THE EFFECT OF THE LEVEL OF FEAR APPEAL ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS ADVERTISING AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION

by

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Thesis presented in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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March 2008
DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature: _________________________________

Date: _________________________________
Fear appeals are commonly used in the advertising of social issues, such as drunken driving. In general, researchers believe that there is a positive relationship between fear and persuasion (to adapt misbehaviour). However, there are disputes amongst fear appeal researchers about the level of fear appeal to be used. Fear appeals, like other advertising appeals employed in advertising, is dependant on the traits of the target audience. The effect of fear appeals differ for different target audiences as different people fear different matters.

This study tests one of the contemporary models on the working of fear appeals, namely activation theory. Young adults are the target audience of social marketing in South Africa for anti-alcohol abuse issues, such as drunken driving. The effect of fear appeals on the target audience has never been empirically investigated in South Africa although social marketers often employ fear appeals to bring about a change in behaviour.

The responses of a sample of young adults in South Africa were tested by means of a quasi-experimental design based on Thayer’s activation deactivation checklist as implemented by previous fear appeal researchers. Three television advertisements that depict three levels of fear appeal (low, medium and high) were presented to three sample groups.

Significant differences in the responses of the level of fear appeal were observed after statistical analyses in terms of tension arousal, energy arousal, attitude towards the advertisement and intention to engage in drunken driving. A difference in how genders react to fear appeals was also found.
OPSOMMING

Die gebruik van vreesaanslae in die advertering van sosiale kwessies soos dronkbestuur is algemeen. Alhoewel navorsers glo dat ‘n positiewe verhouding bestaan tussen vrees en oorreding (van ‘n persoon om sy gedrag aan te pas), heers daar verskille oor die sterkte van die vreesaanslag wat gebruik moet word. Daar is bevind dat vreesaanslae, net soos ander aanslae wat deur die advertensiewese gebruik word, afhanklik is van die teikengehoor. Vreesaanslae se effek verskil, aangesien verskillende mense en gehore verskillende sake vrees.

Hierdie studie toets een van die kontemporêre modelle van die werking van vreesaanslae. Jong volwassenes is die teikengehoor in die sosiale bemarking van anti-alkoholmisbruik kwessies soos dronkbestuur. Alhoewel sosiale bemarkers dikwels vrees aanwend om hierdie teiken gehoor se gedrag te verander, is dit nog nooit empiries in Suid-Afrika getoets nie.

Die reaksies van ‘n steekproef uit dié teikengehoor is getoets deur ‘n kwasi-eksperimentele ontwerp geskoei op Thayer se “aktivering deaktivering” kontrolelys, soos geïmplementeer deur vorige navorsing in vreesaanslae. Drie televisie advertensies wat drie vlakke van vrees (laag, medium en hoog) verteenwoordig is, aan drie eksperimentele steekproefgroepe getoon.

Betekenisvolle verskille in die reaksie van die drie groepe is waargeneem na statistiese ontdelings. ‘n Verskil in hoe geslagte reageer op vreesaanslae, is ook bevind.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All the glory to God who gave me everything pertaining to life – in Him I put my trust (Proverbs 3:5-6). Many thanks are owed to Mrs. Marlize Smit who encouraged me from the beginning and kept on urging me to do my best till the end. This thesis would not have been what it is today without her guidance. All the time and effort it took to read drafts and chapters is greatly appreciated.

I would also like to emphasise the loving support of my parents and family who never ceased to ask “how far from finished” my thesis is. To my parents, thank you for making me feel like the most loved daughter in the world. And to Wynand, thank you for your love and endlessly listening to ideas regarding my thesis and topic, and your support in times when I felt discouraged. I also owe Jaco-Niel huge thanks for working late nights to help with the formatting of this document.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## CHAPTER 1 ............................................................................................................... 13

1.1  BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM ................................................................. 13
1.2  PROBLEM STATEMENT .................................................................................. 14
1.3  OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY ....................................................................... 16
1.4  METHOD OF INVESTIGATION ....................................................................... 17
1.4.1  THE LITERATURE STUDY ......................................................................... 17
1.4.2  THE EMPIRICAL STUDY ........................................................................... 17
1.5  DEFINITIONS .................................................................................................. 18
1.6  THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS ................................................................ 19

## CHAPTER 2 ............................................................................................................... 23

2.1  INTRODUCTION ............................................................................................... 23
2.2  MARKETING ..................................................................................................... 23
2.3  SEGMENTATION AND TARGET MARKETS ...................................................... 24
2.3.1  SEGMENTATION .......................................................................................... 25
2.3.2  BASES FOR SEGMENTATION OF CONSUMER MARKETS ......................... 25
2.3.3  TARGET MARKETING ................................................................................ 27
2.4  THE MARKETING MIX .................................................................................... 27
2.4.1  PRODUCT .................................................................................................... 29
2.4.2  PRICE .......................................................................................................... 29
2.4.3  PLACE ......................................................................................................... 29
2.4.4  PROMOTION ............................................................................................... 29
2.4.5  THE FOUR C's ......................................................................................... 30
2.5  SOCIAL MARKETING ....................................................................................... 30
2.5.1  THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN COMMERCIAL AND SOCIAL MARKETING ... 31
2.5.2  THE SOCIAL MARKETING PROCESS .......................................................... 32
2.6  CONCLUSION .................................................................................................. 32

## CHAPTER 3 ............................................................................................................... 33

3.1  INTRODUCTION ............................................................................................... 33
3.2  PROMOTION AND THE PROMOTIONAL MIX .................................................. 33
3.2.1  ADVERTISING ............................................................................................ 35
3.2.2  SALES PROMOTION .................................................................................. 35
3.2.3  PUBLIC RELATIONS .................................................................................. 35
3.2.4  PERSONAL SELLING ................................................................................ 35
3.2.5  DIRECT MARKETING ............................................................................... 36
3.3  ADVERTISING AS AN ELEMENT OF THE PROMOTIONAL MIX ..................... 36
3.4  ADVERTISING APPEALS ................................................................................. 38
3.5  EXECUTION STYLES ....................................................................................... 39
3.6  THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS .................................................................. 41
3.7  THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE STUDY TO THE MARKETING MIX AND ADVERTISING ... 44
3.8  CONCLUSION .................................................................................................. 46

## CHAPTER 4 ............................................................................................................... 47

4.1  INTRODUCTION ............................................................................................... 47
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>FEAR</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1</td>
<td>FEAR AS AN EMOTION</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.2</td>
<td>FEAR AS A SECONDARY DRIVE</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.3</td>
<td>THE ORIGINS OF FEAR</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>COGNITIVE AND BEHAVIOURAL MODELS OF BEHAVIOUR CHANGE</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3.1</td>
<td>CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR AND LEARNING</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3.2</td>
<td>COGNITIVE LEARNING THEORY</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3.3</td>
<td>BEHAVIOURAL LEARNING</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3.3.1</td>
<td>Classical conditioning</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3.3.2</td>
<td>Operant or instrumental conditioning</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>USING ATTITUDES AND INTENTION TO PREDICT CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4.1</td>
<td>ATTITUDES</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4.2</td>
<td>FISHEIN AND AJZEN’S THEORY OF REASONED ACTION</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>FEAR APPEALS</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>PAST FEAR APPEAL RESEARCH</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.1</td>
<td>FEAR APPEALS AND PERSUASION</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.2</td>
<td>FEAR APPEAL THEORY AND MODELS</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.3</td>
<td>THE FEAR-DRIVE MODEL</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.3.1</td>
<td>Recent research on the fear-drive model</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.3.2</td>
<td>The curvilinear model</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.3.3</td>
<td>Criticism on the fear-drive models</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.4</td>
<td>THE PARALLEL RESPONSE MODEL</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.4.1</td>
<td>Criticism on the parallel response model</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.5</td>
<td>PROTECTION MOTIVATION (PM) THEORY</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.5.1</td>
<td>Research on protection motivation theory</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.6</td>
<td>THE ORDERED PROTECTION MOTIVATION SCHEMA</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.7</td>
<td>THE EXTENDED PARALLEL PROCESS MODEL</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.7.1</td>
<td>Studies on the extended parallel process model</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.8</td>
<td>THAYER’S AROUSAL MODEL</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6.9</td>
<td>PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON THAYER’S MODEL</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>FEAR APPEALS AND SEGMENTATION</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.1</td>
<td>PAST RESEARCH ON THE MODERATING VARIABLES ON THE EFFECT OF FEAR</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>APPEALS ON PERSUASION</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.2</td>
<td>FEAR APPEALS WORK TARGET SPECIFIC</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>CONCLUSION</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CHAPTER 5 ............................................................................................................... 87

5.1 INTRODUCTION ................................................................................................. 87
5.2 RECENT ANTI-DRUNKEN DRIVING ADVERTISING CAMPAIGNS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND
INTERNATIONALLY ................................................................................................. 87
5.2.1 ANTI-DRUNKEN DRIVING ADVERTISING CAMPAIGNS IN SOUTH AFRICA ................. 88
5.2.1.1 Department of Transport: Arrive Alive ............................................ 88
5.2.1.2 Industry Association for Responsible Alcohol Use (ARA) .................... 89
5.2.1.3 South African Breweries Limited (SAB) ............................................ 90
5.2.1.4 Drive Alive ......................................................................................... 92
5.2.1.5 Smirnoff Ice ......................................................................................... 93
5.2.2 ANTI-DRUNKEN DRIVING CAMPAIGNS INTERNATIONALLY ............................. 94
5.2.2.1 Mothers against drunk driving (MADD) ............................................. 94
5.2.2.2 The Traffic Accident Commission (TAC) of Victoria .......................... 95
5.2.2.3 Department of Environment (DOE) – Ireland .................................... 97
5.2.2.4 The British Department for Transport: THINK! ................................. 99
5.2.2.5 Texas Department of Transportation ................................................ 101
5.2.2.6 Anheuser-Busch ................................................................................. 102
## CHAPTER 6 ............................................................................................................. 105

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.1 Introduction</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 Alcohol Abuse in South Africa</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.1 The Impact of Alcohol Abuse on Public Health</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.1.1 Drunken driving</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.1.2 Fetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS)</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.1.3 Underage drinking</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.1.4 Health problems</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.2 At-Risk Groups for Alcohol Abuse in South Africa</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.3 Official Efforts to Prevent Alcohol Abuse</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.3.1 Warning labels on alcoholic beverages</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.3.2 The Arrive Alive project</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3 Drunken Driving in South Africa</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4 The Study Population Profile</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4.1 South African Population Profile</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4.2 Population Profile of the Western Cape</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4.3 Population Profile of Students at the University of Stellenbosch</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5 Conclusion</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER 7 ............................................................................................................. 117

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.1 Introduction</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2 Objectives</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3 Hypotheses</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4 Primary Research Method</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5 Population</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.6 Sampling Process</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.7 The Questionnaires</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.8 Selecting the Advertisement Stimulation</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.9 The Pilot Study</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.10 The Final Study</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.10.1 Extraneous Variables</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.10.1.1 Internal validity</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.10.1.2 External validity</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.10.1.3 Reliability</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.10.2 Data Analysis</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.11 Ethical Considerations</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.12 Conclusion</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER 8 ............................................................................................................. 139

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.1 Introduction</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2 Findings from the Pilot Study</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2.1 Pilot Questionnaire Results</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2.2 Missing Responses</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2.3 Profile of the Respondents</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2.3.1 Drinking and driving behaviour</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2.3.2 Fear arousal, attitude towards the advertisement and intention</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2.4 Stage One: Group Discussion</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8.2.4.1 Drinking behaviour .................................................................................. 147
8.2.4.2 Drunken driving ...................................................................................... 148
8.2.4.3 Anti-drunken driving campaigns ............................................................. 150
8.2.5 STAGE TWO: REACTION TO TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS .......... 152
8.2.5.1 Rating of the advertisements ................................................................. 152
8.2.5.2 The nine advertisement stimuli .............................................................. 153
8.2.6 SELECTING THE THREE FINAL ADVERTISEMENT STIMULI .......... 156
8.3 RESULTS FROM THE FINAL STUDY ......................................................... 157
8.3.1 PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS ......................................................... 158
8.3.1.1 Profile of the total sample ..................................................................... 158
8.3.1.2 Drinking and driving behaviour of the total sample ............................... 159
8.3.1.3 Perceptions about drunken driving ....................................................... 162
8.3.2 PROFILES OF THE SAMPLE GROUPS .................................................... 162
8.3.2.1 Profiles of the three experimental groups .............................................. 162
8.3.3 PRELIMINARY ANALYSES ...................................................................... 164
8.3.3.1 Experimental group profile analysis ...................................................... 164
8.3.3.2 Evaluation of summed scale measures ............................................... 166
8.3.3.3 Intention ............................................................................................... 168
8.3.4 RESULTS OF TESTS OF HYPOTHESES AND HYPOTHESISED MODEL . 169
8.3.4.1 The hypothesised model ...................................................................... 169
8.3.5 OTHER HYPOTHESES ........................................................................... 178
8.3.5.1 Tension arousal .................................................................................. 178
8.3.5.2 Energy arousal .................................................................................... 179
8.3.5.3 Attitude ............................................................................................... 180
8.3.5.4 Intention .............................................................................................. 181
8.3.6 ADDITIONAL STATISTICAL ANALYSES NOT PERTAINING TO HYPOTHESES AND HYPOTHESISED MODEL . 183
8.3.6.1 The effect of gender ............................................................................. 183
8.3.6.2 Home language ................................................................................... 185
8.3.6.3 The effect of whether one drinks alcohol or abstains ............................. 187
8.3.6.4 The effect of how often a person drives ............................................... 189
8.3.6.5 The effect of whether one owns a motor vehicle .................................. 189

CHAPTER 9 .......................................................................................................... 191

9.1 INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................... 191
9.2 FINDINGS .................................................................................................... 191
9.2.1 THE PROPOSED MODEL ...................................................................... 191
9.2.2 OTHER HYPOTHESES ........................................................................ 192
9.2.3 ADDITIONAL STATISTICAL ANALYSES NOT PERTAINING TO HYPOTHESES AND PROPOSED MODEL ................................................................. 196
9.2.3.1 Gender ............................................................................................... 196
9.2.3.2 Home language ................................................................................ 196
9.2.3.3 Whether one drinks alcohol ................................................................. 197
9.2.3.4 How often one drives ......................................................................... 197
9.2.3.5 Whether one owns a motor vehicle ...................................................... 197
9.3 CONCLUSIONS .......................................................................................... 198
9.4 RECOMMENDATIONS/ IMPLICATIONS .................................................... 199
9.5 AREAS IDENTIFIED FOR FURTHER RESEARCH .................................. 200
9.6 LIMITATIONS ............................................................................................. 202

REFERENCES ..................................................................................................... 203
ADDENDUMS

Addendum A: The final questionnaire .................................................................
Addendum B: Thayer’s complete AD-ACL checklist ...........................................
Addendum C: The pilot questionnaire ............................................................... 
Addendum D: Focus group discussion guide ....................................................
Addendum E: Instructions regarding sound volume, lighting etc. as given to field 
workers .................................................
Addendum F: Instructions on conducting the experimental groups ....................
Addendum G: Consent form ...........................................................................
Addendum H: Focus group transcript ..............................................................
Addendum I: Codebook used for ATLAS.ti .....................................................
Addendum J: The nine advertisement stimuli .................................................
Addendum K: Statistical analyses ...................................................................

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1-1: Outline of the thesis ....................................................................... 22
Figure 2-1: The four P’s of the marketing mix .................................................. 28
Figure 2-2: The four P’s and the four C’s ........................................................ 30
Figure 3-1: The role of promotion in the marketing mix .................................... 34
Figure 3-2: The promotional mix including events and experiences ............... 34
Figure 3-3: Elements in the communication process ....................................... 41
Figure 3-4: Hypothetical communication model for this study ......................... 44
Figure 3-5: The study ................................................................................... 45
Figure 4-1: A hierarchy of emotions .............................................................. 48
Figure 4-2: A model of the emotion of fear .................................................... 49
Figure 4-3: The broad learning types and their subcategories ......................... 51
Figure 4-4: The ABC model of attitude .......................................................... 55
Figure 4-5: Contemporary view of the relationships among beliefs, feelings, 
attitude, behavioural intent and behaviour ................................................ 56
Figure 4-6: The theory of reasoned action ..................................................... 58
Figure 4-7: Fear appeal theories and models .................................................. 63
Figure 4-8: The fear-drive model ................................................................... 64
Figure 4-9: A non-monotonic relationship between level of fear and persuasion 66
Figure 4-10: The parallel response model with danger and fear control processes 68
Figure 4-11: Facilitating and inhibiting effects leading to a non-monotonic curve 69
Figure 4-12: The protection motivation theory ............................................. 71
Figure 4-13: Rogers’ (1983) protection motivation schema ............................ 72
Figure 4-14: The ordered protection motivation schema ................................. 74
Figure 4-15: The extended parallel process model ....................................... 77
Figure 4-16: Thayer’s Arousal Model ............................................................ 79
Figure 4-17: Assuming tension is not high enough to diminish energy............ 80
Figure 4-18: Assuming tension is high enough to diminish energy ................. 81
Figure 5-1: Arrive Alive - “Warren” ............................................................. 89
Figure 5-2: Arrive Alive - “Watermelon” ....................................................... 89
Figure 5-3: SAB - "Draw the line" (television advertisement) ......................... 91
Figure 5-4: SAB - "Draw the line" (billboard) ................................................ 91
Figure 5-5: Drive Alive television advertisement by FCB .............................. 92
Figure 5-6: Drive Alive - Print advertisement ............................................... 93
Figure 5-7: Smirnoff Ice - "Garden" .............................................................. 94
Figure 5-8: MADD - "Parking space" ............................................................ 95
Figure 5-9: First four phases of the "Only a little bit over?"—campaign ............... 96
Figure 5-10: DOE - "Shame" ........................................................................ 98
Figure 5-11: "Just One" leaflet ................................................................. 99
Figure 5-12: THINK! - "Crash" ............................................................... 100
Figure 5-13: Texas Department of Transportation - "Jacqueline Saburido" ... 102
Figure 5-14: Anheuser-Busch: Underage drinking and drunken driving print advertisements ................................................................. 103
Figure 6-1: Enrolments according to geographical origin in 2007 .............. 114
Figure 6-2: Age distribution of males and females in the Western Cape, Census 2001 ......................................................................................... 115
Figure 6-3: Age distribution of males and females in the total population .. 118
Figure 7-1: The effect of fear's energy and tension arousal on attitude and intention ....................................................................................... 118
Figure 8-1: Responses to "Kelly Ripa" ...................................................... 154
Figure 8-2: Responses to "Baby" ............................................................... 155
Figure 8-3: ANOVA analysis of age across the three experimental groups ... 165
Figure 8-4: Cross-tabulations for home language across the three groups .. 166
Figure 8-5: Cross-tabulations for the owning of a motor vehicle across the three experimental groups ............................................................... 167
Figure 8-6: The proposed model or path diagram .................................... 170
Figure 8-7: Overidentified model used for LISREL SEM ......................... 171
Figure 8-8: LISREL results for the low level of fear appeal ..................... 173
Figure 8-9: Relationships between constructs when exposed to low level of fear appeal ................................................................. 175
Figure 8-10: Relationships between constructs when exposed to medium level of fear appeal ........................................................................ 176
Figure 8-11: Relationships between constructs when exposed to high level of fear appeal ................................................................. 177
Figure 8-12: Positive trend for means of tension arousal across the three experimental groups ............................................................... 179
Figure 8-13: Positive trend for means of energy arousal across the three experimental groups ............................................................... 180
Figure 8-14: Trend for means of attitude towards the advertisement across the three experimental groups ....................................................... 181
Figure 8-15: The effect of gender on energy arousal .................................. 184
Figure 8-16: The effect of gender on intention .......................................... 184
Figure 8-17: The effect of home language and level of fear appeal on tension arousal ................................................................. 185
Figure 8-18: The effect of home language and level of fear appeal on energy arousal ....................................................................................... 186
Figure 8-19: The effect of home language and level of fear appeal on attitude ... 186
Figure 8-20: The effect of home language and level of fear appeal on intention to change drinking behaviour ........................................... 187
Figure 8-21: The effect of whether one drinks alcohol or not on attitude ... 188
Figure 8-22: The effect of whether one drinks alcohol or not on intention to change drinking behaviour ....................................................... 188
Figure 8-23: The effect of how often one drives on intention to change drinking behaviour ................................................................. 189
Figure 8-24: The effect of owning of a motor vehicle and level of fear appeal on intention to change drinking behaviour ................................ 190
**LIST OF TABLES**

Table 6-1: Driving under the influence of alcohol or drugs in South Africa for the period April to March 2001/2002 to 2006/2007 .....................109
Table 6-2: Ratio per 100 0000 of the population .................................110
Table 6-3: Percentage increase or decrease in driving under the influence per province .................................................................111
Table 6-4: Enrolments according to faculty and year ................................115
Table 7-1: Sample size ........................................................................124
Table 7-2: Section A questions .................................................................126
Table 7-3: Past fear appeal research ......................................................128
Table 7-4: Section B questions .................................................................129
Table 7-5: Final study ...........................................................................133
Table 7-6: Demographic profile of the pilot study sample .......................141
Table 7-7: Drinking behaviour of the pilot study respondents ..................142
Table 8-1: Multi-response table of drinking behaviour of pilot study respondents .................................................................143
Table 8-2: Pilot questionnaire means analysis .........................................145
Table 8-3: Comparison between expert and focus group rating of fear level 152
Table 8-4: The three advertisement stimuli selected for the final study .......157
Table 8-5: Sample sizes ........................................................................158
Table 8-6: Demographic profile of the total sample .................................158
Table 8-7: Other personal information of the total sample .........................159
Table 8-8: Drinking behaviour of the sample ............................................160
Table 8-9: Demographic profile of the three experimental groups .............163
Table 8-10: Other personal information per experimental group .................164
Table 8-11: Drunken driving behaviour of the total sample .......................161
Table 8-12: Other personal information per experimental group .................164
Table 8-13: Cronbach’s Alpha and Confirmatory Factor Analysis of summed scales ................................................................................168
Table 8-14: Goodness-of-fit indices for combined model ............................172
Table 8-15: Goodness-of-fit indices for the different experimental groups ....172
Table 8-16: Confidence interval estimates ................................................174
Table 8-17: Two-way analysis of variance ...............................................178
Table 8-18: Bonferroni tests for tension arousal between the three groups ..179
Table 8-19: Bonferroni tests for energy arousal between the three groups ....180
Table 8-20: Bonferroni tests for attitude towards the advertisements across groups ...............................................................................181
Table 8-21: Means analysis for the discarded intention item .......................182
Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background to the problem
Fear appeals are used very frequently indeed in social marketing. These appeals have been found effective when employed as part of road safety campaigns in order to influence behaviour (Delaney, Lough, Whelan & Cameron, 2004:10). The history of fear appeals has been controversial since the first scientific research on this phenomenon in the 1950s (Ruiter, Abraham & Kok, 2001). During the early stages of the research on this appeal, some researchers found a curvilinear relationship of fear to persuasion. This led to social marketers exercising a guarded use of fear appeals, especially relating to a high level of fear appeal in road safety advertising (Lewis, Watson, Tay & White, 2007:203).

In an attempt to reduce the suffering caused by alcohol abuse, South African social practitioners use social advertising campaigns to address alcohol abuse issues, such as:

- underage drinking
- drinking and driving
- Fetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS) prevention
- drinking responsibly.

Many of these campaigns employ fear appeals to transmit the message of the social marketer. Research has shown that the use of fear appeals remains target specific (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:45). No studies have hitherto been undertaken to investigate the effect of the fear appeals on persuasion for a South African target audience. Eighteen to 24 year old young adults are an at-risk group for alcohol abuse in South Africa and many anti-alcohol abuse campaigns, such as those
mentioned above, are specifically targeted at this audience (SABMiller, 2007; Parry & Bennetts, 1998:43).

Social campaigns in South Africa using fear appeals employ a range of levels of fear appeals. No studies, however, have been done in this country to test the effect of the level of fear appeals on persuasion. Debates amongst researchers about the “optimal” level of fear still continue and it seems that this subject matter needs to be tested on the target audience, as its effectiveness is ultimately dependent on the receiver of the message (Tanner, Hunt & Eppright, 1991:37).

This study aims to address some of the gaps in South African research on fear appeals by investigating the effect on fear appeals on South African adults between the ages of 18 and 24 years of age. The attitude of the target audience towards the advertisement and intention to engage in drunken driving behaviour is tested. Three different levels of fear appeal (low, medium and high) are tested to gauge the effect of level of the fear appeal on young adults in South Africa.

1.2 Problem statement
The literature review suggests that the effect of fear appeals on attitude and intention differ as weak, moderate or strong fear appeals are used. While some researchers argue that the outcome of changing behaviour improves when a stronger fear appeal is used (LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65), others argue that if too strong a fear appeal is used it may well lead to the audience ignoring the message or recommendations by the message to reduce the feared danger, as the appeal is then felt to be inadequate (Tanner et al., 1991:37; Ray & Wilkie, 1970:55). According to Thayer’s arousal model, the stronger the fear appeal used, the stronger the arousal of energy and tension would be. Generally it is assumed, according to this model, that the stronger the energy and tension aroused, the greater the positive relationship that the fear appeal would exert on attitude towards the advertisement and thus on the target persons’ intention to cease their harmful behaviour (Henthorne, LaTour & Nataraj, 1993).

In studies by LaTour and Rotfeld (1997) and Henthorne et al. (1993) it was noted that a fear appeal stimulus will cause tension in an individual which in turn would initiate
energy arousal. As long as the tension aroused is not sufficient to suppress the energy aroused, this tension would generate energy that could lead to a positive attitude and response toward the advertisement. This positive relationship should last as long as the threshold is not crossed where tension leads to anxiety and depletes energy. Previous studies have indicated that a failure to find the threshold where tension activates anxiety and dissipates energy, may well generate a negative attitude towards the advertisement (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:56; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996: 65; Henthorne et al., 1993:67). A reason given for the failure to find the threshold during the study by Henthorne et al. (1993:67) was speculation that the threshold could not be crossed on the basis of the print media, which were used in the study. More recent studies were, however, also unable to cross the threshold when using video media (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:55). It would consequently be a meaningful endeavour to explore whether the threshold can indeed be crossed using audiovisual media on a South African audience, namely young adults.

Research on fear appeals have shown that, as with other advertising appeals, the effectiveness of the appeal depends on both the type of product and also the specific traits of the target audience (Tay, Ozanne & Santiono, 2000:1248; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:48; Burnett & Wilkes, 1980:21; Ray & Wilkie, 1970:62). Different responses are linked to relevance, importance and value for different audiences (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:48).

The problem statement for this study is: How do fear appeals, and the level of fear appeals used, affect the attitude towards the advertisement and intention to engage in drunken driving of a South African target audience?

Against this background it is regarded as valuable to use Thayer’s model to test the positive relationship between level of fear appeal (low, medium and high) on the attitude towards the advertisement and intention to engage in drunken driving behaviour on the part of a South African target group. It is also useful to investigate whether a threshold exists for a South African audience where tension aroused may deplete the energy aroused and would lead to a negative attitude towards the advertisement and no intention to engage in drunken driving behaviour.
This study is useful for South African health communicators who use advertising campaigns to motivate young adults through fear not to drink and drive. South African health communicators can benefit from knowing whether fear appeals do positively affect attitude and intention to drink and drive (i.e. whether there is a positive relationship between the level of fear appeal and attitude and intention). The research will also shed light on how different levels of fear affect the attitude and intention of South African young adults.

This research does not attempt to explain why different levels of fear appeal have different effects on attitude and intention, but to record the effects of different levels of fear on a specific target group: South African young adults.

1.3 Objectives of the study
The objectives for this study thus are:

- To test how fear appeal affects attitude and intention of young adults by testing Thayer’s model as used in the formulation of fear arousal by Henthorne et al. (1993) and LaTour and Rotfeld (1997).
- To test how three levels of fear appeals (low, medium and high) influence the four constructs of the model: tension arousal, energy arousal, attitude and intention.

The aim of this study is to gain a better understanding on the operationalisation of fear appeals on attitude and intent of a South African target audience and also the “optimal” level of fear appeal that should be employed when aiming advertising at a specific audience.

This study aims to develop new fear appeal research in South Africa by testing the effect of fear appeals on one of the target audiences of anti-drunken driving advertisements, namely young adults. The testing of the effect of the level of fear appeal on attitude and behavioural intention is a only a start in this field in South Africa and it is hoped that other studies would follow suit in order to assert through proper research techniques the appropriate level of fear appeal to be used by social marketers in South Africa when advertising social causes amongst young adults.
1.4 **Method of investigation**

The order of the method of investigation as followed by this study, comprised of a literature review and an empirical study.

1.4.1 *The literature study*

An extensive literature review was executed using sources that included books, journals, press releases, internet sources and personal communications. Most of the research on fear appeal itself was from international origin, since little research on this topic from South Africa could be found.

The literature study covers the following aspects:

- The difference between marketing and social marketing
- The use of advertising appeals in advertising
- Consumer behaviour, specifically in terms of attitude and intent behaviour
- The history of fear appeal research and its findings, with reference to contemporary models of the operation of fear appeals, such as Thayer’s activation theory as applied by fear appeal researchers
- An overview of South African and international anti-drunken driving campaigns
- The extent of drunken driving as an alcohol abuse problem in South Africa

1.4.2 *The empirical study*

The empirical study was conducted in two phases. The first phase included exploratory research by means of a focus group and testing the pilot questionnaire. The second phase was the final study conducted with three sample groups, data collection, and statistically analysing the data to draw conclusions.

A self-administered questionnaire was developed as the instrument through which data would be collected from the sample groups. The final questionnaire consisted of two sections. Section A contained four questions requesting demographic information, four manipulation checks and five questions regarding drinking and driving behaviour. The second section, Section B, included one manipulation check, a question that measured energy and tension arousal (10 items), attitude towards the advertisement (five items) and intention to engage in drunken driving (two items).
The pilot questionnaire was tested on the focus group during the pilot study and corrections were made, such as words or terms that were misunderstood by the respondents.

For the final study, a quasi-experimental between subjects one-shot (after only) design was used. Three sample groups were exposed to three advertisement stimuli. The advertisement stimuli consisted of three anti-drunken driving television advertisements employing a fear appeal. Each of the three advertisement stimuli represented a different level of fear appeal (low, medium and high). A selection of nine advertisements was presented to the pilot study sample and from their response, and also results from the pilot questionnaire, the final three advertisement stimuli were selected. The data from the final study was captured by optically scanning the responses and statistically analysed before conclusions were drawn.

1.5 Definitions
The following definitions are given to assist the reader and to serve as clarification of terms used in this thesis:

**Anti-drunken driving television advertisements** - Audiovisual marketing communications that aim to reduce drunken driving amongst its target audience. In this thesis television advertisements are the focus of the study.

**Attitude** - Attitude refers to positive or negative feelings toward an advertisement. Positive feelings towards an advertisement would lead to behaviour that adheres to the proposed behaviour of a fear appeal advertisement to avoid the negative outcome, whereas negative feelings will lead to not wanting to adhere to the avoidance behaviour proposed by the fear appeal advertisement.

**Fear** - An emotional response to a threat that implies some kind of danger to the individual.

**Fear appeals** - Advertising messages that appeal to the audience’s fear and/or anxiety caused by the presentation of the negative outcome/effect of drinking and
driving, e.g. making a fatal road accident whilst drinking and driving, in order to affect the audience members’ behaviour not to drink and drive.

**Intent** - The state of mind with which an act is done. The behaviour that a person wants to do.

**Level of fear appeal** - Fear appeals may differ in strength. For example the plain words, “Caution: Don't drink and Drive”, may be regarded as less threatening as a scene aired on television that shows a driving accident, has intense music and ends with a voiceover that says: “Caution: Don't drink and Drive”. Three levels of fear appeals are used in this study: Low, medium and high. These three levels (from low to medium) imply that the fear appeal is more threatening and fearsome in nature in the next level than the previous level.

**Social marketing campaign** - An organised marketing effort conducted by one group (the change agent), which intends to persuade others (the target adopters) to accept, modify, or abandon certain ideas, attitudes, practices, and behaviour. The goal of this type of campaign is to benefit the target audience and the broader society, and in this study specifically to protect the target audience and South African society from the negative consequences and costs of drunken driving.

**Young adults** - The study focuses on a target audience of anti-drunken driving television campaigns in South Africa, namely young adults. Young adults in this specific context refer to persons between the ages of 18 and 24.

1.6 **The structure of the thesis**

Chapter one contains the introduction to the study and provides the background, problem statement, objectives and methodology used for this study. Chapters two to six provide the literature review for the study.

Chapter two discusses the concepts of marketing and social marketing. Principles of marketing, such as segmentation and the marketing mix, are explained. Similarities and differences between social marketing and commercial marketing and the techniques that they use are highlighted.
Chapter three describes the roles of the promotion “P” of the marketing mix and the promotional element of advertising. Different advertising appeals and execution styles that could be employed in advertising are discussed. The communication process that occurs between the marketer and the target audience is explained in depth.

In chapter four the emotion of fear and its role in humans is defined. An introduction on consumer behaviour is provided and an overview of the methods by which consumers learn behaviour is given. Models of the relationship between attitude and behavioural intent are discussed as these two constructs are often used by marketers to predict consumers’ behaviour. Past fear appeal research is reviewed with specific reference to fear appeal's relationship with persuasion, fear appeal theory and models, and fear appeals and segmentation.

Chapter five describes recent and current advertising campaigns with the aim of reducing drunken driving behaviour amongst the target audience. First, domestic campaigns and then international campaigns are reviewed.

Chapter six covers the issue of drunken driving in South Africa. Firstly, it is described as one of the effects of alcohol abuse in the country. Secondly, at-risk groups for alcohol abuse are identified. Attempts from the government to prevent alcohol abuse, such as drunken driving, are outlined and statistics of drunken driving per province in South Africa are provided. The study population profile is then examined and reasons are adduced for selecting the population from which the sample was drawn for this study.

Chapter seven explains the methodology used as well as the hypotheses tested in this study. Reference is made to the primary research method and the sampling process is described. The measuring instrument selected for collecting data in the study and the selection of the experimental stimuli are described in detail.

The results of both the pilot and final study are presented in chapter eight. The focus group’s responses are summarised and an analysis of the data collected by means of the questionnaires is then presented.
Finally, chapter nine deals with the interpretation of the results and then the conclusions. Areas for further research and limitations of the study are identified.
Figure 1-1: Outline of the thesis

THE EFFECT OF THE LEVEL OF FEAR APPEAL ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS ADVERTISING AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION

Chapter 2
Marketing and social marketing

Chapter 3
Advertising and advertising appeals

Chapter 4
Consumer behaviour and fear appeals

Chapter 5
South African and international anti-drunken driving campaigns

Chapter 6
Drunken driving in South Africa

Chapter 7
Empirical study

Chapter 8
Results

Chapter 9
Conclusions and recommendations
Chapter 2

Marketing and Social Marketing

2.1 Introduction
This chapter defines the concept of marketing and discusses important steps and terminology of the marketing process, such as segmentation, target marketing and the marketing mix. Social marketing is defined and the differences and similarities between commercial and social marketing are pointed out.

2.2 Marketing
In the second millennium, marketing is understood in terms of satisfying customer needs. Marketing is often misunderstood as only comprising advertising and selling, but these may be described as the tip of the iceberg of marketing (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:5). One can distinguish between a societal and managerial role of marketing where the societal role of marketing is to deliver a higher standard of living and the managerial role is the art of selling products (Kotler & Keller, 2006:6).

Several definitions capture the essence of the wide subject of marketing. Included in a definition for marketing by the American Marketing Association is that it is a process whereby the conception, pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods, and services is planned and executed in order to create exchanges that will satisfy individual and organisational goals (Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff & Terblanché, 2000:4). The definition of the British Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM) maintains that marketing is a management process that is responsible to identify, anticipate and satisfy the requirements of customers profitably (Brassington & Pettit, 2003:4). Kotler and Keller (2006:5) assert that marketing can be briefly summarised as meeting needs profitably.
A mere exchange process between two people forms the basis of marketing (Van der Walt, Strydom, Marx & Jooste, 1997:4). Marketing takes place at any time when one social unit (a person or organisation) strives to exchange something of value with another social unit. Objects of value are not limited to only goods, services or money, but they also include feelings, energy and time (Stanton, Etzel, Walker, Abratt, Pitt & Staude, 1992:6).

The concept of marketing thus encompasses all the activities that generate and facilitate any exchange intended to satisfy human needs and wants (Stanton et al., 1992:6). According to Kotler (cited in Lamb et al., 2000:7) there are five conditions for an exchange or a transaction to be able to take place:

- At least two participants are involved (a buyer and a seller)
- Each participant has something that is valued by the other participant
- Each participant has to be able to communicate with the other participant and deliver the goods or services desired by the other participant
- Each participant must be free to accept or reject the other participant’s offer
- Each participant needs to want to deal with the other participant

### 2.3 Segmentation and target markets

Before the 1950s most firms pursued a strategy, called market aggregation (Van der Walt et al., 1997:110). Firms manufactured and supplied one or a few standardised products for a mass aggregate market (Stanton et al., 1992:95). Examples include companies like Ford and Coca-Cola which (in the past) offered one basic product to the market.

Most firms follow an alternative approach where they offer a wide assortment of products and services aimed at groups of customers within the total market that have the same needs and wants. This approach is called market segmentation which means that the total market is viewed as being composed of many, smaller homogeneous segments (Stanton et al., 1992:95).
Firms decide which of the above two strategies to adopt. Although the strategy of market aggregation is not widely used by marketers, instances do exist where this strategy may be appropriate. Diet products aimed at the weight watcher market are an example of a situation where the market aggregation strategy may be applied (Van der Walt et al., 1997:110).

2.3.1 Segmentation
Firms strive toward customer satisfaction and, although this is not a goal in itself, the greater the customer satisfaction, the greater the chances of the enterprise to achieve its goals. A marketer can rarely satisfy everyone in the market. Therefore, a marketer divides the market into segments or groups of buyers who prefer the same service or product offering (Van der Walt et al., 1997:110).

Market segmentation is the dividing of a totally heterogeneous market for a product or service into smaller segments that is homogeneous in significant aspects (Stanton et al., 1992:95). The heterogeneous market is divided into reasonably homogenous subsets of customers to achieve maximum customer satisfaction. Maximum customer satisfaction can be achieved by marketing to each segment individually, because it is assumed that the people in each segment has relatively the same needs and wants, and would respond in a similar fashion to the market offering and a marketing strategy (Van der Walt et al., 1997:110).

2.3.2 Bases for segmentation of consumer markets
Two major groups of variables may be used to segment consumer markets. Some market researchers try to form segments by analysing consumer characteristics such as geographic, demographic and psychographic characteristics. Others aim at forming segments by viewing the consumers’ responses to benefits such as brands or usage occasions (Kotler, 2003:287).

The four most commonly used bases for segmentation are grouped into four categories: Geographic; demographic; psychographic; and behaviour toward the product (Stanton et al., 1992:99). Other characteristics may also be used to segment consumer markets, for example, social class or socio-economic status (Lamb, Hair & McDaniel, 1996:183).
Geographic segmentation is used to group markets by region of country, city size, urban/rural, or climate (Stanton et al., 1992:100). The regional distribution of people is important because the inhabitants in a region generally tend to share values, attitudes and lifestyle preferences. Reasons why marketers may choose a geographic approach to segmentation may be that they want to introduce a new regional brand meant to appeal to local preferences or that it allows a company to react faster to competition (Lamb et al., 1996:183).

One of the most commonly used segmentation bases is that of demographic segmentation which includes categories such as age, sex, family life cycle stage, income distribution, education, occupation and ethnic origin (Stanton et al., 1992:103). Traditionally in South Africa, in particular the 1970s and 1980s, firms used to rely heavily on race as a basis for market segmentation (Van der Walt et al., 1997:116). The South African Advertising Research Foundation (SAARF) published the Living Standards Measure (LSM) for the first time in the SAARF AMPS 1989/90 report. The LSM groups are a demographic segmentation of the nation's citizens by their living standards and are one of the most widely used marketing research instruments in South Africa. In 2001, the SAARF launched a new improved SAARF UNIVERSAL LSM. The SU-LSM is based on universally applicable variables, which means that the universal index is applicable to all South African adults of 16 years and older. The SAARF Universal LSM uses ten groups using 29 variables of living standards (SAARF, 2007).

A market may be grouped into smaller groups in terms of characteristics, such as social class, lifestyle or personality by the use of psychographic segmentation (Van der Walt et al., 1997:119). The buying behaviour of consumers is influenced by both sociological and psychological forces. Culture, social class and reference groups are included in sociological influences, while influences such as learning experiences, personality, attitudes and beliefs are all part of psychological influences on buyers’ behaviour. Many researchers use the term “psychographics” as a collective synonym for these two influences (Stanton et al., 1992:113).

Behavioural segmentation is used to consolidate consumers on the basis of their buying behaviour. Behaviour that may be used as basis for behavioural
segmentation includes purchase occasions, benefits sought, user status, usage rate, loyalty status, buyer readiness stage, and attitude toward the product (Van der Walt et al., 1997:122).

2.3.3 Target marketing
After market segmentation is done, the firm needs to decide which needs of the relevant market segments it can best satisfy. Not all segments could be used for target marketing and to be useful a segment has to meet the following criteria: Firstly, a segment must be measurable in terms of the size, purchasing power, and characteristics of the segments (Kotler, 2003:286). A segment should also be substantial, thus large and profitable enough to be served. The largest possible homogenous group should be chosen so that it is worth directing a tailor-made marketing programme at the group. To be useful a segment needs to be accessible and thus easy to reach and serve. A segment should be differentiable and respond differently to different marketing mix elements and programmes. For example, if two groups of women in different age groups respond similarly to a sale of perfume, the two groups do not constitute two different segments. Lastly, it must be actionable and the marketer has to be able to design effective programmes to attract and serve the segments (Kotler, 2003:286).

The process of deciding which market segment to pursue is called target marketing (Van der Walt et al., 1997:111). The marketer selects one or more target segments to which the marketing effort should be directed. This is done by creating a specific marketing mix (a specific product, price, place and promotional appeal) for each target segment (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:35). Section 2.4 describes what the marketing mix is and how it operates. The target segment chosen is then called the firm’s target market and consists of a group of people or organisations to which the firm aims its marketing efforts (Stanton et al., 1992:95).

2.4 The marketing mix
Marketing facilitates exchange processes and the development of relationships by researching the needs and wants of consumers. A product or service is developed that satisfies these needs which is then offered at a certain price, made available at a particular place, and a programme of promotion or communication is developed to create public awareness and interest (Belch & Belch, 2004:8). These four elements
– Product, Price, Place and Promotion – are called the four elements (or the four P’s) of the marketing mix. The marketing mix may be seen as a set of tools that a firm uses to pursue its marketing objectives (Kotler & Keller, 2006:19). The basic task of marketing could thus be said to be a combination of these four elements to create the perfect blend that would be able to facilitate mutually satisfying exchanges with a target market (Lamb et al., 1996:21).

The four P’s are often referred to as the combination of controllable marketing variables that a firm employs to pursue its objectives in a given target market (Boyd, Walker, Mullins & Larréché, 2002:19). There are dozens of tactical decisions that need to be made in designing the perfect strategic marketing programme and these decisions fall into four categories of marketing variables over which the marketer has some control. The marketing mix as a whole is only as good as its weakest component, for example, a superior product with a poor promotional strategy will most likely fail (Lamb et al., 1996:21). The particular controllable marketing variables that fall under each of the four P’s are illustrated in Figure 2-1 and each will be discussed shortly:

**Figure 2-1:** The four P’s of the marketing mix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Product</strong></th>
<th><strong>Price</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Variety</td>
<td>• List price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Quality</td>
<td>• Discounts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Design</td>
<td>• Allowances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Features</td>
<td>• Payment period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Brand name</td>
<td>• Credit terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Packaging</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Promotion</strong></th>
<th><strong>Place</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Advertising</td>
<td>• Channels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Personal selling</td>
<td>• Coverage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sales promotion</td>
<td>• Assortments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Public relations</td>
<td>• Locations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Transportation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Logistics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Target customers

Intended positioning

Source: Adapted from Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:51.
2.4.1 Product
The marketing mix generally starts with the product offering, as it is difficult to
determine a distribution system or price without knowing the product. The product
does not only include the physical product, but also includes aspects such as the
packaging, warranty, service subsequent to sale, and the brand name (Lamb et al.,
1996:22). A product thus includes the combination of goods and services that a firm
offers to its target market (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:50).

2.4.2 Price
Price is not a simple calculation of costs and profit margins, but it has to reflect issues
of buying behaviour. Prices are used as indicators of quality and desirability of a
product and have the ability to reinforce the work of the other three elements of the
marketing mix (Brassington & Pettit, 2003:27). Price is the most flexible component
of the marketing mix, as the price of a product can be adjusted more frequently than
any of the other marketing mix controllable variables (Lamb et al., 1996:23).

2.4.3 Place
The place involves all the activities of the firm to make its product available to the
target market (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:50). It includes making the product
available at the place where, and at the time when, the customer wants it in order to
enable a purchase to take place. Physical distribution is part of place strategies and
consists of all the activities concerned with the storage and transportation of the
products so that they would arrive safely and timely at the places where needed.
Wholesalers and retailers assist in getting the products from the manufacturers to the
end users (Lamb et al., 1996:23).

2.4.4 Promotion
Promotion is all the activities that a firm undertake to communicate the advantages of
the product in order to persuade the target market to purchase it (Kotler & Armstrong,
2008:51). The promotion component of the marketing mix includes personal selling,
advertising, sales promotion, direct marketing, internet marketing and public relations
(Belch & Belch, 2004:16). The role of promotion is to allow satisfying exchanges with
the target market to take place by informing, educating, persuading and reminding
the market about the benefits of the product (Lamb et al., 1996:23). The marketer
needs to have the skill to stimulating market interest in the product. Each element of
promotion (personal selling, advertising, sales promotion, direct marketing, internet
marketing and public relations) is coordinated with the other elements to create a promotional mix or blend. Chapter three discusses the promotional mix and its elements in depth.

2.4.5 The four C’s
Some critics argue that the four P’s represent the view of the seller of the marketing tools that may be used to influence buyers (Kotler & Keller, 2006:19). From the buyer’s viewpoint the four P’s may also be described as the four C’s: Customer solution, customer cost, convenience and communication (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:51). The four C’s correspond to the four P’s as illustrated in Figure 2-2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4 P’s</th>
<th>4 C’s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product</td>
<td>Customer solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>Customer cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Convenience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:51.

From the viewpoint of a buyer, each marketing tool delivers a customer benefit (Kotler & Keller, 2006:19). Marketers may perceive themselves as selling products, but customers perceive that they are buying value or solutions to their problems. Customers are not only interested in the price of a product, but in the total cost of buying, usage and disposal of the product. Customers want products to be conveniently available to them and they want two-way communication with a firm (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:51).

The four P’s and the four C’s are principles used in marketing. The next section will explain how social marketing employs the principles and techniques of commercial marketing.

2.5 Social marketing
The term “social marketing” was first introduced in 1971 by Philip Kotler and Gerald Zaltman in an article in the Journal of Marketing to describe the use of marketing
principles and techniques to progress a social cause, idea or behaviour (Kotler, Roberto & Lee, 2002:6).

Where the commercial sector sells goods and services, social marketers sell a behaviour change. Social marketing is regularly used to modify a target audience’s behaviour voluntarily for the sake of health improvement, injury prevention, environment protection, or contributing to the community. Normally, the change that is “sold” includes one of four factors: To accept a new behaviour; reject a potential behaviour; modify a current behaviour; or to abandon an old behaviour (Kotler et al., 2002:5).

2.5.1 The difference between commercial and social marketing

One of the distinctions between commercial and social marketing is the type of product that is sold. In the commercial sector marketing revolves around the selling of goods or services, while with social marketing, marketing is used to “sell” behaviour changes. Another distinction between social marketing and commercial marketing is that the primary intended beneficiary is not the corporate shareholder as with commercial marketing, but rather social marketing intends to benefit the individual, a group or society as a whole. In the commercial sector the primary objective is thus financial gain, while with social marketing the objective is individual or societal gain (Kotler et al., 2002:10).

