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An Empirical Investigation of the Cultural Impact on Consumer Perception and Attitude Towards Advertising

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A Thesis Submitted To the University of Huddersfield in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Huddersfield

Huddersfield University Business School

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Abstract

This study examines the cultural impact on consumer perception and attitudes towards advertising in Kuwait. A questionnaire was distributed to 520 consumers from three different nationalities; Kuwaiti and Arabic, East Asian and Indian, Western consumers from Europe, The United States of America (USA) and Canada. Representing three different cultures; the Kuwaiti will signify a conservative and social culture, the Eastern countries will represent a less conservative and social culture, and the Western element will stand for a less conservative and individual culture.

Moreover, the questionnaire is aimed at answering three main questions. Firstly, what are the consumers' attitudes towards advertising in Kuwait and whether the personal characteristics have an affect on consumers' attitudes towards advertising? The second question is, whether the culture will be affected by advertising and whether advertising threatens the local culture? The third question tries to evaluate whether people from different cultural backgrounds will have different attitudes towards advertising?

The results have illustrated that consumers in Kuwait, in general, have negative attitudes towards advertising. Kuwaiti and Western groups have negative attitudes whilst the Eastern contingent has a more positive attitude.

In addition, the culture has a significant affect in shaping consumers' attitudes towards advertising. This indicates that consumers, even though they received the same

advertising in the same environment (Kuwait), still tend to perceive it differently based on their cultural background.

Consumers from less conservative cultures (liberal cultures) hold the belief that advertising will not affect the local culture, while consumers from more conservative cultures have a negative attitude towards advertising as they trust that it will affect the local culture.

The study indicate that attitude towards advertising cannot be generlaised to a different demographic group. It is suggested that education has the least effect on attitudes to advertising; however the number of children in the family and the monthly income have the strongest effect. Marital status did not occur related to any aspects of attitude.

Furthermore, the study also indicates that negative attitudes seem to be associated with personal characteristics such as being female, under forty-five years of age, having more than one child, with limited education (diploma or intermediate), and an income greater than 400 Kuwaiti dinar per month.

An Empirical Investigation of the Cultural Impact on Consumer Perception and Attitudes Towards Advertising

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

To reduce restrictions within the local economy is now the trend in most countries all over the world. In an effort to develop a more liberal economy and change beliefs in order to establish a more international economy, an increase in the globalisation of the market was necessary to capture capitalist practices. This tendency towards capitalist style, accompanied with changes in the commercial practice philosophy, have a clear effect on social relations and peoples' way of living. This development has led to an increment in the importance of research in consumer behaviour, and in particular the consumers' attitude towards advertising, which will facilitate studying the advertising effect and the change in the society where it functions.

Moreover, culture affects advertising in different ways. In some countries religion plays an important role in influencing advertising (Hassan, 1990; Tuncalp, 1990; Ali, 1994; Al-Makaty et al, 1996; Bhuian, 2002), while in other countries the social system prevails advertising (Gordon and Lima-Turner, 1997; Zhou et al, 2002; Fisher and Dube, 2005). For example, in recent years the reforming of the Russian economy has transformed advertising. (Duravasula et al, 1993; Andrews and Duravasula, 1994).

Furthermore, the change in culture is not restricted to a particular culture. All cultures are modified over time and the changes and alterations are spread from culture to culture. It has been outlined that this has a direct effect on consumer attitudes towards

advertising. Researchers have investigated these changes in culture through cross-cultural studies, as these modifications can be generalised towards a group of countries that share the same cultural approach. There are a few cross-cultural studies related to attitudes towards advertising which encourage more studies (Andrews et al, 1991, Durvasula et al, 1993; Andrews and Duravasula 1994; Waller et al, 2005).

In addition, the advertising sector has experienced significant growth in past decades (Redah, 1997; O' Donovan et al, 2000; PARC, 2004; World Advertising Trends, 2004). Due to increased competition, advertising plays a key role in increasing a firm's market share and revenue. This study suggests a need to focus on the effect of culture on consumer perception and attitudes towards advertising.

Increasingly, companies are developing worldwide customer and employee bases. Therefore, customers come from diverse cultures, and marketing managers cannot afford to ignore these cultural differences as they elaborate their own advertising strategies (Diaz, 1985; Zhang and Neelankavil, 1997; Lee and Choi, 2005; and Li, 2005).

This study aims to extend previous studies that have researched the attitude towards advertising and further examines the effect of culture in consumer attitudes in a Third World nation other than in the developed world.

1.2 Background

Since the early 1970s, a number of articles published in marketing journals have illustrated studies exploring attitudes towards advertising. A research of the literature

in this area suggests that the main segment of this work is devoted to attitudes based on markets located in developed countries in North America and Europe, thus lacking full international coverage. Moreover, for example, a plethora of studies conducted in developed countries have explored the attitudes of students towards advertising (Larkin, 1971; Haller, 1974; Lutz, 1975; Muehling et al, 1987; Andrews et al, 1991; Manso-Pito et al, 1997; Beard, 2003) while others have focused on consumers for a particular product or country (Christian, 1974; Anderson, 1978; Au, 1993; Brackett and Carr, 2001; Miller and Waller, 2004). There are numerous studies that were carried out, that have investigated the attitudes of business executives towards advertising (Watson, 1974; Semenik et al, 1986; Tuncalp, 1990; Semenik and Tao, 1994) and attitudes towards various types of occupation or industry advertising (Rau And Preble, 1988; Crane et al, 1989; Johns And Moser, 1989; Au, 1993; Moser and Reed, 1998; Miller and Waller, 2004).

Other studies have further explored the consumer attitude of advertising via untraditional media like the Internet, (Gordon and Lima-Turner, 1997; Brackett and Carr, 2001; Wang et al, 2002) mobile devices, (Haghirian and Madlberger; 2005) through taxis (Veloutsou and O'Donnell, 2005) and via movies (Nebenzahl and Secunda, 1993).

Furthermore, a review of the literature also indicates that there are insufficient studies involving attitudes towards advertising amongst the general population in developing countries, and they are considered as being inadequate in recent years (Kwan et al, 1981; Semenik et al, 1986; Tuncalp, 1990; Semenik and Tao, 1994; Yang, 2000; Bhuian et al, 2002; Chan and McNeal, 2004; Waller et al, 2005). This is applicable in

particular in lucrative markets, such as in oil-producing, developing countries of the Middle East, that are entirely overlooked. The purpose of this study is partially to fill this void by analysing the attitudes of people in an Arabic Gulf country, such as Kuwait. Overall advertising attitudes are likely to affect advertising as a communication and promotion media. The majority of the studies have revealed that the general population have a negative attitude concept towards advertising. However, if the same results are discovered in this research study, it will provide an indication that people are not confident with advertising in other parts of the world; which hence will affect the effectiveness of the advertising industry as a whole.

1.3 The Objectives of This Study

Culture shapes peoples' behaviour and personality, and further how individuals express themselves; the way they think and how their economic system functions. In addition, foreign companies have to carefully comprehend the cultural element in order to be accepted by the target market.

Moreover, the cultural element consists of economic and government systems, education systems (family systems and its roles and their influence on the purchasing decisions of its members), religion, language, folklore and music.

It is apparent that advertising does more than simply provide consumers with product information. It addresses many of life's common issues (such as style, morality and behaviour). Furthermore, advertising promotes a whole way of life, various attitudes and behaviour (Batra et al, 1996; Usunier, 2000). The international advertiser should not challenge the culture as this would be considered an arduous task within their

4

activities (Han and Shavitt, 1994; Gregory and Munch, 1997; Taylor et al., 1997; Lee and Choi, 2005). The technique of advertising is to influence consumer behaviour to purchase the product or the service. It is evident that advertising will touch certain cultural elements; hence the question is how consumers in Kuwait perceive the role of advertising in their lives.

In Kuwait, culture and religion go hand in hand. Most of the cultural values are essentially shaped by various religious practices. Religion affects people in many ways as it prescribes proper behaviour; therefore it is crucial to explore the role of religion in advertising.

Considerable research has analysed advertising in the developed world and in some developing countries, especially Eastern Europe. However, the conservative Middle East deserves more research attention. This study aims to fill the inadequacy of previous research by focusing on cultural influences on advertising in Kuwait.

The overall aim of the thesis is to examine the consumers' overall attitude towards advertising in Kuwait and to evaluate the determinants that will affect this approach. Therefore, the objectives of this research project are illustrated as follows:

▪ Test the consumers' attitudes towards advertising in Kuwait and their attitude towards each of the advertising components (the need for advertising, the economic effect of advertising, the need for control to advertising, ethics in advertising, credibility of advertising, informative quality of advertising and entertainment quality of advertising).

- Explore the affect of the consumer's personal characteristics in particular gender, age, marital status, number of children in the family, education, and monthly income in regards to their attitudes towards advertising.

- Study whether the culture will be influenced by advertising and whether advertising in turn threatens local values, language, and religion.

- Investigate whether people from various cultural backgrounds experiencing certain advertisements portrayed in the same environment (State of Kuwait), will have a deviating attitude towards advertising.

Moreover, culture is regarded as a broad research topic to be discussed and analysed. It is considered as one of the few most complicated words in the English language (Williams, 1983). It is improbable for one researcher to investigate all aspects of culture. In addition, Researchers have discussed culture from different perspectives and point of views (Psychology, Anthropology, Sociology, Business... etc.). Each analyst illustrates culture from his own standpoint, which concludes that there is no evident viewpoint regarding culture. It is worth mention that this research project is not about culture; however it contains parts of culture but it is predominately about advertising. Culture is being evaluated from a marketing perspective.

1.4 Hypothesis to be Tested

Previous studies have found various distinct effects of advertising in aspects notably of economic and social nature, (Bauer and Greyer, 1968; Riecken and Yavas, 1990; Beard, 2003; Fisher and Dube, 2005) the need for government regulations in advertising, (Durand and Lambert, 1985; Bhuian et al, 2002; Martinson, 2005) poor

taste and sex in advertising, (e.g., Larkin, 1977; Stafford, 1998; Orth and Holancova, 2003) the information value of advertising, (e.g., Haller, 1974; Durand and Lambert, 1985; Muehling, 1987; Janssens and Pelsmacker, 2005) ethics in advertising, (Bhuian et al, 2002; Beard, 2003) materialism, (Larkin, 1977, Durand and Lambert, 1985; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Mittal, 1994) the level of enjoyment of advertisement, (Russell and Lane, 1993; Mittal, 1994), and dishonesty and deception (e.g., Larkin, 1977; Muehling, 1987; Brackett and Carr, 2001).

Introducing the research hypothesis in the first chapter is intended to accomplish several purposes. firstly, to provide a clear view what this research entails, what this thesis will cover and what is expected to be found in the subsequently chapters. Secondly, it outlines a clear connection between the research hypothesis and the research aims and objectives. Finally, it illustrates an understandable relationship between the research questions and the research hypothesis.

In order to extend previous studies by going beyond their limitations and to further answer the research questions, the following hypotheses have been set.

H1: *"Consumers in Kuwait have a positive attitude towards advertising in general."*

The previous studies indicate that the consumers' attitude towards advertising is altering over time (Shavitt et al, 1998) and varies from country to country (Durvasula et al, 1993; Andrews and Durvasula, 1994). Additionally, the majority of studies in the West illustrate that consumers have a negative attitude towards advertising in

7

general (Andrews, 1989; Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1992, 1994; Mittal, 1994). Consumers from liberal, capitalistic countries and from rather individualistic cultures have a negative attitude towards advertising. However, the contrary can be assumed in a conservative and social culture like Kuwait. Previous researches have outlined that consumers from cultures with similar characteristics tend to hold a positive attitude (Bazera, 1971; Pollay et al, 1992; Ali, 1994; Zhao and Shen, 1995; Zhou et al, 2002; Choi and Miracle, 2004). Consequently, it has to be evaluated and analysed whether the consumers in Kuwait have a positive or negative attitude towards advertising.

> H2: "*Culture has an effect in shaping consumer attitude towards advertising. Thus, people from differing cultural backgrounds diversify in their perceptions of advertising, despite the fact that they live in the same society*."

Culture has an affect on defining the consumers' attitudes towards advertising. That demonstrates that people from different backgrounds, although living in the same society, will perceive advertising in a diverse manner. Moreover, a number of research projects have concluded that individuals from differing cultural backgrounds have a deviating attitude towards advertising by examining this attitude in variant countries and divergent environments (Andrews, 1989; Hassn, 1990; Andrews et al, 1991; Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1992, 1994; Duravasula et al, 1993; Ali, 1994; Andrews and Durvasula, 1994; Mittal, 1994). Hassn (1990) and Ali (1994) have further analysed the attitude of consumers in a conservative society and identified that customers tend to have a positive attitude toward advertising. Furthermore, on the contrary, other studies conducted in an individual culture have shown that consumers hold a negative attitude toward advertising (Andrews, 1989; Alwitt and Prabhaker,

1992, 1994; Mittal, 1994). This study is aimed to examine the attitudes towards advertising by eliminating the environmental effects through analysing the attitude of consumers from differing cultural backgrounds; however residing in the same environment (Kuwait).

>H3: "*Personal characteristics of consumers in Kuwait will be associated with beliefs about the need for advertising.*"

It cannot be denied that advertising plays a crucial role in promoting products. High advertising expenditure reflects that the advertiser and the consumer both believe that advertising is essential and necessary to promote products. This assumption was driven from research conducted and examined in developed countries. Nevertheless it is questionable if this assumption applies to developing countries. This hypothesis demands further research.

>H4: "*Personal characteristics of consumers in Kuwait influence the beliefs about the effects of advertising on the economy.*"

Andrews et al (1991) investigated the consumer attitude in India, which is a developing country, and discovered that Indians believe that advertising has a prodigious effect on the economy in comparison to developed countries like the United States (USA) and Denmark. Furthermore, another study (Andrews and Durvasula, 1994) compared advertising in Russia and the USA, with regard to beliefs and attitudes and identified that Russians have a more positive attitude about the economic effect of advertising than Americans. It has been assumed that the findings

on Kuwaiti consumers will be congruent to those consumers from Third World countries and will be more trusting towards the effects of advertising in progressing their economy.

>H5: "*Personal characteristics of consumers in Kuwait influence feelings about the need of control over advertising.*"

Advertising has become an essential element in people's daily lives; it affects people in various ways, such as economically and socially. In addition, individuals tend to take offensive action against anything that will harm their lives and their family. As the affect of advertising in people's lives grows every day, it can be assumed that consumers will support the idea of control over advertising. Previous research discovered that women are more perceptive than men of government regulations (Shavitt et al, 1998).

>H6: "*Personal characteristics of consumers will influence their attitudes towards materialism in advertising.*"
>
>H7: "*Personal characteristics of consumers affect their perceptions of ethics in advertising.*"

Kuwaiti society and culture can be categorised as a collective culture where people presumably tend to express a more profound belief related to advertising practices that influence the communities' values and ethics. Therefore, they are predominately concerned with the negative aspects of advertising due to the sensitisation they have received from various social processes.

H8: *"Different personal characteristics of consumers create divergent attitudes towards the credibility of advertising."*

Mackenzie and Lutz (1989, 51) define the credibility of advertising as *"consumer perception of the truthfulness and believability of advertising in general"*. It is apparent that advertising credibility is influenced by various determinants, in particular the companies' credibility and the advertising medium. Moreover, messages over the Internet, for example, were identified to have less credibility in comparison to a printed message; unless it was associated with a well-known brand (Marshall and WoonBong, 2003).

H9: *"Different personal characteristics of consumers create different attitudes towards information derived from advertising."*

H10: *"Different personal characteristics of consumers create different attitudes towards the entertainment value of advertising."*

Perceiving advertising as informative or entertaining is part of consumer attitudes towards advertising. In addition, people who believed that advertising was informative or entertaining tend to have a positive approach towards advertising. This has been identified and explored by Mittal (1994). Mittal has mentioned that information contributed to about 49 percent of the overall belief, which indicates that the level of information gained from advertising plays a crucial role in shaping the consumers attitude towards advertising and ought to be sustained with profound research.

H11: "*Consumers in Kuwait will feel that advertising in general has a negative effect on Kuwaiti culture which can be associated with the overall attitude towards advertising, especially the effects of advertising on Kuwaiti values, language and religion.*"

Kuwait's culture is characterised as a conservative and social culture (Ali, 1991; Hofstede, 2001; Patai, 2002; Nydell, 2005); people in Kuwait tend to be more sensitive about anything that influences their culture, values and religion. It is questionable whether this sensitivity still applies to advertising. A hypothesis should be added to analyse the affect on its culture and its elements with regards to advertising in Kuwait. That indicates that if a consumer feels that advertising in general has a negative effect on the Kuwaiti culture, then they will hold a negative attitude towards advertising in general.

1.5 Organisation of This Study

This dissertation commenced with the evaluation of the objectives, its importance, the main research questions and the hypothesis to be examined within this research project's topic.

In addition, Chapter Two "*Kuwait Background Information*" provides information about Kuwait (the research project site), its location, population statistics and economic system.

Chapter Three "*Literature Review*" illustrates the previous studies conducted to identify the consumer's attitude towards advertising in developed and Third World countries and present the main theory of controlling attitudes.

Moreover, Chapter Four "*Culture*" outlines the definition of culture, its cultural elements and Hofstede's research about culture with the main determinants of culture in Kuwait.

Chapter Five "*Advertising in Kuwait*" describes the history of advertising in Kuwait, the availability of media in Kuwait, advertising expenditures, Kuwaiti government restrictions to advertising and the challenges that advertising holds in Kuwait.

Chapter Six "*Methodology*" presents the Methodology applied throughout the research project: Questionnaire Design, Selection of Samples, Data Collection, Main Research Questions, Data Reliability, Data Validity and The Statistical Test.

Chapter Seven "*Result Analysis and Discussion*" describes the samples, factor analysis and implies the consumers' attitude towards each element of attitudes towards advertising and illustrates the analysis for each of the eleven research hypotheses.

Chapter Eight "*Conclusion*" states *the outcome*, contribution and limitations of the study with various recommendations for further research.

Chapter Two

Kuwait Background Information

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a brief discussion and background information about Kuwait. Such background information is beneficial in helping to understand the external environment, in which the consumers live, as prevalent consumer behaviour is affected by the environment in which they function.

Moreover, this chapter is divided into five sections. The first section will provide a brief introduction about Kuwait's history, followed by a description of Kuwait's geographical location. The third section discusses the change in population statistics from the establishment of Kuwait until the present day. The fourth section will administer comprehensive information regarding the role of the Kuwaiti government to supply a welfare system to all its citizens. Finally, in the last section, Kuwait's economy before and after discovery of oil will be further evaluated.

2.2 Historical Background

Insufficient information is available about Kuwait's early history. The archaeological excavations on Failaka Island indicate a Greek presence between the dates of 400 to 100 B.C. The excavations also signify that Kuwait may have been a meeting point for the ancient civilisations of Mesopotamia, Dilmun and Rome (Al-Shamlan, 1986). In more recent times, tribes settled in Kuwait from 1688 and this is often seen as the beginning of the actual history of Kuwait (Abuhakima, 1984). Furthermore, the early history of Kuwait is not relevant to this study; however, it is significant to know that

during the nineteenth and early twentieth century, Kuwait had established an important position in world trade as a junction for routes between the East and the West (Dickson, 1956).

In the sixth century, a crucial battle, 'the battle of Kazema', took place between Moslems and the Persian Imperial. This was a prudent point in Kuwait's history as it marked the advent of Islam and Kuwait, and became the main passage-way to Persia and to China.

Modern day Kuwait was founded in the early seventeenth century by families of the Arabic tribes that moved from the Central Arabian Peninsula and settled in this area seeking food and water. By 1756, the settlers' numbers had reached 10,000 people and they made their livelihood mainly from fishing and pearl diving. They had selected a leader amongst them who induces them and who solves their disputes, as well as provides security from neighbouring attacks. Sabah (I) was appointed as the Ruler or, the Amir. Since that time and until now, the Sabah family has ruled over Kuwait (Abuhakima, 1984).

2.2.1 Kuwait / British Relationship

The relationship between Kuwait and the United Kingdom started in 1775 when Al-Basra City, in Iraq, fell under the French siege. At that time, the British commissioner requested the Kuwait Government to allow British ships coming from India and East Asia to use Kuwaiti territory.

Although Kuwait was never under foreign occupation, the fear of increasing

imperialistic interests in the Gulf area led to the signing of a treaty of protection with Great Britain in l899. This made Kuwait a British protectorate for approximately sixty years. Nonetheless, even under the protectorate, the British existence was at is minimum, there were no British troops or any other forms of colony (Khouja and Sadler, 1979)

In addition, the 1899 Treaty provided the British with the absolute power over foreign policy of Kuwait. The rulers of Kuwait cannot accept any kind of agent or representative of any governments in Kuwait, without the prior approval of the British Government and in return, the British offered protection to Kuwait against all foreign dangers and threats (Ismael, 1982).

Figure 2.1
Kuwait in One of the Oldest Maps (By C. Neibuhr)

Source: Kuwait facts and figures, Ministry of Information, Kuwait, 1996

It is apparent that the 1899 Treaty influenced and shaped the oil policy and coloured the direction of Kuwait's development. Moreover, Kuwait's geographical location made it strategically important to the United Kingdom in the past. The recent discovery of oil in commercial quantities has made it even more crucial.

When the war broke out with Turkey in 1914, Great Britain formally recognised Kuwait as an independent country under its protection. However, in June 1961, the 1899 Treaty was revoked and Kuwait became an independent state.

2.3 Geographical Location

Kuwait located at the North-East area of the Arabian Gulf (often referred to as the Persian Gulf'). It is bound on the East by the Gulf (195 kilometres); to the South and South-West it has a border with Saudi Arabia (250 kilometres); and to the North and West it shares a border with Iraq (240 kilometres). As a result of its geographical location, Kuwait is considered a passageway to the North-East of the Arab peninsula.

Furthermore, The Kuwaiti borders' length is about 685 kilometres; the distance between the Northern border, and the Southern border is around 200 kilometres, and between the East and West borders, it accounts for around 170 kilometres.

In addition, Kuwait located between the latitude 28.45, 30.05 North of the equator and the longitude 46.30 and 48.30 East of Greenwich, it climate can be characterise as a desert climate. The climate in general is hot and dry in summer and cold and rainy in winter (Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996).

Figure 2.2

The Location of Kuwait with Area and Topography
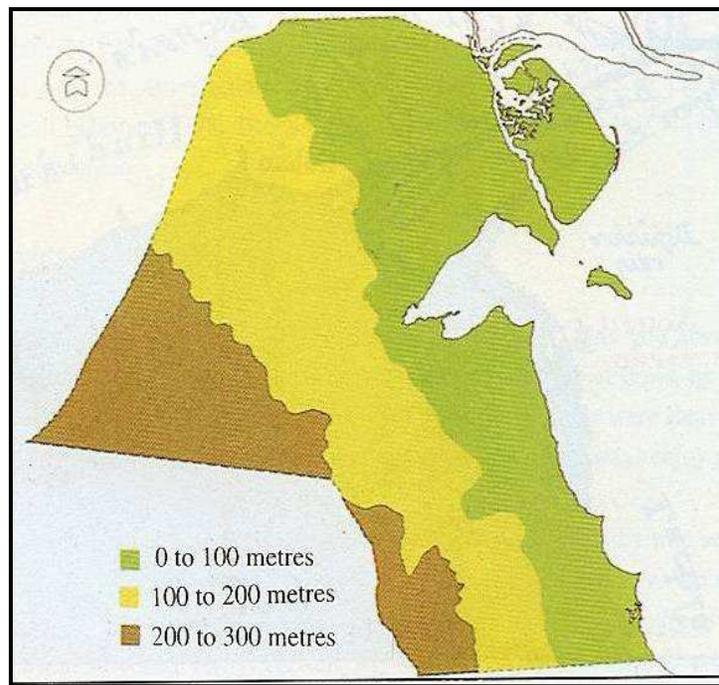
Source: Kuwait facts and figures, Ministry of Information, Kuwait, 1996

2.4 Population

The Central Statistics Office located within the Ministry of Planning approximately estimates the country's population at the beginning of the Twenty Centaury at about 35,000. Some travellers gave estimations for the population before that date which obviously lacked accuracy. The first population census conducted in Kuwait was done in 1957, and little information was known about the residents of Kuwait prior to that time.

Furthermore, the rate of the population's growth suddenly accelerated and reached 75,000 prior the actual oil exports started in the 1936. In the early 1950s, the Kuwait population was estimated to be about 100,000. The first population census was carried

out in 1957, the populace had doubled to reach 206,473 (Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996). Since then, the population census has been carried out every ten years.

Table 2.1

Population in Census Years by Nationality and Sex 1957 - 2005

Census Years		Population			Percentage		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1957	Kuwaiti			113,622			55.0
	Non-Kuwaiti			92,851			25.0
	Total			206,473			100
1961	Kuwaiti			161,909			50.3
	Non-Kuwaiti			159,712			49.7
	Total			321,621			100
1965	Kuwaiti	85,856	82,937	168,793	18.4	17.7	36.1
	Non-Kuwaiti	200,456	98,090	298,546	42.9	21.0	63.9
	Total	286,312	181,027	467,339	61.3	38.7	100
1975	Kuwaiti	153,010	154,745	307,755	15.4	15.5	30.9
	Non-Kuwaiti	390,758	296,324	687,082	39.3	29.8	69.1
	Total	543,768	451,069	994,837	54.7	45.3	100
1985	Kuwaiti	238,181	232,292	470,473	14.0	13.7	27.7
	Non-Kuwaiti	727,116	499,712	1,226,828	42.9	29.4	72.3
	Total	965,297	732,004	1,697,301	56.9	43.1	100
1995*	Kuwaiti**	325,967	329,853	655,820	20.7	20.9	41.6
	Non-Kuwaiti	588,357	331,806	920,163	37.3	21.1	58.4
	Total	914,324	661,659	1,575983	58.0	42.0	100
2000	Kuwaiti**	405,914	420,580	826,494	18.98	19.67	38.66
	Non-Kuwaiti	881,455	430,166	1,311,621	41.23	20.12	61.34
	Total	1,287,369	850,746	2,138,115	60.12	39.79	100
2005	Kuwaiti**	471,225	492,346	963,571	19.18	20.04	39.21
	Non-Kuwaiti	1,001,087	492,599	1,493,686	40.74	20.05	60.79
	Total	1,472,312	984,945	2,457,257	59.92	40.08	100

Source: Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996; and Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 42, 2005

* Provisional data, Census of Population, April 1995.

 ** Not including Kuwaitis residing permanently abroad

Estimates from the Central Statistics Office illustrate that the population increased by mid-1988 to reach 1,958,477 and had rose by the year 1990 to about 2.1 million; and further dropped down after liberation to about 1.4 million: to around 2.13 million by the year 2000, to approximately 2.45 million by the year 2005 (Table 2.1), and is expected to reach 3 million by the year 2008 if the growth rate remains constant (Statistical Review, 2005).

2.4.1 Population Annual Growth Rate

Preliminary estimates of the 1985 population census indicate a decrease in the annual growth rate of the population of Kuwait to 4.5%, for the inter-census years 1980-1985 compared with 6.4% between the censuses of 1975 and 1980. The 1985 census figures identifies that the rate of growth for Kuwaitis remained unchanged at 3.7%, compared with a decline in the non-Kuwaiti population to 5.1% in comparison to 8.7% between the censuses of 1975 and 1980 (Monthly Digest Of Statistic, 1997).

Additionally, with the exception of the period between the 1970 and 1975 censuses, the growth rate for non-Kuwaitis since 1957 was higher than that for Kuwaitis. It is evident that this can be referred to the high rate of immigration, which is considered to be the main responsible factor for the increase in population (Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996).

Immigration in Kuwait has important demographic consequences, as in some areas the immigrant population, consisting of a variety of nationalities, may outnumber the Kuwaitis. Of the two major groups of immigrants, the majority are Arabs while most of the non-Arab immigrants have come from Asia. However, foreign expatriates are

continually reminded by Kuwaitis and by the government that they are not welcome to stay. They are not immigrants, but merely temporary residents. Moreover, the non-Kuwaiti section of the population was 25 percent in the first census in 1957. By 1961 it was 49.7 percent. In 1975, the percentage of non-Kuwaitis reached about 69.1 percent and had increased to 72.3 percent by 1985, which was the time of the most recent census before the Iraqi invasion (See table 2.1). This high percentage is a result of the push for rapid development and the availability of sufficient funds to allow the Kuwaiti government to import labour and skilled workers to implement projects and programmes. It is apparent that the population issue is of major concern and central to government planning. Native Kuwaitis have become a minority in their own country. Table 2.1 illustrates that in 2005, the non-Kuwaiti section of the population accounted for 60 percent of the population. The government in its current five year plan (2002/03-2006/07) intends to reduce the non-Kuwaiti population to 50 percent.

Furthermore, there has been a slight but observable increase in the Kuwaiti female percentage of the population, based on the statistics of the population censuses conducted in Kuwait, from 47.9% in 1957 to 51.1% in the 2005 census (See table 2.1). On the contrary, the percentage of the non-Kuwaiti female population has risen substantially, increasing from 21.5% in 1957 to 32.99% in the 2005 population census (Table 2.1).

2.4.2 Active Vs Inactive Population

Kuwait can be considered to have one of the youngest populations in the world. Table 2.2 shows that almost 44.3 percent of the Kuwaiti population is under the age of 15 years. It also demonstrates that there are various reasons for this high proportion of

young people in the Kuwaiti population.

Table 2.2

Population by Age Groups, Sex and Nationality

Census, 1985, 1995, 2006

Age*	Sex	1985**			1995**			2006***		
		Kuwaiti	Non-Kuwaiti	Total	Kuwaiti	Non-Kuwaiti	Total	Kuwaiti	Non-Kuwaiti	Total
0-14	Male	111,525	206,687	318,212	147,915	93,477	241,392	204,705	129,649	334,354
	Female	109,196	197,677	306,873	141,632	88,472	230,104	197,210	119,320	316,530
	Total	220,721	404,364	625,085	289,547	181,949	471,496	401,915	248,969	650,884
15-29	Male	66,268	198,324	264,592	92,501	158,069	250,570	139,876	412,477	552,353
	Female	66,846	149,402	216,248	90,550	105,920	196,470	140,495	195,289	335,784
	Total	133,114	347,726	480,840	183,051	263,989	447,040	280,371	607,766	888,137
30-44	Male	30,430	233,821	26,4251	48,794	254,939	303,733	63,123	464,550	527,673
	Female	34,620	110,493	145,113	55,019	112,106	167,125	70,132	164,951	235,083
	Total	65,050	344,314	409,364	103,813	367,045	470,858	133,255	629,501	762,756
45-59	Male	20,323	78,230	98,553	23,483	71,823	95,306	64,403	392,796	457,199
	Female	15,307	32,125	47,432	27,755	22,100	49,855	80,900	123,838	204,738
	Total	35,630	110,355	145,985	51,238	93,923	145,161	145,303	516,634	661,937
60+	Male	9,635	10,054	19,689	13,608	8,793	22,401	21,708	28,205	49,913
	Female	6,323	10,015	16,338	12,359	6,255	18,614	25,538	12,680	38,218
	Total	15,958	20,069	36,027	25,967	15,048	41,015	47,246	40,885	88,131
Total	Male	238,181	727,116	965,297	326,301	587,101	913,402	493,815	1,427,677	1,921,492
	Female	232,292	499,712	732,004	327,315	334,853	662,168	514,275	616,078	1,130,353
	Total	470,473	1,226,828	1,697,301	653,616	921,954	1,575,570	1,008,090	2,043,755	3,051,845

* The groups have been adjusted
**Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 42, 2005
***Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 43, 2006

Firstly, Kuwait is an Islamic country, with 94 percent of the population being Muslim, most of whom believe that birth control is morally wrong. Secondly, the Kuwaitis have traditions and customs of early marriage and polygamy, which contribute to the

high birth rate. Thirdly, the government provides lucrative incentives for every Kuwaiti couple who is getting married. They receive about 4,000 pounds sterling as a gift from the government, and another 4,000 pounds sterling as an interest-free long-term loan; a direct 200 pounds sterling increase in salary and 100 pounds a month for every child they have. The high percentage of young people in the Kuwaiti population makes for a dependence on foreign man-power.

In addition, the population under 15 years of age, which is not part of the productive work force, can be considered as a liability as it accounts for a high percentage of social services expenditure such as education, health and other services. These services in turn require labour to accomplish, which the native population cannot meet.

The ratio of the active population versus the inactive population is unfavourable, as there are about (50:50) inactive persons for every active ones. This contrasts with a corresponding ratio of active versus inactive persons of about (60:40) percent for developed countries.

2.4.3 Recent Changes in Population Structure

After the liberation of Kuwait from Iraq in February 1991, the Kuwaiti population returned to their pre-Gulf War figures, which accounted for 626,000 people. Therefore, there has been no significant change in the Kuwaiti population. A remarkable reduction has occurred, however, in the non-Kuwaiti population, as a result of the Gulf War. The number of non-Kuwaitis is estimated to be about 500,000 people, which are mostly classified as the current labour force. The government has

announced that Kuwaitis will be a majority in their own homeland. The non-Kuwaiti population, however, must increase due to the high demand for labour for rebuilding the country after the Gulf War. Thus, the government faces a considerable challenge of achieving a balance between its stated population target (a majority of Kuwaitis) and the present need for non-Kuwaiti labour.

2.5 Welfare System

The Kuwaiti government skilfully employs its enormous oil revenues and invests it to provide a comprehensive welfare system for all of its citizens. This encompasses all facets of life, from free education including college, to free health care, medical and surgical treatments; from social services, to guaranteeing jobs for every Kuwaiti who seeks employment; and from providing practically free housing for low income Kuwaitis, to subsidising water, electricity, telephone services, gas, transportation and basic nutritious foods such as milk, rice and bread. The most beneficial part of this welfare system is that all these services are supplied without levying any sort of income, state, property, inheritance, or even sales taxes. The social services have taken priority in the annual budget allocation. In the 2005-2006 budget, this expenditure amounted to K.D. 2,412.8 million, which represented 35.1 % of total government expenditure (See table 2.3).

2.5.1 Education

It can be mentioned that education is one of the most significantly successful signals of the government's efforts in the growth of the country. According to Whittingham (1981: p.95): " *It is a sensible policy because after oil Kuwait has only one natural resource, its people, and the survival of the State will eventually depend on the*

intelligence of future generations and their ability to transform the traditional

business acumen of the Kuwaiti trader into the skills necessary for more sophisticated

international dealings". For instance, in 1980 the Kuwait government was named by

the United Nations Economic, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), as the

best country to prevent and eliminate illiteracy (Shehab, 1988).

Table 2.3

Government Expenditure Distributed by Different Sectors (Millions K.D.)

Item	Year					
	2002/03		2003/04		2005/06	
	A/C	%	A/C	%	A/C	%
General Public Services	842.4	17.1	882.2	16.0	1,220.7	17.79
Organisational Services	278.5	5.7	296.0	5.4	415.3	6.05
Financial Services	85.7	1.7	86.3	1.6	94.6	1.38
Public Security and Justice	439.9	8.9	476.2	8.6	620.6	9.04
Foreign Commitments	38.3	0.8	23.7	0.4	90.2	1.32
Defense	902.1	18.3	1,071.4	19.4	1,019.3	14.85
Social Services	1,883.5	38.2	1,993.7	36.1	2,412.8	35.16
Educational Services	705.1	14.3	724.9	13.1	870.0	12.68
Health Services	337.6	6.9	376.8	6.8	457.0	6.66
Social Security & Welfare Affairs	840.8	17.1	892.0	16.2	1,085.8	15.82
Society Services	430.6	8.7	515.9	9.4	545.2	7.95
Information Services	98.7	2.0	108.0	2.0	109.5	1.60
Religious Services	41.7	0.8	45.5	0.8	60.5	0.88
Housing	55.9	1.1	71.1	1.3	89.4	1.30
Utilities	234.3	4.8	291.3	5.3	285.8	4.17
Economic Services	749.8	15.3	875.3	15.8	1,236.3	18.02
Mining & Quarrying Activities	13.2	0.3	14.0	0.2	1,060.7	15.46
Transport	22.3	0.5	23.3	0.4	31.0	0.45
Communications	75.2	1.5	89.5	1.6	85.3	1.24
Electricity & Water	587.0	11.9	700.1	12.7	*	
Commercial & Industrial Services	18.3	0.4	14.6	0.3	15.3	0.23
Agriculture & Fisheries	33.8	0.7	33.8	0.6	44.0	0.64
Others Not Classified	119.0	2.4	184.3	3.3	427.7	6.32
Services	71.0	1.4	136.3	2.4	245.8	3.58
General Expropriation	48.0	1.0	48.0	0.9	181.9	2.65
Total	4,927.4	100	5,522.8	100	6,862.0	100

Source: Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 42, 2005
* included with Mining & Quarrying Activities

The first school in Kuwait was named *A1-Mubarakiyah,* and was established in 1911 with 245 students in attendance. In 1921, another school came into existence. It was called *A1-Ahmadiyah* (Abuhakima, 1984). The number of students in Kuwaiti schools increased from 4,665 in 1948 to 51,090 in 1961 (in 142 schools). By the Academic year 2005-2006, it had proliferated to 335,888 students in 664 spacious, modern and well-equipped schools. The number of teachers grew from 2,251 in 1961, to 40,026 in 2005-2006, with a ratio of 1.2 teacher to 10 students (See table 2.4).

Table 2.4

Education at Government Schools 1971/72 - 2005/06

Year	Schools	Classrooms	Students			Teachers		
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1971/72	245	5208	84460	66219	150679	5275	5138	10413
1981/82	510	10233	170812	151700	322512	11748	12619	24367
1989/90	633	11580	189566	184152	373718	12449	15488	27937
1991/92	513	7452	121873	123927	245800	8575	12701	21276
2001/02	631	9352	156587	162405	318992	10189	20829	31018
2003/04	650	10313	162040	170183	332223	10211	22993	33204
2005/06	664	11632	161962	173926	335888	10829	29197	40026

Source: Annual Statistical, Ministry of Planning, Edition 43, 2006

The Kuwaiti government has stepped up the fight to eradicate illiteracy. The government places a high priority on education, which is compulsory for all children from 6 to 14 years old. The government's fight against illiteracy has yielded remarkable results. While the percentage was 44.6 in 1975, it was reduced to 36.4 in 1980 and to 6.94 percent in 2004 (See Table 2.5).

Moreover, an Amiri Decree, issued in 1981, urged all Kuwaitis to join illiteracy eradication centres and the government offered K.D. 50 (about 100 sterling pounds)

as a reward for those who passed the illiteracy eradication examination. In more recent years (2003-2004), the number of students in adult education centres has reached 11,270 students.

Table 2.5

Population by Educational Status, Nationality & Sex 2004

Educational Status	Sex	Non-	Kuwaiti	Total	%
Illiterate	Male	76594	7048	83,642	
	Female	35391	35374	70,765	
	Total	111985	42422	154,407	6.94
Read & Write	Male	498,579	25291	523,870	
	Female	221594	26208	247,802	
	Total	720,173	51,499	771,672	34.69
Primary	Male	108,335	80603	188,938	
	Female	45964	69091	115,055	
	Total	154,299	149,694	303,993	13.67
Intermediate	Male	200,085	108,767	308,852	
	Female	75675	89154	164,829	
	Total	275,760	197,921	473,681	21.30
High School & Equivalent	Male	111,458	54,900	166,358	
	Female	48820	55399	104,219	
	Total	160,278	110,299	270,577	12.16
Over High School & Below	Male	32,915	22,643	55,558	
	Female	13277	28435	41,712	
University	Total	46,192	51,078	97,270	4.37
University & Post Graduate Studies	Male	56,588	27,635	84,223	
	Female	23728	44547	68,275	
	Total	80,316	72,182	152,498	6.86
Not Stated	Male	48	33	81	
	Female	80	54	134	
	Total	128	87	215	0.01
Total		1,549,131	675,182	2,224,313	100

Source: Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 42, 2005

Additionally, education at the illiteracy eradication centres is in line with the general education curriculum; students in such centres can reach the end of the secondary education stage, which qualifies him/her to join Kuwait University. For the purpose of finally annihilating illiteracy in Kuwait in 1981, the law of illiteracy eradication was issued, which was directly implemented within the framework of a national

comprehensive campaign for eliminating illiteracy in the country. Moreover, since 1989, the Ministry of Education commenced to encourage women to educate themselves by adopting the policy of opening a number of centres during the daytime, to be designated solely for the education of women. The State allocated financial and moral incentive awards to be granted to male and female students who successfully passed the courses at the illiteracy eradication centres, or to those that passed with distinction.

Kuwait University, one of the leading and oldest universities amongst the GCC states outside of Saudi Arabia, was opened in the school year 1966-1967. The university was launched as a modest college for arts and sciences, with 418 students, of whom 358 were Kuwaitis. In 2004, there were 15 faculties spread over four campuses with 17,372 students, 90 percent of whom were Kuwaitis; and another 4 private universities have just recently opened.

In the 1969 budget, the government spent 42.2 million KD or about 14.7 percent of the total budget on education. In 2005-2006, the education budget was 870.0 million KD, which comprised 12.68 percent of the total 2005-2006 budget. Expenditure on education was second only to social security and welfare affairs (See Table 2.3).

2.5.2 Health Care

In the 2005-2006 fiscal budget, the government allocated 6.66 percent of the total budget for health services, or K.D. 457.0 million (about 846 million sterling pounds). Furthermore, the State of Kuwait provides the best health services free of charge to all citizens and residents in Kuwait. Should a citizen require specialised medical care

unavailable in Kuwait, the Ministry of Health undertakes his/her treatment abroad and the full costs are covered by the government.

2.5.3 Housing

Housing policy is controlled by the Higher Housing Council (HHC). Housing is one of the major issues that concern the Kuwaiti people and their government, due in part to its importance, as it touches and affects a broader sector of the society, especially the younger generations and newly-married couples. The housing programme for low-income Kuwaiti families financed and built between 1963 and 1967, 8,248 housing units. By 1974, the number climbed to 12,844. In 1976, the National Housing Authority (NHA) was established to supervise and execute the housing programme. In addition, the government established the Credits and Savings Bank to grant loans to citizens who would rather purchase constructed houses, or to those who intend to build their own houses or villas, on purchased or owned land. Moreover, loans are also available for those who wish to extend, restore, or annex additional storeys to their properties. From 1975 to 2004, the government distributed 57,270 units to families with limited and average incomes. In addition, 8,087 units were under construction in 2004. The NHC in 2005 was revising its waiting list of 53,000 applications submitted over 15 years.

2.5.4 Electricity and Water

In addition to all these basic services, the government provides, at a fraction of the cost, subsidies for utilities, such as electricity and water. The government subsidy of the electricity utility made it possible to ensure the operation of selling the Kilowatt/hour from the power generators to the households at a price of two fils

(0.003 sterling pound); and to the plants and manufacturers at one fils, although the production of the K.W. hour cost the government 30 fils. Hence, modern housing and steep rises in the cost of living, continue to increase the demands for these services. Other subsidies, including basic foods such as milk, rice, sugar and bread have been provided since 1975.

2.5.5 Secure Jobs

The Kuwaiti Constitution provides the opportunity for employment for every Kuwaiti who demands a job. In 1995, it was estimated that 92.4 percent of the Kuwaiti work force is employed by the government. The unemployment rate among Kuwaitis was 4.9 percent in 2004 with about 14,345 unemployed which is more prominent than the rate in other countries in the region.

Furthermore, the major benefits of the Kuwaiti welfare system are the high standards of living. It also has the second highest per capita income in the region (after Qatar), at U.S. $39,300 in 2007 (see Table 2.6), and the guarantee of a job and other social amenities and benefits unavailable anywhere else in the Arab and Middle Eastern countries.

Table 2.6

G.D.P. per Capita (U.S. Dollars) 1998-2002-2007

Country	1998	2002	2007*
Kuwait	11,314.4	14,946.8	39,300
U.A.E	17,062.9	18,906.0	37,300
Saudi Arabia	6,212.3	8,552.8	23,200
Qatar	18,826.2	28,749.9	80,900
Oman	6,189.7	8,003.0	24,000
Bahrain	9,617.5	12,522.5	32,100

Source: Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 42, 2005
* The World Fact Book, 2007

2.6 Economy

Kuwait is a small country whose geographic location has affected its environment and its economic activities. The desert and sea have also worked to shape its economic structure. Kuwait does not fit easily into the traditional concept of either a developed or underdeveloped economy, but probably falls somewhere between the two. In addition, it has a number of indicators of an underdeveloped economy, such as dependence on the production and export of a single primary commodity (oil); a short supply of technical skills and labour of its own and a heavy dependence on the importation of capital and consumer goods. At the same time, Kuwait has the criteria of a developed economy, such as a high per capita income, one of the highest savings rates, a strong annual growth rate and a consistently healthy balance of payments. Two periods for the economy of Kuwait can be distinguished by the pre-oil era and the current economic activity.

2.6.1 The Pre-Oil Era

This era covers the period from the eighteenth century to 1946, when the first oil shipment was exported, and when the oil revenue began to flow into the country. The two main characteristics of the economy in this period were: The Kuwaitis were not equipped with much land (at least at that time), and the weather was hot and dry. These determinants forced the Kuwaitis to look toward the sea for their survival and livelihood. Moreover, Kuwait's strategic location and its relative political stability formed the basis of both, the marine industry's prosperity and the increasing importance of the city as a trading centre in the area at that time. The main economic activities during that era were:

a) Trading

Trading was the main economic activity. The Kuwaiti trade merchants offered transit trading services, their ships carrying cargoes of dates and grain from Iraq to India, and to the Eastern coasts of Africa. On their return route, their ships carried wood, tea, rice, spices, cotton yarn and various other goods.

b) Pearling

Another primary economic activity was pearl diving which took place during the summer months. It was a highly dangerous form of work for the divers, who, at that time, not only suffered from malnutrition but also from low-quality diving equipment that did not help to reduce the risks of diving. By World War I, the number of vessels involved in this industry had reached 700 with about 15,000 men on board.

In addition, a high degree of uncertainty was involved in this industry since it was dependent on the amount and the price of the pearls in the world market. This market virtually disappeared when the cultured pearl was introduced into the world market by the Japanese, before World War II. Kuwait's income from pearl trading was estimated to amount annually to 23 millions rupees (about 1,700,000 sterling pounds) at that time.

c) Boat-building

The boat-building industry grew parallel alongside trading and pearl-diving in providing the shipping vessels required, and in maintaining these vessels for operation. The Kuwaiti shipyard, annually on average produced over fifty ships, including orders from foreign countries. There were more than 10 types of boat being

made in Kuwait with a rate of 2-3 boats per month in 1939, exclusively hand- made.

In addition to these economic activities, abundant fishing was provided for the needs of the local market. Although on a smaller scale, the importation of drinking water for local consumption was also undertaken by the merchants who brought water from Iraq by ships, and who also transported this water to local residents.

Furthermore, these economic activities which flourished for about two centuries, were deeply affected by the Great Depression, the introduction of Japans cultured pearls, and the increased political instability in the Arabian Peninsula and World War II.

2.6.2 The Current Economic Activity

The first commercial shipment of crude oil took place in 1946, after which production commenced to increase rapidly, also applicable to the oil revenue. Moreover, money started to flow into the country, as machinery for development began to be active, until the country's revenue from oil exceeded three billion Kuwaiti Dinars. This concluded in the country's plan of the development and formation of companies and other institutions, in order to facilitate this fast growth, which involved a shift from the country's originally simple administration to a rather more complex and relatively large sized management.

In addition, Kuwait's economy can be classified into three main sectors: The government sector, the private sector and the joint-stock sector. Asery (1995) argues that these classifications of the economy are adopted, in order to be able to indicate who controls these sectors, the form of that control and the rationale according to

which it is exercised.

(1) The Government Sector

This sector includes mainly the government administration agencies, such as ministries and government owned companies and institutions in the country. The dependence of the country on oil, as the main source of income, has drawn attention to the enormous increase in the government share in the G.D.P since 1971 (Asery, 1995).

(2) The Private Sector

This generally refers to private companies completely owned by individuals. It has been noted that Kuwaiti citizens should own at least fifty one per cent of the capital of any private company in the country, while non-Kuwaitis are permitted to possess not more than forty nine per cent of the shares (Jarada, 1987). However, the importance of this sector in Kuwait's economy cannot be stressed enough, as the private sector, after the discovery of oil, has largely withdrawn from sizeable activities, and is mainly limited to rather small businesses; such as small manufacturing industries, and financial and trade activities, excluding some large shareholding companies that were formed at a later stage.

(3) The Joint-Stock Sector

In general terms, this refers to shareholding enterprises. It is either owned by the public as private shareholding, or its capital is divided in certain percentages between the government and the public at large. These companies are carefully established by the government according to its economic development plan; the government's

permission is required prior to commencement of the business.

Yet another indicator of importance of this sector is that it is regarded as one of the most prudent steps taken in the development of the country. It further marks its major attempts to transform the low income, narrow based economy of the pre-oil economy into an economy that is able to take its place among the modern industrial states and to hold its own on equal terms with its rivals (Khouja and Sadler, 1979).

Furthermore, Joint-sector companies were not known in the country until six decades ago, when in 1952 the government encouraged Kuwaiti businessmen to establish the first bank in Kuwait, with primary capital of K.D. 982,500 (about 1.73 million pounds), paid by the public in the form of shares.

Until the late 1960s, public involvement in the joint sector was cautious and limited, as it was considered a completely new phenomenon. However, in the early 1970's the government started to examine its efforts following several studies and investigations, which attempted to consider and evaluate what additional steps should be taken, to facilitate the operation of this sector, and its future role and implications in the economy. Despite these studies, the government lacked a cohesive strategy towards joint-sector companies.

2.6.3 National Income and Government Expenditures
One of the properties Kuwait shares with many developing countries is the dependence on the production and export of a single primary commodity, such as oil. While the share of the oil sector has fluctuated widely with recent changes in prices

and output; oil production remains without any doubt the dominant sector in the economy. It can be seen from Table 2.7, in 2003, it accounted for an estimated 46.57 per cent of GDP, compared with 56.5 per cent in 1968/69. The oil sector share of the GDP fell from 67.9 per cent in 1972 to 59.9 percent in 1975. Hence, following the increase of oil prices in 1979, the oil contribution to GDP reached a record level of 77.1 percent (Jarada, 1987). In more recent years the oil sectors contribution to the GDP has risen from 44.1 percent in 2002 to 54.49 percent in 2005.

Table 2.7

Gross Domestic Product by Type of Economic Activity (millions of KD)

Kind of Economic Activity	2002		2003		2004		2005	
	K.D.	%	K.D.	%	K.D.	%	K.D.	%
Agriculture and fishing	59.9	0.56	65.8	0.53	70.9	0.41	78.4	0.33
Mining and quarrying (including oil)	4,405.60	41.21	5,794.00	46.57	7,844.6	44.91	12,852.6	54.49
Manufacturing	743.8	6.96	897.3	7.21	1,455.9	8.34	1,756.7	7.45
Electricity, gas and water	275.3	2.57	300.8	2.42	306.9	1.76	316.6	1.34
Construction	270.7	2.53	285.3	2.29	401.9	2.30	455.2	1.93
Wholesale, retail trade, restaurants & hotels	764	7.15	791.5	6.36	1,107.8	6.34	1,155.3	4.90
Transport, storage and communications	616.1	5.76	633	5.09	1,045.1	5.98	1,294.0	5.49
Finance, insurance, real estate & business services	1,400.60	13.10	1444.9	11.61	2,871.0	16.44	3,255.7	13.80
Community, social and personal services	2,548.70	23.84	2,685.00	21.58	2,924.6	16.74	3,085.9	13.08
Less: Imputed bank services charges	490.2	-4.58	544.6	-4.38	724.2	-4.15	810.7	-3.44
+ import duties	96.9	0.91	88.3	0.71	161.5	0.92	148.3	0.63
Gross Domestic Product	10,691.4	100	12,441.3	100	17,466	100	23,588.0	100

Source: Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 42, 2005

The service sector, which includes transport, storage, communications, finance, insurance, real estate and business services, constitutes for a major part of the GDP.

However, in spite of the remarkably high growth rate of the service sector (over 40 per cent annually), their proportional share of the GDP has decreased from 31.4 per cent in 1968 to 19.29 per cent in 2005. This has largely resulted from an even greater growth of the contribution of the oil sector. Moreover, within the services sector, finance, real estate and business services are the most prominent. In the commodity producing sector, manufacturing, which accounted for 7.45 per cent of the GDP in 2005, ranks first in terms of relative importance. Due to the effect of the rise in oil prices, the most eminent increase in the proportional share of manufacturing does not reflect the true success of the efforts to promote industrialisation. Construction, on the other hand, declined significantly in relative importance between the years 1968 to 2003; due to the construction boom of the sixties and seventies of the last century coming to a halt by this decade. The housing crisis of the last few years (1990's) is partly attributed to the slowing down of construction activities during those years.

Finally, it should be noted that the combined value of the non-oil sector represents a larger proportion of GNP than of GDP. This is particularly applicable for the years prior to the nationalisation of the oil companies. In 1968, non-oil sectors accounted for approximately 64.5 percent of the GNP, compared with 43.5 per cent of the GDP; and whilst both percentages have been reduced in recent years (2000's) due to the rapid increase of income from oil, the difference between them has declined considerably for various reasons.

Moreover, in Kuwait taking into account the contribution that each sector makes to the economy, government consumption accounts for around 44 per cent of the GDP demand, with most of the remainder going to the private consumer. Kuwait has one of

the highest per capita GDP levels in the entire Arab world, measured at $39,300 in 2007. The major areas of government expenditure are defence (14.85 percent); social security (15.82 percent); education (12.68 percent) and mining, electricity and water (12.7 percent), (See Table 2.3). Historically, government revenues exceeded expenditure by a substantial margin in 1980/81 by KD 2.7 billion (representing 60 percent). However, this margin has been severely eroded in the 1990's and in the early part of this decade, however a budget surplus still prevails.

Furthermore, the consequence of such a significant expenditure by various sectors of the Kuwaiti economy is that manufacturing has seen industries expand very rapidly in terms of size, numbers of employees and technological processes used. The rapid changes in Kuwait's environment necessitated the urgent importation of workers to man the companies of industrial and other sectors.

2.6.4 Labour Force

The labour force in Kuwait can be described as including three distinct characteristics. The first characteristic is the ratio of the total work force to the total population that was 30.4 percent in 2005; and this ratio was even smaller amongst the Kuwaitis due to several factors, such as the larger proportion of young people who continue their education, and the low level of female participation in the labour force due to social and cultural constraints.

Additionally, the second determinant is the uneven distribution of the labour force among the various economic sectors in the country; the labour force is mostly contracted for in sectors that have a small contribution to the GDP (See Table 2.8).

For example, the dominant oil sector employed only 0.45 percent of the total labour force and contributed 46.57 percent to the GDP. This is probably due to the nature of this industry being capital intensive, whilst the community and social services sector employed 52.13 percent of the total labour force, and further contributed 21.58 percent to the total GDP.

Table 2.8

Estimated Distribution of Labour Force by Economic Activity & Nationality 2004

Economic Activity Divisions	Kuwaiti	%	Non-Kuwaiti	%	Total	%	Percent Contributed to GDP (%)
Agriculture, Hunting And Fishing	96	0.37	26,185	99.63	26,281	1.69	0.53
Mining & Quarrying (Oil Sector)	4,423	62.73	2,628	37.27	7,051	0.45	46.57
Manufacturing Industries	7,950	8.80	82,348	91.20	90,298	5.82	7.21
Electricity, Gas and Water	6,966	73.44	2,519	26.56	9,485	0.61	2.42
Construction	1,998	1.80	109,176	98.20	111,174	7.17	2.29
Wholesale & Retail Trade Restaurants And Hotels	4,641	1.97	230,959	98.03	235,600	15.19	6.36
Transport, Storage & Communications	6,719	14.50	39,628	85.50	46,347	2.99	5.09
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate & Business Services	9,519	14.29	57,078	85.71	66,597	4.29	11.61
Community & Social Services	230,691	28.53	578,025	71.47	808,716	52.13	21.58
Others	17,743	11.85	132,050	88.15	149,793	9.66	0.71
Total	290,746	18.74	1,260,596	81.26	1,551,342	100	100

Source: Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 42, 2005

The third element is the large proportion of the labour force in the services sector, especially that of the government sector and household services sector. In 2005, the

government employed 46.29 percent of the total labour force in both the government and the joint sector which as will controlled by the government (See Table 2.9) and 95.05 of the Kuwaiti labour force (Annual Statistic Abstracts, 2005).

The high ratio of Kuwaitis in the government sector is attributed to the government policy of providing jobs to the Kuwaitis, as a means of redistributing the oil wealth. Nevertheless, this policy has led to disguised unemployment in the government sector with the result of over- employment coupled with low productivity, and a high level of government bureaucracy. This policy also created a shortage of the national labour force in other economic sectors, which resulted in the importation of more foreign labour to the country.

Table 2.9

Labour Force (15 Years & Over) by Sector

(Census 2005)

Nationality	Government Sector	Private Sector	Joint Sector	Total
Kuwaiti	168,974	15,447	128,146	312,567
Non-Kuwaiti	57,357	911,978	444,702	1,414,037
Total	226,331	927,425	572,848	1,726,604
Percentage	13.11	53.71	33.18	100

Source: Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 42, 2005

In regards to population estimations, gathered from the results of labour force research by sample in 2004, Kuwaitis were about 290,746, by percentage 18,74%, out of the total labour force of 1,551,342 (Table 2.8). Kuwaiti males constitute the majority in the Kuwaiti labour force, in comparison with females; they are 176,369, by percentage 60.66%, compared to 114,377, by percentage 39.34% female (Annual

Statistical Abstract, 2006).

Moreover, as for marital status, concerning Kuwaiti working individuals, the estimations of the research, mentioned that the total of unmarried Kuwaiti working individuals came to 38,024, by percentage 25.73% of the total Kuwaiti force, and the numbers of unmarried females was about 10,217, by percentage 26.87% (Annual Statistic Abstracts, 2005).

2.7 Summary

Throughout this Chapter, the researcher has highlighted background information about Kuwait which is the research area, in particular the historical background information of Kuwait, its geographical location, the welfare system available and the population structures. In addition, the researcher explored the demographic characteristics of the Kuwaiti consumers specifically, their age distribution, gender percentage, education level, employment rate, level of income. This information is essential to demonstrate a clear picture about the research area and it will be further used to obtain the sample required for the field survey (the sample size and type will be discussed in detail in Chapter six). It is evident that the percentage of non-Kuwait population account for sixty percent of the total population of Kuwait: those sixty percent are labour and skilled workers imported from different countries and resident in Kuwait, this diversification of population categorises Kuwait as a multi-cultural country (The characteristics of the Kuwaiti culture will be discussed in detail in Chapter five).

Chapter Three

Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

Attitudes influence a wide variety of human behaviours (Peter and Olson, 1990). Therefore, nearly every study of consumer behaviour incorporates this construct. This chapter presents definitions and theories of attitude, then focuses on studies of attitudes towards advertising in general in an individual or liberal culture (i.e. United States of America and the United Kingdom), Collective or liberal cultures (i.e. China and India), and Collective/ Conservative culture (i.e. Arabic countries).

3.2 Attitude Definition and Characteristics

Attitude has been considered as the most distinctive concept in social psychology. Therefore, attitudes have been the focus of research for more than one hundred years. Moreover, researchers have attempted different approaches to study attitude, in order to gain a more complete understanding of consumer behaviour and reaction. Hence, over one hundred different definitions of attitude and more than five hundred measures have been reported. Most of those definitions have in common a reference to an individual's affective reaction to, or overall evaluation of, an object or concept (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

Thurstone (1931) defined attitude as the amount of affect a person has for or against an object (Peter and Olson, 1990). A few years soon after, Allport (1935: 198) defined attitude more generally as "*a mental and neural state of readiness to respond,*

organized through experience and exerting a directive and /or dynamic influence upon the individual, responding to all objects and situations with which it is related."

In addition, Assael (1987) argued that Allport's definition that attitude emphasises capability or preparedness to respond. Therefore, "*attitude towards a brand*" is consumer tendency to evaluate the brand, based on past experiences, available information and environment influences.

Triandis (1971) contends that attitude can be conceptualised as cognition (knowledge about the object), affect (positive or negative evaluation of the object), and conation (intentions or actual behaviour towards the object). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) later supported Thurstone's (1931) view of attitude as an uni-dimensional concept, but Fishbein defined the single dimension, as the amount of feeling a person has towards an object, rather than beliefs about the object.

Moreover, contemporary researchers (Lutz, 1985; Dillon et al., 1994; Petty et al, 1997) typically accept Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975: 6) definition of attitude as "*a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object.*" This definition assumes that attitude can be learned or acquired. Furthermore, this definition helps marketers as it indicates that attitude is neither innate nor instinctive, but rather can be influenced by marketing messages. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) relate attitude to behaviour, i.e. the ability to respond in a specific manner to a specific motive. Finally, attitudes can be directed towards an object: and in marketing, the object can be a product, service, institution or an idea.

In contrast, Campbell (1980) linked attitude with the degree of consistency in a person's response to a situation or subject. For example, if there are two persons and one changes his behaviour each time he faces the same situation, whilst the other exhibits the same behaviour every time with the same situation; it can be mentioned that the first person does not hold an attitude towards that object or situation. On the contrary, the consistency of the second person's behaviour suggests that he maintains an attitude towards the object or situation.

Furthermore, currently most researchers agree with Thurstone (1931) and Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) that the uni-dimensional concept of attitude, is the most useful concept. It is widely acknowledged, that attitude prescribes a person's favourable or unfavourable feelings towards the object in question. It can be argued that someone can look at beliefs and intentions to behave as separate concepts related to attitude but not as part of it (Peter and Olson, 1990).

From the above discussion of definition, primary characteristics of attitude include (Hussain, 1984; Olson and Zanna, 1993):

- Attitude is learned and is not instinctive. A person's attitude is based on his/her past experience and knowledge about the object.
- The person holding an attitude should demonstrate behaviour that is consistent and compatible with the attitude.
- The attitude that occurs, always has two parts, either positive or negative.
- The relationship between attitude and behaviour can be influenced by temporary irritants and social situations.

In addition, from the marketer's point of view, the media available will play an important role in creating and shaping a positive attitude towards the product or service being advertised. Advertising can also change negative attitudes towards a product and turn them into positive and increases attitude strength. Thus, attitude is one element that an advertiser tries to influence, along with information, opinions, beliefs and behaviour.

Attitude studies have developed three general principles that can be used to create effective advertising. Firstly, people create attitudes as they attempt to fill needs. Secondly, attitude is created and shaped according to the information available to a person about a product or service. Lastly, the individual attitude can be influenced by groups with whom the person interacts, as well as personality and other individual differences.

3.3 Attitude Components

The most widely held view of the structure of attitude, is that it is made up of three closely interrelated components: cognitive, affective and behavioural (Triandis, 1971; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Zikmund and D'Amico, 1989; Ajzen et al, 1992; Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). From this perspective, people with positive attitudes respond positively across the cognitive, affective, and behavioural components; and those with negative attitudes, respond negatively across these components. The following section discusses the three components of attitude in more detail.

3.3.1 Cognitive Component

The cognitive component of attitude consists of beliefs, which can be derived from many formal and informal sources of information. In addition, many consumers tend

to get their information about products and services or the company itself, from formal sources, such as advertising or salespeople: and from informal sources such as friends, family and neighbours. Consumers also learn from personal experiences with the object. Beliefs can be accurate or inaccurate; regardless, the conviction held by the consumer, influences his or her attitude.

3.3.2 Affective Component

The affective component of attitude can be defined as feelings and emotions a person has towards the object, including liking and preference. The affective component represents the way cognitive beliefs are evaluated (Fishbein and Azjen, 1975). This component can be influenced by situation, personal motive, past experience, group leadership and environment (Miller and Ginter, 1979).

Moreover, people often share the same evaluation of a belief, because they belong to the same culture. They develop both beliefs and evaluations through growth and development within the culture (Lessing, 1975).

3.3.3 Behavioural Component

The behavioural component of attitude can be defined as the individual's tendency to act towards an object and such examples include intention, trial purchase and recommendation of the product to others.

Marketers often focus on the second, affective component, assessing the degree of positive or negative feeling for an object. They argue that this overall liking is based

on the cognitive component (beliefs and knowledge about the brand) and that influence leads to behaviour, such as trial and purchase.

3.4 Measuring Attitude

Attitude can be measured simply and directly by asking consumers to evaluate the concept of interest (Peter and Olson, 1990). Attitudes can be complicated and not easy to measure and a number of different instruments have been developed (Brodsky and Smitherman, 1983).

Furthermore, attitude scales aim to find out how a person perceives, believes or feels. Torgerson (1958) in his research have mentioned that scaling, as a science of measuring human opinion, is as essential as collecting data on well-developed sciences. Scales can measure attitudes towards personality, a diversity of activities, situations and institutions (McIver, 1981 and Gay, 1996). McIver (1981) argues that scaling is the knowledge of determining measuring instruments for human judgement. Turoff and Hiltz (1997) have added that appropriate scaling methods will improve the accurateness of subjective estimation and selection procedures.

The most popular scaling techniques are:

- Thurstone scale

- Likert scale

- Guttman scaling

- Semantic differential

3.4.1 Thurstone Scale

The Thurstone scale, one of the earliest methods for measuring attitude, was developed by Thurstone and Chave (1929) to measure a key attitude when there are multiple dimensions or concerns around that attitude. The method commences with collecting statements about the attitude object: favourable, unfavourable and neutral. These statements after its collection are then handover to a number of jurists, who assess them pursuant to their positive or negative views, of the attitude under study. Additionally, the items selected for inclusion are those that represent different levels on the evaluative dimension. Typically, this process generates a scale of 15-20 homogeneous and uni-dimensional items, which can then be used to make up the questionnaire. An overall score can then be calculated to assess a person's attitude towards the objects. The scale has been criticised, as it is complex and time consuming, and therefore expensive to produce (Barnett, 1991; Bucci, 2003; Trochim, 2005).

3.4.2 Likert Scale

Likert scale is the most popular form of attitude measurement today (Barnett, 1991; Franses and Paap, 2001; Trochim, 2005). The scale was developed by Rensis Likert (1932) and requires the individuals to make a decision based on their level of agreement with a statement, generally on a five-points scale (i.e., Strongly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree nor Disagree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree). It is recommended to begin with as many items as possible, since the responses can always be tightened into condensed categories later on for analysis usage (Nunnally, 1978). The scale is also called a "*summated scale*" because the attitude is represented by scores summed across items, with negative items reverse scored. Likert scales tend to be favoured by

researchers due to their simplicity of construction (Tittle et al, 1967), as well as their reliability when compared to other scales with the same number of items (Taylor and Heath, 1996).

Likert scale advantages include the following determinants, (a) simple to construct, (b) each item of equal value, (c) likely to produce a highly reliable scale, (d) easy for respondents to read and complete, (e) furnishes consistent assessment of attitudes, (f) adaptable to most measurement situations, (g) easy to administer, and (h) compatible with the most optical scan sheet formats (Tittle et al, 1967; Taylor and Heath, 1996; Neuman, 2000; Bucci, 2003).

However, the scale has been criticised because of (a) difficulty in demonstrating validity, (b) absence of one-dimensionality or homogeneity, (c) lack of reproducibility distance, (d) distance between points on scale can not be presumed equal (which means that it may not represent the exact feelings of the respondent), (e) multi-dimensional concepts are not accounted for, and (f) the time required to construct valid and reliable instruments (Helgeson, 1993; Gal and Ginsburg, 1994; Bucci, 2003). Additionally, Likert scales suffer from defects of all self-reports, i.e., subject to misrepresentation.

Moreover, Gal and Ginsburg (1994) argue that Likert-type scales appear to have limited use mainly because it reveals little about the causes for answers. Helgeson (1993) identifies two problems reported in the literature: lack of conceptual clarity in defining attitudes, and technical limitations of the instrument used to assess attitude.

Other researchers favour using Likert scales for attitude measurement. Robson (1993) advises that Likert scales look interesting to respondents and therefore people enjoy completing a scale of this type. This leads to the likelihood that the answers they give are correct rather than being a perfunctory process for the interviewee. Neuman (2000) adds that the most strengths of the Likert scale are in its simplicity and ease of use for both the researcher and the respondent.

3.4.3 Guttman Scale

Guttman scaling, developed in the 1940s, is commonly referred to as cumulative scaling (Bucci, 2003; Trochim, 2005). A primary purpose of the Guttman scaling is to ensure that the instrument measures only a single trait or only establishes a one-dimensional continuum for a concept, primarily to determine if a relationship existed within a group of items. Moreover, the Guttman scale is an uni-dimensional set of items ranked according to the strength of attitude that is revealed, ranging from the least extreme to the most extreme point. The respondent chooses an item that best appropriates to him. In addition, the list in the scale contains items that are cumulate, so the respondent either agrees or disagrees with the statements. If the participants agree with one item, then they are more likely to agree with all of the items that precede it. This rating is scaled by summing up all of the positive answers, until the first negative answer appears in the list.

Furthermore, Guttman scales are easy to construct and to complete, and can detect small shifts in attitude. However, the scale has been criticised, due to the fact that selection of items is mysterious and the instrument is complicated to score. Additionally, researchers argue that this scale does not provide enough variation of

feelings and perceptions (Bucci, 2003; Trochim, 2005). In summary, Guttman scaling is very appealing, but in recent years has become less popular

3.4.4 Semantic Differential

The Semantic Differential is a technique that was developed by Osgood et al (1957). Moreover, it is a scale made up of a set of different dimensions, which the attitude object can be evaluated, based on the concept that people think in terms of polar opposites or dichotomously , such as right-wrong, strong-weak or good-bad. There are many varieties of the technique. The most popular version involves asking respondents to place their own mark along a line, between two adjectives opposite to each other.

Moreover, the scale can be used with any adjectives, and they do not have to make sense: and the aim is to collect response patterns that researchers can analyse for scaling purposes. By implementing this method, it is probable not just to observe if attitude are evaluated as favourable or unfavourable, as will why it might be the status, in respect of the dimensions.

The scale can be readily adapted for use in variety of settings. In addition, the scale allows for the evaluation of different concepts in the same test form and can be adapted for scoring with an optical scanner, which is easy for the subjects to answer; and is facile to set up, administer, code, and is ultimately cost-effective (Summers, 1970). The scale allows several types of analyses to take place (Bucci, 2003).

Table 3.1

Advantage and Disadvantage for the Attitude Scales

Scale	Advantages	Disadvantages
Thurstone	Items are weighted or valued rather than subjects	Difficult to construct
	Suitable for measuring multiply dimensions	Time consuming
		Expensive to produce
		Measures only agreement or disagreement
Likert	Simple to construct	Lack of reproducibility
	Each item of an equal value	Absence of one-dimensionality or homogeneity
	Likely to produce a highly reliable scale	Validity may be difficult to demonstrate
	Easy to read and complete	Distance between points on scale can not be presumed equal
	Furnishes consistent assessment of attitudes	Multi-dimensional concepts are not accounted
	Adaptable to most measurement situations	
	Easy to administer	
	Compatible with the most optical scan sheet formats	
Guttman	Easy to construct and to complete	Difficult to select items
	More one-dimensional than Likert scaling	Does not provide enough variation of feelings and perceptions
	Can detect small shifts in attitude	Instrument is complicated to score
Semantic Differential	Simple to construct	Analyses can be complex
	Easy for subjects to answer	Time consuming
	Cost effective	
	Allows for several types of analyses to take place	

In contrast, bi-polar objectives can be tedious and time-consuming. The instrument does not provide affective statements, merely opposite words and therefore analysis can be complex (Heise, 1967; Bucci, 2003). Moreover, semantic differential scales have been implemented effectively in marketing, cross-cultural communications, clinical psychology, operations research and personality measurement (Malhotra et al, 1981; Reisenwitz and Wimbush, 1996; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). The scales almost certainly are the widespread question type used for marketing surveys and

experiments (Malhotra et al, 1981; Reisenwitz and Wimbush, 1996; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). The scale is used to evaluate products and services, to measure brand attitude, and advertising credibility and is more commonly used in employee, salary and customer satisfaction surveys. A number of studies have revealed that the semantic differential scale can work successfully with diverse age groups, cultures and languages.

3.5 The Theory of Reasoned Action

The theory of reasoned action is one of the most frequently used models to predict consumers' behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Mazis et al., 1975; Ryan and Bonfield, 1975, 1980; Ryan, 1982; Lee and Green, 1991; Netemeyer and Bearden, 1992; Chung and Pysarchik, 2000). It has been widely used by marketing researchers (Buttle and Bok, 1996; Thompson and Thompson, 1996; Ha, 1998; Kalafatis et al, 1999; Shaw and Clarke, 1999; Bobbitt and Dabholkar, 2001; Söderlund et al, 2001; Shaw and Shiu, 2003; Page and Luding, 2003; Choo et al, 2004). The theory identifies three major factors that are predicative of attitude: Salient Beliefs, Strength of the Belief, and Evaluation. The theory proposed that a person's behaviour can be determined by his intention to portray the behaviour, and this intention is, sequentially, a function of his attitude towards the behaviour and his subjective norm (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

As previously mentioned by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), it is essential to look at the determinants of the attitudinal and normative components, in order to get better understanding of the factors that are affecting behaviour. In addition, the authors discovered that those determinants are beliefs people have about themselves and their

environment. That indicates that information, thinking and viewpoints that persons hold about themselves and the surrounding environment in which they live. For this explanation, beliefs are observed as causal of a person's attitudes and subjective norms, and can be seen as eventually determining intentions and behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

In this theory, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, 1980) contend that behaviour results partly from intentions and the complicated outcomes of attitude. More concisely, an individual behaves according to their attitude and acts how they believe others think they should act. The persons' actions depend on the importance he will give to his attitude and other opinions; and the prudence most of the time varies, as it depends on the specific situation. This theory is referred to as *the theory of reasoned action,* since authors trust that our actions are predominantly rational and are based on a logical evaluation of the information available to individuals. Fishbein presumed that people consider the purports of their actions and behave based on a reasonable consideration of those purports. In accordance with this theory, intentions are formed as a result of the individual's assessment that performing this behaviour is acceptable and their attitude towards the behaviour; and the social stress placed on the individual to perform the behaviour or the subjective norm.

Furthermore, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) argue that subjective norm is a function of *normative beliefs* and can be defined as a person's "*perception that most people who are important to him, think he should or should not perform the behaviour in question"* (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975: 302). The author's research argues that when configuring a subjective norm, a person takes into consideration the normative

expectations of other sources that are essential to him/her. Researchers have contended that intention to behaviour, can occur with minimal influence of subjective norms (Warshaw, 1980; Bagozzi, 1981; Dabholkar, 1994; Bobbitt and Dabholkar, 2001). Furthermore, they discovered that a person's attitude towards behaviour is resolute from a set of *salient beliefs* he maintains about performing the behaviour. According to Ajzen and Fishbein, salient beliefs are a few numbers of beliefs - about five to nine - that a person can attend to, at any given time. Peter and Olson (1990) have argued that a researcher may expect even fewer salient beliefs, for many objects (Figure 3.1 illustrates the *theory of reasoned action*).

Figure 3.1
Theory of Reasoned Action
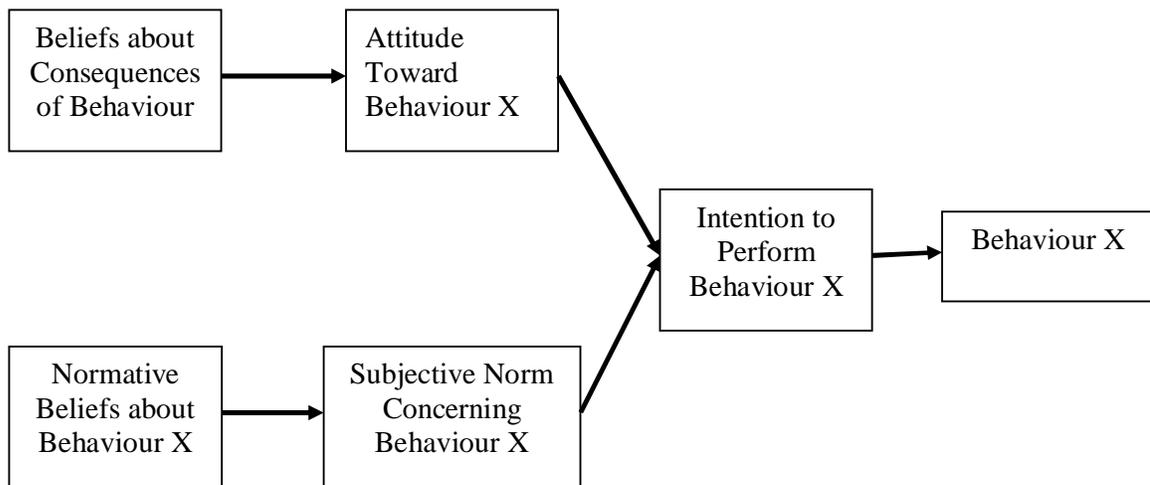
Source: Fishbein, M. and Ajzen, I. (1975) Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behaviour: An Introduction to Theory and Research. California: Addison-Wesley

Associated with each salient belief is an evaluation (*ai*) that reflects how favourable the consumer perceives that attribute or consequence. Marketers measure the (*ai*) component by having consumers indicate their evaluation of (towards favourability) each salient belief.

In addition, evaluations of the salient beliefs influence the overall attitude towards object (*Aact*) in proportion to the strength of each belief (*Bi*). Thus, strong beliefs about positive attributes have greater effects on (*Aact*) than weak beliefs about equally positive attributes. Likewise, negative (*ai*)s reduce the favourability of (*Aact*) in proportion to their (*Bi*) "*weights*".

Consumers' evaluations of salient attributes are not necessarily fixed over time or constant across different situations (Olson and Dover 1978). For instance, consumers may change their minds about how good or bad an attribute is, as they learn more about its higher-order consequences. Situational factors can also change (*ai*)s.

The Theory of Reasoned Action is categorised as an Expectancy Value Model of behaviour. Fishbein (1967) formed an equation to anticipate attitude towards a behaviour. He suggests that in order to calculate a person's behaviour, the researcher required to multiply his evaluation of each of the behaviour's consequences, by the intensity of people's belief that the behaviour will produce those consequences and then adding to each products. The following equation summarises the model.

$$A_{act} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_i\, a_i$$

Where **Aact** is equal to the attitude towards the object, **Bi** is equal to the strength of belief I, **ai** is the evaluative aspect of B and **n** is the number of beliefs.

Fishbein and Ajzen (1980) highlight that people generally believe that their behaviour will produce both positive and negative consequences and their overall attitude is dependent on how favourable the total set is.

3.5.1 Criticism of the Theory of Reasoned Action

A number of studies question the application of Theory of Reasoned Action to persuasive communication. Grunert (1996) argues that the Fishbein type models fail to explain which types of cognitive processes drive from the information in the cognitive structure to the evaluation. Moreover, James and Hensel (1991) find the *Theory of Reasoned Action* unsuitable to give explanation or to predict the impact of negative advertising. In addition, the theory does not incorporate the consumer's level of involvement, feelings and emotions elicited by the advertising; nor does the theory consider attitudes towards the advertising; and attitudes towards the advertising sponsor as factors influencing purchase intentions. Yet, Peterson et al. (1992) have implied that behavioural (purchase) intention is a variable stated to have instant relationships with (purchasing) behaviour in Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) model; and further remains one of the commonly used variables to evaluate effectiveness of advertisements.

Despite problems arising from applying the theory to behavioural prediction, the Theory is still considered the reference point for most persuasion related research (Funkhouser and Parker, 1999).

3.5.2 Extension of the Theory

Responding to these and other criticisms, the researchers tried to modify the theory to improve predictions. The most widely known extension of the *Theory of Reasoned Action* is the *Theory of Planned Behaviour* proposed by Ajzen and Madden in 1985. Ajzen suggested an additional construct, Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC), to account for situations where an individual has less than complete control over the behaviour (See Figure 3.2). Perceived behavioural control (PBC) is defined as *"people's perception of the ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour of interest"* (Ajzen, 1991, p. 183).

Figure 3.2
Theory of Planned Behaviour
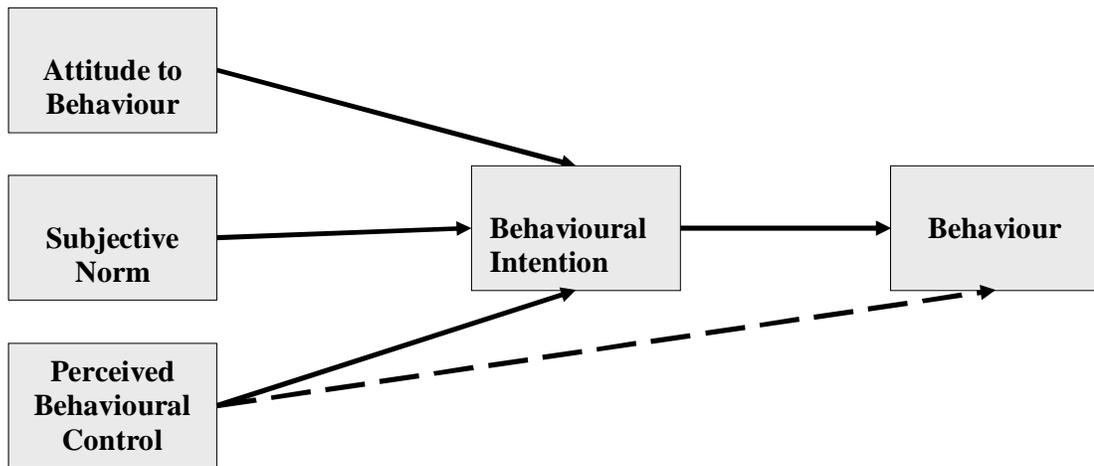
Source : Ajzen, and Madden (1992). "A Comparison of the Theory of Planned Behaviour and the Theory of Reasoned Action", Society for Personality and Social Psychology, 18 (1): 3-9.

The *Theory of Planned Behaviour* has been found more effective in predicting behaviour in some studies, compared to the *Theory of Reasoned Action*. Chang (1998)

found that the *Theory of Planned Behaviour* can be used successfully to predict the intention to form unethical behaviour more accurately than the *Theory of Reasoned Action*. In contrast, other studies have suggested that crossover effects and the decomposition of the belief structures, will improve predictions from Ajzen's original model (Taylor and Todd, 1995).

Moreover, another extension of the *Theory of Reasoned Action* is the *Theory of Trying* developed by Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990). This theory emphasises consumer uncertainty, when achievement of a consumption objective is not entirely within one's volitional control (Funkhouser and Parker, 1999). Another alternative to understand the persuasion process is the *Action Theory of Persuasion* (ATP) proposed by Funkhouser and Parker (1999) where the dependent variable was shifted from *attitude change* to *action*.

3.6 Using Advertising to Influence Consumer Attitudes

Advertising communication seeks to increase the awareness of or serve as a change mechanism of consumer attitudes, towards the targeted behaviour. Effective advertisements will shift consumer attitudes for a certain period of time or create a longer-term positive attitude towards a product or brand.

In addition, one of the goals of advertising communication is to influence consumers to make at least one trial purchase. Repeat purchasing is influenced by additional factors, such as how consumers perceive the product after use, perception of value compared to price, how well product benefits satisfy needs, and (if a publicly

consumed product or service) the response of the consumer's reference groups (Dunn and Barban, 1982).

Furthermore, advertisers attempt to change negative attitudes towards their products, yet some of those attitudes are stable and linked to personality. In such cases, modifications of beliefs will not be sufficient to change attitude. For example, as consumers increase education levels, their attitudes will be revised in accordance with new information they obtain (Hashim, 1985). Advertisers also need to be aware that consumers react to their surrounding environments, as these environments influence beliefs and ultimately attitudes.

According to the *Theory of Reasoned Action*, information from direct marketing media and response channels can have three effects on attitude change: change in the weight of a particular belief, influence the direction of a particular belief and the addition of new beliefs (Littlejohn 2002). Page and Luding (2003) argue that through the marketing communication process, consumers form an initial stage of goods or services awareness, then progress to being interested in those goods or services, then move towards desire, and finally to action (purchasing). The intention to purchase must occur somewhere immediately, prior to action.

In contrast, Berkowitz et al. (1989) identified five ways to change attitudes towards a particular product through advertising. Firstly, if the attitudes are linked to a social occasion, the advertiser can change consumer attitudes by showing consumers using the product in an appropriate social context. For example, 7-Up illustrates young consumers drinking the product at a party.

Secondly, advertisers can claim they have added a remarkable attribute to the product, something that the consumer feels makes a strong contribution to quality. The 7-Up advertisements highlight the "*no-caffeine*" attribute.

Thirdly, advertising can encourage consumers to change their beliefs about the importance of an attribute. 7-Up appeals to consumers who want to avoid caffeine and who believe the "*no-caffeine*" attribute is critical to their consumption decision.

Fourthly, advertising can change consumer feelings about the advertised brand. Lastly, advertising can change consumer feelings towards the competitor's brand by using the comparative advertisement either showing the deference in price, quality or benefit.

In summary, it can be pointed out that most advertising campaigns attempt to create or change attitudes, by using one or more of the above techniques, which, in turn, shape the advertising message.

3.7 Attitudes Toward Advertising

Advertising can be experienced everywhere in modern life and consumers see many adverts every day in multiple media. Researchers identify diverse opinions of advertising, ranging from amusement and admiration, to cynicism and condemnation (Pollay and Mittal 1993). Consequently, attitudes towards the advertising construct, have been given much research attention throughout the years by practitioners and scholars.

Moreover, attitudes towards advertising in general can be defined as "*a learned predisposition to respond in the consistently favourable or unfavourable manner to advertising in general*" (Lutz, 1985: 53). Researchers have suggested that general attitude to advertising needs to be studied, since these attitudes influence the way consumers respond to advertising (Mehta, 2002).

3.7.1 Structure of Attitude Towards Advertising

Bauer and Greyser (1968) identify seven items on a two factor scale, Economic and Social, that affect attitudes towards advertising. Their study served as a benchmark for subsequent studies and was cited by researchers during the 1970s. Moreover, researchers during the 1980s subsequently modified the Bauer and Greyser scale, suggesting additional factors that affect consumers beliefs about advertising: falsehood and deception (Muehling, 1987; Ford et al, 1990); informativeness of advertising (Barksdale and Darden, 1972; Haller, 1974; Soley and Reid, 1983; Durand and Lambert, 1985; Muehling, 1987; Russell and Lane, 1987); poor taste and sexuality in advertising (Larkin, 1977): materialism (Larkin, 1977); enjoyment of advertising (Russell and Lane, 1989); ethics in advertising (Triff et al, 1987), and support for regulation (Durand and Lambert, 1980, 1985).

Furthermore, Pollay and Mittal (1993) have distinguished between attitudes and beliefs, agreeing with Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). They consider attitudes to be derived from beliefs, being the aggregation of weighted evaluations of perceived attributes and consequences. In addition, Pollay and Mittal (1993) have proposed a comprehensive 7-factor model of attitudes towards advertising including three personal utility factors (product information, social image information, and hedonic

amusement) and four socioeconomic factors (good for economy, fostering materialism, corrupting values and falsity/no-sense).

The Pollay and Mittal (1993) model is one of the most comprehensive models to measure consumer attitudes towards advertising. Through this research, nine factors have been identified nine factors that affect consumer attitude towards advertising: the need for advertising, economic, control, materialistic, ethic, credibility, information, entertainment and effect on culture. Two factors that were not addressed previously were the need for advertising and effect on culture. Bauer and Greyser (1968) have considered (the need for advertising) as an overall appraisal of advertising, rather than a specific belief, an assumption accepted by researchers, without testing. As a result, this researcher has decided to test the effect of need as an independent factor. Previous studies have been undertaken on this subject, but have only been conducted in one country (i.e. United States of America) and those previous analysts have ignored cultural effects whilst building models. Meanwhile, other researchers have conducted cross-cultural studies, where they have identified the effect of culture as a factor, affecting the overall attitudes towards advertising (Andrews et al, 1991; Durvasula et al, 1993; Andrews and Durvasula, 1994; Mwaipopo, 1999).

3.7.2 Individual/ Liberal Culture

Any researcher in the field of attitude toward advertising cannot ignore the studies conducted in the United States of America (USA) due to the facts that the first consumer's attitude toward advertising study as well as most of the studies in this field were conducted in the United States of America, which is categorised as a individual-liberal country. This section will extend to cover studies carried out in two individual-

liberal countries (i.e United Kingdom and Canada) along with the studies conducted in United States of America.

USA's Consumers Attitude Toward Advertising

The earliest sets of studies, from the Pre-World War II era, report a generally favourable public view of advertising. Neil Borden (1942) reported a study, completed in the 1930's, which illustrated that consumers rated advertising as "*positive*" in six out of ten categories, used in the survey. The study revealed some criticisms to advertising content, but not to advertising activity or advertising as a function.

A survey in 1942, conducted by the Association of National Advertisers (ANA) found that more than 80 percent of the respondents favoured the continuation of advertising during wartime. After the war ended, another survey revealed that seventy five percent of respondents supported advertising and that they felt that it was *"as a necessary part of the economy"*(Bauer and Greyser, 1968).

Moreover, this positive view of advertising continued through the 1950s. A 1951 survey conducted by Macfadden Publications, identified that eighty four percent of the families agreed that advertising improved standards of living (Mittal, 1994). Similarly, *Redbook* magazine in 1959, reported that over eighty percent of their respondents generally liked advertising, mostly because they felt it was informative. They also discovered that the majority of respondents, preferred advertised products over unadvertised products; even though most of the respondents felt that advertising increased the overall cost of the products they purchase (Zanot, 1981).

In addition, this picture changed during the 1960's, when Universal Marketing Research (1961) found that only fifty five percent of the sample held positive attitudes towards advertising. Twenty-five percent reported mixed feelings, whilst seventeen percent held negative attitudes. Moreover, thirty percent mentioned that they had recently seen misleading or deceitful advertising.

Bauer and Greyser (1968) similarly found that forty-one percent of consumers had positive attitudes towards advertising, while thirty-four percent had mixed feelings and fourteen percent held negative attitudes. In addition, eight percent were (not sure) about advertising and three percent did not answer.

Furthermore, in 1967, Bauer and Greyser repeated their study (Bauer and Greyser 1968) and observed that fewer consumers were interested in advertising. Eight percent mentioned that advertising was a heavily discussed issue (versus eleven percent in 1964). Raising children was the number one topic of conversation amongst fifty five percent of the sample (versus forty eight percent in 1964). However, attitudes towards advertising showed little change and forty-nine percent of the sample reported positive feelings towards advertising, compared to forty-one percent in the earlier study. Lastly, fifteen percent experienced negative feelings (an increase of only one percent).

In 1974, Bartos and Dunn conducted a study under the aegis of the *Association of Advertising Agencies*. They reported that advertising was one of the least-discussed conversational topics amongst Americans (fourteen percent), in contrast to the fifty

seven percent who stated that the federal government was one of the most discussed issues. Despite the low conversational interest, this percentage compared favourably to the eight percent reported by Bauer and Greyser seven years earlier (Bartos and Dunn, 1974). Furthermore, Anderson et al. (1978) tested consumer attitudes between 1970 and 1976 and identified that attitudes had become less favourable between the two time periods (Mittal, 1994).

Additionally, the results of studies conducted in the 1980's and 1990's have been consistent with the data from the 1970's, providing a rather unfavourable assessment of public attitudes towards advertising despite the differences of media type used in the previous research (e.g., Muehling, 1987; Andrews, 1989; Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1992, 1994; Mittal, 1994).

Nearly half of Mittal's (1994) respondents expressed a disliking for television advertising, compared to one-fourth expressing a liking for advertising. About thirty percent or more, considered it totally inessential and unimportant. A large majority trusted that most television (TV) commercials lacked the desirable attributes of information, believability and entertainment. A greater proportion (sixty to seventy five percent) indicated that TV advertising furthered materialism, oversold sex, and promoted unwholesome values. Nearly ninety percent believed that TV advertising increased the cost of goods, and nearly every respondent charged that commercials exploited children.

These studies indicate that most people have a belief that advertising is misleading, and this is further reflected in Andrew's (1989) study, who observed that most

individuals did not believe advertising presented a true picture of the product being advertised. Moreover, Alwitt and Prabhaker (1992) obtained similar results and so did half of Mittal's (1994) respondents, who affirmed that less than a quarter of television commercials are honest and believable.

Moreover, researchers have also identified that people feel entertained by advertisements, with over half of respondents agreeing that the majority of TV advertising is funny or clever (Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1992). Critically, nearly half of respondents agreed that sometimes TV commercials are even more enjoyable than TV programmes themselves (Mittal, 1994).

Shavitt et al (1998) indicated that Americans like advertising, more than previous research would suggest. Groups such as males, younger consumers, persons with little education and income and non white people, generally report more favourable attitudes to advertising than other groups.

Additionally, surveys conducted in the twenty-first century, yield similar results, i.e., respondents show positive reactions to the informational value of advertising and more negative responses to its manipulative, intrusive, and deceptive nature (Mehta, 2002).

In more recent years, a study carried out by Advertising Standards Authority, indicated that the majority of consumers believe that advertising has become part of everyone's life, whilst older respondents feel there is too much advertising today. The study also implies that advertising has a multiplicity role, acting as a source of

information, entertaining and becoming a part of everyday culture. (Thinking Shop, 2002).

British Consumers Attitudes Toward Advertising

The Advertising Association (AA) since 1966, has continued to measure British attitudes towards advertising via a comprehensive survey, issued every four years. The most recent study is based on the survey undertaken in 2000, by the British Market Research Bureau (BMRB) and subsequently published by the Advertising Association (AA). This study found that more than three quarters of the UK population now approve of advertising, whereas twenty one per cent disapprove of its use; in contrast to 1966, when sixty eight per cent approved and twenty five per cent disapproved. Approval for advertising is particularly high amongst those under the age of thirty six, with eighty three per cent of 15-24 year olds and eighty two per cent of 25-34 year olds approving of its use. Whereas, approval is slightly lower with elderly people, with only sixty eight per cent of those over the age of 55, in support of advertising.

On average, only six per cent of people rank advertising as something they talk about often. Family ranks as the most talked about subject, amongst the population (forty eight per cent), with Education and Sport being second (thirty three per cent), the National Health Service (thirty two per cent) taking third spot and lastly, thirty one percent of people talked about bringing up children. On the contrary, only five per cent mentioned advertising as a topic they feel the strongest about. A small percentage of the sample surveyed (less than one per cent) believed that advertising was in need of major attention and change, compared to those who felt that the National Health

Service needed reform (fifty three per cent); whilst tackling violent crime was an issue for fifty one percent of the respondents followed by the confrontation of the problem that exists around drug abuse (forty one per cent) (The Advertising Association, 2000).

Moreover, with regard to consumer opinions of advertising in different media, eighty seven per cent either liked or were not bothered by advertisements in newspapers and magazines, with the proportion of those, stating that they dislike such advertising falling from fifteen per cent in 1966 to twelve percent in 2000. Eighty-two per cent either liked or were not bothered by advertisements on television, with the disapproval rate having almost halved from thirty per cent to seventeen per cent between 1966 and 2000. Furthermore, eighty nine per cent either liked or were not bothered by poster advertisements, which indicate a consistently high rating with previous years (The Advertising Association, 2000).

Studies completed in the 1980's suggest an improvement in British attitudes towards advertising, especially compared with the years from 1966 to 1972. However, a study by *More Office for Campaign Magazine* shows evidence of negative attitudes that may not have been detected by other surveys. Respondents were asked to select adjectives that characterised their views of advertising, with only a small percentage from the sample, selecting positive characteristics like legal (five percent), honest (five percent), truthful (six percent) and decent (five percent). In contrast, the majority of those respondents chose viewpoints that reflected the negative characteristics of advertising, cited as being misleading (thirty eight percent), a waste of money (twenty nine percent), irritating (twenty nine percent), boring (twenty five percent) and

annoying (twenty five percent). When people were asked if they prefer to purchase products that been heavily advertised, rather than products that have not been advertised, just over half of them preferred advertised products (fifty five percent). Moreover, about a third indicated that advertising did not affect their decision to purchase products. Seventy three percent mentioned that advertisements are more "*entertaining*" than the television programmes in which they appear.

Other Developed Countries

F.G. Crane (1991) conducted a study to test consumer's attitudes toward advertising in Canada, suggesting that the majority (sixty percent) of people had mixed feelings about advertising in general, while thirty percent held positive feelings about it, with only ten per cent reporting negative feelings. Females were found to have more mixed feelings towards advertising than males (seventy per cent of females whereas only fifty five per cent of males had mixed feelings about advertising). The majority of respondents trust that advertising is often misleading (seventy six percent), with eighty percent believing that it is essential to the Canadian economy and all respondents presuming that advertising ultimately increases the cost of products. Finally, the study results also show that older Canadians consumers have more negative attitudes towards advertising, than younger consumers (Crane, 1991).

3.7.3 Collective/ Liberal Culture

The results of a study in India confirm that Indian consumers view advertising with distrust. Less than twenty five percent of respondents agree with the following statements: (The majority of advertising is believable; advertising is a good source of information about product quality; and advertising provides a good image about the

product.) The findings also indicate that thirty percent agree that advertised products are more trustworthy than unadvertised products (Varadarajan and Thirunarayana, 1990; Cumberbatch et al, 2000).

Furthermore, amongst communist countries, attitudes towards advertising differ. Zhou et al (2002) conducted a study to test the Chinese attitude towards advertising in urban China and found that generally respondents had fostered positive attitudes. However, a significant proportion (forty five percent) stated that there was too much advertising. Demographically, Zhou observed no significant differences between men and women for most of the attitudes, beliefs and experience variables. However, younger respondents, upper income groups and better educated consumers tend to have a more positive attitude towards advertising. In comparison to the previous study, Zhou et al identified that Chinese's attitudes towards advertising are in line with the findings of the earlier Zhao and Shen (1995) survey, except for the relationship between advertising and education (Zhou et al, 2002).

3.7.4 Collective/ Conservative Culture

Any researcher, reviewing studies in Arabic countries, can not ignore the two most significant countries within the region - Egypt and Saudi Arabia. In addition, two studies were undertaken in Egypt, which is the country with the largest Arabic population. More importantly, Bazarah (1971) investigated the importance of advertising amongst consumers and advertisers and his results suggested that consumers recognise the prudence of advertising, in increasing sales. Eighty-five percent of those surveyed disagreed with the statement that, (Advertising is a waste of

money.), whereas, thirty-one percent disagreed with the statement, (A good product can sell itself without advertising.)

Advertisers also confirm the importance of the advertisement for products, in particular for new products. Not surprisingly, ninety-eight percent of advertisers disagreed with the statement that (advertising is a waste of money), and seventy-three percent disputed the statement that (advertising leads to an increase in market costs).

Moreover, Hussain (1980) investigated peoples' attitudes towards programme advertising on Egyptian television. Nearly two thirds of the sample reported, that they had seen television adverts often (sixty-three percent), whilst nearly one-third (twenty-nine percent) stated that they had seen some television advertising. Only nine percent felt there was there is immoderation in repeating the same advertising, whereas nearly half (forty-five percent) of the sample felt that adverts that they had seen, were too long and boring.

Meanwhile, Hassan (1990) studied consumer attitudes towards television advertising in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia. Forty-eight percent of respondents believed that advertising was "*beneficial*," whilst thirty-seven percent believed advertising was (neither beneficial, nor harmful). Only seven percent felt advertising was actually (harmful).

Ali (1994) tested consumer attitudes toward advertising in Jeddah, the second largest city in Saudi Arabia. Nearly half (forty-eight percent) viewed advertising as a source of information, that assists the consumer in product choice. Forty-five percent

presumed that advertisements described products accurately, whereas, just over half (fifty-two percent) deliberately exposed themselves to advertisements on television, video and newspapers.

Furthermore, two thirds (sixty-eight percent) of the respondents from Jeddah, believed an advert on television in Saudi Arabia, offered benefits as well as drawbacks to them, but agreed that the benefits of advertising, far outweigh the drawbacks. In addition, seventy-three percent actually liked the advertisements they had seen, which they said made television more "*amusing*" to watch.

The respondents from Jeddah did however exhibit some negative attitudes towards advertising. Fifty eight percent felt that most adverts did not offer enough product information that was useful to them. Whereas, one third of the sample, (thirty-six percent) did not have high confidence, in the information provided by advertising. They use advertisements as a source of preliminary information, which they supplement with personal information from friends, neighbours and relatives (Ali, 1994).

No specific research has been conducted to date, regarding consumer attitudes towards advertising in Kuwait. The only similar study undertaken in the country, observed only the credibility of media advertising, from a consumer's perspective. (Albuloushi, 2000) during his study, examined and applied the source credibility theory. The study found that demographic characteristics are not predictors of media credibility, except with gender and income. The research project also was unable to find any relationship between purchasing a product or service and the source of the

credibility influence. Therefore, this study will fill an important gap in research, amongst attitudes to advertising, in Arabic countries.

3.8 The Aim of the Current Study

Having reviewed literature related to attitudes towards advertising, the question whether to generalise the result of these studies, which were all conducted in well developed countries, to another that is less developed needs to be clarified. Most of the research was carried out by reporting the results of consumer's attitude within one country only. However, a few of the studies have conducted research for more than one country, but with some limitations (Andrews et al, 1991; Durvasula et al, 1993; Andrews and Duravasula, 1994; Waller et al, 2005).

Generalising the result of consumer's attitude from one culture to another, requires the need to take into consideration the effect of each culture, on consumer attitudes (Wiels et al, 1995; Dallmann, 2001; Tai, 2004; Ashill and Yavas, 2005). Yet few studies address this topic. This research attempts to fulfil the gap in the literature by conducting a cross-cultural attitude study within one country; comparing consumers from different cultural backgrounds and how they perceive the same advertisements in the same environment. The findings of this study will lend support to whether or not international companies should standardise or localise their advertising across Arabic countries or even within the same country for each culture subgroup.

It is worth mentioning that although this research is about advertising as a marketing communication tool in its broader meaning; most of the studies reported in this chapter are related to attitudes towards either television or printed advertisements.

However, studies for other type of media were not considered (i.e. internet advertising, radio advertising and outdoor advertising) due to the fact that some types of advertising are still in their infancy within the region (i.e. internet advertising) and there is a lack of information related to advertising expenditure (i.e. internet and outdoor advertisements).

3.9 Summary

The above discussion reveals that advertising plays an essential role in creating and influencing a positive consumer attitude towards a product or service. In addition, advertising can play a role in changing negative attitudes that may be held by the consumer, to one that is positive. Thus, attitude is one of the elements that an advertiser tries to influence, along with, belief and behaviour.

In general, it can be mentioned that the critical role of advertising is to maintain a consistent attitude with the consumer, and therefore the primary role of any advertiser must be to create a system that strengthens this consistency over time.

After reviewing the literature theoretically and taking practical research regarding consumer attitudes toward advertising, the following can be observed:

The studies suggest that Americans hold more negative attitudes to advertising than the British. However, even amongst the British, some negative approaches exist. Amongst Arabic countries, there is a lack of research projects focusing specifically on attitudes towards advertising,

There is a need for studies that explore attitudes of Arabic consumers towards advertising in their own countries. Arabic society has its own social, cultural and religious characteristics that may influence consumer attitudes. This influence may be especially strong in some countries where advertising is at its early stages, such as Kuwait. Additionally, because advertising activity can be expected to increase over time, there will be a considerable value in exploring these approaches in the early stages, in order to establish a basis for comparison later on.

Chapter Four

The Culture Characteristics and Affect on Advertising

4.1 Introduction

Marketing processes usually involve influencing human behaviour, and this behaviour will be affected by culture. Therefore, marketers can not ignore the role of culture in marketing processes. They need to put more effort in to comprehending the culture of their target markets.

This chapter explores definitions of culture, elements of culture, culture dimensions, using dimensions identified by Hofstede to understand the Kuwaiti culture. Finally, the chapter identifies previously published studies relating to culture and advertising.

4.2 Culture Definition

Although researchers disagree on the definitions of culture, some commonalities can be identified. Kroeber & Kluckohn (1952) examined more than 160 definitions of culture, predominantly based on styles of thought and behaviour. Moreover, Linton (1945: 21) defined culture as a "*configuration of learned behaviour and results of behaviour, whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society*". In contrast, Goodenough (1971) described culture in terms of its influence on the individual as a set of beliefs or standards, shared by a group of people, who help the individual to evaluate what is, what can be, how to feel, what to do and how to go about doing it. Usunier (2000) pointed out that Goodenough's definition implies that a single individual may share different cultures with different

various groups at the same time. Therefore, an individual can choose a culture in which to interact, at any given moment.

However, Hofstede (2001: 9) outlines culture as the "*collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the member of one group or category of people from those of another*". Similarly, Spencer-Oatey (2000: 4) views culture not as a behaviour but rather as "*a set of mental constructs of attitudes, beliefs and values that are merely shared by a group of people, influencing interpretations of each other's behaviour*". In addition, adapting this perspective, contemporary researchers argue that culture is learned, shared, and transmitted from one generation to the next (Verhelst, 1994; Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996). These definitions lead to two broad conclusions. Firstly, culture is not static and rather changes with the passage of time. Secondly, there are no good or bad cultures defined as culture reflects the identity of people within a specific group.

4.3 The Conceptualisation of Culture

The culture is one of the basic concepts of what is today called 'humanitarian sciences'. The largest circulation of this concept takes place during the twentieth century; the use of this word had spread widely through many centuries until the French used the term (civilisation) or (civilian), which implies the complete social achievements in the areas of technology, science, art and politics (Abdelwahed, 2002). Furthermore, in the eighteen century, civilisation was considered reversal of the natural chastity condition. Culture is derived from Latin (cultura), from the verb (colere), with the meaning of 'tending' or 'cultivation'. According to Christian authors, (cultura) replaced the meaning of worship. The old French form was couture,

78

later changed to culture (Kroeber and Kluckholn, 1952; William, 1983; Abdelwahed, 2002). Culture is different from society to society; animals may have a society (such as ants and other primates), but only humans can have a culture. This is due to the cognitive, linguistic, symbolic and existential properties associated with the formation and maintenance of cultural systems. Furthermore, culture is not bounded by geography or politics and should not be assumed that either of these 'boundaries' delimit the boundaries of culture itself.

In addition, functional segments, such as the economic system, family, education, religion, government and social control, language and communication, transformation and technology, are usually considered as parts within a culture (Hall and Hall, 1987; Ferraro, 1990; Chanlat and Bedard, 1991; Culpan, 1991; Gong et al, 2007). Beliefs, values, logic and decision rules are also fundamental components of a culture. People's behaviour is not random or purposeless, but instead driven from these fundamental components. Consequently, people's behaviour is both a constituent and a reflection of the culture in which they function (Baligh, 1994).

Moreover, the transformation of human culture is closely linked to technological development; a transformation by which the human being invests in the environment in complicated ways, is significantly increasing every day. In the nineteenth century, many of the pioneers, anthropologists, scientists and sociologists had introduced a theory which states that all human culture must pass specific stages of transformation. They agree that cultural development should run through three phases that consist of the following: a basic stage (atrocities stage), when human beings collected seeds and grains; followed by the second phase (the Barbarian), when humans grew grain using

metal tools, and lived in permanent housing. Finally, the third stage, is the level where they gave more focus towards civilisation; which commenced with the innovation of voice and writing (Abdelwahed, 2002; Al-Mubark, 2003). It can be mentioned that human culture is growing and rising, and that indicates that it can expand from one community to another within the geographic environment; according to the community's ability to absorb new ideas, and act positively within it.

It has been outlined that culture can be spread within communities through direct or indirect contact between individuals or groups of these societies, which can be called 'propagation' (Rohner, 1984; Strauss and Quinn, 1992; Abdelwahed, 2002; Gong et al, 2007). Moreover, with the continuing development of communication and means of travel, the exchange of culture has been steadily rising. However, there are still significant cultural differences that exist not only between various nations; but also between ethnic and non-ethnic groups, depending on the region. In addition, not all elements of culture are spread at the same speed and ease. Individuals tend to adopt the easier and more efficient elements, regardless of their origin. The political and religious systems are the most common culture elements that disperse faster than the material aspects of culture.

Furthermore, human societies are composed of groups of organised individuals from different gender and various ages. They have a system of rules of behaviours and actions, which transmits from one generation to another. Ibn Khaldun the founder of Sociology has mentioned that "*every child is born in a natural state. It is his parents who make him into a Jew, Christian or Zoroastrian*" (Ibn Khaldun, 1999). It can be suggested that culture is a learned behaviour acquired through socialisation (Ward et

al., 1987). It is acquired from the day they are born in a social process that continues throughout their lifetime in a particular society (Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Engel et al., 1995). "*The nature of cultural influence can be seen as a circular process from which meaning is created, maintained and transmitted within a society*" (McCort and Malhotra, 1993).

Additionally, human behaviour, is either entirely or radically amended through social learning and education. Even the biological needs, or instincts such as sex and hunger will be revised and developed through culture. For example, the sexual behaviour can be codified practically by using phrases which reflect the social deformity (taboo); a hungry person may refuse food, which violates the religious privacy (which is considered as inadequate religiously), or contravenes with the diet system, or disregards what they consider anathema to the culture (Alnuor and Shalaby, 2002; Al-Mubarak, 2003; Gong et al, 2007).

4.4 Elements of Culture

Every aspect of human life is influenced by culture. Due to marketing campaigns that target consumers in the context of their lives; successful marketing requires an understanding of the culture of those consumers. Therefore, advertising should incorporate symbols that will be viewed as meaningful and appropriate by the target culture. Products may have to be customised to be accepted within the target market's culture.

Furthermore, anthropologists define culture in terms of specific elements (Cateora, 1990) that will be applied here. It can be argued that the adaptation of marketing to a

particular culture, calls for understanding elements of that culture, such as verbal and non-verbal language, material culture, aesthetics, education and social institution, and religion (Cateora, 1990; Batra et al, 1996; Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996; Usunier, 2000; Ackerman, 2001).

4.4.1 Verbal and Non-Verbal Language

Language is the primary source of communication and message exchange. Batra et al (1996) and Usunier (2000) have argued that language influences a variety of behaviours: the way people address issues, select those they consider as relevant and problem solving. Cateora (1990) has outlined that language is arduous to be mastered, but it is the most important element of culture. Therefore, foreign advertisers should carefully select words and phrases that are to be used to promote products and services (Cateora, 1990; Batra et al, 1996). Translation errors can distort advertising messages (Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996). Typically, advertisers must seek advice from an interpreter who is native to the culture, in order to increase the likelihood that the target market will evidently comprehend the desired message.

4.4.2 Material Culture

Material culture includes technology, government systems and the economy (Cateora, 1990; Usunier, 2000). Technology can be defined as the technical know-how possessed by the people of the society; while economics can be described as the manner in which people employ their capabilities and the resulting benefits (Cateora, 1990). An improved understanding of material systems will allow advertisers to create messages that are appropriate to the cultural context in which they are heard.

Cateora (1990) argues that material culture affects the level of demand, the quality and types of products demanded, and their functional features.

4.4.3 Aesthetics

Aesthetics refer to the cultural interpretation of the symbolic meanings of various methods of artistic expression, colour and standards of beauty in each culture. Artistic expression includes graphics, plastic arts, folklore, music, drama and dance (Cateora, 1990; Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996; Usunier, 2000). In addition, a culture's uniqueness can be identified through symbols that embody specific meanings. Therefore, understanding the folklore and music of a culture will allow a foreign advertiser to choose appropriate symbols, metaphors, colours and ideas that can be used throughout the campaign (Cateora, 1990).

4.4.4 Educational and Social Institutions

In addition to understanding the technology and the economic system, advertisers must understand the educational systems that influence a culture's communication with the world. Zeithaml and Bitner (1996) have contended that the structure and functioning of the educational system are heavily influenced by culture. When a population lacks education, or when the percentage of uneducated citizens is high, advertisers must avoid print advertisements and concentrate instead on visual and audio media. In these cultures, television and radio will be more effective as a means of communication.

Moreover, on the contrary, advertisers cannot ignore a culture's social organisation. People differentiate themselves from others through income, job, educational level,

geographical location, language and more. Cateora (1990) and Usunier (2000) implied that social groups are interpreted differently within each culture, so that social and family relationship patterns are based on specific values and customs (Usunier, 2000). This ultimately influences a target market's responsiveness to advertising. For example, in some cultures, a specific member of the family or a certain friend can strongly affect the purchasing decision. Thus, each institution has an affect on marketing as each of them influence behaviour (Cateora 1990).

4.4.5 Religion

Another element of culture, religion, has relatively little influence on everyday life of Western cultures; however it is a crucial part of life in Eastern cultures, especially in Islamic countries (Al-Makatey et al, 1996; Waller, 2000). Even when most citizens do not engage in strict religious practices, religion has a special place in their daily activities, thoughts and feelings. Religion is seen as prescribing appropriate behaviours for everyone in the culture. Which will be discussed further in section 4.6.2.

Therefore, advertisers must be careful to respect religious beliefs when sending messages within a country where religion plays a major role (Cateora, 1990; Tsuruoka, 1993; Al-Makatey et al, 1996). In particular, they must ensure to avoid the appearance of contradicting or criticising local religious beliefs.

4.5 Culture Dimensions

A number of researchers have tried to provide a framework to understand cultural dimensions (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961; Hofstede, 1980; Hall, 1984; Ronen and

Skenkar, 1985; Chinese Culture Connection, 1987; Peterson, 1988; Fiske, 1991; Schwartz, 1994; Inglehart et al, 1998). The most commonly cited work was published by Hofstede (1980), presenting a model based on a survey of over 116,000 thousand IBM employees working in seventy-two different national subsidiaries, and seven occupations between 1967 and 1973. Ronen and Skenkar (1985) after their review of most of the cultural research projects conducted in the 1980's, have come up with a set of country clusters. Whereas the majority of researchers and residents in these country clusters identify that there is significant variability inside each one, the clusters provide initial direction of what to expect and will report to any part of the world. Schwartz (1994) created a set of items in co-operation with researchers from other countries and submitted these items to teachers in different nations. The association between Schwartz methods and Hofstede's dimensions show that even though the new methods have some advantage, the data from the Hofstede project is more reliable than many had trusted. Smith and Peterson (1988) demonstrate culture based on the information trusted by the managers in various parts of the world. Their findings were consistent in general with Hofstede's and Schwartz's data. Peterson (2001) has also mentioned other efforts, also examined by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) and Inglehart et al (1998).

Furthermore, culture and its relationship to business has been studied and comprehensively researched (Hall, 1984, 1989; Hofstede, 1980, 1991, 1998, 2001), as an influence not only on business communication, but also on business practices, consumer choice and organisational behaviour (Hofstede, 1991; 1998; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1994, 1997).

Business studies typically evaluate culture in the context of models by the following researchers: Hofstede (1980, 1991); Hall (1984, 1989); Chinese Culture Connection (1987); Fiske (1991); Schwarz (1994).

In addition, Hofstede (1980, 1991) in his model has identified five dimensions of culture; Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long-term Orientation (Hofstede's model will be discussed in detail in section 4.5.1). according to Hall (1984, 1989), his model has proposed a set of parameters to divide cultures in line with their behaviour of communicating, into a high-context culture (much of the information is embedded) and low-context culture (almost everything is precise), perception of space or perception of time (monochromic/ polychromic).

Moreover, Schwartz (1994) outlined in his model a list of fifty six values throughout samples of college students and of elementary school teachers in fifty countries. As a result of his survey he distinguished seven dimensions of culture: Conservatism, Hierarchy, Mastery, Affective autonomy, Intellectual autonomy, Egalitarian commitment and Harmony. Further, Fiske (1991) has argued in his model that social relations can occur in one of four basic forms: Communal sharing (CS), Authority ranking (AR), Equality matching (EM), and Market pricing (MP).

Additionally, another model of culture proposed by Bond and a group of researchers (1987), collectively known as the Chinese Culture Connection developed the Chinese values survey (CVS). It was designed to be used by people who are of a Chinese ethnicity background. The survey was constructed and administered to university students in twenty two countries around the world. This study revealed four

dimensions of cultural: Confucian dynamism, Human-heartedness, Integration, and Moral discipline (Raleston et al., 1993). The survey was criticised for its bias to Chinese culture (Mathews, 2000)

Furthermore, researchers have argued that all the above mentioned models are correlated with Hofstede's model of culture in one way or another. For example, Schwartz' model was significantly correlated with Hofstede's model for Individualism, Masculinity and Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 2001). Fiske's dimensions of collectivism, authority ranking, equality matching, and market pricing correspond with Hofstede's dimension of individualism and collectivism (Singelis et. al, 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Three of the four factors from the Chinese Value Survey (i.e. Human-heartedness, Integration, and Moral discipline) are correlated at high levels with three of Hofstede's dimensions. The fourth factor was unrelated to any of Hofstede's dimension, as it was outlined as was Confucian Work Dynamism (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987; Lu, 2006), Hofstede (1991) introduced it as the fifth dimension: long-term orientation. In addition, Hall proposed factors for a cultural model that is integrated with Hofstede model; the high Individualism dimension is frequently connected to "Low-context" communication, whereas low Individualism (Collectivism) dimension is consistently connected to "High-context" communication (Hermeking, 2005)

For the above discussion it is confirmed that Hofstede's dimensions are covering more aspects of culture than the other model and reveal that it is the most comprehensive model classifying culture.

Moreover, Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been employed in this study for several reasons:

- Hofstede's model incorporated data from a large sample (116,000) and covered seventy-two countries in all continents; and were further repeated in two different periods of time, which made it the only cultural model that used this size of data to be constructed. (Furrer et al, 2000).

- Most cultural models either rely on clarifying components of the model or cite elements of Hofstede's work (Smith and Bond, 1998).

- The Hofstede's study is the base for a number of previously published researches studies in the field of marketing and culture (Sodergaard, 1994; Sivakumar and Nakata, 1999).

- Hofstede's model is one of the few cultural models which discuss the Arabic culture in detail.

- Recent replications in European countries have demonstrated that Hofstede's typology is still valid and applicable, and there is a need of further applications in other countries (Moon and Chan, 2005).

4.5.1 Hofstede's Culture Dimensions

Hofstede (1980) has identified four universal dimensions of culture that are independent of one another. As noted above, Hofstede's model comes from a survey of over 116,000 thousand employees working in seventy-two different national subsidiaries, and seven occupations within IBM Corporation between 1967 and 1973. From this study, Hofstede identified four cultural dimensions relevant to business organisations: power distance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity–femininity and uncertainty avoidance. Moreover, Hofstede has added a fifth dimension, the

Confucian dynamic (Hofstede and Bond, 1988) or long-term orientation (Hofstede, 1991). The description of the five dimensions is as follows:

Power distance (PDI): The extent to which less powerful members of a society expect and accept that power is distributed unequally.

Individualism (IDV): The degree to which members of a society are integrated into strong, cohesive groups over a lifetime. On one side, people look after themselves and their own families; at the other extreme, people live in a collective society that places a strong value on group membership.

Masculinity (MAS): The extent to which gender roles are clear-cut in the culture. Men are expected to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whilst women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. At the opposite extreme, gender roles overlap: both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with quality of life.

Uncertainty avoidance (UAV): the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations. At the high-avoidance pole, cultures are marked by nervous stress, a desire for predictability, and a preference for written and unwritten rules.

Long-term orientation (LTO): the extent to which a culture exhibits a pragmatic future-oriented perspective, supporting virtues like perseverance and thrift, rather than a past-oriented, short-term orientation.

It has been outlined that Hofstede's dimensions originally were developed based on a survey of employees of one firm only (IBM). However, researchers have argued that they can be generalised to a wider population and are beneficial for characterising cross-cultural differences (Hofstede, 1991; Furrer et al, 2000; Moon and Chan, 2005). In particular, Hofstede's study appeals to researchers as he developed a codification scheme to classify cultural dimensions using numerical indexes. As a result, Hofstede's study has been used widely by international marketing and management scholars (Sodergaard, 1994; Sivakumar and Nakata, 1999). Sodergaard found over one thousand citations from Hofstede's *Culture's Consequences* from its publication date of 1980 to September 1993 (Furrer et al, 2000).

Moreover, despite the importance of Hofstede's work, his publication has also drawn criticism. Critics argue that the study incorporates bias by selecting the source of data from one source (i.e. IBM), rather than including representatives from other companies in the same countries (Hakonsson, 2003). Other criticisms include bias in selecting functional equivalence, inability of surveys to identify values, hidden ethnocentrism in survey design, misleading wording of questions, scores explaining (only) 49% of variation in data. In addition, a four-year sample period from 1968 to 1972 is not sufficient to cover developments, treatment of apparently interrelated dimensions as independent, and the use of culture as a sufficient condition, when it is probably only a necessary condition.

The two most important dimensions of culture are individualism/ collectivism and masculine/feminine. These dimensions will be used in this research to differentiate cultural backgrounds amongst Kuwaiti residents. Peterson (2001) contended that the

implications of the dimensions are sometime not evident from their labels. Thus, this thesis substitutes liberal/conservative for masculine/feminine, broadening this dimension beyond gender. The description of the above dimensions will be presented in Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

4.5.2 Individualism/ Collectivism Dimension

In individualistic cultures, each person is self-governing and independent from their in-groups. Their personal goals are generally respected over the goals of their in-groups. Their view of the self, emphasises independence, internal attributes, and individualism. Thus, their behaviours are predominately based on their own attitudes rather than the criterion of their in-groups (Hofstede, 1991; Aaker and Mahaeswaran, 1997; Zhang and Neelankavil, 1997; Lee and Choi, 2005; Li, 2005).

In contrast to the above statement, people in collectivistic cultures are not independent of their in-groups. They tend to hold an interdependent view of the self that emphasises connectedness, social context and relationship. Priority is given to the goals of their in-groups. Therefore, they usually behave and act according to norms of their in-groups (Hofstede, 1991; Aaker and Mahaeswaran, 1997; Zhang and Neelankavil, 1997; Lee and Choi, 2005; Li, 2005).

Furthermore, the difference has been summarised by noting that collectivists are likely to do what is expected to be done from them, while individualists prefer to do what they enjoy doing (Triandis, 1995). Given the significance of relationships in a collectivistic culture, people should have a greater tendency to rely on others than those who live in an individualistic culture. However, current literature also reveals

that unlike the individualists who have a relatively universal view of relationships, collectivists generally make sharp distinctions between relationships with in-group members and relationships with out-group members (Triandis et al, 1988).

Additionally, in-groups are groups of individuals with whom one shares common fate and/or interest. Members are willing to cooperate without demanding equitable returns (e.g., family, close friends, political parties, etc.). Typically, members of collectivistic cultures tend to trust members of their in-groups more than those in out-groups (Lee and Choi, 2005).

It is apparent that previous studies have revealed that collectivists' social behaviour shifts with the context and they actually have a lower propensity to trust outsiders than people in an individualistic culture (Huff and Kelley, 2005). Lee and Choi (2005) have argued that traditional conceptualisation of individualism/ collectivism as a simple dichotomy could be limited and in need of better formulation.

Indeed, the notion of a harmonised population within a culture may no longer be valid and applicable (Singlis and Brown, 1995). Contemporary researchers recognise that not every person in an individualistic culture is an individualist, nor is everyone in a collectivistic culture, a collectivist (Lee and Choi, 2005).

Moreover, from a marketing prospective; Li (2005) has implied that collectivists should be less likely to trust marketers. As a result, the tendency to place trust in advertising messages may be lower, leading to a lower probability of being influenced by a potentially misleading advertisement.

Table 4.1

Key Differences Between Hofstede's Culture Dimensions

(Collectivist/Individualist)

	Gender Norm, Family, School and Workplace	Politics and Ideas
Collectivist	- People are born into extended families or other in-groups that continue to protect in exchange for loyalty. - Identity is based in the social network to which one belongs. - Children learn to think in term of 'we'. - Harmony should always be maintained and direct confrontations avoided. - High-context communication. - Trespassing leads to shame and loss of face for self and group. - Purpose of education is learning how to do. - Diplomas provide entry to higher status groups. - Relationship employee-employer is perceived in a moral term, like a family link. - Hiring and promotion decision take employees' in-group into account. - Management is management of groups relationship prevails over task.	- Collective interests prevail over individual interests. - Private life is invaded by group(s). - Opinions are predetermined by group membership. - Laws and rights differ by group. - Low per capita GNP. - Dominant role of state in the economic system. - Economy based on collective interests. - Political power exercised by interest groups. - Press controlled by state. - Imported economic theories largely irrelevant because unable to deal with collective and particularist interest. - Ideologies of equality prevail over ideologies of individual freedom. - Harmony and consensus in society are ultimate goals.
Individualist	- Everyone grows up to look after him/herself and his/her immediate (unclear) family only. - Identity is based in the individual. - Children learn to think in terms of 'I'. - Speaking one's mind is a characteristic of an honest person. - Low-context communication. - Trespassing leads to guilt and loss of self-respect. - Purpose of education is learning how to learn. - Diplomas increase economic worth and/or self-respect. - Relationship employer-employee is a contract supposed to be based on mutual advantage. - Hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on skills and rules only. - Management is management of individuals. - Task prevails over relationship.	- Individual interests prevail over collective interests. - Everyone has a right to privacy. - Everyone is expected to have a private opinion. - Laws and rights are supposed to be the same for all. - High per capita GNP. - Restrained role of the state in the economic system. - Economy based on individual interests. - Political power exercised by voters. - Press freedom. - Native economic theories based on pursuit of individual self-interests. - Ideologies of individual freedom prevail over ideologies of equality. - Self-actualisation of every individual is an ultimate goal.

Source: Hofstede (1991).

4.5.3 Liberal / Conservative Dimensioned

It has been pointed out that one of the major differences between cultures is and has been the traditional notions of male/female roles (Cateora, 1990, Wiles et al, 1995; Schroder et al, 2002). Hofstede (1998) views the masculinity dimension as high amongst societies, in which social gender roles are clearly distinct. In addition, masculine cultures usually favour competitive, harsh and assertive attitudes, while feminine cultures are likely to emphasise tender and caring attitudes. Usually, masculine societies favour a challenging and competitive environment, whereas feminine societies emphasise good relationships and collaboration (Dahl, 2000).

Furthermore, from an advertising point of view, strong arguments have been made suggesting that advertising both reflects and influences culture values (Albers-Miller and Gelb, 1996; Schroder et al, 2002). Huang (1995) justified that it is natural to expect that the gender roles portrayed in a country's advertising reflect the gender-role orientation of the particular country. Advertisers adapt the images they portray to whatever is more widely accepted by the society (Hornik, 1980; Harris, 1984; Belk et al., 1985; Boddewyn et al., 1986; Zhang and Gelb, 1996; Tai, 2004). For example, as society's view of gender roles changes, advertisers would mirror these changes in their advertising.

Moreover, advertising and gender roles have been a topic of discussion amongst researchers from a number of disciplines. For example, sociologists have addressed the role-modeling aspects of advertising and its impact on social behaviours (Wiles et al, 1995). Advertising ignores the complexities of modern women's lives and does not

reflect the significant steps women have made into the workforce in many cultures (MacFarquhar, 1994; Wiles et al, 1995).

It can be argued that the title for femininity / masculinity dimension does not communicate what Hofstede actually illustrated. Hofstede (2001) noted that in the psychological literature, the masculinity/ femininity distinction is sometimes confused with the distinction between individualism and collectivism. The difference between the two dimensions has been clearly demonstrated in a series of laboratory experiments (Bond et al., 1983; Nauta, 1983; Kim et al, 1990).

According to Hofstede, a culture can be characterised either as a single-gender, all-male culture, or culture can be characterised as an equal gender role culture. From Table 4.2, it can be demonstrated that this dimension is more that just the role of gender in the society, but also includes religion, materialism and ethics. Thus, this research incorporates Hofstede's broader definition of this dimension as (the role of religion and women in the society.) As noted above, this dimension will be renamed to the Liberal / Conservative dimension in order to reflect what is actually being examined is this research.

4.6 Kuwaiti Sociological/ Culture Aspect

Kuwait society still can be regarded as a traditional society. In examining the culture of Kuwait, there seems to be three factors which support traditional values and influences everyday behaviour: language, religion and the family system.

Table 4.2

Key Differences Between Hofstede's Culture Dimensions (Feminine/Masculine)

	Gender Norm, Family, School and Workplace	Politics and Ideas
Feminine	- Dominant values in society are caring for others and preservation. - People and warm relationships are important. - Everybody is supposed to be modest. - Both men and women are allowed to be tender and to be concerned with relationships. - In the family, both fathers and mothers deal with facts and feelings. - Both boys and girls are allowed to cry but neither should fight. - Sympathy for the weak. - Failing in school is a minor accident. - Friendliness in teachers is appreciated. - Boys and girls study same subjects. - Work in order to live. - Managers use intuition and strive for consensus. - Stress on equality, solidarity and quality of work life. - Resolution of conflicts by compromise and negotiation.	- Welfare society ideal. - The needy should be helped. - Permissive society. - Small and slow are beautiful. - Preservation of the environment should have highest priority. - Government spend relatively large proportion of budget on the development assistance to poor countries. - Government spends relatively small proportion of budget on armaments. - International conflicts should be resolved by negotiation and compromise. - A relatively large number of women is elected to political positions. - Dominant religions stress the complementarities of the sexes. - Women's liberation means that men and women should take equal shares both at home and at work.
Masculine	- Dominant values in society are material success and progress. - Money and things are important. - Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious and tough. - Women are supposed to be tender and to take care of relationships. - In the family, fathers deal with facts and mothers with feelings. - Girls cry, boys do not; boys should fight back when attacked, girls should not fight. - Sympathy for the strong. - Best student is the norm. - Failing in school is a disaster. - Brilliance in teachers is appreciated. - Boys and girls study different subjects. - Live in order to work. - Managers are expected to be decisive and assertive. - Stress on equity, competition among colleagues and performance. - Resolution of conflicts by fighting them out.	- Performance society is ideal. - The strong should be supported. - Corrective society. - Big and fast are beautiful. - Maintenance of economic growth should have highest priority. - Government spends relatively small proportion of budget on the development assistance in poor countries. - Governments spend relatively large proportion of budget on armaments. - International conflicts should be resolved by a show of strength or by fighting. - A relatively small number of women in elected political positions. - Dominant religions stress the male prerogative. - Women's liberation means that women will be admitted to positions hitherto only occupied by men.

Source: Hofstede (1991).

4.6.1 Language

Although the Kuwaiti constitution defines Arabic as Kuwait's official language, English is widely understood. Unofficially, many Kuwaitis consider English to be the country's second language and the key language of the business sector.

Furthermore, Kuwait's government and the parliament have tried to protect the Arabic language from Western influences through various forms of legislation. For example, all written communication is supposed to be in Arabic. Arabic language study is mandatory in all government and private schools. Kuwaiti television and radio programs must be broadcast in Arabic. Despite these efforts, in everyday life, Kuwaiti citizens incorporate words from other languages, especially Persian, Hindi and English. In fact, the Kuwaiti language has adapted many foreign words and the long-term cultural implications of this linguistic adaptation cannot be predicted at this time.

4.6.2 Religion

Kuwait's official religion is Islam and the majority of Kuwaiti citizens are Muslims. However, members of the imported workforce are allowed to practice whatever religion they adopted before moving to Kuwait. Places of worship for various denominations can be found throughout Kuwait.

In addition, Islam has played an important role in shaping Kuwait's cultural background. Unlike other religions, Islam does not separate *"the church from the state"*. The holy 'Quran' provides an economic and social order for the state as well as spiritual guidance for its followers. Therefore, in Kuwait, culture and religion cannot be separated easily. Most of Kuwait's cultural values were actually shaped by various

religious practices.

The Islamic religion regulates many aspects of everyday life, creating a basis for unifying the people of Kuwait. The majority of Islamic rules come from Shari'a, the body of Islamic law, which consists of the Quran and the Suna. Quran is the holy book for Muslims and the Suna is the tradition of the prophet Mohammad. Some of the Shari'a originates from Islamic scholars who interpret Islamic rules and guidelines. Therefore, Islamic scholars play a crucial role in shaping attitudes and behaviours.

Moreover, older Kuwaiti citizens tend to be more conservative than younger residents. They encourage their children to maintain older customs and values. Although younger Kuwaiti residents experience more freedom and often prefer a more Westernised lifestyle, many groups of young people are more religious than their parents. They pray five times a day in the mosque, support leaders and parliamentary candidates who follow their religion, and destroy any advertising they define as sexually suggestive. The relative influence of Western and religious lifestyles is not clear, suggesting a topic to be investigated in future research.

Advertisers targeting Kuwaiti consumers must understand their feelings about the impact of advertising on religious belief and behaviour. They also need to comprehend whether people with strong Islamic beliefs have different attitudes to advertising as compared with those who have weaker beliefs and/or practice religion less regularly.

4.6.3 Family System

In Kuwait, the family plays a major cultural role, and it can be viewed as the most important cultural element. Loyalty and obligation is derived from family relationships. In addition, decisions typically are made in a family context and the father typically plays a key role. Social and economic security comes from the support that is provided by a citizen's extended family.

Men occupy prominent roles in leading the family as well as providing support and security to all family members. However, Kuwaiti women have equal rights with men in social life, education and work. They drive cars and are not required by law to wear traditional dress. It is common to see women dressed in Western attire alongside women wearing traditional Islamic dresses. Furthermore, women are active in all aspects of Kuwaiti society and they often work and share the financial responsibilities of the household. Within the family, however, women retain traditional roles of child care and housekeeping. Although women may achieve economic independence, they remain dependent on husbands and brothers within the social system.

Therefore, advertisers targeting Kuwaiti consumers should be sensitive to the influence of advertising on family relationships. It is questionable if an increasing emphasis on individual pleasure will influence strong family loyalties, and how does advertising to the family, influence the roles of men and women? Or do gender roles affect responsiveness to advertising? These questions remain to be answered with the growth of advertising in Kuwaiti life.

4.6.4 Understanding Kuwait Culture

Although Hofstede has not analysed the Kuwaiti culture, he mentions Kuwait as an Arabic country. He analysed Saudi Arabia, which resembles Kuwait in many ways. Describing Saudi Arabia, Hofstede illustrated that, "*The Muslim faith plays a large role in the people's lives. Large power distance and uncertainty avoidance are the predominant characteristics for this region. This indicates that it is expected and accepted that leaders separate themselves from the group and issue complete and special directives*" (Hofstede, 2001: 384).

The analysis for the Arabic culture is equivalently matching the Kuwaiti culture where Muslim faith plays a significant role in the people's day to day lives. Large Power Distance (PDI) and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) are the predominant dimension characteristics for the countries in this region. Hofstede argues that "*These societies are more likely to follow a caste system that does not allow significant upward mobility of its citizens. They are also highly rule-oriented with laws, rules, regulations, and controls in order to reduce the amount of uncertainty, while inequalities of power and wealth have been allowed to grow within the society*" (Hofstede, 2003).

In addition, the cultural diminution of Power Distance (PDI) has a score of 80 in the Arabic countries, pinpointing a high level of inequality in the distribution of power and wealth within the culture. Hofstede (2000) argues that in a similar society people have an expectation and acceptance that their leaders will separate themselves from the group and issue complete and specific directives. This form of behaviour is not

necessarily threatening to the people, but rather acknowledged by the society as part of their cultural heritage (Barakat, 1993; Hill et al, 1998).

Further, The Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) scores 68, which point out that the society has a low level of tolerance for uncertainty. In order to reduce this level of uncertainty, the society has to adopt and implement strict rules, laws, policies, and regulations. The aim of these actions is to control everything in order to reduce the unanticipated. As a effect of the high level of this diminution, people do not easily accept the change.

Moreover, The Masculinity (MAS) is the third highest dimension that scored 52 in the Arabic world. "*This would indicate that while women in the Arab World are limited in their rights, it may be due more to Muslim religion rather than a cultural paradigm*" (Hofstede, 2003). Abu-Lughod (1990) argues that gender segmentation is not a unique feature of the Arabic culture; he further adds that this relationship is in its transition and will change in future.

The lowest dimension for the Arabic world is Individualism (IDV) which scores only 38, compared to a world average of 64. This indicates that the Arabic world culture can be classified as a Collectivist culture as contrasted to a Individualist culture. Hofstede (2003) point out that the low level of individualism in Arabic countries is evident in a close long-term commitment to family members, or to the extended family, or extended relationships (Barakat, 1993; Hill et al, 1998). "*Loyalty in a*

collectivist culture is paramount, and over-rides most other societal rules" (Hofstede, 2003).

Additionally, Table 4.3 demonstrates a comparison between the Arabic world and other countries in clusters as illustrated by Hofstede (1980, 2001). Although Hofstede did not identify religion as a separate dimension of culture, he highlighted the influence of religion on everyday life in the Arabic world. Figure 4.1 shows the distribution of religions in the Arabic world.

Table 4.3

Hofstede's Culture Dimensions Summary*

Region	Power Distance	Individualism	Uncertainty Avoidance	Masculinity	Long term Orientation
Anglo	33	83	44	61	28
Africa	63	37	52	50	16
Arab	80	38	68	53	
Far Eastern	73	24	53	53	66
Germanic	30	68	62	57	38
Latin American	68	22	80	49	65
Latin European	61	60	89	48	
Nordic	28	69	40	14	33
Near Eastern	61	38	85	48	
World Average	57	44	65	49	46

* Source: Hofstede (2001), calculation for each cluster done by the researcher; country in each cluster taken from Ronen & Shenkar) with modification.

- Arabic region: Egypt, Iraq, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates.
- Anglo: United States, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom, Ireland.
- Africa: South Africa, East Africa, West Africa.
- Far Eastern: Japan, Taiwan, South Korea, Thailand, Hong Kong, Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, Malaysia.
- Germanic: Austria, Switzerland, Germany, Netherlands.
- Latin American: Costa Rica, Jamaica, Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, Peru, Salvador, Colombia, Brazil, Ecuador, Mexico, Venezuela, Guatemala, Panama.
- Latin European: Italy, Spain, Portugal, Belgium, France.
- Nordic: Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland.
- Near Eastern: Iran, Greece, Turkey.

Moreover, Kuwaiti society can be described as a collective society. All Kuwaitis come together either as extended family or in a *diwania* with friends or groups in the work place. The *diwania* can be explained as a place in the house where a group of friends, separated by gender, gather at least one day a week to chat, play cards or watch television.

As collectivism is a key dimension of Kuwaiti culture, international advertisers must take this dimension into account when targeting Kuwaiti consumers. There is evidence that advertisers recognise this challenge. For example, a 1993 advertisement for KDD, a local yoghurt producer, depicted a large family gathering for lunch. A Cesar Pizza advertisement (2004) showed a group of men playing cards in *diwania*.

Figure 4.1

Religion in the Arabic World
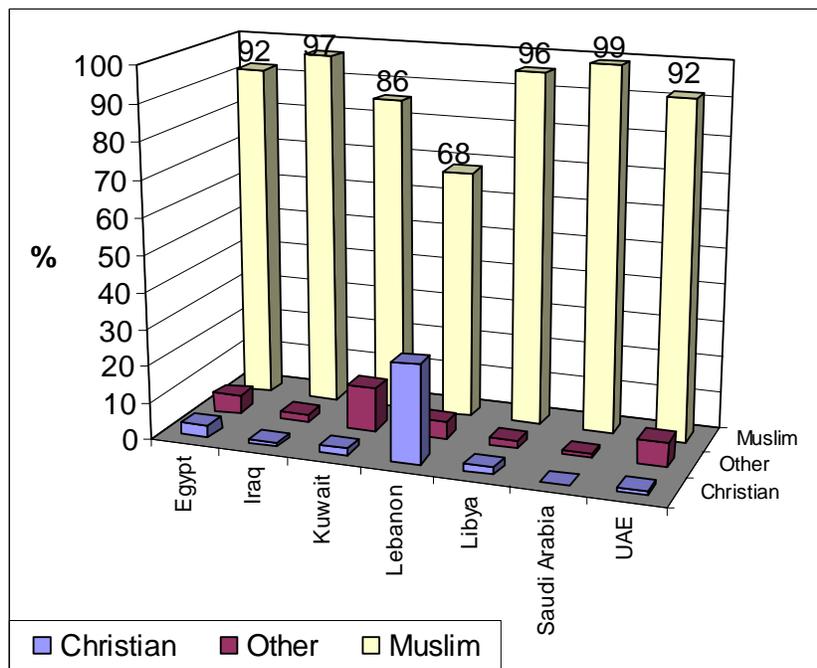
Source: The World Factbook (2002)

4.7 Commutative Affect between Culture and Advertising

It has been stated that successful marketing programs depend on the careful use of advertising as an important promotional tool. This prudence has led to an increase in international marketing research in recent years, and an enhanced number of scholars have shown interest in cross-cultural advertising research (Belk, 1985; Belk and Pollay, 1985; Belk and Bryce, 1986; Mueller, 1987, 1992; Frith and Sengupta, 1991; Frith and Wesson, 1991; Srikandath, 1991; Katz and Lee, 1992; Lin, 1993; Cheng, 1994; Chan, 1999). The relation between culture and advertising is correlative, culture can affect advertising in some ways and advertising can also influence culture in another way.

Furthermore, some aspects of local culture and values can be directly affected by advertising, increasing the materialistic behaviours, which is one of the cultural aspects that can be influenced by advertising. A number of researchers have explored this affect (Haller 1974; Larkin 1977; Zhao & Shen 1995; Zhou et al 2002; Beard 2003) and found that advertising can induce local culture through persuading people to buy things that they do not need, and through encouraging people to purchase products more than that of their actual needs. In addition, another aspect is escalating Western values in local culture. Previous studies indicate that this affect can be seen throughout, using foreign words in the advertising, or through using foreign celebrities as a model in advertising, which will make the younger consumers, try as much as possible to copy their behaviours and styles (Hite and Fraser, 1988; Hassan, 1990; Ali, 1994; Pollay et al, 1996; Zhou et al, 2002). A third aspect is the affect in local language. The results of prior studies demonstrate that advertising can induce the local language through augmented use of foreign words within the locally made

advertisement, or through using international advertisements (Haller 1974; Larkin 1977; Mueller 1992; Zhao & Shen 1995; Wiles et al 1995; Zhou et al 2002; Beard 2003).

Furthermore, another aspect of culture which can be affected by advertising is religion, a number of studies (Al-Makaty et al, 1996; Beckun, 1996; Waller, 2000) indicate that religion can be influenced when applying sexuality in the advertising, conflicting with religious guidelines, or increasing promiscuity; the relationships between men and women. The increase of selfish behaviours is one of the cultural aspects that has been studied by researchers. They conclude that advertising will influence the consumer's selfishness through transferring new behaviours from an individual culture to a collective culture and through affecting peoples' relations with each other (Reid and Soley, 1982; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Mangleburg and Bristol, 1998; Beard, 2003). Additionally, value is one of the cultural aspects which should be carefully examined to evaluate the advertising affect. The results of prior studies point out that values can be affected by copying values from another culture through adverts and introducing new behaviour (Reid and Soley, 1982; Gilly, 1988; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Beard, 2003).

In contrast, studying the effect of culture on advertising has become essential as advertising is considered a critical element in any firm's international marketing strategy. Saminee and Jeong (1994) in their research have reported twenty four cross-cultural studies in advertising from 1980 to 1992. The vast majority of studies (21 out of 24) examined advertising in the United States. Japan was mentioned in seven studies, the United Kingdom was included in four studies and Germany in two.

Furthermore, most of the available studies have compared two or more countries and examined the differences. The majority used either two or three countries, and no more than a few studies have extended their research to cover more than three countries (e.g. Zandpour, Campos and Catalano, 1994; Albers-Miller, 1996; Albers-Miller and Gelb, 1996).

Hence, a large number of researches looked at advertising in general, without a directed research question. However, some projects were particularly interested in a limited number of societal phenomena, such as work ethics and gender roles (e.g. Gilly, 1988; Tansey et al, 1997). Dahl (2000) has classified the result from this research broadly in three categories: sociological research, ethnographic research and cross-cultural psychological research.

Moreover, from a marketing perspective, studying cross-cultural literature will assist international marketing strategies and will influence the decision on whether these firms adopt standardised or localised campaigns (Rutigliano, 1986; Culter and Javalgi, 1992; Mueller, 1992). Cross-cultural studies can segment the target market (De Mooij and Keegan, 1991; Wiles et al, 1995; Dallmann, 2001) and also identify what restrictions apply to advertising in a specific culture (Zhang and Neelankavil, 1997; Li, 2005); what language should be used (Lipman, 1992; Neelankavil et al, 1995), and the influence of social and religious values (Al-Makaty et al, 1996; Beckun, 1996; Waller, 2000). Additionally, researchers have argued that advertising content is different across cultures (Tansey et al., 1990; Culter and Javalgi, 1992; Ramaprasad and Hasegawa, 1992; Wells, 1994; Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996; Tai, 2004).

Furthermore, the effect of advertising can be examined if the advertisements are coinciding with the cultural norms (Gregory and Munch, 1997). A number of researchers have argued that advertisements that illustrate attitudes and behaviours are consistent with local cultural norms. Moreover, characters were viewed more favourably and the subjects' purchase intentions were higher after exposure to the same advertisements, which illustrates that values and behaviours are culturally inconsistent with local values and behaviours (Madden et al., 1986; Hong et al., 1987; Han and Shavitt, 1994; Gregory and Munch, 1997; Taylor et al., 1997).

In addition, another area where culture can affect advertising is when advertisers decide on whether to localise their advertising message in every market or to standardise their advertising message across markets of diverse cultures. Researchers have pointed out that the successful advertising should mirror the culture of the targeted consumer, rather than reflecting the advertising original culture (Boddewya et al 1986; Hite and Fraser 1988; Albers-Miller 1996).

This study aims to investigate whether the cultural background has an affect on consumer attitudes towards advertising and in particular the comparison between consumers from individualistic and collectivistic cultures, consumers from cultures where the female/male roles are clearly distinct. The findings of these comparisons will assist marketers during their design of advertising campaigns, particularly in a country like Kuwait, having multiply cultures.

4.8 Summary

It has been highlighted that culture plays a key role in international marketing

nowadays. The importance of studying culture was raised as culture has an enormous influence on consumer behaviour which will indirectly affect the effectiveness of the advertising.

In addition, this chapter provides a review of cultural characteristics and definitions from a marketing point of view. Culture is learned, shared, and transmitted from one generation to the next; culture changes with the passage of time and there are no good or bad cultures as culture reflects the identity of people within a specific group.

Hofstede's culture dimension model is the most commonly used model in business research. The current research has adopted this model with particular focus on two important dimensions, individualism/ collectivism and masculine/ feminine. The title of the second dimension has been revised to reflect a broader meaning and renamed as the liberal/ conservative dimension.

Furthermore, from the above discussion, it can be concluded that consumers from collectivistic cultures are less likely to trust information from outside their groups; which indicates that their trust of advertising messages is much lower than that of consumers from an individual culture. The discussion also implies that advertising should reflect the social norm in which its function, the role of men and women in the society should be clearly defined in the advertising message to ensure the effectiveness and influence.

Hence, the success of any company operating in a specific culture is the clear understanding of the type within this culture, and the comprehension of what is

accepted or rejected in this culture in particular, during their launch of an advertising campaign. When studying Kuwaiti culture, it is necessary for marketers to pay special attention to the individualism-collectivism dimension of the consumers in the country. Additionally, going beyond Hofstede's model, marketers need to explore other elements of Kuwaiti culture which have an enhanced influence on consumer behaviour, especially religious guidelines, language and the acceptance of Western influences, the family system and the role of each member within the family.

Chapter Five

Advertising in Kuwait

5.1 Introduction

The business in Kuwait is an open and competitive market, which led Kuwait to be one of the first countries in the Arabian Gulf region to introduce the advertising in its local market, to assist companies to be in a favourable competitive position. Therefore, it is crucial to explore the advertising industry in Kuwait. This chapter commences with a history of advertising in Kuwait. In addition, the current state of advertising in Kuwait is explored, including government regulations that strongly influence both total expenditure and the choice of media. Finally, implications and challenges for the future of advertising in Kuwait were identified.

5.2 Advertising History in Kuwait

Advertising is considerably more recent to Kuwait than to Western countries. Kuwait's advertising history can be divided into three periods, roughly by decade: 1963-1981, 1982-1990 and 1991-present (Jamal, A. personnel interview. May 2005). For the first two periods, advertising was heavily regulated and restricted to print and television only. Within the past decade, Kuwait's advertising has expanded to a variety of media and products.

Foreign Advertising Targeted to Middle East: 1963-1981.

From 1963 to 1981, Kuwait produced no advertisements and local products were not advertised. Moreover, Kuwaiti residents viewed advertisements created by international

agencies for foreign companies, such as Philip Morris, Sony and Toyota. In a study of Kuwaiti print advertising in the 1970's, AlMagraby (1983) observed that advertising increased over the decade, especially for privately-owned hotels, airlines and companies manufacturing electrical devices. Foreign advertising for cigarettes, airlines and cosmetics targeted the entire Middle Eastern region and Arabic countries, not just applicable to Kuwait.

Furthermore, advertisers simply adapted messages targeted to a worldwide audience by using the Arabic language for copy text. Advertising was limited to television and, to a lesser extent, print media. Kuwait TV began broadcasting in the 1961 and commenced offering ads in 1969 (Redah, 1997).

Introduction of Local Kuwaiti Advertising: 1982-1990

For most of the 1980's, advertising was impacted by economic and political forces: the Kuwaiti stock market collapse, subsequent bankruptcies of public and private sector companies, and regional conflicts in Iran and Iraq. Despite these challenges, the 1980's introduced locally-created advertising by Kuwaiti advertising agencies, which operated under heavy governmental regulation.

Furthermore, in his International Marketing text, Cateora (1990) aptly summarises the situation at the end of the decade:

> "*In Kuwait the government controlled TV network allows only 32 minutes*
>
> *of advertising per day and this in the evening. Commercials are controlled*

111

to exclude superlative descriptions, indecent words, fearful or shocking

shots, indecent clothing or dancing, contests, hatred or revenge shots, and

attacks on competition. It is also illegal to advertise cigarettes, lighters,

pharmaceuticals, alcohol, airlines, and chocolates or other candy."

(Cateora, 1990: 467)

Contemporary Advertising: 1991-present

This period was strongly influenced by Iraq's invasion of Kuwait, which motivated Kuwaiti advertising agencies to move their offices from Kuwait to the United Arab Emirates, especially to Dubai and Lebanon. On the one hand, this move signalled a return to regional, rather than national advertising.

It has been highlighted that three new opportunities emerged for advertisers. A free consumer magazine featured local advertising. Radio advertising was allowed for the first time to supplement print and television advertising. Finally, Kuwait received television satellite channels broadcast in both Arabic and English language.

Todays Kuwaiti residents can receive more than ninety-nine Arabic channels and more than three hundred foreign-language channels, owned by various governments and private operators. In addition, government channels retain strict advertising guidelines; however privately owned channels allow advertising of cigarettes, airlines and other products that cannot be promoted by Kuwaiti government channels.

The last five years has brought dramatic industry changes, including the establishment of the Gulf Cooperation Council Advertising Association and the International Advertising Association (IAA) – Kuwait chapter. These organisations aim to establish a strong advertising industry and an ethical code in the Gulf region. Within the last year, Kuwait University created an award for creative advertising.

5.3 Availability of Media in Kuwait

Kuwait has three radio stations and four TV channels: a "*main*" channel and channels for English language programs, sports and movies. Both the radio stations and the TV channels are owned and operated by the government of Kuwait. However, Kuwaiti residents can receive satellite channels, which are especially effective in reaching conservative Muslim women in the privacy of their homes.

In contrast, print media is totally privately owned: seven daily newspapers (including two in English), seventy-eight weekly magazines, eighty monthly magazines and twenty-six quarterly magazines (Annual Statistical Abstract, 2006). Street boards and five free weekly magazines also carry advertising. Direct marketing through personal contacts has been effective.

Furthermore, apart from the prevailing media, Kuwaiti residents are exposed to posters, flyers, SMS mobile advertisements, internet advertisements, taxi advertising, and closed circuit supermarket channels. However, systematic information on these sources is not available, so they will remain outside the scope of this research project.

5.4 Advertising Expenditures

Any discussion of advertising expenditure in Kuwait should be viewed in the context of the entire Arabian Gulf region. Most statistics are available as comparisons to other countries sharing similar cultural, economic and governmental systems.

Additionally, the first available statistic about advertising expenditure in Arabian Gulf countries dates back to the year 1986; conducted by the Pan Arab Research Center (PARC). They collect data relating to advertising expenditure in newspapers, magazines and television (Redah, 1997). Data relating to radio and outdoor media was not included in these statistics due to unavailability of radio advertising in most of the countries in the region. The data related to outdoor advertising was not as accurate as for the other media (PARC, 2006).

PARC data suggests that advertising in GCC countries has increased considerably from $250 million USD in 1986 to $2.59 billion USD in 2005, 20 years later. This development occurred despite two war periods: the Iraq invasions of Kuwait in 1990, which halted commercial advertising in the region for more that nine months; and the Iraq Liberation War in 2003.

Furthermore, the state of Kuwait's advertising relative to the Western countries can be better comprehended by a comparison of per capita expenditures (Table 5.1). Kuwait's advertising expenditure per capita ($82 USD) was the highest among the GCC countries in 1995, closely followed by The United Arab Emirates (UAE) with $67 USD. On the

contrary, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia spends only an estimated per capita $14.3 USD (Faal, 1997), although the Saudi Arabian market is triple the size of the Kuwaiti market. However, the advertising expenditure per capita in Kuwait is five times higher than in Saudi Arabia. These figures have been diversified in the last years due to the change in the market and the increase of advertising expenditure in GCC countries. Nevertheless, the per capita advertising expenditures in the GCC countries remain a small fraction, when compared to the advertising per capita expenditures by Western countries. For example, United Kingdom advertising per capita expenditures was about 2.4 times those of Kuwait in 1995, which had been regarded as the highest expenditure per capita in the region; even after a decade (i.e. 2004) the status has not changed.

Table 5.1
The Advertising Expenditure Per Capita

Country	1995* (US Dollar)	2004** (US Dollar)
Kuwait	82	114
U.A.E.	67	157
Bahrain	31	97
Qatar	29	112
Saudi Arabia	14	27
Oman	10	24
Average	39	89

Swaziland	346	344***
USA	321	465***
Japan	274	286***
UK	199	302***

Source: * Redah (1997)
             ** Calculated by the researcher
             *** World Advertising Trends (2004)

115

It has been stated that this gap between the advertising expenditure in the developed countries and the GCC countries appear to be related to several reasons, including a lack of advertising awareness and lower cost of advertising in the region. The rate of advertising is too low if compared with other international markets. The enhanced competition between the media provider led them to pursuing the advertiser with a cheaper rate than the one that was published. Aziz, the publisher of Arab Ad, identified a lack of interest or knowledge about advertising role and the functionality amongst local and regional companies and brands (Nair, 2002).

Moreover, in other international comparisons, lower GDP has been associated with lower advertising expenditure. In particular in a country which has less advertising restriction on control (O'Donovan et al., 2000). The government restriction and control over some media appears to have a negative effect on advertising in this media; which will be further explored in this chapter.

Advertising expenditure as a percentage of the General Domestic Product (GDP) ranges from 0.21 to 0.88 percent in the GCC countries, compared to 1.12 and 1.42 percent in the United Kingdom and United States of America respectively (World Advertising Trends, 2004).

Furthermore, the total advertising expenditure in GCC countries reached $2.59 billion USD in 2005, and represents 48 percent of the total Arabic countries' advertising

expenditure which was $5.4 billion USD, including the expenditure in the three main media, and the Pan Arab satellite channels (PARC, 2006).

The GCC advertising expenditures increased by 85 percent in comparison to the year 2003, which was $1.4 billion USD; despite the fact that the Iraq Liberation War reduced advertising expenditure in the first and second quarters in the year 2003. It recovered quickly after the depression and reached its peak in the forth quarter with around 430 million USD.

In addition, in Kuwait the advertising expenditure has grown slowly after the liberation of Kuwait in 1991. However, it was not until 1996, that the expenditure exceeded the level that it was before the Iraq invasion (Picard, 2001). In recent years, advertising expenditure has proliferated by fifty-five percent, from $280 million US dollars in the year 2002 to $435 million US dollars in the year 2005. Kuwait ranks in fifth place amongst Arabic countries, after Pan-Arab Satellite Channels with 1.85 billion USD, UAE ($904 million), Saudi Arabia ($891 million), and Egypt ($570 million), all in USD (PARC, 2006).

Furthermore, the print media advertising expenditure is representing 82 percent of the total expenditure in Kuwait, newspapers represent the highest percentage with about 69 percent, followed by the magazines at 13 percent, outdoor advertising accounts for 6 percent, television advertising has only a 10 percent share of the market, and in the last position, radio advertising which only represents 2 percent of the total advertising

expenditure in Kuwait in 2005 (PRAC 2006). Despite the fact that television advertising has bottomed, the statistics compared to the other media (except for radio), illustrates a vast increase from year 2002 to 2005, that reached about 450 percent with 36 million US dollars. It has been mentioned that the market share of the newspaper advertising expenditure in Europe, was highest between the 1980's until the mid 1990's, when television exceeded newspaper advertising, and have nowadays still has more than 36% of the market share (Waterson 2002). The enhanced advertising expenditure in newspapers compared to other media in Kuwait raises various questions and necessitates further investigation.

In addition, the limited television advertising expenditure in official Kuwait channels compared to other media available in Kuwait can be justified by three main reasons. Firstly, Kuwait television is controlled by the government and not by the private sector, which allows limited time and strict rules for broadcasting advertising (Cateora, 1990). Secondly, the Iraq Liberation War and the campaign for the war before it started during the fourth quarter of 2002, and first quarter of 2003 (Shahory, 2004). Moreover, the private satellite channels offer Kuwaitis exposure to over 99 Arabic channels, which conclude that most advertisers tend to favour launching their campaign in private channel rather than with government owned channels. That further explains why the advertising in private owned channels represented 87 percent of total television expenditure in the Arabic region (Al-Mogla, 2003).

Furthermore, Table 5.2 summarises advertising expenditure in Kuwait by media. Trends include a decrease by 25 percent in outdoor advertising expenditure from 34 million US

dollars in 2002 to 27 million US dollars in 2005. It is questionable if this decrease provides an indication that outdoor advertising is less effective than other media, and needs to be studied and further investigated. Currently there is no data available to identify trends in outdoor advertising.

Table 5.2 also illustrates a considerable increase in radio advertising expenditure. It has doubled from 3 million US Dollar in the year 2002 to 6 million US Dollar in the year 2004, and to 7 Million US Dollar in the year 2005. However, it filled the last position of media expenditure in Kuwait with only 2 percent of the market share. The low percentage of radio advertising, compared to other media, appears likely to be due to the lower cost per advertisement via this medium.

Table 5.2

Media Advertising Expenditure in Kuwait

Media	2002		2003		Percentage variation in value (2002/2003)*	2004		Percentage variation in value (2004/2005)*	2005		Percentage variation in value (2004/2005)*
	Value	Share %	Value	Share %	%	Value	Share %	%	Value	Share %	%
Television	8	3	16	5	100	27	7	68.8	44	10	63
Newspapers	196	70	218	72	11.2	271	71	24.3	300	69	10.7
Magazines	39	14	39	1339	0	49	13	25.6	57	13	16.3
Radio	3	1	3	1	0	6	2	100	7	2	16.7
Outdoor	34	12	28	9	-17.6	29	8	3.6	27	6	-6.9
Total	280	100	304	100	8.6	382	100	25.7	435	100	13.9

Source: Pan Arab Research Center (2004, 2006)
* calculated by the researcher

Figure 5.1 Media Advertising Expenditure in Kuwait

Year	2002	2003	2004	2005
Television	8	16	29	44
Newspapers	196	218	271	300
Magazines	39	39	49	57
Radio	3	3	6	7
Outdoor	34	28	27	27
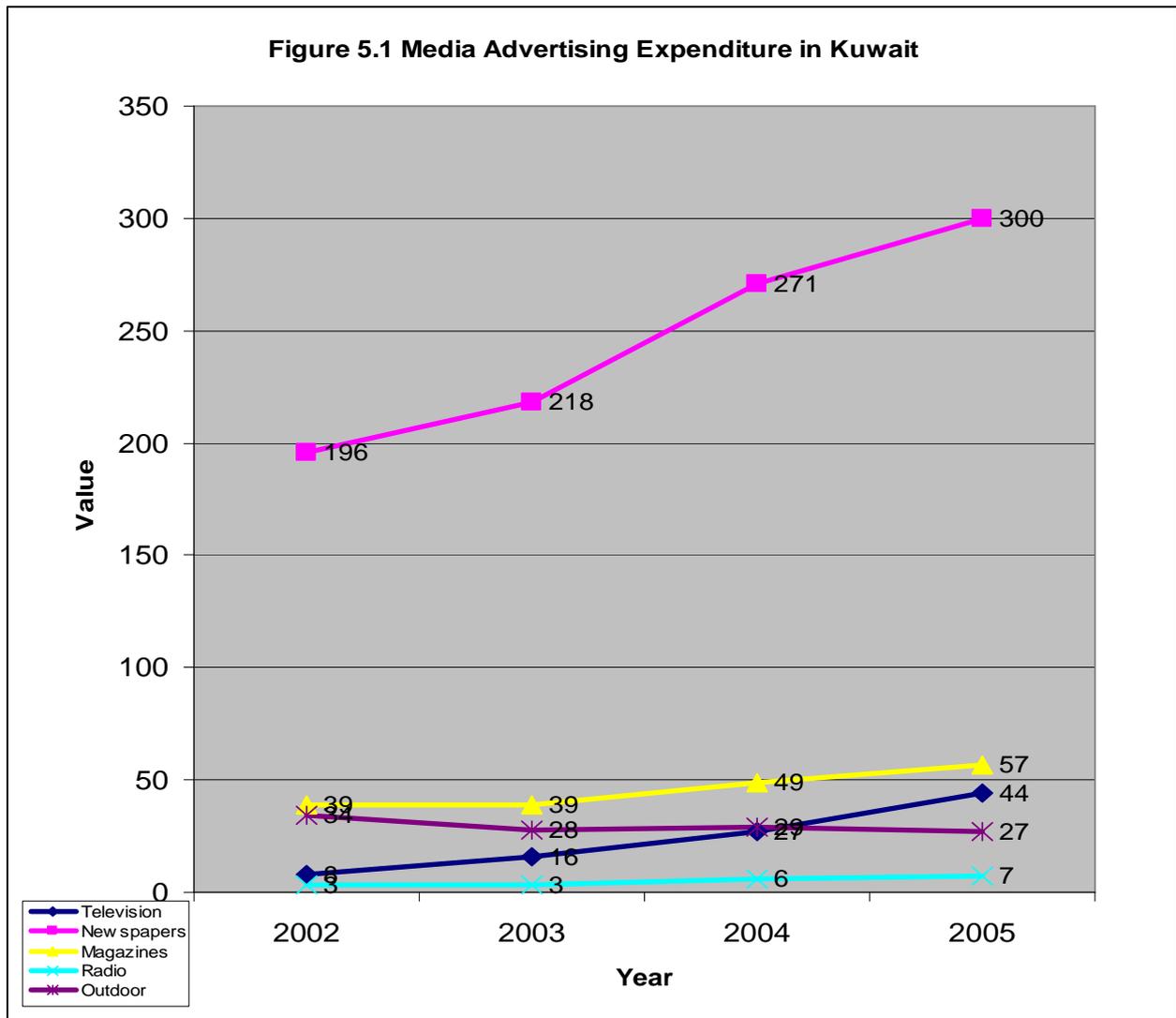
Almogla, the CEO of Saatchi and Saatchi advertising agency and a member of the International Advertising Association, suggests that advertising expenditure in the GCC countries will continue to increase along with the economic development in the region; the open economy program, which attracts foreign investors; the increase of privatisation in the government sector; and proliferated local competition, especially amongst banks, telecommunications and the tourist industry (AME info, 2004).

Moreover, internet advertising (e-advertising) in the Arab world remains at an early stage, with only $10 million USD spent in the year 2003, projected to reach $70 million USD within the next three years (KUNA, 2001). This amount represents less than 0.1 percent of the total advertising expenditure in the Arab region. That indicates that e-advertising will not threaten traditional media in the Arab world for at least the next five years. In comparison, e-advertising in the United Kingdom reached about 955 million Euros in the year 2004 (Phillips, 2005). Therefore, e-advertising should not be ignored, as it is a growing outlet and can pose a threat to the more traditional forms of media in the future.

5.5 Kuwaiti Government Restriction to Advertising

Kuwaiti advertising is heavily regulated by the government. As summarised by Jacobs (1994), these regulations include forbidding content that contradicts Islamic culture, including "*wild*" dancing, revealing dress, violent scenes and intimate encounters; requiring traditional representation of Gulf women; and interpreting exaggeration as a form of intention to mislead.

Additionally, certain products cannot be advertised, such as alcohol, pharmaceuticals and lotteries (Jamal, A. personnel interview. May 2005). The Ministry of Health must approve food and cosmetic advertising. Cigarettes may be advertised in cinemas only, if they include health warnings that make up ten percent of the advertising, and if the advertising is clearly targeted to adults.

The Kuwaiti government aims to protect with these regulations, Kuwaiti culture, which is driven by Islamic culture, from any untoward foreign culture effects. Secondly, it also put emphasis on the protection of Kuwaiti consumers from any harmful products or services.

5.6 Advertising Challenges in Kuwait

There are numerous challenges to advertising in Kuwait, some of the challenges are related to the advertising agencies' role, whilst the other and most important challenge is the complexity of government regulations and its subsequent restrictions on advertising.

Furthermore, in order to understand these regulations, advertisers must cut through the conflicting and competing jurisdictions of government agencies. The Ministry of Information regulates viewed and heard advertising; whilst the Kuwaiti municipal authority regulates outdoor advertising. The Ministry of Health governs the advertising of medicines and cosmetics. Finally, the Ministry of Commerce controls promotional campaigns (Al-Saud, H. personnel interview. May 2005).

The different authorities do not communicate or coordinate their activities with one another, and therefore this creates a formidable challenge to any advertiser. Moreover, each of the authorities establishes its own rules and regulations, and that indicates that if an advertising agency wants to launch an advertising campaign through a different type of media, it should be aware of each media's restrictions. As a result, most advertisers are inclined to use print media, which is subject only to an internal ethical code and is free of

government regulation; that could explain why so much is spent on advertising in printed media in Kuwait.

Furthermore, another challenge is that there are no international advertising agencies or advertising producers, that are based in Kuwait. Most agencies are based outside of Kuwait, and the design of television advertising is created outside the country and then sent to an agency office in Kuwait. In addition, the restrictions on the time allowed to air adverts on television, also swings the advertiser towards printed media. This is additional to the enhanced cost of television advertising compared to printed advertising, which has a high subscriber rate.

The advertising industry is new to the region and in need of experieÿÿe from multinational companies. It is strictlyÿÿorÿÿddÿÿ in Kuwait for foreign firms to have direct access to the local market, and is advisable to set up joint ventures with local agents. As a result, premium companies are reluctant to do business in Kuwait. Thus, local businesses are unable to benefit from the expertise of major international advertising firms.

On the contrary, advertising agencies are lacking skilled Kuwaiti manpower (e.g. photographers, producers and marketing researchers). Therefore, the whole advertising industry is in urgent need of Kuwaiti manpower, that has an advanced comprehension of Kuwaiti consumer needs, lifestyles and culturally-driven behaviours.

Moreover, the introduction of the GAT agreement will reduce the current restriction of capital movement from country to country; that implies that products will move faster from producer markets to consumer markets (Faal, 1997). Thus, competition will most likely increase, leading to further development in advertising at all levels. This change necessitates a preparation form that concerns authority, government, advertisers and advertising agencies.

Finally, it is arduous to obtain accurate data about the state of advertising in Kuwait. There are no independent research centres in existence (Al-Watan-News, 2004). Most current reports and studies are produced from advertising agencies or from newspapers, which may be biased.

Furthermore, the advertising agency role and concept is not evident to government authorities, although 370 businesses are licensed as advertising companies in Kuwait (Bourisly, 2000). They range from actual advertising agencies to paint shops, to small printing press operations. There is no apparent system to measure the effectiveness of the advertising in most advertising agencies, or the effect of media through advertising campaigns. These firms rely on research that has been conducted outside Kuwait.

5.7 Summary

In summary, the Kuwaiti advertising industry is still in an infancy stage and requires a more focused approach from academic researchers.

Consequently, in the last decade, Kuwait that once led all of the GCC for total advertising expenditure, has now slipped to third place. The expenditure in Kuwait is almost half the average per capita expenditure than that of developed countries. Besides the differences in dollars, this chapter has identified modifications in the use of media outlets. Most Kuwaiti advertising expenditures are directed to print media, whilst developed countries, focus on television advertising. The reasons appear to be related to governmental regulations in Kuwait.

Challenges facing Kuwaiti advertisers include the need for experts, who can not only comprehend local culture, but can also wade through complex government regulations.

Chapter Six

Methodology

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the detailed design and methodology that were used to conduct this research, examine the hypotheses and fulfil the research goals. The chapter evaluates the research objectives and philosophy, data collection methods, questionnaire design (including translation issues and pilot study), questionnaire structure. It further examines the population and selection of sample, questionnaire administration, calculation of data reliability and data validity, and choice of statistical tests used to analyse the survey output.

6.2 The Research Objective

The objective of this research project is to explore consumer attitudes towards advertising in Kuwait and to evaluate what influences those attitudes. Therefore, this thesis aimed to answer the following questions:

- What do consumers' think and feel about advertising and what are their attitudes towards advertising in Kuwait in general?

- Do the personal characteristics of gender, age, marital status, education, number of children within the family, and income have any influence on the consumers' attitudes towards advertising?

- Can culture be affected by advertising, and whether advertising in turn threatens the local culture, value, language and religion?

- Will consumers from diverse national and cultural backgrounds, viewing the same advertising within the same environment, report different attitudes and responses to advertising.

6.3 Research Philosophies

Before commencing a research project, researchers often describe their research philosophy. Therefore, this section discusses the philosophy associated with approaches that are being applied.

Oppenheim (2000) distinguished between two terms that some researchers use interchangeably: *research techniques* and *research design/methodology*. Research techniques are considered to be the methods used for data generation and collection (Oppenheim, 2000). In contrary, research design is concerned with the basic plan or strategy of the research, and the logic behind the research, which allows the researcher to draw legitimate and valid conclusions. Moreover, research design makes a predicament '*researchable*' by setting up the study in a way that will produce specific answers to specific questions. In addition, *design* is a strategic choice that can significantly influence the entire research project. Therefore, researchers have emphasised the need to determine the research design at an early stage of the research project (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Easterby-Smith et al, 2002; Creswell, 2003).

Furthermore, developing an effective research design or strategy can be seen as fundamental to the research process (Chisnall, 2001; Creswell, 2003). Oppenheim (2000) argues that no single approach is always or necessarily superior. However, the choice of design depends on what needs to be researched, and the type of question for

which the research looks for to find an answer. Supporting this statement, Malhotra and Birks (2003) imply that it is impossible for researchers to identify a single, perfect research design that is the best for all marketing research projects, or even for a specific type of marketing research task.

Additionally, researchers identify two approaches from which research methodology can be derived: a *positivistic approach* and a *phenomenological approach* (Hussay and Hussay 1997; Easterby-Smith et al, 2002; Creswell 2003; and Malhotra and Birks 2003). There have been other terms used to describe these approaches. For example, *positivistic approaches* can be described as quantitative, objectivist, scientific, experimental or traditional. On the contrary, *phenomenological approaches* can be identified as qualitative, subjective, humanistic, interpretive or revolutionist (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

6.3.1 Positivistic Approach

The positivistic approach evaluates causes of social phenomena or objective knowledge, guided by the principle that variables should be measured by using objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively by using observation, reflection or intuition (Easterby-Smith et al, 2002). Thus, positivists claim to apply logical reasoning to attain objectivity when investigating a phenomenon and explaining results.

Furthermore, this paradigm relies on the belief that social scientists should study human behaviour the same way as studies conducted in natural sciences (Hussay and Hussay, 1997). Hence, the positivistic approach is largely based on analysing

quantitative data. Explanation consists of establishing relationships amongst the variables and linking these variables to a deductive or integrated theory (Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al., 2000). In addition, the positivistic approach is based on a number of assumptions, such as the independence of the observer, causality, creation of testable hypotheses, operationalisation of the variables to be measured quantitatively; and the ability to break down the research problem into simple parts and generalisation (Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Easterby-Smith et al, 2002). The benefits of a positivistic approach are cost effectiveness, speed in data collection, ease of analysis, appropriateness for testing hypotheses and determining relationships amongst variables, and the ability to establish reliability and a general application of data. Hussay and Hussay (1997) note that the majority of business researchers have adopted the positivistic (quantitative) paradigm.

6.3.2 Phenomenological Approach

It has been outlined that on the contrary, the phenomenological or qualitative approach has emerged as a response to criticisms against certain elements of the positivistic approach. Qualitative researchers argue that the positivistic approach applies cause-and-effect links between variables without the consideration of the manner in which humans interpret their social world.

Moreover, the phenomenological approach views reality as socially constructed. The fundamental idea of the phenomenological philosophy derives from a focus on the ways that people make sense of and view their world, especially their experiences. Therefore, this view considers reality as determined by people rather than by

objective and external factors. It is an interpretive approach rather than a quantitative approach.

Consequently, this approach does not rely on gathering facts and measuring how certain patterns occur, that people associate with their experiences. Instead, peoples' feelings, the way of thinking, and interpretations of the phenomena are being investigated, and are fundamental to the phenomenological paradigm. That indicates that this approach to research stresses the subjective aspects of human activity by focusing on the meaning, rather than the measurement of social phenomena (Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al., 2000; Easterby-Smith et al, 2002).

In addition, the benefits of the phenomenological approach include enabling researchers to examine change processes in-depth over time, and to provide profound and distinctive insights (Easterby-Smith et al, 2002). The criticisms of the approach and associated qualitative methods relate to the fact that it is considered rather resource-intensive. The analysis and the interpretation of data can often be seen as complex; hence distinctive specialised skills are required. Moreover, the method does not allow well-formulated hypotheses. It is crucial to acknowledge that the validity and reliability of the findings are often seriously questioned due to the probable subjective influence of the researcher.

6.3.3 Choice of Methods

It has been pointed out that the comprehension of the strength and weaknesses of the alternative research approaches provides the researcher with helpful insights, to

choose which methods are most likely to be beneficial to achieve the research objectives. Table 6.1 summarises the strength and weaknesses of the two approaches.

Table 6.1

Strengths and Weaknesses of Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

Approach	Positivistic (Quantitative)	Phenomenological (Qualitative)
Strength	– Speed in data collection – Ease of analysis – Providing a wide coverage of the range of situations – Appropriate for testing hypotheses and determining relations between variables and establishing the reliability and general application of data	– Ability to look at the change process over time. – Ability to understand peoples' understanding and way of thinking – Contributes to theory generation – Ability to issue and create new ideas as they emerge
Weaknesses	– The methods used tend to be inflexible and artificial. – Not very effective in understanding processors of significance that people attach to actions – Not very helpful in generating theories.	– Time consuming – Costly – Analysis and interpretation of data may be arduous – Policy makers may provide a low credibility that results from qualitative approach

Source: Hussay and Hussay (1997) and Easterby-Smith et al. (2002)

Furthermore, adopting either approaches result that the researcher needs to employ a specific research methodology. Positivistic approaches require a research methodology that is concerned with hypothesis testing by collecting and analysing quantitative data in order to obtain a generalisable result. These approaches apply methods such as cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies, experimental studies and

factorial studies. On the contrary, the phenomenological approach requires generating theories by collecting and analysing qualitative data, in order to describe and explain a phenomenon in its context; using case study methods such as descriptive, illustrative, experimental and explanatory methodology (Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Creswell, 2003).

Considering the benefits and drawbacks of the two approaches and the research objective, this research project has adopted a quantitative (positivistic) approach to answer the research questions and achieve its research objectives. The justifications for selecting the positivistic approach are illustrated below.

- Previous attitude towards advertising studies have adopted the quantitative approach as appropriate to achieve their objectives (Tuncalp, 1990; Andrews et al, 1991; Crane, 1991; Durvasula et al., 1993; Mittal, 1993; Ali, 1994; Alwitt and Prabhakar, 1994; Andrews and Durvasula, 1994; Pollay and Mittal, 1994; Walker and Dubinsky, 1994; Shavitt et al, 1998; Mehta, 2000; Zhou et al, 2002; Beard, 2003). Additionally, quantitative methodology has been widely accepted amongst marketing researchers (Cohen et al., 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

- Qualitative approaches were not suitable for satisfying the research objectives, involving comparisons between groups, hypothesis testing and uncovering relationships between the culture and attitude towards advertising (Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al., 2000; Easterby-Smith et al, 2002).

- Conducting multivariate analysis techniques in this research, such as the factor analysis, necessitates numerous respondents; which can be predominately achieved by adopting the survey methodology (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

- The quantitative approach provides the possibility of generalising the research results beyond the sample, whereas case study research does not enable generalisations to be made beyond the organisation studied (Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Easterby-Smith et al, 2002).

- Despite the fact that the title of this thesis is about 'perception and attitude' which implies using a qualitative approach. Researchers have argued that exploratory research can be qualitative or quantitative (Weinreich, 1996; Bill, 2004; Durham et al., 2004; McNabb, 2004; Trochim, 2006). In practice, it is arduous to find a research method which is entirely either qualitative or quantitative (Yin, 1994). In addition, several researchers have recommended using a quantitative approach for measuring attitude which can be best tested through survey (Dillon et al., 1994; Fitzgerald, 2000). Besides, using a quantitative data in an empirical research has been supported by a number of researchers (Sayer, 2000; Danermark, 2002; Moody, 2002; Carter, 2003; Niglas, 2004; Olsen, 2004).

- Cost and time resources are limited as the researcher is self- funded.

Therefore, the researcher opted for the positivistic (quantitative) approach in this study.

Despite the fact that the positivistic approach has been selected in order to be employed as a main approach in this research; the approach has been triangulated with the phenomenological approach in some areas. Moreover, the triangulation methodology is a procedure for collecting and analysing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003), it involves the evaluation of the research question from several viewpoints. Hence, this

methodology is widely recommended by researchers as a way of conducting social and behavioural research (Flick 1992; Gilbert 1993; Bryman 1996, 2003).

The triangulation approach has been employed in this research during the first part of the study, which was exploratory in nature, and was conducted to identify the advertising practices in Kuwait and during the preliminary design of the questionnaires. In addition, data was gathered using qualitative approaches throughout extensive literature surveys and interviews with experts in advertising (e.g. a Professor from Kuwait University and the Head of Kuwait TV advertising department). The analysis was undertaken using qualitative methods by deconstructing the interview data.

6.4 Data Collection Methods

The objective of the research study will affect the methods used to collect information (Dillon et al, 1994). As previously discussed, a decision was made to adopt the positivistic methodology to satisfy the objective of the study. Bazera (1996) has contended that the choice of the information collection method depends on factors such as sample size, resources available to the researcher and the complexity of the questionnaires.

It has been highlighted that information sources available to the marketing researcher can be classified into two types, *primary* and *secondary data* collection methods. Secondary data is defined as data collected for a purpose other than the prevailing predicament (Bazera, 1996; Dillon et al, 1994; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). The researcher has applied the following secondary data throughout the research:

- Library resources: Journal articles (previously or recently published), books, newspapers and magazines that are related to advertising and marketing research.

- All available electronic resources over the Internet or web pages.

- Annual Statistical Abstracts from the Ministry of Planning - Kuwait.

Furthermore, primary data is defined as data that is originated by the researcher, specifically to address research issues (Dillon et al, 1994; Bazera, 1996; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). The researcher has used a self-administered questionnaire to evaluate consumer attitudes towards advertising.

In addition, there are various methods to gather data through questionnaires, including Computer Assisted Telephone interviews (CATI), in-house/in-office interviewers, street interviews (face–to-face), computer assisted personal interviews (CAPI), traditional mail surveys, mail panels, email and Internet methods.

Table 6.2 summaries the advantages and disadvantages of each of the above mentioned collecting methods, which were derived from Dillon et al (1994), Bazera (1996), De Vaus (1996) Oppenheim (2000), Robson (2002), Malhotra and Birks (2003).

It has been pointed out that in order to accomplish the desired research objective, after evaluating the benefits and disadvantages, the street interview was chosen as the method to collect data for this research. Moreover, this technique is ideal for exploring advertisements and other marketing communications, and it is more

efficient for the respondent to come to the interviewer than for the interviewer to meet

the respondent (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). Additionally, marketing researchers have

recommended adopting this style for similar types of research (Bazera, 1996;

Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

Table 6.2

Summary of Advantage and Disadvantage of Different Data Collection Methods

	Telephone (CATI)	In-Hose /In-office	Street interviews	CAPI	Mail	Mail panels	Email	Internet
Flexibility of data collection	Moderate to high	High	High	Moderate to high	Low	Low	Low	Moderate to high
Diversity of questions	Low	High	High	High	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate to high
Sample control	Moderate to high	Potentially high	Moderate	Moderate	Low	Moderate to high	Low	Low to moderate
Control of data environment	Moderate	Moderate to high	High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Control of the field force	Moderate	Low	Moderate	Moderate	High	High	High	High
Response rate	Moderate	High	High	High	Low	Moderate	Low	Low
Obtaining sensitive information	Low	High	Low	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate
Speed	High	Moderate	Moderate to high	Moderate to high	Low	Low to high	High	High
Cost	Moderate	High	Moderate to high	Moderate to high	Low	Low to moderate	Low	Low

Sources: Dillon et al (1994), Bazera (1996), De Vaus (1996) Oppenheim (2000), Robson (2002),

Malhotra and Birks (2003).

6.5 Questionnaire Design

Careful questionnaire design was critical for gathering accurate data that was

required. Many criteria were considered when designing a questionnaire survey,

including arranging the questions in proper order, question structure, wording of questions, format, layout, spacing, position of questions and numbering the questions. These criteria were recommended by researchers such as Dillon et al (1994), Hussay and Hussay (1997), Cohen et al. (2000), Oppenheim (2000), Aaker et al. (2001), Malhotra and Birks (2003) These recommendations were adopted wherever applicable.

6.5.1 Preliminary Design of the Questionnaire

The preliminary design of the questionnaire necessitated carrying out an exploratory research project to gain insights and ideas about attitudes towards advertising in general; and to increase the researcher's familiarity with each factor that influences the consumer's attitude towards advertising. An extensive literature survey was conducted to provide an extensive background and to identify previous research limitations. The outcome of this process was the initial design of the questionnaire.

Furthermore, the questionnaires were derived initially from a thorough review of advertising literature (Tuncalp, 1990; Andrews et al, 1991; Crane, 1991; Durvasula et al., 1993; Mittal, 1993; Ali, 1994; Alwitt and Prabhakar, 1994; Andrews and Durvasula, 1994; Pollay and Mittal, 1994; Walker and Dubinsky, 1994; Shavitt et al, 1998; Mehta, 2000; Zhou et al, 2002; Beard, 2003).

The wording of the questions was the most critical and arduous task in developing the questionnaires. During the questionnaire design, careful attention was paid to a number of basic rules and issues that are recommended by marketing researchers in particular: Questions should be clear using ordinary and unambiguous words. It is not

advisable to use technical words. Try to match the vocabulary level of the respondent. Avoid leading or biasing questions. Avoid having any clues what the answer should be. Avoid implicate alternative. Avoid connected assumptions. Avoid generalisation and estimations. Use positive and negative statements (Dillon, 1994; Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al, 2000; Oppenheim, 2000; Aaker et al., 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2003).   Not taking care of these rules can affect the questionnaire design in two conditions. Firstly, the respondent will refuse to answer the questionnaire which will increase the non-response rate and lead to the complexity of data analysis. Secondly, the respondent can answer the questionnaire incorrectly which will lead to a biased answer or response error.

Moreover, these researchers emphasise, that a clear and unambiguous language of communication must be established with the respondents to collect accurate data. For example:

(a) Questions must be worded in a manner that will be comprehended by the respondents (Sekaran, 2000).

(b) Every question should be linked to the conceptual framework of the study (Oppenheim, 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

(c) The wording of the questionnaire ought to avoid pitfalls, such as leading and double-barrelled questions.

(d) Items in the questionnaire should be simple, clear, short, technically accurate, bias free and at an appropriate reading level.

Hence, in this study; two versions of questionnaires have been applied: one in Arabic language which was designed to be used by Arabic-speaking respondents, and another

one in English language to be used by foreign respondents living in Kuwait. In addition, as most of the foreigners live in Kuwait and also speak English; and working in the business sector and as the English language is considered the official language of business in Kuwait, it was decided to use the English versions of the questionnaire to both Eastern and Western consumers.

6.5.2 The Translation of the Research Questionnaires

Cateora (1990) has noted that the greatest survey sampling predicament in foreign countries is the issue of language, as there are differences in idiomatic usage. An exact translation can conclude in problems in interpreting the respondents' answer.

Furthermore, the survey fieldwork was carried out in Kuwait. Although English language is widely spoken in Kuwait and considered as the official language of business; it was decided to translate the questionnaire into Arabic language in order to facilitate it for the respondent as it is his/hers mother tongue. The translation into the mother tongue has been suggested by Malhotra and Birks (2003) to reach the respondent's sub-group.

Moreover, the most two widely translation techniques used in the international research are 'back translation' and 'parallel translation' (Cateora, 1990; Usunier, 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). Back translation imposes that the questionnaires are translated by one translator from the source language into a target language. A second translator, who is unaware of the source language questionnaires, translates the first translator's target language questionnaires back into the source language. The two

139

versions are being compared. The process can be repeated several times in order to avoid any errors and misinterpretations.

In contrast to this, the parallel translation technique consists of having several translators being fluent in both languages, working individually or in committee, who translate the questionnaire simultaneously from the source language to the target language. Hence, the results are compared, differences are discussed and the most appropriated words and meaning are selected.

Additionally, the first alternative was applied for translating the research questionnaires for the following reasons:

– The back translation technique is the most widely employed style for reaching translation equivalence in cross-cultural research (Usunier, 2000).

– The method is more effective in identifying translation errors and discovering inadequacies (Usunier, 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

– The modus operandi has been successfully adopted in conducting similar attitudes towards advertising research projects (Andrews et al, 1991; Durvasula et al, 1993; Al-Yusuf, 1994; Andrews and Durvasula, 1994).

After all components of the questionnaire were determined, the English version of the questionnaire has been prepared and then given to an independent translator to interpret the questionnaire into Arabic language. Furthermore, the Arabic version of the questionnaire was passed to another interpreter who translated the questionnaire back into the English language. It has been anticipated that, when the two versions of the questionnaire have been compared, a considerable change in the meaning of the

questions has been identified. A meeting with the translators was set to correct the words and the meaning of each question to reflect the required information in the questionnaire; which produced two identical versions of questionnaires, one in Arabic language and the other in English language. In addition, it has been pointed out that translating word by word is not effective as an accurate technique for the Arabic language. It has been suggested that rather than translating the whole sentence; sometimes plural for singular and vice versa can be applied in the Arabic language. Starting sentences with a noun is acceptable; however commencing the sentence with a verb provides more depth and emphasis to the sentence.

6.5.3 Scale Selection

Business and marketing research literature have identified four types of scales used in all researches: *nominal, ordinal*, *interval* and *ratio scale*. Each scale has its features, specifications, assumptions and constraints. However, using one or more scales involves a rationale of considering several factors, including the nature of the marketing research problem, research objectives and design, judgment of the researcher, research population, the nature of the required data and research constructs, research hypotheses and required statistical analysis (Dillon, 1994; Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al, 2000; Oppenheim, 2000; Aaker et al, 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

Furthermore, three types of scale have been used in this research –nominal, ordinal and rank order. Nominal scales were conducted to obtain information about the respondents and to categorise them based on demographic data. The ordinal scale was also implemented to measure consumer attitudes. A rank order scale was applied in

this research project in order to rank the effect of media in the consumer attitudes towards advertising. Moreover, a five point Likert scale was identified to provide detailed information about all factors that influence consumer attitudes towards advertising. The respondents were asked to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement on a number of statements associated with each attitude on a scale range from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'.

Additionally, the Likert scale was employed in the research for numerous reasons (Dillon, 1994; Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al., 2000; Oppenheim, 2000; Aaker et al, 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2003):

– The Likert scale is the most common and widely used attitude scale technique in marketing research.

– Using a Likert scale allows the researcher to apply a variety of statistical methods and conduct powerful statistical analysis.

– The Likert scale is widely conducted as it has been previously illustrated to produce reliable research results.

– Research statements can be classified as unfavourable on one side of the scale midpoint and favourable on the other side.

– It is straightforward to use for the respondents as the response categories allow for the expression of the intensity of feelings.

– The Likert scale is relatively facilitated to construct, administer and understand.

– The five point Likert scale does not confuse the respondents with many choices on its continuum scale.

On the contrary, a Likert scale has some limitations which were identified by numerous researchers (Dillon, 1994; Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al, 2000; Oppenheim, 2000; Aaker et al., 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2003) such as:

- It is relatively time consuming.

- The most common limitation of the Likert scale is the location of the zero point that is fixed arbitrarily; which in turn may require a great deal of attention for the interpretation of its results.

- The Likert scale imposes a fixed number of choices on the respondents, which may not completely reflect their attitudes.

- Some disputes concerning whether the Likert scale has been identified and should be used as an interval scale, especially from a statistical point of view.

Other attitude measurements scale techniques (i.e. Thurstone scale, Guttman scale and Semantic differential) have bee evaluated in detail in section 3.4.

6.5.4 Pilot Test

Pilot study refers to the examination of questionnaires on a small sample of respondents to identify and eliminate potential predicaments (Bazera, 1996). Moreover, various researchers (Dillon, 1994; Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al, 2000; Oppenheim, 2000; Aaker et al, 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2003) have recommended the conduct of pilot tests. Malhotra and Birks (2003) implied that even the best questionnaires should be piloted and can be improved by pilot testing. Oppenheim (2000) argues that every aspect of the research survey should be piloted in order to ensure that it works as intended; and the pilot test should be continued until

no further modifications are suggested. The purpose of a pilot study is to eliminate problems and to improve the questionnaire quality.

In addition, the pilot study of this survey involved all aspects of the questionnaire, including question content, wording, sequence, form and layout, question difficulty and instructions. The first draft of the questionnaire was reviewed by the researcher's supervisor and by two Academic staff from Kuwait University. Subsequently both versions of the questionnaire were distributed to a small sample of respondents, similar to those who were included in the actual survey, for their review and comments.

Furthermore, the questionnaire was distributed to ten people through personal interviews. Respondents were not asked at this stage to answer the questionnaire but instead to review and comment on the questions. Therefore, the ten respondents were asked to verify the questionnaire contents, wording, sequence, form and layout, question difficulty and instructions. Each question and its purpose was discussed with the respondents.

Additionally, the resulting feedback concluded in crucial changes in the questionnaire. For example, deleting some questions from the questionnaire, divided the questionnaire into three parts, each consisting of fifteen to seventeen questions, to make the questionnaire of a manageable length. More important, the order of some questions was rearranged and the instructions for the questionnaire were revised to help respondents to answer each section. The researcher tried to avoid using words like 'usual', 'sometimes', 'normally', 'occasionally' and similar ambiguous words.

6.5.5 Second Pilot Test

After finishing the first pilot study, all comments have been combined and both versions of the questionnaires have been redrafted. The second pilot study was conducted with fifty respondents representing ten percent of the study sample size and personally interviewed by the researcher.

Furthermore, the purpose of this second pilot study was to identify potentially misleading questionnaires or misunderstandings that might arise while conducting the study. While a small number of suggestions were implemented, other implications were found to have no relation to the study or the quality of the questionnaire. The findings of the pilot study were explored statistically using SPSS; and it was satisfactory that no further improvements are necessitated.

6.6 Structure of the Final Version of the Questionnaire

Utilising the feedback from the pilot studies, the final version of the questionnaire was structured as a three-part survey with a covering letter as presented in Appendixes A and B. Part I addresses consumer attitude towards advertising, while Part II explores media effects and Part III collects demographic data. In addition, the cover letter which was attached to each questionnaire explained the purpose of the study, introduced the researcher and contained the assurance of data confidentiality.

Part I: Consumer attitude towards advertising

This fragment was divided into several sections, each aimed to measure one factor of consumer attitude towards advertising. These questions were based on previous advertising research (Tuncalp, 1990; Andrews et al, 1991; Crane, 1991; Durvasula et

al, 1993; Mittal, 1993; Ali, 1994; Alwitt and Prabhakar, 1994; Andrews and Durvasula, 1994; Pollay and Mittal, 1994; Walker and Dubinsky, 1994; Shavitt et al, 1998; Mehta, 2000; Zhou et al, 2002; Beard, 2003).

Section One: Need for advertising

This section was concerned with investigating consumer attitudes towards the need for advertising in general; this factor was measured by six statements (a1-a6).

Section Two: Economic effects of advertising

This part was concerned in exploring the respondents' attitudes regarding the economic effect of advertising; five statements were measuring this factor (a7-a11).

Section Three: Need for control

This sector examined the consumer attitude towards the need for control over advertising, whether from government or industry; four statements were measuring this factor (a12-a16).

Section Four: Materialism

Three statements were designed to assess consumer attitudes regarding the influence of advertising on materialism behaviour (b1, b2 and b6).

Section Five: Ethics in Advertising

This division was concerned in examining consumer attitudes regarding the ethicality of advertising. The factor was considered by four statements (b3, b4, b5, b7, b8 and b9).

Section Six: Credibility of Advertising

Consumer attitudes regarding the truthfulness of advertising, and the likelihood that advertising is false and misleading, were measured by three statements (b10, b11 and c15).

Section Seven: Informatively of Advertising

Consumer attitudes regarding the informative nature of advertising (i.e., whether advertising facilitates consumers in making purchasing decisions and whether advertising describes products accurately) were considered by three statements (b12, b13 and b14).

Section Eight: Entertainment of Advertising

This section aimed to examine the consumer attitudes about the entertaining quality of advertising; this factor was measured by two statements (b15-b16).

Section Nine: Advertising effect to Culture

This section describes the consumer attitudes regarding the effect of advertising on culture in general and the local culture, value, language and religion in particular. It was measured by fifteen statements (b17 and c1 to c14).

Part II: Media Effect

This part explored consumer attitudes to specific advertising media, i.e., preferences for particular media, perceptions of media usefulness and the influence of media on advertising credibility.

Part III: Demographic Data

The last part of the questionnaire obtained demographic data such as gender, age, education and income. Additional questions explored the number of children in the respondent's family, nationality of the respondent and culture (i.e., conservative/ collective, liberal/ collective, or liberal/ individual).

6.7 Population and Selection of Sample

Sekaran (2002: 266) defined the research population as "*the entire group of people, events, or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate*". Malhotra and Birks (2003: 357) described 'sample' as "*a subgroup of the elements of the population selected for participation in the study*". Hussay and Hussay (1997) contend that a representative sample is one in which the results obtained for the sample can be generalised to the whole population.

It has been mentioned that there are several ways to determine the appropriate size of a sample. However, usually the sample size depends on three factors: the size of the population under study, the research budget, the precision required and the degree of error accepted (Bazera, 1996). It is a question of deciding how accurate the researcher desires the results to be and the degree of confidence the researcher wishes to place in those results.

6.7.1 Sample Size

The population of this research has been defined as all people living in Kuwait regardless of their nationality. The sample size for this research was set as 500 respondents; this number was selected for the following reasons:

- Even though the sampling technique applied in this research was a non-random sampling technique (convenience sampling); the number requested exceeded the minimum number required according to the statistical precision formula for random sampling. The sample size according to the formula is illustrated as follows (Bazera, 1996; Aaker et al, 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2003):

$$N = \frac{Z^2 * (P) * (1-P)}{C^2}$$

Where,

N= Sample Size

Z= Confidence level

P= Population proportion

C= Precision level

At a 95 percent confidence interval, the (Z) value will be 1.96. As the population proportion was unknown, the researcher assumed the population proportion (P) is 50 percent, which reflects the maximum possible variation in the population. Moreover, the precision level (C) has been set to ± 5 precision; the sample size required would be 384 respondents. The researcher has decided to increase the number of respondents involved to 500 to provide a better representation to the research population.

- Increasing the sample size to 500 respondents has been recommended by numerous marketing researchers (Dillon, 1994; Bazera, 1996; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). They also add that this number has been based on experience and can serve as a rough guideline (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

- Similar figures have been used in other attitudes towards advertising researchers (Andrews et al, 1991; Crane, 1991; Durvasula et al, 1993; Ali, 1994; Schlosser et al, 1999, Wolin and Korgaonkar, 2003).

6.7.2 Selecting the Sample Type

Sampling techniques that have been applied by researchers are divided into two classifications; *probability* and *non-probability sampling*. Malhotra and Birks (2003: 362) defined probability sampling as "*a procedure in which each element of the population has a fixed probabilistic chance of being selected for the sample*". Examples include random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and multistage sampling.

Furthermore, on the contrary, non-probability sampling techniques do not employ chance selection procedures; however they rely on the personal judgment of the researcher (Malhotra and Birks 2003). Methods to select non-probability samples include convenience sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, and judgment sampling. The procedures for selecting the sample, evaluating the advantages and disadvantages for each of these techniques have been addressed extensively (e.g., Dillon et al, 1994; Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al, 2000; Oppenheim, 2000; Aaker et al, 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

For this study, a two-stage sampling process was used. Firstly, the quota sampling techniques was employed to determine the sample size for each sub-group. In the second stage, the convenience sampling technique was utilised. In addition, a modus operandi attempts to obtain a sample of convenient elements. The selection of the

sampling units is left primarily to the interviewer (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). In this technique, respondents are selected as they happen to be in the right place at the right time. The researcher has decided to exercise the convenience sample as it is the least expensive and time- consuming of all sampling techniques. The sampling units are accessible, easy to measure and cooperative; the unavailability of complete and reliable sampling frames from which probability sample can be drawn, and this method is considered to be suitable for street interviews (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

Moreover, the sample was collected from three different groups of people representing differing cultures, however living in the same environment: Arabic, Eastern and Western. The Arabic group was represented by Kuwaiti and other citizens from Arabic countries; the second group was represented by residents from East Asia or India; and the third group consisted of inhabitants originally from North America, Canada, Europe and Australia.

Additionally, in order to determine the size of each group, the researcher and an assistant from Kuwaiti University approached the Public Authority for Civilian Information (PACI) to provide the number of people in each group. The percentage of each group then calculated the total of the Kuwait population. PACI is a government institution that holds information about every Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti resident in Kuwait, including name, address and telephone number. The PACI also presents each resident with a civil number.

Moreover, the PACI refused to provide the full information required, citing concerns with confidentiality, but supplied the researcher with the number of residents aged 15-

45 who were Asian, Western and Kuwaiti. Table 6.3 demonstrates the numbers, percentages and resulting percentage of the sample of five hundred respondents.

Table 6.3

Groups' Percentage and Sample Size

	Arab & Kuwaiti	Asian	Western	Total
Actual Number of people of the age between 15-45	759,539	800,673	7,918	1,568,130
Percentage (%)	48	51	1	100
Number required	240	255	5	500
Sample size	229	241	30	500

As Westerners account for less than five percent of the total population, they would be represented by five respondents in a sample of 500. Therefore, it was decided to increase the number to 30 respondents to avoid making the Central Limit Theorem ineffective. It indicates that as the number of elements in the sample increase the distribution of the sample becomes a normal distribution (the sample represents the population), "*a sample of 30 or more elements is considered large enough for the central limit theorem to take effect*" (Aczel, 2005: 177). The resulting sample sizes were 30 from the Western group, 229 from Arabic and Kuwaiti groups, and 241 from the Asian group. Each of these groups share similar characteristics as Hofstede (2001) described. See Chapter Four for a complete discussion.

6.8 Administration of the Questionnaire and Data Collection

Questionnaires were collected from customers and employees of two large shopping malls in the State of Kuwait, using personal interviews. The shopping malls were

selected because as it is straightforward to find consumers from different age groups and nationalities in particular Kuwaitis, Arabs and Eastern. Data was also gathered from the faculty of two private schools where most of the staff are Westerners. The survey was conducted from November to December 2005; it was decided not to conduct the survey during October as it was associated with the Moslem holy month of Ramadan. In addition, the survey was timed to take place after the month of Ramadan for two reasons: Firstly, the month of Ramadan is known to people in the region as an advertising peak when advertisers compete to attract viewers or present new messages. Secondly, residents are fasting and are considered to be more nervous than usual. Therefore, conducting a survey during Ramadan will result in biased answers.

Furthermore, out of 600 questionnaires distributed, 537 were returned. Seventeen were filled in incomplete and therefore unusable. The remaining 520 usable questionnaires represented a response rate of 86.6 percent. The high response rate seems attributable to the researchers' insistence that questionnaires ought to be completed on the spot combined with a high interest in the topic amongst respondents. The researcher followed standard data collection protocols (Dillon et al, 1994; Bazera, 1996; Malhotra and Birks, 2003), including:

(A) Confidentiality was emphasised

(B) Completion time was lowered by shortening questionnaires and using simple language.

(C) A covering letter identified the objectives of the research and conveyed the importance of responding to the success of the study.

(D) The researcher selected the most convenient time to target the respondents (only in the morning).

(E)   The researcher, with assistance from the shopping centre's manager, provided a convenient private place for the participants to sit down and answer the questionnaire.

(F)   The researcher tried to avoid handing over or allowing the respondent to take the questionnaire away to answer later.

(G)   Respondents demonstrated a high interest in the research subject.

(H)   Before each respondent left, he or she reviewed the questionnaire with the researcher to ensure no parts were left incomplete.

It has been pointed out that this aspect of survey administration seems particularly critical. Most of the non-returned questionnaires were from the private school sample, where the researcher was not allowed to distribute questionnaires directly, but forced to rely on the school's management.

Moreover, this procedure has made the researcher succeed in raising the respondents' rate mentioned above and over the expected level. On the contrary, the procedure was more time and effort consuming. It can be argued that in order for a researcher to increase the response rate, he/she has to try to obtain as many responses as possible to avoid the handover of the questionnaire to the respondent to answer, without the presence of the surveyor.

6.9 Data Reliability and Data Validity

Research that employs a quantitative approach must be a part of the survey methodology and tests the validity and reliability of the instruments. It is an essential method for a questionnaire to produce a high quality output to establish a high degree

of reliability and validity; otherwise, the questionnaire may generate irrelevant data. Furthermore, a reliable research instrument may not be considered as valid. The reliability is necessary but not a sufficient condition for validity. The reason for this is that a measure can be reliable while evaluating a construct other than what the researcher intended. However, both validity and reliability are essential aspects for measures that are interrelated and these elements are assumed to overlap to some degree (Dillon et al., 1994; Bazera, 1996; Oppenheim, 2000).

6.9.1 Reliability

Reliability is described as "*the extent to which a measurement reproduces consistent results, if the process of measurement were to be repeated*" (Malhotra and Birks, 2003: 140). Therefore, a reliable research instrument produces the same result under the same conditions, ensuring a high degree of consistency and dependability. To assess the reliability of the survey, a Cronbach's Alpha test was employed to assess the inter-item consistency of the measurement scale for each multiple-item variable. This measure is one of the most commonly and widely accepted techniques to measure internal consistency (Dillon et al, 1994).

Moreover, Cronbach's alpha is described as an estimate of the proportion of the total variance that is not due to error (Oppenheim, 2000). The coefficient illustrates how much correlation is expected between a specific point and all other possible items measuring the same variable. Its value ranges from one to zero; with one indicating perfect reliability and zero indicating none (Bazera, 1996).

In this study, reliability was assessed at 0.78, using Cronbach's alpha with SPSS 13. Sekaran (2000) argued that the minimum accepted level is 0.60; otherwise the instrument is poor, while Dillon et al (1994) indicated that scores over 0.50 would be acceptable. Therefore, this scale exceeded minimum standards for reliability. See Appendix C for scores.

6.9.2 Validity

Validity describes "*the extent to which a measurement represents characteristics that exist in the phenomenon under investigation*" (Malhotra and Birks, 2003: 140). Therefore, a valid questionnaire measures precisely what is supposed to be measured (Sekaran, 2000). The validity of the research instrument was assessed through two types, *content validity* and *construct validity*.

Content validity focuses on whether the scale items adequately cover the entire domain of the construct under study (Dillon et al, 1994). It is assessed by evaluating the closeness of the scale items to the characteristic or construct under study. For this thesis, the research instrument was derived from a comprehensive review of the relevant literature in marketing, advertising and attitude. The questionnaire was also reviewed by experienced professors from Kuwait University.

Construct validity is concerned with whether the instrument is an accurate measure of reality (Easterby-Smith et al, 2002), i.e. whether respondents themselves view the instrument as valid (Shannon and Davenport, 2001). To support and ensure construct validity of the questionnaire, it was piloted twice to identify predicaments and the

difficulty or lack of clarity in the scale items or instructions. Construct validity was assessed by comments solicited during pilot tests.

6.10 The Statistical Test

There are two major categories of statistical methods that can be used to conduct the data analysis: *parametric* and *non-parametric statistical methods* (Dillon et al, 1994; Hussay and Hussay, 1997; Cohen et al, 2000; Oppenheim, 2000; Aaker et al, 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). The debate over which methods should be employed in analysing the data has not been solved.

The most critical factor exercised to determine the choice of employing parametric or non-parametric methods, is the type of data. Parametric methods can be utilised to analyse metric data, which are measured by using interval and ratio scale. Non-parametric methods can be employed to examine non-metric data, which are calculated by using nominal and ordinal scale.

Additionally, parametric statistical methods are considered appropriate when the distribution of the population can be treated as normal (Oppenheim, 2000; Aaker et al, 2001), observations are independent, and variances within groups are homogeneous. However, the need to meet these conditions for using parametric methods has been strongly questioned (Bryman and Cramer, 2001). Various examples are illustrated as follows:

- Labovitz (1970) and Baker et al (1966) suggested that almost all ordinal variables can and should be treated as interval variables as the amount of errors that can occur is minimal.

- Some parametric techniques (e.g., regression analysis) do not have non-parametric equivalents. Hair et al (1998) emphasise that in the case of violation of one or more of the multivariate assumptions, such as normality and homogeneity, remedies can be applied, allowing the use of multiple regression and factor analysis.

- A number of studies (i.e. Boneau, 1960; Zimmerman, 1998) that have artificially been set up to violate the normality of the population imply that there are no great differences from studies using a normally distributed population.

- Lord (1953) contended that, since tests apply to numbers and not to what those numbers signify, a parametric test can also be employed with ordinal variables (Singer et al, 2004).

Despite these claims, for this thesis, it was decided to analyse the data using non-parametric tests for the following reasons:

(a) This research data are not normally distributed, as assessed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z test (See Appendix D).

(b) Non-parametric tests are distribution free tests, i.e., they do not require the assumption that the underlying population is normally distributed (DePuy and Pappas, 2004).

(c) Non-parametric tests are much easier to learn and to apply than parametric tests.

(d) Moreover, the interpretation of results is often more straightforward than the interpretation of parametric tests.

(e) The five-point Likert scales were treated as ordinal data, which require using non-parametric techniques for analysis (Dillon et al, 1994; Bazera, 1996; DePuy

158

and Pappas, 2004). These non-parametric tests are concerned with rank ordering rather than the numerical values of the variables.

Furthermore, analysing the survey output necessitated more than one test to be used, depending on the type of question and the researcher expectation. In order to fulfil the research objective, the collected data was analysed using SPSS 13.0 software with the following statistical techniques:

- Reliability Analysis

- Frequency Descriptive

- Cross Tabulation

- Factor Analysis

- Chi-square

- Mann Whitney U Test

- Kruskal-Wallis Test

The clarification and justification for using each method in terms of its application to the analysis of the research data are presented hereunder:

Reliability Test

Cronbach's Alpha test was exercised to examine the reliability of the questionnaire which should produce satisfactory levels or reliability prior to running any other tests.

Frequency Distribution:

"*A mathematical distribution whose objective is to obtain a count of the number of responses associated with different values of one variable and to express these counts*

in percentage terms" (Malhotra and Birks, 2003: 437). The idea of a frequency distribution is to indicate the number of the case in each category. It is regarded to be a useful tool as it also provides a descriptive summary for the sample characteristics.

Cross Tabulation:

A statistical technique that describes two or more variables at a time; resulting in tables that reflect the shared distribution of two or more variables that have a limited number of categories or distinct values (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). Additionally, cross tabulation allowed the researcher to establish the degree of the relationship between attitudes towards advertising and each of the personal characteristics: gender, age, level of education, income, martial status, and the number of children in the family.

Factor Analysis

A class of procedures primarily used for data reduction and summarisation (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). It examines the relationship amongst sets of many interrelation variables and represents them in terms of few underlying factors. That indicates that factor analysis groups variables with similar characteristics together. Green et al (2000) contend that factor analysis can be viewed as a data reduction technique to identify a small number of factors that explain most of the variance observed in a larger number of variables. This modus operandi was used to comprehend underlying dimensions of attitudes towards advertising.

Factor analysis was employed to reduce the dimensions of the data set. It was applied in this study although it is a parametric test for two reasons: firstly, it has no non-

parametric counterpart test; secondly, it has been exercised successfully with ordinal data in other marketing research studies (Bauer and Greyser, 1968; Larkin, 1977; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Andrews et al, 1994; Mittal, 1994; Schlosser et al, 1999; Mojsa and Rettie, 2003; Freeman and Moser, 2006). Factor analysis can be used for the following purposes (Dunteman, 1989; Tacq, 1996; Malhotra and Birks, 2003):

- To identify underlying factors that explain the correlations amongst a set of variables

- To classify a new, smaller set of correlated variables, to replace the original set of uncorrelated variables.

- To categorise a smaller set of salient variables from a large set, for use in subsequent multi-variate analysis.

Moreover, Malhotra and Birks (2003) argue that there are several procedures that have been suggested for determining the number of factors, including a prior determination, eigenvalues, scree plot, percentage of variance accounted for, split-half reliability, and significance testing. In this research, the decision has been made to choose to retain only factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Malhotra and Birks (2003) define the eigenvalue as the amount of variance associated with the factor. They contend that factors with variance less than 1.0, are no better than a single variable as, due to standardisation, each variable has a variance of 1.0.

Spearman's rho

The Spearman's rho correlation coefficient which is a nonparametric statistic, measures the rank-order association between two scales or ordinal variables (Dillon et

al, 1994). They work regardless of the distribution of the variables. The Spearman r ranges between 0 (no correlation) to 1 (perfect correlation), Furthermore, it can be positive or negative (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). A negative correlation indicates that the two variables co-vary in opposite directions; as one increases; whilst the other decreases and the result of the test can be interpreted as the correlation between the ranks of the two variables.

Chi-Square Test

Chi-square is a statistical test that determines if a systematic association exists between two variables (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). It is usually used to identify the statistical significance of the observed association in a cross-tabulation. This technique can be beneficial in finding the association for each of the attitudes towards advertising factor and personal characteristics.

Mann Whitney U Test

Mann Whitney U test is the nonparametric counterpart test for T-test; it is a statistical test for variables measured on an ordinal scale. It is conducted in order to compare the differences in the location of two populations based on the observations from two independent samples (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). This test was employed to test the disparity between male and female observation to each of the attitudes towards advertising components.

Kruskal-Wallis Tests

The nonparametric tests for multiple independent samples are used to compare three or more independent groups of sampled data (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). This test is

used as an equivalent to the independent group ANOVA, when the normality or equality of variance assumption is not met. In addition, the Kruskal-Wallis test is a one-way analysis of variance like many non-parametric tests, and exercises the ranks of the data rather than their raw values to calculate the statistics.

6.11 Summary

A discussion about the research philosophies and whether to adopt the positivistic or phenomenological approach was presented. A positivistic approach was adopted to accomplish the objective of the research. Moreover, the justification for employing the positivistic approach was provided. Face-to-face questionnaires were used to gather the data. The research strategy consisted of the research design and method of data collection, questionnaire design, the pilot study and the sample technique. The data analysis methods with regard to the differences between the parametric and non-parametric test have been discussed. Non-parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data. The justification of choice as well as the summary of methods was provided. Figure 6.1 represents the overall research approach.

Figure 6.1
Research Methodology Diagram

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│       Identify the Marketing Problem     │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Literature Review           │◄────┐
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘     │
                    │                            │
                    ▼                            │
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐     │
│       Formulation the Research Problem   │     │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘     │
                    │                            │
                    ▼                            │
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐     │
│  Formulating the research Aim and Objective │──┘
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│     Formulating the Research Hypotheses  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│    Selecting the Research Approach (method) │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
            │                   │
            ▼                   ▼
┌──────────────────┐    ┌──────────────────┐
│  Phenomenological│    │    Positivistic  │
└──────────────────┘    └──────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│      Select the data collection methods  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│           Questionnaire Design           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
        │           │              │
        ▼           ▼              ▼
┌───────────┐ ┌──────────────┐ ┌───────────────────────────────┐
│ Pilot Test│ │Scale Selection│ │Preliminary Design of the questionnaire│
└───────────┘ └──────────────┘ └───────────────────────────────┘
        │                                     │
        ▼                                     ▼
┌───────────────┐                   ┌───────────────────────────────┐
│Second Pilot Test│                 │ Translation of the questionnaires│
└───────────────┘                   └───────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Structure of the Final Version of the Questionnaire │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│          Determine the Population        │────┐
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘    │
                                                ▼
                        ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
                        │          Selecting of Sample Size        │◄──┘
                        └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                            │
                                            ▼
                        ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
                        │        Selecting of the Sample Type      │
                        └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│      Administration of the Questionnaire │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                            │
                                            ▼
                        ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
                        │             Data Collection             │
                        └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                            │
                                            ▼
                        ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
                        │   Fill in the data in the SPSS software  │
                        └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│     Assessing Validity and Reliability   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│      Selecting the Statistical Analysis  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│          Description of the Sample       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│      Examining the Research Hypotheses   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Research Finding            │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                Conclusion                │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Chapter Seven

Results Analysis and Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis, summarising the respondents'
views and attitudes. The chapter includes sample demographics, results of the factor
analysis, and finally the results of the hypothesis tests related to attitudes towards
advertising amongst Kuwaiti residents. Moreover, the hypothesis was tested using two
statistical methods: Mann-Whitney tests to compare means of two groups (i.e.
gender), and non-parametric analysis of variance tests (Kruskal-Wallis) to analyse
several means by a single factor of personal characteristics.

7.2 Demographics Description of Sample

It has been outlined that data was collected from 520 potential consumers of
advertised products in the state of Kuwait. As shown in Table 7.1, fifty-five percent of
the survey respondents were male and forty-five percent female, nearly three-quarters
(72.5 percent) of the sample respondents fell into the age range of 25 to 45 years, with
43.7 percent within the range of 25 and 34 years. Only twelve percent reported ages
below twenty-five and fifteen percent with age grater than 45 years.

Moreover, Table 7.1 also illustrates that 35.3 percent of the sample have no children,
while 53.3 percent have more than 2 children in their family. Almost half of the
sample held graduate or postgraduate degrees. Forty-three percent have monthly
income of less than 400 Kuwaiti Dinar, and 14.8 percent have an income over 1200
Kuwaiti Dinar (around 2222 sterling pounds).

Table 7.1
Sample Characteristics

Characteristic	Frequency	Valid Percent	Percentage of the Total Kuwaiti Population*
Male	288	55.4	60
Female	232	44.6	40
Less than 25 years	63	12.1	39.4
25 to 34 years	227	43.7	23.2
35 to 45 years	150	28.8	21.5
Over 45	80	15.4	15.9
Single	123	23.7	43.0
Married	375	72.4	53.6
Widow	6	1.2	2.0
Divorced	14	2.7	1.4
No child	183	35.3	**
1 child	59	11.4	
2 to 3 children	174	33.6	
4 to 5 children	74	14.3	
6 or more children	28	5.4	
Illiterate or Elementary	3	0.6	55.3
Intermediate	18	3.5	21.3
Secondary	91	17.6	12.2
Diploma (after secondary)	148	28.6	4.4
University	225	43.5	6.8
Master or PhD	32	6.2	
Less than 400 K.D.	223	43.3	**
401 to 800 K.D.	147	28.5	
801 to 1200 K.D.	69	13.4	
1201 to 1600 K.D.	36	7.0	
Over 1601 K.D.	40	7.8	
Kuwaiti or Arabic	250	48.1	48
East Asian or Indian	238	45.8	51
Western	32	6.2	1

* Source: Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, Edition 42, 2005.
** Information not available

Nearly three-quarters of the sample (72.4 percent) were married compared to 23.7 percent who were single. Approximately forty-four percent of the married couples have at least two children, while fifteen percent have no children (See Table 7.2). In addition, fifty-two percent of the married consumers held a university degree or

postgraduate certificate (45.7 and 6.4 percent respectively) compared to forty-three percent of the single respondents (37.7 and 5.7 percent respectively). About sixty-six percent of the single consumers had incomes less than or equal to 400 Kuwaiti Dinar per month (around 740 sterling pounds), compared to thirty-five percent for the married respondents. The difference in the income amongst the group was anticipated as the salary scales in Kuwait differentiate between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti workers.

Table 7.2

Cross Tabulation for Respondents' Personal Characteristics by Martial Status

		Martial Status			
		Single	**Married**	**Widow**	**Divorced**
		%	%	%	%
Number of children	No child	100	15.0	16.7	35.7
	1 child		13.6	16.7	35.7
	2 to 3 children		44.1	66.7	28.6
	4 to 5 children		19.8		
	6 or more children		7.5		
Education	Illiterate or Elementary	2.5			
	Intermediate	1.6	4.3		
	Secondary	16.4	18.7		
	Diploma (after secondary)	36.1	24.9	66.7	50.0
	University	37.7	45.7	33.3	42.9
	Master or PhD	5.7	6.4		7.1
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D.	65.6	35.3	66.7	42.9
	401 to 800 K.D.	24.6	29.9	16.7	35.7
	801 to 1200 K.D.	6.6	16.2		7.1
	1201 to 1600 K.D.	1.6	8.9		7.1
	Over 1601 K.D.	1.6	9.7	16.7	7.1

With respect to nationality, around forty-eight percent of the sample came from Kuwait or other Arabic nations (Kuwaiti). Approximately forty-six percent are from

East Asia and India (Eastern), while Westerners comprised the remaining six percent (Western).

Table 7.3

Cross Tabulation for Respondents' Personal Characteristic by Nationality

	Nationality					
	Kuwaiti		Eastern		Western	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Male	110	44.0	156	65.5	22	68.8
Female	140	56.0	82	34.5	10	31.3
Total	250	100	238	100	32	100
Less than 400 K.D	43	17.2	178	76.4	2	6.3
401 to 800 K.D	111	44.4	30	12.9	6	18.8
801 to 1200 K.D	47	18.8	18	7.7	4	12.5
1201 to 1600 K.D	27	10.8	4	1.7	5	15.6
Over 1601 K.D	22	8.8	3	1.3	15	46.9
Less than 25 years	38	15.2	25	10.5		
25 to 34 years	119	47.6	104	43.7	4	12.5
35 to 45 years	76	30.4	66	27.7	8	25.0
Over 45	17	6.8	43	18.1	20	62.5
Single	55	22.0	65	27.5	3	9.4
Married	184	73.6	165	69.9	26	81.3
Widow	3	1.2	2	0.8	1	3.1
Divorced	8	3.2	4	1.7	2	6.3
No child	79	31.6	96	40.7	8	25.0
1 child	14	5.6	38	16.1	7	21.9
2 to 3 children	68	27.2	92	39.0	14	43.8
4 to 5 children	62	24.8	10	4.2	2	6.3
6 or more children	27	10.8			1	3.1
Illiterate or Elementary			3	1.3		
Intermediate	9	3.6	8	3.4	1	3.1
Secondary	36	14.4	54	23.0	1	3.1
Diploma (after secondary)	96	38.4	49	20.9	3	9.4
University	100	40.0	103	43.8	22	68.8
Master or PhD	9	3.6	18	7.7	5	15.6

Table 7.3 demonstrates that Western respondents reported considerably higher income, age and education in comparison to other nationality groups. Fifty-six percent

of the Kuwaitis are female, in contrast to 34.5 percent of females amongst the Eastern groups and 31.2 percent of Western. In addition, the substantially large number of males in the Eastern and Western group, can be explained as the country of Kuwait attracts many foreign workers and most businesses in Kuwait are managed and run by expatriates.

Furthermore, sixty-three percent of Westerners earn more than 1200 Kuwaiti Dinar per month, while sixty-three percent of Kuwaitis reported income ranging from 400 to 1200 Kuwaiti Dinar. Over three quarters of Eastern respondents (76.4%) stated incomes below 400 Kuwaiti Dinar.

Seventy-eight percent of Kuwaitis and seventy-one percent of Easterners range in age between 25 to 45 years; while sixty-three percent of Westerners reported ages greater than 45 years. Eight-four percent of Western respondents reported graduate or post-graduate degrees compared to fifty-one percent of Eastern respondents and forty-four percent of Kuwaitis respectively. Moreover, the high range of age and education for the Western consumers was anticipated, as most of them are working in managerial positions.

Additionally, sixty-three percent of the Kuwaiti respondents mentioned having two or more children in the family, compared to forty-three percent of the Eastern respondents and fifty-four percent of the Western sample. Only nine percent of Western respondents were single, compared to twenty-eight percent amongst the Eastern and twenty-two percent of the Kuwaiti participants.

7.3 Factor Analysis

Forty-five variables were subjected to principal component factor analysis using SPSS 13.0 Software. Results of the factor analysis for all items are reported in Appendix F. Thirteen factors with eigenvalues over 1.0 were retained, accounting for sixty-one percent of the total variance. Solutions that count for over 60 percent of the explained variance are considered satisfactory from a social sciences standpoint. (Bazera, 1996; Hair et al, 1998; Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

Furthermore, orthogonal rotation using a Varimax procedure was performed to minimise the number of variable loadings onto each factor. Rotation helps the researcher to recognise the variables that best define each factor in order to facilitate interpretation. Factor loadings represent the degree of correlation between an individual variable and a given factor. Additionally, Field (2005) recommends accepting variables with loadings greater than 0.5, while Malhotra and Birks (2003) recommend 0.4. Other researchers have viewed loadings greater than 0.3, as significant, loadings greater than 0.4, as more significant, and loadings greater than 0.5, as very significant (Bazera, 1996). In this research project, only items with factor loadings of 0.5 or greater were retained.

The first factor explains the highest proportion of observed variance in the dataset (8.92 percent). Other variances were Factor 2, 4.16 percent; Factor 3, 3 percent ; Factor 4, 1.96 percent; Factor 5, 1.53 percent; Factor 6, 1.40 percent; Factor 7, 1.39 percent; Factor 8, 1.27 percent; Factor 9, 1.23 percent. Factors 10 through 13 ranged from 1.14 percent to 1.0 percent of the variance explained (see table 7.4). Two variables had significant negative loading on a single factor.

Table 7.4

Rotated Factor Analysis

Factor Number	Factor	Proportion of observed variance (%)
1	Religion and Value	8.92
2	Ethics And Materialism	4.16
3	Need and Economy	3
4	Credibility	1.96
5	Need and Economy	1.53
6	Entertainment	1.4
7	Need for Control	1.39
8	Value	1.27
9	International Advertising affect	1.23
10	International Advertising affect	1.14
11	International Advertising affect	1.12
12	Economy	1.05
13	Value	1.0

After factors similar to one another were combined, eight factors remained and were named as follows: religion and value (factor 1), ethic and materialistic (factor 2), need and economy (factors 3, 5 and 12), Credibility (factor 4), entertainment (factor 6), need for control (factor 7), value (factor 8 and 13) and international advertising effect (factor 9, 10 and 11). The results are presented in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5

Factors Retained After Combining Similarity

			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
			Religion & Value	Ethics & Materialism	Need & Economy	Credibility	Need & Economy	Entertainment	Need for Control	Value	International Advertising Effect	International Advertising Effect	International Advertising Effect	Economy	Value
1	Religion & Value	C2	0.66												
		C1	0.75												
		C12	0.76												
		C13	0.79												
		C14	0.82												
2	Ethics and Materialism	B8		0.52											
		B2		0.59											
		B5		0.64											
		B6		0.71											
3	Need & Economy	A6			-0.66										
		A1			-0.58										
		A2			0.62										
		A7			0.68										
		A10					0.56								
		A11					0.68								
		A5					0.68								
		A9					0.69								
		A8												0.76	
4	Credibility	B10				0.59									
		B9				0.63									
		B11				0.72									
5	Entertainment	B15						0.71							
		B16						0.81							
6	Need for control	A16							0.65						
		A13							0.67						
7	Value	C5								0.71					
		C4								0.74					
		C6													0.83
8	International Advertising Affect	C8									0.63				
		C9									0.75				
		C7										0.65			
		B17										0.68			
		C10											0.68		
		C11											0.72		

Another method of extracting factors was conducted throughout a scree plot. It is a plot of eigenvalues against a number of factors, in order for extraction to take place (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). The shape of the plot is used to determine the number of

factors to be retained, the number of factors that fall before the plotted line turns

sharply right or above the bend in the knee, and those will be extracted. A scree plot

(Figure 7.1) indicated that five factors can be retained namely: religion and value,

ethics and materialism, need for advertising, economic effects and credibility.

Figure 7.1

Factor Analysis Scree Plot

igure
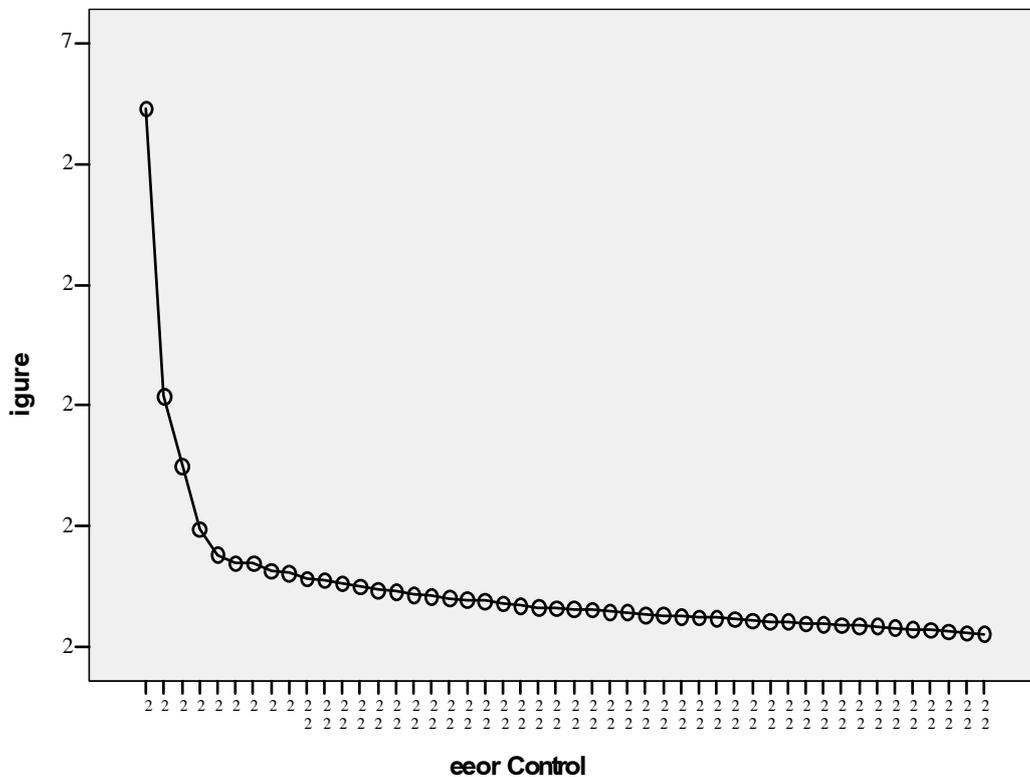
7.4 Overall Attitude Towards Advertising

Attitudes towards advertising were measured by forty-eight statements, using the five-

point Likert-type scale. The attitude statements were derived from a thorough review

of the advertising literatures (Tuncalp, 1990; Andrews et al, 1991; Crane, 1991;

Durvasula et al, 1993; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Ali, 1994; Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1994; Andrewa and Durvasula, 1994; Mittal, 1994; Walker and Dubitsky, 1994; Mehta, 1998; Shavitt et al, 1998; Zhou et al, 2002; Beard, 2003). These statements covered nine attributes: Need for advertising, the economic effect of advertising, Need for control over advertising, Materialism, Ethics, Credibility, Information, Entertainment, and Effect of advertising on the local culture.

Moreover, it was hypothesised that an agreement with supportive statements and a disagreement with critical statements would indicate a positive attitude towards a specific statement. Likewise, a disagreement with supportive statements and an agreement with critical statements would reflect a negative attitude towards the statement.

Some negative statements were reverse-scored when calculating the total and average for each attribute, to facilitate calculation and analysis. In addition, although the research statements were measured initially by a five-point Likert-type scale, results are presented here using three points only (strongly agree-agree, neither agree nor disagree, and disagree-strongly disagree). These responses were combined to meet requirements of the chi-square test, i.e. not more than 20 percent of the cells have fewer than five observations. Frequencies are reported in Appendix E.

7.4.1 Tests of Hypothesis # 1

H1: "*Consumers in Kuwait have a positive attitude towards advertising in general*".

Out of the forty-eight statements that represent consumer's attitude towards

advertising, twenty-six statements were supported by the respondents, three were criticised and nineteen statements were neither supported nor criticised by the respondents. The results are summarised in Appendix E. The majority of the respondents (60.9 percent) that have disagreed or strongly disagreed with overall attitudes towards advertising can be seen in Table 7.6. Thus, it can be concluded that consumers in Kuwait have in general, a negative attitude towards advertising. These results are similar to what has been found in previous research (Larkin, 1977; Sandage and Leckenby, 1980; Zanot, 1981, 1984; Reid and Soley, 1982; Ogilvy and Mather, 1985; Muehlnig, 1987; Andrews, 1989; Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1992, 1994; Mittal, 1994; Beard, 2003). Therefore, *Hypothesis one* is not supported.

Table 7.6

Overall Average Attitude towards Advertising

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Overall average for consumer attitude towards advertising	0.6	36.7	1.8	59.9	1.0

By applying Spearman's rho (Spearman rank correlation coefficient), a correlation between the overall attitude towards advertising and attitude factors indicate that all factor are significantly correlated with the overall attitude towards advertising. It can be observed from Table 7.7, that factors can be classified into two categories; those highly correlated with overall attitude (correlation coefficient r value greater than 0.5), and those weakly correlated (r value less than 0.5).

Table: 7.7

Correlations by ranks (Spearman's rho) between Overall Attitude Towards Advertising and Attitude Factors

Spearman's rho		Overall attitude
Overall attitude	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	
Need	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.287(**) .000 392
Economy	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.432(**) .000 392
Control	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.664(**) .000 392
Materialistic	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.571(**) .000 392
Ethic	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.824(**) .000 392
Credibility	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.718(**) .000 392
Informative	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.612(**) .000 392
Entertainment	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.293(**) .000 392
Culture	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.750(**) .000 392

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation between the overall attitude and factors like Control (r=0.664), Materialism (r=0.571), Ethics (r=0.824), Information (r=0.612), Credibility (r=0.718), and Culture (r=0.750) are significant and considered highly correlated. Moreover,

much of the Kuwaiti attitude towards advertising appears to be driven by these factors. Other determinants such as Need for advertising (r=0.287), Entertainment (r=0.293), and Economic (r=0.432) have a low correlation with overall attitude. See Figure 7.2 for a summary of these results.

Figure 7.2
The Relation between Attitudes Towards Advertising and Factor Influence This Attitude
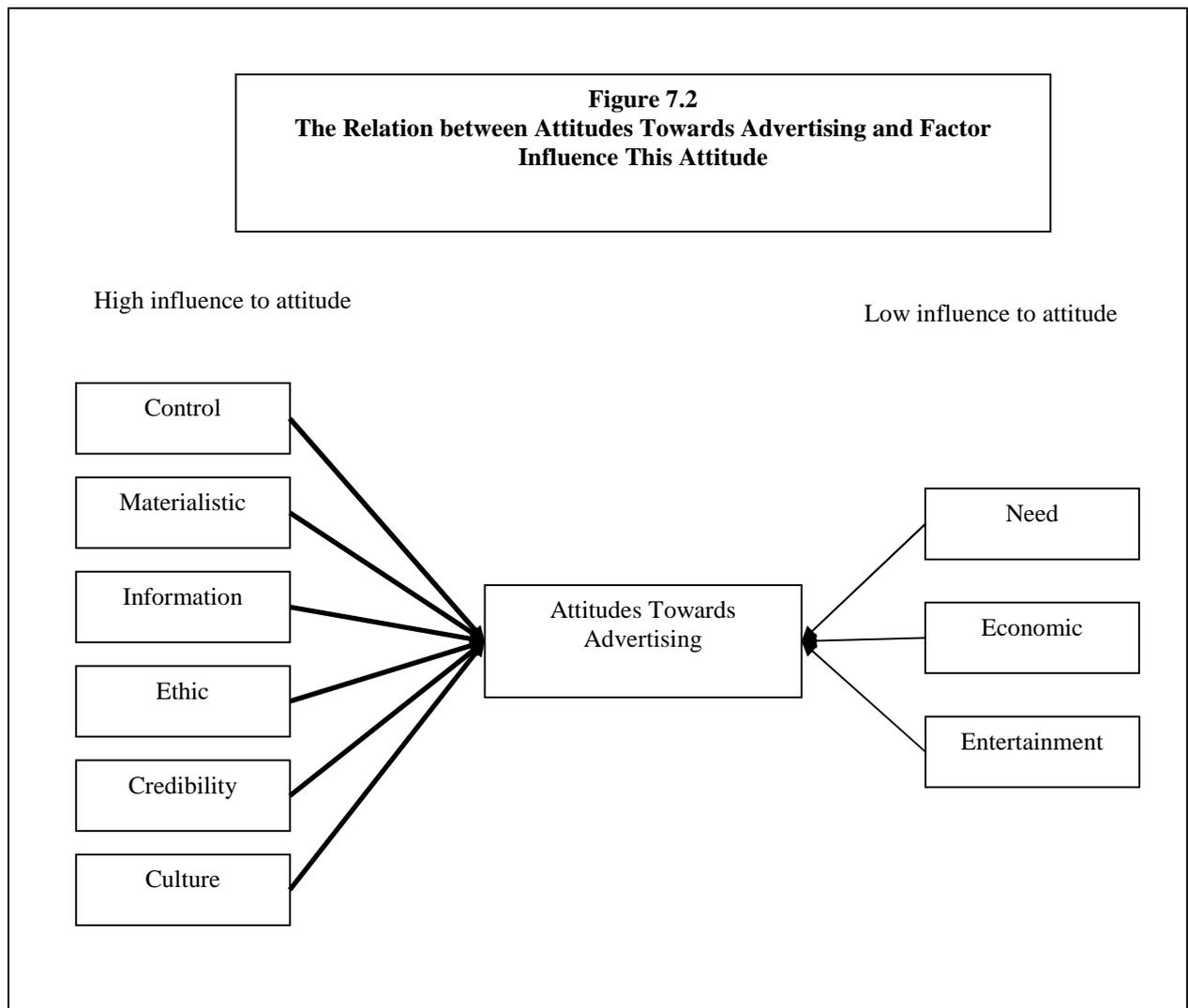
7.4.2 Tests of Hypothesis # 2

H2: "*Culture has an effect in shaping consumers attitudes towards advertising. Thus, people from differing cultural backgrounds diversify in their perceptions of advertising, despite the fact that they live in the same society.*"

Respondents were organised into three groups, each representing a different cultural background and living in Kuwait: Group I (Kuwaiti and Arabic), represented a collective and conservative culture. Group II (Eastern), consisting of respondents from East Asia and India, represented a collective, but less conservative culture. Finally, Group III (Western), consisted of participants from Europe, North America and Australia, representing a more individual and less conservative culture.

Table 7.8 displays the results, suggesting that culture does make a difference (p=0.00) to all components of consumer attitudes, as well as to the consumer's overall attitude towards advertising.

Table 7.8

Kruskal Wallis Test for Overall Attitude Towards Advertising by Nationality

	Need	Economy	Control	Materialism	Ethics
Chi-Square	22.877	18.327	76.241	31.180	107.683
Df	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

	Credibility	Information	Entertainment	Culture	Overall
Chi-Square	103.529	88.795	26.170	83.821	89.945
Df	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Table 7.9 illustrates that Kuwaiti and Eastern consumers hold more positive attitudes towards the need for advertising and the effect of advertising to the economy than Western consumers do, although all three groups hold positive attitudes. In addition, Kuwaiti consumers hold more negative attitudes than the Eastern and Western consumers do towards the need to control advertising, the materialistic qualities in

advertising, and the ethical and social issues in advertising. Moreover, Eastern (63.6 percent) and Western (54.8 percent) groups share positive attitudes towards the credibility of advertising, while Kuwaiti consumers (60.3 percent) hold negative attitudes. Thus, Kuwaiti consumers view advertising as more false and misleading than the Eastern and Western respondents in this sample.

With regard to advertising as a source of information, Table 7.9 demonstrates that the majority of Kuwaiti consumers (54.2 percent) tend to hold negative attitudes, while an even greater majority of Easterners (66.3 percent) hold a positive attitude. Western consumers are split in their opinions. This result suggests Kuwaiti consumers do not believe that advertising provides helpful information, which can be explained, because advertising is still in its infancy in Kuwait.

Table 7.9 also shows that more Eastern consumers (70.6 percent) hold positive attitudeÿÿtowards the entertainment value of advertising, than is the case with Western (45.2 percent) and Kuwaiti consumers (50.8 percent).

Finally, Table 7.9 shows that Western consumers (55.2 percent) hold positive attitudes regarding the effect of advertising on local culture while Eastern (53.7 percent) and Kuwaiti consumers (80.8 percent) hold stronger negative attitudes.

That indicates that a greater majority of Western consumers believe that advertising will not have any effect on local culture. This result may be due to the fact, Western culture emphasises individual rather than societal values.

Table 7.9

Cross Tabulation for Overall Attitude Towards Advertising by Nationality

		Nationality			Total
		Kuwaiti (%)	Eastern (%)	Western (%)	
Need	Disagree	7.4	7.4	25.8	8.6
	Neither agree nor disagree	3.3	8.8	6.5	5.9
	Agree	89.3	83.7	67.7	85.5
Economy	Disagree	17.4	16.2	34.4	18.0
	Neither agree nor disagree	11.2	4.4	21.9	8.8
	Agree	71.4	79.4	43.8	73.3
Control	Disagree	92.6	68.7	75.0	80.9
	Neither agree nor disagree	2.5	10.6	6.3	6.3
	Agree	4.9	20.7	18.8	12.8
Materialism	Disagree	72.2	54.3	59.4	63.3
	Neither agree nor disagree	9.7	13.8	15.6	11.9
	Agree	18.1	31.9	25.0	24.8
Ethics	Disagree	88.4	53.2	63.3	71.3
	Neither agree nor disagree	4.6	10.6	3.3	7.2
	Agree	7.1	36.1	33.3	21.6
Credibility	Disagree	60.3	19.7	25.8	39.9
	Neither agree nor disagree	13.4	16.7	19.4	15.2
	Agree	26.3	63.6	54.8	44.9
Information	Disagree	54.2	16.2	41.9	36.2
	Neither agree nor disagree	17.7	17.5	16.1	17.5
	Agree	28.1	66.2	41.9	46.3
Entertainment	Disagree	27.8	10.6	25.8	19.8
	Neither agree nor disagree	21.4	18.7	29.0	20.6
	Agree	50.8	70.6	45.2	59.5
Culture	Disagree	80.8	53.7	41.4	66.4
	Neither agree nor disagree	3.3	6.0	3.4	4.5
	Agree	15.8	40.3	55.2	29.1
Overall	Strongly disagree	1.9			1.0
	Disagree	77.3	37.4	53.8	59.9
	Neither agree nor disagree	2.4	1.3		1.8
	Agree	18.5	60.0	46.2	36.7
	Strongly agree		1.3		0.5

Most importantly, Table 7.9 displays the cross tabulation for overall attitude towards advertising by nationality, which outlined that Kuwaiti (77.3 percent) and Western consumers (53.8 percent) have in general, negative attitudes toward advertising,

whilst Eastern consumers (60.0 percent) hold a positive attitude. The results are supported by a number of previous studies (Pollay et al, 1992; Zhao and Shen, 1995; Shavitt et al, 1998; Zhou et al, 2002; Beard, 2003).

Table 7.10 summarises cross tabulation, for the effects of advertising on local values; the effect of international advertising; and the effect of advertising by religion or nationality. Kuwaiti consumers display negative attitudes in all three of these areas, while Western and Eastern respondents believe that advertising does not affect religion. In addition, Western and Eastern consumers have negative attitudes regarding the effect of international advertising on local culture and have neither negative nor positive attitudes towards the effect of advertising on local values. Thus, a greater percentage of Kuwaiti consumers trusts that advertising influences their religion compared to the other groups, an effect most likely due to the conservatism of Kuwaiti culture and the importance of religion to everyday Kuwaiti life.

Table 7.10

Cross Tabulation for the Effect of Advertising to Local Culture by Nationality

		Nationality			Total
		Kuwaiti (%)	Eastern (%)	Western (%)	
Value	Disagree	70.2	43.7	48.4	56.9
	Neither agree nor disagree	11.7	15.2	16.1	13.5
	Agree	18.1	41.1	35.5	29.6
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
International Advertising Effect	Disagree	71.3	62.7	51.7	66.3
	Neither agree nor disagree	8.2	8.8	17.2	9.0
	Agree	20.5	28.5	31.0	24.8
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Religion	Disagree	65.7	24.2	25.8	44.4
	Neither agree nor disagree	10.6	14.7	9.7	12.4
	Agree	23.7	61.0	64.5	43.2
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

In conclusion, there appears to be differences in the perception of advertising that can be traced back to nationality or cultural background. Thus, the *second hypothesis* is supported.

7.5 Need for Advertising

The first part of the questionnaire consisted of six statements representing the need for advertising, as shown in Table 7.11. Respondents overwhelmingly supported the need for advertising. Eighty-eight percent agreed (or strongly agreed) that advertisements are necessary to allow consumers to compare competing products. Moreover, seventy-three percent agreed that advertising is an 'essential' part of most people's lives. Ninety-four percent agreed that new products necessitate advertising. Finally, sixty-six percent disagreed with the statement that, "*Good products do not need advertising.*"

Table 7.11

Frequency Percentage for Need for Advertising

	Statement	Strongly Agree-Agree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Disagree-Strongly Disagree (%)
1	Advertising is needed for comparing competing products	88	5.4	6.6
2	Good products do not need advertising	28	6.4	65.6
3	Many people do not pay attention to advertising	36.7	16	47.3
4	Products which are advertised are better in quality than the unadvertised products	23.8	18.4	57.8
5	Advertising becomes essential for people's life	73.1	10.7	16.2
6	New products need advertising	93.8	3.1	3.1
	Average need for advertising	85.5	5.9	8.6

On the contrary, fifty-eight percent of respondents did not feel that advertised products are better in terms of quality, than products that are unadvertised. Respondents were also sharply divided over the statement, "*People do not pay attention to advertising,*" with thirty-seven percent agreeing and forty-seven percent disagreeing.

When statements are totalled and averaged, the outcome shows that eighty-five percent of respondents report that advertising is needed. It can be generally pointed out that consumers in Kuwait have a positive attitude towards the need for advertising. The results are supported by a number of prior studies (Bauer and Greyser, 1968; Haller, 1974; Mehta, 2000; Beard, 2003).

7.5.1 Test Hypothesis # 3

H3: "*Personal characteristics of consumers in Kuwait will be associated with beliefs about the need for advertising.*"

Table 7.12 and 7.13 present the analysis of variance tests by ranks (Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney) respectively for the need of advertising by personal characteristics. From Table 7.12 it can be drawn that age (p=0.012), number of children (p=0.008) and income (p=.044) are significant.

Table 7.12

Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Need for Advertising by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	10.908	4.954	13.791	5.791	9.783
df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.012	.175	.008	.327	.044

Table 7.13

Mann-Whitney U Test

Need for Advertising by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Need	Male	268	253.47	67931.00
	Female	220	233.57	51385.00
	Total	488		

	Need
Mann-Whitney U	27075.000
Wilcoxon W	51385.000
Z*	-1.561
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.119

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower that their expected value

Age significantly (Chi-Square=10.908) at (p=0.012) influences attitudes towards the need for advertising. Different age have diverse views about the need of advertising. Table 7.14 illustrates that respondents with the middle age, between 25 and 45 years have a more positive attitude, than those respondents younger than 25 or older than 45.

Furthermore, Table 7.12 demonstrates the number of children within the family, it is significantly (Chi-Square=13.791) at (p=0.008) related to the perceptions of the need for advertising. Those with four or more children tend to have more a positive attitude, than those with three or fewer children; which indicates that the number of children in the family has an effect on the consumer's attitude towards the need for advertising.

Table 7.12 also indicates that income is statistically significant (Chi-Square=9.783) at (p=0.044), with consumers having an income in the range of 800-1600 K.D. per

month holding more positive attitudes (Table 7.14).

Table 7.14

Cross Tabulation Need for Advertising by Age, Number of Children, And

Income

		Need		
		Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Agree (%)
Age	Less than 25 years	15.9	7.9	76.2
	25 to 34 years	5.9	6.3	87.8
	35 to 45 years	6.3	3.5	90.3
	Over 45	14.5	7.9	77.6
Total		8.6	5.9	85.5
Number of children	No child	6.7	5.5	87.8
	1 child	8.6	6.9	84.5
	2 to 3 children	12.5	8.3	79.2
	4 to 5 children	4.3	2.9	92.9
	6 or more children	7.4		92.6
Total		8.6	6.0	85.4
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D	9.5	9.5	81.0
	401 to 800 K.D	9.2	3.5	87.2
	801 to 1200 K.D	5.9	2.9	91.2
	1201 to 1600 K.D	2.9	2.9	94.3
	Over 1601 K.D	12.5	2.5	85.0
Total		8.7	5.8	85.5

Additionally; personal characteristics like gender, marital status, and the level of education are not significantly related to the perceptions of the need for advertising.

In summary, at least some personal characteristics have an effect on consumer attitude towards the need of advertising, hence *Hypothesis Three* is partially supported.

7.6 Economic Effect

Five statements assessed consumer attitudes towards economic effects of advertising (See Table 7.15). Nearly three-quarters of respondents (seventy-three percent) trusted

that advertising supported the economy. Seventy-two percent believed advertising leads to better products. Sixty-seven percent argued that advertising is essential to prosperity. Furthermore, nearly three-quarters of respondents (seventy-three percent) disagreed with the statement that advertising is a 'waste of money'.

Table 7.15

Summary of Respondent Economic Effect of Advertising

	Statement	Strongly Agree-Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree-Strongly Disagree
1	Advertising is waste of money	12.8	14.1	73.1
2	Advertising increases the cost of goods and services	58.2	17.8	24
3	Advertising is essential to the prosperity of the economy	67.1	20.1	12.8
4	Advertising helps raise our standard of living	45	24.2	30.8
5	Advertising results in better products for the public in general	71.9	13.7	14.4
	Average Economic Effect	73.2	8.8	18

On the contrary, only forty-five percent of respondents associated advertising with an increased standard of living, while thirty-one percent felt advertising did not add to people's standard of living. Additionally, fifty-eight percent of respondents related advertising with increased costs of goods and services; only twenty-four percent disagreed with this belief.

Consequently, consumers in this sample appear to believe that advertising has a positive effect on the local economy. This result provides empirical support for the need for advertising literature, that advocates the effect of advertising to the economy

(Reid and Soley, 1982; Pollay and Mittal, 1994; Shavitt et al, 1998; Beard, 2003).

7.6.1 Test Hypothesis # 4

H4: "*Personal characteristics of consumers in Kuwait influence beliefs about the effect of advertising on the economy.*"

Table 7.16 and 7.17 present the analysis of variance tests by ranks (Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney), respectively for the economic effects of advertising by personal characteristics. It can be highlighted that only gender (p=0.43) is significant, with men (76.3%) holding more positive attitudes than women (69.5 %) (Table 7.18).

Table 7.16

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Economic Effect by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Marital Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	6.968	7.471	7.007	2.293	1.503
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.073	.058	.136	.807	.826

Table 7.17

Mann-Whitney U Test for Economic Effect by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Economic	Male	278	262.65	73015.50
	Female	223	236.48	52735.50
	Total	501		

	Economic
Mann-Whitney U	27759.500
Wilcoxon W	52735.500
Z*	-2.026
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.043

*The negative Z statistics value indicate that the rank sums are lower that their expected value.

Therefore, personal characteristics like age, marital status, the number of children, the level of education and income earned are not significantly related to the perceptions of the economic effect of advertising. Thus, *Hypothesis Four* is not supported.

Table 7.18

Cross Tabulation for Economic Effect by Gender

		Economic Effect		
		Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree
Gender	Male	17.3	6.5	76.3
	Female	18.8	11.7	69.5
Total		18.0	8.8	73.3

7.7 Need for Control to Advertising

Five Likert-type statements assessed consumer attitudes towards the need for control to be placed on advertising (See Table 7.19). Eighty-one percent of respondents agreed (or strongly agreed) with the need for control on advertising.

In particular, seventy-seven percent of the participants supported the statement that advertising aimed at children should be fully controlled. Seventy-one percent positively support the statement that, "*Harmful products should not be advertised.*" Moreover, fifty-nine percent agreed that running the same advertising repeatedly, over a short time period would be '*disturbing*' to the audience. Despite these concerns, only forty-four percent of respondents believe that there should be '*less advertising in general*' while thirty percent disagreed with this statement.

Table 7.19

Control over Advertising - Summary of Frequencies

	Statement	Strongly Agree-Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree Strongly Disagree
1	Advertising aimed at children should be controlled	77.3	9.6	13.1
2	Harmful products should not be advertised	70.5	8.2	21.4
3	There should be less advertising in general	43.9	26.6	29.6
4	Government regulations control of advertising is essential	77.9	13.2	8.9
5	Running same advertisement again and again in short period is disturbing people	59.1	16.2	24.7
	Average Need for Control over advertising	80.9	6.3	12.8

Thus, it can be concluded that respondents strongly endorsed a need for control over advertising. These results provide support for literature, which indicate the need for more control over advertising (Harris and Associated, 1976; Shavitt et al, 1998; Towler, 2001; Zhou et al, 2002; Beard, 2003).

7.7.1 Test Hypothesis # 5

H5: "*Personal characteristics of consumers in Kuwait influence feelings about the need of control over advertising.*"

Table 7.20 and 7.21 illustrate the analysis of variance tests by ranks (Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U) for the attitudes towards the need of control over advertising by different personal characteristics; which can be measured by the number of children in the family, income and gender, and the results are significant.

Table: 7.20

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Control over Advertising by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	2.621	1.994	28.643	3.784	65.037
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.454	.574	.000	.581	.000

There appears to be a significant (Chi-Square=28.643) at (p=0.00) negative relation between the number of children in the family, with the attitude towards the need for control over advertising. The more children in the family, the more respondents' attitudes toward the need for control in advertising, will be negative.

Furthermore, Table 7.20 outline that income is significantly (Chi-Square=65.037) (p=0.00) related to attitude towards the need for control over advertising. As shown in Table 7.22, people with incomes less than 400 Kuwaiti Dinar per month have a less negative attitude towards the need for control over advertising, compared to those who have incomes greater than 400 Kuwaiti Dinar per month. The majority of consumers in this group tend to be Eastern, and in general they hold positive attitudes.

Table 7.21

Mann-Whitney U Test for Control over Advertising by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Control	Male	270	258.79	69874.00
	Female	222	231.55	51404.00
	Total	492		

	Control
Mann-Whitney U	26651.000
Wilcoxon W	51404.000
Z*	-2.122
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.034

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower that their expected value.

Table 7.21 suggests a significant relationship between gender and attitudes towards control over advertising (p=0.034), with men favouring control, more than women (Table 7.22).

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Table 7.22

Cross Tabulation for Control over Advertising by Gender, Number of Children, And Income

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		Control			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Gender	Male	81.1	7.8	11.1	100.0
	Female	80.6	4.5	14.9	100.0
Total		80.9	6.3	12.8	100.0
Number of children	No child	80.7	7.0	12.3	100.0
	1 child	67.2	8.6	24.1	100.0
	2 to 3 children	79.6	5.6	14.8	100.0
	4 to 5 children	89.0	5.5	5.5	100.0
	6 or more children	96.2	3.8	-	100.0
Total		80.8	6.3	12.9	100.0
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D	71.4	7.8	20.9	100.0
	401 to 800 K.D	89.4	5.0	5.7	100.0
	801 to 1200 K.D	84.8	6.1	9.1	100.0
	1201 to 1600 K.D	94.4	2.8	2.8	100.0
	Over 1601 K.D	82.5	5.0	12.5	100.0
Total		81.0	6.1	12.9	100.0

In addition, other personal characteristics like age, marital status and education were not significantly related to the overall attitude towards the need for control over advertising. Therefore *Hypothesis Five* was partially supported.

7.8 Materialistic Effects of Advertising

Three statements measured consumer attitudes towards the beliefs about the materialistic effects of advertising (Table 7.23). All statements were strongly supported by the respondents, ranging from sixty percent who agreed that advertising often persuades people to buy things they do not need, to fifty percent agreeing that advertising confuses audiences by giving them increased choice options. Thus, it can

be concluded that respondents associated advertising with increased materialism amongst the population. The results are in line with previous research results (Haller, 1974; Larkin, 1977; Zhao and Shen, 1995; Zhou et al, 2002; Beard, 2003).

Table 7.23

Percentage of Frequency Responses to Advertising Promoting Materialism

	Statement	Strongly Agree-Agree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Disagree Strongly Disagree
1	Advertising often persuades people to buy things they do not need	59.5	12.8	27.7
2	Advertising confuses people with puzzled number of choices	49.7	20.0	30.3
3	Advertising makes people materialistic	56.7	22.5	20.8
	Average materialistic respondent	63.3	11.9	24.8

7.8.1 Test Hypothesis # 6

H6: "*Personal characteristics of consumers will influence their attitudes towards materialism in advertising*".

Table 7.24 and 7.25 present the Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests, indicating that personal characteristics like gender, age, martial status and education have no statistical significant result, therefore they have no apparent relationship to the attitude towards materialism in advertising.

Table: 7.24

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Materialism from Advertising by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	2.854	2.050	11.748	4.301	21.377
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.415	.562	.019	.507	.000

However, as shown in Table 7.24, the number of children in the family is significantly (Chi-Square=11.748) (p=0.019) related to perceptions of materialism in advertising. Families with more than 6 children will have more negative attitudes than families with fewer children (Table 7.26).

Table 7.25

Mann-Whitney U Test for Materialism from Advertising by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Materialistic	Male	283	264.32	74802.00
	Female	229	246.84	56526.00
	Total	512		

	Materialistic
Mann-Whitney U	30191.000
Wilcoxon W	56526.000
Z*	-1.340
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.180

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower than their expected value.

In addition, Table 7.24 further demonstrates that income is significantly (Chi-Square=21.377) (p=0.00) related to perceptions of materialism in advertising. Those earning less than 400 Kuwaiti Dinar (KD) per month; those with an income between 800 and 1200 KD, and those with an income over 1600 KD per month hold considerably less negative attitudes towards materialism in advertising than those who have other ranges of income (Table 7.26). Thus, *Hypothesis Six* has been partially supported.

Table 7.26

Cross Tabulation for Materialism of Advertising by Number of Children and Income

		Materialistic			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Number of children	No child	61.9	12.7	25.4	100.0
	1 child	55.9	16.9	27.1	100.0
	2 to 3 children	66.5	9.4	24.1	100.0
	4 to 5 children	60.3	15.1	24.7	100.0
	6 or more children	77.8	3.7	18.5	100.0
Total		63.3	12.0	24.7	100.0
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D	57.1	14.2	28.8	100.0
	401 to 800 K.D	72.2	7.6	20.1	100.0
	801 to 1200 K.D	66.2	10.3	23.5	100.0
	1201 to 1600 K.D	72.2	11.1	16.7	100.0
	Over 1601 K.D	57.5	17.5	25.0	100.0
Total		63.7	11.8	24.5	100.0

7.9 Ethics in Advertising

Six Likert-type statements measured perceptions of ethics in advertising (See Table 7.27). Respondents overwhelmingly questioned the ethics of advertising. Sixty-eight percent agreed that advertising contents seems 'silly' and 'ridiculous'. Seventy-three percent felt that advertising affects children more than adults, with fifty-six percent going further and agreeing that advertising actually exerts harmful influences on children. Fifty-four percent felt that advertising had 'undesirable' effects on women. However, respondents did not report strong agreement or disagreement with statements that "*advertising insults the intelligence of the ordinary consumer,*" and "*advertisements annoy me.*"

Table 7.27

Frequency Percentage for the Ethics of Advertising

	Statement	Strongly Agree – Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree – Strongly Disagree
1	Advertising insults the intelligence of the ordinary consumer	38.8	19.0	42.2
2	Some Advertising contents are silly & ridiculous	68.4	13.5	18.1
3	Advertising affects children more than adults	72.8	13.5	13.7
4	Advertising exerts harmful influence on children	56.1	23.1	20.8
5	Advertising has an undesirable effect on women	54.3	20.3	25.4
6	Advertisements annoy me	46.3	21.7	32.0
	Average ethic in advertising	71.2	7.2	21.6

This result provides significant support for the advertising literature that advocates questioning the ethics of advertising (Haller, 1974; Sandage and Leckenby, 1980; Andrews, 1989; Mittal, 1994; Zhao and Shen, 1995; Pollay et al, 1996; Bristol, 1998; Shavitt et al, 1998; Mehta, 2000; Zhang, 2000; Rettie et al, 2001; Towler, 2001; Zhou et al, 2002; Beard, 2003).

7.9.1 Test Hypothesis # 7

H7: *"Personal characteristics of consumers influence their perceptions of ethics in advertising."*

Table 7.28 suggests that, based on Kruskal-Wallis tests, age significantly (Chi-Square=9.211) at (p=0.027) influences perceptions of ethics within advertising. Table

7.30 presents cross tabulations showing consumers aged thirty-four years and younger holding more negative attitudes than those aged thirty-five and older. In addition, it can be observed that the number of children in the family significantly influences (Chi-Square=23.635) (p=.000) perceptions of ethics in advertising. The cross tabulation illustrated in Table 7.30 indicates that a consumer in a family with more than four children will have more negative attitudes towards the ethics of advertising, than a consumer in a family with fewer than four children.

Table: 7.28

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Ethics in Advertising by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	9.211	1.316	23.635	4.324	44.249
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.027	.725	.000	.504	.000

Furthermore, it can be observed that income significantly (Chi-Square=44.249) (p=0.000) relates to consumer attitudes towards ethics in advertising. Table 7.30 shows that consumers with monthly income between 400 to 800 Kuwaiti Dinar have more negative attitudes towards the ethics of adverting than consumers with other ranges of income.

Table 7.29

Mann-Whitney U Test for Ethics within Advertising by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Ethic	Male	267	257.87	68852.00
	Female	220	227.16	49976.00
	Total	487		

	Ethic
Mann-Whitney U	25666.000
Wilcoxon W	49976.000
Z*	-2.403
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.016

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower that their expected value.

Table 7.29, demonstrating the Mann-Whitney U test for ethics in advertising by gender, indicates a significant difference between the male and female attitude towards the ethical issue of advertising (p=.016). As presented in Table 7.30, females have less negative attitudes than males, even though both genders have negative attitudes towards the ethical issues in advertising.

Table 7.30

Cross Tabulation for Ethics of Advertising by Gender, Age, Number of Children and Income

		Ethic			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Gender	Male	72.3	6.7	21.0	100.0
	Female	70.0	7.7	22.3	100.0
Total		71.3	7.2	21.6	100.0
Age	Less than 25 years	78.9	7.0	14.0	100.0
	25 to 34 years	76.0	4.8	19.2	100.0
	35 to 45 years	65.3	8.3	26.4	100.0
	Over 45	64.1	11.5	24.4	100.0
Total		71.3	7.2	21.6	100.0
Number of children	No child	73.4	4.7	21.9	100.0
	1 child	60.0	1.8	38.2	100.0
	2 to 3 children	65.4	11.1	23.5	100.0
	4 to 5 children	80.8	9.6	9.6	100.0
	6 or more children	88.9	3.7	7.4	100.0
Total		71.2	7.2	21.6	100.0
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D	61.8	11.8	26.5	100.0
	401 to 800 K.D	81.2	2.2	16.7	100.0
	801 to 1200 K.D	76.1	6.0	17.9	100.0
	1201 to 1600 K.D	73.5	5.9	20.6	100.0
	Over 1601 K.D	77.5	2.5	20.0	100.0
Total		71.4	7.0	21.5	100.0

Generally, it can be pointed out that personal characteristics like marital status (p=0.725) and the level of education (p=0.504) have no significant relation to consumer attitudes towards the ethics of advertising.

In conclusion, it can be highlighted that social aspects play a role in people's perceptions of ethics within advertising; and these are affected by personal characteristics like gender, age, number of children in the family and monthly income. Therefore, *Hypothesis Seven* appears to be supported.

7.10 Credibility of Advertising

Three Likert-type items assessed consumer's beliefs about advertising credibility. The results of the respondents are presented in Table 7.31. The findings were inconclusive, as fewer than fifty percent of respondents expressed agreement or disagreement with any of these three items. Therefore, the sample appears to be divided with regard to beliefs about advertising credibility. Previous research indicates different results than the output of this research. Mittal (1994), Towler (2001) and Zhou et al (2002) have supported the Credibility of advertising, while Bauer and Greyser (1968), Hallers (1974), Harris and Associated (1976), Shavitt et al (1998) and Beard (2003) have criticised the Credibility of advertising.

Table 7.31

Frequency Percentage for Credibility of Advertising

	Statement	Strongly Agree - Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree – Strongly Disagree
1	I'm frequently misled by advertising	31.8	28.0	40.2
2	Advertising is exaggerating products	33.2	22.0	44.8
3	Advertising in general is truthful	34.7	27.6	37.7
	Average Credibility of advertising	44.9	15.2	39.9

7.10.1 Test Hypothesis # 8

H8:" *Different personal characteristics of consumers create divergent attitudes towards the credibility of advertising*"

Table 7.32 outlines the results of a Mann-Whitney U Test showing significant (p=0.00) gender differences in beliefs about advertising credibility. Women in general have a negative attitude (47.6 percent), while men have a positive attitude (48.7 percent). Thus, just under half of males surveyed trust that advertising is truthful, while under half of women surveyed believe that advertising is false and misleading.

Table 7.32

Mann-Whitney U Test for Advertising Credibility by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Credibility	Male	279	273.22	76229.00
	Female	227	229.26	52042.00
	Total	506		

	Credibility
Mann-Whitney U	26164.000
Wilcoxon W	52042.000
Z*	-3.390
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower that their expected value.

Table 7.33 presents the result of analysis of variance by ranks (Kruskal-Wallis), testing associating perceptions of credibility with personal characteristics. The number of children within the family is significant (Chi-Square=27.276) (p=0.000). The cross tabulation in Table 7.34 shows that consumers in a family with three or fewer children have positive attitudes, whilst consumers in families with four or more children will hold negative attitudes.

Table: 7.33

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Advertising Credibility by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	5.801	1.848	27.276	6.054	34.741
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.122	.605	.000	.301	.000

Table 7.33 further illustrates that monthly income is significantly (Chi-Square=34.741) (p=0.00) related to perceptions of advertising credibility. Respondents with an income in the range of 400 - 1600 Kuwaiti Dinar will have a negative attitude, while consumers with a monthly income less than 400 K.D, or an income over than 1600 K.D. per month will hold positive attitudes. Those consumers with positive attitudes tend to be either from the Eastern or Western groups, which have general positive attitudes regarding the credibility of advertising.

Table 7.34

Cross Tabulation for Advertising Credibility by Gender, Number of Children and Income

		Credibility			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Gender	Male	33.7	17.6	48.7	100.0
	Female	47.6	12.3	40.1	100.0
Total		39.9	15.2	44.9	100.0
Number of children	No child	41.2	15.3	43.5	100.0
	1 child	23.6	12.7	63.6	100.0
	2 to 3 children	33.9	15.8	50.3	100.0
	4 to 5 children	58.1	16.2	25.7	100.0
	6 or more children	53.6	14.3	32.1	100.0
Total		40.0	15.2	44.8	100.0
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D	28.5	15.9	55.6	100.0
	401 to 800 K.D	52.8	11.1	36.1	100.0
	801 to 1200 K.D	41.2	25.0	33.8	100.0
	1201 to 1600 K.D	50.0	11.1	38.9	100.0
	Over 1601 K.D	43.6	10.3	46.2	100.0
Total		39.9	15.0	45.1	100.0

Moreover, other personal characteristics like age, marital status and the level of education were not significantly related to perceptions of advertising credibility. Therefore, *Hypothesis Eight* appears to be partially supported

7.11 Informative Quality of Advertising

Three Likert-type items were designed to assess consumer attitudes towards the informative quality of advertising (See Table 7.35). Sixty-five percent of respondents believed that advertising not only presents information, but exaggerated claims, while eighty percent judged that advertising helps consumers making purchase decisions. Fewer than fifty percent agreed or disagreed that advertising "*presents a true picture of the products being advertised.*"

Table 7.35

Frequency Percentage for the Information Derived by the Consumer from Advertising

	Statement	Strongly Agree – Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree – Strongly Disagree
1	Advertising is exaggerating products	64.7	18.2	17.1
2	Advertising provides information that helps make purchase decision	80.1	12.0	7.9
3	Advertisement presents true picture of the products being advertised	34.4	26.9	38.7
	Average informatively of advertising	46.3	17.5	36.2

Therefore, respondents did not present an evident consensus with regard to advertising's information qualities. Previous studies also provide similar results, whilst some research points out that advertising is informative (Gallup, 1959; Shavitt et al, 1998; Mehta, 2000; Towler; 2001; Zhou et al, 2002), meanwhile, others have

shown that advertising is less informative (Hallers, 1974; Beard, 2003).

7.11.1 Test Hypothesis # 9

H9:*" Different personal characteristics of consumers create different attitudes towards information derived from advertising*"

Table 7.36 presents the Mann-Whitney U test for information derived from advertising by gender, found significant differences (p=0.004) between attitudes of men and women with regards to this hypothesis. As seen in Table 7.38, approximately 30 percent of men, compared to 43.4 percent of the women, disagreed with the statement, "Advertising is informative."

Table 7.36

Mann-Whitney U Test Information in Advertising by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Information	Male	286	274.28	78443.00
	Female	228	236.46	53912.00
	Total	514		

	Information
Mann-Whitney U	27806.000
Wilcoxon W	53912.000
Z*	-2.911
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.004

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower that their expected value.

Table 7.37 studied the influence of personal characteristics of this statement. In addition, the number of children in the consumer's family turns out to be significant (Chi-Square=19.852) (p=0.001). Respondents with four or more children in their family held negative attitudes towards information derived from advertising (51.4 percent and 57.1 percent disagree) compared to consumers with three or fewer children (50.6 percent, 49.1 percent, and 51.9 percent agree) (See Table 7.38).

Table: 7.37

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Information Derived from Advertising by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	.824	2.142	19.852	7.604	69.801
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.844	.543	.001	.179	.000

Table 7.37 also illustrates that monthly income is crucial (Chi-Square=69.801) (p=0.00). Consumers with an income less than 400 Kuwait Dinars have a positive attitude about the information derived from advertising (65.4 percent agree) compared to consumers with other monthly income levels, as shown in Table 7.38.

Table 7.38

Cross Tabulation for Information Derived by the Consumer from Advertising by Gender, Number of Children and Income

		Information			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Gender	Male	30.4	18.5	51.0	100.0
	Female	43.4	16.2	40.4	100.0
Total		36.2	17.5	46.3	100.0
Number of children	No child	29.8	18.2	51.9	100.0
	1 child	31.6	19.3	49.1	100.0
	2 to 3 children	34.9	14.5	50.6	100.0
	4 to 5 children	51.4	18.9	29.7	100.0
	6 or more children	57.1	25.0	17.9	100.0
Total		36.3	17.6	46.1	100.0
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D.	17.1	17.5	65.4	100.0
	401 to 800 K.D	55.1	15.0	29.9	100.0
	801 to 1200 K.D	46.4	24.6	29.0	100.0
	1201 to 1600 K.D	47.2	13.9	38.9	100.0
	Over 1601 K.D	47.5	17.5	35.0	100.0
Total		36.5	17.5	46.0	100.0

Furthermore, other personal characteristics like age, marital status, and education

were not significantly related to consumer attitudes towards the information derived from advertising. In conclusion, attitudes toward information derived from advertising seem related to gender differences; the number of children within the family and the level of income. Consequently, *Hypothesis nine* is partially supported.

7.12 Entertainment Qualities of Advertising

Two Likert-type items assessed consumer beliefs about the entertainment qualities of advertising. Fifty-eight percent of respondents agreed that advertising is fun to watch or listen to, whilst fifty-five percent agreed that advertising seems generally entertaining. Furthermore, the majority of the sample associated advertising with qualities of entertainment. These results provide significant support for the advertising literature that advocates that advertising entertains consumers (Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1992; Mittal, 1994; Shavitt et al, 1998; Towler, 2001).

Table 7.39

Frequency Percentage for the Entertaining Qualities from Advertising

	Statement	Strongly Agree – Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree - Strongly Disagree
1	There is a lot of fun to watch and listen to advertisements	58.3	22.8	18.9
2	Advertisement provides entertainment to consumer in general	54.7	24.6	20.7
	Average	59.6	20.6	19.8

7.12.1 Test Hypothesis # 10

H10:" *Different personal characteristics of consumers create different attitudes towards the entertainment value of advertising*"

Table 7.40 and 7.41 present the Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests for the entertainment derived from advertising by personal characteristics. The number of children within the family is significantly related to the beliefs that consumers hold about advertising and entertainment (Chi-square=14.171) at (p=0.007). Consumers with six or more children hold negative attitudes about the entertainment value of adverts (46.4% disagree) compared to other consumers who have positive attitudes as shown in Table 7.42

Table: 7.40

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Entertainment Derived from Advertising by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	5.505	1.701	14.171	5.606	30.874
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.138	.637	.007	.346	.000

Table 7.40 also shows that income significantly relates to the perceptions that consumers hold about the entertainment value of advertising (Chi-Square=8.55) (p=0.00) level. Seventy-two percent of respondents with an income of less than 400 Kuwaiti Dinar agreed that advertising incorporates entertainment, while other income brackets that respondents reported agreed less with this statement ranging from 45 to 58 percent.

In addition, other personal characteristics like gender, age, marital status and the level of education held have no statistically significant relationship to consumer attitudes towards the entertainment value of advertising.

Table 7.41

Mann-Whitney U Test Entertainment Value of Advertising by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Entertainment	Male	284	258.80	73500.00
	Female	230	255.89	58855.00
	Total	514		

	Entertainment
Mann-Whitney U	32290.000
Wilcoxon W	58855.000
Z*	-.227
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.820

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower than their expected value

In conclusion, attitudes towards the entertainment of advertising seem related only to the number of children within the family and the monthly income of the consumer. As a result, *Hypothesis Ten* appears to be partially supported.

Table 7.42

Cross Tabulation for the Entertainment Value of Advertising by the Number of Children within the Family and Total Income

		Entertainment			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Number of children	No child	18.9	17.8	63.3	100.0
	1 child	10.2	30.5	59.3	100.0
	2 to 3 children	18.0	21.5	60.5	100.0
	4 to 5 children	24.7	20.5	54.8	100.0
	6 or more children	46.4	14.3	39.3	100.0
Total		19.9	20.7	59.4	100.0
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D.	10.9	16.4	72.7	100.0
	401 to 800 K.D	26.7	21.9	51.4	100.0
	801 to 1200 K.D	27.5	27.5	44.9	100.0
	1201 to 1600 K.D	19.4	22.2	58.3	100.0
	Over 1601 K.D	34.2	21.1	44.7	100.0
Total		20.0	20.2	59.7	100.0

7.13 Effect of Advertising on Culture

Fifteen Likert-type items assessed consumer attitudes towards the effects of advertising on local culture. Specifically research explored (a) the effect of advertising on Kuwaiti value, (b) the effect of international advertising on local culture, and (c) the effect of advertising on religion (See Table 7.43).

Table 7.43

Frequency Percentage for the Effect of Advertising on Local Culture

	Statements	Strongly Agree - Agree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Disagree - Strongly Disagree
1	Advertising is not suitable for Kuwaiti culture	29.0	23.5	47.5
2	Foreign advertising on local market has negative effect on local culture	49.7	22.2	28.1
3	Advertising is a way to transfer new behaviours and values	53.5	23.8	22.7
4	Advertising is a way to communicate with other cultures	63.9	19.5	16.6
5	Kuwaiti values will not be affected by foreign values in advertising	35.7	23.7	40.6
6	International advertising is more entertaining than local ones	56.5	23.5	20.0
7	Advertising always gives advantage to foreign products over local products	60.8	16.8	22.4
8	International advertisement is more attractive for consumers than the local one	62.6	22.2	15.2
9	Using foreign words in local advertising will increase its effectiveness	44.7	25.4	29.9
10	Using foreign celebrities in local Advertising is desirable	50.2	23.0	26.8
11	Foreign advertising increase customer selfish behaviours	21.9	39.2	38.9
12	Foreign advertising effect people relation with each other	22.4	36.0	41.6
13	Advertisements have conflict with religion	34.3	28.4	37.3
14	It is not acceptable in our society to see women in advertisements	38.8	18.8	42.4
15	Women appearing with men in advertising increase promiscuity	45.3	20.7	34.0
	Average	29.1	4.5	66.4

7.13.1 Advertising and Local Values

Five Likert-type items measured the beliefs about the effects of advertising on local values (statements number 1-5 in Table 7.43). Just over half (fifty-three percent) of all respondents suggested that, *"Advertising is a way to transfer new behaviours and values."* Sixty-four percent agreed that, *"Advertising is a way to communicate with other cultures."* There was no consensus on the remaining statements. On average, around fifty-seven percent of the consumers agreed that advertising has some effect on the local culture. Thus, it can be concluded that Kuwaiti consumers associate advertising with negative effects on local culture and values. The results are similar to prior studies results (Reid and Soley, 1982; Pollay and Mittal, 1994).

Tables 7.44 and 7.45 represent the Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests for the effects of advertising on local value by personal characteristics. The age of the respondent is significant, (Chi-Square=16.45) (p=0.001), hence the sample that is over 45 years old has a positive attitude, while other age groups hold negative attitudes. In summary, consumers below the age of forty five believe that advertising has a negative impact on local values.

Table: 7.44

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Effects of Advertising on Local Values by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	16.450	3.987	20.897	3.202	26.484
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.001	.263	.000	.669	.000

Moreover, the number of children within a consumer's family significantly (Chi-Square=20.897) (p=0.000) relates to the responses to this question. Families with more than four children will generally hold stronger negative attitudes than other

groups.

Table 7.45

Mann-Whitney U Test for the Effects of Advertising on Local Values by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Value	Male	282	257.07	72492.50
	Female	228	253.56	57812.50
	Total	510		

	Value
Mann-Whitney U	31706.500
Wilcoxon W	57812.500
Z*	-.269
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.788

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower than their expected value.

Consumers with a monthly income between 400 and 1600 Kuwaiti Dinar have significantly (Chi-Square=26.484) at (p=0.000) negative attitudes than those consumers with a monthly income over 1600 KD, or those with an income of less than 400 Kuwaiti Dinar per month (See Table 7.46).

Table 7.46
Cross Tabulation for the Effects of Advertising on Local Values by Age, Number of Children, and Income

		Value			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Age	Less than 25 years	61.3	16.1	22.6	100.0
	25 to 34 years	55.8	14.7	29.5	100.0
	35 to 45 years	63.4	13.1	23.4	100.0
	Over 45	44.3	8.9	46.8	100.0
Total		56.9	13.5	29.6	100.0
Number of children	No child	51.7	12.9	35.4	100.0
	1 child	49.2	15.3	35.6	100.0
	2 to 3 children	55.8	12.8	31.4	100.0
	4 to 5 children	77.8	12.5	9.7	100.0
	6 or more children	60.7	21.4	17.9	100.0
Total		57.0	13.6	29.5	100.0
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D	48.4	14.3	37.3	100.0
	401 to 800 K.D	61.4	15.2	23.4	100.0
	801 to 1200 K.D	63.2	11.8	25.0	100.0
	1201 to 1600 K.D	77.8	8.3	13.9	100.0
	Over 1601 K.D	56.4	7.7	35.9	100.0
Total		56.8	13.3	29.9	100.0

Additionally, other personal characteristics like gender, marital status and the level of education do not seem significantly associated with attitudes towards the effect of advertising on local values.

7.13.2 International Advertising Effect

Seven Likert-type items assessed consumer attitudes regarding the effect of international advertising on local culture (statements number 6-12 in Table 7.43). Approximately half the respondents agreed that using foreign celebrities in local advertising is desirable. Fifty-seven percent of respondents agreed that international adverts are more "*entertaining*" than local advertisements. Sixty-one percent of respondents agreed that advertising "*always*" offers advantages to foreign products over local products. Finally, sixty-three percent of respondents agree that Kuwaiti consumers find international advertisements more "*attractive*" than local advertisements. Fewer than half the respondents strongly agreed or disagreed with the remaining three items in this category. Therefore, respondents appear to agree or strongly agree (66.2 percent) that international advertising negatively influences local culture. It is crucial to mention that few studies have reported the effect of international advertising in local culture (Pollay et al, 1992; Zhou et al, 2002). The results found in the current research are similar to outcomes found in previous research.

Furthermore, consumers in Kuwait believe that international advertising has a negative effect on local culture as reported in Table 7.10, especially social customs and language. Table 7.47 and 7.48 represent the Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests for the association of international advertising and its effects concerning

consumers' personal characteristics. Significantly fewer consumers above forty-five years old report a negative attitude compared to other age groups (Chi-Square=14.003) (p=0.003) (Table 7.49). Consumers having 4 or 5 children within their family will have notably (Chi-Square=10.42) at (p=0.034) more negative attitudes than consumers with other numbers of children, although all report negative attitudes.

Table: 7.47

Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effects of International Advertising on Culture by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	14.003	2.131	10.420	10.918	5.681
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.003	.546	.034	.053	.224

Hence, other personal characteristics like gender, marital status, education and income have no statistically significant impact on consumer's attitudes.

Table 7.48

Mann-Whitney U Test for the Effects of International Advertising on Culture by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
International Advertising	Male	277	249.32	69061.00
	Female	224	253.08	56690.00
	Total	501		

	International Advertising
Mann-Whitney U	30558.000
Wilcoxon W	69061.000
Z*	-.290
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.772

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower than their expected value**.**

Table 7.49

Cross Tabulation for the Effects of International Advertising on Culture by Age

and Number of Children

		International Advertising			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Age	Less than 25 years	67.2	16.4	16.4	100.0
	25 to 34 years	68.7	5.5	25.8	100.0
	35 to 45 years	69.0	7.6	23.4	100.0
	Over 45	53.8	15.4	30.8	100.0
Total		66.3	9.0	24.8	100.0
Number of children	No child	64.4	9.0	26.6	100.0
	1 child	56.1	15.8	28.1	100.0
	2 to 3 children	67.5	7.8	24.7	100.0
	4 to 5 children	76.4	8.3	15.3	100.0
	6 or more children	63.0	3.7	33.3	100.0
Total		66.1	9.0	24.8	100.0

7.13.3 Advertising Effect on Religion

Three Likert-type items assessed attitude towards the effect of advertising on religion (statements number 13, 14 and 15 in Table 7.43). Although religion plays a crucial role in the lives of Kuwaiti residents, the sample was divided in response to these questions. Less than half expressed strong agreement or disagreement with any statement regarding the influence of advertising on religion. The outcome of this research yielded different results than previous studies that advocate that advertising appears to influence religion (Hassan, 1990; Ali, 1994; Al-Makaty et al, 1996; Waller, 2000).

Despite the statement that advertising has a conflict with religion; the results did not show any support or rejection of this hypothesis by consumers in Kuwait. It appears that diverse personal characteristics have a different feeling in this regard.

Moreover, Table 7.50 and 7.51 represent the analysis of variance tests by ranks (Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U) for the effect of advertising on religion by personal characteristics; which shows that age is significant (Chi-Square=15.499) (p=.001) . People aged more than 45 years have positive attitudes than the other age groups as seen by Table 7.52.

Table: 7.50

Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effects of Advertising on Religion by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	15.499	1.471	26.760	13.828	37.115
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.001	.689	.000	.017	.000

Additionally, Table 7.50, illustrates that the number of children within a family is significant (Chi-Square=26.76) (p=0.000). Respondents with four or more children were more likely to report negative attitudes towards the effect of advertising on religion compared to others. It is prudent to remember that most respondents with less than four children come from less conservative societies: 52.5 percent of the consumers with no children and 64.4 percent with one child are from the Eastern group.

Table 7.51

Mann-Whitney U Test for the Effects of Advertising on Religion by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Religion	Male	281	255.61	71826.50
	Female	226	252.00	56951.50
	Total	507		

	Religion
Mann-Whitney U	31300.500
Wilcoxon W	56951.500
Z*	-.277
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.782

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower than their expected value.

Furthermore, education is also momentous (Chi-Square=13.828) (p=0.017). Table 7.52 demonstrates a positive relationship between education and attitude towards the effects of advertising on religion. The more consumers are educated, the more the respondent has a positive attitude towards the advertising. Consumers with high education (university or post graduate) have a much more positive attitude compared to those consumers with an average education or less education which show a negative attitude. In addition, consumers who are less educated have a stronger negative attitude towards the effect of advertising on religion. It appears that the consumer with less education tends to be more conservative than other groups, so they trust that any change within a society's values will have a negative effect on religion.

Table 7.52

Cross Tabulation for the Effects of Advertising on Religion by Age, Number of Children, Education and Income

		Religion			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Age	Less than 25 years	45.9	19.7	34.4	100.0
	25 to 34 years	49.1	12.2	38.7	100.0
	35 to 45 years	43.8	12.3	43.8	100.0
	Over 45	30.8	7.7	61.5	100.0
Total		44.4	12.4	43.2	100.0
Number of children	No child	40.2	11.7	48.0	100.0
	1 child	29.3	22.4	48.3	100.0
	2 to 3 children	40.4	12.3	47.4	100.0
	4 to 5 children	68.1	6.9	25.0	100.0
	6 or more children	66.7	11.1	22.2	100.0
Total		44.4	12.4	43.2	100.0
Education	Illiterate or elementary	66.7	33.3		100.0
	Intermediate	44.4	16.7	38.9	100.0
	Secondary	44.9	19.1	36.0	100.0
	Diploma (after secondary)	55.5	10.3	34.2	100.0
	University	37.2	10.6	52.3	100.0
	Master or Ph.D.	38.7	12.9	48.4	100.0
Total		44.4	12.5	43.2	100.0
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D	31.3	13.4	55.3	100.0
	401 to 800 K.D	57.0	12.7	30.3	100.0
	801 to 1200 K.D	58.0	11.6	30.4	100.0
	1201 to 1600 K.D	47.2	13.9	38.9	100.0
	Over 1601 K.D	44.7	2.6	52.6	100.0
Total		44.4	12.2	43.4	100.0

Consumers with a monthly income more than 1600 Kuwaiti Dinar, or those who earn less than 400 Kuwaiti Dinar have positive attitudes, whilst other consumers out of this range hold negative attitudes towards the effect of advertising on religion (Chi-Square=37.115) (p=0.000) (See Table 7.50). This can be explained as 79.8 percent of consumers with a monthly income less than 400 Kuwaiti Dinars are from the Eastern group, where they have gained positive attitudes towards advertising in general.

Personal characteristics like gender and marital status do not appear to be related to the consumer's attitudes towards the effect of advertising on religion.

7.13.4 Test Hypothesis # 11

H11:" *Consumers in Kuwait will feel that advertising in general has a negative effect on Kuwaiti culture which can be associated with the overall attitude towards advertising, especially the effects of advertising on the Kuwaiti values , language and religion.*"

It has been outlined that Kuwait has been characterised as a conservative society where values and religion play a key role in day-to-day behaviour. As noted in Chapter Four, Hofstede believed Kuwaiti citizens were especially sensitive to cultural issues. However, attitudes and values may have changed since Hofstede's published his research.

Moreover, in a conservative society, citizens cannot ignore attitudes regarding the effect of advertising on local culture. This hypothesis was presented to examine whether attitudes towards advertising are affected by attitudes towards the general

effect of advertising on local culture or not. The section is divided into three elements; the effects on local values, the effects of international advertising, the effects on religion. Each component will be tested separately.

Table 7.53 and 7.54 present Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests for the effects of advertising on local culture. Furthermore, the results show that age (p=0.00), the number of children within a family (p=0.00), the level of education (p=0.027), and income (p=0.00) are all statistically significant.

Table: 7.53

Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effects of Advertising on Culture by Personal Characteristics

	Age	Martial Status	Number of Children	Education	Income
Chi-Square	24.116	3.928	28.772	12.602	24.609
Df	3	3	4	5	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.269	.000	.027	.000

Table 7.54

Mann-Whitney U Test the Effects of Advertising on Culture by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Culture	Male	268	244.96	65648.00
	Female	217	240.59	52207.00
	Total	485		

	Culture
Mann-Whitney U	28554.000
Wilcoxon W	52207.000
Z*	-.342
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.733

*The negative Z statistics value indicates that the rank sums are lower than their expected value.

Table 7.55 demonstrates that consumers over 45 years old have positive attitudes (52 percent agree) compared to other age groups. As previously explained, 71.3 percent of

the over 45 year old consumers have a college or higher educational level, and thus have a greater understanding of the role of advertising. Moreover, 78.8 percent of them are from less conservative cultures (i.e. 53.8 percent Eastern and 25 percent Western).

Table 7.55

Cross Tabulation for the Effects of Advertising on Culture by Age, Number of Children, Education and Income

		Culture			Total
		Disagree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Agree (%)	
Age	Less than 25 years	80.0	5.0	15.0	100.0
	25 to 34 years	71.1	1.9	27.0	100.0
	35 to 45 years	66.2	7.9	25.9	100.0
	Over 45	42.7	5.3	52.0	100.0
Total		66.4	4.5	29.1	100.0
Number of children	No child	61.8	4.6	33.5	100.0
	1 child	58.9	3.6	37.5	100.0
	2 to 3 children	65.2	3.7	31.1	100.0
	4 to 5 children	84.1	5.8	10.1	100.0
	6 or more children	73.1	7.7	19.2	100.0
Total		66.4	4.5	29.1	100.0
Education	Illiterate or elementary	100.0	-	-	100.0
	Intermediate	77.8	-	22.2	100.0
	Secondary	66.7	5.7	27.6	100.0
	Diploma (after secondary)	72.8	5.1	22.1	100.0
	University	62.2	3.8	34.0	100.0
	Master or Ph.D.	54.8	6.5	38.7	100.0
Total		66.3	4.6	29.2	100.0
Monthly income	Less than 400 K.D	61.5	3.9	34.6	100.0
	401 to 800 K.D	74.1	3.7	22.2	100.0
	801 to 1200 K.D	68.7	6.0	25.4	100.0
	1201 to 1600 K.D	71.4	11.4	17.1	100.0
	Over 1601 K.D	57.9	-	42.1	100.0
Total		66.5	4.4	29.2	100.0

Table 7.55 outlines that consumers having four or more children will have more negative attitudes towards cultural influences in advertising, than those families with fewer children. In general, fewer consumers with higher education levels hold less negative attitudes than those consumers with less education which hold more negative attitude. Consumer with range of income between 400-800 and 1200-1600 K.D hold more negative attitudes in this regard. In contrast, personal characteristics like gender

and marital status do not appear to be having association with the effect of advertising on culture.

In general, it can be mentioned that personal characteristics have an effect on consumer attitude towards the effect of advertising on culture; hence *Hypothesis number eleven* is supported.

7.14 Advertising as Source Influencing Purchase Decision

Respondents were asked to rank four sources that influenced their product choice decisions (See Table 7.56). Personal sources play major roles during the product selection process: 51.6 percent of the respondents rank a reference group as the number one influence on a purchase decision, but only 26.6 percent consider advertising as the first source of influence. Advertising was selected by 28.6 percent of the respondents as the second source of influence, catalogues were selected as the third source of influence with 29.6 percent, and the salesman as the fourth supply with 31 percent.

Table 7.56

Sources that Influence Consumers Decisions when they Choose a Product

	First		Second		Third		Fourth		Not answer	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Advertising	131	(26.6)	141	(28.6)	118	(23.9)	63	(12.8)	40	(8.1)
Personal Sources*	252	(51.6)	78	(16.0)	65	(13.3)	56	(11.5)	37	(7.6)
Catalogues	83	(17.1)	109	(22.4)	144	(29.6)	109	(22.4)	41	(8.4)
Salesman	61	(12.7)	92	(19.1)	118	(24.5)	149	(31.0)	61	(12.7)

* Opinion Leader, Reference Group, Word of Mouth, Family Member and Friend

Moreover, consumers tend to check advertising-driven information against information provided by personal sources. These findings are in consistent with the previous research of Ali (1994), Shavitt et al (1998) and Zhou et al (2002).

7.15 Summary of the Finding

The findings of the statistical analysis and the hypotheses test, throughout this chapter are summarised as follows:

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis identified eight underlying dimensions of consumer attitudes to advertising: religion and values, ethics and materialism, need and economy, credibility, entertainment, need for control, value and the international advertising effect. Each dimension was explored using the Likert-type scale items in a questionnaire.

Overall Attitude Towards Advertising

In general, consumers in Kuwait have negative attitudes towards advertising. Eastern consumers have positive attitudes, while Western and Arabic consumers have negative attitudes. Therefore, nationality or a cultural background appears to be related to the overall attitudes held by consumers of advertising (see Table 7.57).

From these findings, it follows that culture plays a key role in shaping consumer attitudes towards advertising and this should be taken in to consideration during the design of any advertising campaign. However, a country like Kuwait enjoys a diversity of consumers from different cultural backgrounds, with the native Kuwaiti

citizens comprising of only 45 percent of the population.

Table 7.57

Consumers Attitude towards Advertising Dimensions By Nationality

Attitude dimensions	Kuwait	Eastern	Western	Average
Need	Positive	Positive	Positive	Positive
Economic	Positive	Positive	-	Positive
Control	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Materialistic	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Ethic	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Credibility	Negative	Positive	Positive	-
Informative	Negative	Positive	-	-
Entertainment	Positive	Positive	-	Positive
Culture	Negative	Negative	Positive	Negative
Value	Negative	-	-	Negative
International	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Religion	Negative	Positive	Positive	-
Overall	Negative	Positive	Negative	Negative

Attitudes Towards Advertising Components

The sample demonstrated positive attitudes regarding the need for advertising, the economic effect of advertising and the entertainment qualities of advertising. On the contrary, the sample supported control over advertising and associated advertising with materialistic values, a lack of ethics and negative effects on local culture and value systems. The sample was divided in their attitudes towards advertising credibility, advertising as an information tool, and advertising influence on religion (See Table 7.57).

220

Personal Characteristics Effect

The statistical results identified significant differences in attitudes towards advertising based on certain personal characteristics (See Tables 7.58 and 7.59). These findings provided appear to be in line with the advertising literature that advocates attitude may not be consistent across demographic groups (Polly and Mittal, 1994; Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996; Shavitt et al, 1998; Zhou et al, 2002).

Table 7.58

Summary of Significant Tests Results for Attitudes Towards the Advertising Dimension by Personal Characteristics*

Attitude Factors	Gender	Age	Martial	Children	Education	Income
Need	0.119	0.012***	0.175	0.008***	0.327	0.044**
Economic	0.043**	0.073	0.058	0.136	0.807	0.826
Control	0.034**	0.454	0.574	0.000***	0.581	0.000***
Materialistic	0.180	0.415	0.562	0.019***	0.507	0.000***
Ethic	0.016***	0.027**	0.725	0.000***	0.504	0.000***
Credibility	0.001***	0.122	0.605	0.000***	0.301	0.000***
Informative	0.004***	0.844	0.543	0.001***	0.179	0.000***
Entertainment	0.820	0.138	0.637	0.007***	0.346	0.000***
Culture	0.733	0.000***	0.269	0.000***	0.027**	0.000***
Value	0.788	0.001***	0.263	0.000***	0.669	0.000***
International	0.772	0.003***	0.546	0.034**	0.053	0.224
Religion	0.782	0.001***	0.689	0.000***	0.017**	0.000***
Overall	0.017**	0.019**	0.671	0.000***	0.104	0.000***

* Two tests have been used, Mann-Whitney U test for Age and Kruskal-Wallis test for other personal characteristics.
** Significant (p<0.05)
*** Highly significant (p<0.01)

Marital Status

It is worth mentioning that martial status is the only personal characteristic that did not produce any statistical significant results for any of attitudes towards advertising components, as well as the overall attitudes towards advertising.

Gender

The results indicate that men and women differ in their overall attitudes towards advertising, especially for their views on the Credibility and the information derived from it. Their responses were similar regarding the attitudes toward need; the entertainment value (positive); materialistic effect of advertising; the effect on local culture; effect on local values; and the international advertising effect (negative)

Age

Consumers of different ages will have different attitudes towards advertising. Age groups are diverse in their needs for advertising, ethics, and effect on culture. Different age groups may reflect strong differences in the value systems to which the older and younger generations were socialised. It is also possible that the advertisers targeting their advertising to a younger generation have produced advertising that is congruent with the tastes of the young but not the old (Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996; Zhou et al, 2002)

Education

Different levels of education have no effect on consumer attitudes towards advertising except for the effect of advertising on local culture. The impact of education levels on attitudes towards advertising may be attributed to the fact that those respondents who

are more highly educated tend to be more open to change than those with lower education.

Table 7.59

Attitudes Towards Advertising by Personal Characteristics

Attitude dimensions	Gender	Age	Marital	Children	Education	Income
Need	All positive	All positive (between 25 to 45 more positive)	All positive	All positive (4 or more children more positive)	All positive	All positive (between 800 K.D. and 1600 K.D. more positive)
Economic	All positive (Male more positive)	All positive	All positive	All positive	All positive	All positive
Control	All negative (male more favor of control)	All negative	All negative	All negative (more children support more control)	All negative	All negative (less than 400 K.D. less negative)
Materialistic	All negative	All negative	All negative	All negative (more than 6 more negative)	All negative except elementary	All negative (400-800 and 1200-1600 more negative)
Ethic	All negative (male more negative)	All negative (less than 35 more negative)	All negative	All negative (4 or more children more negative)	All negative	All negative (400-800 more negative)
Credibility	Male positive, female negative	Over than 45 years positive, less than 25 years negative	Married positive, divorced and single negative	3 children or less positive, 4 or more negative	Elementary and diploma negative, others positive	Less than 400 KD. Or over than 1600 positive, others negative
Informative	Male positive	Less than 25 years positive	Divorced negative, others positive	3 children or less positive, 4 or more negative	All positive	Less than 400 positive, others negative
Entertainment	All positive	All positive	All positive	5 children or less positive, 6 or more negative	All positive	All positive
Culture	All negative	Over than 45 years positive, others negative	All negative	All negative (4 or more children more negative)	All negative (elementary more negative)	All negative (400-800 and 1200-1600 more negative)
Value	All negative	Over than 45 years positive, others negative	All negative	All negative (4 or more children more negative)	All negative	All negative (less than 400 and grater than 1600 less negative)
International	All negative	All negative (over 45 less negative)	All negative	All negative (4-5 more negative)	All negative	All negative
Religion	-	Over than 45 years positive, less than 35 years negative	Divorced negative, widows positive	3 children or less positive, 4 or more negative	University or higher positive, others negative	Less than 400 KD. Or over than 1600 KD. positive, others negative

223

Number of Children

The numbers of children within the respondent's family has an effect on that consumer's attitude towards advertising as well as each of the attitudes towards advertising components, except for economic reasons. Negative attitudes seem associated with the higher numbers of children within a family.

Income

Differing levels of income produce diverse attitudes towards advertising as well as to each attitude towards advertising components, except for economic reasons. Consumers with low incomes (less than 400 K.D. per month) and high incomes (greater than 1600 K.D. per month) will be more positive, than those who earn between 400-1600 K.D.

Hypothesis Tests

Eleven hypotheses have been set to examine the consumers' attitudes towards advertising, the effects of cultural background on consumer attitudes, the effect of advertising on local culture, and the consumers' attitudes towards advertising components. Two hypotheses have not been supported (Hypothesis 1 and 4), six hypotheses have been partially supported (Hypothesis 3, 5, 6, 8, 9 and 10), and three hypotheses have been supported (Hypothesis 2, 7 and 11). The summary of the Hypothesis is presented in Table 7.60.

Table 7.60

Summary of Hypothesis Results

Hypothesis	Statistical Results	Result
H1: Consumers in Kuwait have a positive attitude towards advertising in general.	overall consumers attitude statements respond indicate that 60.9 percent have negative attitude toward advertising	Not Supported
H2: Culture has an effect in shaping consumer attitude towards advertising. Thus, people from differing cultural backgrounds diversify in their perceptions of advertising, despite the fact that they live in the same society.	Kuwaiti and western consumers have negative attitude while eastern consumer have positive attitude	Supported
H3: Personal characteristics of consumers in Kuwait will be associated with beliefs about the need for advertising.	Personal characteristics like Gender, marital status, and education have no effect to consumer's attitude towards the need of advertising. While age, number of children in the family and, income have significant effect	Partially Supported
H4: Personal characteristics of consumers in Kuwait influence the beliefs about the effects of advertising on the economy.	No significant statistical result had shown different between personal characteristics except for gender at 0.05 level.	Not Supported
H5: Personal characteristics of consumers in Kuwait influence feelings about the need of control over advertising.	Gender, number of children within the family, and income have significant statistical result	Partially Supported
H6: Personal characteristics of consumers will influence their attitudes towards materialism in advertising	Only personal characteristics like number of children and monthly income have significant differences	Partially Supported
H7: Personal characteristics of consumers influence their perceptions of ethics in advertising	ethics in advertising are effected by personal characteristics like gender, age, number of children, and monthly income	Supported
H8: Different personal characteristics of consumers create divergent attitudes towards the credibility of advertising.	Gender, number of children and income have significant statistical result	Partially Supported

Hypothesis	Statistical Results	Result
H9: Different personal characteristics of consumers create different attitudes towards information derived from advertising	Informatively of advertising affected by gender differences, number of children within the family and level of income of the consumer.	Partially Supported
H10: Different personal characteristics of consumers create different attitudes towards entertainment value of advertising	attitude towards the entertainment of advertising affected by number of children within the family and monthly income of the consumer	Partially Supported
H11: Consumers in Kuwait will feel that advertising in general has a negative effect on Kuwaiti culture which can be associated with the overall attitude towards advertising, especially the effect of advertising to Kuwait: values, language and religion.	Different Personal characteristics have different attitude towards the effect of advertising in local culture. Age, number of children, and education, are associated with significant differences in attitudes toward the advertising.	Supported

<h1 style="text-align: center;">Chapter Eight</h1>

<h2 style="text-align: center;">Conclusion</h2>

8.1 Introduction

It has been outlined that like consumers all over the world, residents of Kuwait interact with hundreds of advertisements every day. Thus advertising has become an important source of information and entertainment and is a crucial part of everyday life. Yet until now, there has been no comprehensive analysis to understand consumer attitudes towards advertising in Kuwait. Additionally, like many countries, Kuwaiti inhabitants represent more than one culture. However, research has not examined the effect of cultural background on advertising when representatives of different cultures reside, within the same country.

Moreover, this chapter will discuss the conclusions drawn from the hypotheses and research question. It will further explain the limitations of the study and identify areas for future study. This chapter is divided into four sections. Part one summarises findings of the study as related to the objective and research questions. Part two presents the contribution of this study in regards to knowledge. Part three identifies the limitations of the study. Finally, Part four discusses implications for future research and illustrates recommendations for researchers in the field of advertising in general, and consumer attitudes in particular.

8.2 Objectives and Conclusions

The purpose of this study was designed to fill gaps in research and obtain better understanding of Kuwaiti residents' perception of advertising and its effects on everyday life and activity.

8.2.1 Attitude Towards Advertising in General

The first research objective involved investigating the attitude of Kuwaiti consumers towards advertising in general. Findings suggest that consumers in Kuwait tend to hold unfavourable approaches but take a moderately approving view of advertising on several specific dimensions. For example, Kuwaiti consumers are inclined to believe that advertising is needed to sell products; has a positive effect on the economy, and is enjoyable. Furthermore, on the contrary, Kuwaitis support more government regulation of advertising, and presume that advertising increases materialistic behaviour, the question of ethics of advertising practices and associate advertising with negative effects on local culture and values.

8.2.2 Effect of Culture in the Attitude Towards Advertising

The second research objective of this study explored the relationship between diverse cultural backgrounds and beliefs towards advertising. The results indicated that residents from differing cultural backgrounds do entertain divergent attitudes, with Kuwaiti and Western consumers reporting a predominantly negative belief in comparison to Eastern consumers. Hence, this finding may strongly support the need for localisation or regionalisation of advertising within a multi-cultural country.

8.2.3 Effect of Advertising on Local Culture

The third objective of the research was to explore consumer perceptions regarding the effect of advertising on local culture. The results suggested that consumers from collective cultures (Kuwaiti and Eastern consumers) hold negative views about the effect of advertising on the local culture whilst consumers from individual cultures (Western), carry a more moderate attitude. In addition, consumers from liberal

cultures (Western and Eastern consumers) maintain a moderated attitudes about the effects of advertising on local values and believes, that advertising will not negatively influence their religion. However, individuals from more conservative cultures hold opposite views.

8.2.4 The Personal Characteristics Effect

The fourth objective of the study was to assess the influence of personal characteristics on attitudes towards advertising. The findings suggest that education has the least effect on attitudes to advertising, however the number of children in the family and the monthly income have the strongest effect. Marital status did not occur related to any aspects of attitude.

In summary, the results suggest that negative attitudes seem to be associated with characteristics of being female, under forty-five years, having more than one child, with limited education (diploma or intermediate), and an income greater than 400 Kuwaiti dinar per month.

8.3 Contribution of the Study

This study contributes to the knowledge in three important areas of consumer behaviour research. Firstly, it advances to a better understanding of consumer attitudes in Kuwait, a prudent Middle East market. Secondly, it increases the comprehension of how cultural background influences general attitudes towards advertising and, finally, it enhances the understanding of how advertising affects local culture.

Moreover, the given negative attitudes towards advertising in a general context are combined with the great impact of advertising in Kuwaiti consumers day to day activity; and some recommendations are suggested. Advertisers should increase their efforts to change consumer attitudes in a more positive direction, as a negative attitudes can incline the belief towards a particular advertisement, and ultimately determine an attitude to specific brands.

It has been outlined that researchers found that the consumer attitudes in the West have increasingly adopted a more negative connotation over the years. Thus, due to the Western influence in Kuwait in the last two decades, it is not surprising that the Kuwaiti and Western consumers share common attitudes. Additionally, this unfavourable attitude may become stronger over the years, due to the Westernised influence in advertising in the consumer life style. It could further impact advertising effectiveness and efficiency as a marketing communication tool. The affect of attitude towards advertising in a general context on advertising effectiveness, is an important area of study, as the results have implications for the advertising industry.

Furthermore, this research implies that demographics and culture contribute to attitudes toward advertising. Understanding these differences will impose a more effective planning and targeting of advertising campaigns. This study asserts the advertisers to redesign their campaign strategy to target the section of the family, or the family member on how to have an enhanced positive belief. Specifically, the study provides empirical support for a localisation approach for advertising; in particular in a nation like Kuwait having consumers from different cultural backgrounds. Moreover, culture differences such as language, religion and values should be

respected. This approach incorporates the use of the prevalent local language, customs, symbols, images and music that is most recognisable to the consumer.

There is evidence in this study that advertising will negatively affect the local culture, and this influence will inevitably reshape local culture in one way or another. Three aspects of local culture will be heavily affected by advertising. Firstly, advertising will increase the materialistic approach in consumers behaviours through persuading people to buy things they do not need, and through encouraging people to purchase products more than their actual needs. Secondly, advertising escalating the Western value in local culture through using foreign words in the advertising or through using foreign celebrities as a model in advertising, will make younger consumers, try as much as possible to copy their behaviours and styles. Finally, advertising will have a remarkable influence in local language with the augment use of foreign word within the locally made advertisements or through using international advertisements.

It has been outlined that there are findings which can be considered as positive findings in the study regarding the affect of advertising on local culture. The study illustrates that advertising will have no affect on religion, and no evidence was found that advertising will increase promiscuity or relationships between men and women. Moreover, no verification has been mentioned that advertising will influence consumer behaviour by increasing their selfishness behaviour. Value, one of the culture aspects, is not affected by advertising.

The research project also provides evidence that advertising should reflect the culture of the targeted consumer rather than contemplating the advertising originator's culture

(refer to section 7.13 for more detail). Another area of findings which should not be ignored and is considered as an important area for advertising practitioners, is that this study will help consumers to better understand the role of advertising in the market place. An advert that is honest, fresh, entertaining and informative, will make advertising a more viable part of the marketing mix.

8.4 Limitation of the Study

It is applicable to all studies, that some limitations can be identified, mostly related to the questionnaire and the sample. This study represents one of the earliest research projects conducted in Kuwait about consumer attitudes towards advertising, as the researcher faced unique challenges. There was no previous research in this area, therefore, the researcher attempted to find studies carried out in countries similar to Kuwaiti environment and culture. It has been stated that six limitations can be identified.

Limitation #1: During data collection the researcher sought responses from consumers ranging in age from fifteen to sixty. Hence, consumers younger than fifteen or older than sixty were not included. Therefore, generalising the result of this study cannot be accurate, as the study dropped two age categories, which their opinions might have had an effect on the attitudes towards advertising.

Limitation #2: Financial considerations motivated the researcher to accept a sample size that equals 520 respondents. The non-probability sample technique required as many respondents to participate in the study as possible, in order to provide better

results. That would have necessitated considerably more respondents, forcing the researcher to incur additional expenses.

Limitation #3: Respondents were not offered throughout the questionnaire, the option to answer open-ended questions to express their feelings and attitudes, using their own words. Therefore, analysing and interpretation of data beyond statistical analysis was not possible.

Limitation #4: Respondents often resisted completing the questionnaire, citing time constraints. Although the researcher hired well-trained assistants, these respondents were not willing to participate, often stating reluctance to share personal data with strangers. This form of disclosing personal information is not common amongst Kuwaiti residents, and some respondents have never filled in a questionnaire before.

Limitation #5: Language limitation. Firstly, during the questionnaire translation from Arabic to English and vice versa, translators often reported difficulty in communicating the desired meaning of a question, word or definition. Sometimes a question in Arabic becomes longer than the question in English. Some words in Arabic have more than one meaning, thus allowing participants to misunderstand the question. Secondly, the researcher during the field survey used two versions of the questionnaire, one in Arabic language and the other in English language. The English language version was used to collect responses from Eastern consumers even though it is not their first language which may lead to biased responses.

Limitation #6: The questionnaire was conducted directly after the end of the holy month of Ramadan, which is characterised as the peak of advertising time where most of advertising is new, diversified and concentrated. Thus, the timing of this questionnaire may have had an impact on the consumers attitudes. Future research might be conducted during a different time of the year to confirm the findings.

8.5 Recommendation for Further Research

Advertising is an important component of the Kuwaiti economy in its own right, as well as through its indirect effect to other economic activities.

- This study raised a number of questions that can inspire future research. For example, is it meaningful to use a country as the unit of analysis. Kuwait, with a diverse multicultural population, has both similarities within the country (e.g., language, culture and religion) but also differences (e.g., social relations, economic structure and degree of conservatism). The Middle East includes sub-regions, such as the GCC countries, the Arabic Mediterranean countries and the African Arabic countries, yet within each region countries can differ. Within one region, differences between countries can be even more pronounced. Moreover, some countries have a high level for income per capita, while in others the residents lack resources to purchase essential goods. Thus, advertising agencies need to consider carefully whether to target the Middle East as one area or to target specific countries.

- Studies of consumer behaviour and attitudes towards advertising in the GCC countries should be especially important, as most of the television advertising broadcasted from one country can be received and viewed easily in this region.

- Further research can extend this study to cover other age ranges or to concentrate on certain ages, which will provide a full and clear picture about the attitudes towards advertising based on the total population in Kuwait. For example, it is not evident whether children will distinguish between entertainment programs and advertising spots. It is questionable if children recognise that commercials attempt to sell products and not just entertain them.

- Further studies can address the role of advertising associations in the region in general and Kuwait in particular. Due to these organisations, such as chapters of International Marketing Associations, were formed recently, there is a need to explore their role in disseminating information and promoting support for advertising.

- Further researches can address the role of regulation in a country considered as having an open economic system for all local and international media channels. In particular, researchers can compare government regulation in Kuwait and in other developed countries.

- Further researchers might consider replicating this study after some time to assess stability of consumer attitudes in a changing economy.

- Finally, advertising expenditures in Kuwait have not been analysed. Researchers might compare patterns of advertising to those in more developed countries. For example, it is questionable why the Kuwaiti advertising expenditure is higher in newspapers than in other media, while in Western countries expenditure is higher for television.

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Appendix (A)

The Questionnaires in English Language

Questionnaire on Consumer's Attitude Towards Advertising in Kuwait

Dear Consumer,

The undersigned is a researcher conducting a study on the consumer attitude towards advertising in Kuwait. I will be grateful if you can spare some time to fill in the attached questionnaire. Your answers will be helpful in developing the advertising industry and improving their efficiencies.

This questionnaire is part of a Ph.D. thesis to be presented at the University of Huddersfield in the U.K. Your answers will be treated confidentially and shall only be used by the researcher for the purpose of this thesis.

Thank you in advance for your contribution, I remain

Truly Yours
The Researcher

Attitude Towards Advertising
Part One

For each statement please check the level of agreement or disagreement which comes closest to how you feel about it. (Please answer all questions with one tick only)

	Statement	**Strongly agree**	**Agree**	**Neither agree Nor Disagree**	**disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
1	Advertising is needed for comparing competing products					
2	Good products do not need advertising					
3	Many people do not pay attention to advertising					
4	Products which are advertised are better in quality than the unadvertised products					
5	Advertising becomes essential for people's life					
6	New products need advertising					
7	Advertising is a waste of money					
8	Advertising increases the cost of goods and services					
9	Advertising is essential to the prosperity of the economy					
10	Advertising helps raising our standard of living					
11	Advertising results in better products for the public in general					
12	Advertising aimed at children should be controlled					
13	Harmful products should not be advertised					
14	There should be less advertising in general					
15	Government regulations control of advertising is essential					
16	Running the same advertisement again and again in a short period is disturbing to people					

Part Two

For each statement please check the level of agreement or disagreement which comes closest to how you feel about it. (Please answer all questions with one tick only)

	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Advertising often persuades people to buy things they do not need					
2	Advertising confuses people with a puzzled number of choices					
3	Advertising insults the intelligence of the ordinary consumer					
4	Some Advertising contents are silly and ridiculous					
5	Advertising affects children more than adults					
6	Advertising makes people materialistic					
7	Advertising exerts a harmful influence on children					
8	Advertising has an undesirable effect on women					
9	Advertisements annoy me					
10	Advertising is false and misleading					
11	I am frequently misled by advertising					
12	Advertising exaggerates products					
13	Advertising provides information that helps making purchase decision					
14	Advertisement presents a true picture of the products being advertised					
15	There is a lot of fun to watch and listen to advertisements					
16	Advertisements provide entertainment to consumers in general					
17	International advertising is more entertaining than the local ones					

Part Three

For each statement please check the level of agreement or disagreement which comes closest to how you feel about it. (Please answer all questions with one tick only)

	Statement	**Strongly agree**	**Agree**	**Neither agree Nor Disagree**	**disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
1	Advertising is not suitable for Kuwaiti culture					
2	Foreign advertising on local market has a negative effect on the local culture					
3	Advertising always provides an advantage to foreign products over local products					
4	Advertising is a way to transfer new behaviours and values					
5	Advertising is a way to communicate with other cultures					
6	Kuwaiti values will not be affected by foreign values in advertising					
7	International advertisement is more attractive for consumers than the local one					
8	Using foreign words in local advertising will increase its effectiveness					
9	Using foreign celebrities in local Advertising is desirable					
10	Foreign advertising increases customers' selfish behaviours					
11	Foreign advertising effects people's relationships with each other					
12	Advertisements create conflict with religion					
13	It is not acceptable in our society to see women in advertisements					
14	Women appearing with men in advertising increase promiscuity					
15	Advertising in general is truthful					

Part Four

1- What are the sources that have influence on your decision when you
   choose your products? (**rank** the following sources from 1 to 5)

Sources	Rank
Advertising	
Reference Groups (Family or Friend)	
Catalogue	
Sellers	
Other	

2- What is your feeling about advertising in general?

( ) I have a positive feeling about advertising

( ) I have a negative feeling about advertising

( ) I have neither a positive nor negative feeling about advertising

Part Five
General Information

1- Sex: ( ) Male   ( ) Female

2- Age:
   ( ) Less than 25 years   ( ) 25 to 34 years
   ( ) 35 to 45 years   ( ) Over 45

3- Marital status:
   ( ) Single   ( ) Married   ( ) Widow   ( ) Divorced

4- Number of children:
   ( ) No children
   ( ) 1 child
   ( ) 2 to 3 children
   ( ) 4 to 5 children
   ( ) 6 or more children

5- Education:
   ( ) Illiterate or Elementary   ( ) Intermediate   ( ) Secondary
   ( ) Diploma (after secondary)   ( ) University   ( ) Master or Ph.D.

6- Monthly income:
   ( ) Less than 400 K.D.
   ( ) 401 to 800 K.D.
   ( ) 801 to 1200 K.D.
   ( ) 1201 to 1600 K.D.
   ( ) Over 1601 K.D.

7- Nationality:
   ( ) Kuwaiti
   ( ) From Arabic or Islamic country
   ( ) East Asian or Indian
   ( ) Western (European, American or Australian)
   ( ) Others

8- Have you travelled out of Kuwait? (For Kuwaitis only)
   (   ) Yes   (   ) No

9- If your answer is Yes, where to? (You may select more than one option)
   ( ) GCC countries   ( ) Arabic Countries (Egypt, Syria or
                                        Lebanon)
   ( ) East Asia   ( ) Europe, America or Australia
   ( ) Others

Appendix (b)

The Questionnaires in Arabic Language

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بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

استبيان
وجهة نظر المستهلكين حول الإعلان في الكويت

عزيزي المستهلك:

يقوم الباحث بعمل دراسة عن وجهة نظر المستهلكين حول الإعلان في دولة الكويت. وأكون ممتنا لك إذا ما قمت باستقطاع جزء من وقتك الكريم لتعبئة هذه الاستمارة. إذ أن إجابتك ستكون مفيدة جدا في تطوير صناعة الإعلان وزيادة فاعليتها.

إن هذا الاستقصاء عبارة عن جزء من رسالة الدكتوراه المقدم لجامعة هدرسفيلد في المملكة المتحدة(بريطانيا) وإن المعلومات التي ستقدمها سيتم التعامل معها بشكل خاص وسيتم استخدامها فقط من قبل الباحث ولإغراض هذا البحث.

شكرا مرة أخرى لمشاركتك لنا في هذا البحث

الباحث

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272

الجزء الأول

الرجاء إبداء رأيك حول العبارات التالية وذلك بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المختص بما يتناسب مع مدى اتفاقك أو اختلافك معها: (الرجاء الإجابة على جميع الأسئلة)

لا أوافق قطعيا	لا أوافق	بدون رأي محدد	أوافق	أوافق تماما	العبارات	
					الإعلان ضروري لمقارنة المنتجات المتنافسة	1
					لا تحتاج المنتجات الجيدة إلى إعلان	2
					لا يبدي كثير من الناس اهتمام بالإعلان	3
					المنتجات التي يتم الإعلان عنها أفضل جودة من غيرها	4
					الإعلان شي ضروري في حياة الناس	5
					تحتاج المنتجات الجديدة إلى الإعلان	6
					الإعلان عبارة عن هدر للمال	7
					الإعلان يسبب زيادة في تكلفة أسعار المنتجات والخدمات	8
					الإعلان شيء أساس للازدهار الاقتصادي	9
					الإعلان يساعد على رفع المستوى المعيشي	10
					الإعلان يؤدي إلى وجود سلع أفضل للناس	11
					يجب أن يتم ضبط الإعلان الموجه للأطفال	12
					يجب أن لا يتم الإعلان عن المنتجات الضارة	13
					يجب أن تكون هناك كمية أقل من الإعلانات على وجه العموم	14
					تعتبر القوانين الحكومية لضبط الإعلانات ضرورية	15
					تكرار الإعلان خلال فترة قصيرة يؤدي إلى إزعاج المستهلك	16

الجزء الثاني

الرجاء وصف شعورك حول العبارات التالية وذلك بوضع علامـة (✓) في المربع المختص
بما يتناسب مع مدى اتفاقك أو اختلافك معها: (الرجاء الإجابة على جميع الأسئلة)

لا أوافق قطعيا	لا أوافق	بدون رأي محدد	أوافق	أوافق تماما	العبارات	
					الإعلانات تدفع الناس لشراء منتجات لا يحتاجون إليها	1
					يربك الإعلان المستهلك ويجعله مشوشا بين عدة خيارات	2
					يستخف الإعلان بذكاء المستهلكين العاديين	3
					محتويات الإعلانات سخيفة وساذجة	4
					تؤثر الإعلانات على الأطفال أكثر من البالغين	5
					تجعل الإعلانات الناس يفكرون بالنواحي المادية	6
					هناك تأثير ضار للإعلان على الأطفال	7
					هناك تأثير غير مرغوب فيه للإعلانات على النساء	8
					تستفزني بعض الإعلانات وتزعجني نفسيا	9
					الإعلانات خادعة ومظللة	10
					كثيرا ما تم تضليلي من قبل الإعلانات	11
					تبالغ الإعلانات في عرض السلع	12
					الإعلان يوفر معلومات تساعد الناس على اتخاذ قرار شراء سلعة ما	13
					تعرض الإعلانات صوره حقيقية عن المنتجات المعلن عنها	14
					هناك متعة كبيرة في مشاهدة الإعلانات والاستماع لها	15
					توفر الإعلانات تسلية للمستهلكين	16
					يوجد كثير من التسلية في الإعلانات التي يتم إنتاجها في الخارج أكثر من الإعلانات المنتجة محليا	17

الجزء الثالث

الرجاء وصف شعورك حول العبارات التالية وذلك بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المختص بما يتناسب مع مدى اتفاقك أو اختلافك معها: (الرجاء الإجابة على جميع الأسئلة)

لا أوافق قطعيا	لا أوافق	بدون رأي محدد	أوافق	أوافق تماما	العبارات	
					لا تتناسب الإعلانات مع عادات وتقاليد مجتمعنا	1
					هناك تأثير سلبي للإعلانات التي يتم إنتاجها بالخارج على العادات والتقاليد المحلية	2
					الإعلانات دائما تعطي المنتجات الأجنبية ميزة عن المنتجات المحلية	3
					الإعلانات أحد الأساليب الجيدة التي تؤدي إلى تعلم سلوك وقيم جديدة	4
					الإعلانات أحدى الطرق التي من خلالها يتم التواصل مع الثقافات الأخرى	5
					لا تتأثر القيم الكويتية بالقيم الأجنبية المصاحبة للإعلانات	6
					الإعلانات التي يتم إنتاجها في الخارج تجذب المستهلكين أكثر من الإعلانات المحلية	7
					استخدام كلمات أجنبية في الإعلانات المحلية تؤدي إلى زيادة فاعليتها	8
					استخدام الشخصيات الأجنبية المشهورة في الإعلانات المحلية يؤدي إلى زيادة جاذبية الإعلان	9
					الإعلانات التي يتم إنتاجها بالخارج تجعل الناس يفكرون في أنفسهم فقط	10
					الإعلانات التي يتم إنتاجها بالخارج لها تأثير سلبي على علاقة الناس بعضهم مع بعض	11
					تتعارض الإعلانات مع القيم الدينية	12
					إنه من غير المقبول استخدام المرأة في الإعلانات	13
					ظهور المرأة مع الرجل في الإعلان يساعد على المساس بالقيم الاجتماعية	14
					الإعلانات بصفة عامة تكون صادقة	15

الجزء الرابع

1- ما هو مصدر المعلومات الذي له تأثير على قرار اختيارك لسلعة ما؟ (الرجاء ترتيب الخيارات من 1 إلى 5 وذلك باختيار خيار واحد لكل وسيلة إعلانية)

الترتيب	الوسيلة الإعلانية
	الإعلانات
	الأصدقاء والأهل
	الكتالوجات
	البائعين
	مصادر أخرى

2- ما هو شعورك ناحية الإعلان بوجه عام؟

☐ أشعر بشعور إيجابي ناحية الإعلان

☐ أشعر بشعور سلبي ناحية الإعلان

☐ ليس لدي شعور محدد ناحية الإعلان

1- الجنس

☐ ذكر   ☐ أنثى

2- العمر

☐ أقل من 25 سنة   ☐ بين 25 سنة و 34 سنة
☐ بين 35 سنة و 45 سنة   ☐ أكثر من 45 سنة

3- الحالة الاجتماعية

☐ أعزب   ☐ متزوج   ☐ أرمل   ☐ مطلق

4- عدد الأطفال في الأسرة

☐ بدون أطفال   ☐ طفل واحد   ☐ 2 أو 3 أطفال
☐ 4 أو 5 أطفال   ☐ 6 أطفال وأكثر

5- التعليم

☐ غير متعلم أو ابتدائي   ☐ متوسط   ☐ ثانوية
☐ دبلوم   ☐ جامعي   ☐ دراسات عليا (ماجستير ودكتوراه)

6- الدخل الشهري

☐ أقل من 400 دينار   ☐ بين 401 و 800 دينار   ☐ بين 801 و 1200 دينار
☐ بين 1201 و 1600 دينار   ☐ أكثر من 1600 دينار

7- الجنسية

☐ كويتي   ☐ عربي   ودول إسلامية   ☐ شرق أسيا

☐ الهند   ☐ أجنبي (غرب أوربا وأستراليا وشمال أمريكا)   ☐ أخرى

8- هل سافرت خارج الكويت (للكويتيين فقط)

☐ نعم   ☐ لا

9- إذا كانت إجابتك بنعم، فما هي الدول التي سافرت إليها؟ (يمكن الإجابة بأكثر من خيار)

☐ دول مجلس التعاون الخليجي   ☐ الدول العربية (على سبيل المثال مصر، سوريا، لبنان)
☐ دول شرق أسيا   ☐ غرب أوربا أو شمال أمريكا أو أستراليا
☐ دول أخرى

Appendix (C)

Reliability Test

Cronbach's Alpha Test

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
qa1_Advertising is needed for comparing competent products	218.47	368.989	.044	.779
qa2_Good products do not need advertising	220.24	363.974	.134	.778
qa3_Many people do not pay attention to advertising	219.95	363.902	.149	.777
qa4_Products which are advertised are better in quality than the unadvertised products	220.22	366.445	.087	.779
qa5_Advertising becomes essential for people's life	218.90	363.378	.165	.777
qa6_New products need advertising	218.27	368.523	.069	.779
qa7_Advertising is a waste of money	220.62	365.612	.119	.778
qa8_Advertising increases the cost of goods and services	219.33	362.355	.178	.777
qa9_Advertising is essential to the prosperity of the economy	219.01	367.538	.075	.779
qa10_Advertising helps raising our standard of living	219.60	371.339	-.032	.782
qa11_Advertising results in better products for the public	219.02	368.165	.054	.780
qa12_Advertising aimed at children should be controlled	218.49	363.140	.185	.776
qa13_Harmful products should not be advertised	218.74	362.555	.138	.778
qa14_There should be less advertising in general	219.61	358.689	.301	.774
qa15_Government regulation control to advertising is essential	218.65	359.635	.293	.774
qa16_Running the same advertising again and again in a short period is disturbing to people	219.10	358.620	.247	.775
qb1_Advertising often persuades people to buy things they do not need	219.23	355.951	.338	.772
qb2_Advertising confuses people with a puzzled number of choices	219.43	356.192	.348	.772
qb3_Advertising insults the intelligence of the ordinary consumer	219.68	354.728	.338	.772
qb4_Some Advertising contents are silly and ridiculous	219.04	360.686	.217	.776
qb5_Advertising affects children more than the adults	218.78	356.716	.345	.772
qb6_Advertising makes people materialistic	219.23	355.297	.384	.771
qb7_Advertising exerts a harmful influence on children	219.18	354.092	.401	.771
qb8_Advertising has an undesirable effect on women	219.24	350.926	.447	.769
qb9_Advertising annoys me	219.46	356.850	.290	.773
qb10_Advertising is false and misleading	219.80	356.201	.335	.772
qb11_I am frequently mislead by Advertising	219.81	357.483	.296	.773
qb12_Advertising exaggerates products	219.09	354.968	.417	.771

279

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
qb13_Advertising provides information that helps making purchase decision	218.85	369.563	.034	.779
qb14_Advertisement present a true picture of the product being advertised	219.91	372.022	-.049	.782
qb15_There is a lot of fun to watch and listen to advertisements	219.25	371.006	-.023	.782
qb16_Advertisements provide entertainment to consumers in general	219.34	368.536	.038	.780
qb17_International advertising is more entertaining than the local ones	219.19	361.503	.208	.776
qc1_Advertising is not suitable for Kuwaiti culture	219.90	353.435	.389	.771
qc2_Foreign advertising on local market has a negative effect on the local culture	219.37	351.207	.443	.769
qc3_Advertising always provides an advantage to foreign products over local products	219.17	350.496	.482	.768
qc4_Advertising is a way to transfer new behaviours and values	219.40	365.497	.122	.778
qc5_Advertising is a way to communicate with other cultures	219.19	367.205	.084	.779
qc6_Kuwaiti values will not be effected by the foreign value in advertising	219.86	377.445	-.174	.786
qc7_International advertisement is more attractive for consumers than the local one	219.10	357.903	.358	.773
qc8_Using foreign words in local advertising will increase it effectiveness	219.57	364.006	.154	.777
qc9_Using foreign celebrities in local Advertising is desirable	219.31	362.178	.183	.776
qc10_Foreign advertising increases customers' selfish behaviours	219.92	359.326	.318	.773
qc11_Foreign advertising effects people's relationships with each other	220.01	361.297	.253	.775
qc12_Advertisements create conflict with religion	219.71	351.600	.432	.769
qc13_It is not acceptable in our society to see women in advertisements	219.60	348.896	.416	.769
qc14_Women appearing with men in advertising increase promiscuity	219.51	348.004	.453	.768
qc15_Advertising in general is truthful	219.85	378.876	-.223	.786

Appendix (D)

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z Test

	N	Normal Parameters (a,b)		Most Extreme Differences			Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Absolute	Positive	Negative		
qa1_Advertising is needed for comparing competent products	515	4.24	0.870	.272	.190	-.272	6.180	.000
qa2_Good products do not need advertising	515	2.57	1.166	.344	.344	-.185	7.797	.000
qa3_Many people do not pay attention to advertising	514	2.91	1.077	.273	.273	-.213	6.183	.000
qa4_Products which are advertised are better in quality than the unadvertised products	512	2.60	1.101	.284	.284	-.169	6.424	.000
qa5_Advertising becomes essential for people's life	513	3.80	1.097	.304	.154	-.304	6876	.000
qa6_New products need advertising	515	4.47	.746	.335	.240	-.335	7.606	.000
qa7_Advertising is a waste of money	517	2.21	1.029	.310	.310	-.187	7.051	.000
qa8_Advertising increases the cost of gokds and services	517	3.48	1.085	.267	.153	-.267	6.074	.000
qa9_Advertising is essential to the prosperity of the economy	513	3.73	.955	.282	.188	-.282	6.392	.000
qa10_Advertising helps raising our standard of living	516	3.2	1.072	.221	.177	-.221	5.018	.000
qa11_Advertising results in better products for the public	516	3.75	.955	.321	.206	-.321	7.284	.000
qa12_Advertising aimed at children should be controlled	513	4.11	1.086	.277	.206	-.277	6.283	.000
qa13_Harmful products should not be advertised	515	3.91	1.348	.288	.210	-.288	6.526	.000
qa14_There should be less advertising in general	508	3.21	1.029	.219	.175	-.219	4.925	.000
qa15_Government regulation control to advertising is essential	515	4.04	.997	.262	.169	-.262	5.936	.000
qa16_Running the same advertising again and again in a short period is disturbing to people	519	3.61	1.181	.223	.160	-.223	5.070	.000
qb1_Advertising often persuades people to buy things they do not need	517	3.46	1.118	.281	.181	-.281	6.393	.000
qb2_Advertising confuses people with a puzzled number of choices	519	3.27	1.065	.251	.186	-.251	5.722	.000
qb3_Advertising insults the intelligence of the ordinary consumer	515	3.01	1.171	.228	.228	-.189	5.174	.000

	N	Normal Parameters (a,b)		Most Extreme Differences			Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Absolute	Positive	Negative		
qb4_Some Advertising contents are silly and ridiculous	513	3.69	1.087	.295	.161	-.295	6.683	.000
qb5_Advertising affects children more than the adults	518	3.87	1.055	.276	.143	-.276	6.278	.000
qb6_Advertising makes people materialistic	515	3.48	1.014	.264	.165	-.264	6.001	.000
qb7_Advertising exerts a harmful influence on children	515	3.51	1.085	.234	.135	-.234	5.309	.000
qb8_Advertising has an undesirable effect on women	512	3.46	1.132	.225	.156	-.225	5.099	.000
qb9_Advertising annoys me	510	3.26	1.169	.200	.178	-.200	4.523	.000
qb10_Advertising is false and misleading	515	2.94	1.083	.208	.208	-.156	4.725	.000
qb11_I am frequently mislead by Advertising	513	2.89	1.113	.238	.238	-.171	5.382	.000
qb12_Advertising exaggerates products	518	3.62	1.001	.294	.185	-.294	6.692	.000
qb13_Advertising provides information that helps making a purchase decision	519	3.88	.802	.359	.271	-.359	8.175	.000
qb14_Advertisements present a true picture of the product being advertised	517	2.97	1.073	.205	.205	-.175	4.654	.000
qb15_There is a lot of fun to watch and listen to advertisements	518	3.48	1.002	.280	.181	-.280	6.376	.000
qb16_Advertisements provide entertainment to consumers in general	516	3.42	1.012	.262	.168	-.262	5.959	.000
qb17_International advertising is more entertaining than the local ones	520	3.53	1.068	.236	.139	-.263	5.379	.000
qc1_Advertising is not suitable for Kuwaiti culture	518	2.8	1.164	.230	.230	-.138	5.232	.000
qc2_Foreign advertising on local market has a negative effect on the local culture	519	3.34	1.137	.215	.163	-.215	4.896	.000
qc3_Advertising always provides an advantage to foreign products over local products	518	3.54	1.096	.270	.149	-.270	6.145	.000
qc4_Advertising is a way to transfer new behaviours and values	516	3.36	.982	.277	.176	-.277	6.301	.000
qc5_Advertising is a way to communicate with other cultures	518	3.56	.943	.317	.210	-.317	7.221	.000
qc6_Kuwaiti values will not be effected by the foreign value in advertising	515	2.97	1.112	.214	.214	-.180	4.858	.000

	N	Normal Parameters (a,b)		Most Extreme Differences			Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Absolute	Positive	Negative		
qc7_International advdrtisement is more attractive for colsumers than the local one	518	3.61	.950	.284	.189	-.284	6.462	.000
qc8_Using foreign words in local advertising will increase it effectiveness	515	3.21	1.026	.226	.180	-.226	5.128	.000
qc9_Using foreign celebrities in local Advertising is desirable	518	3.37	1.094	.219	.163	-.219	4.993	.000
qc10_Foreign advertising increases customers' selfish behaviours	512	2.85	.925	.215	.215	-.178	4.864	.000
qc11_Foreign advertising effects people's relationships with each other	514	2.78	.965	.206	.206	-.175	4.667	.000
qc12_Advertisements create conflict with religion	517	3.00	1.165	.178	.178	-.147	4.048	.000
qc13_It is not acceptable in our society to see women in advertisements	511	3.05	1.294	.217	.217	-.155	4.907	.000
qc14_Women appearing with men in advertising increase promiscuity	517	3.24	1.252	.180	.180	-.180	4.098	.000
qc15_Advertising in general is truthful	518	2.96	1.024	.203	.203	-.192	4.620	.000

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Appendix (E)

Summary of the Frequency for all Questions

NO.	Statement	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
		%	%	%	%	%
A1	Advertising is needed for comparing competing products	1.2	5.4	5.4	44.5	43.5
A2	Good products do not need advertising	12.8	52.8	6.4	20.6	7.4
A3	Many people do not pay attention to advertising	4.9	42.4	16.0	30.7	6.0
A4	Products which are advertised are better in quality than the unadvertised products	12.5	45.3	18.4	17.8	6.1
A5	Advertising becomes essential for people's life	4.3	11.9	10.7	45.8	27.3
A6	New products need advertising	1.0	2.1	3.1	36.3	57.5
A7	Advertising is a waste of money	23.4	49.7	14.1	8.5	4.3
A8	Advertising increases the cost of goods and services	2.9	21.1	17.8	41.8	16.4
A9	Advertising is essential to the prosperity of the economy	1.4	11.5	20.1	47.0	20.1
A10	Advertising helps raising our standard of living	4.1	26.7	24.2	34.7	10.3
A11	Advertising results in better products for the public in general	1.4	13.0	13.8	52.7	19.2
A12	Advertising aimed at children should be controlled	1.8	11.3	9.6	29.0	48.3
A13	Harmful products should not be advertised	7.8	13.6	8.2	20.8	49.7
A14	There should be less advertising in general	3.0	26.6	26.6	34.6	9.3
A15	Government regulations control of advertising is essential	2.5	6.4	13.2	40.0	37.9
A16	Running the same advertisement again and again in a short period is disturbing to people	2.3	22.4	16.2	30.8	28.3
B1	Advertising often persuades people to buy things they do not need	2.7	25.0	12.8	42.7	16.8
B2	Advertising confuses people with a puzzled number of choices	3.1	27.2	20.0	39.3	10.4
B3	Advertising insults the intelligence of the ordinary consumer	7.0	35.1	19.0	27.2	11.7
B4	Some Advertising contents are silly and ridiculous	3.7	14.4	13.5	45.6	22.8
B5	Advertising affects children more than adults	2.7	11.0	13.5	41.9	30.9
B6	Advertising makes people materialistic	2.1	18.6	22.5	42.9	13.8

NO.	Statement	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
		%	%	%	%	%
B7	Advertising exerts a harmful influence on children	3.1	17.7	23.1	36.9	19.2
B8	Advertising has an undesirable effect on women	2.9	22.5	20.3	34.0	20.3
B9	Advertisements annoy me	5.1	26.9	21.8	29.8	16.5
B10	Advertising is false and misleading	6.6	33.6	28.0	23.3	8.5
B11	I am frequently misled by advertising	7.2	37.6	22.0	24.8	8.4
B12	Advertising exaggerates products	2.1	15.1	18.1	47.9	16.8
B13	Advertising provides information that helps making purchase decision	1.0	6.9	11.9	63.0	17.1
B14	Advertisement presents a true picture of the products being advertised	6.2	32.5	26.9	26.7	7.7
B15	There is a lot of fun to watch and listen to advertisements	3.3	15.6	22.8	46.1	12.2
B16	Advertisement provides entertainment to consumers in general	3.3	17.4	24.6	43.0	11.6
B17	International advertising is more entertaining than the local ones	2.7	17.3	23.5	37.5	19.0
C1	Advertising is not suitable for Kuwaiti culture	11.0	36.5	23.6	19.1	9.8
C2	Foreign advertising on local market has a negative effect on the local culture	4.0	24.1	22.2	32.8	17.0
C3	Advertising always provides an advantage to foreign products over local products	3.1	19.3	16.8	41.9	18.9
C4	Advertising is a way to transfer new behaviours and values	2.9	19.8	23.8	45.3	8.1
C5	Advertising is a way to communicate with other cultures	2.1	14.5	19.5	52.7	11.2
C6	Kuwaiti values will not be affected by foreign values in advertising	7.0	33.6	23.7	27.0	8.7
C7	International advertisement is more attractive for consumers than the local one	1.4	13.9	22.2	47.3	15.3
C8	Using foreign words in local advertising will increase its effectiveness	2.7	27.2	25.4	35.7	8.9
C9	Using foreign celebrities in local Advertising is desirable	2.5	24.3	23.0	34.0	16.2
C10	Foreign advertising increases customers' selfish behaviours	3.7	35.2	39.3	16.6	5.3
C11	Foreign advertising effects people's relationships with each other	7.2	34.4	36.0	18.3	4.1

NO.	Statement	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
	288	%	%	%	%	%
C12	Advertisements create conflict with religion	9.1	28.2	28.4	22.1	12.2
C13	It is not acceptable in our society to see women in advertisements	9.8	32.7	18.8	19.8	19.0
C14	Women appearing with men in advertising increase promiscuity	7.4	26.7	20.7	25.0	20.3
C15	Advertising in general is truthful	5.8	31.9	27.6	29.7	5.0
	Overall attitude towards advertising	0.6	36.7	1.8	59.9	1.0

Appendix (F)

Factor Loading for All Variables

Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
qc14_Women appearing with men in advertising increase promiscuity	.824												
qc13_It is not acceptable in our society to see women in advertisements	.791												
qc12_Advertisements create conflict with religion	.764												
qc1_Advertising is not suitable for Kuwaiti culture	.748												
qc2_Foreign advertising on local market has a negative effect on the local culture	.656												
qa15_Government regulation control to advertising is essential													
qc3_Advertising always provides an advantage to foreign products over local products													
qb6_Advertising makes people materialistic		.706											
qb5_Advertising affects children more than the adults		.644											
qb2_Advertising confuses people with a puzzled number of choices		.592											
qb8_Advertising has an undesirable effect on women		.524											
qb7_Advertising exerts a harmful influence on children													
qa7_Advertising is a waste of money			.679										
qa6_New products need advertising			-.655										
qa2_Good products do not need advertising			.620										
qa1_Advertising is needed for comparing competitive products			-.577										
qa12_Advertising aimed at children should be controlled													
qa4_Products which are advertised are better in quality than the unadvertised products													
qa3_Many people do not pay attention to advertising													
qb11_I am frequently mislead by Advertising				.720									
qb9_Advertising annoys me				.631									
qb10_Advertising is false and misleading				.586									
qb12_Advertising exaggerates products													

	Component												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
qc15_Advertising in general is truthful													
qb3_Advertising insults the intelligence of the ordinary consumer													
qa9_Advertising is essential to the prosperity of the economy					.693								
qa5_Advertising becomes essential for people's life					.680								
qa11_Advertising results in better products for the public					.676								
qa10_Advertising helps raising our standard of living					.559								
qb13_Advertising provides information that helps making a purchase decision													
qb16_Advertisements provide entertainment to consumers in general						.812							
qb15_There is a lot of fun to watch and listen to advertisements						.714							
qb14_Advertisement present a true picture of the product being advertised													
qa13_Harmful products should not be advertised							.675						
qa16_Running the same advertising again and again in a short period is disturbing to people							.646						
qa14_There should be less advertising in general													
qb4_Some Advertising contents are silly and ridiculous													
qc4_Advertising is a way to transfer new behaviours and values								.743					
qc5_Advertising is a way to communicate with other cultures								.712					
qc9_Using foreign celebrities in local Advertising is desirable									.747				
qc8_Using foreign words in local advertising will increase it effectiveness									.633				
qb17_International advertising is more entertaining than the local ones										.683			
qc7_International advertisement is more attractive for consumers than the local one										.646			

	Component												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
qc11_Foreign advertising effects people's relationships with each other											.720		
qc10_Foreign advertising increases customers' selfish behaviours											.685		
qa8_Advertising increases the cost of goods and services												.764	
qb1_Advertising often persuades people to buy things they do not need													
qc6_Kuwaiti values will not be effected by the foreign value in advertising													.833

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.
a Rotation converged in 13 iterations.

Appendix (G)

Interviews

Interview #1
Mr. Ahmad Jamal
May, 2005
Manager - Advertising Department - Kuwait Television
Ministry of Information – The State of Kuwait

The History of Advertising in Kuwait

Mr. Jamal has mentioned that Kuwait does not have a deep history regarding advertising. Advertising, as a medium, started in the early 1960s with very few media vehicles available. Three periods can be distinguished: 1963-1981, 1982-1990 and 1991- present day.

For the first two periods, only print and television advertising were available. Television channels were owned by the government and it only allowed certain types of advertising to be broadcasted and at specified times. After the liberation of Kuwait from Iraq, the advertising industry expanded to embrace a variety of media vehicles.

Moreover, the first period can be characterised as the *'international advertising period'*, as very few Kuwaiti products were advertised. The majority of advertisements were created by international agencies such as Philip Morris, Sony and Toyota, with Arabic subtitles.

Throughout the second period there were no real major changes with the exception of some locally created advertising, however, government regulations were still imposed.

The third period, 1991 - present day, introduced a tremendous change and three new opportunities emerged for advertisers. A free consumer magazine that featured local advertising was made available, radio advertising was allowed for the first time to

supplement print and television advertising, and finally Kuwait received television satellite channels broadcasting in both Arabic and English.

Kuwait Television Versus Other Media

Other forms of advertising have little affect when compared to the results gained by advertising on Kuwait Television. Despite the introduction of street board advertising in the mid 1990s, the advertising revenue with regards to Kuwait Television still increased by 25%. The main competitors to Kuwait Television are other Arabic satellite channels; and Kuwaiti residents can receive over 100 Arabic channels and more than 300 foreign language channels, owned by other governments and private companies.

The Restrictions and Government Regulations

To this day government channels maintain strict advertising guidelines and any harmful products can still not be broadcasted. Although the advertising guidelines for Kuwait Television are vague, the advertising agencies are now used to this guideline and generally understand what can and cannot be advertised. On the contrary, the privately owned channels allow advertising of cigarettes, airlines and other products that cannot be promoted by government channels.

The Future of Kuwait Advertising Industry

Mr. Jamal believes that in the future there will be no local or international advertising, as both types of advertising will merge together and a new form of advertising will appear. This will take the form of regional advertising, targeting the whole region instead of individual countries. The advertising industry has a major impact on the

local economy; however, the government regulations need to be relaxed if it is to continue to compete.

Interview #2
Mr. Hammod Al-Saud
May, 2005
Head of the Advertising Division
Kuwait Municipality

Who is Responsible for Advertising?

Mr. Al-Saud had mentioned before that there is a big difference regarding his responsibilities in the Department of Advertising at Kuwait Television and his responsibilities at Kuwait Municipality. At the Municipality, he is responsible for a full range of street advertising and in-store advertising, whilst at Kuwait Television he is accountable for only broadcast advertising. Printed advertising is the responsibility of other departments at the Ministry of Information and the promotional campaigns are the task of the Ministry of Commerce.

In addition, Mr. Al-Saud also stated as well that the above mentioned departments do not coordinate with each other, as each division or department reports to a different ministry and therefore different management.

Restrictions and Guidelines

Mr. Al-Saud outlined that any established organisation or company can produce as many advertisements as they wish, as long as this advertising is in line with the Kuwait Municipality regulations; which state that the advertising should not be dissentient to public ethics and morality. Detailed guidelines are not available and all press media is subject to the approval or rejection of the Advertising Inspectors.

Interview #3
Dr. Hassan Husney
October, 2005
Center of Excellency
School of Business and Management
Kuwait University

A draft of the questionnaire has been presented to Dr. Hassan Husney, Head of the Statistical Division at the Centre of Excellency at Kuwait University for his review and comments. A meeting was then arranged to discuss his comments. Dr Husney first commented on the structure of the questionnaire that had been submitted:

- Separate the questionnaire in to sections to make completion easier.

- Each section should have an introduction explaining to the reader how they can complete the section.

- A number for each question is preferable.

- All relevant questions should be grouped together

- Careful consideration should be given to the translation.

With his support, and the support of Kuwait University, the Centre of Excellency approached the Public Authority for Civil Information to supply us with as much information as possible regarding the number, address and demographic data for the residents of Kuwait. Unfortunately, they provided us only with the number of the total population based on nationality. Other information is not available for disclosure.

Due to the fact that no further information was available, it was agreed that a convenience sampling technique would be used.

After finalising the translation issue, another session for discussion was arranged to evaluate the pilot test. The result of the discussion was that both versions of the questionnaire (Arabic and English) should be piloted, with a sample base of 10 potential respondents. The test would be conducted using an interview technique. It would be made evident to all respondents that they were not there to answer the questionnaire, but rather to check the questionnaires contents, wording, sequence, form and layout, question difficulty and instructions.

Furthermore, after concluding the first pilot test and incorporating all comments from the respondents; a second pilot test with a larger sample base has been recommended. The questionnaire has been distributed to 50 respondents representing 10% of the study sample size. Another meeting has been arranged to discuss the results of the second pilot study. The findings have been statistically checked throughout, running a rotated factor analysis using SPSS. A few corrections were made to the questionnaire.

Interviews Analysis

The following pictures show how the interview data was analysed: