_2	50	5.28	1.246	-1.879	4.801
Q18_3	50	5.10	1.418	-1.392	2.354

## Appendix 7 - Factor Loadings

**Table with Sum Variables Extraction Sum Squared Loadings % of Variance**

Sum Variable	Question	% Of Variance						
		Gr. 1	Gr. 2	Gr. 3	Gr. 4	Gr. 5	Gr. 6	Gr. 7
Attitude Time Melk	Q8_1	93.340	93.242			83.286	89.802	
	Q8_2							
	Q8_3							
Attitude Cottage Cheese	Q12_1			91.528	92.944	92.066		97.946
	Q12_2							
	Q12_3							
Concentration	Q4new_3	71.761	71.873	74.449	75.399		78.068	75.938
	Q5new_1							
	Q5new_2							
Entertainment	Q4new_2	94.442	83.683	80.879	93.254		83.794	85.138
	Q4new_3							

**Table with Sum Variables Component Values**

Sum Variable	Question	Component Value						
		Gr. 1	Gr. 2	Gr. 3	Gr. 4	Gr. 5	Gr. 6	Gr. 7
Attitude Time Melk	Q8_1	0.975	0.972			0.950	0.933	
	Q8_2	0.965	0.971			0.919	0.926	
	Q8_3	0.958	0.954			0.867	0.835	
Attitude Cottage Cheese	Q12_1			0.967	0.979	0.967		0.991
	Q12_2			0.952	0.959	0.962		0.990
	Q12_3			0.950	0.954	0.949		0.988
Concentration	Q4new_3	0.893	0.922	0.951	0.944		0.944	0.941
	Q5new_1	0.854	0.904	0.899	0.918		0.902	0.887
	Q5new_2	0.791	0.698	0.722	0.727		0.798	0.778
Entertainment	Q4new_2	0.972	0.915	0.899	0.966		0.915	0.923
	Q4new_3	0.972	0.915	0.899	0.966		0.915	0.923

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## Appendix 8 – Cronbach’s Alpha Values

### Cronbach’s Alpha Values for Hypotheses

Variable	Group	Cronbach’s Alpha
Attitude Tine Melk	Group 1	0.963
	Group 2	0.963
	Group 5	0.899
	Group 6	0.942
Attitude Cottage Cheese	Group 3	0.953
	Group 4	0.961
	Group 5	0.956
	Group 6	0.989

### Cronbach’s Alpha Values for Control Variables

Variable	Group	Cronbach’s Alpha
Concentration	Group 1	0.789
	Group 2	0.775
	Group 3	0.822
	Group 4	0.829
	Group 6	0.852
	Group 7	0.836
Entertainment	Group 1	0.941
	Group 2	0.805
	Group 3	0.763
	Group 4	0.928
	Group 6	0.805
	Group 7	0.825



## Appendix 9 - T-test Hypotheses

<b>T-test Attitude Tine Melk</b>					
	<b>Equality of means</b>			<b>Levene's Test</b>	
<b>Groups</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>Sig. 2-tailed</b>	<b>Mean diff.</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>5 vs. 1</b>	2.902	0.005	0.82667	11.033	0.001
<b>5 vs. 2</b>	1.941	0.055	0.53667	10.268	0.002
<b>5 vs. 6</b>	2.427	0.017	0.60667	3.561	0.062

<b>T-test Attitude Cottage Cheese</b>					
	<b>Equality of means</b>			<b>Levene's Test</b>	
<b>Groups</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>Sig. 2-tailed</b>	<b>Mean diff.</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>5 vs. 3</b>	-0.255	0.799	-0.080	1.120	0.292
<b>5 vs. 4</b>	-0.649	0.518	-0.20667	0.314	0.576
<b>5 vs. 7</b>	-0.485	0.629	-0.17333	1.339	0.250

<b>T-test Purchase Intention Tine Melk</b>					
	<b>Equality of means</b>			<b>Levene's Test</b>	
<b>Groups</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>Sig. 2-tailed</b>	<b>Mean diff.</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>5 vs. 1</b>	2.149	0.034	0.740	5.192	0.025
<b>5 vs. 2</b>	1.517	0.132	0.46923	1.429	0.235
<b>5 vs. 6</b>	1.824	0.071	0,580	1.6151	0.202

<b>T-test Purchase Intention Cottage Cheese</b>					
	<b>Equality of means</b>			<b>Levene's Test</b>	
<b>Groups</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>Sig. 2-tailed</b>	<b>Mean diff.</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>5 vs. 3</b>	-0.626	0.533	-0.260	6.229	0.14
<b>5 vs. 4</b>	-2.016	0.047	-0880	1.573	0.213
<b>5 vs. 7</b>	-0.753	0.454	-0.340	0.195	0.660

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**Compressed table of t-test values:**

<b>Attitude Tine Melk</b>				<b>Purchase Intention Tine Melk</b>			
<b>Group X vs. Y</b>	<b>t-value X</b>	<b>t-value Y</b>	<b>Significance</b>	<b>Group X vs. Y</b>	<b>t-value X</b>	<b>t-value Y</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>5 vs. 1</b>	5.29	4.46	0.005	<b>5 vs. 1</b>	5.70	4.96	0.034
<b>5 vs. 2</b>	5.29	4.75	0.055	<b>5 vs. 2</b>	5.70	5.23	0.132
<b>5 vs. 6</b>	5.29	4.68	0.017	<b>5 vs. 6</b>	5.70	5.12	0.071

<b>Attitude Cottage Cheese</b>				<b>Purchase Intention Cottage Cheese</b>			
<b>Group X vs. Y</b>	<b>t-value X</b>	<b>t-value Y</b>	<b>Significance</b>	<b>Group X vs. Y</b>	<b>t-value X</b>	<b>t-value Y</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>5 vs. 3</b>	4.21	4.29	0.799	<b>5 vs. 3</b>	3.84	4.10	0.533
<b>5 vs. 4</b>	4.21	4.42	0.518	<b>5 vs. 4</b>	3.84	4.72	0.047
<b>5 vs. 7</b>	4.21	4.39	0.629	<b>5 vs. 7</b>	3.84	4.18	0.459

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## Appendix 10 - T-test Control Variables

	<b>Age 18 - 44</b>	<b>Age 45 - 86</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Attitude Tine Melk</b>	4.9908	4.5627	0.169
<b>Attitude Cottage Cheese</b>	4.1983	4.5079	0.000
<b>Purchase Intention Tine Melk</b>	5.5596	4.8925	0.529
<b>Purchase Intention Cottage Cheese</b>	4.2241	4.1905	0.007

	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Attitude Tine Melk</b>	4.6541	4.9479	0.045
<b>Attitude Cottage Cheese</b>	3.8723	4.8530	0.186
<b>Purchase Intention Tine Melk</b>	5.1792	5.3333	0.006
<b>Purchase Intention Cottage Cheese</b>	3.8318	4.6452	0.912

	<b>Age 18 - 44</b>	<b>Age 45 - 86</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Concentration</b>	4.2264	3.8182	0.887
	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Concentration</b>	4.0225	4.0456	0.012

	<b>Age 18 - 44</b>	<b>Age 45 - 86</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Entertainment</b>	3.8050	3.2063	0.896
	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Entertainment</b>	3.5327	3.5084	0.001

<b>Concentration</b>			
	<b>4 &gt;</b>	<b>4 ≤</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Attitude Tine Melk</b>	4.2222	4.8772	0.015
<b>Attitude Cottage Cheese</b>	4.0494	5.5451	0.072
<b>Purchase Intention Tine Melk</b>	4.6140	5.4000	0.009
<b>Purchase Intention Cottage Cheese</b>	4.0185	4.5104	0.163
<b>Concentration</b>	2.5495	4.8953	0.000
<b>Entertainment</b>	2.1637	4.3106	0.000

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<b>Entertainment</b>			
	<b>4 &gt;</b>	<b>4 ≤</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Attitude Tine Melk</b>	4.4346	4.8447	0.117
<b>Attitude Cottage Cheese</b>	3.9481	4.8082	0.001
<b>Purchase Intention Tine Melk</b>	4.9114	5.3151	0.170
<b>Purchase Intention Cottage Cheese</b>	3.6883	5.0137	0.000
<b>Concentration</b>	3.1453	4.9817	0.000
<b>Entertainment</b>	2.2083	4.9247	0.000