The competitors of commercial and social marketers also differ. Since commercial marketers try to sell goods and services, their competitors are mostly other firms that offer similar goods or services. Social marketing focuses on selling behaviour change and, therefore, the competition is mostly the current or preferred behaviour of the target group (Kotler et al., 2002:10). “Competition” in social marketing is therefore more of an obstacle than anything else.

One of the most challenging attributes of social marketing is that in many instances, the social marketer cannot offer anything (other than a promise) in exchange for the proposed behavioural change. Social marketing relies on voluntary compliance rather than legal, economic, or coercive means of influence (Kotler et al., 2002:5).
2.5.2 The social marketing process

Social marketing employs traditional marketing principles and techniques. A customer orientation is applied to understand what the target audiences currently know, believe and do. The marketing process begins with marketing research in order to understand the relevant market segments and their needs, wants, beliefs, problems, concerns and behaviours (Kotler et al., 2002:7). The target markets that could best be satisfied are selected and clear objectives are established. The four P’s are then used by the marketer to influence the target markets. Product benefits, features, prices, distribution channels, messages, and media channels are selected. The product is then positioned so that it effectively appeals to the target audience’s desires to improve their health, prevent injuries, protect the environment, etc. more effectively than the behaviour currently practiced by that target market. Finally, results are evaluated and strategies adapted accordingly, if necessary (Kotler et al., 2002:7). These mentioned steps correspond with the steps for a commercial marketing plan.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter is an introduction to the concepts of marketing and social marketing. Some of the tools used by marketers, such as target marketing and the marketing mix, were described. The main focus of this thesis remains social marketing. Social marketing employs the same marketing principles as commercial marketing, e.g. target marketing.

Target marketing is a necessary step in the social marketing plan. This study investigates the use of promotion in the social marketing of “selling” anti-drunken driving behaviour amongst the target market of young adults in South Africa. One of the obstacles faced in social marketing and anti-drunken driving marketing is that it relies on the voluntary compliance of the target market. The voluntary compliance of young adults to not engage in drunken driving was measured in this study by measuring their intention to engage in drunken driving after being exposed to anti-drunken driving television advertisements.
Chapter 3

Advertising and advertising appeals

3.1 Introduction
This chapter expands on the element of promotion (the promotion P) in the marketing mix. Firstly, promotion is discussed as consisting of five elements that are used to complement a promotional strategy with a view to creating a promotional mix targeted at a target audience. Secondly, the advertising-element of the promotional mix is defined and its characteristics, uses and advantages are described and the different advertising appeals and execution styles that can be used in advertising are mentioned. Lastly, the communication process is defined in terms of the elements of the communication model. Lastly, a hypothetical communication model for this study is proposed.

3.2 Promotion and the promotional mix
The marketing mix, as explained in chapter two, consists of four elements, also known as the four P’s: Product, Price, Place and Promotion. Promotion is the element in the marketing mix that a marketer uses to inform, persuade and remind the market about the firm and/or its products (Stanton, Etzel, Walker, Abratt, Pitt & Staude, 1992:431). A promotional strategy is used in combination with the other three elements (product, distribution (place) and pricing strategies) to create the perfect blend of the marketing mix to reach the target market.

Promotion may be done through five major promotion tools: Advertising, sales promotion, public relations, personal selling and direct marketing tools. These five tools are also called the main elements of the promotional mix. Please refer to Figure 3-1 in this regard. More than one element may be combined to complement each other creating a promotional mix or marketing communications mix (Kotler &

Figure 3-1: The role of promotion in the marketing mix

One recent view (Kotler & Keller, 2006:537) also include events and experiences as an additional element of the promotional mix as shown by Figure 3-2. Events and experiences include festivals, sports, arts, factory tours and company museums.

Figure 3-2: The promotional mix including events and experiences

Source: Adapted from Kotler & Keller, 2006:537.
3.2.1 Advertising
Advertising is a form of impersonal mass communication that is paid for by a clearly identified sponsor (Stanton et al., 1992:430). The most used types of advertisements are broadcast (radio and television) and print (magazines and newspapers) advertisements. One of the greatest advantages of advertising is its ability to communicate to a large number of people simultaneously (Lamb, Hair, & McDaniel, 1996:498). As this study investigates the effect of advertising on drinking and driving behaviour, advertising will be examined in greater detail in this chapter.

3.2.2 Sales promotion
Firms may offer extra value or incentives to their sales force, distributors, or customers through various marketing activities with the goal of stimulating immediate sales (Belch & Belch, 2004:21). These marketing activities are known as sales promotion: a short term tool used to stimulate an immediate increase in demand (Lamb et al., 1996:500). Sales promotion includes activities such as in-store displays, samples, coupons, contests, and premiums (Stanton et al., 1992:430).

3.2.3 Public relations
One of the goals of public relations is to influence the attitudes and opinions of one or more of the firm’s target publics (Stanton et al., 1992:430). Public relations include marketing programmes designed to protect or promote the image or products of the firm (Kotler & Keller, 2006:536). Firms are often concerned about how their target audiences perceive them and they thus try to build a positive public image of themselves. Newsletters, annual reports, lobbying and sponsorships of special events all fall under public relations efforts (Stanton et al., 1992:430). Public relations involve the evaluation of public attitudes and identification of those areas within the firm that might be of interest to a particular part of the public that may fall within the firm’s target group (Lamb et al., 1996:499). Actions may include obtaining favourable publicity in order to build good relationships with the various publics targeted by the firm or the management and to counteract unfavourable rumours or allegations regarding the firm (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:398).

3.2.4 Personal selling
Personal selling involves a representative of a firm presenting a product to a prospective customer (Stanton et al., 1992:430). It is an attempt to persuade the buyer to take some action and this may take place face-to-face or over the phone.
The interaction between the buyer and seller allows for flexible marketing communication as the seller can observe the potential buyer’s responses and is thus able to adapt the message accordingly. Personalised and individual communication also allows the seller to tailor the message specifically for each customer (Belch & Belch, 2004:24). Personal selling is the most prevalent form of promotion for industrial goods as these goods are less standardised and not suited for mass promotion like advertising (Lamb et al., 1996:500). Sales persons selling motor vehicles are an example of this element of the promotional mix.

3.2.5 Direct marketing
Firms use direct marketing to communicate with target customers directly with a view to generating a transaction. Direct marketing includes mail, mail-order catalogues, database management, telemarketing, direct selling and direct response advertisements through the Internet or mail (Belch & Belch, 2004:20). Some companies, such as Tupperware for example, use independent contractors to sell their products and do not use any other distribution channels.

3.3 Advertising as an element of the promotional mix
As explained in Section 3.2 of this chapter, advertising is one of the promotional elements that may be used to create a promotional mix to communicate with the target market. All the promotional elements including advertising are called the promotional mix. Please refer to Figure 3-1 and 3-2.

Advertising could essentially be described as any form of communication in which the sponsor or firm can be identified. It is a paid, impersonal message from an identifiable sponsor to a particular target audience to inform, remind or persuade the members of the audience to engage in a specific action regarding a product, service or an idea (Van der Walt et al., 1997:328). Media like television, radio, magazines, newspapers, bill boards, direct mail, and bus and taxi stop posters are often used for advertising (Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, & Terblanché, 2000:303).

Kotler and Keller (2006:555) note that advertising has three distinctive qualities: pervasiveness, amplified expressiveness and impersonality. Pervasiveness allows the seller to repeat messages several times allowing the buyer to compare messages from different sellers. Through the artful use of print, colour and sound, advertising
can dramatise the product or image of the firm. Advertising is a monologue with the audience and this lends to itself a quality of impersonality which allows the audience to hear and see the message without feeling an obligation to pay attention or to respond to it.

Advertising differs from other forms of communication in that it is a one-way communication with groups of consumers instead of individual consumers (Van der Walt et al., 1997:330). This characteristic leads to one of the advantages of using advertising to convey messages: The ability to communicate to a large number of persons simultaneously. The cost per contact of advertising is therefore low; the total cost of production of advertising is, however, typically high. Advertising is thus a cost effective medium to reach large audiences (Lamb et al., 2000:303).

In this study the focus is on advertising through the medium of television. Advertising through the media vehicle of television is often chosen because of its ability to employ both audio and visual effects in the advertising message to the target audience. One of the greatest advantages of using television as a medium is the creativity and impact with which the advertising message can be presented. Dramatic, lifelike images could be used to convey the message (Belch & Belch, 2004:351).

The television medium, however, also has some disadvantages for advertising. Television advertising can have a high impact on the viewer as it is often said to intrude on the viewer as he/she watches his/her favourite programme (Belch & Belch, 2004:352). One problem, however, is called the “empty armchair”- syndrome in other words, the tendency of viewers to go and make coffee, use the bathroom or do something else while advertisements are being screened (Brassington & Pettit, 2003:623). Other viewers may perhaps not leave their chairs, but may well be in discussion and thus distracted from the advertisements or they may engage in channel-hopping and consequently miss the advertisements altogether (Smith & Taylor, 2004:197). The wide coverage of the television medium may also mean high wastage where vast numbers of viewers are reached, but the relevance and quality of each contact thus made may be questionable and uncertain (Brassington & Pettit, 2003:623).
In advertising different manners of attracting the audience’s attention may be used. These different ways are called advertising appeals and will be discussed in detail in the next section.

3.4 Advertising appeals

An advertising appeal is the basis or approach used in an advertising message to attract the attention of consumers and/or their feelings toward a product, service or cause (Belch & Belch, 2004:266). It could also be described as the communications approach that relates to the motives of the target market (Keegan & Green, 2003:540).

Numerous appeals could be used as a basis for advertising messages, but at the broadest level advertising appeals may be categorised into two main categories: Informational/rational appeals and emotional appeals (Belch & Belch, 2004:267). Advertisements that apply rational approaches use logic, and are knowledge-based and speak to the intellect of the audience, while emotional approaches appeal to the audience’s feelings (Keegan & Green, 2003:540). There are many rational motives that may be used as a basis for advertising appeals, such as comfort, convenience, economy, health and sensory benefits that include smell, taste and touch (Belch & Belch, 2004:267).


Emotional appeals relate to the social and/or psychological needs of consumers for purchasing a product. Many needs or feelings could be used as a basis for an advertising appeal. Some of the most frequently used advertising appeals are: fear, humour, sex and abrasive appeals. It has been suggested that the memory of unpleasant or annoying advertisements that antagonises the viewer dissipates over time to only leave the brand name in the minds of the consumers (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:252) or a sense of guilt is retained (Shimp, 2000:349). This study’s main objective is to investigate the use of fear appeals to defer people from drunken driving. Chapter five explains in detail the functioning of fear appeals.
3.5 Execution styles

After determining the advertising appeal for the advertising message, a decision needs to be reached on the execution style of the advertisement. There are various ways to present a particular message of a campaign. Message execution refers to the form in which the message of an advertisement is presented. The form includes the details on how the message would ultimately look, read and sound (Wells, Burnett & Moriarty, 2003:317).

According to Belch and Belch (2004:275) an advertising message can be presented or executed in various ways such as:

- Straight sell /factual message
- Scientific /technical evidence
- Demonstration
- Comparison
- Testimonial
- Slice of life
- Animation
- Personality symbol
- Fantasy
- Dramatisation
- Humour
- Combinations

A few of these execution styles that are applicable to anti-drunk driving advertisements will be examined.

**Straight sell/factual message:** A factual message is one of the basic types of execution styles. It involves a straightforward presentation of information concerning the product or service. This type of execution is usually used with informational/rational appeals (Belch & Belch, 2004:275).

**Scientific/technical evidence:** Scientific or technical evidence that the product/service works or is effective may be presented in an advertisement as a variation of the straight sell execution style (Belch & Belch, 2004:275).

**Demonstration:** Demonstrative advertising illustrates the key advantages of a product/service by showing it in actual use or in a staged situation (Belch & Belch, 2004:277; Egan, 2007:206). It can be effectively employed to show the utility or
quality and benefits of using the product. The television medium is especially well suited for demonstration executions because of its audiovisual qualities.

Testimonial: Many advertisers use testimonials where a person commends a product or service after personal experience with it (Belch & Belch, 2004:277; Egan, 2007:206). A testimonial can be very effective if the person delivering the testimonial is someone with whom the target audience can identify themselves. The testimonial execution is often used in anti-drunk driving advertisements to represent a person who has been harmed in a drunk driving accident.

Slice of life: The slice-of-life execution is a widely used execution style that follows a problem/solution approach. Generally a problem or conflict situation that a consumer might face in his/her daily life is portrayed and then it is shown how the advertised product or service could solve this problem (Belch & Belch, 2004:278; Egan, 2007:206). Some marketers use a different version of the problem/solution execution, called the slice-of-death execution (Belch & Belch, 2004:279). The latter style is normally used in combination with a fear appeal. The execution focuses on the negative consequences that would ensue if a person does not choose the right product, service or supplier (Belch & Belch, 2004:279). Many anti-drunk driving advertisements use a fear appeal executed in the slice-of-death style, in order to present graphically the consequences of drunk driving.

Dramatisation: The technique of dramatisation is also a style particularly fit for television. A short story is told during the advertisement featuring the product or service advertised as the star of the story (Belch & Belch, 2004:281). The approach differs from slice-of-life in the sense that the advertisement is executed with more drama, excitement and suspense.

Combinations: Many of the execution styles may be combined to be present a message. For example, animation could be used to depict a slice-of-life scenario.

After discussing the different styles with which an advertisement can be executed, it is necessary to focus on the advertising message itself. Advertising is a communication process between the marketer and the target group members.
3.6 The communication process

Communication can be explained by the communication model first described by Shannon and Weaver in 1949 (Barth & Bengel, 2000:20). Kotler and Keller (2006:539) explain that effective communication could be illustrated by the following model of the communication process (Figure 3-3):

![Figure 3-3: Elements in the communication process](source: Kotler & Keller, 2006:539)

Figure 3-3 depicts the elements necessary in the communication process as proposed by the communication model, to make effective communication take place. The sender should know the audience he/she wants to reach and the response wanted from the audience. The message then needs to be encoded in a way that the audience would be able to decode and understand it, having been transmitted through the relevant medium that will reach the audience. Appropriate feedback channels have to be in place to monitor responses (Kotler & Keller, 2006:539). The sender receives feedback to his message via the reaction of the receiver and uses the feedback to adapt future messages (Van der Walt et al., 1997:318). The marketer is thus both a sender and a receiver of messages, thus making the marketing communication process a two-way process as indicated by Figure 3-3 (Lamb et al., 1996:501).
The sender is the creator of the message in the communication process (Lamb et al., 1996:501). For example, in a personal conversation the sender may be a friend, parent or a salesperson. The sender is also called the source or the communicator. The communicator should be trustworthy, otherwise the receiver may distort the message or ignore the message completely (Van der Walt et al., 1997:319). The sender of anti-drunken driving messages (such as those that will be used in this study) is usually the Department of Health, the Department of Transport or a non-governmental organisation (e.g. Mothers against drunk driving (MADD) or Drive Alive) fighting alcohol abuse or proposing responsible drinking in the relevant country.

The message refers to how the message is converted into words, pictures, sounds, or a combination of these. In an advertisement the message consists of verbal or spoken words as well as non-verbal symbols. The verbal symbols are supposed to carry the meaning of the message and the receiver should be able to understand the verbal symbols of a message. In South Africa this creates a problem for many marketers, as there are eleven official languages and a word or phrase in one language may not be understood by other language groups (Van der Walt et al., 1997:319).

Verbal messages are often complemented by non-verbal symbols in an advertisement. One of the most basic examples of this is a picture that accompanies words in a print advertisement, for example in a magazine. A television advertisement consists of pictures accompanied by the spoken word and corresponding sounds. Television is one of the best ways to convey a message to a receiver as it involves both the sight and hearing (audiovisual senses) of the receiver (Van der Walt et al., 1997:319).

The medium is the carrier of the message and there are two possible ways to transmit the message to the receiver, namely either through mass media (television, radio, or press) or personal conveyance (by sales people or other consumers) (Van der Walt et al., 1997:319). Television advertisements employing fear appeals were investigated in this study as this medium uses audiovisual effects that can more effectively simulate the negative consequences of drinking and driving than radio or
print advertisements. Television is also the medium most used by South African social marketers. Please see chapter five for examples on how these social marketers employ this medium in South Africa. Audiovisual effects allow television advertisements to be more fear arousing in nature than print or radio advertisements.

The person receiving the message from the sender is the **receiver** of the message. The consumer or an intermediary can be the receiver. To understand the meaning of the message, the receiver should first decode the message. The decoding or interpretation of the message indicates the meaning that the receiver attaches to the words, images and sounds of the message (Van der Walt et al., 1997:319). In this particular study the sample (and receivers of the message) was students from the University of Stellenbosch who fall in the age group of 18 to 24 year olds that are an at-risk group for alcohol abuse.

The receiver’s **response** reveals whether the communication process was a success or not. If the receiver is better informed, reminded or persuaded, as was the intention of the sender, success has been achieved (Van der Walt et al., 1997:319). The responses of the respondents for this study were measured by questionnaires asking respondents to indicate their intended future drunken driving behaviour as well as their positive/negative attitude toward the advertisement. If the students indicated that they would not drink and drive in future, the message would be considered to be a success. The message would have failed if the students indicated that they intended to drink and drive in future.

The extent to which the sender is aware of the reaction of the receiver elicited by the communication is shown by the **feedback** (Van der Walt et al., 1997:320). Feedback is the part of the receiver’s response that is communicated to the sender, for example research that shows that respondents remember an advertisement or consumers that write or phone to praise or complain about an advertisement (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:403). The feedback on the message in this study was gathered by questionnaires filled in by respondents.

Any disturbance that prevents the successful transfer of the message or competitive stimuli is called **noise**. Noise for this study could be regarded as all the previous
drinking and driving advertisements or alcohol industry advertisements which respondents may have seen on television. Students’ current lifestyle in terms of their attitude towards alcohol and motor vehicles, and whether they currently partake in drunken driving, may affect the attention they give to the message.

The hypothetical communication model for this study is presented by Figure 3-4.

Figure 3-4: Hypothetical communication model for this study

3.7 The relationship of the study to the marketing mix and advertising

To summarise chapters two and three, Figure 3-5 demonstrates the extent of anti-drunken driving advertisements that will be used in this study.
This thesis concerns the response of the target market consisting of the age group of 18 to 24 year olds to the promotional element of advertising. The effect of a specific advertising appeal, fear appeal, which is regularly used in the social marketing of anti-alcohol abusive behaviours in South Africa, is investigated for the audiovisual advertising message of “don’t drink and drive”. The advertisements were chosen by expert judges to represent a variety of execution styles. The team of experts included two marketing research specialists and two senior marketing academics.
3.8 Conclusion
Advertising and advertising appeals were discussed in this chapter. Television advertisements employing fear appeals to deter young adults from drunken driving was investigated in this study. This chapter presented the advantages and disadvantages of using television as a medium in the communication process. The audiovisual capabilities of television allow fear appeals to be presented so as to be more fear arousing than other media, such as print or radio.

Several execution styles were discussed in this chapter. Expert judges examined fear appeal advertisements representing a variety of execution styles as described in the methodology of this thesis (chapter seven).

In terms of the communication model, the central message of “do not drink and drive” was researched in this study. Three audiovisual (television medium) advertisements that describes the negative outcome of drinking and driving in verbal words and pictures were shown to three sample groups of first year students from the University of Stellenbosch.
Chapter 4
Consumer behaviour and fear appeals

4.1 Introduction

The first part of this chapter is devoted to the construct of fear. Fear is discussed as an emotion and a secondary drive within humans and some of the origins of fear are mentioned.

The second part of the chapter addresses consumer learning behaviour. This section of the chapter outlines various models of learning in consumers under the two broad categories of cognitive learning and behavioural learning.

Chapter three focused on the element of advertising in the promotional mix and introduced the term advertising appeals. In the third part of chapter four the advertising appeal of fear will be further investigated. Fear appeals are the most used advertising appeal for drunken driving advertising messages and, therefore, needs to be further defined. A brief definition of fear appeals is given and then past research on fear appeals on the following topics are reviewed: fear and persuasion, fear appeal theory and models, and fear appeals and segmentation.

4.2 Fear

4.2.1 Fear as an emotion

Plutchik (cited in Coon, 2001:425) indicated that there are eight primary emotions: Fear, surprise, sadness, disgust, anger, anticipation, joy, and acceptance (receptivity). Primary emotions are shared across cultures and are associated with particular biological and physical states (Gazzaniga & Heatherton, 2003:321). The primary emotions may be classified into two categories: positive and negative affect emotions, i.e. pleasant and unpleasant emotions. Positive affect emotions are associated with approach oriented motives, while negative affect emotions relate to avoidance oriented motives. Fear is a negative affect emotion and represents an undesired state, which is associated with unpleasant feelings (Westen, 2002:340).
Emotions could be organised hierarchically with positive and negative emotions at the top, followed by the basic emotions and then emotions that are more culture-specific. Please refer to Figure 4-1 for an example of the hierarchy of emotions.

**Figure 4-1:** A hierarchy of emotions

Research on activity in the brain has shown that positive emotions are mostly processed in the left hemisphere of the brain, while negative emotions are processed in the right hemisphere. This explains how one can simultaneously experience positive and negative emotions (e.g. happy and sad) (Coon, 2001:427).

A model of the emotion of fear is depicted in Figure 4-2. An emotional stimulus, such as a dangerous animal lunging for a person, is judged (appraised) as a threat. The appraisal leads to autonomic nervous system (ANS) arousal taking place, which may include a person’s heart rate speeding up, sweating and trembling. The appraisal also causes emotional expressions to occur, i.e. a person’s face may twist and his/her posture may become tense. Simultaneously, the appraisal causes adaptive behaviour to happen, i.e. a person may run away from the animal. Emotion is thus to a great extent influenced by the way a person thinks about or reacts to an event (Coon, 2001:437).
4.2.2 Fear as a secondary drive

Any powerful stimulus that causes an organism to act is called a drive. Drives may be classified as either being primary or secondary. Primary drives are related to survival and include drives such as hunger, thirst and pain. On the other hand, secondary drives are learned, such as fear, anxiety or the need to be successful. Primary drives are thus biologically determined, while secondary drives are learned or culturally determined (Hergenhahn & Olson, 2003:319).

Fear is one of the most important secondary drives because it is important for adaptive and maladaptive human behaviour. Freud observed that anxiety serves as a warning of impending danger (cited in Hergenhahn & Olson, 2003:319). Therefore, an event that is associated with a painful experience would cause fear or anxiety if the event is re-encountered. For example, a child that has been burned by a hot stove will show fear when seeing a stove again, although there is no pain in only looking at the stove (Hergenhahn & Olson, 2003:319).

4.2.3 The origins of fear

Although the origins of fear are still shrouded in a controversy, useful progress has been made in determining how fears are acquired. One is called the concept of “three pathways to fear”. The first pathway is conditioning: exposure to traumatic
stimulation or repeated exposures to sub-traumatic sensitising conditions. The second pathway is vicarious acquisition: direct or indirect observations of people displaying fear. The third is through the transmission of fear-inducing information (Rachman, 1990:4).

One part of the brain, the amygdala, helps strongly to produce fear in the human body (Coon, 2001:70). LeDoux (1996) found that the amygdala is the most important brain structure where emotional learning, such as classical conditioned fear responses, takes place (cited in Gazzaniga & Heatherton, 2003:330).

As fear can be learned it is necessary to understand the way in which humans learn behaviour. Cognitive and behavioural models of behaviour change exist and both will be discussed next.

### 4.3 Cognitive and behavioural models of behaviour change

#### 4.3.1 Consumer behaviour and learning

Consumer behaviour describes the thoughts and feelings that persons experience and the actions that they perform in the so-called consumption process (Peter & Olson, 2005:5). Consumers store information in their memory by making associations. For example, a brand name may be linked to a variety of attributes of the brand, such as its colour, price and benefits and also how consumers feel about it (e.g. its quality or the emotion it evokes). These associations are significant to the marketer because consumers use this information base to make purchase decisions. Most of what consumers know, think and feel about brands have been stored in their memory by the process of learning (Foxall & Goldsmith, 1994:71). Consumer learning may take many forms, but the primary means that marketers use to communicate with their customers is through advertising. Therefore, much of the discussion of learning involves advertising. The next section discusses the different means through which learning takes place. Learning describes any changes in the behaviour of an individual based on experience (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:144).

Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:514) explain that learning is a process through which experience leads to changes in knowledge, attitudes, and/or behaviour. One of the perspectives on learning is the cognitive approach. This approach assumes
that learning is reflected by changes in knowledge. The focus is on the mental process underlying the manner of how individuals learn information.

Another perspective on learning is the behavioural approach that is concerned with observable behaviours. This approach views learning as the changes in behaviour that are the result of the development of associations between stimuli and responses (Engel et al., 1995:514). Two types of behavioural approaches to learning are those of classical conditioning and operant conditioning. Figure 4-3 illustrates the two broad categories of learning theory and their subcategories.

**Figure 4-3: The broad learning types and their subcategories**

![Diagram](http://scholar.sun.ac.za)


### 4.3.2 Cognitive learning theory

Theory of cognitive learning emphasises the thought process involved in consumer learning. Cognitive learning stems from experiments by Kohler in the 1920s (cited in Assael, 1995:122). Kohler placed a chimpanzee in a cage with a number of boxes in one experiment and hung bananas from the roof of the cage. After attempts to reach the food failed, the chimpanzee came up with a solution by placing a box underneath the bananas and climbing on it in order to reach the food. Learning in this case was neither the result of an association between a stimulus nor a response or reinforcement: it was rather a result of insight. The cognitive approach to learning thus entails recognition of a goal, purposive behaviour to achieve the goal, insight into a solution, and finally, goal achievement (Assael, 1995:123).
Cognitive learning is relevant to marketing in terms of consumer decision making processes. Consumers recognise a need, evaluate alternative products/services that may fulfil their need, and then select the product/service they think will most successfully satisfy their need (insight), and then finally, evaluate the extent to which the product/service met their need (goal achievement) (Assael, 1995:123). Rote learning, vicarious learning and information searching all fall under cognitive learning theory. Rote learning, also called accidental learning, is one of the most basic forms of learning. Customers memorise without realising it when they are repeatedly exposed to information like brand names or slogans. When customers store information in their memory that they hear repeatedly, these bits of information may become associated with other bits of memory in their mind to form weak beliefs and feelings about brands (Foxall & Goldsmith, 1994:73).

Vicarious learning incorporates both cognitive and behavioural learning theories (Engel et al., 1993:547). Also called modelling, vicarious learning happens when an individual learns a specific behaviour by observing the actions of others and their consequences. Vicarious learning is widely used in advertising. Advertisers frequently show people using their products and obtaining positive results, or people having negative results by not using their products (Assael, 1995:124). An example is washing detergent advertisements where the housewife is seen hanging out white clothes after washing it with a particular brand of washing detergent (Engel et al., 1993:547).

Information processing refers to a wide arrangement of cognitive activities through which consumers learn. Formal learning and reasoning are two types of learning that requires a great deal of time and energy investment from the consumer. The time and energy required distinguishes them from rote learning that requires little effort from the consumer and takes place on the surface. Formal learning is when the customer is instructed by other people and usually takes place through face-to-face interaction. Reasoning happens when customers take all the information they have regarding a brand and then draw conclusions about the suitability of the brand for purchase and use (Foxall & Goldsmith, 1994:74).
Information processing thus generally refers to a series of steps that a person follows when encountering information in the external world and the way a person attends to, interprets, understands, and stores it in his/her memory (Foxall & Goldsmith, 1994:74).

4.3.3 Behavioural learning

4.3.3.1 Classical conditioning

The construction of stimulus-response associations may lead to learning (Engel et al., 1995:529). Pavlov, the father of classical conditioning, demonstrated classical conditioning with the following experiment: an existing stimulus-response relationship is selected, e.g. food that elicits salivation in a dog. The food is called the unconditioned stimulus (US) and the salivation is the unconditioned response (UR). A new stimulus, a bell, is then repeatedly paired with the food (the US). The bell is rung every time the food is presented. The bell is called the conditioned stimulus (CS). After a while, the CS will elicit the same response as the US. In other words, the dog will salivate when the bell is rung without presenting any food to the dog. The response, the salivation, is now called the conditioned response (CR). Marketers often rely on classical conditioning in advertising by attempting to create a mood or image that is positively associated with the product advertised (Engel et al., 1993:548).

4.3.3.2 Operant or instrumental conditioning

Operant conditioning, also called instrumental learning, is concerned with how the consequence of behaviour is likely to determine the frequency or probability of the behaviour being performed again (Engel et al., 1995:539). A simple example of how operant conditioning works is a customer noticing a new brand of cereal in a store and deciding to buy it. When having breakfast the next morning he/she tries the new cereal, likes the taste and decides to buy it again when doing grocery shopping next time.

With operant conditioning, consequences may affect behaviour in three different ways: through positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement or punishment. Consider an operant conditioning experiment involving a mouse in a cage containing a button, that when pressed, produces some kind of consequence. In the case of
positive reinforcement, pressing the button (the operant behaviour) produces receiving a positive stimulus, such as food. Behaviour is reinforced by the reception of a positive stimulus after conducting the operant behaviour (Engel et al., 1995:539).

Under negative reinforcement the push of the button may remove a negative stimulus, in other words it may stop a low-level electrical shock. Behaviour is thus reinforced by removing a negative consequence when the operant behaviour is acted out. In both of these two cases the mouse is more likely to repeat the behaviour of pressing the button in future (Engel et al., 1995:539). Punishment, on the other hand, reduces the chance of the behaviour occurring again in future. When punishment is used, the press of the button will lead to an adverse stimulus, such as an electrical shock occurring.

Operant conditioning is useful in the field of marketing because of its focus on reinforcement. Consumers will repurchase a product if they are satisfied. The principles of operant conditioning may also be applied to advertising. Advertising could be used to increase the consumer's expectation of reinforcement by communicating product benefits to assure consumers that they will be satisfied by using the product (Assael, 1995:120).

4.4 Using attitudes and intention to predict consumer behaviour
Companies are often concerned with the prediction of future consumer behaviour. A company may want to know whether there is sufficient demand in the market to warrant a new product introduction. One of the ways to determine sufficient demand is by introducing the new product into one or more test markets. An alternative way to establish demand or whether a new product even warrants introduction into a test market is by analysing consumers’ attitudes and intentions concerning a product (Engel et al., 1995:384). Using attitudes and intentions in the forecasting of demand is not limited to new products, but could also determine whether future demand for existing products exist.

4.4.1 Attitudes
Attitudes describe consistent evaluations, feelings and tendencies of a person towards an object or an idea (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:144). In other words, attitudes represent the favourable or unfavourable feelings of a person towards an
object (Peter & Olson, 2005:135). In terms of marketing, attitude is the predisposition to behave consistently favourably or unfavourably towards a product, object or situation (Cant, Brink and Brijball, 2002:134).

One of the characteristics of attitudes is that attitudes are learned. Attitudes relevant to buying behaviour are formed from direct experience with a product, information from others or from exposure to mass media (Cant et al., 2002:134). Another important characteristic of attitude is that an attitude is relatively consistent with the behaviour that it reflects. It is expected that if a customer likes product X, he/she would buy product X and if a customer is not fond of product X, that he/she won’t buy product X. However, attitudes are not always permanent, but may change. According to the ABC model of attitude, attitude in an individual consists of three components: affect (feelings), behaviour (actions), and cognition (beliefs) (Cant et al., 2002:135):

![Figure 4-4: The ABC model of attitude](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiator</th>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Component manifestation</th>
<th>Attitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stimuli: Products, situations, retail stores, advertisements</td>
<td>Affective</td>
<td>Emotions or feelings about specific attributes or overall object</td>
<td>overall orientation toward object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Behavioural (Conative)</td>
<td>Behavioural intentions with respect to specific attributes or overall object</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Beliefs about specific attributes or overall object</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Cant et al., 2002:135.

The above diagram illustrates the traditional view of the tri-componential nature of attitude. The affective component of an attitude refers to a person’s feelings towards the attitude object (Engel et al., 1995:364). A person’s action or behavioural tendencies towards the attitude object make up the conative component of an attitude. The cognitive component refers to a person’s knowledge and beliefs about an attitude object (Engel et al., 1995:364).
A more contemporary view of attitudes regards attitude as being distinct from the three components with a relation between attitude and each component as shown in Figure 4-5.

Figure 4-5: Contemporary view of the relationships among beliefs, feelings, attitude, behavioural intent and behaviour

In the contemporary model, both beliefs (the cognitive component) and feelings (the affective component) are placed as determinants of attitude. For some products beliefs would be the primary determinant of attitude, while for other products feelings may be the deciding factor in terms of attitude. For example, while attitudes towards vacuum cleaners might primarily be determined by perceptions of their benefits; attitudes towards music could well be determinant on the subjective feelings it evokes (Engel et al., 1995:365).

According to this model the two fundamental ways by which attitude is formed are through feelings or through beliefs (or both) regarding the attitude object. The
conative component is, however, not seen as a determinant of attitude in this model. Attitude is in fact viewed as a determinant of the conative component or behavioural intention. A consumer’s behavioural intention will be dependant on his/her attitude and intentions to execute some behaviour. Intention is thought to intensify as a person’s attitude becomes more favourable regarding a certain object or matter (Engel et al., 1995:366).

Behavioural intention, being closest to behaviour in the above diagram, shows that behaviour is more highly related to behavioural intention than to attitude, beliefs or feelings. Therefore, behavioural intention is measured to predict future behaviour, as this yields one of the most accurate predictions of future behaviour (Engel et al., 1995:367).

4.4.2 Fishbein and Ajzen’s theory of reasoned action

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) proposes that the behavioural intention of an individual determines the probability of performing a particular behaviour (cited in Delaney, Lough, Whelan & Cameron, 2004:5). In the TRA model, behavioural intention is based on a weighted set of beliefs about the consequences of the particular behaviour under consideration.

The TRA model serves as a framework for the complex relationship between attitudes, beliefs, intentions and behaviour. According to the Theory of Reasoned Action the direct antecedent of behaviour is the intention to perform this behaviour (Engel et al., 1995:387). See Figure 4-6. The theory assumes that people are logical and consistent in their information seeking and decision making and proposes that intention is solely determined by attitudes towards the behaviour and subjective norms (Delaney et al., 2004:5).
As illustrated in Figure 4-6, attitudes are influenced by beliefs about behaviour consequences and the evaluation of the consequences. Subjective norms are determined by normative beliefs (beliefs about others with respect to performing the behaviour) and the motivation to comply with those normative beliefs.

The theory recognises that from time to time only attitudes would influence intention and at other times social norms would dominate the influence on intention (Engel et al., 1995:387). In some instances both attitude and social norms will have an influence on intention. To explain the model, the example of a seat belt use may be used. Attitudes would be based on beliefs relating to seat belt use and the results of seat belt use. Subjective norms would be determined by an individual's perception of what significant others believe and do with regard to seat belt use. When developing a campaign assessment of likely attitudes and normative beliefs, the consideration of these two attributes may result in a more effective campaign. For example, the behaviour of most individuals with regard to seatbelt use may be more influenced by their attitude, e.g. “I like wearing my seatbelt because it makes me feel more secure”, than their normative beliefs, e.g. “My children think I should wear a seatbelt” (Delaney et al., 2004:6).
The theory of reasoned action has received substantial research attention and, for most, findings have been supportive. Traditionally, the model was designed for and has been widely applied to health and illness related behaviours. Specific areas of application includes health risk messages about tap water, sexual practices and AIDS related behaviours, childbearing intentions, testicular cancer prevention, exercise in school children, alcoholism, cigarette smoking, etc. (Delaney et al., 2004:6).

After discussing how attitude and intention may be used to predict behaviour, it will be discussed how fear appeals are used by social marketers to influence attitude and intention. Past research on fear appeals’ effect on attitude and intention will be reviewed.

4.5 Fear appeals
Threatening messages or fear appeals are used commonly in social marketing (Arthur & Quester, 2004:671; Rossiter & Thornton, 2004:946; Ruiter, Abraham & Kok, 2001:613). Any persuasive message that conveys information to an individual that something of personal relevance to him/her (like life, health, property etc.) is under threat, is called a fear appeal (Barth & Bengel, 2000:23). The fear appeal may consist of verbal or non-verbal information that intends to arouse fear in the receiver in order to bring about change in attitude or behaviour.

Fear appeal research often differentiates between a threat and fear. A threat illustrates an undesirable consequence that is the outcome of certain behaviour, e.g. car damage, injury or death caused by unsafe driving (Rotfeld, 2000:122). Fear, on the other hand, is an emotional response to a threat that implies some kind of danger to the individual (Belch & Belch, 2004:184; Tanner, Hunt & Eppright, 1991:36). Advertisements employ fear appeals to evoke an emotional response in order to arouse individuals to take steps to remove the threat (Bagozzi & Moore, 1994:56).

Fear appeals could be defined in terms of their content or the reaction elicited from the audience (Witte, 1992:330). Some researchers are of the opinion that it would be more appropriate to not call this topic “fear appeals”, but rather “appeals to audience fears” (Rotfeld, 2000:122). When researchers refer to a strong fear appeal it usually
means that the message depicts a major threat and that the message receiver also perceives a major threat (Witte, 1992:331). Typically, recommendations that are thought to be effective in averting the threat are presented along with the fear appeal.

Physical or social threats could be used to evoke fear. Some advertisements emphasise physical threats that could occur if an individual's behaviour is not changed, such as anti-drug advertisements (Belch & Belch, 2004:184). Social threats, such as disapproval or social rejection, may also be used. These include products such as anti-dandruff shampoo or deodorant advertisements.

Fear appeals can be direct or indirect. It could be direct in the sense that it focuses on the welfare of the message recipient; whereas an indirect fear appeal focuses on the goal of motivating people to help others that are in danger, e.g. a person being a designated driver if he/she knows that a friend had overindulged in alcohol (Bagozzi & Moore, 1994:56).

For most people, fear may have a significant effect on behaviour by motivating individuals to search for ways to remove or cope with the threat presented and, therefore, the depicted danger (Tanner et al., 1991:36). Fear appeals have been useful in inducing change in behaviour as they highlight the risks a person faces in performing or not performing a recommended action (Murray-Johnson, Witte, Patel, Orrego, Zuckerman, Maxfield, and Thimons, 2004:743).

4.6 Past fear appeal research
4.6.1 Fear appeals and persuasion
The relationship between the amount of fear invoked by an advertisement and attitude change has been investigated, but results prove to be widely inconsistent. Research on this topic shows that the effects of using fear appeals (such as creating awareness and intention to stop engaging in the dangerous behaviour depicted) differs in line with the level of fear appeal used (Delaney et al., 2004:10; Tanner et al., 1991:37).

One group of researchers argue that the outcome of changing behaviour is better achieved in direct proportion with the intensity of the fear appeal used (LaTour,
Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65), whilst another stream of research seems to be based on more traditional models that assume a curvilinear relationship between fear arousal and attitudinal change (Barth & Bengel, 2000:23).

Some of the first research projects on fear appeals found a non-monotonic curvilinear relationship between fear arousing communications and persuasion (Janis & Feshbach, 1954:166; Janis & Feshbach, 1953:92). The curvilinear theory is based on findings that suggest that too weak a fear appeal would not attract sufficient attention, whereas too strong fear appeals may cause people to avoid or ignore the message (as a possible defence mechanism) (Ray & Wilkie, 1970:55).

In a study on dental hygiene, Janis and Feshbach (1953:92) found that when fear or anxiety reaches a high level, the acceptance of the persuasive communication by high school students tend to decrease. The researchers suggest that the reason for this is that when relatively strong fear appeals are used, the recipient will become stimulated to develop defensive reactions (Janis & Feshbach, 1954:166).

The reported negative relationship between fear arousal and persuasion in the Janis and Feshbach study in 1953 is linked to the guarded use of fear appeals in mass communication in the past (Sternthal & Craig, 1974:22). However, because of a number of studies that found a positive fear-persuasion relationship, the 1970s saw a renewed interest in the use of fear appeals to motivate purchase and consumption behaviour (Spence & Moinpour, 1972; Ray & Wilkie, 1970; Stuteville, 1970; Wheatly & Oshikawa, 1970).

Quite a number of studies since the Janis and Feshbach study found that high fear appeals are more effective than low fear appeals (LaTour & Tanner, 2003; Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999; Donovan, Jalleh & Henley, 1999:250; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65; Henthorne, LaTour and Nataraajan, 1993). Ray and Wilkie (1970:55) emphasise in their article, *Fear: The potential of an appeal neglected by marketing*, that marketing cannot ignore fear appeals. This article criticises marketers who do not employ fear appeals, based upon the finding by Janis and Feshbach that mild fear appeals are more effective than strong fear appeals. They urge marketers to use fear research as hints for segmentation, since a great
Deal of fear research has been done on different types of people, in addition to which several levels of effect (such as from interest to awareness to attitude and action) have been studied.

Higbee (1969:441) also concluded in his review on fear appeals that the widely cited conclusion that high fear arousal leads to an avoidance reaction is not true and pointed out that research seems to indicate that high threats are superior to low threat.

In more recent years, fear appeals have been found to be effective when used in the area of road safety, despite continuing debates about the optimum level of fear arousal (Delaney et al., 2004:10). For more clarity on the research of fear appeals and persuasion an overview of the major fear appeal theories and models is presented next.

4.6.2 Fear appeal theory and models

Different models of how fear relates to persuasion have been advanced by years of research. One of the questions studied frequently by these studies is the nature of the link between induced fear and attitudinal change. Stated in an oversimplified manner, research reveals two main streams of research, where one assumes a curvilinear relationship between the intensity of fear appeal used and attitudinal change. Alongside this model, the other stream assumes a linear relationship between fear intensity and persuasion (Barth & Bengel, 2000: 23).

Some of the predominant theoretical models of how fear appeals work will be discussed, namely the fear drive model, the curvilinear model, the parallel response model, protection motivation theory, the ordered protection motivation schema, the extended parallel process model and Thayer’s arousal model. Figure 4-7 illustrates how these theories and models fit into the larger schema of research on fear appeal theory.
This review of fear appeal theories is not an attempt to provide an exhaustive list, but rather a list of some of the theories that have been researched extensively to point out the course that fear appeal research followed from its beginning in the 1950s (Ruiter et al., 2001). For other literature reviews on fear appeal research the reader is referred to literature reviews on fear appeals by Lewis, Watson, Tay & White (2007), Ruiter, Abraham & Kok (2001), Rotfeld (2000), Barth & Bengel (2000), LaTour & Zahra (1989), Beck & Frankel (1981), Sternthal & Craig (1974) and Higbee (1969).

### 4.6.3 The fear-drive model

Research on the effect of fear appeals on persuasion started with the development of the fear-drive model in the 1950s by Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953) (Ruiter et al., 2001). The model is based on drive-theories that describe how fear appeals arouse...
fear and how fear then act as a drive that motivates action (Lewis et al., 2007). Psychoanalysts and authors in the 1950s, such as Dollard and Miller (1950:78), emphasised fear as a learned drive and explained that when fear is learned in response to a new situation, it acts as a drive that motivates trial-and-error behaviour. Any reduction in the strength of the fear would reinforce learning of the new response accompanying it.

The fear-drive model (also called the fear-reduction model) views fear as a drive that motivates a search for a response that would reduce it (Sutton & Hallet, 1988:354). The model proposes the following process (Please see Figure 4-8): A danger perceived (the stimulus, S) leads to an emotional response (called R). This response (R) causes perceived tension (s) that is followed by an instrumental rehearsal (r), which entails considering and pursuing the recommended action (LaTour & Zahra, 1989:63). If the suggested response in turn alleviates the fear, a sense of relief follows, indicated by the “fear absent”-situation in Figure 4-8. A dysfunctional effect, such as denial or ignoring of the message, could also ensue, leading to the “fear present”-condition in Figure 4-8.

![Figure 4-8: The fear-drive model](source: LaTour and Zahra, 1989:63.)

The fear-drive model focuses on the negative fear avoidance responses created by threatening messages (Beck & Frankel, 1981:205). The motivation of an individual to protect himself against a health threat is viewed as dependent upon the amount of drive (fear) created. Proponents of the model assume that persons would most likely accept the threat message’s recommendations when they are able to reduce the
negative drive created by the threat message. The higher the fear and the more the reduction of fear is (through reassuring information in the message) the stronger the motivation would be to execute the recommendations contained in the message.

4.6.3.1 Recent research on the fear-drive model
A recent study by Rossiter and Thornton (2004:945) tested the effect of drive reduction, which is the central causal mechanism in the original fear-drive model by Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953). Continuous (moment-to-moment) measurements of fear and relief was taken as opposed to single post-exposure measurings of fear and relief by most previous studies of fear (Rossiter & Jones, 2004:886). The pattern of fear-relief in advertisements aimed at reducing the choice by young drivers to drive at a specific speed during a realistic simulated driving test was studied. Results suggested that the fear-relief pattern initially decreases the speed choice of young drivers, and then again after heavy repetition. Fear without relief is shown to increase the initial speed choice and then, after heavy repetition, it decreases the speed thus chosen. This study suggests that the fear-drive model is valid when given an appropriate methodological test (Rossiter & Jones, 2004:886). However, the researchers cautioned that this study was done with a fairly executionable behaviour (slowing down when driving) and that the fear-drive model remains to be tested for addictive behaviours.

4.6.3.2 The curvilinear model
Several earlier studies on the fear-drive model, such as Higbee (1969), Insko et al. (1965) and Leventhal and Watts (1966), confirmed a positive linear relationship between fear arousal and persuasion, i.e. the higher the fear arousal, the stronger the persuasion (Lewis et al., 2007). However, in one of the first studies on fear appeals in 1953, Janis and Feshbach found that high school students were more acceptant of recommended messages concerning dental hygiene following a message arousing low fear, than of a message arousing high fear (Janis & Feshbach, 1953:92). The researchers ascribed this to the interfering effects of arousing a high degree of emotional tension (Janis & Feshbach, 1954:155). It was concluded that the relationship between fear and persuasion could be best described by an inverted U-shape that indicates moderate fear levels to be optimal as illustrated in Figure 4-9 (Tanner et al., 1991:37). The explanation given for the U-shape curve is that a too weak fear appeal does not attract enough attention and that a too strong
fear appeal may lead people to ignore the message, or ignore the recommendations by the message to reduce the feared danger, as it is felt to be inadequate (Ray & Wilkie, 1970:55). This led to the common belief on the part of many marketing researchers that moderate fear appeals are most effective (Tanner et al., 1991:37; Ray & Wilkie, 1970:55). These researchers believe that weak fear appeals cause too little tension or drive, whereas strong fear appeals create too much tension or drive.

Figure 4-9: A non-monotonic relationship between level of fear and persuasion

![A non-monotonic relationship between level of fear and persuasion](http://scholar.sun.ac.za)

4.6.3.3 Criticism on the fear-drive models
The fear-drive model implies that response to fear appeals depends on the magnitude of the danger perceived (LaTour & Zahra, 1989:63). Evidence of the validity of this model and its curvilinear counterpart has, however, been found lacking and several researchers found this model difficult to test (Lewis et al., 2007:205; LaTour & Zahra, 1989:64). The curvilinear relationship has rarely been observed and an attempt to replicate Janis and Feshbach’s study by Leventhal and Singer (1966) found stronger fear appeals to be more persuasive than mild or weak fear appeals (Ruiter et al., 2001:615). Conversely to the curvilinear model, some of the relevant research in the 1970s indicated that high fear appeals are more effective than low fear appeals (Leventhal, 1971:1208; Ray & Wilkie, 1970:55; Higbee, 1969:441). In fact, the fear drive model has not been well supported by research findings (Ruiter et al., 2001:615; Beck & Frankel, 1981:206). A study by LaTour,
Snipes and Bliss (1996) investigated the effectiveness, as well as the ethicality, of strong fear appeals versus mild fear appeals. Advertisements for a stun-gun device meant to protect women against assault and rape was shown to participants of the study. The stronger fear appeal was found to create more tension, but had a more positive effect on the intention to purchase and the attitude toward the advertisement. Furthermore, the stronger fear appeal was not perceived by viewers as less ethical than the mild fear appeals (LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65).

4.6.4 The parallel response model

Leventhal (1971:1208) noted that although Janis and Feshbach’s study on dental disease find support for mild levels of fear, the opposite is true for subsequent studies. Studies in the 1960s on issues, such as tetanus (Leventhal, Singer & Jones, 1965; Dabbs & Leventhal, 1966), smoking and lung cancer (Janis & Mann, 1965; Leventhal, Watts & Pagano, 1967), found that higher levels of fear lead to more acceptance of the communicator’s recommendations. Leventhal (1971:1209) suggested that the number of studies resulting in findings that high fear messages produce more attitudinal and behavioural change than low level fear messages is much higher than the opposite.

Leventhal (1971:1209) thus rejected the fear-drive model on the grounds that it cannot be used as a reliable guide by practitioners in persuasion of behavioural change, since the original model was based upon unsupportive data for the model. In a review on the fear-drive model, Leventhal (1971:1210) proposed an alternative to the fear-drive model, the parallel response paradigm. The basic assumption that underlies this alternative paradigm is that emotional responses (e.g. fear) and adaptive responses (e.g. belief changes and protective health acts) are arranged into a parallel relationship rather than a sequential fashion. Two processes, danger control and fear control, were proposed as reactions when a person is confronted by fear arousing communications (Barth and Bengel, 2000:35). Please refer to Figure 4-10.

Situational stimuli serve as sources of information and their interpretation leads to a diversity of response processes. If a situation is interpreted as dangerous it may, for example, give rise to responses such as coping responses that aim to reduce the danger, and it could also evoke emotions of fear (Leventhal, 1971:1210).
refer to Figure 4-10. Sometimes an individual would respond to the danger and attempt to control the outer world and in doing so, ignore or be inattentive to his/her own fear. This is called danger control (DC). The individual may also respond to internal cues generated by his/her own emotions and thus try to control his/her fear (Leventhal, 1971:1208). This is called fear control (FC). While neither fear control nor danger control is likely to occur in a pure form, it is likely that one or the other would dominate in different situations.

**Figure 4-10: The parallel response model with danger and fear control processes**

The danger control process is seen as a direct effort to avoid a risk (e.g. liver damage), while fear control is the reduction of unpleasant emotions of fear arousal (e.g. eating, reading while being exposed to the fear appeal) (Barth and Bengel, 2001:35). Both responses are a result of a threatening message, but fear arousal is not necessary to lead to adaptive acts (Leventhal, 1971:1210).

In 1970, Ray and Wilkie (1970:56) presented facilitating and inhibiting effects of fear appeals consistent with the parallel response model and combined it with the curvilinear theory. Please see Figure 4-11. Two types of effects are proposed to occur as the level of fear increase. Firstly, there are facilitating effects when fear could heighten drive and the possibility of greater attention and interest (Ray & Wilkie, 1970:55). A sufficiently strong fear may induce interest and then prompt the individual to search for a solution to the problem presented. This is shown by the upper curve Figure 4-11. Secondly, the lower curve Figure 4-11 represents inhibiting effects. This may be possible irrational effects caused by high fear. Too
high fear levels open up the possibility of defensive avoidance of the advertisement, denial of the threat, selective exposure or distortion of the meaning of the message, or perceiving the recommendations as being too inadequate to deal with such great fear (Ray & Wilkie, 1970:55).

**Figure 4-11: Facilitating and inhibiting effects leading to a non-monotonic curve**

Danger control (facilitating effects) and fear control (inhibiting effects) co-exist and happen simultaneously. They jointly affect the individual’s response to the fear and the combined effect is illustrated by the dashed line in **Figure 4-11** (Ray & Wilkie, 1970:56). The shape of the curve is ultimately determined by which of the two components dominates, and also by the personality of the individual (LaTour & Zahra, 1989:65).

4.6.4.1 Criticism on the parallel response model

In LaTour and Zahra’s (1989:65) literature review on fear appeals the parallel response model is criticised for suffering from both a lack of testability and
oversimplification. It is suggested that this could be partly be ascribed to individual uniqueness, such as an individual's unique pattern of feelings and thinking, being ignored by these two models.

The parallel response model seems to progress beyond the fear-drive model’s simplistic explanation of threat coping behaviour. However, the major weakness of the parallel response model, according to Beck and Frankel (1981:209), is the lack of the fear-danger split mechanism. The stimulus conditions that lead to fear and danger control processes are not specified in the model. This lack of specificity makes it difficult to come to precise hypotheses on the manifestation of danger and fear control.

4.6.5 Protection motivation (PM) theory
De-emphasising the role of fear arousal in favour of cognition, an alternative approach, protection motivation (PM) theory, was proposed by Rogers in 1983 (Witte, 1992:333; Tanner et al., 1991:37). Some researchers view this theory as superior to the curvilinear approach as it more clearly describes how messages should be developed to influence behaviour (Beck & Frankel, 1981:209). Where the parallel response model focuses on specific cognitive factors that may be important in how individuals perceive danger and whether they respond adaptively to the communication, protection motivation theory focuses on three of these factors specifically.

Protection motivation theory is linked to a general category of behavioural theory using “expectancy” and “value” constructs (Rogers, 1975:96). The tendency to act in a particular way is seen to be a function of the expectancy that a certain consequence would follow a given act and the value of the consequence.

Analysis and expectancy value theories of Hovland et al. (Rogers, 1975:97) suggest that there are three crucial stimulus variables in fear appeals: a) the magnitude of noxiousness of a depicted event; b) the conditional probability that the event will occur if no adaptive behaviour takes place; and c) the availability or effectiveness of an adaptive response that may reduce or eliminate the threat of the depicted event. With these three components of a fear appeal there are seven different ways of defining a fear appeal operationally. A fear appeal could present information on any
one of these components, a combination of two components, or all three the components could be presented as shown by the protection motivation schema illustrated in Figure 4-12 (Rogers, 1975:97).

**Figure 4-12: The protection motivation theory**

![Diagram of protection motivation theory](source: Rogers, 1975:99.)

The protection motivation schema assumes that each three of the components of a fear appeal activates a cognitive mediating process (Rogers, 1975:98). Each of these act as an appraisal process where the severity of the event depicted, the expectancy of being exposed to the event, and/or the efficacy of a coping response is appraised. Each of these cognitive processes runs independently. The three cognitive processes mediate the effects of the components of fear appeals on attitude by arousing what is called protection motivation. The amount of protection motivation aroused mediates and determines the individual’s intent to adopt the recommended behaviour. Protection motivation is a mediating variable that has the characteristics of a motive: It arouses, sustains and directs activity (Rogers, 1975:98).

If an event is not appraised as severe, likely to occur and nothing can be done about it, no protection motivation is aroused and thus no intention to adapt behaviour (Rogers, 1975:99).
In 1983 Rogers presented a reformulated protection motivation theory. Please see Figure 4-13. The focus of the theory remained on cognitive mediating processes, but the sources of information are suggested to initiate two appraisal processes: Threat appraisal and coping appraisal (Rippetoe & Rogers, 1987:597).

**Figure 4-13: Rogers’ (1983) protection motivation schema**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOURCES OF INFORMATION</th>
<th>COGNITIVE MEDIATING PROCESS</th>
<th>COPING MODES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>Factors affecting response probability</td>
<td>Action or inhibition of action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal persuasion</td>
<td>Increasing</td>
<td>Single act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observational learning</td>
<td>Decreasing</td>
<td>Repeated acts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
<td>Maladaptive response</td>
<td>Multiple acts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality variables</td>
<td>Intrinsic rewards</td>
<td>Repeated multiple acts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior experience</td>
<td>Extrinsic rewards</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Adaptive response</td>
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<td>Response efficacy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Response costs</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


The four cells in the diagram illustrate the four components of these appraisal processes. The information can lead to either maladaptive or adaptive responses. Maladaptive response should not be confused with maladaptive coping responses to the danger, such as avoidance. The maladaptive responses or threat appraisal process evaluates factors concerning the elicited danger, while adaptive responses or coping appraisal evaluate the individual’s ability to cope with and avert the danger. The threat appraisal process may be likened to Leventhal’s primary appraisal process (danger control), and the coping appraisal to his secondary appraisal process (fear control) (Rippetoe & Rogers, 1987:597). These two cognitive processes mediate persuasion of a fear appeal by eliciting protection motivation.
4.6.5.1 Research on protection motivation theory
After reviewing the original protection motivation theory, Beck and Frankel (1981:211), noted that predictions derived from the protection motivation (PM) theory were not consistently supported by experimental research. The specification of particular cognitive factors and communication variables, however, was felt to be an improvement on Leventhal's work on the parallel response model.

Witte (1992:335) criticised the revised PM theory as its predictions are inconsistent with the empirical data and it does not describe how interaction between threat appraisal and coping appraisal takes place and how interaction is related to protection motivation and subsequent behaviours. In spite of this, the researcher acclaimed the original PM theory (with self-efficacy added) for explaining factors that lead to message acceptance and emphasised that the original PM theory does not suffer from as much empirical inconsistency as the revised model. However, Witte (1992:335) noted that both models of protection motivation theory fail to explain the factors that may lead to rejection of the message.

The weaknesses of the model were addressed by the development of the ordered protection motivation schema.

4.6.6 The ordered protection motivation schema
Tanner, Hunt and Eppright (1991:38) noted that the PM model can be improved by emphasising that emotional processes are important for cognitive appraisal and are indirectly linked to behavioural intentions via cognitive appraisal. Additionally, literature reviews on fear appeals suggest that additional variables to those proposed by the PM model may influence behavioural intentions (Tanner et al., 1991:38). To reconcile for emotional processes and to include some of these variables, they amended the PM model to form the Ordered Protection Motivation Schema (OPM).

The original schema by Rogers was hypothetically altered in the following four ways (Tanner et al., 1991:37): Firstly, the OPM model emphasises the emotion component instead of ignoring it. Secondly, the appraisal processes in the PM model are acknowledged, but it is posited that it happens in a sequential way. Thirdly, maladaptive behaviour is addressed more thoroughly. Finally, the social context in
which the threat or danger presents itself is introduced in the model so that normative components are taken into account in the OPM model. Please see Figure 4-14.

**Figure 4-14: The ordered protection motivation schema**

While Rogers conceptualised the PM model as a parallel or unordered sequence of appraisal processes, Tanner et al. (1991:38) proposed that the appraisal processes happens in a sequential order. Please refer to Figure 4-14. The threat appraisal firstly leads to fear when the probability of occurrence and the severity of the threat are perceived to be high. The OPM model assumes that the state of fear is created by the threat appraisal process, although it is assumed that there may be a possibility of fear being evoked by some other factor than the threat appraisal. The OPM schema also requires that fear acts as the mediator to the coping appraisal. If the threat appraisal leads to fear then, as suggested by the OPM model, the coping appraisal happens. The appraisal includes the appraisal of both self-efficacy and coping response efficacy. While some researchers, such as Rogers (1987), believe that fear is unnecessary for the individual to shift from the threat appraisal to the coping appraisal, the OPM model hypothesises that the emotional state of fear is
important as it increases attention and credibility and ultimately the likelihood of engaging in the coping appraisal (Tanner et al., 1991:38).

Maladaptive coping responses are also addressed by the OPM. Coping behaviours try to remove the threat and/or relieve the fear that may be associated with the threat (Tanner et al., 1991:39). Coping responses that reduce fear without reducing the threat or danger are called maladaptive coping responses. Apart from the appraisal processes, the likelihood of choosing maladaptive coping responses is also influenced by past experiences. The PM model’s assumption is that maladaptive responses does not influence the appraisal processes. In the OPM model the appraisal processes may influence maladaptive behaviour, because individuals sometimes have prior awareness of a threat, or their behaviour repertoire may already include maladaptive responses that may influence their response to threatening communication (Tanner et al., 1991:39).

Tanner et al. (1991:40) conducted a study on 120 college students on the topic of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) in order to test the OPM model. Their findings, after using both low and high threat communications about STDs, lent support to the OPM paradigm. A sequential process for threat appraisal and coping appraisal was found. Prior maladaptive behaviours appeared to have an important influence on threat appraisal.

4.6.7 The extended parallel process model
Witte (1992:335) suggested that the overemphasis of cognition in fear appeal theory may be one of the possible reasons for the lack of convergent findings. In 1992, Witte posited the extended parallel process model (EPPM), a model based on the danger control/fear control framework of Leventhal (1970) that explains both why fear appeals succeed and fail (Witte, 1992:330). Elements of Rogers’ (1975) protection motivation (PM) theory are incorporated as these explain the danger control processes that lead to message acceptance. Beck and Frankel (1981:213) noted that Leventhal’s parallel response (later called parallel process) model is one of the broadest fear appeal theories, offering a good framework upon which one could further theorise. Rogers did this by defining the danger control process, but omitted
to explain why fear appeals fail. The EEPM expands where the PM theory left off (Witte, 1992:338).

The EPPM expands previous approaches in three ways: a) It explains why fear appeals fail; b) it re-incorporates fear as a central variable; and it c) specifies the relationship between fear and efficacy (Witte, 1992:329).

When an individual is presented with a fear appeal depicting the components of a threat (severity and susceptibility) and the components of efficacy (response efficacy and self-efficacy), two appraisal processes may occur in the individual (Witte, 1992:336). Please see Figure 4-15. These two appraisal processes form two key constructs (perceived threat and perceived efficacy) that form the base of this model (Cho, 2003:105). Success or failure of a fear message depends on the levels of these two constructs. When a person is presented with a fear appeal he/she engages in two appraisal processes. First, the individual appraises the threat. The threat may exist of two basic components: Severity and susceptibility. If this appraisal results in moderate to high perceived threat, fear is elicited (Witte, 1992:338). This motivates a second appraisal in which the efficacy of the recommended response is evaluated.

If perceived threat and efficacy are both high, danger control processes are activated (Witte, 1992:336). When an individual fears a significant threat and perceives a response that would effectively avert the threat, the individual is motivated to control the danger (protection motivation). Individuals respond to the danger and not fear when danger control processes dominate. The converse is true when perceived threat is high, but perceived efficacy is low. Fear evoked by a significant and personal relevant threat is deemed by the individual as not effectively avertable. Fear control processes dominate and the individual is motivated to cope with the fear (defensive motivation) through maladaptive responses (e.g. denial). In this case individuals respond to their fear and not the danger.
The EPPM model predicts that fear messages only produce an effect when the perceived threat is high. At the same time, high levels of threat are able to create positive or negative effects, depending on the level of perceived efficacy (Cho, 2003:105). If both perceived threat and efficacy are high, the individual is persuaded to adopt the behaviour recommended by the message. If the perceived threat is high, but the perceived efficacy on the other hand is low, adverse reactions occur, such as perceived manipulation or message minimisation.

In summary, perceived threat determines the intensity of the reaction to the message, while perceived efficacy determines the nature of the reaction (i.e. which process is initiated: danger control or fear control) (Witte, 1992:337). As an individual is faced with a threat message, two appraisal processes are engaged which could result in three outcomes (Murray-Johnson et al., 2004:744). The individual firstly appraises the threat in terms of its severity and the individual’s susceptibility to it. If the threat is found trivial, the threat message will be further ignored (in terms of its recommendations) as the individual perceives the threat as not being a concern to him/her. However, if an individual perceives susceptibility to a severe threat and the individual perceives high efficacy, he/she will follow the recommended guidelines.
the individual has low perceived efficacy and believes that he/she is unable to minimise the threat, he/she will engage in denial or defensive mechanisms.

“Individual differences” in the model refer to individual differences exerting an influence on the appraisal of the threat and efficacy. People interpret message components according to their previous experiences, culture and personality characteristics (Witte, 1992:337). Therefore, the same fear appeal may elicit different responses from different people. Different individuals may engage in danger control or fear control processes when receiving the same message.

4.6.7.1 Studies on the extended parallel process model
A study by Cho (2003:104) investigated the positive and negative effects of health risk messages to promote sun protective behaviour among college students, using the EPPM as a framework. The results showed that when strong perceptions of threat were accompanied by strong efficacy perceptions, risk messages could effectively motivate the behaviour change. When, on the other hand, the perceived threat was high but the perceived efficacy was low, the college students denied the risk of skin cancer and rejected the health risk message as mere exaggeration. The study suggested that using the threat component (severity and susceptibility) component of the EEPM may be an effective way to induce protection motivation (Cho, 2003:109). The hypothesis that individuals with low efficacy who receive the high threat communication will be more prone to message derogation was not supported.

4.6.8 Thayer’s arousal model
Benet, Pitts and LaTour (1993:50) criticised the fear-drive model, parallel response model and protection motivation theory for suffering from an inability of operationalisation of the underlying psycho-physiological processes that accompany the formation of fear. LaTour and Rotfeld (1997:45) also suggested that the reason for this inability of past research to find the optimal level of fear could be ascribed to the focus having been on the fear appeal and not on fear itself. Threats illustrate undesirable consequences, whereas fears are the emotional responses to threats. A threat does not evoke the same response from all people. Therefore, LaTour and Rotfeld (1997:45) suggested that it is more logical to measure the link between levels of fear arousal and advertising responses than measuring threats. One stream of
research that focuses on fear uses an activation approach to understand fear. This multidimensional approach could be used to examine the levels of tension and energy created by a fear appeal (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:378). LaTour and Zahra (1989:66) contended that the Thayer model is superior to the fear-drive model and the parallel response model as it is the most theoretically clear and most practically applicable by providing a basis for evaluating the impact of an advertisement in terms of its tension and energy generation.

Experimental evidence led Thayer (1978:3) to conclude that self-report provides a better indication of general organism functioning than any single psycho-physiological measure. Thayer noted that arousal plays a major role in the generation of feelings and thoughts in an individual (LaTour & Zahra, 1989:65). He suggested that arousal is a complex phenomenon that involves the interaction of two dimensions: An energy dimension and a tension dimension. Please see Figure 4-16.

**Figure 4-16: Thayer's Arousal Model**

The first dimension (Dimension A Figure 4-16) ranges on a continuum from feeling energised to feelings of fatigue. The second dimension (Dimension B in Figure 4-16) ranges on a continuum from feelings of inner tension to feeling calm. While the energy dimension is related to positive cognition, the tension dimension is related to negative cognition. The "cognition"-component in Figure 4-6 is the impression towards the advertisement. This impression could either be positive (energy
outweighs the tension aroused by the advertisement) or negative (tension outweighs the energy aroused by the advertisement) towards the advertisement. Thayer’s model suggests that the dimension of arousal that dominates (energy or tension) differs for individuals (LaTour & Zahra, 1989:65).

The activation approach is based on the premise that tension generates energy up to a certain point, but beyond this threshold, increasing tension creates anxiety that in turn depletes energy (Henthorne et al., 1993:60). Researchers have yet to find this threshold (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997).

**4.6.9 Previous research on Thayer’s model**

Research on Thayer’s model suggests that a fear stimulus can “energise” an audience and create excessive tension or anxiety and also lead to positive feelings regarding the fear stimulus (Benet, Pitts & LaTour, 1993:51). The above could be illustrated by the diagram in Figure 4-17.

![Figure 4-17: Assuming tension is not high enough to diminish energy](http://scholar.sun.ac.za)

In Figure 4-17, the hypothesised path for a weak fear appeal is shown. Tension (HA) is assumed to not be high enough to diminish energy (GA). This leads to the suggestion that the relationship between tension and attitude toward the advertisement, and also between tension and behavioural intention, is positive (Henthorne et al., 1993:60).
On the other hand, as shown by Figure 4-18, if tension is high enough to diminish energy, the relationship between tension and attitude toward the advertisement, and also between tension and behavioural intention, would be negative (Henthorne et al., 1993:62). This is because of tension creating anxiety that leads to negative effects on attitude toward the advertisement and behavioural intention.

**Figure 4-18:** Assuming tension is high enough to diminish energy

[Diagram of the relationship between HA, Aad, BI, and GA]

Source: Henthorne et al., 1993:61.

Research regarding Thayer’s model and fear appeals failed to confirm the second hypothesis illustrated by Figure 4-18 that leads to negative cognition. Henthorne et al. (1993:67) could not confirm with a study examining the effects of two print advertisements stimuli that a stronger fear appeal would cross the threshold and that tension would diminish energy. This was ascribed to the print medium being incapable of arousing a strong enough fear emotion.

LaTour, Snipes and Bliss (1996:65) found that the “stronger” video fear appeal for an advertisement promoting a stun-gun that protect women against assault and rape generated significantly more tension but also had a more positive effect on consumers’ attitudes and purchase intentions. LaTour and Rotfeld (1997:56) also found that tension consistently generated energy and positively affected advertisement response through that indirect route in a study concerning the same stun-gun device. A study by LaTour and Tanner (2003:392) found no evidence of
tension overdose for fear appeal advertisements on the threat of radon gas. This led to the conclusion that very few advertisement stimuli are capable of pushing through the threshold where anxiety is manifested (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:383).

4.7 Fear appeals and segmentation

A review of fear appeal theories shows that some of the earlier models, such as the fear-drive model and the curvilinear model, have been found lacking in evidence by later studies (LaTour & Zahra, 1989:65). Many researchers claim that the relationship between fear and persuasion is thus not curvilinear, but monotonic and positive (Rotfeld, 2000:123). This claim is based upon recent relevant studies finding such a positive relationship to exist (LaTour & Tanner, 2003; Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999; Donovan, Jalleh & Henley, 1999:250; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65; Henthorne et al., 1993). Some reviews have stated that, in general, the greater the fear engendered, the greater the persuasion is (Rotfeld, 2000:123; Sutton, 1982:323). High levels of fear, however, do not necessarily evoke stronger fear responses from all people, as people fear different things (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:46).

4.7.1 Past research on the moderating variables on the effect of fear appeals on persuasion

A considerable amount of research has been aimed at determining the variables that may affect the persuasiveness of fear appeals (Higbee, 1969:428). Higbee (1969:441) concludes that responses to fear arousal may differ from individual to individual. His review on fear appeals found that characteristics, such as self-esteem, coping style, and feelings of vulnerability, may influence how individuals respond to fear appeals.

Rogers (1975:94) stated that several dependant variables have been found to co-vary with the level of fear aroused. High levels of fear have been found to be more persuasive than low fear with respect to the interest value of the communication, the perceived severity of the threat depicted, perceived susceptibility to the threat, concern over the threat, and the importance of the avoidance response (Rogers, 1975:94).
Sternthal and Craig (1974:26) found in their literature review that fear arousal is most often positively related to persuasion, although some variables may have moderating effects. These variables include communicator credibility and audience characteristics. The study by Sternthal and Craig (1974) appears to indicate that high credibility sources are more persuasive when employing strong fear appeals. On the other hand low credibility sources appear to have little influence regardless of the level of fear appeal. Evidence seems to show that high credibility sources inhibit counterarguments and facilitate the pursuit of adaptive responses, while low credibility sources may cause the audience to engage in counter-argumentation and thus not to follow the recommended action (Sternthal & Craig, 1974:27).

Three audience characteristics were identified by Sternthal and Craig (1974:27) that moderate the effect of fear appeals: coping style, self-esteem and perceived vulnerability. Strong fear appeals are particularly effective among individuals who cope, have high self-esteem, or are not vulnerable. Surprisingly, chronic anxiety did not have an effect on the persuasiveness of fear appeals.

Ray and Wilkie (1970:59) also stated that strong fear appeals have been found to be most effective for persons who are low in anxiety, high in self-esteem, display coping behaviour, who find the topic or product category of low relevance, and who see themselves as having a low vulnerability to the threat used in the fear message. Interestingly, their review also seems to point out that fear motivation should be most effective for recipients who do not see themselves as part of the market for the recommended product or brand, in other words, non-users.

Wheatly (1970:64) concluded that the effectiveness of any message is a function of many variables. The nature and strength of the fear appeal, the topic relevance and the personality of the recipient play a role. Furthermore the subject of the message, the skill employed in its construction, the length and complexity of the message, the credibility of the sponsor and the context in which it is presented also have an impact. The hypothesis by Ray and Wilkie (1970) that fear appeals are more effective with non-users (or new market segments) than users, was confirmed by Wheatly’s (1970:63) experiment on subjects’ attitude toward life insurance. Fear appeals were also found to be more effective for low-anxiety recipients than high-anxiety recipients.
Personal relevance has also been found to have a moderating effect on persuasion in a study on the awareness of the threat of radon gas, especially to children, where activation and protection motivation theories were integrated by LaTour and Tanner (2003:378). The response to television advertisements that were designed to motivate the public to seek information about the threat of radon gas was measured. Interestingly, it was found that having children mediated the threat. Adults with children were more likely to call in when a strong fear appeal was used; adults without children on the other hand were more likely to call when the threat was moderate instead of strong. This raised the issue of personal relevance. It was ventured that adults without children perceived the stronger fear appeal advertisement, showing a child in danger, to be only targeted at adults with children and viewed the moderate fear appeal, without the graphics showing a child in danger, as aimed at the public at large (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:391).

Rotfeld (2000:124) on the other hand, criticised authors stating that the optimal level of fear depends on the topic relevance, saying that topic relevance is an integral part of fear because if a subject is not relevant, no audience will fear it.

4.7.2 Fear appeals work target specific
Ray and Wilkie (1970:62) state that the greatest problem with fear appeals, like any other appeal, is that it can only be applied in specific situations and there is no way to determine the effect it exerts in a new situation. Research has shown that different people fear different things and, therefore, a single threat will not draw the same response from all people, even though they may all be in a narrowly defined target group (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:45). Fear appeal research suggests that, in line with the concept of segmentation in marketing, different audience groups have different responses because they have different response functions toward fear appeals (Ray & Wilkie, 1970:58).

After studying the effects of fear appeals for health services offered by a health maintenance organisation (HMO), Burnett and Wilkes (1980:24) found that the success of selecting a particular segment (or group of segments) appropriate for the use of fear appeals depends on the type of product. They concluded that it seems
as if fear appeals are only viable for particular types of products and also for particular customers of that product (Burnett & Wilkes, 1980:24).

Tay, Ozanne and Santiono (2000:1248) confirmed that fear appeals are effective in a specific target group when they studied the effect of an advertising campaign on the number of fatal accidents that are related to alcohol, other drugs and speed in terms of different gender and age groups. Fatal accidents were reduced for males aged 15 - 24, 25 - 34 and 35 - 45. These results confirmed previous findings that fear appeals are effective when used for certain groups and not the whole population.

Ray and Wilkie (1970:54) suggest that marketers should target the use of fear appeals within segmentation, communication goal setting, message construction, and product differentiation. Burnett and Wilkes (1980:21) also suggest that it may be more effective to consider the usefulness of fear appeals within particular market segments. The target market’s attitude toward a specific advertisement thus seems to be of key importance (LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:61).

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter explained the link between fear and consumer behaviour in the use of fear appeals. Fear serves as a secondary drive in humans to warn of impending danger. This study investigates how consumer behaviour is learned in terms of attitude and the behavioural intention of the target market (young adults between the ages of 18 and 24) after exposure to anti-drunken driving television advertisements with a view to measuring their future drinking and driving behaviour. The link between attitude and intention as a measure of future consumer behaviour was described in terms of Fishbein and Ajzen’s Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) which states that attitude directly influences intention. As part of this study the link between attitude and intention after exposure to anti-drunken driving advertisements is studied.

Fear appeals arouse fear as an emotional response to a threat. Contemporary models of the effectiveness of fear appeals include the extended parallel process model and activation theory. This study follows the path of the activation theory. In
this study fear aroused by fear appeals is measured by Thayer’s arousal model through the measurement of energy and tension arousal.

According to Thayer’s arousal model, energy and tension arousal will have a positive effect on attitude and thus on intention (if energy arousal exceeds tension arousal). As fear appeals are target specific, this study focuses on anti-drunken driving advertisements aimed at a target group of young adults of 18 to 24 years of age.
Chapter 5

South African and international anti-drunken driving campaigns

5.1 Introduction
This chapter describes the major television advertising campaigns from South Africa and other countries around the world that target drunken driving. In South Africa, an attempt was made to review all the recent anti-drunken driving campaigns running on television. It was, however, not possible to do the same for other countries because of the vast amount of anti-drunken driving advertisements globally. An effort was nevertheless made to select recent advertising campaigns that best give an overview of current campaigns in terms of anti-drunken driving internationally.

5.2 Recent anti-drunken driving advertising campaigns in South Africa and internationally
During the literature review social marketers who conduct anti-drunken driving advertising campaigns on television were identified in South Africa and internationally. A short review on the latest advertising campaigns of some of these marketers will follow. The focus is on television campaigns, although in some cases print advertisements will also be referred to, especially if they are part of an integrated communication programme and were run alongside the television advertisements or in the event that the television advertisement could not be obtained. It appears that the television medium is the most used medium in South Africa to motivate anti-drunken driving behaviour through fear appeals. Few South African print advertisements employing fear appeals to change drunken driving behaviour could be found. To compare South African anti-drunken driving campaigns with international standards, a few international campaigns were selected as an overview of what is presently done by international social marketers.
The domestic and international list of social marketers who combat anti-drunken driving is not exclusive, but is an attempt at covering the organisations/companies with predominant campaigns both in South Africa and internationally.

5.2.1 Anti-drunken driving advertising campaigns in South Africa
In South Africa, Arrive Alive and ARA (Industry Association for Responsible Alcohol Use) are the two dominant anti-alcohol abuse advertisers. The focus of Arrive Alive in terms of anti-alcohol abuse is on drunken driving, since the organisation’s main goal is to reduce road fatalities in the country. ARA, consisting of several liquor producers, addresses alcohol responsibility in South Africa by especially discouraging underage drinking through advertising. Although ARA does not currently address drunken driving, ARA’s current advertising campaign is worth discussing as the campaign uses fear appeal and illustrates how South African social marketers employ fear appeal. Other organisations that fight drunken driving behaviour include Drive Alive and SADD (Students against Destructive Decisions).

Some liquor companies in South Africa employ television advertisements as part of their social responsibility strategy. SABMiller ran an anti-alcohol abuse campaign in 2006 and 2007 with drunken driving as one of the main focus areas for the campaign. Smirnoff included a drunken driving advertisement as part of its global advertising campaign in 2006.

5.2.1.1 Department of Transport: Arrive Alive
The Department of Transport runs the Arrive Alive project which aims to reduce driving accidents on South African roads by focusing on the two main killers: speed and drunken driving. Arrive Alive media campaigns against drunken driving often use fear appeals that show the outcome of accidents that involve drunk drivers and/or pedestrians. A campaign focusing on the victims of speed and drunk driving was aired from 2003. Three advertisements focused on a man, a mother and a woman doctor. Each told a story of how accidents involving speed or drunken driving destroyed their lives. The three advertisements “Warren”, “Rosalee” and “Doctor Di” show a man disabled after being hit by a speeding driver while crossing the road, a mother whose son and his friend were killed in a car accident with a drunken driver, and a woman who cannot practice medicine anymore after a drunk driver collided into her car. Please see Figure 5-1. The Department of Transport explained in
December 2003 that its advertising and public relations campaign emphasises the pain caused to families who lost their loved ones because of reckless driving (ArriveAlive, 2007). The Department stresses that road safety is not only the responsibility of the State, but that all road users have a co-responsibility to ensure their own safety, the safety of their families and of other road users.

Another campaign produced by Terraplane for the Department of Transport’s Arrive Alive campaign was launched in 2006. Two advertisements were shot to appeal to the conscience of the individual person. The location of the first advertisement, “Life stories in a morgue”, was the sorting area of the morgue where the person sorting the dead bodies described how each corpse’s death was due to a road accident. “Watermelon” was the second advertisement that simulated the impact of a road accident caused by speed by using a watermelon filled with blood (Terraplane, 2007). See Figure 5-2.

5.2.1.2 Industry Association for Responsible Alcohol Use (ARA)

ARA (Industry Association for Responsible Alcohol Use) is the alcohol industry’s response to the public health problem because of alcohol abuse in the country. The corporate members of ARA include the following companies:

- Distell
- Douglas Green Bellingham
- Brandhouse
Although ARA’s advertising campaigns focus on underage drinking; their long running campaign (from 2003 to 2007) is worth mentioning because of the fear appeal used to get across the message. In 2003 (and still airing in 2007) ARA commenced with a multimedia campaign, “Good idea, Bad idea”, featuring four television advertisements which focus particularly on the youth (ARA, 2006). The campaign is primarily sponsored by SABMiller. The four advertisements show how “good ideas” could be turned into “bad ideas” when drinking. Each advertisement shows a “good idea” in the first scene and the second scene depicts something bad happening because the person used alcohol. One of the advertisements, “Surfing”, shows a boy going surfing and then how the boy needs an ambulance because he drank alcohol beforehand. Another advertisement, “Sleep”, shows a girl sleeping, but when the camera zooms out the girl is lying on a pavement in a dirty part of the city. Another girl goes missing in “Missing” after getting a lift after a party where she drank alcohol. Lastly, “Toilet” shows a girl sitting in a men’s bathroom on a men’s toilet after drinking alcohol.

Based on the effectiveness of the campaign, another two advertisements were launched for the campaign in 2004. Based on research, the campaign is designed to appeal to teenagers’ sense of adulthood using an indirect, rather than authoritative, tone. The primary target group for the campaign is the age group of 10 – 17 year olds. The age group of 16 – 24 years of age is regarded as the secondary target group (SA Breweries, 2006).

5.2.1.3 South African Breweries Limited (SAB)

Individual companies also run separate media campaigns of which SAB’s (South African Breweries Limited) public awareness campaign, “Draw the line”, airing on South African television in 2006 and 2007 is an example. Please see Figure 5-3. SAB’s “Draw the line”-campaign, launched in December 2005, is aimed at binge
drinking, underage drinking and driving under the influence. Twenty three million Rand were spent on media exposure to reach urban and rural people in all eleven national languages. Please see Figure 5-4 for one of the billboards used in the campaign. The campaign is the largest responsibility campaign ever conducted by SAB and possibly the most comprehensive responsibility campaign by an alcohol producer in South Africa to date (SA Breweries, 2007).

The four central messages in the campaign are: General responsible consumption; do not drink and drive (jointly funded by Arrive Alive); do not drink during pregnancy; and do not drink under the age of 18 (SA Breweries, 2007). The four advertisements in the campaign use familiar words for the audience, such as “cool” and “uncool”, “famous” and “infamous”, “wise” and “unwise”, and “use” and “abuse” to draw the line between responsible and irresponsible alcohol consumption.

The campaign’s three target audiences are: People of legal drinking age who binge drink; drivers who drive under the influence; and those under the legal drinking age (Biz-community, 2006). The goal is to alert these audiences to the dangers of drinking, give them power to influence others, an argument against over-consumption, or a platform to start a discussion on the topic (SA Breweries, 2006).
5.2.1.4 Drive Alive

Drive Alive is a non-governmental organisation dedicated to promote road safety behaviour. As part of the organisation’s effort a television advertisement was produced in 2007 by the FCB advertising agency (Drive Alive, 2007). The advertisement graphically illustrates car wrecks falling with name tags attached, for example: “5 ciders”, “3 gins” and “3 vodkas”. At the end of the advertisement the car wrecks have fallen into position to create the outline of a liquor bottle. The plot outline of the advertisement is shown in Figure 5-5. Drive Alive television advertisement by FCB Figure 5-5.

![Figure 5-5: Drive Alive television advertisement by FCB](image)

Two print advertisements were produced in cooperation with students from the AAA School of Advertising. One of these advertisements is presented in Figure 5-6. The advertisements employed a mix humorous/fear appeal and were published in a school leaver’s magazine by Drive Alive (Drive Alive, 2007). The copy for the first advertisement was: “Want to meet fireman Frank? You will, when he’s using the jaws-of-life to cut the mangled wreckage of your car away from your pulverised legs. Drifting in and out of consciousness you might not remember him but he’ll remember the dead infant in the car you just hit. So, go ahead drink and drive”. The second
advertisement, “Want to meet nurse Betty?”, uses the same idea to convey the message of "do not drink and drive".

Figure 5-6: Drive Alive - Print advertisement

5.2.1.5 Smirnoff Ice
Smirnoff Ice's advertising campaign for 2005/2006 revolved around an Eastern European called Uri, and his best friend, Gorb, who are loyal to the brand. The campaign, launched in April 2005, was aired on South African television as part of Smirnoff’s global campaign. The promotion included television and radio spots, outdoor advertisements and a website, called uriplanet.com that offered more details about Uri and Gorb (McMains, 2006).

The first television advertisement in the campaign, “Garden”, showed Uri leading the viewer through a tour of his house, including a refrigerator. The second advertisement showed Uri and Gorb travelling to a bar on a sled pulled by a team of Siberian huskies (McMains, 2006). Screenshots from “Garden” may be seen in Figure 5-7.
The series of the “Uri”-campaign featured a television advertisement, “Don’t drink and sled”, to promote alcohol responsibility. The advertisement used a humorous advertising appeal to promote responsibility towards alcohol.

5.2.2 Anti-drunken driving campaigns internationally

In the United States of America, MADD (Mothers against drunk driving), is an organisation that funds several media campaigns aimed specifically at alcohol abuse. Four governmental anti-drunken driving campaigns from the United Kingdom (Department of Transport), Ireland (THINK!), Australia (TAC) and Texas (Texas Traffic Department) will be discussed. As in South Africa, individual liquor companies also address drunken driving through advertising campaigns. The responsibility campaign of Anheuser-Busch is an example.

The advertising campaigns by international social marketers that use fear appeals were found to be remarkably more fear arousing than campaigns from South Africa. Scenes in these television advertisements were more explicit showing more “blood and gore”, for example, depicting in detail car accidents caused by drunken drivers.

5.2.2.1 Mothers against drunk driving (MADD)

Mothers against drunk driving (MADD) is a non-profit organisation in America that has pledged to fight alcohol abuse, such as drunken driving and underage drinking (MADD, 2007). According to its website alcohol-impaired driving is the most frequently committed violent crime in the United States.

MADD uses the television medium to broadcast Public Service Announcements (PSA’s) such as illustrated by Figure 5-8. The organisation targets drunken driving, underage drinking, and parents’ responsibility to educate their children about responsible alcohol use. Specific demographical target groups like Hispanics and African Americans are also targeted by MADD.
In June 2001, MADD launched two advertisements: “Parking Space” focused on injuries caused by impaired drivers, and “Emily” that emphasises the devastation and loss caused by drunken driving (MADD Annual Report, 2001). “Emily” is a black and white advertisement that shows a baby crying in her crib. The scene ends with two screens with the following text lines: “Approximately every 33 minutes someone is killed in an alcohol-related traffic crash” and “Emily’s mother was one of them”. In “Parking space”, a disabled man on crutches is shown struggling from a shop through a parking lot towards his parked car. He gets in the car and drives away, revealing a disabled parking sign on the ground. The words, “Nearly every 17 minutes a drunk driver makes another person eligible to park here” appears underneath the disabled sign as shown in Figure 5-8.

![Figure 5-8: MADD - "Parking space"

5.2.2.2 The Traffic Accident Commission (TAC) of Victoria

The Traffic Accident Commission (TAC) is a government-owned organisation that was set up in the State of Victoria in Australia in 1986. The main role of the TAC is to pay for treatment and benefits for people injured in transport accidents, but its secondary role is also to be involved in promoting road safety in Victoria (TAC, 2007). In 1989 the TAC began producing mass media road safety advertisements. In 1990 and 1992 two additional advertisements, Booze Bus and Joey, were launched respectively. These and other advertisements developed by the TAC aroused a strong public response because of the emotionally intense and graphic style applied in the fear appeal (TAC Road Safety, 2007). The campaigns from 1989 to 2007 used the tagline: “if you drink then drive, you’re a bloody idiot”. A significant aim of the TAC’s drunken driving advertising strategy is to emphasise the likelihood of being caught after committing an offence, and also the severe penalties that will follow a conviction.
The TAC launched the “Little bit over?” campaign in 2003. It was felt that some drivers feel that although they are “just a little bit over” the legal alcohol limit, they do not constitute a risk to other people on the road. To challenge the beliefs of drivers who drive in the .05 to .10 (percentage of alcohol in their blood) range and still feel in control, the TAC started a new phase in the “Only a little bit over? You bloody idiot” – campaign in 2006 (TAC Road Safety, 2007).

The message of the overall campaign is to tell drivers that when they are over the limit and drive, they are breaking the law and endangering the lives of innocent people (TAC Road Safety, 2007). Four phases of the campaign have already been executed (Figure 5-9):

**Figure 5-9: First four phases of the "Only a little bit over?’ –campaign**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase 1</th>
<th>December 2003:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- setting the scene and the main campaign theme (emotive)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- reinforcing the message that low level drink driving is being targeted and detection is likely (enforcement)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase 2</th>
<th>March 2004:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- demonstrating physical signs of impairment at low blood alcohol levels (education)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- further reminder of the likelihood of detection (enforcement)</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase 3</th>
<th>November 2004:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- showing the consequences of a conviction for drink driving on the driver and beyond to family, friends and the workplace (education/emotive)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- reinforcing that police target drink drivers in covert operations, and will not give any leeway to drivers at or above the limit (enforcement)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase 4</th>
<th>November 2005:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- showing that you don’t have to be drunk to be over the limit and that you can’t judge your BAC by how you feel. If you drive and crash, beyond incurring a fine, losing your licence or even serving a jail sentence, the consequences of drink driving could haunt you for life even if you were only a little bit over. (education/emotive)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The fifth phase of the campaign commenced on 17 September 2006 with a major television element. The advertisements illustrate increased levels of police enforcement and reinforce that every police car is equipped to conduct preliminary breath testing. The aim is to get the message across that it is not a case of whether one will get caught driving drunk, but when.
In the television advertisement, “When?”, a male is shown driving in his car past a policeman performing a breathalyser test on another person while the words “Tonight?” appears on the screen. In the next scene the male is driving during daytime with his friends and the words “Next week?” appears as he drives past another policemen engaged in a breathalyser test. The third scene shows him driving with a girlfriend in the passenger seat, the words “Next month?” appears as a policeman motions him off the road and introduces the breathalyser test. The advertisement ends with the “Only a little bit over? You bloody idiot” –tagline.

5.2.2.3 Department of Environment (DOE) – Ireland
The Department of Environment (DOE) in the Republic of Ireland has been causing a stir in road safety advertisements from the year 2000. Its previous anti-drinking campaign, “Shame”, was aimed at creating the perception that it is extremely shameful amongst the target audience (male car drivers) to drive in a drunken state. Please refer to Figure 5-10 or screenshots from the advertisement, “Shame”. The campaign employed a strong fear appeal to change attitudes about drunken driving. Launched in 29 November 2000, the campaign ran for five years and was awarded several creative awards (DOE, 2007).

The objective of “Shame” was to position drunken driving as socially and personally shameful. Secondly, it aimed to influence attitude improvement among target male drivers and, thirdly, the aim was to save lives (Lyle, Bailie, Baird, Reid and Belfast, 2003:94). The primary target audience for “Shame” was male drivers between the age of 17 and 24. The strategy was to move drunken driving from social stigma to personal shame.

The advertisement shows a little boy playing soccer in his garden (Figure 5-10). It then turns to a twenty-three old male playing soccer with his mates, mimicking the actions of the boy. After soccer, he drinks a pint of beer at a bar with his friends. Driving home, he has a lapse of concentration, hits the curb and his car is dramatically flung over a hedge into the garden where the little boy plays. The boy is crushed dead and the advertisement ends with the twenty three-year old standing shocked and shamed amid the tragedy (Lyle et al., 2003: 97).
The core desire of the target group for a “good time” was used to show that even “good times” can be turned into “the worst of times” when driving on even one drink (Lyle et al., 2003: 97). The core thought, “shame”, was used in tandem with the established brand of the DOE: “Never ever drink and drive”. The advertisement ends with the line: “Never ever drink and drive – could you live with the shame?”

Figure 5-10: DOE - "Shame"

In November 2005 a new campaign, called “Just One,” was released illustrating that it takes just one drink to impair one's driving. Research showed that the “Shame” - campaign established the shame attached to drinking and driving. The “Just One” - campaign aims to go emotionally deeper and affect people at a new level building on the “Shame” -campaign. It focuses on the consequences of drunken driving by using stories of survivors and their families (DOE, 2007). The television advertisement could not be obtained, but in Figure 5-11. A leaflet used in the multimedia campaign is presented. The key message of the campaign is that even small amounts of alcohol impair driving.
5.2.2.4 The British Department for Transport: THINK!

THINK! is the road safety division of the British Department for Transport. The THINK! drunken driving television advertisement, “Crash”, was launched in June
2004 (THINK!, 2006). The campaign conveys the message that it is impossible to calculate a person’s alcohol limit, so one should not try. The target audience is primarily 17 - 29 year old males who drink and drive (not drunk drivers).

“Crash” shows three males getting together in a bar for a drink after work. One of the males gets a second round of beer from the bar. The main character declines the second beer, but after a while gives in: “After all, it’s only two.” The advertisement dramatises the moment of decision making by simulating what will happen in a crash with one of the girls in the pub. The advertisement warns that it takes less than a person might think to be impaired by drinking alcohol. It also illustrates that a person becomes a drunken driver in the bar already, and not once on the road. Television advertisements, a radio advertisement, leaflets and posters were developed as part of an integrated campaign (Please see Figure 5-12). Together all of these reinforce that it is impossible to calculate one’s drinking limit and that one should not even try to do so (THINK!, 2006).

The objectives of the “Crash”-campaign are: Increasing awareness of the dangers of having a couple of drinks and driving; educating drivers that they cannot calculate their alcohol limit; shaking drivers’ confidence about their own “rule of thumb” of what is safe to drink and drive; and to get drivers to think about the consequences of being caught (THINK!, 2006). Therefore, the key messages of “Crash” are:

- Do not drink and drive
- It takes less than one might think to become a drunk driver
- A person cannot calculate one’s own alcohol limit
- Watch out for those dangerous – “Fancy a Quick One!” moments (THINK!, 2006).

Figure 5-12: THINK! - "Crash"
5.2.2.5 Texas Department of Transportation
In 2002 the Texas Department of Transportation launched a multimedia advertising campaign featuring a victim of drunken driving (Li-Hua Shan, 2002). The badly disfigured faced of a college girl is shown in the print advertisement along with a photo of her before being in an alcohol related road accident. The print advertisement is presented in Figure 5-13. The television advertisement begins by focusing on a black-and-white photo of the victim as an attractive young woman and a narrator describes the night her car was in the accident. The girl then lowers the photograph to reveal her own face. The copy of the advertisement is as follows: “This is a picture of me before I was hit by a drunk driver, before the car caught fire, before two of my friends died, before I needed more than 40 operations. This is me when my life was just like anyone else in college. This is me after being hit by a drunk driver.”

The target audience of the campaign is males between the ages of 16 and 34 (Li-Hua Shan, 2002). To protect younger children against disturbing images, the campaign was not aired on television in slots during children’s or family programmes.
5.2.2.6 Anheuser-Busch

Anheuser-Busch has invested more than half a billion dollars to promote responsible drinking, prevent underage drinking and drunken driving. The Anheuser-Busch team declares that they are proud to be industry leaders in the fight against alcohol (Beer Responsible, 2007). The company has promoted responsibility when consuming alcohol for nearly 100 years, beginning with an advertisement in 1914 that ran the message: “Budweiser means moderation” (Anheuser-Busch, 2006). In 1985, the company became the first in the brewing industry to bring responsibility messages to network television with their campaign, “Know when to say when”, urging adults to drink responsibly.

Anheuser-Busch launched its latest alcohol awareness campaign, “Responsibility matters”, in 2004 (Anheuser-Busch, 2006). According to Anheuser-Busch, the theme says in a few words what research, practical experience and common sense have being saying all along: Responsibility matters. The campaign reinforces and
encourages adults to drink moderately, designate a driver or call a cab if they had too much to drink, and also educating their children about underage drinking. Together with television advertisements aired during prime time, cable and sports programmes, radio, print and billboards are also used in the campaign. Two of the print advertisements are presented in Figure 5-14.

Figure 5-14: Anheuser-Busch: Underage drinking and drunken driving print advertisements

The company believes that its efforts have helped to promote responsible drinking among adults and encouraged parents to sit down and talk with their children about underage drinking (Anheuser-Busch, 2006).

5.3 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the background of the anti-drunken driving advertising arena domestically and internationally. Recent campaigns employing fear appeals from South Africa and from other countries were reviewed. International campaigns are found to be more fear arousing by graphically depicting victims of drunken driving (e.g. “Jacqueline Saburido” by the Texas Traffic Department) and portraying the accident itself in greater detail (e.g. “Shame” by the DOE and “Crash”
by THINK!). It is useful to mention that international campaigns focus on the concept of the legal blood alcohol limit and even go as far as to say that any alcohol impairs driving (e.g. “Just One” by the DOE and “Crash” by THINK!), while in South Africa the message of advertisements are “Do not drink and drive” which is not quantifiable in terms of how many drinks a person may have and still drive a motor vehicle. It was thus necessary to include international advertisements in the selection from which the expert judges chose the advertisement stimuli for the study, because of the high level of fear appeals used by these advertisements. This study investigates the effect of the level of fear appeal (weak, moderate and strong) on a South African target audience. Most of the advertisements from the campaigns described in this chapter were included in the selection used to select the nine advertisements used in the pilot study. Please see chapter seven for the methodology of the study.
Chapter 6

Drunken driving in South Africa

6.1 Introduction
This chapter reviews the status of alcohol abuse in South Africa, especially in the area of drunken driving. At-risk groups for alcohol abuse in South Africa are identified and efforts by the State to reduce alcohol abuse and drunken driving are described.

Statistics for drunken driving in the country are reviewed, and also the reason for conducting the research of this thesis in the Western Cape. An overview of the demographical profile of the undergraduate students at the University of Stellenbosch is provided as this is where the study population resides.

6.2 Alcohol abuse in South Africa

6.2.1 The impact of alcohol abuse on public health
Since electing a democratic government in 1994, there has been an increasing awareness on the part of the government and the Public Sector in South Africa and the public of the harm caused by substance abuse (Parry & Bennetts, 1998:7).

During the period from 1978 to 1994 per capita consumption of alcoholic beverages in South Africa increased by 150 % while the population growth rate for the same period was 50 % (Strachan, 1999:7). South Africa was ranked highest in the average annual growth rate for the amount of alcohol consumed per capita (with a growth rate of 2 %) in a study spanning 1985 to 1995 that included over 23 countries (including countries such as Canada, France, Spain, Japan, the UK and USA) (Strachan, 1999:7; World Health Organization [WHO], 1999:141).
Some of the negative consequences of alcohol abuse in South African to be discussed are: Drunken driving, underage drinking, prevalence of Fetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS) and health problems.

6.2.1.1 Drunken driving
Statistics from the Arrive Alive website show that South Africa is rated fourth worst in the world in terms of road safety. Road collisions cost the country about R16 billion annually. An accident on South African roads occurs every four seconds, killing one person every 48 minutes, which leads to a statistic of one death for every 570 vehicles in South Africa. Sixty percent (6 of every 10) of road accidents are caused by alcohol use (ArriveAlive, 2007).

Figures released by the Medical Research Council in 2003 shows that 46.5% of all drivers killed in automobile crashes had a Blood Alcohol Concentration (BAC) above the legal limit of 0.05 g/ml. Nine point five percent of drivers killed, had consumed more than five times the amount of the legal limit (ArriveAlive, 2007).

Fifty seven percent of pedestrians who were killed in crashes had a BAC that exceeded the legal limit. Twenty five percent of these pedestrians had consumed more than five times the legal alcohol limit (ArriveAlive, 2007).

6.2.1.2 Fetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS)
The term “Fetal Alcohol Syndrome“ describes all major malformations and disabilities in the offspring of alcoholic mothers. Heavy alcohol drinking at any time throughout a pregnancy could cause neuro-developmental, intellectual and behavioural problems. Fetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS) is a birth defect that has been found to occur in all racial and ethnic groups. A world record rate of FAS of 39.2 – 46.4 per 1 000 births has been reported for children in South Africa (May, Gossage, White-Country, Goodhart, Decoteau, Trujillo, Kalberg, Viljoen and Hoyme, 2000:11).

A prevalence rate of FAS of 40 per 1 000 births in the Western Cape and 20 out of 1 000 births in the Gauteng province has been reported (Rosenthal, Christianson & Cordero, 2005:1099). In some parts of the country, studies have found that one in 10 children at school going age has mental retardation, neurological and development problems as a result of alcohol use during pregnancy (Tshabalala-Msimang, 2006a).
6.2.1.3 Underage drinking
The unregulated liquor industry means that alcohol distribution is largely uncontrolled, leading to problems such as underage drinking. Young people have easy access to alcohol through legal and illegal liquor outlets (WHO, 1999:139).

The South African National Youth Risk Behaviour Survey in 2002 found that almost one from eight learners had their first drink before the age of thirteen. Thirty-one point eight percent of learners surveyed had consumed alcohol one or more days in the month preceding the survey (Tshabalala-Msimang, 2006a).

6.2.1.4 Health problems
In general there is a significant relationship between alcohol use and domestic and interpersonal violence and crime (Tshabalala-Msimang, 2006a). It is estimated that up to 30 % of general hospital admissions in South Africa are directly or indirectly related to alcohol use (WHO, 1999:143). Some studies have associated alcohol misuse with chronic health problems among the South African community (Tshabalala-Msimang, 2006a).

6.2.2 At-risk groups for alcohol abuse in South Africa
“Problem” or “risky” drinking can be defined as periodic binge-drinking, regular heavy drinking, or drinking behaviour that can be classified in psychiatric categories of “alcohol abuse” or “alcohol dependency”. Risky drinking behaviour may be found amongst all races within the South African population (Parry & Bennetts, 1998:27).

Parry and Bennetts (1998:43) reviewed 25 studies about the extent of risky drinking behaviour in South Africa and found the following groups in the South African society to be at high risk for alcohol-related problems:

- Males of all races
- Blacks in townships and informal settlements
- Workers in certain occupations (e.g. miners, farm workers)
- Young people of all race groups

These groups should be the target audiences for anti-alcohol abuse media campaigns in South Africa.
6.2.3 Official efforts to prevent alcohol abuse

Social and economic costs of alcohol abuse for South Africa are estimated to be R9 billion a year. The health department is said to be spending about R800 million annually to provide emergency medical attention to people who were involved in alcohol abuse related incidents. This led to the announcement by the Health Minister in February 2006 that the department is looking into tightening liquor laws before the end of 2006 (Motloung, 2006).

The South African State’s aim in its combat against alcohol abuse is to raise awareness amongst South Africans about the harmful health and social effects of alcohol. The State acknowledges that communities are bombarded by messages that advance alcohol consumption. Health Minister Tshabalala-Msimang (2006b) pronounced that national government needs to ensure that there is a balance between the promotion of alcoholic products and the understanding of the negative effects of irresponsible drinking.

6.2.3.1 Warning labels on alcoholic beverages

The South African State is currently proposing that alcohol companies put health warning labels on all alcoholic beverages. Draft regulations for the health warnings were published in the Government Gazette in 2005 (Mgidi, 2005). The messages of the warnings are centred on the effects of alcohol abuse such as: Alcohol dependency, aggression, Fetal Alcohol Syndrome in pregnant women, hypertension and liver disease. The draft document prohibits alcohol labels from claiming that the product has been endorsed by health professionals. Words like "healthy", "heal", "cure" and "restorative" on the label are also not allowed. The department also proposes to restrict alcohol advertising. It was announced in 2006 that the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) would conduct a study on the impact of these proposals (Motloung, 2006).

6.2.3.2 The Arrive Alive project

The Department of Transport operates the Arrive Alive project that aims to reduce driving accidents on South African roads. The Arrive Alive Road Safety Campaign was first employed in 1997 (Department of Transport, 1998). The campaign’s core target is the two major killers on South African roads: speed and alcohol abuse (ArriveAlive, 2007). Although the State would like the campaign to be run
continuously, it is in fact conducted in phases and expanded according to the ability
to raise funds. Together with law enforcement, breathalysers, "booze" caravans,
road block trailers and speed equipment, media campaigns are also used to
maximise the campaign’s effectiveness (Department of Transport, 1998).

6.3 Drunken driving in South Africa

For the year end March 2007, 38 261 cases of driving under the influence of alcohol
or drugs in South Africa were reported by the South African Police Service as
indicated in Table 6-1.

Table 6-1: Driving under the influence of alcohol or drugs in South Africa for the

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>3814</td>
<td>3330</td>
<td>3984</td>
<td>4340</td>
<td>3799</td>
<td>4773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>1025</td>
<td>1111</td>
<td>978</td>
<td>1152</td>
<td>1325</td>
<td>1249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>6168</td>
<td>5123</td>
<td>6112</td>
<td>6405</td>
<td>7090</td>
<td>7336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KwaZulu Natal</td>
<td>3556</td>
<td>4114</td>
<td>4331</td>
<td>6329</td>
<td>7889</td>
<td>9744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limpopo</td>
<td>1460</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>792</td>
<td>822</td>
<td>1067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>1473</td>
<td>1365</td>
<td>1432</td>
<td>1340</td>
<td>1145</td>
<td>1383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>1278</td>
<td>1227</td>
<td>1732</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>2123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>885</td>
<td>755</td>
<td>828</td>
<td>1015</td>
<td>943</td>
<td>1003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>4894</td>
<td>4454</td>
<td>4957</td>
<td>6583</td>
<td>8114</td>
<td>9583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSA Total</td>
<td>24553</td>
<td>22144</td>
<td>24886</td>
<td>29927</td>
<td>33116</td>
<td>38261</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In the Western Cape 8 114 cases were reported for the period April 2005 to March
2006 and 9 583 cases were found in 2007. This means the Western Cape had the
highest incidence rate for driving under the influence of alcohol or drugs in 2006.
In 2007 the province dropped to second place with KwaZulu Natal in the first place.
The Gauteng province was third in rank for cases of driving under the influence
during the same period (South African Police Service, 2007).
In order to obtain a clearer picture of drunken driving per province in South Africa it is necessary to describe the incidence rate as a ratio of the population totals for each province. For the period ending 2007 the ratio for driving under the influence per 100 000 of the population in the Western Cape Province was 201.9 as can be seen in Table 6-2. This makes Western Cape the province with the highest incidence rate of driving under the influence per 100 000 of the population. It is almost double the ratio of the Northern Cape Province that has the second highest incidence ratio of 110.2 per 100 000 people of the population.

Table 6-2: Ratio per 100 000 of the population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>59.3</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>67.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>78.6</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KwaZulu Natal</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>100.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limpopo</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>107.6</td>
<td>92.0</td>
<td>101.2</td>
<td>112.9</td>
<td>104.5</td>
<td>110.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>108.2</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>104.7</td>
<td>144.0</td>
<td>174.7</td>
<td>201.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSA Total</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>64.2</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>80.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In South Africa the percentage increase from the year end 2006 to year end 2007 was 15.5 % as indicated in Table 6-3. The total percentage increase in the country from the year end 2002 to the year end 2007 was 55.8 % (South African Police Service, 2007). The increase in percentage of incidences of driving under the influence in the Western Cape from the previous year end (2002) to year end 2007 was 95.8 %.
Table 6-3: Percentage increase or decrease in driving under the influence per province in South Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>-12.7%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>-12.5%</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>25.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
<td>-12.0%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>-5.7%</td>
<td>21.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>-16.9%</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>18.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KwaZulu Natal</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>46.1%</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>174.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limpopo</td>
<td>-54.5%</td>
<td>-20.0%</td>
<td>48.9%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
<td>-26.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>-7.3%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>-6.4%</td>
<td>-14.6%</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
<td>-6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>-4.0%</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>66.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>-14.7%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
<td>-7.1%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>-9.0%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>18.1%</td>
<td>95.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSA Total</td>
<td>-9.8%</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


After reviewing statistics from the South African Police Service it was deemed necessary to conduct the research for this thesis amongst young adults in the Western Cape. Young adults are an at-risk group for alcohol abuse in South Africa (Parry & Bennetts, 1998:43). Western Cape is the province in South Africa with the highest incidence rate for driving under the influence of alcohol or drugs (South African Police Service, 2007).

6.4 The study population profile

6.4.1 South African population profile

The most recent population census in South Africa was conducted in 2001. The 2001 census showed that there are more or less equal percentages of males and females in South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2007). The largest age group for both genders was the age group of 15 to 19 years of age as can be seen Figure 6-1.
Figure 6-1: Age distribution of males and females in the total population

The target age group for this thesis (18 to 24 years of age) falls into two of the census age groups. Firstly, it relates to the age group of between 15 and 19 years of age which was the second largest age group in the census of 2001. Secondly, the majority of the target group falls into the age group, 20 to 24 years of age, which was the fifth largest age group in the 2001 census.

6.4.2 Population profile of the Western Cape

The population census in 2001 estimated that there are 4.5 million inhabitants in the Western Cape (Department of Social Services and Poverty Alleviation, 2007). The age group of 15 to 19 years constituted the largest age group in the Western Cape Province in 2001 (11 %), with the age group 20 to 24 years being the second largest age group (10 %) in terms of percentage of the total population in the province in 2001, as indicated by Figure 6-2.
For the purpose of this thesis, the target age group (18 to 24 years) falls into respectively the first and second largest age groups in the Western Cape. The target age group thus entails a significant portion of the population of the Western Cape, namely 20.8 % (15 to 24 years of age as indicated by the 2001 Census).

Just more than half of the total population of the Western Cape (51.5 %) was female. In terms of the number of tertiary degrees, it was found that 1.81 % of females in comparison to 2.14 % of males between the ages of 15 – 64 years in the Western Cape had degrees (Department of Social Services and Poverty Alleviation, 2005).

6.4.3 Population profile of students at the University of Stellenbosch

Based upon the information discussed in the previous sections the first year students enrolled at the University of Stellenbosch for 2007 were selected as the study population for this thesis. The University of Stellenbosch, a tertiary institution situated in the Western Cape Province, is attended by students from all over South Africa as well as international students as indicated in Figure 6-3. Enrolments by students who are originally from the Western Cape compromise 63.9 % of the total number of enrolled students in 2007.
In 2007 the total enrolments at the University of Stellenbosch was 23 439. Of the students enrolled 14 789 or 63 % students were undergraduates (University of Stellenbosch, 2007). Table 6-4 shows that according to program studied, Economic and Management Sciences was the program with the most students from 1998 to 2007. The Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences was thus selected through convenient sampling, as this faculty has the most undergraduate students falling into an age group (18 to 24 years of age) that is at-risk for alcohol abuse, such as drunken driving. Please refer to chapter seven for the methodology used to draw the sample.
### Table 6-4: Enrolments according to faculty and year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>All students</th>
<th>Postgraduate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>3803 Arts, 2100 Science, 2812 Education, 900 Agri Science, 847 Law, 311 Theology, 5309 Econ&amp;Man, 1557 Engineering, 2950 Health Sciences, 239 Military Science, 20828 TOTAL</td>
<td>1406 Arts, 577 Science, 1809 Education, 283 Agri Science, 389 Law, 221 Theology, 1548 Econ&amp;Man, 824 Engineering, 368 Health Sciences, 56 Military Science, 7481 TOTAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>4116 Arts, 2078 Science, 2591 Education, 939 Agri Science, 871 Law, 331 Theology, 5779 Econ&amp;Man, 1672 Engineering, 3236 Health Sciences, 266 Military Science, 21879 TOTAL</td>
<td>1368 Arts, 596 Science, 1515 Education, 300 Agri Science, 368 Law, 217 Theology, 1703 Econ&amp;Man, 401 Engineering, 940 Health Sciences, 50 Military Science, 7458 TOTAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>4667 Arts, 2104 Science, 1262 Education, 1386 Agri Science, 770 Law, 328 Theology, 6692 Econ&amp;Man, 1847 Engineering, 2995 Health Sciences, 518 Military Science, 22569 TOTAL</td>
<td>1369 Arts, 630 Science, 677 Education, 277 Agri Science, 377 Law, 216 Theology, 2334 Econ&amp;Man, 388 Engineering, 1075 Health Sciences, 77 Military Science, 7420 TOTAL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.5 Conclusion

One of the negative consequences of alcohol abuse in South Africa is drunken driving. After reviewing statistics for driving under the influence of alcohol and drugs it is clear that the Western Cape Province has the highest incidence rate in South Africa. It is thus deemed valuable to investigate the effect of preventative measures, such as anti-drunken driving advertising for the population of the Western Cape.

The University of Stellenbosch is situated in the Western Cape and has 14 789 undergraduate students enrolled in the year 2007. These students fall into one of the at-risk groups for alcohol abuse in South Africa. The first year students of the largest faculty at the University, the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, comprise the sample for this thesis to test the effect of anti-drunken driving television advertisements, employing fear appeals on these students’ attitude and intention to drink and drive.
Chapter 7

Empirical study

7.1 Introduction
This chapter describes the methodology used in the empirical study of the research. The hypotheses of the research are outlined. Research for this study was conducted in two phases, namely the pilot study and the final study. The methodology used for both phases in the empirical study is explained in detail. Finally, ethical considerations are briefly mentioned.

7.2 Objectives
As mentioned in the chapter one, the objectives for this study are:

- To test how fear appeal affects attitude and intention of young adults by testing Thayer’s model as used in the formulation of fear arousal by Henthorne et al. (1993) and LaTour and Rotfeld (1997).
- To test how three levels of fear appeals (low, medium and high) influence the four constructs of the model: tension arousal, energy arousal, attitude and intention.

The aim of the research is to test how fear appeals influence attitude and intention on the target group of South African young adults and find out whether an optimal level of fear appeal exist for the target audience.

7.3 Hypotheses
Thayer’s activation theory as researched in the field of fear appeals by researchers (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:392; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:56; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65; Henthorne, LaTour & Nataraajan, 1993:67) and related to drunken driving advertising is investigated for a South African target market, namely young adults (18 to 24 years of age). The model proposed for this study indicating the relationships between tension arousal, energy
arousal, attitude towards the advertisement and intention to engage in drunken driving is illustrated in Figure 7-1. The model is based on past research on the implementation of Thayer’s activation theory in the field of fear appeal advertising (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997; Henthorne et al., 1993).

**Figure 7-1:** The effect of fear's energy and tension arousal on attitude and intention

Tension arousal (TA) is assumed to increase energy arousal (EA) (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:386). Energy (EA) and tension arousal (TA) is thought to have a positive effect both on attitude towards the advertisement (Aad) and intention (Int). The pathway from attitude to intention is proposed to be positive (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997; Henthorne et al., 1993).

Activation theory is based on the premise that tension generates energy up to a certain point, but beyond this threshold an increase in tension creates anxiety that in turn depletes energy (Henthorne et al., 1993:60). Researchers have as yet failed to locate this threshold (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997). Thus, in order to test the proposed model and to test whether such a threshold exists for a South African target audience, three levels of fear appeals were tested in this study: low, medium and high.
Based on the extensive literature review and the model mentioned above, the hypotheses that were tested are outlined below. The hypotheses as proposed by the model when using a low fear appeal advertisement stimuli are:

\( H_{1\text{Low}} \): There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and energy arousal when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.

\( H_{2\text{Low}} \): There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and intention when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.

\( H_{3\text{Low}} \): There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.

\( H_{4\text{Low}} \): There is a positive relationship between energy arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.

\( H_{5\text{Low}} \): There is a positive relationship between energy arousal and intention when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.

\( H_{6\text{Low}} \): There is a positive relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and intention when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.

Following the hypotheses of the model using a low fear appeal advertisement stimulus, the hypotheses for the medium fear appeal stimulus are proposed to be similar:

\( H_{1\text{Med}} \): There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and energy arousal when exposed to a medium fear appeal.

\( H_{2\text{Med}} \): There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and intention when exposed to a medium fear appeal advertisement.

\( H_{3\text{Med}} \): There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a medium fear appeal advertisement.
H4Med: There is a positive relationship between energy arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a medium fear appeal advertisement.

H5Med: There is a positive relationship between energy arousal and intention towards the advertisement when exposed to a medium fear appeal advertisement.

H6Med: There is a positive relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and intention when exposed to a medium fear appeal advertisement.

Research has not yet found that a high fear appeal would necessarily lead to tension diminishing energy and have a negative effect on attitude and intention (Henthorne et al., 1993:67; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:56; LaTour & Tanner, 2003:392). Hence the hypotheses for the high fear appeal stimulus remain similar to the hypotheses for the low and medium fear appeal stimuli and these are:

H1High: There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and energy arousal when exposed to a high fear appeal.

H2High: There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and intention when exposed to a high fear appeal advertisement.

H3High: There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a high fear appeal advertisement.

H4High: There is a positive relationship between energy arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a high fear appeal advertisement.

H5High: There is a positive relationship between energy arousal and intention when exposed to a high fear appeal advertisement.
There is a positive relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and intention when exposed to a high fear appeal advertisement.

It is generally assumed that there is a relationship between the level of fear appeal and persuasion, i.e. attitude towards the advertisement and behavioural intention (Rotfeld, 2000:123). According to Thayer’s activation theory the higher the fear appeal level, the greater the tension arousal and energy arousal, unless fear is aroused to the extent where tension arousal diminishes energy arousal (Hentorne et al, 1993:61). This study tests the relationship between level of fear appeal and the four constructs in the proposed model: tension arousal, energy arousal, attitude towards the advertisement and intention to engage in drunken driving. Thus the hypotheses for these four relationships are:

\( H_0^{7} \): There is no relationship between level of fear appeal and tension arousal.

\( H_a^{7} \): There is a relationship between level of fear appeal and tension arousal.

\( H_0^{8} \): There is no relationship between level of fear appeal and energy arousal.

\( H_a^{8} \): There is a relationship between level of fear appeal and energy arousal.

\( H_0^{9} \): There is no relationship between level of fear appeal and attitude towards the advertisement.

\( H_a^{9} \): There is a relationship between level of fear appeal and attitude towards the advertisement.

\( H_0^{10} \): There is no relationship between level of fear appeal and intention to engage in drunken driving.

\( H_a^{10} \): There is a relationship between level of fear appeal and intention to engage in drunken driving.
7.4 Primary research method
The research was conducted in two phases. Phase one included a pilot study in the form of a focus group conducted with first year students (n=13). Phase two consisted of the final study conducted with three experimental groups (n=216, 335 and 203) to test the proposed hypotheses for a low, medium and high fear appeal advertisement.

A quasi-experimental design between subjects one-shot (after only) design was used to measure the variables identified (Malholtra, 2004:217). Six class groups of first year students at the University of Stellenbosch were exposed to a low, medium, or high fear appeal television advertisement. Two class groups were exposed to one of the three different levels of fear appeals tested: low, medium and high. Randomisation was used to assign respondents to the experimental groups on the basis of class attendance (Malholtra, 2004:212). Self-administered questionnaires were filled in by respondents before and after viewing the fear appeal advertisement. Energy arousal, tension arousal, attitude towards the advertisement and intention to engage in drunken driving for each of the three levels of fear appeals were measured by the questionnaires.

7.5 Population
The enrolled first year students of the University of Stellenbosch for 2007 constituted the population of the study. Based on the literature review young adults (between the ages of 18 and 24) in South Africa are at a high risk of abusing alcohol (Parry & Bennett, 1998:43). Young people, aged between 10 and 24, are one of the target groups for anti-alcohol abuse advertising campaigns in South Africa (SABMiller, 2007; Parry & Bennett, 1998:43). Students were chosen as the population because they fall in this target group. Furthermore, previous studies used students as respondents to test the effects of fear appeals (Rossiter & Thornton, 2004:949; Arthur & Quester, 2004:682; Ruiter, Kok, Verplanken & Van Eersel, 2003:398; Tanner, Hunt & Eppright, 1991:40). Therefore the target age group of this thesis are young adults between the ages of 18 and 24.
7.6 Sampling process

A convenience sample was drawn from the target population of all the currently enrolled first year students at the University of Stellenbosch. Previous studies on fear appeals also employed this method of sampling students (Rossiter & Thornton, 2004:949; Arthur & Quester, 2004:682; Ruiter et al., 2003:398; Arthur & Quester, 2003:14; Tanner, Hunt & Eppright, 1991:40). The non-probability sampling procedure allowed the researcher to choose classes that are attended by large groups of students and which are accessible to the researcher (Kotler, 2003:137). Convenience sampling was used for the following reasons: It is logistically difficult to gather a large group of respondents, present them with the same audiovisuals and administer a questionnaire to them. The lecture rooms of the University of Stellenbosch are perfect for this study, as such rooms have the capacity to seat the large number of students needed for the sample of this study. The lecture rooms are also equipped with multimedia facilities to screen television advertisements.

The Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences was chosen because the faculty is the largest at the University of Stellenbosch and has first year class groups that are large enough to form the sample size that was needed for the study. The minimum sample size suggested by Malhotra (2004:318) for television advertising studies lies within a range of 200 to 300 respondents with a minimum of 150 respondents (per advertisement). These figures were calculated according to the average sample size for similar studies conducted in the past. The academic subject of Business Management 142 at the Department of Business Management is a requirement subject for all first year students and the size of each of the class groups for this subject is between 150 and 250 students.

1 706 students were registered for Business Management 142 in September 2007 (Von Pressentin, 2007). These students are divided into 6 class groups. On a Monday all of the six class groups have lectures between 08H00 and 11H00. This includes three periods, with two class groups per period, in four
different venues lectured by three separate lecturers. Students attending the
two 08H00 classes were exposed to the low fear appeal stimulus, the two
09H00 classes were exposed to the medium fear appeal stimulus and the
students attending the two 10H00 classes to the high fear appeal stimulus.
Randomisation was used in terms that respondents were randomly assigned
to one of the experimental groups by their class attendance on the day of the
study (Malholtra, 2004:212). Students are free to attend any of the 6 classes
that suit their class timetable. On the Monday of the final study a total of 757
questionnaires were completed. Of these, 753 questionnaires were useable
for statistical analyses (n=753) as shown in Table 7-1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class period</th>
<th>Level of fear appeal</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Total sample size (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>08:00</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Lecturer A</td>
<td>Lecturer B</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:00</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Lecturer A</td>
<td>Lecturer B</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:00</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Lecturer A</td>
<td>Lecturer C</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Total respondents = 753

It would be seen in the last column of Table 7-1 that a total of 218 useable
questionnaires were filled in by respondents after being exposed to the low
fear appeal advertisement (n[low]=218), 332 useable questionnaires were
gathered for respondents who saw the medium fear appeal advertisement
(n[medium]=332) and 203 questionnaires were collated for the high fear
appeal advertisement (n[high]=203).

### 7.7 The questionnaires

Each student was handed a self-administered questionnaire that consisted of
two sections, each printed on a separate page. Please see Addendum A for
the final questionnaire. Questionnaires were chosen as research instruments
for their flexibility to measure demographics, energy and tension arousal,
attitude and intention (Kotler, 2003:133). Structured questions were used
throughout the questionnaire to ensure comparability of variables (Malhotra,
2004:290). The survey was conducted in English and in Afrikaans, because
the statistical profile of the University shows that the home language of 57.1 %
of enrolled students in 2007 is Afrikaans, while 35.1% of students are English speaking (University of Stellenbosch, 2007).

The first section, Section A, contained four questions requesting demographic information, four manipulation checks and five questions regarding drinking and driving behaviour. The second section, Section B, included one manipulation check, a question that measured energy and tension arousal, and two questions measuring attitude towards the advertisement and intention respectively.

Section A was filled in by respondents before viewing the advertisement. The questions contained in Section A can be seen in Table 7-2. The first four questions covered demographics, requesting respondents’ age, gender, racial group and first language. The options for the questions on racial groups and first language were formulated based upon the statistical profile of the University (University of Stellenbosch, 2007). Four manipulation checks were inserted by the researcher: “Do you have a driver’s licence?”, “Do you own a motor vehicle?”, “How often do you drive a motor vehicle” and “Do you drink alcohol?” Questions eight to ten measured drinking behaviour. Questions eight and nine were adapted from Meyer (2001:61) and were asked with the intention to differentiate between respondents who are light drinkers and respondents who drink heavily. Question ten determined the drunken behaviour of respondents and served as a manipulation question to verify questions 8 and 9.

Table 7-2 shows how drunken driving behaviour was measured by question eleven asking respondents whether they have had experience with five situations adapted from Meyer (2001:62). Perception of drunken driving was measured by two items in question twelve. The second of these two items, “It is dangerous to drink and drive”, was replicated from Meyer (2001:65).
Table 7-2: Section A questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What is your current age?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What is your gender?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Indicate your racial group:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What is your first language?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manipulation checks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Do you have a driver’s license?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Do you own a motor vehicle?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. How often do you drive a motor vehicle?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Do you drink alcohol?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drinking behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. How many times in a month do you drink alcohol?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. On occasion when you consume alcoholic drinks, how many drinks do you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>usually have?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. How often during the past year did you engage in binge-drinking (got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drunk)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drinking and driving behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12. Have you ever experienced the following?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driven a motor vehicle after having one alcoholic drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driven a motor vehicle after having several alcoholic drinks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driven a motor vehicle while drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ever been a passenger in a motor vehicle with a drunk driver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ever been arrested for driving while intoxicated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of drunken driving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. Do you agree or disagree with the following:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drunken driving is a problem in South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is dangerous to drink and drive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Self-ratings have been found by previous studies to be a reliable method to measure arousal, attitude and intention (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:384; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:51; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:63; Henthorne et al., 1993:64). In Section B, tension arousal, energy arousal, attitude toward the
advertisement, and intention not to engage in drunken driving were measured by three questions. Question one was a manipulation check inserted by the researcher. The question as shown in Table 7-4 was put in the questionnaire to ascertain whether a respondent has seen the experimental stimulus advertisement before. Question two measured energy and tension arousal by using a shortened version of Thayer’s activation-deactivation adjective checklist (AD-ACL) (Thayer, 1989). Please see Addendum B for Thayer’s complete checklist. Previous research applied a short version of the checklist for measuring energy and tension arousal in fear arousal through fear appeals in advertisements (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:384; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:51; Henthorne et al., 1993:64). The checklist as used in the questionnaire can be seen in Table 7-3.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Threat</th>
<th>Medium of stimulus</th>
<th>Levels of fear appeal</th>
<th>AD ACL (Thayer’s Checklist)</th>
<th>Attitude towards advertisement</th>
<th>Intention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>LaTour &amp; Tanner</td>
<td>Radon gas</td>
<td>Video</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5 items: Included “tense; jittery”</td>
<td>5 items: High quality; good; interesting; informative; objective</td>
<td>1 item: Will/will not call toll free number 6 point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Snipes, LaTour &amp; Bliss</td>
<td>Stun-gun device for women</td>
<td>Video</td>
<td>2: mild and strong</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>6 items: High quality; interesting; appealing; desirable; good; useful 6 point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>LaTour &amp; Rotfeld</td>
<td>Stun-gun device for women</td>
<td>Video</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5 items: Jittery; intense; fearful; clutched-up; tense 4 point scale</td>
<td>6 items: Good; interesting; informative; appropriate: easy to understand; objective 6 point scale</td>
<td>1 item: Plan to purchase (brand name) 6 point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>LaTour, Snipes &amp; Bliss</td>
<td>Stun-gun device for women</td>
<td>Video</td>
<td>2: mild and strong</td>
<td>1 item: Tense 4 point scale</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>5 items: High quality; interesting; appealing; desirable; good; useful 1 item: Plan to purchase (brand name) yes/no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Henthorne, LaTour &amp; Natarajyan</td>
<td>Support of victims' rights programs</td>
<td>Print</td>
<td>2: weak and strong</td>
<td>5 items: Jittery; intense; fearful; clutched-up; tense 4 point scale</td>
<td>6 items: Good; interesting; informative; appropriate: easy to understand; objective 4 point scale</td>
<td>1 item: Intention to vote for allocating tax revenue to support victims’ right programs 4 point scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Question two consisted of 10 items on a scale: five items measuring energy and five items measuring tension as shown in Table 7-4. The items were scaled according to a Likert scale, ranging from “1” for “definitely do not feel” to “5” for “definitely feel”. Energy arousal items include feeling: “Active”, “energetic”, “vigorous”, “lively” and “full of pep”. Tension arousal items include feeling “jittery”, “intense”, “fearful”, “clutched-up” and “tense”.

Table 7-4: Section B questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manipulation check</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you seen this advertisement before?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tension</strong></td>
<td><strong>Energy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jittery</td>
<td>Active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clutched-up (Anxious)</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intense</td>
<td>Vigorous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearful</td>
<td>Lively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense</td>
<td>Full-of-pep (Cheerful)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude towards the advertisement</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicate how you feel about the advertisement that you have just seen:</td>
<td>Easy to understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Useful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in the future.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question three measured attitude towards the advertisement using five items replicated from previous fear appeal research: “Easy to understand”, “informative”, “good”, “interesting” and “useful” (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:384; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:53; Henthorne et al., 1993:63). These five items were measured by a Likert scale ranging from “1” for “no, definitely, not” to “5” for “yes, definitely”.
Intention to engage in drunken driving was measured in question four by two items using a scale anchored by “no, definitely, not” to “yes, definitely”. Previous studies measured intention with one item but mentioned this as a limitation. Thus, two items instead of one were used to overcome limitations of previous studies (LaTour & Tanner, 2003; Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996; Henthorne et al., 1993). The items were adapted from fear appeal research for the topic of drunken driving and were: “After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in future” and using a reverse scale: “After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in future” (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:385; Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999:279; LaTour and Rotfeld, 1997:52; Henthorne et al., 1993:65).

The final questionnaire was formatted by the Centre of Learning and Development at the University beforehand so that it could be optically scanned after the final study. After the final study the Centre optically scanned the questionnaires and input the data into MSExcel.

7.8 Selecting the advertisement stimuli

Television advertisements were used as experimental stimuli, since most South African anti-drunken driving advertisements use this medium. The literature review found few South African anti-alcohol abuse advertisements in the print media. Those print advertisements that were encountered, were educational and of poor quality. Audiovisual media also have the advantage of incorporating visual and audio elements to enhance the fear appeal. Much stronger and lifelike fear appeals could thus be presented by means of audiovisuals. Research has found a positive relationship between the level of fear appeal and attitude toward the advertisement and the intention to stop dangerous behaviour when respondents were presented with audiovisual fear appeal advertisements (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:56; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65; Henthorne et al., 1993:67).
Three television advertisements representing three different levels of fear appeals (low, medium and high) were needed to serve as stimuli for the three experimental groups of the study.

The Internet was searched for drunken driving advertisements through a key word search for 'drunken driving advertisement', ‘drinking and driving advertisement’ and ‘DUI advertisement’. Websites of organisations against drunken driving (such as MADD and SADD) and transport ministries of various countries were searched. All the main South African and international anti-drunken driving advertising campaigns were investigated. Main criteria for selecting advertisements included:

1) The age of the people appearing in the advertisement had to be between 18 and 30 years
2) The topic of drunken driving
3) The use of a fear appeal
4) A variety of execution styles

Using the above criteria, 79 television advertisements were found. Of these, some nine advertisements were chosen by four experts and the researcher to be used as stimuli in the pilot study. Three advertisements were chosen for each level of fear appeal to be researched: Low, medium and high. The basic criteria used by the experts to choose the nine advertisements included:

1) Reaching a target market of young adults aged 18 to 24 years
2) Comprising the three different levels of fear appeals

The nine television advertisements of various execution styles were used as stimuli in the pilot study to ascertain whether the levels of fear appeal (low, medium and high) were actually present and thus perceived by the study population. The focus group had to fill in Section B of the questionnaire for each of the nine advertisements. Respondents were then asked to rate each advertisement as a group according to the level of fear appeal on a scale from one to ten, one having no fear appeal and ten having an extremely high fear appeal.
appeal. The individual rating of the advertisements on the questionnaire and
group rating on the scale was used to determine the three advertisements
used in the final study. Please see chapter eight for the complete results of
the pilot study.

7.9 The pilot study
A focus group was constituted by drawing a sample of first year students from
the final sample who took part in the final study. The focus group had three
outcomes: To obtain in-depth opinions about the topic of drunken driving and
drunken driving campaigns from the target market; to choose the three
advertisements that best represent a low, medium and high fear appeal for the
final study; and to pre-test the questionnaire.

A convenience sample of between ten and fifteen students who are
representative of the final sample were gathered. A lecturer was asked to
announce in the Monday classes that a focus group on advertising would
gather on the Wednesday and interested students were requested put up their
names on a list after class. Only five students provided their names and the
three class representatives for Business Management 142 were phoned to
recruit another eight students. In the event some thirteen students (n=13)
attended the pilot study. Each student received R 50 afterwards as
remuneration, while refreshments were provided during the break. A digital
recorder was used to record the session.

A discussion guide was compiled and used as a guideline throughout the
focus group. Please see Addendum D for the discussion guide. During the
first hour students participated in a group discussion led by the researcher on
different topics, such as drinking behaviour and anti-drunken driving
advertisements. After a ten minute break the participants completed Section
A of the questionnaire. They were exposed to the nine stimuli advertisements
and filled in nine copies of Section B immediately after viewing each
advertisement. The nine advertisements were shown in order from low to
high fear appeal as determined by the experts to avoid desensitising. The
questionnaires were handed in and the group discussed each advertisement in random fashion and placed it on a scale from one to ten with “scary” and “shocking” being at the top end of the scale. The group was told that the final study would be conducted in class and they were requested not to participate in the final study.

Based on the results of the focus group, three advertisements depicting low, medium and high fear appeal were selected for the final study. Please see chapter eight for the results of the pilot study and the selection process for selecting the three advertisement stimuli. Errors on the questionnaire found whilst conducting the focus group sessions were corrected afterwards. These included: a translation error at question thirteen and an item was omitted at question two in Section B. In the final questionnaire a definition for the item, “full of pep”, was placed in brackets after the term, because some of the English speaking students in the focus group did not understand the meaning of the term.

7.10 The final study

Permission was obtained from the subject head of Business Management 142 to conduct the study in class time and the first fifteen minutes of the six periods on a Monday were set aside for the study. Questionnaires were administered in class time on a Monday over three one-hour-long class periods. Six class groups, two per period in four different venues, filled in Section A, viewed the stimulus and filled in Section B as shown by Table 7-5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class period</th>
<th>Fear appeal</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Venue</th>
<th>Fieldworker</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Venue</th>
<th>Fieldworker</th>
<th>Total sample size (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>08:00</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Lecturer A</td>
<td>Venue 1</td>
<td>Researcher</td>
<td>Lecturer B</td>
<td>Venue 2</td>
<td>Fieldworker 1</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:00</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Lecturer A</td>
<td>Venue 3</td>
<td>Fieldworker 2</td>
<td>Lecturer B</td>
<td>Venue 4</td>
<td>Researcher</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:00</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Lecturer A</td>
<td>Venue 1</td>
<td>Researcher</td>
<td>Lecturer C</td>
<td>Venue 2</td>
<td>Fieldworker 1</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two fieldworkers assisted the researcher in conducting the study. Fieldworker one is an administrative assistant who works at the Department of Business Management and fieldworker two is a fellow second year lecturer.
Both fieldworkers were given a CD containing four advertisements. The low fear appeal advertisement was named Ad1 and was played in the 8 o’clock classes, Ad2, the medium fear appeal advertisement was viewed by the 9 o’clock classes and the ten o’clock classes viewed the high fear appeal advertisement, named Ad3. The CD also contained a fourth advertisement called the TestAd. The test advertisement was a Huggies advertisement for baby nappies used to test the multimedia in each venue without having to use one of the experimental stimuli. The fieldworkers were given a page containing instructions on how to conduct the study and were briefed by the researcher before the final study. The page containing the instructions can be seen in Addendum F. The fieldworkers were requested to be at the class at least five minutes before the class started and to use the test advertisement to pre-test the multimedia facilities of the venue.

Students were told that the researcher was engaged in a study on advertising and that they could help by participating in the study. If they agreed they would have to fill in Section A of a questionnaire, view an advertisement and then fill in Section B of a questionnaire. Students who participated in the focus group of the pilot study were asked not to fill in the questionnaire. They were told that if they, however, did receive a questionnaire, they should not fill it in, but write at the top: “focus group”. Students were told that the study would take up about fifteen minutes of their time.

Participation in the study was voluntary and questionnaires were anonymous. Consent forms were handed out and students who agreed to take part in the study as described were asked to sign the form. The consent forms were handed in and the questionnaires were handed out. Before filling in Section A of the questionnaire, respondents were told that they would not be allowed to speak to one another or to discuss their answers with each other. At question one respondents wrote down their age and the rest of the questionnaire was filled in by respondents placing a cross in the appropriate block at each of the questions. Respondents were asked to ensure that they only made one cross at each question. Section A was filled in and after viewing the advertisement,
Section B was completed. Questionnaires were handed in and the respondents were thanked for their participation.

### 7.10.1 Extraneous variables

As the sample consisted of first year students, they have not received any lectures on advertising or marketing research methods (such as advertisement experiments) or fear appeals and, therefore, the study did not contain any bias from using a group of students that might have had marketing subjects in their study course.

Four different venues were used for the final study, using similar computers and projectors for multimedia presentations. The multimedia facilities of all the venues were checked on the Thursday preceding the Monday of the final study. Lighting and sound was checked and a document was drafted with specific instructions for the fieldworkers to ensure quality sound and appropriate lighting settings for screening the advertisement. The document can be seen in Addendum E. The researcher and fieldworkers conducted the study using the same document to give instructions to respondents to ensure that each experimental group received the same set of instructions. This document can be seen in Addendum F. Respondents remained in the lecture room for the full time period of the study and were not allowed to discuss their reactions with each other or talk to one another during the study.

### 7.10.1.1 Internal validity

To increase the internal validity, respondents were requested to fill in Section B immediately after viewing the advertisement based on their feelings at that time to ensure that the experiment measured arousals, attitude and behavioural intention accredited to the advertisement. Respondents were not allowed to speak to one another as to not influence each other’s answers. Participants that took part in the pilot study were asked not to fill in questionnaires, to avoid testing effects. Testing effects arise when the same test or questionnaire is given to the same respondent (Zikmund, 2003:286). These effects include drawing attention to experimental conditions or increasing awareness of socially approved answers. Therefore pilot study
respondents were not allowed to take part in the final study (Zikmund, 2003:286).

7.10.1.2 External validity
Using students as the population has advantages and disadvantages in terms of external validity. The advantage of using students for this study was that they fall into the age group that is a specific target age group for anti-drunken driving campaigns in South Africa. External validity may be limited, however, by using a convenience sample. It is conceivable that the sample may not necessarily be a demographic representative of young adults in South Africa, for example, in terms of race. By using university students as the population, the education level may well also be higher than the mean for South African young adults.

7.10.1.3 Reliability
Three summed scales were used to measure constructs of the proposed model, namely tension arousal, energy arousal and attitude towards the advertisement. Reliability of these scales was confirmed in previous studies (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:384; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:51; Henthorne et al., 1993). To confirm the reliability of the scales, the internal consistency reliability was tested by Cronbach’s Alpha test and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Please see section 8.3.3.2 in chapter eight for the relevant details of the results.

7.10.2 Data analysis
Data for the pilot study were manually captured in Excel and statistically analysed by the researcher. Completed questionnaires for the final study were optically scanned by the Centre of Learning and Development of the University of Stellenbosch and captured on Excel spreadsheets. Eight respondents indicated at the top of their questionnaires that they participated in the focus groups and these questionnaires were consequently not scanned. Two questionnaires were scanned but not used, because the respondent number for section A and B did not match. Two questionnaires only had a section B filled in, but no completed section A. A statistician statistically analysed the data from the 753 useable questionnaires in STATISTICA using N-way ANOVA analyses. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was done in
LISREL to determine the relationships between the constructs of the proposed model. Please refer to chapter eight for the final results of both the pilot and final study.

7.11 Ethical considerations
An application to use students at the University of Stellenbosch as respondents was referred to the university's Ethics Committee in April 2007. The application to conduct the relevant research was approved in principle by this committee on 10 August 2007. A consent form was drafted according to the Ethics Committee’s template (See Addendum G) which each student that took part in the study was asked to sign as proof of consent to participate voluntarily in the study. Moreover, participation in the study was strictly anonymous.

Ethics regarding lecturers involved with research on students were also covered. The researcher and fieldworkers who coordinated the empirical study are not involved academically with the first year students. Although both the researcher and fieldworker two are lecturers at the university, they do not lecture any first year courses. Fieldworker one is an administrative assistant at the Department of Business Management and does not interact with students as part of his daily work. Students thus felt free to give their voluntary consent to participate by signing the consent forms as they were not familiar with the person conducting the research in each of the relevant classes.

7.12 Conclusion
This chapter described the particulars of the methodology of the research performed in the empirical study. It explained how the research was conducted in two phases during a pilot and final study. Extraneous variables and ethical considerations were taken into account. The pilot study showed that one of the advertisement stimuli was seen as employing a humour appeal and not a fear appeal. Some of the advertisement stimuli were found not to appeal to the target audience of this study. A total of 753 questionnaires from the final study were useable for statistical analysis. Significant differences between groups exposed to the low, medium and high fear appeal advertisement
stimuli were found. The results of the two phases will be described in detail in chapter eight.
Chapter 8

Results of the pilot and final studies

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results from the qualitative research of the pilot study and the quantitative research done in the final study. The profile of the pilot study sample is described and results from the mean analyses of the pilot questionnaire are presented. The responses of the focus group to the advertisement stimuli are summarised.

The results of the final study are presented after the questionnaires were statistically analysed. Firstly, a preliminary analysis was conducted. This included describing the demographic profile of the sample and a comparison of the profiles of the three experimental groups. An overview of the evaluation of the reliability of the summed scales used in the study is presented. Secondly, the results for the proposed model for all three experimental groups and the findings for the other hypotheses are presented. Finally, a few additional findings not pertaining to the hypotheses and model are mentioned.

8.2 Findings from the pilot study

The pilot study was conducted in two stages. Stage one consisted of a focus group discussion with the researcher (acting as the moderator) leading discussions on three topics: Drinking behaviour, drunken driving and anti-drunken driving campaigns. Please refer to the discussion guide, Addendum D, for more detail. Stage two consisted of the presentation of nine fear appeal advertisement stimuli to the group as selected by the expert group (as described in chapter seven) and the filling in of the pilot questionnaire. A description of each of the nine advertisement stimuli is presented in Addendum J. The group discussed each advertisement randomly and rated them on a scale from one to ten in terms of “shocking” and “scariness”. The
data for the pilot questionnaires will be discussed and then the qualitative data gathered in the pilot study will be reviewed.

**8.2.1 Pilot questionnaire results**
Data for the pilot questionnaires was captured manually in MSExcel and cross-checked for correct input. The data was then transferred to SPSS for descriptive statistical analysis. Please refer to Addendum C for the pilot questionnaire.

**8.2.2 Missing responses**
Thirteen missing responses were found when the data was captured on the Excel spreadsheet. The missing values were replaced by substituting a neutral value in its place: in this case the mean response for an item was used (Malholtra, 2004:410). This was done in order to do a means analysis of the pilot questionnaire items to guide the selection of the three advertisement stimuli for the final study.

One respondent left out the first question of Section B (“Have you seen this advertisement before?”) for all nine advertisement stimuli. It is probable that the respondent misread this question because of the questionnaire’s format or was trying to fill in the questionnaire as fast as possible and did not bother to fill it in.

**8.2.3 Profile of the respondents**
A total number of 13 (n=13) respondents attended the focus group. The frequency table below summarises the demographic profile of the focus group respondents. As indicated by Table 8-1 the average respondent is 19 years old, Afrikaans speaking, does not own a motor vehicle and drinks alcohol.
The age of the respondents varied between 19 and 22 years of age with 77 % being 19 years of age. This could be expected considering the sample consisted out of first year students. Gender is slightly unequally distributed for females (61.5 %) and males (38.5 %). This is in line with statistics of all the undergraduate students at the University of Stellenbosch which shows that 52.4 % are female 47.6 % are male (University of Stellenbosch, 2007). The predominant race of respondents is white (61.5 %) followed by coloured (38.5 %). Once again this is in line with the statistical profile of the undergraduate students’ profile which shows that 77.2 % of undergraduate students enrolled

### Table 8-1: Demographic profile of the pilot study sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample (n=13)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>76.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>61.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>61.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home language</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>76.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Own a driver’s license</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Own a motor vehicle</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Often drive</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>61.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Drink alcohol</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
for 2007 are white and 15.8 % are coloured (University of Stellenbosch, 2007). The home language of most of the respondents is Afrikaans (76.9 %). The statistical profile of students at the University of Stellenbosch shows that 57.1 % of students are Afrikaans speaking (University of Stellenbosch, 2007).

Owning of a driver’s license was distributed evenly with 53.8 % of respondents owning a license. Only 30.8 % of respondents owned a motor vehicle. The majority of the respondents seldom drive (84.6 %), some never drive (23.1 %) and few often drive (15.4 %). All of the respondents indicated that they drink alcohol (100 %).

8.2.3.1 Drinking and driving behaviour

The drinking behaviour of the respondents is summarised in Table 8-2. There is an equal amount of respondents that drink alcoholic drinks once per month (38.5 %) and once per week (38.5 %). The majority of the respondents drink alcoholic drinks once per week or more (61.6 %). Most respondents have three to four drinks on an occasion (61.5 %). Almost half of the respondents indicated that they engaged in binge drinking (got drunk) once during the past year (46.2 %) and 23.1 % engaged in binge drinking once a month.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8-2: Drinking behaviour of the pilot study respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SAMPLE (n=13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Times in a month drink alcohol</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once per month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once per week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - 3 times a week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Drinks on an occasion</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Binge drinking in the past year</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once per year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a month</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A multi-response table, Table 8-3, indicates that respondents who drink alcoholic drinks two to three times a week drink three or more drinks on an occasion and binge drink once a month or a year. One respondent indicated that he/she drinks once per month, drinks more than 8 drinks on an occasion and binge drink once a month.

Table 8-3: Multi-response table of drinking behaviour of pilot study respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Times in month consume alcohol</th>
<th>Drinks on an occasion</th>
<th>Binge drinking in the past year</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Once per month</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>Once per year</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 8</td>
<td>Once a month</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once per week</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>Once per year</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>Once a month</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - 3 times a week</td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>Once per year</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 8</td>
<td>Once a month</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2.3.2 Fear arousal, attitude towards the advertisement and intention

Five items measured energy arousal as indicated in Table 8-4. Advertisement two (“Kelly Ripa”) consistently scored the lowest mean score for energy arousal. Advertisement eight (“Soccer boy”) had the highest mean score for energy arousal, except for one item (“full of pep”) for which advertisement four (“Blender”) scored the highest. A reason for “Blender” showing the highest mean for this item might be respondents misunderstanding the words “full of pep”. One English-speaking respondent asked the meaning of the words, “full of pep”, while filling in the pilot questionnaire.

Tension arousal was measured by four items which may be seen in Table 8-4. Please refer to Addendum C for the pilot questionnaire. Advertisement
one (“Spillover”) had the lowest mean for all four items. Advertisement eight (“Soccer boy”) had the highest mean for three of the four items that measured tension arousal. Advertisement nine (“Girl portrait”) had the highest mean for one item (“tense”).

For the five items measuring attitude towards the advertisement, advertisement two (“Kelly Ripa”) had the highest frequency of lowest mean scores (3 out of 5) for attitude. Please refer to Table 8-4. Advertisement eight (“Soccer boy”) and advertisement nine (“Girl portrait”) equally had the highest frequency of highest mean scores (3 out of 5) for attitude. Advertisement four (“Blender”) had the second highest frequency (2 out of 5) for the highest mean score.

The second item for intention to not drive drunk (“After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future”) used a reverse scale. Two items were used to measure intention as indicated in Table 8-4. Advertisement one (“Spillover”) had the lowest mean for intention to change one’s drinking behaviour in the future. The highest mean for changing one’s drinking behaviour in the future was equal for advertisement eight (“Soccer boy”) and advertisement nine (“Girl portrait”). Advertisement four (“Blender”) had the lowest mean for intention to drink and drive in the future. The highest mean score was equal for advertisement six (“Morgue”) and advertisement nine (“Girl portrait”).
## Table 8-4: Pilot questionnaire means analysis

### Energy Arousal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ad 1 Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Ad 2 Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Ad 3 Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Ad 4 Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Ad 5 Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Ad 6 Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Ad 7 Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Ad 8 Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Ad 9 Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACTIVE</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENERGETIC</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>24</td>
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### Tension Arousal

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**KEY:**

- LOWEST SCORE
- HIGHEST SCORE
Table 8-4: Pilot questionnaire means analysis (continued)

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### Intention to engage in drunken driving

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<th>Mean</th>
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**KEY:** LOWEST SCORE | HIGHEST SCORE
8.2.4 Stage one: Group discussion

The focus group was led by the researcher who acted as the moderator for the purpose of this thesis. Field worker two acted as co-moderator. The group discussion was recorded on an audio voice recorder and transcribed. The transcript of the focus group discussion is presented in Addendum H. The transcript was encoded in ATLAS.ti. Please see Addendum I for the codebook used. The results from ATLAS.ti are categorised into three topics: Drinking behaviour, drunken driving and anti-drunken driving campaigns. Responses of the respondents for each of the three sections will be discussed shortly.

8.2.4.1 Drinking behaviour

All the respondents indicated that they consume alcoholic drinks. Responses to how often respondents consume alcohol ranged from once a month to two or three times a week. How often they drink depends on respondents’ test schedule. Some respondents indicated that they do not drink during the week, but only on weekends. Most respondents agreed that they mainly consume alcohol on weekends.

In terms of the quantity of alcohol consumed, respondents showed a tendency to base the amount of alcohol consumed on their emotions. Typical responses included: “Till I feel it”, “Until I swing!”, “I drink until my knees feel weak” and “Until I feel good”. A number of factors seem to play a role in how respondents determine the amount they consume:

- The type of alcoholic drink
- Whether one has eaten beforehand
- Amount of money one has to spend
- The occasion (“Something chilled, then I’d have like two. Something rough: like maybe three or four”)
- The number of places visited on a night (“if you move around to different places, I’d have one drink at each place…”)

Respondents consume a variety of alcoholic drinks: whisky, brandy, rum, wine, gin, beer, ciders (e.g. Hunter’s Gold), coolers (e.g. Archers), shots and cocktails. The type of alcoholic drinks respondents consume depends on:
• The specials (at the place where alcohol is consumed, e.g. at a club)
• What their friends buy
• The weather (“If it is cold, you won’t drink something cold, but rather have something that warms you up”)
• The place where alcohol is consumed (“Like, my friends and I get together and then they will buy: Whiskey, brandy and beer. We mix our drinks. But say we go to a club then I’ll buy a cider or a beer”)

Most respondents drink alcohol with their friends. The typical place where respondents consume alcohol is at get-togethers like a barbeque at someone’s house or in a club. Some get together at houses and consume alcohol before they go to clubs. Another typical situation in which respondents would consume alcohol is at parties or special occasions.

Respondents had different definitions of drunkenness (“Everyone has their own personal definition”). Although respondents agreed that there is a point of irresponsibility, none of them attempted to define the “point of irresponsibility”. Some thought that drunkenness means having no control over oneself. Not remembering one’s actions or not acting as one would do normally was given as definitions of drunkenness. Several respondents consume alcohol to feel tipsy and enjoy themselves (“What is your reason for drinking if you do not get tipsy?”).

Reasons to binge-drink (get drunk) included relieving depression after writing a test, one’s birthday (“because you know your friends will then take you under their wings”), for the fun of it, if one’s friends are drunk, or if one lives in a small town or community where there is nothing else to do. A few of the respondents indicated that they do not like to get drunk and drink with the purpose in mind to not get drunk. Others felt that it is “nice to get drunk once in a while” and that the only reason for drinking is to get drunk. One respondent mentioned that one can not decide beforehand whether one will get drunk, but that it is something that just happens.

8.2.4.2 Drunken driving
Firstly, quite a few respondents said that they do not often drive in Stellenbosch as all the places they go to are within walking distance. Respondents that do not have driver’s licenses denied driving without a license, except for if they drive around their
neighbourhood at home. Several respondents indicated that they would drive after having one drink (“if you have to go buy something at BP quickly”). Respondents will get a lift with a responsible person when drinking, but if they have to drive after having several drinks they will. One reason is that they have no other option as there is no one to drive them home.

A question from the moderator on whether any of the respondents drive drunk was met with resistance (“half of the people here are not going to give you an answer”). One respondent mentioned that she rode with drunken people and they made a car accident. It could be that the focus group regarded drunken driving as a sensitive topic and was unwilling to admit in public or in front of the moderators that they drive drunk. Respondents had no problem answering the question of whether any of their friends ever drive drunk.

When prompted whether their friends drive drunk, respondents replied that many do (“Most of them do”; “I know of several”; “Almost everyone”; “Many”; and “Some students just don’t worry”). Respondents felt that if they have to get a lift with a drunken driver they will. One respondent indicated that she would never ride with a drunken driver. Respondents also mentioned sleeping off drunkenness before driving. One reason for driving with a drunken driver was that the drunken driver refuses to let anyone else drive his car.

Respondents had difficulty to describe the legal limit of alcohol in one’s blood when one drive:

- “Something like 0., 0.5, 0.5 something”
- “A glass of red wine”
- “If you can handle an accident situation in the same manner you would have if you had nothing to drink”
- “A few beers, but I don’t drink beer”
- “About two or three glasses. MODERATOR: Two or three glasses of what?
  Respondent: rum”
- “As long as I feel fine and can still drive”
- “Two glasses of wine”
- “I would say drink nothing”
Drunken driving was thought to be a problem in Stellenbosch, but respondents felt that the police do not do anything about it. Two respondents mentioned how drunken friends were pulled off for road trespasses but were not tested for their blood-alcohol level. One respondent knew someone who was involved in a drunken driving road accident the day before the focus group was held. Another respondent witnessed a drunken driving accident of two cars colliding. Respondents thus had experience with drunken driving, but felt that the police will have to be doubled to solve the problem. It was thought that people do not take drunken driving seriously and that something bad must happen before people will realise that it is a problem: “People will only start to wake up to the problem, say, if a few students die”. There was also concern for pedestrians that is in danger of being hit by a drunken driver when walking in Stellenbosch in the evenings.

8.2.4.3 Anti-drunken driving campaigns

Respondents felt that they are exposed to little “do not drink and drive”-messages. Some mentioned that they do not watch television. Respondents pointed out that there are no billboards or advertisements in the student center or on campus that demote drunken driving.

When asked to recall anti-drunken driving television advertisements respondents named the “Good idea, Bad idea”-campaign but did not know who the advertiser of the campaign is. The “Good idea, Bad idea”-campaign is developed by ARA and do not address drunken driving, but underage drinking (ARA, 2006). Respondents commended the campaign and felt that the situations in the campaign are situations that happen in real life.

Respondents also referred to the advertisements with the “lines” and the words “uncool”, but had “no idea” about the advertiser of the message. SAB is the sponsor of the “Draw the line”-campaign of which one of the advertisements (“Inmate”) of the campaign is devoted to drunken driving (SA Breweries, 2006). One respondent wrongly thought ArriveAlive was the advertiser of the campaign and another respondent thought it was the government.
An ArriveAlive advertisement was described by respondents (“There is one similar, it is also ArriveAlive, but it is this man that was talking and he’s going like this (make hard-to-breathe noise)...”). The ArriveAlive advertisement, “Warren”, was mentioned in chapter five. One respondent referred to an advertisement by “E.R.” depicting people who lie bleeding between ambulances after a road accident. The “E.R.” advertisement is promoting ER24 Emergency Medical Care and does not address drunken driving behaviour.

Respondents were questioned on their thoughts about the characteristics that anti-drunken driving advertisements should have in order to influence young adults between the ages of 18 and 24 years of age to not drink and drive. Several suggestions were made:

- It should be realistic
- A typical situation involving people their age group should be depicted
- People involved in alcohol-related road accidents should deliver testimonials
- It must draw attention
- Visuals must be used
- It should be short
- It should be memorable if one sees it for the first time
- Should shock a person (e.g. “It must draw his attention, and make him go the bathroom afterwards to throw up”)
- Sound effects should be used

It was thought that using celebrities in advertisements might work for teenagers. The “Good idea, Bad idea”-campaign was referred to as an example of what might work for their age as the target audience. The government’s anti-piracy advertisements that screen at cinemas and on DVD’s were thought to be effective in changing thought patterns about behaviour. Use of a humour appeal was thought not to be appropriate for anti-drunken driving advertisements because “one does not joke about death”.

151
8.2.5 Stage two: Reaction to television advertisements

The moderator led the focus group to comment on each of the advertisement stimuli that they were exposed to. The discussion was guided to include all nine advertisements in a random fashion. The reader is referred to Addendum J for a description of each of the advertisement stimuli. Part of the group discussion was to rate the advertisements on a scale of one to ten (of being “scary/shocking”) on the black board. This was done to determine the group’s opinion on the level of fear appeal employed in each advertisement.

8.2.5.1 Rating of the advertisements

Respondents were asked to rate each of the nine advertisements as a group on a scale from one to ten (one = “not scary/shocking”; ten = “scary/shocking”). Table 8-5 compares the focus group respondents’ rating of fear level with the group of experts’ rating. A significant difference between the ratings of the two groups can be seen for advertisement seven (from this point onward in this thesis referred to as “Family”). One reason for this could be that the advertisement did arouse fear, but was blocked out by focus group respondents as they felt this advertisement was not targeted at them. Respondents felt that “Family” is an advertisement targeted at an audience that have children and is not targeted at their age group. Please refer to section 8.2.5.2 for more detail.

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<th>Group of experts' rating</th>
<th>Focus group rating</th>
<th>Extra comments</th>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Kelly Ripa</td>
<td>Low</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Spillover</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>would have given 8 if scale was 1 - 10 i.t.o. how good advertisement is</td>
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<td>7</td>
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</tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Baby</td>
<td>Medium</td>
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<td>3 differed from group that Baby&lt; Morgue</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Morgue</td>
<td>Medium</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Soccer boy</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Girl portrait</td>
<td>High</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
It must be pointed out that advertisement six (from this point onward in this thesis referred to as "Morgue") was rated by the experts as a medium level fear appeal, but the focus group allocated a fairly high score (eight) to it on the scale. The focus group respondents found it difficult to reach consensus on advertisement five (from this point onward in this thesis referred to as “Baby”). It seems that this was mostly due to some respondents feeling that the advertisement is not relevant to them (“It is very distressing for me if a child of that age weeps, but it won’t be the same for everyone”). Apart from “Family” and “Morgue” the rating for both the expert and focus group remained similar. Respondents mentioned that if the scale was one to ten for how “good” the advertisement is, they would have allocated an eight to advertisement four (from this point onward in this thesis referred to as “Blender”).

8.2.5.2 The nine advertisement stimuli

The moderator asked respondents to give their opinion and comment on the advertisements individually. Reactions from respondents on each of the nine advertisements were coded in ATLAS.ti. See Addendum I for the codes-quotation list.

Advertisement two (from this point onward referred to as “Kelly Ripa”) was rated the lowest in terms of fear appeal level on the scale by the group. The five responses that were coded for “Kelly Ripa” (Figure 8-1) indicated that the first problem for respondents was the fact that it was not a South African advertisement. Respondents also had trouble associating the actress, Kelly Ripa, which plays in a comedy series to the serious message of drunken driving (“I don’t know whether she is the best choice, because she acts in a comedy series”).

One respondent mentioned that he/she does not identify with celebrities. Respondents were unsure whether the accident described in the advertisement actually took place and felt that it would have been better to let the surviving victim deliver the testimonial.
The second lowest rated advertisement on the scale (in terms of scariness), advertisement one (from this point onward in this thesis referred to as “Spillover”), received five responses from the focus group. Most respondents felt that the advertisement was too funny to be taken serious (“It’s funny; Too much humour; It is as if it’s fun to drink; Fish tanks!”).

Responses to advertisement three (from this point onward in this thesis referred to as “SAB”) indicated that respondents thought the advertisement to not have enough impact (“Good word play, but it does not have the impact”). Reasons given for the advertisement having little impact was that a jail situation was not explicitly portrayed.

Thirteen direct responses to “Baby” were coded as indicated in Figure 8-2. Reactions were mixed and while some respondents felt the advertisement to be shocking (“that last scream penetrated my skull”), other respondents thought the advertisement to be “average”. Respondents mentioned that too little information was given and that one might think that the baby is crying out of discomfort. It was also mentioned that a person might not think that the advertisement is about drunken driving if one happens to walk by a television set and catch a glimpse of the advertisement.
The difference in responses to “Baby” might be due to the fact that some of the respondents did not feel that they fall within the target audience of the advertisement (“It is very distressing for me if a child of that age weeps, but it won’t be the same for everyone”). One respondent said that the advertisement might not work on young adults between the ages of 18 and 24 because it is not relevant (“No, because we don’t have children”).

Respondents were impressed by advertisement four (from this point onwards in this thesis referred to as “Blender”) (“Wow”, “Excellent!”, “It was really good!”). While most respondents did not think the advertisement to be very scary, some thought the advertisement to be “gross” (“It makes me queasy”). Despite of this respondents thought that people will still watch it (“but you still want to watch it because it is good”). Responses showed that the advertisement was thought to be creative and to depict everyday situations (“This is something that can happen every second”).
Some respondents did not think the advertisement would be effective in making people stop engaging in drunken driving. The reason given was that two other advertisements, “Soccer boy” and “Girl portrait”, would be more effective.

Overall, respondents thought that the creative idea of advertisement eight (from this point onwards in this thesis referred to as “Soccer boy”) was “very good” although some felt that the car accident looks unrealistic. Some indicated that the advertisement was “too much”. One respondent mentioned this advertisement when asked by the moderator if any of the advertisements were “too scary”. Another respondent, however, thought the advertisement to be the “best one” of all the advertisements seen.

“Family” was not thought to be “good” and did not have an impact on the respondents (“I did not like this advertisement at all”). Respondents felt the advertisement to be aimed at older people that have their own family. It was however perceived as scary (“It was scary, but it wasn’t good’).

Little comment was made about “Morgue”. Respondents indicated that the advertisement was “good” and was not “overdone”.

“Girl portrait” was seen as a “scary” advertisement and references were made to the girl’s hands as being especially scary. The advertisement was rated 0.5 points higher on the scale than “Soccer boy” because “unlike the car, this is real”. It was felt that the advertisement should show the actual road accident taking place. Some of the respondents indicated that they did not know whether it is based on a true story and if the girl’s face really is disfigured or whether she wore make up for the advertisement.

8.2.6 Selecting the three final advertisement stimuli

The three final advertisement stimuli (for the categories low, medium and high level of fear appeal) were selected after taking into consideration data from the pilot questionnaire and qualitative data from the focus group. The following three advertisements were selected for each category by the researcher and co-researcher:
“SAB” was chosen for the low category. Two other advertisements that were rated low by both the experts and the focus group were discredited based on respondents’ opinions. It became clear that “Spillover” was seen by respondents as having a humour appeal and not a fear appeal. “Kelly Ripa” is an American advertisement and although respondents were told to not look at country of origin, respondents were unable to relate to the American celebrity. Tension arousal for “SAB” as measured by the pilot questionnaire was lower than all the other advertisements (except for “Spillover”).

In the medium category, “Blender” was selected as the focus group rating for the advertisement was moderate (5.5). In terms of tension arousal the summed score was a moderate 181 (out of a total of 260).

Although “Soccer boy” scored the second highest rating on the focus group’s rating scale, the advertisement was selected for the high category because tension arousal was consistently the highest as indicated by Table 8-4.

### 8.3 Results from the final study

At the end of the final study 765 completed questionnaires were handed in by respondents. Eight of the respondents indicated at the top of their questionnaires that they participated in the pilot study. Two questionnaires only had a section B and no section A. Two other questionnaires were discarded on the basis that the respondent number for section A and section B did not match up after optical scanning. After discarding these questionnaires, 753 questionnaires were found to be useable for statistical analysis. The total sample for the final study thus consisted out of 753 respondents. The sample sizes for the three experimental groups were 218, 332 and 203, respectively as indicated in Table 8-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Advertisement order as presented to the focus group</th>
<th>Experts’ rating</th>
<th>Focus group rating</th>
<th>Advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Advertisement 3</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>“SAB”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Advertisement 4</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>“Blender”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Advertisement 8</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>“Soccer boy”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8-7: Sample sizes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of fear appeal stimuli</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of total respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total sample</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.1 Profile of the respondents

8.3.1.1 Profile of the total sample

The demographic composition for the total sample is indicated in Table 8-8. The age of the average respondent was 19 years old (n = 751; STD = 0.91). Gender was almost equally distributed for the sample with slightly more females (53 %) than males (47 %) (n=752). The average respondent in the sample was white (n=743) and Afrikaans speaking (n= 752).

Table 8-8: Demographic profile of the total sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SAMPLE (n=753)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>20.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>626</td>
<td>62.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>704</td>
<td>10.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>730</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>746</td>
<td>2.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>749</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>751</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>47.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>752</td>
<td>52.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>84.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>721</td>
<td>12.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>743</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>68.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>25.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xhosa</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>711</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other non SA language</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>721</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other SA language</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>728</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans/English</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>752</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Other personal information gathered by the questionnaire is summarised in Table 8-9. From the personal information it is clear that the average respondent owns a driver’s license, often drives a motor vehicle and consumes alcohol. Seventy four percent of respondents owned a driver’s license (n=753) and more than half of the respondents did not own a motor vehicle (56 %; n=743). Sixty percent, however, indicated that they drive a motor vehicle often (n=750). Eighty eight percent indicated that they drink alcohol (n=751).

### Table 8-9: Other personal information of the total sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SAMPLE (n=753)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Own a driver’s license</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>73.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>26.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own a motor vehicle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>44.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>743</td>
<td>55.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive often</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>10.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>29.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>60.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink alcohol</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>664</td>
<td>664</td>
<td>88.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>751</td>
<td>11.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 8.3.1.2 Drinking and driving behaviour of the total sample

In order to put the final results in perspective the questionnaire included questions to estimate drinking and drunken driving behaviour prior to being exposed to the experimental stimuli.

The questionnaire contained three questions pertaining to drinking behaviour and responses to these questions are indicated in Table 8-10. As was shown in Table 8-9 12 % (or 87 respondents) indicated that they abstain from alcohol. Although the questionnaire instructed respondents to not fill in the section consisting of three questions regarding drinking behaviour if they abstain, some students filled out the first question (“How many times do you consume alcohol in a month?”) by ticking the
“Not once” option. Thus, if a respondent indicated that they abstain from alcohol a code of “1” (“Not once”) was entered for the first question (“How many times in a month do you drink alcohol?”).

Table 8-10: Drinking behaviour of the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SAMPLE (n=753)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Cumulative Count</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many times consume alcohol in a month</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not once</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>12.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once per month</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>17.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once per week</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>42.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3 times per week</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>727</td>
<td>23.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 3 time per week</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>747</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Every day</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinks per occasion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>27.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>39.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-8</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>22.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More that 8</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>670</td>
<td>9.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binge drink (got drunk) in the past year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>25.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>27.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a month</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>30.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a week</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>11.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than once a week</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>684</td>
<td>4.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thirteen percent of the sample indicated that they do consume alcohol once in a month (non-drinkers included). Forty three percent of the sample consumes alcohol once a week and 23 % of respondents indicated that they consume alcohol two to three times a week (n=753). Thus, 27 % of the sample consumes alcohol two or more times a week, while 70 % drinks alcohol once a week or more. Six respondents indicated that they consume alcohol every day (0.8 %).

Most alcohol drinkers consume three to four drinks on the occasion that they consume alcoholic drinks (40 %) (n=670). Thirty two percent of alcohol drinkers drink five or more drinks per occasion. Most respondents who drink alcohol indicated that they engaged in binge drinking (got drunk) once every month during the past year (31 %) (n=684). Twelve percent of respondents got drunk every week and 5 % got drunk more than once a week.
Drunken driving behaviour of the sample group was determined by five items measured on a three-point scale (“never”, “sometimes” and “often”). Respondents were asked how often they experience five situations:

- Driving after having one alcoholic drink
- Driving after having several alcoholic drinks
- Driving while drunk
- Being a passenger in a motor vehicle with a drunken driver
- Being arrested for drunken driving

Table 8-11: Drunken driving behaviour of the total sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SAMPLE (n=753)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drive after having one alcoholic drink</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>36.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>44.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>19.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive after having several alcoholic drinks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>62.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>702</td>
<td>31.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>740</td>
<td>5.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive while drunk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>83.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>15.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passenger in motor vehicle with a drunken driver</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>39.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>684</td>
<td>53.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>7.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Been arrested for drunken driving</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>99.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>737</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responses to the five items are indicated in Table 8-11. Nineteen percent of respondents often drive a motor vehicle after having one alcoholic drink, while 44 % sometimes drive after having one drink (n=739). A significant percentage sometimes drive after having several drinks (32 %) and 5 % often drive after having several drinks (n=740). Fifteen percent of respondents sometimes drive while drunk with only 2 % often engaging in drunken driving. Over half of the respondents sometimes are passengers in a motor vehicle with a drunken driver (53 %) and 7 % experience
this situation often (n=739). Five respondents (1%) indicated that they sometimes are arrested for drunken driving.

8.3.1.3 Perceptions about drunken driving
The last question in section A of the questionnaire tested perceptions of respondents on drunken driving. Respondents had to indicate on a Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “agree strongly” whether they thought drunken driving is a problem in Stellenbosch and whether drunken driving is dangerous. These two items were discarded and therefore not statistically analysed. The third item of the scale was labeled “I don’t know” on the questionnaire and this does not imply a neutral value that the third item on a Likert scale is suppose to imply. The label should have read: “Neither agree nor disagree” (Malholtra, 2004:258). Having a neutral perception and not knowing the answer to the question can be regarded as two separate measurements.

8.3.2 Profiles of the sample groups

8.3.2.1 Profiles of the three experimental groups
Table 8-12 presents the demographic profile per experimental group. There was slightly more 18 year olds in group one (25%) than in the other two experimental groups (18% and 19%). Group one also had a higher percentage of coloured respondents (17%; n=197) than the other two groups (10% and 11%). Group two had more Afrikaans speaking respondents (75%; n=331) and group three had more English speaking respondents than the other groups (33%; n=218).
### Table 8-12: Demographic profile of the three experimental groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GROUP 1 (n=203)</th>
<th></th>
<th>GROUP 2 (n=332)</th>
<th></th>
<th>GROUP 3 (n=218)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>24.63</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>18.18</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>18.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>60.59</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>64.55</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>62.39</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>10.34</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.01</td>
</tr>
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<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>43.35</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>49.24</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>48.62</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>56.65</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>50.76</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>51.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>78.17</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>86.89</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>87.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>17.26</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.37</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home language</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>64.53</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>75.23</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>61.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>27.09</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>19.03</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>33.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xhosa</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other non SA</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other SA language</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans/English</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other personal information per experimental group are presented in Table 8-13.

Slightly more respondents in group three owns driver's licenses (78 %; n=218) than in the other groups (70 % and 73 %). A lower percentage of respondents in group three owned motor vehicles (48 %; n=218) than in group one and two (60 % and 58 %). Respondents in group three, however, drive a motor vehicle more often (67 %) than the other two groups (55 % and 59 %). The number of respondents that drive seldom and often (671 in total) exceeded the number of respondents who indicated that they own driver's licenses in all three groups (554 in total). This indicates that there are a significant amount of respondents that drive without a driver's license.
Table 8-13: Other personal information per experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GROUP 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>GROUP 2</th>
<th></th>
<th>GROUP 3</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driver's license</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>69.95</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>72.89</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>77.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
<td>30.05</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>27.11</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>22.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own a motor vehicle</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>40.20</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>41.95</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>51.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>119</td>
<td>59.80</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>58.05</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>48.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive often</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14.36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9.67</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>30.69</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>31.72</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>24.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>111</td>
<td>54.95</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>58.61</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>66.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink alcohol</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>86.21</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>88.55</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>90.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13.79</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11.45</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.3 Preliminary analyses

Preliminary analyses were done in order to compare the profiles of the experimental groups to detect any statistically significant differences and confirm that randomisation was successful (Malholtra, 2004:212). This was done through ANOVA-analyses and cross-tabulations. An evaluation of the reliability of the summed scales used to measure the constructs of the proposed model was done through Cronbach's Alpha tests and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

8.3.3.1 Experimental group profile analysis

An ANOVA-analysis for age of the three experimental groups indicated that group three had a slightly lower mean (mean = 18.94 years of age) than the other two groups (both means = 19.11 years of age) although not statistically significant (p=0.07) as indicated in Figure 8-3.
Cross-tabulations showed no statistical significant differences between gender and race of respondents across the three experimental groups. The only significant chi-square test for demographics at the 0.05 p-value level was home language (p<0.01) as indicated by Figure 8-4. Group two had more Afrikaans-speaking respondents than the other two experimental groups.

Figure 8-4: Cross-tabulations for home language across the three groups
Other personal information such as the owning of a driver’s license, owning of a motor vehicle, how often one drives or if one drinks alcohol were also checked for any statistical significant differences. The only significant difference at 0.05 p-value level was found for the owning of a motor vehicle (p=0.03) as shown in Figure 8-5. Group one has more respondents who own motor vehicles (52 %) than the other two groups (42 % and 40 %).

**Figure 8-5: Cross-tabulations for the owning of a motor vehicle across the three experimental groups**

The only statistical significant differences that were found in terms of demography and other personal information between the three experimental groups were for home language and the owning of a motor vehicle. This could be expected with random assignment of the respondents to the experimental groups.

**8.3.3.2 Evaluation of summed scale measures**

Four summed scales were used to measure the constructs of the model, namely: tension arousal, energy arousal, attitude towards the advertisement and intention to engage in drunken driving. Internal reliability was measured for the summed scales with Cronbach’s Alpha tests.
The tension, energy and attitude scales were found internally reliable with the Alpha coefficients exceeding 0.7, the agreed upon lower limit for Cronbach’s Alpha (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998:118). Refer to Table 8-14 for the values of Cronbach’s Alpha for each summed scale. The lower limit of 0.7 is also the common benchmark used by previous marketing researchers in fear appeal research (LaTour & Tanner, 2003: 385).

The tension arousal, energy arousal and attitude scales were also supported by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Missing data was replaced with the mean score before conducting the confirmatory factor analysis (Malholtra, 2004:410). Diagonally Weighted Least Squares that are used for Likert scales were used for estimation.

Item reliability values exceeded the 0.5 desired level except for the item “full of pep” (0.28) for the energy arousal scale and the item “easy to understand” (0.24) for the attitude scale (Hair et al., 1998:612). These two items were not discarded as the t-values, Cronbach’s Alphas and goodness-of-fit indices deemed the summed scales reliable. The “informative”-item for the attitude scale was slightly less than the desirable level (0.46) but accepted.

The goodness-of-fit indices indicated a good fit. The Tucker-Lewis index (also known as the non-normed fit index (NNFI)) is above the recommended 0.9 level (NNFI=0.96) (Hair et al., 1998:657). The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA=0.074) falls into the acceptable range of 0.05 to 0.08 (Hair et al., 1998:656). Comparative Fit Index (CFI) values normally lie between 0 and 1 with larger values indicating higher levels of goodness-of-fit (Hair et al., 1998:657). The CFI value is 0.97 which is close to one.
Table 8-14: Cronbach’s Alpha and Confirmatory Factor Analysis of summed scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tension Arousal</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha=0.90</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Jittery (0.760)</td>
<td>(t=30.474) [0.577]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Clutched-up (0.849)</td>
<td>(t=46.578) [0.721]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Intense (0.849)</td>
<td>(t=39.462) [0.721]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Fearful (0.843)</td>
<td>(t=44.085) [0.711]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Tense (0.857)</td>
<td>(t=49.746) [0.735]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energy Arousal</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha=0.81</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Active (0.758)</td>
<td>(t=26.795) [0.574]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Energetic (0.815)</td>
<td>(t=33.686) [0.665]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Vigorous (0.820)</td>
<td>(t=26.815) [0.672]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Lively (0.800)</td>
<td>(t=28.711) [0.640]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Full of pep (0.572)</td>
<td>(t=12.550) [0.278]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude towards the advertisement</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha=0.79</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Easy to understand (0.488)</td>
<td>(t=10.327) [0.239]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Informative (0.681)</td>
<td>(t=19.670) [0.464]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Good (0.753)</td>
<td>(t=22.926) [0.567]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Interesting (0.745)</td>
<td>(t=23.878) [0.555]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Useful (0.886)</td>
<td>(t=35.130) [0.785]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit indices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.0741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.968</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"^a" = Confirmatory factor analysis coefficient
"^b" = Item reliability

As found in previous studies the energy arousal, tension arousal and attitude scales were supported by Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients, goodness-of-fit indices and for most items, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:385; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:52; Henthorne, LaTour & Natarajan, 1993:65).

8.3.3.3 Intention

Intention to engage in drunken driving was measured by two items (“After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in the future” and “After seeing
this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future”). Two items instead of one were used to overcome limitations of previous studies as explained in chapter seven. However, the two items were found to be unreliable in their measurement of intention. The summed scale had an extremely low Alpha of 0.12 (the closer to one, the more reliable). See Addendum K. Thus, the summed scale was discarded and only one item was used for the construct of intention in the proposed model. Other fear appeal studies involving activation theory also used one item to measure intention (LaTour & Tanner, 2003; Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996; Henthorne et al., 1993). The item (“After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future”) was not used to measure the construct of intention in the model as further analyses revealed no correlation between level of fear appeal and this item (p=0.23). Thus, intention for the model was measured with one item (“After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in the future”) and not a summed scale.

8.3.4 Results of tests of hypotheses and hypothesised model

8.3.4.1 The hypothesised model

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a technique that measures a set of dependence relationships simultaneously (Hair et al., 1998:578). The proposed model used for this study can also be referred to as a path diagram that depicts the relationships between the constructs of the model. Please refer to Figure 8-6 for the model or path diagram used in this study.
Figure 8-6: The proposed model or path diagram

Source: Adapted from Henthorne et al., 1993:61.

All the causal relationships are illustrated by arrows with the arrow head pointing to the dependent construct (Hair et al., 1998:582). Tension arousal (TA) is the only exogenous construct in the model and is not predicted by other constructs. All the other constructs are called endogenous constructs and have arrows pointing towards them, meaning that they are the outcome of at least one causal relationship.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was done in LISREL to estimate the dependence relationships in the model. Missing data was replaced in STATISTICA by replacing missing values by the mean value. The model was estimated separately for each of the three experimental groups to determine the causal relationships between the constructs at each level of fear appeal. To determine whether a difference exists in the relationships between constructs for different levels of fear appeal, a combined model using data of all three experimental groups was constructed to determine goodness-of-fit indices.

It should be noted that the just-identified model in the Henthorne et al. (1993) study is questionable. A just-identified model has zero degrees of freedom which means that the model can not be generalised (Hair et al., 1998:580). Because the proposed model is a just-identified model as adapted from Henthorne et al. (1993), pathways had to be removed on a theoretical basis before proceeding with SEM in LISREL in order to be able to generalise the model of this study.
Although the study by Henthorne et al. (1993:61) included two pathways, one from tension arousal to intention and another one from energy arousal to intention in their model (see chapter four), later studies did not include these two pathways (LaTour & Tanner, 2003; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997). These two pathways did not conform to hypothesised expectations when tested (Henthorne et al., 1993:66). In line with the contemporary view of the relationships among beliefs, feelings, attitude, behavioural intent and behaviour (as discussed in chapter four), attitude is proposed as a mediating variable between feelings (as measured by fear arousal) and behavioural intent (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1995:365). For the purposes of the LISREL SEM these two pathways were removed, but further analyses in LVSPL did include the two pathways. The overidentified model as used for SEM in LISREL is presented in Figure 8-7. An overidentified model is a structural model that has a positive number of degrees of freedom which indicates that the model can be generalised (Hair et al, 1998: 582).

**Figure 8-7: Overidentified model used for LISREL SEM**

Goodness-of-fit is the degree to which the actual correlations (or the covariance matrix used as input) are predicted by the model (Hair et al., 1998:580). If a difference in the causal relationships exists for the different levels of fear appeals, the goodness-of-fit indices will not show a good fit for the combined model. Please see Table 8-15 for the goodness-of-fit indices of the combined model.
Table 8-15: Goodness-of-fit indices for combined model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit indices</th>
<th>Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square</td>
<td>76.524 (P = 0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>0.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA &lt; 0.05)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)</td>
<td>0.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Fit Index (CFI)</td>
<td>0.767</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is 0.134 which is far above the acceptable 0.05 to 0.08 range (Hair et al., 1998:656). The Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is below the 0.9 threshold and does not indicate a good goodness-of-fit (Hair et al., 1998:657). The p-values for the test of close fit of the RMSEA and Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square is significant (p<0.01) indicating that the fit is not good. The combined model did not show a good fit indicating that there are differences in the relationships at the different levels of fear appeal. SEM was done separately for all three experimental groups to investigate the different relationships between constructs at each level of fear appeal. The goodness-of-fit indices for the different experimental groups are presented in Table 8-16.

Table 8-16: Goodness-of-fit indices for the different experimental groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit indices</th>
<th>Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1: Low level of fear appeal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square</td>
<td>2.723 (P = 0.256)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>0.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA &lt; 0.05)</td>
<td>0.428*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)</td>
<td>0.980*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Fit Index (CFI)</td>
<td>0.993*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2: Medium level of fear appeal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square</td>
<td>21.019 (P = 0.000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>0.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA &lt; 0.05)</td>
<td>0.000960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)</td>
<td>0.520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Fit Index (CFI)</td>
<td>0.840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3: High level of fear appeal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square</td>
<td>20.341 (P = 0.000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>0.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA &lt; 0.05)</td>
<td>0.000508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)</td>
<td>-0.577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Fit Index (CFI)</td>
<td>0.474</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
* indicating good fit
The model for the first experimental group exposed to the low level of fear appeal showed a good fit (Chi-Square test: p=0.26; RMSEA p-value test: p=0.43; NNFI=0.98; CFI=0.993). The RMSEA for the first group is slightly below the 0.05 to 0.08 acceptable range.

The models for the other two experimental groups showed a bad fit and none of the indices indicated a good fit. For the medium and high level of fear appeal the actual correlations (the covariance matrix used as input) are not predicted by the model.

It is thus only worthwhile to present the LISREL results for the model of the low fear appeal group as is done in Figure 8-8.

![Figure 8-8: LISREL results for the low level of fear appeal](image)

To further investigate the pathways of the three models analyses were also done in LVPLS which is better suited for prediction yet limited in interpretation purposes (Hair et al., 1998:607). Through the use of the LVPLS program a non-parametric method of determining the pathways through bootstrapping was followed. Resampling procedures such as bootstrapping can complement parametric methods by providing confidence interval estimates (Hair et al., 1998:694). Bootstrapping was used to determine the significant pathways in the models of the three groups. Table 8-17 presents the confidence interval estimates after bootstrapping.
### Table 8-17: Confidence interval estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group 1: Low fear appeal</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aad -&gt; Int</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA -&gt; Aad</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA -&gt; Int</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-0.06*</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA -&gt; Aad</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA -&gt; Int</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.11*</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA -&gt; EA</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group 2: Medium fear appeal</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aad -&gt; Int</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA -&gt; Aad</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.07*</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA -&gt; Int</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.04*</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA -&gt; Aad</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA -&gt; Int</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA -&gt; EA</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group 3: High fear appeal</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aad -&gt; Int</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>0.02*</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA -&gt; Aad</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA -&gt; Int</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.04*</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA -&gt; Aad</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA -&gt; Int</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA -&gt; EA</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-0.06*</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Non-significant pathways

The confidence intervals in bootstrapping is not estimated by a sampling error but is directly observed by examining the distribution of the estimates around the mean (Hair et al., 1998:606). A non-significant pathway would be indicated if the data between the lower and the upper limits of the 95% confidence interval includes a zero. The non-significant pathways are indicated by an asterisk in Table 8-17.

Two pathways in experimental group one were found to be insignificant. The first pathway that was not significant was from energy arousal (EA) to intention (Int). The second pathway, tension arousal (TA) to intention (Int) was also found to be insignificant. All the other pathways showed positive causal relationships.

Two pathways in experimental group two were found to be insignificant. The pathway EA to Int was also found to be insignificant at a medium level of fear appeal. In group two, the pathway from energy arousal (EA) to attitude towards the advertisement (Aad) was also found to be insignificant.
The pathway EA to Int was also found to be insignificant for the third experimental group. TA to Int was insignificant. Another pathway that was found to be insignificant at the high level of fear appeal is the Aad to Int pathway.

The following three models depict the significant pathways of the three models. In Figure 8-9 positive relationships can be seen from TA to EA, EA to Aad, TA to Int, and Aad to Int for the first experimental group. Tension positively influenced energy arousal which in turn positively influenced attitude towards the advertisement and lead to a positive intention to change drinking behaviour. Tension arousal also influenced attitude positively when exposed to a low level of fear appeal.

**Figure 8-9: Relationships between constructs when exposed to low level of fear appeal**

The following hypotheses were thus supported:

\( H_{1\text{Low}} \): There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and energy arousal when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.

\( H_{3\text{Low}} \): There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.

\( H_{4\text{Low}} \): There is a positive relationship between energy arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.
H_{\text{Low}}: There is a positive relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and intention when exposed to a low fear appeal advertisement.

The hypothesis H_{\text{Low}} that a positive relationship exists between tension arousal and intention was not supported. H_{\text{Low}} that a positive relationship exists between energy arousal and intention was also not supported.

**Figure 8-10**: Relationships between constructs when exposed to medium level of fear appeal

![Diagram showing relationships between constructs](image)

**Figure 8-10** illustrates that all the significant pathways showed positive causal relationships. These included: TA to EA, TA to Aad, TA to Int, and Aad to Int. The following hypotheses were thus supported:

H_{\text{1Med}}: There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and energy arousal when exposed to a medium fear appeal.

H_{\text{2Med}}: There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and intention when exposed to a medium fear appeal advertisement.

H_{\text{3Med}}: There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a medium fear appeal advertisement.

H_{\text{4Med}}: There is a positive relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and intention when exposed to a medium fear appeal advertisement.
The hypothesis that a positive relationship between energy arousal and attitude towards the advertisement exists, $H^{\text{Med}}$, was not supported. $H^{\text{Med}}$ that hypothesises that there is a positive relationship between energy arousal and intention was also not supported.

In Figure 8-11 the pathways that were found to be significant at the high level of fear appeal is illustrated. The pathways TA to Aad, TA to Int, and EA to Aad, were found to be significant. The pathway from TA to EA was the only negative pathway in the model (-0.058), but insignificant and thus not presented in the figure.

Figure 8-11: Relationships between constructs when exposed to high level of fear appeal

Three pathways in the model were not supported for the high level of fear appeal. The following three hypotheses were supported:

$H^{\text{2High}}$: There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and intention when exposed to a high fear appeal.

$H^{\text{3High}}$: There is a positive relationship between tension arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a high fear appeal advertisement.

$H^{\text{4High}}$: There is a positive relationship between energy arousal and attitude towards the advertisement when exposed to a high fear appeal advertisement.
H$_1^{High}$ was not supported by bootstrapping and no significant relationship was found between tension arousal and energy arousal. The hypothesis, H$_5^{High}$, that postulates that a positive relationship exists between energy arousal and intention was not supported. H$_6^{High}$ was also not supported and no relationship was found between attitude towards the advertisement and intention. The implications of the LISREL and VLPLS results will be discussed in chapter nine.

### 8.3.5 Other hypotheses

Analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to test mean differences between the experimental groups exposed to the three different levels of fear appeals. The results are indicated in Table 8-18. Significant mean differences were found for tension arousal, energy arousal, attitude and intention.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>LOW</th>
<th>MEDIUM</th>
<th>HIGH</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tension (5 items)</td>
<td>2.22 (n=216)</td>
<td>2.53 (n=326)</td>
<td>3.84 (n=197)</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy (5 items)</td>
<td>1.89 (n=214)</td>
<td>2.11 (n=327)</td>
<td>2.35 (n=197)</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude (5 items)</td>
<td>3.30 (n=211)</td>
<td>3.92 (n=320)</td>
<td>4.09 (n=191)</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention (1 item)</td>
<td>2.30 (n=209)</td>
<td>2.54 (n=321)</td>
<td>3.35 (n=190)</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 8.3.5.1 Tension arousal

Tension increased significantly with the level of fear appeal (p<0.01). The positive trend of tension mean scores from the low group to the high group is illustrated Figure 8-12. This figure also illustrates that a greater increase in tension arousal was seen from the medium to high group than from the low to medium group.
One of the procedures for further investigating specific group mean differences is post hoc methods which includes Bonferroni tests (Hair et al., 1998:356). Bonferroni tests showed significant mean differences between all three groups (p<0.01) as illustrated in Table 8-19. H\textsubscript{a}\textsuperscript{7} was thus supported that a relationship exists between the level of fear appeal and tension arousal (p<0.01). H\textsubscript{0}\textsuperscript{7} was not supported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean 1</th>
<th>Mean 2</th>
<th>Mean 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.000609</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.5.2 Energy arousal
As shown in Table 8-18, energy arousal increased with the level of fear appeal. The ANOVA analysis showed that the mean difference across groups was significant for energy arousal (p<0.01). The positive trend of energy arousal from the low to the high group is illustrated in Figure 8-13.
Bonferroni post hoc tests confirmed significant differences in terms of energy arousal between all three experimental groups ($p<0.01$) as indicated in Table 8-20. $H_0^8$ was not supported and $H_a^8$ was accepted that a relationship exists between level of fear appeal and energy arousal.

Table 8-20: Bonferroni tests for energy arousal between the three groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>{1} Mean = 1.89</th>
<th>{2} Mean = 2.11</th>
<th>{3} Mean = 2.35</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.012749</td>
<td>0.000001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.012749</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.010784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.000001</td>
<td>0.010784</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.5.3 Attitude

The means for attitude differed significantly across the three experimental groups ($p<0.01$) according to the ANOVA analyses as shown in Table 8-18. However, post hoc Bonferroni tests show that mean differences between the medium and high group is just above the statistically significant level of 0.05 ($p=0.06$), as indicated in Table 8-21.
Figure 8-14 illustrates the positive trend for attitude towards the advertisement from the low fear appeal group to the high fear appeal group. A smaller increase in attitude can be seen from the medium to high group than from the low to medium group. $H_0^9$, that no relationship exists between level of fear appeal and attitude towards the advertisement, was not supported ($p<0.01$). $H_a^9$ was supported, but it must be noted that a non-significance was shown by the Bonferroni tests between the medium and high groups ($p=0.06$).

Figure 8-14: Trend for means of attitude towards the advertisement across the three experimental groups

8.3.5.4 Intention

Mean differences for intention showed a significant variation ($p<0.01$) between groups as indicated by the ANOVA analyses presented in Table 8-18.
The Bonferroni tests showed a non-significant difference between the low and medium group. It could be that these two fear levels were too low to have any impact on intention. It should be noted that an attempt to overcome the limitation of previous studies was made and that initially two items were included on the questionnaire to measure intention. This summed scale was, however, found unreliable by internal reliability tests (Cronbach’s Alpha = 0.12). The hypothesis that a relationship exists between level of fear appeal and intention to engage in drunken driving was adapted to form an additional hypothesis:

\[ H_0^{11}: \text{There is a relationship between level of fear appeal and intention to change drinking behaviour.} \]

\[ H_a^{11}: \text{There is no relationship between level of fear appeal and intention to change drinking behaviour.} \]

The hypothesis that a relationship exists between the level of fear appeal and the intention to change drinking behaviour, \( H_0^{11} \), was supported by the p-value (p<0.01). Please see Table 8-18. The alternative hypothesis, \( H_a^{11} \), was partly supported as there was no significant mean difference between the low and medium group (p=0.15) as shown in Table 8-22. In summary, an overall significant relationship between level of fear appeal and intention to change drinking behaviour was found from the low to high fear appeal. This relationship is mostly due to a strong relationship between level of fear appeal and intention from the medium to high fear appeal groups, with no significant relationship from the low to medium fear appeal groups.

Means analysis of the item that was discarded showed no relationship between level of fear appeal and the item, “After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future” (p=0.23). See Table 8-23. These results are further addressed in chapter nine.

### Table 8-23: Means analysis for the discarded intention item

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>LOW</th>
<th>MEDIUM</th>
<th>HIGH</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intention to engage in drunken driving</td>
<td>4.64 (n=209)</td>
<td>4.58 (n=321)</td>
<td>4.71 (n=191)</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The hypothesis that a relationship exists between the level of fear appeal and the intention to engage in drunken driving, $H_a^{10}$, was not supported by the p-value ($p=0.23$) and the null hypothesis, $H_0^{10}$, was accepted. The high group, however, still had the highest mean score for the discarded intention item as indicated by Table 8-23.

8.3.6 Additional statistical analyses not pertaining to the hypotheses and hypothesised model

Univariate tests of significance were conducted to test for a difference in the four constructs of the model based on:

- Gender
- Home language
- Whether one drinks alcohol or abstains
- How often one drives
- Whether one owns a motor vehicle

8.3.6.1 The effect of gender

Gender had a significant effect on one's tension arousal ($p<0.01$), energy arousal ($p<0.01$), and intention to change drinking behaviour ($p=<0.01$). No statistical significant effect were found for gender on attitude towards the advertisement ($p=0.10$).

In terms of tension arousal, female mean scores were above male mean scores as illustrated in the figure in Addendum K ($p<0.01$). This could indicate that fear is more easily aroused in females than in males. For the three levels of fear appeal, the female mean trend for tension remained above the mean trend of males. It seems as if the difference in trends for tension increases from the medium to the high level of fear appeal. However, this difference in the two trends is not statistically significant ($p=0.17$).

Energy arousal for males is consistently higher than for females ($p<0.1$). See Addendum K. The difference in mean score trends for energy arousal of the two gender groups seem to increase the higher the level of fear appeal is as illustrated in Figure 8-15. This could indicate, like the afore mentioned trend for tension arousal, that energy arousal in males are greater than in females and that fear is less aroused in males by fear appeal advertisements than in females.
For attitude, the difference in mean trends of females and males seems to be higher for the medium group than the other two groups as indicated in Addendum K, but this difference is not statistically significant (p=0.94). While for the low and high fear appeal, female mean scores were similar to male scores, the females had a more positive attitude towards the medium level of fear appeal advertisement.

The intention mean scores of females were consistently higher for all three levels of fear appeal as indicated by Figure 8-16 (p<0.01). The difference in trends for the three levels of fear appeals are shown in Addendum K.
8.3.6.2 Home language

The home language of respondents had a significant effect on energy arousal, tension arousal and attitude. It, however, had no effect on intention. Tension arousal was higher and energy arousal lower in respondents who speak English (p=0.65 and p<01 respectively). Please refer to Addendum K for the two figures illustrating these two trends. Fear was thus more aroused in the English speaking respondents. By looking at the three experimental groups separately it seems that this effect is due to significantly more tension being aroused in the English speaking respondents for the medium level of fear appeal as may be seen Figure 8-17.

Figure 8-17: The effect of home language and level of fear appeal on tension arousal

![Figure 8-17](image)

It also seems that energy means follow an upward trends from the low to medium fear appeal, but then energy slants down for English speaking respondents from the medium to the high level of fear appeal as shown in Figure 8-18.
This might indicate tension suppressing energy as hypothesised by Henthorne et al. (1993). The same effect is seen for attitude. Both language groups increase positively from the low to medium fear appeal. In Figure 8-19 it becomes evident that attitude continues to increase for the Afrikaans speaking respondents from the medium to high level of fear appeal, but attitude in English respondents decreases from the medium to high level of fear appeal.

The semi-curvilinear trend that seems to be emerging for English respondents is, however, not repeated for intention. Intention for the English respondent seems to
be positive directly related to level of fear appeal. The difference in intention for the language groups at the medium level of fear appeal should be noted. English respondents had a higher intention to change their drinking behavior at the medium level of fear appeal as shown in Figure 8-20.

**Figure 8-20: The effect of home language and level of fear appeal on intention to change drinking behaviour**

8.3.6.3 The effect of whether one drinks alcohol or abstains

No significant effects of whether one is an alcohol drinker or not on any of the constructs were found: Tension (p=0.35), energy (p=0.21), attitude (0.61) and intention (p=0.48).

For the construct of tension arousal the mean scores of alcohol drinkers were higher than the mean scores of the abstainers for all three groups, but not statistically significant (p=0.35). Refer to Addendum K for the figure indicating this result. Energy arousal was higher for the abstainers than the alcohol drinkers in the low and the high group (p=0.21). See Addendum K. The trends for tension arousal and energy arousal could indicate that fear is more aroused in alcohol drinkers, although statistically insignificant.

An interesting phenomenon occurs for attitude. The trends for the means of alcohol drinkers and abstainer intercept each other at approximately the medium level of fear appeal as seen in Figure 8-21. Attitude for abstainers are higher for the low level of
fear appeal, but for the high level of fear appeal the drinkers’ attitude are more positive towards the advertisement.

**Figure 8-21:** The effect of whether one drinks alcohol or not on attitude

![Graph showing the effect of whether one drinks alcohol or not on attitude.](image)

The mean for intention to change drinking behaviour was lower for alcohol drinkers than for abstainers at the low level of fear appeal. Alcohol drinkers had an equal intention to abstainers for the medium fear appeal, but a higher intention at the higher level of fear appeal as indicated in **Figure 8-22**.

**Figure 8-22:** The effect of whether one drinks alcohol or not on intention to change drinking behaviour

![Graph showing the effect of whether one drinks alcohol or not on intention to change drinking behaviour.](image)
8.3.6.4 The effect of how often a person drives

The effect of how often one drive (never, seldom or often) on the four constructs as measured by univariate tests of significance showed no significance for tension (p=0.86), energy (0.86), attitude (p=0.85) and intention (p=0.30). The trends for intention were very similar for respondents regardless of how often they drive as indicated in Figure 8-23. The highest intention to change drinking behaviour was found for the high level of fear appeal. Interestingly, respondents who claim to drive seldom had the lowest intention at the high fear appeal level.

Figure 8-23: The effect of how often one drives on intention to change drinking behaviour

Across the three experimental groups, the mean for intention of respondents that indicated that they seldom drive a motor vehicle had the lowest mean as indicated in the figure in Addendum K.

8.3.6.5 The effect of whether one owns a motor vehicle

The owning of a motor vehicle only had a significant interaction effect with level of fear appeal on one of the constructs, namely intention (p=0.21). At the low level of fear appeal owners of motor vehicles had a lower intention than non-owners. While intention was equal for medium level of fear appeal, the motor vehicle owners had a higher intention to change their drinking behaviour when exposed to the high level of fear appeal as shown by Figure 8-24.
Figure 8-24: The effect of owning a motor vehicle and level of fear appeal on intention to change drinking behaviour

Group x Motor vehicle: LS Means
Current effect: F(2, 706)=3.9063, p=.02055
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals
Chapter 9

Conclusion and recommendations

9.1 Introduction
In this chapter, the results of the final study are put into perspective by drawing conclusions from the statistical analyses of the data. Areas for further research are identified and the implications of the study for social marketers are described. Some limitations of this study are also discussed shortly.

9.2 Findings

9.2.1 The proposed model
A combined model of all three experimental groups in LISREL did support the notion that there is a difference between the groups in terms of the relationships between the constructs. Goodness-of-fit indices indicated that only the model for the experimental group exposed to the low fear appeal had a good fit.

Bootstrapping was done in LVPLS to find the significant pathways in the three models. The pathway from energy arousal (EA) to intention (Int) was not found to be significant in any of the three groups. This is in accordance with previous studies which also found the pathway to be insignificant. Although earlier studies such as Henthorne, LaTour and Nataraajan (1993:61) included the pathway from EA to Int in their model, later studies did not include this pathway (LaTour & Tanner, 2003; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997). The pathway did not conform to hypothesised expectations when tested in the Henthorne et al. (1993:66) study. In line with the contemporary view of the relationships among beliefs, feelings, attitude, behavioural intent and behaviour, attitude is proposed as a mediating variable between feelings (as measured by fear arousal) and behavioural intent (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1995:365). One reason for this study not finding this pathway to be significant might be that energy arousal does not directly influence intention in the model, but that it influences intention indirectly through the mediating variable of attitude.
In the model for the group exposed to the medium level of fear appeal, energy arousal was also found to have an insignificant effect on attitude. The results seem to suggest that the medium level of fear appeal did not have an energising effect on the target audience. In a study by LaTour and Tanner (2003) the group exposed to the less explicit video stimulus also showed no significant pathway between energy arousal and attitude. Attitude might have only been influenced by tension as some respondents might have perceived the advertisements as “gross” as was mentioned in the focus group. One focus group respondent said: “It makes me queasy”.

The relationships performed poorly for the group exposed to the high level of fear appeal. Three pathways were found to be insignificant: Tension arousal to energy arousal, energy arousal to intention, and attitude to intention. Tension did not significantly influenced energy. The difference found in tension and energy arousal for two of the language groups, namely Afrikaans and English speaking students, might be the reason for this pathway being insignificant. The reader is referred to section 9.2.3.2 for a detailed analysis of fear arousal for the two language groups. Interestingly, the pathway from attitude to intention was found insignificant. Previous studies found this pathway to be positive at a higher level of fear appeal (LaTour & Tanner, 2003; Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999; Henthorne et al., 1993). Attitude is thought to be a mediating antecedent of intention in the theory of reasoned action and contemporary models of the relationships between beliefs, feelings, attitude, behavioural intent and behaviour (Engel et al., 1995:365). The reader is referred to section 9.2.3 for further analyses of this phenomenon. The most probable explanation for this pathway to be found insignificant is the statistically significant effect that demographic variables such as gender and home language had on the constructs at the high level of fear appeal. Personal relevance also played a role at the high level of fear appeal. The influence of demographics and personal relevance is discussed in section 9.2.3.

9.2.2 Other hypotheses

Four other hypotheses pertaining to whether a relationship exists between the level of fear appeal and tension, energy, attitude and intention were tested. By comparing the three groups, it is clear that the higher the level of fear appeal the significantly higher the generated tension, energy, attitude and intention.
Tension and energy followed a positive trend as the level of fear appeal increased. This is similar to findings of previous studies (LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997:56; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65). While tension drastically increased from the medium to the high group, energy increased steadily from the low to the high group. Although tension increased at a higher rate than energy from the medium to the high group, no evidence was found that tension suppressed energy when looking at the total sample. Similar studies on Tayer’s arousal model could not find the threshold where tension starts to diminish energy for video stimuli (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:392; Henthorne et al., 1993). This study went further than previous studies employing Thayer’s arousal model and in an attempt overcome their limitations measured fear arousal for three levels of fear appeal stimuli instead of two (LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:66). The use of audiovisual and three levels of fear appeals found support for the notion that if a too high fear appeal is used, tension arousal will diminish energy arousal amongst English speaking respondents. The fact that energy arousal did increase at a lower rate than tension arousal from the medium to the high fear appeal could indicate a trend of tension suppressing energy amongst Afrikaans speaking respondents as well, but no hard evidence was found for this and further studies should investigate this trend. Other studies did not find tension overdoses and were not able to cross the threshold (LaTour and Rotfeld, 1997; Henthorne et al., 1993). This study found that the threshold was only overstepped for English speaking respondents and not for Afrikaans speaking respondents.

Attitude follows a significant positive upward trend as the level of fear appeal increases. This effect was also found for previous fear appeal studies (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:386; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65). Although attitude is not the final intended outcome of drunken driving messages, this construct is important to influence the psyche of the target audience (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:392).

To overcome the limitation of intention being measured by one item in previous research, intention was initially measured by two items in the questionnaire. The internal reliability was found to be highly unreliable (Cronbach’s Alpha = 0.12). The second item, “After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving”, showed no significant mean differences across the groups after doing ANOVA analyses (p=0.23).
The two items measuring intention in the questionnaire were thus interpreted individually. One question asked respondents whether they would change their drinking behaviour in the future and the other question explicitly asked whether they intend to drive drunk in the future. A significant relationship between level of fear appeal and intention to change one’s drinking behaviour was found. Although the overall effect of level of fear appeal on intention was significant ($p<0.01$), the Bonferroni tests showed a specifically high increase in intention to change one’s drinking behaviour from the low to high and the medium to high fear appeal, but a non-significance in means difference between the low and the medium group. Other studies also found a significant relationship between level of fear appeal and intention (LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996:65).

No relationship with level of fear appeal was found for the item that measured intention to drive drunk in the future. This finding could be explained by one of the following:

a) the item measuring intention in this study was not a good measure of intention to engage in drunken driving
b) no “intention to engage in drunken driving” exists
c) level of fear appeal has an effect on attitude of young adults but not on intention

Each reason will be discussed briefly. Firstly, the item measuring intention might not be a good measure of intention to engage in drunken driving. The item “After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future” was measured by a Likert scale from one to five for (“no, definitely not” to “yes, definitely”). The scale was reversed for the statistical analyses. Previous studies also measured intention using one item structured similarly, for example: “I plan to purchase (brand item)” (Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999:279). It might be that conforming to subjective norms a person will always say no when directly asked if they intent to engage in drunken driving as this is deemed the socially acceptable answer as explained by Fishbein and Ajzen’s theory of reasoned action (cited in Delaney, Lough, Whelan & Cameron, 2004:5). Supporting this, focus group respondents were unwilling to answer the question of whether they ever drive drunk, but had no problem answering when the moderator switched around the question and asked whether their friends ever drive
drunk. Previous studies measured purchase intentions for a stunt-gun device for women to ward off assaults (Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996), the intention to support a victims’ rights programme (Henthorne et al., 1993), and the intention to phone for more information on the threat of radon gas (LaTour & Tanner, 2003). It could be argued that these issues were not as personal and socially unacceptable as the issue of drunken driving.

Secondly, it might be that no “intention to engage in drunken driving” exists and the antecedent of drunken driving behaviour is attitude and that behavioural intent is not an antecedent of drunken driving in this case. Focus group respondents claimed that they could not say whether they will get drunk, because “it just happens”. It also seems that the amount of alcohol consumed by the focus group respondents were more dependant on emotion than rationale. They claimed to drink until they “feel” it. It thus might be that young adults never intent to drive drunk, but will do so if a situation arises in which they must. To verify this other studies will have to take measures of actual drunken driving behaviour as well as intent.

Thirdly, it could simply be that level of fear appeal does not affect intention to drive drunk in the future and that any level of fear appeal will generate high intention. A high intention mean are seen for all three experimental groups for this item. It might be that respondents have so little exposure to “don’t drink and drive”-messages that any exposure have an effect on their intent. Focus group respondents claim to have almost no exposure to such messages. It must be noted, however, that since fear appeal had an effect on intention to change one’s drinking behaviour, this third reason seems highly improbable and that reasons one and two might be a more correct explanation for this phenomenon. Further studies will have to shed some more light to be able to pinpoint the reason for little mean difference for the item, “After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future”.

The item was discarded based on the fact that the focus group respondents seem to have no intention to get drunk, and thus probably no intention to drive drunk. It seems that they feel that drunkenness just happens. Further, subjective norms might have influenced respondents’ answers as drunken driving seems to be a socially sensitive topic and focus group respondents were reluctant to share whether they drive drunk in front of their peers.
9.2.3 Additional statistical analyses not pertaining to hypotheses and proposed model

9.2.3.1 Gender
A difference for energy and tension arousal was found for the two genders. Female mean scores for tension arousal were consistently above the male scores. For, energy arousal, the male mean scores was consistently above female scores. Fear was thus more easily aroused in females. The effect of fear appeals thus needs to be investigated for over-arousal of fear in females. Previous studies using female samples did not detect an overdose of tension arousal (Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999; LaTour & Rotfeld, 1997; LaTour, Snipes & Bliss, 1996). It, however, should be investigated for a target audience of young adults in South Africa.

9.2.3.2 Home language
The home language of respondents had a significant effect on energy arousal, tension arousal and attitude. It, however, had no effect on intention. Overall tension arousal was higher and energy arousal lower in respondents who speak English (p=0.65 and p<01 respectively). Fear was more aroused in the English speaking respondents and it seems that this is due to significantly more tension being aroused for English speaking respondents for the medium level of fear appeal.

Energy and tension follow upward trends from the low to medium fear appeal, but then energy slants down (while tension increases from the medium to the high level of fear appeal) for English speaking students. This seems to indicate tension suppressing energy as hypothesised by Henthorne et al. (1993). The same effect was seen for attitude. Both language groups increase positively from the low to medium fear appeal. Attitude continues to increase for the Afrikaans speaking respondents from the medium to high level of fear appeal, but attitude in English respondents decreases from the medium to high level of fear appeal.

The semi-curvilinear trend that seems to be emerging for English respondents is, however, not repeated for intention. Intention for the English respondents seem to be positive directly related to level of fear appeal. The difference in intention for the language groups at the medium level of fear appeal should be noted. English respondents had a higher intention to change their drinking behavior at the medium level of fear appeal. Fear appeal and attitude formation should be investigated for target audiences whose home language is English. Most South African anti-drunk
driving advertisements is in the English medium and English young adults seem to be more susceptible to tension overdose which could lead to maladaptive behaviour such as a state of anxiety.

9.2.3.3 Whether one drinks alcohol
No statistically significant effects on tension, energy, attitude and intention were found. The means for intention to change drinking behaviour was lower for alcohol drinkers at the low level of fear appeal. Alcohol drinkers had an equal intention to abstainers for the medium fear appeal, but a higher intention at the higher level of fear appeal. The opposite is true for attitude: Attitude for alcohol drinkers are higher for the low level of fear appeal, but for the high level of fear appeal the abstainers’ attitude are more positive towards the advertisement. This seems to indicate that a higher level of fear appeal is needed to influence the intention of alcohol drinkers (the target audience of anti-drunken driving advertisements), but at the same time, the higher level of fear appeals influence their attitude negatively. A slight tension overdose can be seen for alcohol drinkers at the high level of fear appeal which might explain the drop in attitude at the high level of fear appeal. This might be an effect of personal relevance as described by LaTour and Tanner (2003). In LaTour and Tanner’s (2003) study respondents who had children reacted more positively towards an advertisement on the threat of radon gas depicting children. Although high fear appeals lead to high intention to change drinking behaviour in alcohol drinkers, caution must be taken to ensure that fear is not over-aroused in this group.

9.2.3.4 How often one drives
Respondents who drive often had the lowest mean score for intention to change their drinking behaviour when exposed to the low and medium level of fear appeal. They, however, had the highest intention at the high level of fear, but just above those who indicated that they never drive. Interestingly, those who drive seldom had the lowest intention at the high level of fear.

9.2.3.5 Whether one owns a motor vehicle
A significant interaction effect between whether one owns a motor vehicle and level of fear appeal was seen for intention to change one’s drinking behaviour (p=0.02). No significant interaction effect was seen for the other three constructs. While
intention was fairly similar for students who own a car versus students who do not for the low and medium level of fear appeal; students who own a motor vehicle had a significantly higher intention at the high level of fear appeal. Once again this seems to point to personal relevance. It could be that the students felt that the scenario depicted was more relevant to them, because of their owning a motor vehicle.

9.3 Conclusions
The relationship between fear and persuasion has been regarded by some past studies as being positive and monotonic. It is widely agreed upon by researchers that a positive relationship exists for low to medium level of fear appeal (Snipes, LaTour & Bliss, 1999:274). This study found similar results for the total sample. Although a positive relationship between level of fear appeal and persuasion was supported for the total sample, further analyses pointed to a negative relationship with persuasion for respondents whose home language is English. English speaking respondents showed the highest attitude at the medium fear appeal level. Evidence that supports the notion of a threshold that can be crossed in the case of a tension overdose, resulting in tension suppressing energy arousal, was found for English respondents. Intention to change drinking behaviour was the highest amongst these respondents for the high level of fear appeal. Although intention was not the highest at the medium level of fear appeal it seems that fear and attitude is aroused in a curvilinear fashion with the medium level of fear appeal being the optimal level for fear arousal without a tension overdose that creates a positive attitude towards the advertisement.

Trends are also seen for the different genders and it seems that females are more easily succumbed to fear than males. This pose a challenge to social marketers as males are often the target audience for anti-drunken driving and other road safety advertisements, but appears less influenced by higher fear appeals (Lewis, Watson, Tay & White, 2007:213).

Personal relevance also seems to play a role in persuasion. Intention for students who drink alcohol and own motor vehicles were greater than for those who do not at the high fear appeal level. Although intentions for alcohol drinkers were highest at the high level of fear appeal, their attitude was more negative and tension overdose seemed to occur at this level. This raises questions when social practitioners pre-test
fear appeal advertisements only in terms of behavioural intention. Fear appeal advertisements must also be tested in terms of fear arousal and the impact on attitude. Too high fear arousal (where tension suppresses energy) can lead to maladaptive behaviour (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:392). How often one drives do not seem to have a significant impact on intent and intention for those who never drive and those who often drive were almost equal at a high level of fear appeal.

9.4 Recommendations/ implications
Fear appeals are widely used in social marketing causes. While the findings of this study lend credit to the use of fear appeals, it confirmed the target audience specificity of these appeals. Home language and gender were demographics that played a role in persuasion of fear appeals. Whether one owns a motor vehicle and whether one drinks alcohol were found to have an influence on one’s fear arousal, attitude and intention. Previous research also found personal relevance to play a mediating role in fear persuasion (LaTour & Tanner, 2003:390).

The model tested should be used by practitioners to test advertisements for a target audience to see which one has the greatest effect on fear arousal (in terms of energy and tension arousal), attitude towards the advertisement and intention. The model could be used to test whether too much tension is aroused for a specific target audience as was found for English speaking respondents in this study. The focus when designing an advertisement should be energy arousal – motivating the target audience to take steps to change dangerous behaviour, and not tension arousal which could create excessive fear and discomfort of the audience. Testing of fear arousal is especially necessary when targeting an audience whose home language is English. This study indicates a curvilinear effect in terms of fear arousal and attitude for English speakers in the audience. Overall the findings of this study seem to suggest that a medium level of fear appeal is most effective for South African young adults who are the target audience of anti-drunken driving advertisements. Different execution styles at a medium level of fear appeal still need to be tested for this audience.

Findings also confirmed that fear appeal advertisements need to be tested beforehand for specific audiences. This study highlights the need to test fear appeal advertisements on a sample of the target audience to see how and if fear is aroused
through energy and tension arousal and if the advertisement has any impact on the audience attitude and intention. It is recommended that qualitative research should be used to investigate the relevance of the message.

Although no significant differences in group/gender interactions was detected, a trend does seem to emerge that fear is more easily aroused in females than in males. Practitioners should take caution and when testing fear appeal advertisements on samples of the target audience should also test whether fear is aroused too excessively in females. This could have serious implications for social marketers of drunken driving as the target audience mostly is males (Lewis et al., 2007:213). Advertisements produced to target males might put female receivers of the message in a state of anxiety and discomfort. A high fear appeal could render results of attitude and intention change in males but at the same time over-arouse fear in females. Thayer’s checklist may be used to test how fear is aroused by a specific advertisement on the target audience and in specific genders.

This study found that intention, when explicitly measured for a socially unacceptable topic, is met with reluctance by the respondents to answer truthfully, or that in fact, an intention to engage in drunken driving does not exist. When asked their intention to engage in drunken driving, respondents’ answers remained similar for the three levels of fear appeal in accordance with Azjen and Fishbein’s theory of subjective norms. The intention to change their drinking behaviour, however, was significantly affected by level of fear appeal. While most advertisements demoting drunken driving ends with the message of “don’t drink and drive”, it might be more worthwhile to adapt these messages to focus on drinking behaviour and not drinking and driving.

9.5 Areas identified for further research
The first and most important area for further research that stems from this study is to do replicate studies on other random samples as well as testing other products/social causes in South Africa in order to be able to generalise the findings of this study.

A question arising from this study is whether young adults actually plan to get drunk and engage in drunken driving. Although the anti-drunken driving advertisements were found to have a behaviour changing effect in terms of drinking behaviour, it had no effect on a question asking specifically whether respondents intend to engage in
drunken driving in the future. From the focus group it is clear that young adults mostly do not intend to get drunk but feel that it just happens. The same could be true for drunken driving and that no intention to drive while drunk exists, but that it happens. This should be tested with more in depth focus groups.

It seems from this study that young adults can be prevented from driving drunk by changing their drinking behaviour. Another way to prevent them would be if their driving behaviour could be changed in terms of them arranging beforehand to not drive when they know they are going to consume alcohol. This study only tested drinking behaviour but it seems appropriate for other studies to also test the effect of fear appeal in anti-drunken driving advertisements on driving behaviour.

This study found that intention for socially unacceptable behaviour might be difficult to test as in the case of drunken driving. Either intention to engage in this socially unacceptable behaviour does not exist or respondents are not truthful because of the effect of the subjective norm. Research needs to be done in order to produce an empirically tested summed scale to measure intention for such socially sensitive topics.

While intention is seen as a strong predictor of future behaviour, it is necessary to test the effect of fear appeals on behaviour itself. This research needs to be undertaken in cooperation with social marketers in South Africa to test the effect of television campaigns on behaviour.

Other studies should test the effect of level of fear appeal on an English audience as this study seems to indicate a tension overdose at a high level of fear appeal. This needs further investigation as most anti-drunken driving advertisements in South Africa are in English and persons in the audience whose home language is English might be exposed to these messages leading to maladaptive responses.

Although this was not the main focus of this study, significant differences were detected for gender in terms of tension arousal, energy arousal, attitude and intention. Other studies will have to investigate the effect of fear appeal on gender and the possibility that higher level of fear appeal advertisements might even not have an effect on males, but discomfort and create excessive anxiety in females.
9.6 Limitations

One limitation of this study is the use of convenience sampling. Replications will have to be done for more random samples in South Africa to be able to fully generalise the results of this study.

The use of a student sample might also limit generalisation in that students from an Afrikaans university might not be representative of young adults in South Africa. Further studies can draw more culturally representative random samples.

Cost limitations made it unviable to produce three similar advertisements differing in a few elements in order to create three different versions of the same advertisement that depict three levels of fear appeal. Thus the advertisement stimuli were selected from a vast database of anti-drunk driving advertisements from around the world. The advertisements might have been more manipulated to only differ in fear appeal and not country of origin, international cultures, and quality if produced specifically for this study.

Lastly, intention was only measured by one item. Previous studies mentioned this as a limitation and while this study attempted to overcome this, it was found that the two items initially used in this study was internally unreliable. Thus, only one item was used to measure the construct of intention in the model. Research into a proper summed scale to measure intention to engage in drunken driving or other socially sensitive behaviour is deemed necessary to overcome this limitation.
References


Effectiveness of Marketing Communications: Cases from the IPA Effectiveness Award 2002. Henley-on-Thames, Oxfordshire: WARC.


Prevent Noise-Induced Hearing Loss among Coal Miners in Appalachia.


Tshabalala-Msimang, M., 2006b. *Speech by Minister Dr Manto Tshabalala-Msimang at the opening of the 8th World Conference on Injury and Violence Prevention*


Addendum A

The final questionnaire
INSTRUCTIONS

Please mark the option that is most applicable to you with an “X”. Make sure that you ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS.

INSTRUKSIES

Merk asseblief die opsie wat die meeste van toepassing op u is met ‘n “X”. Maak seker dat u AL DIE VRAE BEANTWOORD.

SECTION A/ AFDELING A

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Age / Ouderdom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Gender / Geslag</td>
<td>Male / Manlik</td>
<td>Female / Vroulik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Racial Group / Rassegroep</td>
<td>Black / Swart</td>
<td>White / Blank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>What is your first language? / Wat is u Moedertaal?</td>
<td>Afrikaans / Afrikaans</td>
<td>English / Engels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Xhosa / Xhosa</td>
<td>Other official SA language / Ander amptelike SA taal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Do you have a driver’s licence? / Het u ’n bestuurderslisensie?</td>
<td>Yes / Ja</td>
<td>No / Nee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Do you own a motor vehicle? / Besit u ’n motorvoertuig?</td>
<td>Yes / Ja</td>
<td>No / Nee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Do you drink alcohol? / Drink u alkohol?</td>
<td>Yes / Ja</td>
<td>No / Nee</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If your answer to question 8 was “Yes”, please answer questions 9 – 11. (If your answer was “No”, please continue with question 12)

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>How many times in a month do you drink alcohol? (Choose only one of the options) / Hoeveel keer per maand drink u alkohol? (Kies slegs een van die opsies)</td>
<td>Not once / Nie een keer nie</td>
<td>Once per month / Een keer per maand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Once per week / Een keer per week</td>
<td>2 to 3 times per week / 2 tot 3 keer per week</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Every day / Elke dag</td>
<td>More than 3 times per week / Meer as 3 keer per week</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>On occasion when you consume alcoholic drinks, how many drinks do you usually have? (Choose only one of the options) / Per geleenthed wat u alkoholieëse drankies geniet, hoeveel drankies drink u gewoonlyk? (Kies slegs een van die opsies)</td>
<td>1 – 2</td>
<td>3 – 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 – 8</td>
<td>More than 8/ Meer as 8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>How often during the past year did you engage in binge-drinking (got drunk)? (Choose only one of the options) / Hoe gereeld gedurende die afgelope jaar het u deelgeneem aan “binge”-drinkery (dronk geword)? (Kies slegs een van die opsies)</td>
<td>Never / Nooit</td>
<td>Once during the year / Een keer gedurende die jaar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Once a month / Een keer in ’n maand</td>
<td>Once a week / Een keer in ’n week</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than once a week / Meer as een keer in ’n week</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
12. Have you ever experienced the following? (Please, mark ONE option with an “X” for each statement) / Het u al ooit die volgende ervaar? (Merk asseblief EEN opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Driven a motor vehicle after having one alcoholic drink / ’n Motorvoertuig bestuur nadat u een alkoholiese drankie gedrink het</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Driven a motor vehicle after having several alcoholic drinks / ’n Motorvoertuig bestuur nadat u verskeie alkoholiese drankies gedrink het</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Driven a motor vehicle while drunk/ ’n Motorvoertuig bestuur terwyl u dronk was</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ever been a passenger in a motor vehicle with a drunk driver! Al ooit ’n passasier in ’n motorvoertuig gewees met ’n dronk bestuurder</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ever been arrested for driving while intoxicated! Al ooit gearresteer weens bestuur onder die invloed van alkohol</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements: (Please, mark one option with an “X” for each statement) / Stem u saam of verskil u met die volgende stellings: (Merk asseblief een opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disagree strongly Verskil sterk</th>
<th>Disagree Verskil</th>
<th>I don’t know Ek weet nie</th>
<th>Agree Stem saam</th>
<th>Agree strongly Stem saam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drunken driving is a problem in South Africa/ Dronkbestuur is ’n probleem in Suid-Afrika</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>It is dangerous to drink and drive/ Dit is gevaarlik om te drink en bestuur</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INSTRUCTIONS
Indicate your answer to each question by marking the appropriate block with an “X”. State how you feel or what you think immediately after viewing each advertisement. Make sure that you ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS.

INSTRUKSIES
Dui u antwoord op elke vraag aan deur die toepaslike blok met ‘n “X” te merk. Dui aan hoe u voel onmiddellik nadat u die advertensie gesien het. Maak seker dat u AL DIE VRAE BEANTWOORD.

SECTION B / AFDELING B

1. Have you seen this advertisement before? / Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
   Yes / Ja  ☐  No / Nee  ☐

2. Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel (Please mark one option with an “X” for each statement) / Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u so pas gesien het, u laat voel het: (Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feeling</th>
<th>Definitely do not feel</th>
<th>Definitely feel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voel definitief nie</td>
<td>Voel definitief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active / Aktief</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jittery / Senuweeagtic</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic / Energiëk</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clutched-up (Anxious) / Angstig</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vigorous / Kragtig</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intense / Intens</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearful / Vreesvol</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lively / Lewendig</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense / Gespanne</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full of pep(cheerful) / Opgewek</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Indicate how you feel about the advertisement that you have just seen (Please, mark one option with an “X” for each statement) / Dui aan hoe u voel oor die advertensie wat u nou net gesien het: (Merk asseblief een opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Easy to understand / Maklik om te verstaan</th>
<th>No, definitely not Nee, definitief nie</th>
<th>Yes, definitely Ja, definitief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informative / Informatief</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good / Goed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting / Interessant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useful / Nuttig</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Indicate your response to the following statements (Please mark one option with an “X” for each statement) / Dui u reaksie op die volgende stellings aan: (Merk asseblief een opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in the future / Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om my drinkgedrag in die toekoms te verander</th>
<th>No, definitely not Nee, definitief nie</th>
<th>Yes, definitely Ja, definitief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future / Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om deel te neem aan dronkbestuur in die toekoms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Addendum B

Thayer’s complete AD-ACL checklist

Each of the words on the back describes feelings or mood. Please use the rating scale next to each word to describe your feelings at this moment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>relaxed</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ? no</td>
<td>If you circle the double check (✓✓✓✓) it means that you definitely feel relaxed at the moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relaxed</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ? no</td>
<td>If you circle the single check (✓✓✓) it means that you feel slightly relaxed at the moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relaxed</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ? no</td>
<td>If you circled the question mark (?) it means that the word does not apply or you cannot decide if you feel relaxed at the moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relaxed</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ? no</td>
<td>If you circled the (no) it means that you are definitely not relaxed at the moment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Work rapidly, but please mark all the words. Your first reaction is best. This should take only a minute or two.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>❌✔️ ✔️ ? no</td>
<td>definitely feel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✔️✔️ ✔️ ? no</td>
<td>feel slightly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✔️✔️ ✔️ ? no</td>
<td>cannot decide</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✔️✔️ ✔️ ? no</td>
<td>definitely not feel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- active ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- placid ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- sleepy ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- jittery ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- energetic ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- intense ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- calm ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- tired ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- vigorous ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- at-rest ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- drowsy ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- fearful ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- lively ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- still ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- wide-awake ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- clutched-up ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- quiet ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- full-of-pep ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
- tense ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ❌ ✔️ ? no
### Addendum C
The pilot questionnaire
SECTION A/ AFDELING A

**INSTRUCTIONS/ INSTRUKSIES**

Please mark the option that is most applicable to you with a “X”/Merk asseblief die opsie wat die meeste op toepassing van u is, met ’n “X”:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Age/ Ouderdom __________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Gender/ Geslag Male/ Manlik □ Female/ Vroulik □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Racial group/ Rassegroep Black/ Swart □ White/ Blank □ Coloured/ Kleurling □ Indian/ Indiëër □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>What is your first language?/ Wat is u moedertaal? Afrikaans/ Afrikaans □ English/ Engels □ Afrikaans/English/ Afrikaans/Engels □ Xhosa/ Xhosa □ Other official SA language/ Ander amptelike SA taal □ Other language/ Ander taal □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Do you have a driver’s licence?/ Het u ‘n bestuurderslisensie? Yes/ Ja □ No/ Nee □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Do you own a motor vehicle?/ Besit u ‘n motorvoertuig? Yes/ Ja □ No/ Nee □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>How often do you drive a motor vehicle?/ Hoe gereeld bestuur u ‘n motorvoertuig? Never/ Nooit □ Seldom/ Soms □ Often/ Gereeld □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Do you drink alcohol?/ Drink u alkohol? Yes/ Ja □ No/ Nee □</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If, your answer to question 8 was “Yes”, please answer questions 9 – 11. (If, your answer was “No”, please continue with question 12)/Indien u antwoord by vraag 8 “Ja” was, beantwoord asseblief vrae 9 – 11. (Indien u antwoord “Nee” was, gaan asseblief direk na vraag 12)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>How many times in a month do you drink alcohol?/ Hoeveel keer per maand drink u alkohol? (Choose only one of the options/ Kies slegs een van die opsies) Not once/ Nie een keer nie □ Once per month/ Een keer per maand □ Once per week/ Een keer per week □ 2 to 3 times per week/ 2 tot 3 keer per week □ More than 3 times per week/ Meer as 3 keer per week □ Every day/ Elke dag □</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. On occasion when you consume alcoholic drinks, how many drinks do you usually have?/ Per geleentheid wat u alkoholie drankies geniet, hoeveel drankies drink u gewoonlik?
(Choose only one of the options/ Kies slegs een van die opsies)
1 – 2 □ 3 – 4 □ 5 – 8 □ More than 8/ Meer as 8 □

11. How often during the past year did you engage in binge-drinking (got drunk)?/ Hoe gereeld gedurende die afgelope jaar het u deelgeneem aan “binge”-drinkery (dronk geword)?
(Choose only one of the options/ Kies slegs een van die opsies)
Never/ Nooit □ Once during the year/ Een keer gedurende die jaar □
Once a month/ Een keer in ’n maand □ Once a week/ Een keer in ’n week □
More than once a week/ Meer as een keer in ’n week □

12. Have you ever experienced the following?/ Het u al ooit die volgende ervaar?
(Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

- Driven a motor vehicle after having one alcoholic drink/ ’n Motorvoertuig bestuur nadat u een alkoholie drankie gedrink het
- Driven a motor vehicle after having several alcoholic drinks/ ’n Motorvoertuig bestuur nadat u verskeie alkoholie drankies gedrink het
- Driven a motor vehicle while drunk/ ’n Motorvoertuig bestuur terwyl u dronk was
- Ever been a passenger in a motor vehicle with a drunk driver/ Al ooit ‘n passasier in ‘n motorvoertuig gewees met ‘n dronk bestuurder
- Ever been arrested for driving while intoxicated/ Al ooit gearresteer weens bestuur onder die invloed van alkohol

13. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements/ Stem u saam of verskil u met die volgende stellings:
(Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

- Drunken driving is a problem in South Africa/ Dronkbestuur is ’n probleem in Suid-Afrika
- It is dangerous to drink and drive/ Dit is gevaarlik om te drink en bestuur

222
INSTRUCTIONS/ INSTRUKSIES

Indicate your answer to each question by marking the appropriate block with a “X”. State how you feel or what you think immediately after viewing each advertisement/ Dui u antwoord op elke vraag aan deur die toepaslike blok met ’n “X” te merk. Dui aan hoe u voel onmiddelik nadat u die advertensie gesien het.

ADVERTISEMENT/ ADVERTENSIE 1

1 Have you seen this advertisement before?/ Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
Yes/ Ja □ No/ Nee □

2 Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel/ Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u sopas gesien het u laat voel:
(Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definitely do not feel/ Voel definitief nie</th>
<th>Definitely feel/ Voel definitief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active/ Aktief</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jittery/ Senuweeagtig</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic/ Energiek</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vigorous/ Kragtig</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intense/ Intens</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearful/ Vreesvol</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lively/ Lewendig</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense/ Gespanne</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full of pep/ Opgewek</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 Indicate how you feel about the advertisement that you have just seen/ Dui aan hoe u voel oor die advertensie wat u nouet gesien het:
(Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definitely do not feel/ Voel definitief nie</th>
<th>Definitely feel/ Voel definitief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy to understand/ Maklik om te verstaan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informatie/ Informatief</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good/ Goed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting/ Interessant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useful/ Nultig</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 Indicate your response to the following statements/ Dui u reaksie op die volgende stellings aan:

(Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definitely do not feel/ Voel definitief nie</th>
<th>Definitely feel/ Voel definitief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om my drinkgedrag in die toekoms te verander</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om deel te neem aan dronkbestuur in die toekoms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INSTRUCTIONS/ INSTRUKSIES

Indicate your answer to each question by marking the appropriate block with a “X”. State how you feel or what you think immediately after viewing each advertisement. Dui u antwoord op elke vraag aan deur die toepaslike blok met ‘n “X” te merk. Dui aan hoe u voel onmiddelik nadat u die advertensie gesien het.

ADVERTISEMENT/ ADVERTENSIE 2

1 Have you seen this advertisement before?/ Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
Yes/ Ja □  No/ Nee □

2. Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel/ Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u sopas gesien het u laat voel
(Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action/ Aktie</th>
<th>Definitely do not feel/ Voel definitief nie</th>
<th>Definitely feel/ Voel definitief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active/ Aktief</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jittery/ Senuweaagtig</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic/ Energiek</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vigorous/ Kragtig</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intense/ Intens</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearful/ Vreesvol</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lively/ Lewendig</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense/ Gespanne</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full of pep/ Opgewek</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 Indicate how you feel about the advertisement that you have just seen/ Dui aan hoe u voel oor die advertensie wat u nouet gesien het:
(Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feeling/ Gevoel</th>
<th>No, definitely not/ Nee, definitief nie</th>
<th>Yes, definitely/ Ja, definitief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Easy to understand/ Maklik om te verstaan</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informatie/ Informatief</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good/ Goed</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting/ Interestant</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useful/ Nuttig</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 Indicate your response to the following statements/ Dui u reaksie op die volgende stellings aan:
(Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response/ Reaksie</th>
<th>No, definitely not/ Nee, definitief nie</th>
<th>Yes, definitely/ Ja, definitief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om my drinkgedrag in die toekoms te verander</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om deel te neem aan dronkbestuur in die toekoms</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION B/ AFDELING B

INSTRUCTIONS/ INSTRUKSIES

Indicate your answer to each question by marking the appropriate block with a “X”. State how you feel or what you think immediately after viewing each advertisement./ Dui u antwoord op elke vraag aan deur die toepaslike blok met ’n “X” te merk. Dui aan hoe u voel onmiddellik nadat u die advertensie gesien het.

ADVERTISEMENT/ ADVERTENSIE 3

1 Have you seen this advertisement before?/ Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
   Yes/ Ja □   No/ Nee □

3 Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel/ Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u sopas gesien het u laat voel het:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

   Definitely do not feel/ Voel definitief nie
   1  2  3  4  5
   Active/ Aktief □  □  □  □  □
   Jittery/ Senuweeagtig □  □  □  □  □
   Energetic/ Energiek □  □  □  □  □
   Vigorous/ Kragtig □  □  □  □  □
   Intense/ Intens □  □  □  □  □
   Fearful/ Vreesvol □  □  □  □  □
   Lively/ Lewendig □  □  □  □  □
   Tense/ Gespanne □  □  □  □  □
   Full of pep/ Opgewek □  □  □  □  □

3 Indicate how you feel about the advertisement that you have just seen/ Dui aan hoe u voel oor die advertensie wat u nownet gesien het:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

   No, definitely not/ Nee, definitief nie
   Easy to understand/ Maklik om te verstaan 1  2  3  4  5
   Informative/ Informatief □  □  □  □  □
   Good/ Goed □  □  □  □  □
   Interesting/ Interessant □  □  □  □  □
   Usefull/ Nuttig □  □  □  □  □

4 Indicate your response to the following statements/ Dui u reaksie op die volgende stellings aan:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ’n “X” by elke stelling)

   After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om my drinkgedrag in die toekoms te verander 1  2  3  4  5
   □  □  □  □  □

   After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om deel te neem aan dronkbestuur in die toekoms 1  2  3  4  5
   □  □  □  □  □
**INSTRUCTIONS/ INSTRUKSIES**

Indicate your answer to each question by marking the appropriate block with a “X”. State how you feel or what you think immediately after viewing each advertisement. Dui u antwoord op elke vraag aan deur die toepaslike blok met ‘n “X” te merk. Dui aan hoe u voel onmiddellik nadat u die advertensie gesien het.

**ADVERTISEMENT/ ADVERTENSIE 4**

1. Have you seen this advertisement before?/ Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
   - Yes/ Ja □
   - No/ Nee □

2. Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel/
   Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u sopas gesien het u laat voel het:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definitely do not feel/ Voel definitief nie</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active/ Aktief</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jittery/ Senuweeagtig</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic/ Energiek</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vigorous/ Kragtig</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
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<td>Intense/ Intens</td>
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<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearful/ Vreesvol</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lively/ Lewendig</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense/ Gespanne</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full of pep/ Opgewek</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Indicate how you feel about the advertisement that you have just seen/ Dui aan hoe u voel oor die advertensie wat u nouent gesien het:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No, definitely not/ Nee, definitief nie</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Easy to understand/ Maklik om te verstaan</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informatie/ Informatief</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good/ Goed</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting/ Interessant</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useful/ Nutig</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Indicate your response to the following statements/ Dui u reaksie op die volgende stellings aan:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No, definitely not/ Nee, definitief nie</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om my drinkgedrag in die toekoms te verander</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om deel te neem aan dronkbestuur in die toekoms</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INSTRUCTIONS/ INSTRUKSIES

Indicate your answer to each question by marking the appropriate block with a “X”. State how you feel or what you think immediately after viewing each advertisement. / Dui u antwoord op elke vraag aan deur die toepaslike blok met ‘n “X” te merk. Dui aan hoe u voel onmiddelik nadat u die advertensie gesien het.

ADVERTISEMENT/ ADVERTENSIE 5

1. Have you seen this advertisement before? / Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
   Yes/ Ja □ No/ Nee □

2. Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel/ Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u sopas gesien het u laat voel het:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

   - Definitely do not feel/ Voel definitief nie
   - 1 2 3 4 5

   Active/ Aktief □ □ □ □ □
   Jittery/ Senuweeagtig □ □ □ □ □
   Vigorous/ Kragtig □ □ □ □ □
   Intense/ Intens □ □ □ □ □
   Lively/ Lewendig □ □ □ □ □
   Full of pep/ Opgewek □ □ □ □ □

3. Indicate how you feel about the advertisement that you have just seen/ Dui aan hoe u voel oor die advertensie wat u nouet gesien het:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

   No, definitely not/ Nee, definitief nie
   Yes, definitely/ Ja, definitief

   - Easy to understand/ Maklik om te verstaan □ □ □ □ □
   - Informatie/ Informatief □ □ □ □ □
   - Good/ Goed □ □ □ □ □
   - Interesting/ Interessant □ □ □ □ □
   - Useful/ Nuttig □ □ □ □ □

4. Indicate your response to the following statements/ Dui u reaksie op die volgende stellings aan:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

   No, definitely not/ Nee, definitief nie
   Yes, definitely/ Ja, definitief

   - After seeing this advertisement I plan to change my drinking behaviour in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om my drinkgedrag in die toekoms te verander □ □ □ □ □
   - After seeing this advertisement I plan to engage in drunken driving in the future/ Nadat ek hierdie advertensie gesien het, beplan ek om deel te neem aan dronkbestuur in die toekoms □ □ □ □ □
INDICATIONS/ INSTRUKSIES

Indicate your answer to each question by marking the appropriate block with a “X”. State how you feel or what you think immediately after viewing each advertisement./ Dui u antwoord op elke vraag aan deur die toepaslike blok met ‘n “X” te merk. Dui aan hoe u voel onmiddelik nadat u die advertensie gesien het.

ADVERTISEMENT/ ADVERTENSIE 6

1 Have you seen this advertisement before?/ Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
Yes/ Ja □ No/ Nee □

2. Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel/ Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u sopas gesien het u laat voel het:
(Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

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1 Have you seen this advertisement before?/ Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
Yes/ Ja ☐ No/ Nee ☐

2. Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel/ Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u sopas gesien het u laat voel het:
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---

**ADVERTISEMENT/ ADVERTENSIE 8**

1. Have you seen this advertisement before?/ Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
   - Yes/ Ja □
   - No/ Nee □

2. Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel/
   Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u sopas gesien het u laat voel het:
   (Please, mark one option with a “X” for each statement/ Merk asseblief een opsie met ‘n “X” by elke stelling)

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### ADVERTISEMENT/ ADVERTENSIE 9

1. Have you seen this advertisement before?/ Het u al hierdie advertensie vantevore gesien?
   - Yes/ Ja ☐
   - No/ Nee ☐

2. Please describe how the advertisement you have just seen made you feel/
   Beskryf asseblief hoe die advertensie wat u sopas gesien het u laat voel het:
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Stellenbosch University  http://scholar.sun.ac.za
Focus group discussion guide

DISCUSSION GUIDE
- PILOT GROUP -

1. INTRODUCTION (10 - 15 min)
   - Researcher introduces herself and the co-researcher (Chris Pentz) to the group
   - Ask which language they prefer/understand. Afrikaans/English? Make it clear that during the focus group they can respond in Afrikaans or English (whatever suits them best).
   - Introduce the respondents to the concept of qualitative research and emphasise the need for information sharing and group participation. Tell them that the session will be recorded for transcribing purposes.
   - Tell the group the plan of action. First, there will be a discussion about a topic and then television advertisements put together by experts will be viewed and a questionnaire will be filled out.
   - Any questions?
   - Fill out the consent forms and hand it in
   - Ask individual to write their names on a nametag
   - Individual introductions and interests
2. DRINKING AND DRIVING BEHAVIOUR (20 - 25 min)

Start the discussion about the drinking and driving behaviour of the group. (If group members do not drink and/or drive, ask them about the behaviour of their friends). Tell them that alcohol use will be discussed and everything said will be confidential and only used by the researcher.

émon Ask the following questions:

**Drinking behaviour:**
- Let’s first talk about alcohol. Are there any of you that do not drink alcohol?
- How regularly do you drink alcohol? Once a year/month/week/day?
- How much do you drink on the occasion that you drink alcohol? One drink, two drinks, three, four, more than four?
- Describe for me the typical situation in which you will drink alcohol. [Prompt if respondents are unsure: Are you in a club/at a party/at a braai…?]
- What do you drink when you drink alcohol?
- Do you ever drink with the purpose in mind to get drunk? Why?

**Drunken driving behaviour:**
- How many of you have a driver’s license?
- How many of you own a car?
- Have you ever driven after having had a few drinks? Why?
- Is it okay to drive after having one drink? Two drinks?
- What is the limit? *What is drunken driving*
- Have you driven while drunk? Why?
- Do you think drunken driving is a problem in Stellenbosch? *Perception about drunken driving*
Have you ever seen a don’t-drink-and-drive-advertisement on South African television? *Impact in terms of remembrance of past/ current South African anti-drunk driving campaigns* Specific advertisements that you can remember?

What is the first word that comes to mind when you think about anti-drunk driving advertisements? *Attitude about anti-drunk driving messages*

What do you think is the best way to go about telling people of the dangers of drunken driving? Why? Do you think one should use humour, or fear or basic information (statistics) to make young people aware and listen?

How often are you generally exposed to advertising/commercials?

How often do you think you are exposed to don’t drink and drive messages?

5 - 10 min break – refreshments will be served
3.REACTION TO TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS (40 min)

Introduce respondents to the concept of advertising research and emphasise that:

- Respondents do not need to become advertising critics or creative directors, but must rather focus on giving their personal and honest opinion/perception/feelings on the discussed issue.
- Material is from different parts of the world (some from South Africa), but the focus is not on country of origin or on the difference in quality, but on the overall message of the advertisement and impact thereof.

*Play the nine TV advertisements one at a time and ask individuals to fill in the self-completion questionnaire for each without talking to one another or influencing each other in any way. Remember to show the advertisements in order of low to high fear appeal (To avoid the “desensitising”-effect when showing the high fear appeal first)*

Once completed, play each advertisement (this time using randomisation) and ask the group to rate each advertisement and put it on a continuum from 1 - 10 in terms of fear. Discuss the advertisement in the group. Discuss why they gave it the specific position on the continuum. Is it a good/bad advertisement? Why? Is it scary/shocking? Is it too scary? Is it not scary enough? Will it be appropriate to screen this on South African television? Why/why not? Will it prevent young people between the ages of 18 – 24 from driving drunk?

- Get the group consensus of whether there are specific advertisements that they would tune out, if at all.
- Any other comments from the group about the advertisements

Ask the group to not participate in the final study which will be held in class, as they already filled out questionnaires. The focus group discussions will be used to select the advertisements that will be used in the final study.

Thank the group for their participation
Addendum E

Instructions regarding sound volume, lighting etc. as given to field workers

Klastye:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Instructor</th>
<th>Room</th>
<th>Student</th>
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Bedryfsielkunde 1005
- Ligte: Lokaal baie lig – maak seker blindings is toe en ligte is af as ad wys
- Kas regs onder – brons sleutel
- Kas bo links – swart sleutel
  - remote – hou in en wys na boksie onder rekenaarskerm
- Kas bo onder – silwer sleutel
  - sit klankboks reg onder aan
  - klank - skuif regs na mic as deur mikrofoon gebruik en in middel as ad wys

Bedryfsielkunde 3001
- Lig: maak blindings toe en sit ligte af as ad wys
- Klank swak – speel met klankversterker en windows media player klank
- Kas links bo – swart sleutel
  - remote - hou in, druk regter knoppie, en wys na projektor
- Kas links onder – brons sleutel
  - sit klank aan regs onder
  - radio/mic –knoppie beheer klank as ad speel
- Kas regs onder – silwer sleutel

Wilcocks 323
- Ligte 25 % of af
- Klank op windows media player self op 1/3de laagste en dan beheer klank op bank deur knop te draai. NB: sit klankversterker aan
- Open with… anders maak dit nie in windows media player oop nie

Opvoedkunde 1028
- Ligte 25 % of af
- Draai klank op bank op hoogste
- Open with… anders gebruik dit ander program as windows media player
Instructions on conducting the experimental groups

Maandag, 17 September
Finale studie

Klasse:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Instructor</th>
<th>Room</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>08:00</td>
<td>B Sielk. 1005</td>
<td>Vd Bergh</td>
<td>Wilcocks 323</td>
<td>Leilanie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:00</td>
<td>Opvoedkunde 1028</td>
<td>Vd Bergh</td>
<td>B Sielk. 3001</td>
<td>Leilanie</td>
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<tr>
<td>10:00</td>
<td>B Sielk. 1005</td>
<td>Vd Bergh</td>
<td>Wilcocks 323</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Besig met navorsing in “advertising”
Kan help deur vraelys in te vul wat 2 bladsye lank is
Wat hulle moet doen: Vul eerste bladsy in, kyk advertensie en vul tweede bladsy in
Diegene wat aan fokusgroep deelgeneem het, mag nie weer deelneem aan studie
nie – indien hul wel ‘n vraelys in die hande kry, moet hul dit nie invul nie, maar boaan
aandui dat hulle in die fokusgroep was.
Gaan so 15 min neem

Deel “consent forms” uit
Vir US doeleindes as bewys dat ons nie studente geforseer het nie
Vul in en stuur na einde van die rye

Deel vraelys 1 uit, Deel vraelys 2 uit, deel plakkers uit
Vra studente om plakker **regs bo in blok te plak op albei vraelyste**

Verduidelik die volgende voor hul begin invul:
* NB Mag nie met mekaar gesels terwyl invul nie
* Vul jou ouderdom by vraag 1 in en die res alles kruisies
* NB Maak seker dat by elke vraag een kruisie trek

Vul Afdeling A in

Speel advertensie

Vul Afdeling B in

Neem vraelyste in en bedank studente vir hul deelname
Addendum G

Consent form
The effect of the level of fear appeal used in anti-drunken driving television advertisements on attitude and intention of South African young people.

U word gevra om deel te neem aan ‘n navorsingstudie uitgevoer deur Elizabeth Nicolette de Villiers, Hon.Comm. Ondernemingsbestuur, van die Departement Ondernemingsbestuur aan die Universiteit Stellenbosch. Resultate van hierdie studie sal deel vorm van die navorser se tesis ten einde die graad, M.Comm. Ondernemingsbestuur, te verwerf. U is as moontlike deelnemer aan die studie gekies omdat u ‘n eerste jaar Ondernemingsbestuurstudent is en binne die ouderdomsgroep, 18 tot 24 jaar, val.

1. DOEL VAN DIE STUDIE
Die doel van hierdie studie is om vas te stel of die gebruik van vreesaanslagte in anti-dronkbestuur advertensies ‘n beduidende effek het op voorneme om nie dronk te bestuur nie onder jong mense tussen die ouderdom van 18 en 24 jaar.

2. PROSEDURES
Indien u inwillig om aan die studie deel te neem, vra ons dat u die volgende doen:
Afdeling A van ‘n vraelys invul wat demografiese inligting dek. Hierna sal een advertensie vertoon word, waarna Afdeling B van dieselfde vraelys ingevul sal word. Die studie behoort ongeveer 15 minute van u tyd op te neem.

3. MOONTLIKE RISIKO’S EN ONGEMAKLIKHEID
Geen voorsienbare risiko’s, ongemaklikheid of ongerief word voorsien nie.

4. MOONTLIKE VOORDELE VIR DIE SAMELEWING
Sosiale bemarkers sal baat by hierdie studie aangesien een doelwit van hierdie studie is om te bepaal of vreesaanslagte effektief is om dronkbestuur te verminder onder die Wes-Kaap se jeug.

5. VERGOEDING VIR DEELNAME
Geen vergoeding word aangebied nie en deelnemer is vrywillig.

6. VERTRouLIKEHID
Enige inligting wat deur middel van die navorsing verkry word sal vertroulik bly. Vertroulikeheid sal gehandhaaf word deur anonieme hantering van die vraelyste. Slegs die navorser en toesig houer sal toegang hê tot die vraelyste na die afloop van die studie.

7. DEELNAME EN ONTTREKKING
U kan self besluit of u aan die studie wil deelneem of nie. Indien u inwillig om aan die studie deel te neem, kan u te eniger tyd u daaraan onttrek sonder enige nadelige gevolge. Die navorser kan u aan die studie onttrek indien onwaarskynlik dit noodsaklik maak. Omstandighede sal onder andere insluit die bespreking van vrae met ander deelnemers aangesien vrae individueel beantwoord moet word.
The effect of the level of fear appeal used in anti-drunken driving television advertisements on attitude and intention of South African young people.

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Elizabeth Nicolette de Villiers, Hon.Comm. Business Management, from the Department of Business Management at the University of Stellenbosch. Results from this study will be used in a thesis in order to obtain the degree M.Comm. Business Management. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a first year Business Management student and fall within the age group of 18 and 24 years of age.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The purpose of this study is to determine whether fear appeals as used in anti-drunken driving advertising messages has any impact on the intention of people between the ages of 18 and 24 to stop drinking and driving.

2. PROCEDURES
If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following: Fill out section A of a survey that cover demographical information, then view a television advertisement and fill out section B of the survey. The study will take up about 15 minutes of your time.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS
No reasonable risks, discomforts, or inconvenience are foreseen.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SOCIETY
Social marketers will benefit from this study as one of the objectives of the study is to determine whether fear appeals are effective in reducing drunken driving amongst the youth of the Western Cape.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION
No remuneration is offered and participation is voluntary.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY
Any information that is obtained in this study will be kept confidential. Only the researcher and study leader will have access to the survey data.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL
You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. The researcher may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so. Circumstances such as these, will include cases where respondents talk to one another while filling out the survey, as the survey is meant to be filled out individually.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF RESEARCHERS
If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mrs M Smit (study leader)</th>
<th>Miss EN de Villiers (researcher)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schumann building R.414</td>
<td>Schumann building R.408c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Stellenbosch</td>
<td>University of Stellenbosch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tel: 021 808 3656</td>
<td>Tel: 021 808 2820</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. RIGHTS OF PARTICIPANTS
You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Miss M Hunter-Hüsselmann at the Unit for Research Development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miss M Hunter-Hüsselmann</th>
<th>Unit for Research Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University of Stellenbosch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tel: 021 808 4623</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The information above was described to me by the researcher/field worker in Afrikaans and English and I, the participant, am in command of this language. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I was shown a copy of this form.

Name of Participant

Signature ____________________________________________________________ Date ____________

---

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to the participant. He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in Afrikaans and English and no translator was used.

Signature of Researcher ______________________________________________ Date ____________
MODERATOR1: Goed, ek wil net hê ons moet begin en jouself voorstel. So sê net jou naam en jy kan jou ouderdom sê as jy wil, en as jy in iets belangstel, soos as jy sport doen, of 'n hobby...

MANLIK1: Van waar af jy kom, miskien?

MODERATOR1: Of van waar jy kom. So stel vir die groep voor wie jy is.

MANLIK1: Hallo, ek is <MANLIK1>. Ek kom van Johannesburg.

(Vleugel sê: “Oeee”. Gelag)

MANLIK1: Ja, <MANLIK2>.

VROULIK1: I'm <VROULIK1> and I'm from Namibia. Studying BComm Management.

MANLIK3: Ek is <MANLIK3> en ek is maar van Somerset.

(Gelag)

MANLIK4: Ek is <MANLIK4> en ek is van Paarl.

VROULIK2: Ek is <VROULIK2> en ek is van Belville en ek swot BComm LLB.

MANLIK4: O, ja, ek swot BRek

VROULIK3: In watse hoërskool was jy?

VROULIK2: Hoërskool Belville. Het jy debat gepraat?

VROULIK3: Een keer.

VROULIK2: Jy lyk bekend.

VROULIK3: Dis seker van waar ek jou ken.

MANLIK5: Ek is <MANLIK5> en ek is van Pniël.

VROULIK4: Uhm, my naam is <VROULIK4>. Ek is van Warrington. Ek studeer BRek.

VROULIK5: Hi, everyone, my name is <VROULIK5>. I'm from Durbanville and I am studying BComm Managerial Sciences.

VROULIK6: My name's <VROULIK6>, uhm, I'm from Belville and I'm doing BComm Management.

VROULIK7: Hi, ek is <VROULIK7> ek's van Kraaifontein
VROULIK3: Hi, ek's <VROULIK3> en ek swot BRek en ek kom van Durbanville.
MANLIK2: Uh, my naam is <MANLIK2> (mompel iets soos: julle weet seker wie ek is) en ek kom van Klawer. So, nie een van julle weet waar dit is nie.
(Klomp gepraat)
VROULIK7: Ek weet nie waar.
MANLIK3: iewers.
MANLIK2: Wel omtrent daar. Dis hierso... Het jy al van die Rittelfees gehoor? (Mompel)
MANLIK1: Dis nowhere.
VROULIK1: I know it well.
Iemand: Dis daar waar die Rittelfees is.
VROULIK8: Ek's <VROULIK8> en ek kom van Tzaneen af. Ek sal verbaas wees as enige iemand weet waar dit is.
Iemand: Ja, sy is die verste van ons almal...
MODERATOR1: Ja, ek is oorspronklik van Worcester en <MODERATOR2> bly tans in die Paarl, né? Ja.
MODERATOR2: Ja.
MODERATOR1: Ok, soos ek gesê het, gaan ons 'n topic bespreek en ek gaan vra dat julle uit julle eie antwoord en as niemand volunteer nie, dan gaan ek sommer vir 'n paar van julle vra wat julle dink. Maar ek hoef nie jou naam te noem nie, jy kan maar net vir my sê as jy iets wil sê oor wat ek vra. So, ons gaan begin. Ons gaan bietjie oor alkohol en alkohol gebruik praat. Ek wil net sê weereens dat dit anoniem is alles wat julle sê. Ek gaan nie jou ma bel en vir haar sê Pietie drink hom dronk elke dag en hy woon niks klas by nie, want hy's te dronk om klas toe te gaan. Ek gaan nie dit doen nie. Dit is net vir navorsing. So, is daar enige van julle wat glad nie alkohol drink nie?
(Gelag)
MANLIK5: (mompel)
MODERATOR1: Drink jy glad nie?
(Gelag)
MANLIK5: Grappie!
(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: OK, die doel van die gesprek is om eerlik te wees, so... Nee, ek joke net. So, die eerste vraag is: Hoe gereeld drink julle alkohol wanneer julle nou drink? Drink julle een keer in 'n jaar, een keer 'n maand, een keer 'n week, een keer 'n dag, elke minuut?
(Gelag)
MANLIK1: As mens uitgaan.
VROULIK7: By sosiale geleenthede.
MANLIK1: 2 tot 3 keer 'n week.
Iemand fluit.
MODERATOR1: OK, 2 tot 3 keer ‘n week?
VROULIK2: Ja, ek sal een keer in so 2 weke.
MANLIK1: Dit hang af!
MODERATOR1: Een keer in 2 weke.
MANLIK4: Een keer ‘n maand.
VROULIK7: Een keer ‘n maand.
MANLIK3: Elke naweek.
MODERATOR1: Wat van Woensdae aande?
MANLIK3: Nie in die week nie.
MODERATOR1: Dan swot hy!
MANLIK2: Ek sal drink omdat dit vir my lekker is om te drink, maar nie om buite myself te..
dis nie vir my lekker as ek nie beheer het oor myself nie.
MODERATOR1: Maar hoeveel keer drink jy in ‘n… Hoe baie drink jy?
MANLIK2: Op ‘n dag?
(Almal lag)
MANLIK2: As ek uitgaan, dan sal ek sê maar Woensdae en Vrydae.
MODERATOR1: So, 2 dae ‘n week?
MANLIK2: Ja, sê maar twee keer ‘n week, as ek nou moet...
MANLIK1: Dit hang af van toetse.
MANLIK2: Ja, dit hang af hoe besig ek is. Ek gaan nou nie my skedule by alkohol inpas nie,
ek sal alkohol by my skedule inpas. As ek kuier, dan sal ek ‘n “drink” drink, maar ek gaan
nou nie op my eie sit en ‘n bottel wyn drink nie. As my vriende drink, dan sal ek drink
MODERATOR1: Maar gemiddeld so twee keer ‘n week. Is dit wat jy sê?
MANLIK2: Ja, ja.
MODERATOR1: Ok, <VROULIK8>?
VROULIK8: Uh, een keer ‘n week gemiddeld.
MODERATOR1: Een keer ‘n week. <VROULIK6>?
VROULIK6: Only on weekends. Thursday, Friday or Saturday nigt if I go out.
MODERATOR1: Is daar iemand van julle wat elke dag drink?
(Gemompel)
Iemand: Nee.
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK7>?
VROULIK7: So twee keer….Elke tweede naweek.
MODERATOR1: So meestal so weekliks, tweeweekliks...
MANLIK1: Maar wat drink jy? Bier?
MODERATOR1: Ons gaan nou bietjie spesifiseer.
MANLIK1: Quantify!
MODERATOR1: So, ons het nou gesê hoe gereeld ons drink, nou wanneer julle drink, hoeveel drink julle? Van watookal julle drink. Drink julle een drankie? Twee, drie, vier?
(Gelag)
MANLIK4: Tot ek dit voel.
(Iemand: Tot ek swaai!)
(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: Maar gemiddeld…?
MANLIK2: Sê maar drie biere.
MANLIK1: Tot ek so begin lekker voel!
(Gelag)
MANLIK1: So, 3.
MANLIK2: Dit hang ook af wat jy drink. Of jy geëet het of nie. As ek middagete geëet het, so ligte brandewyntjie. Ek voel dis verkeerd om gesuip te raak. Ek sal drink tot ek voel, maar ek moet nou stop, dan stop ek nou.
MANLIK1: Wyn is ‘n sonde.
MANLIK2: Ja, nee, uhm, en as ek nou soos heeltemal niks geld het nie, sal ek in elk geval sê maar net een glasie wyn drink. As ek nou meer geld het, sal ek ‘n dubbel brandewyn gaan koop.
MODERATOR1: So, gemiddeld as jy nou twee keer ‘n week uitgaan, hoeveel drankies drink jy op ‘n aand?
MANLIK2: Drie eenhede op ‘n aand.
MODERATOR1: Drie eenhede op ‘n aand?
MANLIK2: Ja.
(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK4>, hoeveel eenhede drink jy in jou maand wat jy drink?
(Gelag)
MANLIK4: Seker maar drie.
VROULIK2: Ek sal, man, as dit nou Archers of so is, dan sal ek nou een of iets sterkers soos ‘n cocktail drink.
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>?
MANLIK5: Dit hang af hoe gaaf dit gaan.
MODERATOR1: So gemiddeld op naweke wat jy uitgaan, hoeveel drink jy op ‘n aand, soos op ‘n Vrydagaand?
MANLIK5: Gewoonlik drink ek nie op Vrydae nie, maar op Saterdae.
MODERATOR1: Dan, Saterdae?
MANLIK5: So van 8 uur af en dan sal ek drink tot Sondagoggend wanneer ek gaan slaap.
Iemand: Hy kan nie tel nie!

MANLIK5: Maar ons gaan baie uit op sekere plekke, dan een plek, dan sal ons miskien drink daar en dan gaan ons na 'n ander plek toe.

MANLIK2: Drie eenhede op 'n plek.

MODERATOR1: Maar hoeveel op 'n plek?

MANLIK5: Sal nie kan sê nie.

MODERATOR1: Jy kan solank dink.

VROULIK7: Vir my so 4, 5.

MODERATOR1: <VROULIK4>?

VROULIK4: Ja, so 3, 4 of...

MANLIK4: Sjoe!

VROULIK5: Depends on the occasion, I think. I don't know. Something chilled, then I’d have like 2. Something rough: like maybe 3 or 4. (Lag)

MODERATOR1: So, usually you’d have?

VROULIK5: Three.

MODERATOR1: <VROULIK6>?

VROULIK6: Three or two.

VROULIK5: Also, if you move around to different places, I’d have one drink at each place...

MODERATOR1: <VROULIK8>?

VROULIK8: Nie meer as twee op 'n aand nie.

MODERATOR1: Wie’t ek oorgeslaan? <MANLIK3>?

MANLIK3: Ek drink totdat my knieë begin lam raak.

MODERATOR1: Hoe lank vat dit vir jou knieë om lam te raak?

MANLIK3: 3, 4.

MODERATOR1: So, wat drink julle as julle nou drink? Dit het nou alles ook te doen met wat jy drink natuurlik soos julle nounet gesê het. So, wat drink julle as julle drink?

MANLIK2: Dit hang ook af waar jy drink. As ons in ‘n bar is, dan koop ons drank, dan sal jy eintlik meer drink as wat jy sal drink by ‘n club,

Iemand: Uhm, cheaper.

MANLIK2: Dis goedkoper. En baie keer so..., uhm, ja.

MODERATOR1: Ek gaan nou sommer een van die ander vrae meng met hierdie een. Wat is die tipiese situasie waarin jy drink? Soos jy nou gesê het ‘n braai. Waar drink jy?
MANLIK2: Ek sal nie drink as ek, uh, kwaad is of dit nie. Ek glo nie ek wil alkohol drink omdat ek ’n rede het om alkohol te drink nie, want dan ontwikkel ek ’n probleem.

(Gelag)

MANLIK2: Maar dis, dis eintlik moerse interessant hoe meeste mense se alkohol probleme begin op varsity.

Iemand: Ja.

Iemand: Dit maak sin.

MANLIK2: Mense, as jy besef jy’t ’n probleem dan het jy eintlik lankal ’n probleem.

(Gelag)

MANLIK2: So, uhm...

MODERATOR1: Ok, maar waar sal jy nou tipies drink? Soos jy nou gesê het. Waar drink julle?

MANLIK2: Sê maar die kwartaal is nou verby, dan sal ons klomp vleis koop en sê maar ’n bottel brandewyn koop en dan sal ons braai en goed. Maar net omdat jy nou bottel brandewyn gekoop het, beteken nou nie jy gaan jou moer toe suip nie.

MODERATOR1: So, julle braai en dan drink julle brandewyn?

MANLIK1: Maar rustig.

MANLIK2: Want dis goed saam met vleis: die Coke.

(Gelag)

MANLIK2: Maar as ons uitgaan, dan sal ons...

MODERATOR1: Dan wat drink jy dan?

MANLIK2: Dan sal ek ’n paar biere drink.

VROULIK1: A glass of wine or two.

MANLIK1: Cocktail.

MODERATOR1: So, where would you typically drink?

VROULIK1: Well, either to a good dinner or an occasion, but something typical like wine or something, and then if I go out, a cider. Can’t afford any hard core drinks. (Laughs) And maybe, occasionally, like a cocktail.

VROULIK7: Is die vraag nou wat presies ons drink?

MANLIK2: Hang af wat die specials is.

MODERATOR1: Ja, wat jy drink en waar jy drink, want ons het nou agtergekom party mense drink op verskillende plekke verskillende goeters.

VROULIK5: Soos wat ek en my vriende kom nou bymekaar, dan sal hulle koop: Whiskey, brandy en bier. Ek drink deurmekaar.

MODERATOR1: En waar drink jy? Waar is julle dan?

VROULIK5: Dis nou by iemand se plek.

MODERATOR1: Iemand se huis.
VROULIK5: Maar sê nou ons gaan uit na 'n club toe dan drink ek ciders of ek koop 'n bier net, maar jy gaan drink nou nie so baie soos wat jy drink as jy by die huis is nie.
MODERATOR1: Hoekom?
Iemand: Want dis duurder.
VROULIK5: Ek weet nie, maar vir een of ander rede raak jy gouer dronk in 'n club.
(Baie gelag)
MANLIK5: It depends on the weather ok.
(Baie gelag)
MANLIK5: As dit koud is, gaan jy nou nie 'n koue ding wil drink nie, maar goed wat jou warm maak.
MODERATOR1: So, wat drink jy gewoonlik?
MANLIK5: Whiskey, nou.
MODERATOR1: Is jy 'n Whiskey man?
(Gelag)
MANLIK5: Daais al. Miskien nog ciders of so but, soos ek sê: Depends on the weather...
MODERATOR1: En waar drink jy gewoonlik? Waar is die tipiese situasie waarin jy drink?
MANLIK5: Ons hang meeste van die tyd by huise uit of ons gaan miskien uit na spots, ons kom na clubs toe of so, maar dis weinig dat ons na 'n club toe kom, want die geld is baie wat jy uitgee daar vir die drinks.
MANLIK2: As ek by die huis is, sal ek 'n glas wyn of bier drink; as ek saam met vriende is, sal ek 'n glas brandewyn drink.
MODERATOR1: Is dit nou by jou ma-hulle se huis?
MANLIK2: Ja.
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK6>?
VROULIK6: I like to drink ciders when I go out a lot. I like Hunters Gold and…
VROULIK6: Shots.
VROULIK6: Ja, shots and stuff like that ...
MODERATOR1: Where do you typically drink?
VROULIK6: Uhm, if you drink like before you go out, then it'll be at someone's house or flat or something.
MODERATOR1: Do you usually…Are you somewhere before you go out?
VROULIK6: We drink together.
VROULIK6: Ja. It's cheaper when you go out. You don't spend as much money on alcohol.
Iemand: Dis te duur om uit te gaan.
MODERATOR1: So what do you drink before you go out?
VROULIK6: What do we drink?
MODERATOR1: Ja.
VROULIK6: Whenever like...I don't know. I like gin as well.
VROULIK5: Gin is a non-alcoholic drink.
MODERATOR1: And <VROULIK5>e?
VROULIK5: Ja, basically we drink together so basically the same. If you go out then like ciders and shots and so...
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK3>?
MANLIK3: Ek sal net as ek by clubs is of as ek nou by parties is drink. Ek sal nie op my eie gaan en drink nie. As ek by die club is, bestel ek rum...
MODERATOR1: Sal jy rum drink? En by paarties saam met jou vriende?
MANLIK3: Hang af wat daar is. Behalwe bier.
MODERATOR1: Behalwe bier. OK. So sy hou van die harde hout?
MANLIK3: Die harde hout.
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK4>?
MANLIK4: Stem saam met hom, maar met die bier ingesluit.
(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: So, daai een keer 'n maand wat jy drink, waar drink jy?
MANLIK4: Saam met my tjommies en in die clubs ok en so aan.
MODERATOR1: Is die clubs in Stellenbosch waarvan julle praat?
MANLIK4: Stellenbosch, ja.
Iemand: Ja.
Iemand: Of in die Strand.
MANLIK1: Of as jy huistoe gaan.
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK4>, wat drink jy?
VROULIK4: Ek is maar net 'n cider-tipe girl. Niks sterk drank of bier. Ek chill maar met my vriende by die huis, paarties, of special occasions.
MANLIK4: By Dros.
VROULIK4: (Lag) Of by Dros.
MODERATOR1: So as julle drink, drink enige van julle ooit met die doel voor oë om dronk te word?
MANLIK4: As 'n mens depressed is na 'n toets, en dan.
(Gelag en gepraat)
MODERATOR1: Sy een keer in 'n maand is elke keer na sy OB's toets.
(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: So, sal jy na 'n toets drink om dronk te word?
MANLIK4: Nee, as ek nou rërig depressed is en ek het nie lekker geskryf nie, maar ek weet ek het baie hard geleer. Dan sal ek nou.
MANLIK1: Ook as jy verjaar dan weet jy jou vriende gaan jou onder die arm vat…
Drie ja’s.
VROULIK2: Nee, maar!
MANLIK1: Dis die ding...
(Klomp gelag en gemompel)
MANLIK1: Kan ek nou praat hieroor?
MANLIK2: Ag moet nou nie ’n klomp stories kom opmaak nie...
VROULIK2: Nee, maar!
MANLIK1: Dis die ding.
MODERATOR1: So, jy sal soms drink om dronk te word as...
MANLIK1: Nee, ek hou nie van dronk wees nie. Dis nie vir my lekker nie.
MANLIK4: Ons is maar rustig.
MANLIK3: Nou hoekom drink jy dan as jy nie wil dronk raak nie?
(Gelag)
MANLIK1: Ek hou daarvan om gekuier te wees, jy weet? Daai lekker gevoel.
MANLIK2: Hy praat van gesuip soos jy kan nie jou pad navigeer nie.
MANLIK1: Ek praat van gesuip soos...
MODERATOR1: Ok, <MANLIK3>, drink jy soms om dronk te word?
MANLIK3: So af en toe, ja, maar ek sal nie drink sodat ek nou nie kan loop nie.
MODERATOR1: So, hoekom doen jy dit?
MANLIK3: Vir die fun daarvan.
MODERATOR1: Ok, <MANLIK1>, hoekom sal jy dit doen?
MANLIK1: Ek sal nie. Ek hou van kuier, maar ek hou nie van kuier tot op ’n punt wat… Ek hou op. Vra vir <MANLIK2>. Ons kuier saam. Ek word nie baie gekuier nie.
(Gelag)
MANLIK2: Hy raak baie maklik gekuier. Dis hoekom hy nie drink nie.
(Gelag)
MANLIK1: Dankie, hoor <MANLIK2>.
MANLIK2: Huhuh, nee dit is so, jy sal… Daar’s vir my ’n groot verskil: Drink omdat dit lekker is en drink vir ’n rede. Ek dink daar is twee soorte drinkers: Jy drink omdat dit ontspanning is, omdat jy dit geniet of jy drink om ’n rede. Want as jy drink vir ’n rede, dan het jy nooit genoeg nie. So, ek wil ook net drink omdat dit vir my lekker is om ’n glasie wyn of ’n drankie of twee of drie te drink. Maar veral as ’n mens begin agterkoms jy kan nou alkohol gebruik, dan is dit maar so paar keer, dan moet jy jou kop maar ordentlik stamp en dan sien jy dis ook nie meer snaaks nie en dan raak jy verantwoordelik. Party mense vat ook langer om agter te kom dis nie eintlik so cool om gesuip te raak nie.
VROULIK2: Ja, maar ek weet nie. Ek twyfel net of mens kan dronk raak…Ek dink mens kan nie dronk raak op een van enige iets nie.
(Gepraat)
VROULIK2: Nee, maar verstaan, soos ek sal soos Archers of Brutal Fruit... of ons sal soos ’n bottel wyn tussen agt van ons hê, verstaan. Nee, maar verstaan, ek drink spesifiek om soos nie enigsins beheer te verloor oor enige iets wat ek doen nie. Of om soos stupid te klink of om te lag, verstaan?
(Gemompel)
VROULIK2: Nee, ek kan nie dink dat ek dit ooit sal doen nie.
VROULIK3: Baie mense drink ook omdat al die ander mense dronk is. Baiekeer dan is al jou vriende dronk, dan is jy soos lahlah, dan drink jy nou maar ook...
MODERATOR1: So, sal jy nou in daardie situasie drink om dronk te word?
VROULIK3: Nee, ek het nie gedrink om dronk te word nie, nee.
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK6>?
VROULIK6: Uhm, I think it’s nice to once in a while get drunk like that, in my opinion and also after a test if you think you didn’t do very well or so...
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK5>?
VROULIK5: I also think like he said that you need to stamp your head a few times. Like two years ago then you would like drink and be irresponsible and you’d drink and get drunk and whatever. But think like when you’re older, you are more mature and you know how much alcohol you can handle.
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK7>?
VROULIK7: Nee, ek dink net somtyds, soos hy sê as jy depressed is, maar einltik baie min dat ek nou drink om dronk te word.
MODERATOR1: Ja...
VROULIK4: Maar ander tye is dit net dat ek ontspan dan sal ek ook stop.
MANLIK2: Ja, dis lekker om na ‘n lang dag agteroor te sit...
(Gelag)
MANLIK2: Ek het vir ‘n jaar gewerk op die plaas en dan het ek elke parstyd… dan is dit 40 grade buitekant. Dan werk ek in die dag in die son, dit is roetine, dan kom ek die aand by die huis, dan sal ek en Egoli sit en kyk en ‘n bord kos eet en dan sit ek en drink ‘n bier.
(Gelag)
MANLIK2: En dan eet ek ‘n bord kos en dan gaan slaap ek. Maar dit moet nou nie soos later aan raak soos jy moet nou elke aand... maar dis lekker om na elke dag, soos het hulle sê (Het julle al daai advertensie gesien?) ’n reward.... Dis lekker om na ‘n harde dag ’n glasie wyn of ‘n bier te drink.
VROULIK7: Ek dink dit hang ook af van waar jy bly soos ek is oorspronklik van Clanwilliam af. Daar drink die mense elke dag.

(Gelag)

VROULIK7: Daar’s niks anders om te doen nie. Nou vir hulle is dit niks om elke dag te drink nie. As mense van die werk kom, dan koop hulle drie biere. Elke dag.

VROULIK1: I also come from a small, sort of community town and when you’re thirteen. When you’re thirteen you’ve got nothing else to do and you start using alcohol.

MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>?

MANLIK5: Ek sal sê mens kan nou nie eintlik besluit of jy nou dronk wil wees of nie. Dit kom mos vanself. Party dae dan kan jy nou baie drink en uithou vir daai tyd, cause jy’t net ‘n paar doppe gedrink en dan is jy nou skielik dronk. Mens het eintlik nie beheer nie, jy moet maar dit vat soos dit kom.

(Gelag)

MANLIK1: Nie almal kan ewe veel drink nie.

MANLIK2: Hy drink drie biere dan’s hy redelik baie happy. Dan moet ons stop.

(Gelag)

MANLIK1: Kyk, ek het ‘n tweeling broer.

MANLIK2: Nee, maar rêrig waar. Dan kry mens iemand anders wat heeland net sal ‘n hele paar biere drink en dit hang af van hoeveel bloed jy in jou liggaam het.

Nie almal drink.. een bier vir hom sê nou maar is drie biere ekwivalent vir my. Verstaan?

MANLIK1: Dit hang af hoe baie jy drink en hoe gereeld jy drink. As jy baie drink dan kan jy meer drink en as jy min drink...

MANLIK2: Ekonomie sê dis ‘n gewoontevoormende produk.

MODERATOR1: So, <MANLIK5>, jy drink nooit met die doel om dronk te word nie?

MANLIK5: Nee, dit gebeur weinig. Ek sal nie eers kan sê dit gebeur ooit nie en nou is dit vakansie nou is ek heeldag saam met mense, nou drink ek miskien baie en dan is ek uit en dan gaan slaap jy en nou staan hy. Nou as dit more kom, dan kan hy nie meer nie, dan is hy dan staan jy nou weer.

VROULIK2: Ja, ek weet nie, soos my, verstaan, ek dink ek het soos lankal ‘n conscious besluit gemaak om nooit in my lewe dronk te wees nie. Want mens kom soos by plekke en dan kry mens net soos hierdie dronk ouens wat oor jou val. En dis net vir my unlucky. So…

(Gelag)

VROULIK2: So ek wil net nie ooit daai mens wees nie.

MANLIK1: Maar die ding is as jy kuier dan moet jy bietjie happy wees om net meer fun te hé.

(Klomp gepraat)

VROULIK2: Nee, jy het nie!
VROULIK8: Jy kan nie net die hele aand drink nie. Happiness hang van jouself af.
VROULIK2: Dis vir my net so lekker met alkohol as sonder.
MODERATOR1: So, min van julle drink met die doel om dronk te raak, maar gebeur dit tog baie?
Twee nee’s. (Gelag)
MODERATOR2: Wat sou jy gesê het is dit om dronk te wees? Wanneer is ‘n mens dronk?
MANLIK1: As mens niks kan onthou nie.
MANLIK3: Ek glo nie daai nie.
MANLIK2: Elke mens het sy eie persoonlike definisie.
MANLIK3: Ek glo nie daai nie. Iemand kan nie iets onthou as hy dronk is nie. Dit het nog nooit met my gebeur nie en tot dit nie met my gebeur nie, gaan ek dit nie glo nie.
MANLIK2: Moet ék mooi vir jou verduidelik?
(Gelag)
MANLIK2: Daar is sekere stappe...
(Gelag)
MANLIK2: Kyk ek dink as jy optree soos jy nie normaalweg sal optree nie, dan dink ek jy’s dronk. Party mense sê tipsy en dronk is twee verskillende goed, party mense sê as jy dronk is, is jy dronk. Maar ek dink as jy optree soos wat jy nie normaalweg sal optree nie, dan is jy al klaar dronk. En voor dit is jy ook warm...
VROULIK1: There’s a point of irresponsibility I think.
MANLIK2: Ja.
MODERATOR1: So wie van julle drink om tipsy te raak, om net ‘n lekker gevoel te hê? Nie soos om dronk te raak dat jy nie meer kan loop nie, maar om daardie lekker gevoel te hê?
MANLIK3: Ja.
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK3> sê jy, jy doen?
MANLIK3: Ja.
MODERATOR1: Hoekom doen jy dit?
MANLIK3: Want as jy nie tipsy raak nie, wat is die doel dan jy drink?
(Gelag)
MANLIK1: Goeie antwoord!
MODERATOR1: Enige iemand anders? <MANLIK5>? Drink jy nooit om net so half lekker te voel en tipsy te raak nie?
MANLIK5: Ek sal net drink vir die plesier daarvaan en tyd op te maak en saam met my vrinne te wees, maar nie met die doel nou om dronk te wees of so nie.
VROULIK4: Maar om jouself te geniet.
MANLIK5: Ja, net geniet, nie dronk jy’t nie beheer oor jouself nie.
VROULIK7: Partykeer dan weet mens ok wanneer om te stop, want miskien kry jy aanduiding jy raak tipsy, dan stop jy nou. Dis goeie verantwoordelikheid.

MODERATOR1: OK, ek gaan so bietjie die topic verander…

MODERATOR2: Kan ek nog iets vra? Sê nou ons beloning vir julle vandag was ons vat julle ’n club toe vanaand en jy kan drink so veel as wat jy wil. Jy hoef glad nie te worry oor geld nie: alles is verniet. Gee jou vir ons ’n aanduiding van hoeveel drankies jul dan sal kies.

MANLIK2: Ek sal gaan geld trek. Dan sal ek drink tot op ’n stadium en dan sal ek uitgaan en loop eet ordentlik, sodat ek nog kan drink en nie hoef dronk te word nie.

MODERATOR1: Maar hoeveel sal jy drink?

MANLIK2: Die heel duurste ding wat vir my lekker is, is gin. En dan sal ek sê maar so 4 drinks drink en dan ook water tussenin, want dan raak ek ok nie dronk nie en dan sê maar nog 5 drinks en dan sal ek… Ek sal drink soever soos wat ek nou nie dronk raak nie, want ek voel as ek dronk is dan staan ek op die volgende oggend en voel teleurgesteld in myself. Ek voel ook uit ’n geloofsoogpunt uit dit is ook verkeerd en ek sê nie... daar’s nie iets fout daarmee om alkohol te geniet nie, maar jy moet maar vir jouself uitmaak...

MANLIK1: Daar’s ’n punt van alles...

MODERATOR1: Hoeveel sal jy drink, <MANLIK1>?

MANLIK1: Ek weet nie. ’n Mens weet nie hoeveel jy kan drink nie. Dit gebeur net.

MODERATOR1: Sê nou maar jy het carte blanche met geld en jy kan enige iets bestel van watter drinks jy ookal wil bestel, hoeveel sal jy drink?

MANLIK1: Ek weet nie. Ten to one, sal ek baie drink.

MODERATOR1: Baie?

MANLIK1: Ja, ja, seker...

MODERATOR1: Hoeveel is dit? Tien? Meer?

MANLIK1: Enige iets. Tot ek op die punt kom waar ek nie meer kan nie.

VROULIK5: Till your head starts spinning...

MANLIK1: Ja.

MODERATOR1: How many would you drink?

VROULIK5: It depends what it is. If you take something like a vodka and a Red Bull cause that is what I’d have.

MODERATOR1: So, how many would you drink of that?

VROULIK5: Three or four. I don’t know?

MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>, hoeveel sal jy drink?

MANLIK5: Ek sal nie sê hoeveel ek sal drink nie, maar ek sal dit mooi inpas vir die hele aand, dat ek my heeltyd kan besig hou met… maar nie soos aanmekaar, want die helfte van die aand is dan om en jy gaan tiep.
MANLIK5: Ek sal mooi inpas van die begin tot dit nou klaar is.

MODERATOR1: Ok, <MANLIK4>, hoeveel sal jy drink?

MANLIK4: Ek weet nie. Tot my kop nou begin lekker voel.

MODERATOR2: Dink julle al die pubs vir 'n maand lank in Stellenbosch free drinks gaan gee.

MANLIK3: Dan sal dit net vakansie moet wees...

MODERATOR2: Ja. Dink julle geld, dat die goed duur is en alles, stop mense om meer te drink? Of sê nou maar alles kos R 5, R 3 of watookal, sal mense meer drink omdat dit goedkoper is?

VROULIK7: Ja.

MANLIK2: Ja, ek kan dit staaf met Denim & Diamonds se special op 'n Maandagaand. Hulle vra R 20 om in te kom en dan betaal jy R 5 vir drinks en as iemand sê nou R 100 het om mee uit te gaan, sal hy R 100 opdrink, of hy nou R 1 'n shot betaal en of hy nou R 10 'n shot betaal. Dis hoe ek ek argumenteer. Dan kom ek daar by die counter, dan het 'n ou, dan het hy letterlik 20 shots Jaggermeisters so op 'n rytjie gesit en dit is sy geld wat hy het om te drink. So, ek dink baie van die studente as hulle baie meer geld gehad het, sou hulle baie meer gedrink het. Hulle stop net... hulle drink net minder omdat hulle min geld het. En dit is ook hoekom studente Midmar se lucky pack koop. Of se special. Waar jy so R 30 betaal vir 'n bottel drank en 'n 2 liter Cream Soda of watookal. Ek dink studente wil 'n X aantal drink of hulle nou gaan meer betaal as hulle meer geld gehad het, of hulle drink in elk geval X aantal wat baie swak kwaliteit is met minder geld. So, hulle sou meer gedrink het, met beter kwaliteit.

VROULIK2: Ek dink, ja, ek dink dis maar die groot aantrekkingskrag by baie van die manskoshuise is daar soos pubparties en dan voor die tyd, die groot aantrekkingskrag is, die pryslys van soos R 5 vir 'n dit en 'n dit en R 10 vir iets anders, verstaan, en dan kan jy soos R 30 vat en daarop dronk word en dis blykbaar cool. So, ek dink, ja, die pryse definitief…

MANLIK1: En as jy uitgaan sal jy nie vir iets duurder betaal nie, jy sal eintlik iets goedkoper drink, want sê nou jy drink gewoonlik 'n Millers wat 'n bietjie duurder is, sal jy nou 'n Castle drink wat bietjie goedkoper is.

MANLIK2: Ja, ek byvoorbeeld het net eintlik X bedrag om te vat, want ek moet kos koop en ander goed ook koop, so ek los my beursie by die huis en ek vat R 40 en ek gaan uit.

MODERATOR2: So, hoe goedkoper, hoe meer sal die studente drink.

MANLIK2: Ja, kyk, as ek nou R 20 vat en ek betaal een sent vir 'n bier, gaan ek nou nie die hele pak uitdrink net omdat ek R 20 het om uit te gee nie, maar ek dink die average student drink meer hoe meer hy het om uit te gee.

(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>, sal jy nie ry sonder ‘n lisensie nie?
MANLIK5: Sonder ‘n lisensie? Dis te risky.
VROULIK4: Nee, ek ry nie sonder ‘n lisensie nie.
VROULIK7: Ek kan nie.
VROULIK3: Ja, maar sê nou maar soos in ons buurt. Ons straat is parallel met Spar. So dan sal ek Spar toe ry.
MODERATOR1: Wie van julle besit ‘n motor?
MANLIK1: Ek deel een met my boetie...
MODERATOR1: So drie van julle… Die ander van julle? Ry julle darem so nou en dan?
Twee: Ons loop.
MODERATOR1: So, julle loop meestal?
MANLIK1: Ja, ons het ‘n kar, maar ons gebruik dit nie eintik nie. Net vir wasgoed of kos koop.
MODERATOR1: Het enige een van julle al bestuur nadat julle ‘n paar drankies ingehad het?
MANLIK4: Dronkbestuur.
MODERATOR1: Nee, julle is nie dronk nie, julle het net ‘n paar drankies ingehad?

(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: Wie het al dit gedoen? OK, <MANLIK3>.
VROULIK2: Ek het al bestuur, maar, OK, ek het 1 gehad.
MODERATOR1: So, <MANLIK3>, hoekom het jy bestuur nadat jy ‘n paar drankies ingehad het?
MANLIK3: Want daar was niemand om te ry nie.
MANLIK1: Maar as jy uitgaan en jy bestuur, dan moet jy nie drink nie.
MANLIK2: Maar hy en sy broer...
MANLIK1: Ek en my boetie het al baie fights gehad...
MANLIK2: Nee, maar luister net gou, ek gaan nou praat...

(Gelag en gepraat)
MANLIK2: Dis eintlik ‘n goeie ding, maar ook ‘n slegte ding, want hy en sy broer sal besluit, OK, dié een ry nou vanaand, dan sal hy niks drink nie, maar die ander een… Maar as hy sê hy ry en Gustav sê hy gaan nie ry nie, dan...
MANLIK1: Maar as Gustav sê hy ry, dan drink hy in any case. Hy het gisteraand saam met vriende gaan kuier en hy sou terugbestuur het. Toe hy gekuier en toe moet sy vriend terug gery het en ek was baie, baie kwaad gewees, want as jy bestuur, dan bly jy nugter.
MODERATOR1: So het jy al bestuur terwyl jy ’n paar drankies gehad het?
MANLIK1: Ek sal nie. Wel, ek kom van Johannesburg en jy ry nie daar as jy dronk is nie, want jy moet pas op vir mense wat om jou ry en nie net vir jouself nie.
MODERATOR1: En <VROULIK6> en <VROULIK5>? Why would you drive after having a few drinks?
VROULIK6: When I know I have to drive, I’d generally get a lift, but the times that I did have a few drinks, was because I had my car and she’s in res and whatever...
VROULIK5: Ja, generally we’d get lifts with a responsible person.
VROULIK6: If I have to drive, then I’ll have to drive...
VROULIK5: But you don’t drink and drive a lot.
VROULIK6: Ja, I don’t.
MANLIK1: Ja, jy loop in Stellenbosch eintlik.
MODERATOR1: Het enige een van julle al gedrink nadat julle net een drankie gedrink het?
MANLIK1: Ja.
VROULIK6: When I know I have to drive, I’d generally get a lift, but the times that I did have a few drinks, was because I had my car and she’s in res and whatever...
VROULIK5: Ja, generally we’d get lifts with a responsible person.
VROULIK6: If I have to drive, then I’ll have to drive...
VROULIK5: But you don’t drink and drive a lot.
VROULIK6: Ja, I don’t.
MANLIK1: Ja, jy loop in Stellenbosch eintlik.
MODERATOR1: Het jy al bestuur terwyl jy ’n paar drankies gehad het?
MANLIK1: Ja.
VROULIK7: Ja.
MANLIK1: Jy moet sê maar gou vinnig iets by BP moet gaan koop.
MODERATOR1: Dit lyk vir my of almal kop geskud het. So wie het nog nooit bestuur nadat hulle net een drankie gedrink het nie? Behalwe <VROULIK7> wat nie kan bestuur nie. So, almal van julle sê maw julle het al bestuur nadat julle een drankie gedrink het?
MANLIK4: Ek kan nie bestuur nie.
MODERATOR1: Het jy al bestuur?
VROULIK7: Eenkeer.
MODERATOR1: Nadat jy ’n drankie gehad het?
VROULIK7: Uhuh <nee>.
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>?
MANLIK5: Eenkeer, maar nie...
VROULIK2: Ja, maar ek dink daar is soos ’n groot verskil of jy iets drink met 5 % alkohol of iets soos brandewyn en Coke. Verstaan?
MODERATOR1: Wat is die limit in Suid-Afrika? Weet jy wat dit is?
VROULIK2: Soos in jou bloed’
MODERATOR1: Ja, wanneer mag jy bestuur?
VROULIK2: Iets soos 0., 0.5, 0. something.
MODERATOR1: Wat dink jy is dit? Wat mag jy drink en nog bestuur?
VROULIK2: Ek dink soos een Archers sê nou maar of Brutal Fruit. Maar dis al wat ek in elk geval drink.
MANLIK1: Maar hoe baie alkohol bevat Archers?
MANLIK2: Nee, maar die wettige limit is een ’n kwart dumpie. ’n Glas wyn. ’n Glas rooiwyn.
MANLIK1: 'n Glas rooi wyn.

MANLIK2: Volgens wet. Ek dink as jy 'n ongeluk situasie dieselle kan hanteer as jy nou sê maar twee drinks gedrink het en iemand ry van die verkeerde kant van die pad op jou af in die reënweer en jy kan dit dieselfde hanteer as wat jy sou doen as jy nugter is, dan is alles fine.

MODERATOR1: Wat is jou limit?

MANLIK2: Myne?

MODERATOR1: Ja.

MANLIK2: As ek twee biere gedrink het, dan sal ek nog kan. Maar as jy nou drie gedrink, al voel jy nog piekfyn, sal jou oordeel...

MANLIK1: Jou reaksies is stadiger.

VROULIK2: Iemand het een keer gesê jy moet die alfabet agteruit kan opsê en dan is jy nog nugter.

(Baie gelag)

VROULIK2: Maar ek dink nie ek kan dit eers doen al is ek nugter nie.

MODERATOR1: <MANLIK3>, wat is die limit?

MANLIK3: So paar biere, maar ek drink mos nou nie bier nie.

MODERATOR1: 'n Paar biere?

MANLIK3: Ek weet nie eintlik nie.

MODERATOR1: Wat is jou limit?

MANLIK3: Solank ek nog reg voel en ek kan nog ry.

MODERATOR1: Maar hoeveel drankies van wat is dit gewoonlik?

MANLIK3: So twee of drie glase.

MODERATOR1: Twee of drie glase wat?

MANLIK3: Rum.

MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>, wat dink jy is die limit?

MANLIK5: Ek sal sê 2 biere.

MODERATOR1: <VROULIK4>?

VROULIK4: Ek sal sê niks. Moet niks drink nie.

MODERATOR1: <VROULIK7>, wat dink jy is die limit?

VROULIK4: So 2 biere, ja

MODERATOR1: <VROULIK6>?

VROULIK6: Probably one, I don’t know, one drink, beer maybe, I don’t know. Something with the same alcohol level as beer.

MANLIK2: As ek my vrou en my kinders in die kar het en ek weet ek gaan 'n ongeluk maak, sal ek nie meer as 1 bier drink nie.

(Gelag en gepraat)
VROULIK2: Hoe weet jy dit?!
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK8>?
VROULIK8: Een glas wyn.
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK1>?
VROULIK1: Two glasses of wine.
MODERATOR1: Wat dink jy, Stephan?
MANLIK1: Een. Nie meer as een nie.
MODERATOR1: Een wat?
MANLIK1: Een, ek drink maar bier.
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK5>, wat dink jy?
VROULIK5: Each one handles alcohol differently, especially if you’ve eaten a little before… So its like 2 maximum.
MODERATOR1: Het enige van julle al bestuur terwyl julle dronk was?
MANLIK2: Die helfte van die mense hier gaan nie daai antwoord vir jou gee nie.
VROULIK7: Ek het al saam met vriende gery wat dronk is.
MODERATOR1: Het jy al saam met vriende gery wat dronk is?
VROULIK7: Toe maak ons ’n ongeluk.
MODERATOR1: Toe maak julle ’n ongeluk?! (Gelag)
VROULIK7: Ons was oppad na Lambertsbaai toe.
MODERATOR1: Hoeveel van julle vriende bestuur soms… kom ons praat sommer van julle vriende… hoeveel van hulle bestuur soms dronk?
MANLIK2: Ag, die meeste.
MANLIK1: Ek weet van ’n hele paar.
Iemand: Omtrent almal.
Iemand: Baie.
MANLIK2: My een vriend, my room mate, is ’n groot drinker, hy stap nooit nie.
VROULIK2: Wie's hy? Dat ons vir hom kan oppas.
MANLIK2: Ag, party studente worry net nie.
VROULIK2: Ja, Ek moes eenkeer, ja, ek het die kar hierso gehad vir ’n naweek en ek moes soos laat een aand, maar dit was êrens, dit was een of ander Fharga toe ry of something en toe, uhm, ek was rêrig bang, verstaan, want dit maak nie saak hoe nugter is jy nie. As daar iemand is wat agter ’n stuurwiel is wat nie heeltemal nugter is nie, dan is daar niks wat jy kan doen daaraan om iets te verhoed nie. Dit is hoekom ek nooit agter ’n stuurwiel sal inklim as ek soos meer as een van iets gehad het nie.
VROULIK8: Maar wat as jy nie ’n keuse het nie? Jy het twee drinks gehad op ’n aand en al die ander is baie meer dronk as jy…
VROULIK2: Ek sal, dis hoekom ek nie…
VROULIK8: Daar is niemand anders wat kan bestuur nie.
VROULIK2: Nee, maar sien, dis hoekom ek nie sal meer as een van enige iets sal drink en dan bestuur nie.
MANLIK1: Dan stap jy.
VROULIK8: Maar kyk in Stellenbosch kan jy stap, maar by my huis kan ek nie stap nie.
MODERATOR1: So, het jy al saam met mense gery wat dronk was?
VROULIK8: Ja.
MODERATOR1: Hoekom?
VROULIK8: Want, OK, eerstens, is ek nogal redelik naief, so ek kom nie so maklik agter…
So, hy’t eers na die tyd vir my gesê hy was daai aand dronk. Maar ek het al bestuur dat ek soos twee drinks gehad het en dan is ek lekker. Maar dit was omdat ek nie ’n keuse gehad het nie.
MANLIK1: Hoe voel jy nou, <VROULIK8>? 
VROULIK8: Ek voel niks nie. Want jy is veronderstel om eerlik te wees! Ja, ek meen, gaan jy die hele aand by die bar bly?
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK6>?
VROULIK6: Yeah, I have driven with people who were drunk, but it is also because you have to.
VROULIK5: Sometimes, like say, your friend’s drunk, you respect them, so you’ll say: OK, Let’s go.
VROULIK2: OK, ja, dis hoekom, maar verstaan, soos, al my vriende voel dieselfde manier. Voel dieselfde soos wat ek voel daaroor. So ek was nog nooit uit saam met hulle wat een van hulle selfs tipsy was nie. Soos, ek bly altyd nugter en die mense saam met wie ek uitgaan kies ek ook so, verstaan, dat hulle my in ’n situasie plaas…
MODERATOR1: So jy het nog nooit jouself deur ’n dronk bestuurder laat huistoe ry nie?
VROULIK2: Nee.
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>, jy?
MANLIK5: My vriende is permanent dronk.
(Almal lag)
MANLIK5: Hulle sal drink en as die driver nou miskien slaap, dan sal hy nou miskien ’n uur voor hy huistoe gaan miskien gaan slaap. Nie meer drink nie, maar dan sal hy net gaan slaap vir ’n uur of so, dan maak ons hom weer wakker.
MANLIK3: Soms gebeur dit dat jy nie ’n keuse het om saam met iemand te ry wat dronk is nie. Sê julle gaan uit en die eienaar van die motor wil nie hê iemand anders moet sy kar ry nie, so dan gaan hy nie sy sleutel afgee nie, al kan jy beter as hy ry. Jy moet maar in die kar klim om huistoe te gaan.
MODERATOR1: So, ry jy gereeld saam met dronk mense huistoe?
MANLIK3: Ek ry partykeer, gewoonlik saam.
MODERATOR1: Dink julle dronkbestuur is 'n probleem in Stellenbosch?
MANLIK2: Ja, 'n groot probleem en ek weet nie hoekom doen die polisie niks daaraan nie, want...
(Gepraat)
MANLIK2: Hulle sal die polise moet verdubbel. Rërigwaar. As hulle begin dit doen... of hulle moet dit heettemal ordentlik doen of hulle moet dit los. En dis hoekom hulle dit los. Dit is so 'n groot probleem dat as hulle mense moet aftrek op 'n Vrydagaand of soos vanaand. 90% gaan oor die limit wees. Ek sê jou nou.
(Gelag)
MANLIK2: Dit is die waarheid.
MANLIK1: Wel, een van ons vriendinne...dit was so rukkie terug, toe ry sy in 'n kar voor haar vas. Sy was bietjie gekuier gewees – die ou het nie 'n bloedtoetse geneem nie.
MANLIK2: Nee, maar as jy kyk hoe gereeld hier actually ongelukke is in Stellenbosch. Weet, jy moet jou oë bietjie oopmaak. Kyk hier is elke week 'n...
MANLIK1: Elke liewe keer as ons uitgaan, net voor McDonalds, is daar 'n ongeluk. Elke liewe keer.
(Gelag)
MANLIK1: Ek is ernstig.
MANLIK2: In Jool, toe ry my room mate se broer, ons het in die straat gery, ek weet nie waartoe nie en hy het 'n fout gemaak en toe het die verkeersman hom afgetrek en toe vra die man hom het hy gedrink en toe sê hy, hy het een bier gedrink. Maar hy drink al heel naweek, hy't nie eers ordentlik geslaap nie
(Gelag)
MANLIK2: Uhm, hy't al amper omtrent twee bottels brandewyn gedrink nog die heeltyd. Maar dis nou oor die hele, wat, drie dae, vier dae. En, ja, net omdat hy my vriend is, is ek nou bly dat hy nie geskryf is nie, maar hier is eintlik, dis eintlik 'n groot probleem hier op Stellenbosch. Die mense sal eers begin wakker skrik dink ek, as hier sê maar eers 'n paar studente dood is. Of ek weet nie wat hulle daaraan gaan doen nie. Dit gaan nou al soveel jare aan soos wat dit aangaan.
MANLIK1: Spyt kom altyd te laat.
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>, dink jy dis 'n probleem op Stellenbsoch? Dronkbestuur?
MODERATOR1: Dice hulle hier in die dorp? Daar onder in Birdstraat?
MANLIK5: Hier by Van der Stel.
VROULIK5: Yesterday one of our friend's boyfriend, he was sober and it was like twelve o'clock: It happened in Mosselbay, and a drunk driver ran into them. He's unconscious still...
MANLIK2: Ek dink as jy moet dronk wees en bestuur het en jy maak 'n ongeluk en jy gaan dood... dis 'n baie armsalige manier om dood te gaan.
VROULIK2: Maar ek dink dis nog erger, ja, as jy nugter was en die ander persoon was dronk en jy't net, verstaan, soos geen beheer daaroor gehad nie.
MANLIK1: En wat ook kan gebeur, sê nou jy maak 'n ongeluk en jy is dronk en daai persoon gaan dood. Dis jou skuld. Dis op jou gewete.
MANLIK2: Ja, daar's baie gevalle van sulke dinge wat gebeur.
MANLIK1: En dit gebeur en dis die ergste, want jy onthou dit nie.
MANLIK2: En ek weet nie, dis seker 'n probleem wat jy kry by studente wat... OK, ArriveAlive in Desember, kom ons toets jou bloed, don't drink and drive whatever, maar dan word die studente geleer op Stellenbosch dis orraait om te drink en om huistoe te ry. Gaan met jou kar, gaan drink, want jy is te lui om huistoe te stap. Ek het al baie huistoe gestap, want my vriende wil bly tot vier uur toe en ek het more oggend 9 uur 'n klas. So, ek dink hulle word geleer dis orraait om nou maar te ry al is dit nou maar net 'n kilometer.
MODERATOR1: Dink jy dis 'n probleem op Stellenbosch?
VROULIK3: Toe ek op hoërskool was het ek nooit regtig uitgegaan nie, maar net 'n paar houseparties. Ek het net nooit regtig gedrink op skool nie, maar hier op Stellenbosch loop ek altyd. Ek het nog nooit gery nie. So, ek kom nie in daai situasies nie, maar soos hulle wat in Akademia bly, dan moet hulle maar ry, maar Heemstede is naby...
VROULIK2: Maar, ja, ek dink selfs as mens loop. Verstaan, ek het al, soos as jy by die voetoorgangs kom en daar kom soos 'n ou afgejaag, verstaan, ek weet hy sien my nie, dis so half selfs as mens moet loop, dan is dit soos... ek weet nie.
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>?
MANLIK5: In Stellenbosch?
MODERATOR1: In Stellenbosch. Dronkbestuur?
MANLIK5: In enige plek is dit 'n probleem. Dit maak nie saak waar jy is nie.
(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK4>?
MANLIK4: Ek weet rërig nie.
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK7>?
VROULIK7: Ek gaan nie uit hierso nie, so ek weet nie, maar dit moet obviously wees, want hier is studente.
MODERATOR1: <VROULIK4>?
VROULIK4: Ek sal ook anderter as hulle sê dis ’n groot probleem en dit hang ook af van die studente se veiligheid soos <VROULIK2> gesê het.

(Gelag)

VROULIK4: Ja, in Stellenbosch dan wil ek nou by ’n voetoorgang oorgaan en dan...

MODERATOR1: <VROULIK8>?

VROULIK8: Uhm, ek dink dit is ’n probleem, maar ek dink nie dis so groot probleem soos byvoorbeeld by ander studentedorpe soos Potch of so nie. Maar ons was al op Potch en ons het al daar uitgegaan en dis baie meer... as jy wil uitgaan dan moet jy bestuur. Stellenbosch is lekker, want jy hoef nie te bestuur, vir meeste ons, want ons is in die koshuis. Ek het nog net eenkeer op Stellenbosch bestuur en uitgegaan die aand, verder elke keer stap ons. So dit is ’n probleem, verseker, want daar is studente wat bestuur, maar ek dink op ander plekke is dit ’n groter probleem.

MODERATOR1: Het enige een van julle al op Suid-Afrikaanse televisie ’n "don’t drink and drive"-advertensie gesien?

Twee ja’s.

MODERATOR1: Kan julle onthou wie die advertensie gemaak het, of hoe die advertensie gelyk het?

MANLIK2: Ja, dis ’n meisie wat alkohol gedrink het by ’n counter, toe drink en drink sy aanmekaar en toe op ’n stadium toe val sy op die grond en watookal en dit was ook net voor feesseisoen gewees.

MANLIK1: Wel daai een van good idea, bad idea.

MANLIK2: Ja, ja.

VROULIK2: Ja, daar’s mos sulke lyn... Daar’s sulke advertensies op sulke groot borde iets van “un” en dan is dit “cool”.

MANLIK2: Ja.

MODERATOR1: Weet julle wie maak daardie advertensies?

MANLIK1: Nie ’n idee nie.

MANLIK2: Uhm, dit is die rege...

VROULIK2: Is dit nie ArriveAlive nie?

MANLIK2: Nee, dit is die regering, want daar was op ’n stadium, toe ek matriek was, dit was 2005, toe het daar meer mense jaarliks doodgegaan op ons paaie as wat daar doodgegaan het in Irak... OK, dis nou erger in Irak, maar daardie tyd was dit al baie erg, want Amerika het einde 2003 daar begin.

(Gelag)

MANLIK2: So, dit is eintlik ’n groter probleem as wat ons besef.

MODERATOR1: Nog iemand wat so ’n advertensie gesien het?
MANLIK4: Op die TV wanneer iemand miskien in ’n erger ongeluk gewees het, dan vertel die persoon die experience om vir ander mense bewus te maak...
MODERATOR1: Het jy al so advertensie gesien?
MANLIK4: ArriveAlive.
MODERATOR1: Kan jy nog iets onthou van die advertensie? Soos wie dit is wat gepraat het?
MANLIK4: Nee.
VROULIK5: There is one similar, it is also ArriveAlive, but it is this man that was talking and he’s going like this (make hard-to-breathe noise).
MANLIK4: Ja.
VROULIK5: Was that the one?
MODERATOR1: Is dit die een waarvan jy nounet gepraat het?
MANLIK4: Ek praat van daai een.
VROULIK7: En dan is daar die ene van die mense wat so lê, met die bloed en... tussen die vans...
MANLIK2: Hulle moet dit baie realisties maak, hulle moet nie...
MODERATOR1: Watter advertensie was dit?
VROULIK7: ER, dink ek.
MODERATOR1: So, as julle nou moet dink: Julle is nou almal jong mense. Wat dink julle is die beste manier om vir jong mense deur middel van advertensies te vertel, “moenie drink en bestuur nie”. Hoe moet jy dit doen?
MANLIK4: Op Mxit.
(Gelag)
MANLIK4: Op Mxit, jy login en dan is daar mos elke dag so dingetjie wat miskien iets nuuts sê... Daais ’n goeie een, want almal Mxit, so almal gaan dit sien.
MODERATOR1: OK, maar kom ons beweeg na televisie advertensies toe. Wat moet gebeur in die advertensie? Wat moet hulle vir jou wys?
MANLIK1: Ek dink wat hulle nou doen, doen hulle al klaar uitstekend.
MODERATOR1: Waarna verwys jy?
MANLIK1: Daardie Good Idea, Bad Ideas... hulle doen dit baie goed, want dit kan gebeur.
VROULIK2: Ja, ek dink hulle moet baie soos ons ouderdom mense, verstaan, ‘n tipiese situasie.
VROULIK1: I agree with Stephan, Good Idea, Bad Idea, is very effective ’cause first of all, the viewer doesn’t know what to expect with the good idea and then... you get shocked much more because of this.
MANLIK2: So realisties moontlik, Ja, dit moet real life wees. Vat goed wat rêrig gebeur het. Nie net iemand cool praat en...
MANLIK4: Soos tamatiesous nie.
MANLIK2: Soos daai... Charlize Theron het op ’n stadium so advertensie gemaak van anti-rape of so iets. Dit was cool en alles. Ek meen dit het trefkrag gehad, maar as ’n vrou wat rērig verkrag is dit vertel, soos ’n swart vrou, dit het meer trefkrag vir my, en, uhm, dieselle met... Daar was ook ’n ander een waar hulle ’n storie vertel... Maar in elk geval ek dink net hulle moet iemand vat met wie dit rērig gebeur het, dit het net meer trefkrag.
MODERATOR1: Moet hulle ’n storie vertel of moet hulle dit wys...
MANLIK1: Visueel.
VROULIK5: I think that documentary thing, I dont know if that would work.
MODERATOR1: So, wat dink jy?
VROULIK5: Where you can see there’s been accident, or I dont know, where you can see a person that’s really injured, or... I don’t know.
MODERATOR1: Dink julle dit kan werk as mens humor gebruik?
MANLIK2: Nee.
MODERATOR1: Hoekom sal humor nie werk nie?
MANLIK1: Want jy spot nie met dood nie.
MODERATOR1: Want dink jy <MANLIK3>?
MANLIK3: Hulle moet dit meer realisties en aantreklik maak vir iemand om dit te kyk en om self...
MODERATOR1: Aantreklik maak vir iemand om te kyk. Hoe?
MANLIK3: Dit moet sy aandag kan trek en hom laat besef.
MANLIK2: Dit moet sy aandag trek, maar as hy klaar gekyk het, dan moet hy toilet toe gaan en kots.
(Gelag)
MANLIK2: Dis letterlik wat mense kort. Ek het gesien hoe iemand... Ek het die see toe gery saam met twee vriende en ’n man, ’n dronk man, het... vier mans, ek praat te veel, het om ’n draai gekom en, was baie dronk, ’n wit Corolla, en verkeerd die draai gesny, want hulle het te vinnig gery. Toe kom ’n kar van voor af met ’n mooi man en vrou en die kindertjies. Toe moes hy anderkant toe gaan, toe gaa’t hy teen die grond, toe ruk hy die kar weer terug en
toe gaan hy deur ‘n muur. Toe hy deur die muur gaan toe is ek so twintig meter voor hom en ek het gesien hoe alles gebeur en toe stop ek met die bakkie en toe ek daar kom, lê die man se kop so op die sement, toe begin die bloed so te loop en toe sê ek vir my pêl, maar bel die polisie en toe (10111). Bel die polisie en toe kom hulle daar aan en toe het die daar ‘n ander antie aangekom, want toe het die hulle begin bloei. Almal het gebloeie, maar die een ou het die erg gebloeie en toe vat sy sy hand en toe druk sy dit en toe sê ek tannie moenie eintlik dit doen nie. En toe kom die polisie daar aan en toe sê ek vir hulle, hulle moet bloed trek, want hulle was, ek is nou baie jammer vir hulle injuries en so, maar hulle sit ander mense se lewens in gevaar. En hulle het bloed getrek en hulle is tronk toe. Want ek het weer ‘n naweek daar aangekom en toe het ek die polisieman weer gevra wat het gebeur met die storie en toe is hulle tronk toe. En dis dinge wat rêrig gebeur.

MODERATOR1: OK, en het dit toe jou opinie verander?
MANLIK2: Ja.
MODERATOR1: Oor dronkbestuur?
MANLIK2: Baie.
MODERATOR1: Het jy daarna toe minder drink en bestuur?
MANLIK2: Ja, ek het die baie minder, want ek het die gesien, toe ek daar stop, toe die oom wat verbygery het, toe kom hy terug en toe stop hy daar en toe vloek en skel hy, hy het net so gebewe en gesê: “Kyk nou wat gebeur”... So, ek dink mense wat dronk bestuur, besef nie wat hulle doen nie.
MODERATOR2: Ek wil ook net gou ‘n vraag vra. As daar nou onderaan ‘n advertensie staan "based on a true story", sal dit meer impak hê? (‘n Paar ja’s)
MODERATOR1: So, ons het nou ‘n paar idees. Is daar meer idees oor dit? Oor hoe hulle dit kan wys in ‘n advertensie?
Stacey: I think maybe for the younger generation, maybe thirteen, fourteen, they may think of looking at celebrities.
VROULIK2: Ek dink ook, soos baie van die goeters, die meeste, al die advertensies is in Engels en, verstaan, onmiddelik, maak dit my... verstaan, dis nie soos ‘n bewustelike besluit nie, maar onmiddelik maak dit my gedistansieer van die situasie.
VROULIK5: I don’t know, they do come in Afrikaans, don’t they?
VROULIK1: Pictures speak another language.
MANLIK1: Ja, pictures speak more than words. Ek stem nie heelsemal saam met daai Afrikaanse beleid nie, want daar is so baie tale in Suid-Afrika.
VROULIK2: Ek verstaan...
MANLIK1: Engels is die hoof ene. Jy kan dit nie in Afrikaans maak nie en dit nie in Zulu maak nie.
VROULIK2: Ja, ek verstaan, maar dis nou soos ‘n perfekte wêreld as mens dit nou in al die tale kan maak.
MODERATOR1: <MANLIK5>, wat dink jy?
MANLIK5: Ek sal net sê as mens dit vir die eerste keer sien, dan moet jy dit kan onthou. Dis nou nie jy sien dit en dit gaan verby nie. Dit moet soos treffkrag hê...
MANLIK1: Dit moet impak hê, dit moet jou skok eintlik.
VROULIK7: Dit moet nie te lank wees nie, kort en effektief dan ook.
Twee ja’s.
VROULIK5: It’s like you see these things on TV everyday, but if you think about it, what are the actual impact?
MODERATOR1: Hoe gereeld dink julle word julle blootgestel aan “don’t drink and drive”-boodskappe?
MANLIK2: Op die oomblik niks, maar kyk ‘n bietjie voor die feesseisoen, dan sal hulle... Maar dit is ‘n continuous probleem. Die mense doen dit in elke geval heeljaar, maar net omdat daar meer karre is op die pad en net omdat mense meer drink in die feesseisoen, nou het dit ‘n groter effek in die feesseisoen, maar dit help nie jy spreek ‘n probleem aan, wanneer, net wanneer jy moet nie, jy moet die oorsaak vind van die probleem.
VROULIK2: Maar ek het soos nou die dag, daar was een of ander tyd ‘n brief in die koerant oor drankadvertenties vir fliks, as jy soos gaan fliek. En ek het eenkeer getel, daar was iets soos 4 of 5 van advertenties wat drank adverteer en nie een van daai... verstaan dit was soos ‘n 5 teen 0 ratio teen “dont drink and drive”.
MANLIK1: Dit kos ook geld. Almal het ook nie geld om dit te doen nie en soos drank, almal koop drank. Drankmaatskappy het miljoene geld om op dié advertenties te spandeer.
MANLIK2: Ek dink nounet. Dis soos wat mense sê, baie probleme wat ons in ons land het, het te doen met die goddeloosheid. Die mense kan nou maar met my stry en goed, maar as mense nie so goddeloos is nie, sal VIGS ook nie so groot probleem wees nie. Ek is nou baie van die punt af, maar as mense nie so goddeloos is nie, sal daar ook nie so groot alkoholprobleem wees nie.
VROULIK8: Dit gaan oor die morele waardes. As jou morele waardes reg is, dan sal jy in die eerste plek nie dronk word nie, dan sal drink and drive nie ‘n probleem wees nie en as jou morele waardes reg was, dan sou jy nie advertenties nodig gehad het om vir jou te sê...
VROULIK5: I dont actually think there is a lot of those in Stellenbosch. Your not really exposed to people saying don’t drink and drive. Like, I dont know, if you go to Hermanus or whatever there’s like a sign board that says: “Dont drink and drive”. I haven’t seen anything like that in Stellenbosch.
MANLIK1: Die ding is, ons kyk nie eintlik TV hierso nie.
VROULIK5: Yeah, we don’t watch television.
MANLIK1: En in die Neelsie – daar’s geen billboards oor dit nie.
MANLIK3: Hulle adverteer ook nie rërig in die Neelsie nie, dis meer rugby en so.
VROULIK7: Kan hulle nie dalk op DC adverteer nie?
VROULIK2: Ja.

(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: Goed ons gaan gou vinnig ‘n break vat, terwyl ek die rekenaar aansit en daarna gaan ons na ‘n paar advertensies kyk.

POUSE

MODERATOR1: Hier is vraelyste wat julle solank kan invul. Julle hoef vir nou net die eerste bladsy in te vul, daarna sal ons die advertensies kyk en die res invul. Dis al wat jy nou hoef in te vul. Dis net algemene inligting, van die goed het ons ook oor gepraat.

GROEP VUL AFDELING A IN

MODERATOR1: Goed, ons gaan nou bietjie advertensies kyk. Daar is nege advertensies altesaam en op die volgende bladsye is daar weer ‘n vraelys. Al die bladsye lyk dieselfde. Dus vir elke advertensie is daar dieselfde deel vraelys basies. Ek wil net vir julle sê voor ons die advertensie kyk dat dit nege advertensies is wat van reg oor die wêreld kom, so party van dit is nie Suid-Afrikaans nie. Party sal dus byvoorbeeld mense inhê wat ‘n aksent het of mense wat anders aantrek, of hulle mag praat oor mense wat julle nie ken nie. Daar mag dalk ook iets staan, soos bv. New Zealand Transport Ministry. Daar is omtrent so twee advertensies wat wel Suid-Afrikaanse advertensies is. Eksperts het gaan sit en hulle het van advertensies regoor die wêreld hierdie nege gekies. Ek gaan die advertensies een-vir-een speel en dan gaan ons die vraelys invul. Dit is hoe julle die advertensies individueel gaan rate. Daarna gaan ons in die groep oor die advertensies praat. So, as jy iets wil sê oor die advertensie of wil bespreek, ons gaan dit na die tyd doen, ons gaan dit nie nou doen nie. En wanneer ons die advertensies bespreek, hoe julle nou nie advertising critics of media directors te wees nie. Jy hoeft nie te sê die lig in die advertensie is verkeerd en dit moenie op die vrou geval het nie, maar op die man eerder ens. nie. Dit gaan bloot net oor die boodskap van die advertensie en die impak daarvan. Die ander ding is, die kwaliteit verskil van die advertensies, want dit is van die Internet af gekry en baie van die advertensies is ‘n laer kwaliteit omdat ons nie die oorspronklike in die hande kon kry nie. So, sommige se kwaliteit is briljant en ander se kwaliteit is bietjie swakker. So moet ook nie kyk na kwaliteit nie, kyk uit en uit vir wat sê die advertensie en wat is die impak daarvan.
MODERATOR1: OK, was van die advertensies ‘n bietjie shocking?
MANLIK3: Ja.
MODERATOR1: Goed, wat ek wil hê ons moet doen is dit op ‘n skaal sit van 1 tot 10.
Ek gaan sommer name gee vir die advertensies. As julle een weer wil kyk, kan julle sê, maar
ek dink mens kan die meeste onthou. Kom ons vat sommer enige ene, daardie ene waar die
kar so oorloop, daardie “Spillover”-een waar almal ry en dan loop die drank so by die motors
uit. Onthou julle dit? Wat het julle van daardie advertensie gedink?
VROULIK7: Ek dink nie dis so goed nie, want daar’s te veel humor.
MANLIK1: Dis so half asof dit fun is om te drink, hulle ry op ‘n bike-ding rond
VROULIK3: Ja, dis snaaks.
MODERATOR1: Op ‘n skaal van een tot tien, sê maar 10 is nou shocking en scary...
VROULIK7: 2.
MANLIK1: 3.
MODERATOR1: Julle moet nou as groep besluit waar sal julle dit op die skaal sit...
Almal sê 3.
MANLIK5: Vistenkies!
(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: Die een waar die baba so huil? Wat het julle van daardie advertensie
gedink?
MANLIK1: Goed.
6, 7.
VROULIK2: 11.
MANLIK4: 7.
MANLIK1: 8.
7.
VROULIK2: 11.
MANLIK1: 7 en ‘n half.
MANLIK4: 7.
MODERATOR1: Goed, hoekom sal julle dit ‘n sewe en ‘n half gee?
MANLIK1: Want dis realisties, dit maak jou bietjie dink.
VROULIK2: Dit moet 11 wees.
VROULIK3: Dis skokkend, die feit dat die baba die heeltyd so huil en dan verwag jy so iets
gaan kom, maar jy weet nie wat gaan kom nie.
VROULIK5: But their not allowed to used babies like that, are they? Did you know that?
I’m sure I read once...

VROULIK6: But overseas...
VROULIK2: Ek dink hulle mag kinders gebruik. Ek dink dis baie erg.
VROULIK5: I thought their not supposed to use children under 12 or something...
MANLIK1: in Suid-Afrika mag jy nie.
MANLIK3: Hulle gee bietjie te min inligting. Ja, ’n man kan net dink die baba is nat of iets.
(Gelag)
VROULIK2: Nee, maar aan die einde sê hulle...
MANLIK1: As jy verbyloop, sal jy nie dink dit gaan oor ongelukke nie, maar oor ’n baba wat huil. Sê nou maar jy gaan kamer toe en jy loop verby die TV, gaan jy net dink dis ’n kind wat huil.
MODERATOR1: Wie van julle het gedink dit is baie shocking?
MANLIK1: Dis nie so shocking nie.
MANLIK4: Average.
MODERATOR1: Hoekom was dit vir jou so shocking?
VROULIK2: Ek weet nie, dis net soos, daai laaste gil, dit het net my skedel deurboor...
VROULIK8: Ek dink vir verskillende mense, sal verskillende dinge hulle skok. Vir my is dit baie erg as ’n kind wat so oud is so huil, maar dit gaan nie vir almal so wees nie.
MANLIK1: Ek stem saam, want volgens my opinie, moet ’n kind opgepas word soos ’n stuk goud, jy weet?
MODERATOR1: Dit is ’n Amerikaanse advertensie van MADD. Dink julle, hulle kan dit maar op Suid-Afrikaanse televisie wys?
VROULIK8: Ja, ek dink hulle moet.
MANLIK1: Ja, maar hulle kan nie, want hulle mag nie kinders op ads sit in Suid-Afrika nie.
VROULIK2: Maar dis ’n stupid reël!
MANLIK1: Dis die wetgewing.
MODERATOR1: OK, dink julle dit sal jong mense tussen die ouderdom van 18 en 24 laat ophou drink en bestuur?
MANLIK1: Nee, want ons het nie kinders nie.
VROULIK5: No it’s a child, it is for older age groups.
VROULIK2: Nee, maar ek het ’n boetie wat 6 is, so ek weet nie, so dalk is dit net ek.
MODERATOR1: Goed, kom ons vat ’n ander ene. Wat van daardie meisie wat so gepraat het? Die Amerikaner, dit was ook ’n MADD advertensie. Die Amerikaanse meisie met die pienk hemp.
MANLIK1: Met die blender?
MODERATOR1: Nee, die een wat gepraat het van haar suster.
MANLIK1: 2.
VROULIK8: Ek dink dis nie goed nie, want dis nie ’n Suid-Afrikaanse ding nie, dis nie noodwendig iemand met wie jy kan identifiseer nie.
MODERATOR1: Sê nou maar dit was ’n Suid-Afrikaanse celebrity?
VROULIK8: Maar ons weet nie of dit rêrig gebeur het nie.
MODERATOR1: Dit het van Egoli of 7de Laan? As mens een van daardie mense sou vat en hulle praat oor hulle suster?
MANLIK4: Hulle moet die persoon self laat praat.
VROULIK7: Die suster is dood!
(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: So, hulle moet die persoon self laat praat, as hy kan.
MANLIK4: Nee, sé maar die persoon het oorleef.
VROULIK2: Nee, maar my probleem daarmee is, ek identifiseer nie met celebrities nie. Maar, verstaan, dit plaas dit soos in ’n ander wêreld.
MODERATOR1: So, dink julle dit sal werk op Suid-Afrikaanse televisie?
MANLIK1: Nee.
Iemand: Nee.
MANLIK1: Ek gee dit 2.
MANLIK4: 2.
MODERATOR1: So, op die skaal, waar sal julle dit sit?
MANLIK4: 2.
MANLIK1: 0.
Twee, twee.
MANLIK1: Een.
Nog twee’s.
MODERATOR1: So, almal van julle gee vir dit ’n twee?
Ja.
MODERATOR1: Dan, die “Blender” advertensie?
VROULIK3: Wow!
MANLIK1: Uitstekend!
VROULIK2: Dit was rêrig goed.
MODERATOR1: Ok, hoekom was dit goed?
MANLIK1: Want dit beeld uit visueel... Eintlik jy weet wat gaan gebeur, maar hoe hulle dit uitbeeld is soveel anderste, jy dink nie daaraan nie. Dis baie skerp.
VROULIK7: So kreatief.
VROULIK2: Soos al daai goeters wat so saamgegooi is, ek weet nie, dit maak my naar.
MANLIK1: Jy dink nie altyd waaroor dit gaan nie... jy dink aan die alokohol en so, maar jy dink nooit aan alles saam nie.
MANLIK2: Dit kos... uh... as hulle jou vang in die kar sit, is R 600, net as hulle jou blaas: R 1500, as hulle jou vang die die kar aansit: R 2000. Dis wat dit kos.
VROULIK1: It is not people that die. This is something that can happen every second, you can relate to. How can I put this? It’s just around the corner much more...
MODERATOR1: So, sal dit werk op Suid-Afrikaanse televisie?
MANLIK1: Ja.
Ja.
MODERATOR1: Is dit ‘n scary advertensie?
3 nee’s.
VROULIK2: Dis gross.
MANLIK1: Maar jy wil eintlik kyk daarna, want dis ‘n goeie advertensie. Jy wil eintlik kyk wat gaan gebeur.
MODERATOR1: Dink julle dit sal mense laat ophou dronk bestuur?
MANLIK1: Uhm... <ja>.
VROULIK7: Uhm... <ja>.
MANLIK2: Uhuh... <nee>.
MODERATOR1: Hoekom sê jy nee?
MANLIK2: Want as ek dit compare met daai laaste vrou wat mooi gelyk het en die seuntjie wat die kar bo-oor gery het, dan sal ek eerder daai een vat as die een.
VROULIK5: I think it wasn’t very realistic, like the way the car went over...
MODERATOR1: OK, ons kan nou daaroor praat, kom ons sit gou hierdie “Blender”-advertensie op die skaal. Waar sal julle dit sit?
8, 8 en ‘n half.
MANLIK4: 10.
MODERATOR1: Maar is dit 8 uit 10 dit is so goed óf 8 uit 10 dit is so scary?
MANLIK2: Goed.
MANLIK4: Hy’s goed.
MODERATOR1: 10 is soos dié wat scary en shocking was.
MANLIK1: O, OK, dan is dit 5.
VROULIK7: 5 of 6.
6.
VROULIK3: Sê maar 5.
5 of 6.
MODERATOR1: Moet ons dit maar 5 en ‘n half maak?
MANLIK4: 5 en 'n half.
MODERATOR1: Goed, en die een met die kar en die seuntjie? Daardie sokker-een?
MANLIK1: Dit moet 10 wees... 10.
VROULIK7: 10.
10.
MANLIK1: Dit was erg gewees.
10.
MANLIK4: 9.
VROULIK2: Ek weet nie. Ek voel soos die manier hoe die kar, dit is nie baie realisties nie, maar die idee is baie, baie goed.
MANLIK1: Ja, alles was OK, en dan out of nowhere: chaos.
MODERATOR1: So, in terme van scariness en shocking?
9, 9, 10.
MANLIK1: 6.
VROULIK3: Nee, dis die beste een!
VROULIK2: 8.
8, 9, 11.
MODERATOR1: Goed by wyse van hand opsteek, wie sê 9?
MANLIK1: Maak dit 9.
MANLIK2: Wat van 8.5, dan rond dit af na 9 toe.
MODERATOR1: Goed, moet ek dit 8 en 'n half maak?
9, 9, 9.
VROULIK2: Maak dit maar 9.
MODERATOR1: Wat van daardie Suid-Afrikaanse een van SAB, “Draw the line”?
Iemand: Dis goed.
MANLIK1: Daai van “mate/inmate”?
MODERATOR1: Ja.
VROULIK2: Nee!
MANLIK1: Dis goed, maar ek het dit nou al so baie gesien.
MODERATOR1: Goed, maar was dit goed toe julle dit die eerste keer gesien het?
Nee. Nee.
VROULIK7: Nee!
MANLIK2: Dit het nie my rêrig getref nie, want hulle het nie rêrig ’n tronksituasie gewys nie. Dit sou my meer getref het.
(Gemompel)
MANLIK2: As jy kyk wat die woorde eintlik sê en wat die visuals sê, ek vang nie lekker nie. Dit is goeie sinspeling, maar dit het nie daai trefkrag nie.
VROULIK3: Ja.
MODERATOR1: So, waar sal julle dit op die skaal plaas?
MANLIK4: 2.
MANLIK4: 4.
4, 4, 5, nee, 4, 3, 2 en ‘n half, 3, 4.
MANLIK1: Dis beter as daai ou Kelly-meisie.
VROULIK7: Beter as die Spillover.
4, 4.
3 en half, 4, 3 na 4, 3 en half, 4.
MODERATOR1: OK, wie sê drie en ‘n half? En wie sê 4?
VROULIK7: Wat van 3.75?
MODERATOR1: Ons sal dit maar 3.75 maak. Dan is daar nog ‘n Suid-Afrikaanse ene, waar hulle in die morgue is, die lykshuis.
MANLIK1: Het julle dit al gesien?
VROULIK7: Nee, ek het dit nog nooit gesien nie.
MANLIK1: Ek het dit nog nie gesien nie.
Iemand: Dis goed.
MANLIK1: Wanneer was dit op TV gewees?
(Gemompel)
MANLIK1: Ek kyk nie TV nie.
VROULIK7: Dis ‘n goeie ene.
MODERATOR1: In terme van shocking en scariness?
6, 7, 7, 8, 8, 8, 7.
VROULIK1: I would also say 8. It wasn’t like overdone or anything.
7, 8, 8, 8.
MODERATOR1: Is almal gelukkig met 8?
Ja, ja.
MODERATOR1: Wat sê jy?<VROULIK2>?
VROULIK2: Ek dink hy en die baba moet dan omruil.
Klomp nee’s.
(Klomp gemompel)
MANLIK1: Die baba was baie erger.
VROULIK2: Maar nee!
(Gemompel)
MANLIK1: Ek stem saam met haar.
MODERATOR1: Wie sê dis hoër as die baba een? Soos hoër in shocking en scariness...
(Stilte)
MODERATOR1: Wie sê die baba was hoër as dié een?

(Stilte)
MANLIK1: OK, kom ons maak dit dieselfde.
Nee, nee.
MANLIK4: Nee, dis meer treffender as die baba.
VROULIK2: Nee, dit was nie dieselfde nie.
MODERATOR1: Ok, ek gaan sê 8 en dan ook op die bord skryf dat drie mense verskil het.
MODERATOR1: So dink julle dit is appropriate vir Suid-Afrikaanse televisie?
Ja.
MODERATOR1: Dink julle dit gaan mense se gedrag verander?
Ja.
VROULIK7: Uh... <Ja>
MANLIK4: For sure.
MANLIK3: Moontlik.
MODERATOR1: Wat van daardie een, ek weet nou nie wat om dit te noem nie, maar daardie een wat hulle so die man wys en sy vriend en sy pa en... Daardie familie een.
MANLIK1: Ek het niks van hom gehou nie.
MODERATOR1: Hoekom het jy nie daarvan gehou nie?
MANLIK1: Ek weet nie, dit was net nie vir my goed nie. Dit het my nie getref nie.
VROULIK2: Dis goed, maar ek dink nie dit sal vir jong mense... verstaan? Ek dink dit is meer vir mense wat actually getrouid is.
MANLIK4: Uh... <ja>.
VROULIK2: Ja, wat soos 'n familie het.
MODERATOR1: So, op 'n skaal van een tot tien, waar sal julle dit sit?
MANLIK4: 5.
MANLIK1: Maar hy was scary gewees, dis die ding. Hy was scary, maar hy was nie goed gewees nie.
6, 6, 7, 9, 6, 7, 10, 6, 8, 6.
MANLIK4: Is 'n tien veronderstel om bang te maak?
MODERATOR1: Ja.
9, 8.
VROULIK2: Onder die baby.
VROULIK3: Hy's vir my meer as die baby.
6, 6 en 'n half.
MODERATOR1: 6?
MANLIK3: Ja, daar's nog niks op 6 nie. Sit hom op 6.
MODERATOR1: Is almal gelukkig met 6?
7.
(Gepraat)
MODERATOR1: Sal julle eerder sê 7?
Ja, ja, ja.
MODERATOR1: 6 en 'n half?
Meer ja's as vir 7. Ja, ja 6 en 'n half, 7.
MODERATOR1: Dis nog net die meisie met die portret, né?
VROULIK8: Dit was nogal goed.
MANLIK1: Merk dit op 'n 10.
9.
MANLIK1: Dis scary, maar jy sien dit nie eintlik gebeur nie.
VROULIK8: Is dit 'n ware verhaal, want ek kon nie agterkom nie?
(Gemompel)
MANLIK4: Wie sê dis regtig?
VROULIK8: Nee, nee, maar dit kan alles fake wees.
VROULIK2: Dit is nie.
VROULIK8: Nee, maar ek meen ek het nie geweet of dit waar is of nie
MANLIK1: Wel dis scary.
VROULIK2: Hulle kan sê “based on true story”.
Ja, ja.
MANLIK1: Ja, but they said, “It happened to me.. blah blah blah”.
VROULIK1: The hands were really scary!
MODERATOR1: So, waar sal julle hom sit?
MANLIK1: Ek sal sê 10.
9 en 'n half, 10, 10, 9 en 'n half, 9 en 'n half, en 'n driekwart of ietsie.
MODERATOR1: Ek weet van die advertensies was half meer scary as ander, maar was van
hulle té scary?
Ja, nee, ja, nee, nee.
VROULIK8: Van dit was te gory.
VROULIK2: Ek dink die gory moet daar wees.
MODERATOR1: Was daar een wat vir julle baie erg was, wat vir julle te scary was? Dit is net
te erg.
MANLIK4: Waar die kar so...
(Gepraat)
MODERATOR1: Maar tog sê julle die meisie is meer shocking as die kar?
VROULIK8: Ja, want dis waar, anders as die kar.
MODERATOR1: Dink julle enige van hierdie advertensies as mens dit sien, dit is so erg, dat mens dit sal uitblok, hulle sal net nie daaraan dink nie?
Nee, nee.
VROULIK2: Ek dink die babatjie sal hulle vir altyd onthou.
(Gelag)
VROULIK2: Maar ek is nou oor dit!
(Gelag)
MODERATOR1: Is daar nog enige iets wat enige van julle wil sê oor enige van die advertensies? Enige iets wat vir julle uitstaan of wat julle wil sê?
(Stilte)
MODERATOR1: OK, baie dankie vir julle deelname... Ek gaan hierdie advertensies in klastyd wys. Julle het my nou die advertensies help kies wat ek gaan wys. So, ek gaan die studie in klastyd weer doen. Ek wil net vir julle mooi vra om dan nie weer 'n vraelys in te vul nie, want julle het dit nou al klaar gedoen. So, moet asseblief dan nie 'n vorm vat nie, of as julle per ongeluk een in die hande kry, skryf net jou naam boaan of skryf “fokusgroep” boaan. Ek wil net dankie sê vir julle moeite – dit was regtig lekker om met julle te gesels.
Addendum I

Codebook used for ATLAS.ti-

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Addendum J

The nine advertisement stimuli

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Advertisement 1</th>
<th>Advertisement 2</th>
<th>Advertisement 3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Spillover”</td>
<td>“Kelly Ripa”</td>
<td>“SAB”</td>
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<tr>
<td>A narrator says that there is nowhere to hide and if one drives drunk the cops will find that person. As he speaks cars driving by are shown filled almost to the roof with alcohol, for example beer or wine.</td>
<td>American television actress, Kelly Ripa, is standing in front of the camera and explains that 3 out 10 Americans will be involved in an alcohol related crash in their lives. She says her sister was one of them but she survived, but that this is not always the case.</td>
<td>A narrator speaks on what a mate is as lines appear on screen forming words and pictures that depicts drunken driving. At the end of his description of a mate, the word “inmate” is divided by a line, dividing two syllables: “in</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advertisement 4</th>
<th>Advertisement 5</th>
<th>Advertisement 6</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Blender”</td>
<td>“Baby”</td>
<td>“Morgue”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A girl is standing in front of a blender. As she speaks about the consequences of drunken driving she pours a shot and a bottle of beer into the blender. She then drops handcuffs, a license, a set of car keys, and money in the blender. She switches on the blender and pours out the greyish blended contents into a glass, saying: “Which, if you ask me, is pretty tough to swallow.”</td>
<td>(In black and white) A baby is weeping in its crib. The cries get louder and louder as the camera zooms out. The baby fades out and the following text lines appear on the screen: “Approximately every 33 minutes someone is killed in an alcohol-related traffic crash” and “Emily’s mother was one of them”.</td>
<td>A person working in the sorting area of the morgue is the narrator and describes the age and manner of death of two corpses. The narrator explains how the first one was killed by a drunken driver and the second one by speeding in his car. Standing at the third corpse (which is looks like the narrator), the narrator says: “And this, this could be you”.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advertisement 7</th>
<th>Advertisement 8</th>
<th>Advertisement 9</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Family”</td>
<td>“Soccer boy”</td>
<td>“Girl portrait”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound effects follow the words that the impact of drunken driving goes on and on. Screens are shown of the surviving relatives of a drunken driver: A mother yelling, a father crying, a child crying, a brother crying, and a sister weeping at a grave.</td>
<td>A little boy is shown playing soccer in the garden. It then turns to a twenty-three old male playing soccer with his mates, mimicking the actions of the boy. After soccer, he drinks a beer at a bar with his friends. Driving home, he has a lapse of concentration, hit the curb and his car is dramatically flung over a hedge into the garden where the little boy is playing. The boy is crushed dead and the advertisement ends with the twenty three-year old standing shocked amid the tragedy.</td>
<td>The focus is on a black-and-white photo of a drunken driving victim as an attractive young woman and a narrator describes the night the girl’s car was in the accident. The girl then lowers the photograph to reveal her own disfigured face. The copy of the advertisement is as follows: “This is a picture of me before I was hit by a drunk driver, before the car caught fire, before two of my friends died, before I needed more than 40 operations. This is me when my life was just like anyone else in college. This is me after being hit by a drunk driver.”</td>
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Addendum K

Statistical analyses

1. Evaluation of summed scale measures: Intention

Cronbach Alpha tests for the two items measuring intention

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<th>Var. if deleted</th>
<th>Std. if deleted</th>
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</table>

2. The effect of gender

The effect of gender on tension arousal across the three groups

Current effect: $F(2, 732)=1.7940$, $p=0.16703$
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals
The effect of gender on energy arousal across the three groups

Current effect: $F(1, 731) = 12.645, p = .00040$
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals

The effect of gender on attitude across the three groups

Current effect: $F(2, 715) = 2.3776, p = .09350$
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals
The effect of gender on intention across the three groups

Current effect: F(2, 713)=.35055, p=.70442
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals

3. The effect of home language

Tension mean difference for Afrikaans and English speaking respondents

Home language; LS Means
Current effect: F(1, 685)=15.209, p=.00011
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals
4. The effect of whether one drinks alcohol

The effect of whether one drinks alcohol or not on tension arousal

Current effect: $F(2, 731) = 0.91974$, $p = 0.39908$
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals

The effect of whether one drinks alcohol or not on energy arousal

Current effect: $F(2, 731) = 0.17213$, $p = 0.84190$
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals
5. The effect of how often one drives

The effect of how often one drives on intention across the three groups

Often drive: LS Means
Current effect: F(2, 708)=1.2217, p=.29536
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals