UNIVERSITY MALAYA

Attitudes towards offensive advertising:
A Malaysian Study

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Submitted to the Graduate School of Business
Faculty of Business & Accountancy
University Malaya
In partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of
Master of Business Administration
July 2009
ABSTRACT

This paper investigates attitudes towards the advertising of certain controversial products/services and reasons for being offensive. The study compares attitudes among demographics namely gender, religion and level of education and their effect of Brand Loyalty & Purchase Intention. A survey of 151 respondents from Malaysia was conducted in March 2009. A questionnaire examining the attitudes towards a series of potentially controversial/offensive products and reasons advertisement being offensive was constructed. Data were collected from university students in Klang Valley. The research indicates that there is significant difference in attitudes towards offensive advertisement among gender, religion and level of education and their effect of Brand Loyalty & Purchase Intention. Advertising agencies can use the study to develop an understanding of which advertisings are perceived by some people as offensive in term of its products/services and execution, and a list of potentially controversial clients.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to record my heartfelt gratitude to my supervisor, Associate Professor Dr. Ong Fon Sim for her valuable guidance, constructive suggestions, care and dedication. Without her, accomplishment of this project paper would not be made possible.

To all respondents who had cheerfully participated in this survey and friends who had contributed towards the completion of this study, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to all of you.

My foremost gratitude and appreciations goes to my lovely wife Lynn for her infinite love, devotion, motivation, encouragement and valuable contribution toward completion of this research project.

Finally, yet importantly, I wish to extend my deepest appreciation to my father, mother and sister for their endless love, support and encouragement. I would like to dedicate this research project to my beloved family.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Advertising can be defined as any paid form of presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services through mass media such as newspapers, magazines, television or radio by an identified sponsor (Philip Kotler, et al., 2002). Therefore, advertising is a mass communication device through which companies promote or market their products to target audience, and this enables them to make informed consumption decisions.

Advertising plays an important part in our everyday life as it enables us to choose between different ranges of products. These products are promoted through different types of advertisements and cater to all types of markets. Dedicated advertising companies exist with enormous budgets running into millions of pounds, which make advertisements for their clients. Advertising also plays an important role for the capitalist economies. ‘Advertising enables producers to expand their markets and therefore take advantage of economies of scale to reduce unit production costs’ (Chris Hackley pp. 95, 2005).

Through advertising producers are able to sell large stocks of goods that they produce and create demand for new products and offers. Advertising benefits consumers since they enjoy lower prices and better product quality due to the competition created by advertising in the interests of the consumers.
The majority of researches about offensive advertising have been conducted in Western countries. However, little is known about consumers’ perceptions of offensive advertising in an Asian context, especially offensive advertising in the multicultural and multiracial country such as Malaysia (Waller & Fam, 2000). The advertising of controversial products/services and the use of controversial images to “cut through the clutter” in the marketplace appears to be increasing around the world. Some products, simply because of their nature, may be perceived as controversial or some members of the community may see the public promotion of them as offensive. However, apart from the general ethical issue regarding the deliberate use of controversial/offensive images for public viewing that may offend some people, it is important to determine attitudes towards offensive advertising (Waller & Fam, 2000). Waller (1999) and Waller and Fam (2000) looked further at the issue of offensive products and offensive execution in their studies in Australia and Malaysia respectively. The study was later replicated in Waller and Fam (2003), Fam et al. (2004) and Waller et al. (2005).

More and more advertisers and marketers believe that consumers around the world have similar needs as well as desires and that the global market is growing increasingly homogeneous. Levitt (1983) proposed that the global consumer market could be tapped by standardized advertising messages. The rapid emergence and expansion of global media have helped speed up the development of international advertising campaigns. Because of the speed of technology, many advertisers rely on global campaigns in order to grab the market a step before the competitors (Kaplan, 1994).
Despite the development of globalised markets, with its standardized products and marketing activities, marketers must be aware of various environmental differences that have to be addressed when entering a new market. These environmental factors differentiate the domestic market from international markets and must be included when planning a product’s marketing strategy (Cateora 1990). They include various cultural, social, and legal/political factors (Ricks 1983; Root 1987; Terpstra 1987). Such advertising restrictions can have a major influence on the degree of standardization allowed for a company’s marketing program.

This is especially true for South East Asian countries that have their own distinct languages, cultures, norms, regulations and business environment that are very different from the West. Malaysia, for example, has approximately 27 million people, with three main ethnic groups (Malay, Chinese, and Indian). It has a mixture of languages (Malay is the official language with various Chinese dialects - Cantonese, Hakka, Hokkien - and English also being spoken) and a number of religions being practiced (Islam, Buddhist, Taoism, Hinduism and Christianity).

These factors, along with the associated legal restrictions been used to protect cultural identity and limit any offence to the various cultural groups, and have been seen as major areas of concern for marketers entering this market (Shao & Waller 1993). Advertisers are becoming more sensitive to how consumers from different cultural and social backgrounds perceive these “standardized” messages (Frith and Mueller, 2003).

Waller & Fam (2000) found in their study that some product with offensive advertising such as “Racially Extremist Group”, “Guns & Armaments”, “Gambling”, “Religious
Denominations”, “political parties”, and “Funeral Services” cannot be legally advertised while other products with offensive advertising such as “Alcohol”, “Cigarette”, “Condoms”, “Female Contraceptives”, “Female Underwear”, “Male Underwear”, “Female Hygiene Products”, and “Pharmaceuticals” can be advertised with limitation. They also discuss that the regulations in Malaysia reflect the national aspirations of achieving a Malaysian identity and culture, while conforming to the values of Islam, the national religion. In particular, it prohibits the “adaptation or projection of foreign culture which is not acceptable to a cross section of the major communities of the Malaysian society either in the form of words, slogans, clothing, activity, or behavior.” Advertisements which depict “ways of life that are against or totally different from the ways of life followed by Malaysians” were also disallowed. In some countries, such as Malaysia, certain products cannot be legally advertised or can be advertised with limitations, and advertisers must be careful that the content of the images in the advertisement will not offend the local community (Waller & Fam 2000).

Munusamy & Hoo (2007), in their study examines the relationship between students’ beliefs and their attitude towards advertising in Malaysia. They found that the belief factors have a significant relationship with attitude towards advertising. Hence, they suggested that implication for managers and organizations is to create successful advertising messages in order to achieve their objectives and goals for competitive advantages. They also discussed that it is important for managers to maintain proper focus on the appropriate beliefs of Malaysian students about advertising. While concentrating more effort on building a message that is inclined to favorable beliefs,
managers will also need to watch out for the unfavorable factors that may lead to negative attitudes towards their advertisements.

As such, due to its vital contribution to the advertising industry, my study not only focuses at the attitudes towards offensive advertising of multiracial people in Malaysia but further expand to explore the response towards the offensive advertising vide purchase intention and brand loyalty.

1.1 Research Questions and Objectives of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to examine the attitude of consumers towards the offensive advertising and manner of advertising used by marketer. The major research question in this study is: Does attitude toward offensive advertising impact on brand loyalty and purchase intention?

Other research questions that are addressed in this study are:

1. What is the attitude of Malaysian toward offensive advertising?
2. What are the reason that Malaysian consumer find advertising to be offensive?
3. What is the impact of offensive advertising on brand loyalty and purchase intention?
4. Do different age groups have different attitude toward offensive advertising?
5. Do men & women have different attitude towards offensive advertising?

Based on the research questions, the following objectives are developed:

1. To examine the attitude of consumers towards offensive advertising
2. To understand the reason why consumers are offended by advertising (i.e. the manner of the advertising)
3. To examine the effect of offensive advertising on purchase intention
4. To examine the effect of offensive advertising on brand loyalty
5. To compare the attitude towards offensive advertising by race, and gender
6. To suggest recommendations for marketers

1.2 Significance of the Study

This paper studies the influence of demographic characteristic on attitude towards offensive advertising and the resulting impact of the attitude on brand loyalty and purchase intention. Therefore, there are some hard questions for agencies to ask themselves before undertaking a controversial campaign (David, 1999). It is, thus, essential to determine what causes multiracial people in Malaysia to be offended by a particular advertisements and how bad the reaction would be on the brand loyalty and intention to purchase. The findings could assist marketing and advertising agents in tailoring an advertisement that suit the targeting market. This way would deter community outcry to any insensitive advertisement that would tarnish the brand image.

1.3 Scope of the Study

This study is conducted in Klang Valley using convenience sampling. Cross-demographic categories are examined to identify whether there is any relationship between consumers attitude towards offensive advertising and their demographics.
Gender, age, ethnicity, personal income, and educational level are compared to identify the differences in their attitude towards offensive advertising.

This study focuses on Seventeen products namely condom, gambling, alcoholic drinks, racially extremists groups, Funeral Services, cigarette & so forth. For this study, all seventeen products have been chosen, which base on earlier studies are known to offend people the most (Waller & Fam 2000).

Our respondents are Malaysians studying in Klang Valley.

1.4 Limitations of the Study

This study has the following limitations. First, the types of products investigated are not comprehensive as there are maybe some other products, which offend people beside the 17 products/services known to offend people the most (Waller & Fam, 2000). Second, the reasons analyzed are also limited and not all demographic characteristics are tested for example urban versus rural, level of income, level of occupation and type of industry. Third, consumers attitude are derived from student sample from urban areas with high proficiency in English. This group may not be representative of the rest of the populations even though many studies have used student samples and justified their use in similar attitude research by arguing that there is little difference between student attitude towards advertising and beliefs and those of other segments of the population (Andrews, 1989; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Ramaprasad and Thurwanger, 1998).
In addition, the sample size is not big enough to give comfort in finalizing the findings and conclusion. Quite a number of questionnaires are being ignored due to the randomly answer of respondents or “loss” in the data collecting process especially through cyber. Another limitation is about data collection procedure. For take home questionnaires, we do not have control over the respondents’ understanding. Therefore, there is possibility of respondents do not understand the questions and provide us misleading information, even though respondents were given sufficient time to ensure they find the time and mood to respond.

Finally yet importantly, this study is also limited in its scope of study and sampling procedure. The attitude of consumers towards offensive advertising could be examined in many perspectives and in more details; however, in this study only the effect of offensive advertising on brand loyalty and purchase intention was examined with regards to demographics variables.

1.5 Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five main chapters:

Chapter One-Introduction

The first chapter provides the introductory information about the study and consider as overview chapter of the study. This chapter also highlights the purpose and significant of study followed by objective and scope of study and includes limitation and organization of study.
Chapter Two- Literature Review

The second chapter talks about definition of controversial advertising and reviews the literature and previous researches and empirical studies. It also contains related and relevant literature, which discusses about attitude towards offensive advertising and controversial products and why people find them offensive. It also discuss about advertising of controversial products and their effect on purchase intention and brand loyalty. This chapter also have glance at the previous research done in Asian context as well as Malaysia.

Chapter Three- Research Methodology

Chapter Three, explains the research methodologies used in the study and the research hypothesis, sampling design, research instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis techniques used in the study are presented. It includes information on the demographic characteristic and selection criteria of the respondents

Chapter Four- Research Results

The forth chapter present the overall finding of the study and discussion on the research result. It provides a profile of the respondents from the data collected. It also analyses and explains the survey findings.

Chapter Five- Conclusion and Recommendations
This chapter, which is the last chapter of this study, gives an overview of the study and concludes the study by summarizing the finding and implication of the study. It interprets the major finding of the study; discuss the marketing implication, limitation of study and give recommendation for future research.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Attitude towards advertising

Advertising is an important element of modern life (Munusamy & Hoo 2007). In spite of its rapid growth in recent years (Shavitt, Lowrey, and Haefner, 1998), the advertising industry has been concerned with improving its tarnished public image (Mittal, 1994). Attitude towards advertising has been extensively researched (O'Donohoe, 1995) since the first comprehensive published academic work by Bauer and Greyser (1968). Researchers from the advertising industry as well as from academia have been interested in the effect of attitude towards advertising on the effectiveness of advertising (Greyser, 1971), attitude toward the advertisement (Bauer and Greyser, 1968), and brand attitude (Lutz, 1985; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989; Muehling, 1987; Shimp, 1981; Thorson, 1981). Ultimately, these researchers have pointed out that consumer purchasing behavior is affected by attitude towards advertising (Bush, Smith, and Martin, 1999). Specifically of interest to advertising scholars is the observation that consumers' attitudes towards advertising in general affect their attitudes toward individual advertisements (Lutz, 1985). This linkage between overall attitude towards advertising and the attitude towards a single advertisement is important, given the pivotal role of the attitude towards the advertising construct in the advertising effects and advertising evaluation literature.
In addition to studying how an individual audience will respond to a particular advertisement based on their attitude towards advertising, researchers are also interested in knowing the public attitude towards advertising because of its implications for public policy initiatives (Calfee and Ringold, 1988; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Rotzoll, Haefner, and Sandage, 1986; Wills and Ryans, 1982). Policy makers have been especially concerned about the negative social effects of advertising (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Rotzoll, Haefner, and Sandage, 1986; Wills and Ryans, 1982). Advertising has been criticized for presenting misleading information, promoting undesirable values, and persuading people to buy things that they do not need (Katona, 1964; Pollay, 1986; Pollay and Mittal, 1993). Therefore, it is critical for advertising scholars to follow the public opinion about advertising because of its impact on advertising-related regulatory policies (Wills and Ryans, 1982).

Attitude toward advertising is affected by audience behavior toward advertising (Bauer & Greyser, 1968). If the decision-maker’s behaviour is positive towards advertising, he/she will be inclined toward advertising (Pollay and Mittal, 1993). The advertising dimension that was researched extensively was attitude toward advertising (Chan, Li, Diehl & Terlutter, 2007; Dahl et al, 2003 Yang, C.C., 2000; Ramaprasad and Thurwanger, 1998; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Bauer & Greyser, 1968). Belief factors such as hedonic, good for economy, product information, consumer benefits, values corruption, and materialism showed a consistently strong relationship with attitude toward advertising (Munusamy and Hoo, 2007; Fam, Waller & Erdogan, 2005; Fam; Tsang and Tse, 2005; Waller &
Attitude toward advertising has been extensively investigated in the adult population (Waller, Fam, and Yang, 2008; Chan, Li, Diehl & Terlutter, 2007; Munusamy and Hoo, 2007; Fam, Waller & Erdogan, 2005; Fam, Waller & Erdogan, 2004; Shavitt, Lowrey, and Haefner, 1998; Mittal, 1994; Wills and Ryans, 1982 Anderson, Engledow, and Becker, 1978; Bauer and Greyser, 1968; Greyser and Bauer, 1966). Zanot (1981) described stable attitudes towards advertising before the 50’s but growing disenchantment in the 60’s leading to generally negative public opinion in the 70’s, particularly among the young. However, there was resurgence in positive attitudes in the 90’s (Shavitt, Lowrey, and Haefner 1998). Researchers have also tried to measure attitude towards advertising among student samples (Larkin, 1977; Sandage and Leckenby, 1980; Dubinsky and Hensel, 1984; Petroshias, 1986; Muehling, 1987; Yssel et al., 1993; Ramaprasad and Thurwanger, 1998). Yang (2000) also studied belief and attitude toward advertising in Taiwan. Issues of controversial or offensive advertising have been raised in Western countries (Croizer and Erdogan, 2001) but little has focused on the Australasian countries (Waller and Fam, 2000). Wolin and Korgaonkar (2005) found that males have stronger beliefs about web advertising compared to females.

2.2 Controversial Products/Services

Controversial advertising can be defined as ‘‘advertising that, by the type of product or execution, can elicit reactions of embarrassment, distaste, disgust, offence, or outrage
A number of products, both goods and services, have been suggested by past studies as being controversial when advertised, including cigarettes, alcohol, contraceptives, underwear, and political advertising. In particular, alcohol and condoms have been the focus of a number of studies on controversial advertising (including Rehman and Brooks, 1987; Shao and Hill, 1994; Waller, 1999). In their study of “unmentionables,” Wilson and West (1981) included a “product” of birth control. Rehman and Brooks’ (1987) study included alcohol, pregnancy tests, contraceptives, feminine hygiene products, undergarments, medications, and VD services, as examples of controversial products. Barnes and Dotson (1990) discussed offensive television advertising and the products which were in their list included condoms, female hygiene products, and female/male underwear. Shao (1993) and Shao and Hill (1994) in their look at advertising agencies, presented controversial products/services including alcohol, condoms, cigarettes, feminine hygiene products, female undergarments, male undergarments, sexual diseases (e.g., STD’s, AIDS), and pharmaceutical goods. While Fahy et al. (1995) grouped products into three main categories:

- Alcoholic beverages,
- Products directed at children and
- Health/sex-related products

Waller (1999) presented a large list of 15 potentially controversial products (Alcohol, Cigarettes, Condoms, Female Contraceptives, Female Hygiene Products, Female Underwear, Funeral Services, Gambling, Male Underwear, Pharmaceuticals, Political
Parties, Racially Extremist Groups, Religious Denominations, Sexual Diseases (AIDS, STD Prevention), and Weight Loss Programs). This study was later replicated in Waller and Fam (2003), Fam et al. (2004) and Waller et al. (2005).

In order to draw the audience’s attention to a product or service advertisement, there has been an increasing use of controversial advertising in recent years (Lyons 1996; Matthews 1997; Waller 1999; in Waller and Fam; 2003; Waller et al. 2005). A distinctive advertisement may be memorable to a target audience, but the effect may be either positive or negative. There have been cases where consumers have felt so offended by some advertisements that they have put pressure on advertisers to change their advertisements, encouraged the media to stop accepting the advertisements, or even boycotted the company and its products (Tilles 1998; Wong 2000; Schwartz 2001).

Discussions of offensive advertising are found in the past twenty-seven years, covering topics such as “unmentionables”, "socially sensitive products", "decent products", and "acceptable advertising" (Wilson & West 1981; Rehman & Brooks 1987; Triff, Benningfield & Murphy 1987; Shao 1993; Shao & Hill 1994a; Shao & Hill 1994b; Fahy, Smart, Pride & Ferrell 1995), offensive/intrusive/irritating advertising (Aaker and Bruzzone, 1985; Bartos, 1981; Li et al., 2002; Phau and Prendergast, 2001; Waller, 1999), advertising ethics (Treise et al., 1994), sex and decency issues (Boddewyn, 1991; Boddewyn and Kunz, 1991), shocking appeals (Dahl et al., 2003), advertising targeting special groups (Wood, 1990; Zhang and Shavitt, 2003), and feminist criticism (Kilbourne, 1990; Seger, 1990; White, 1990). These studies have primarily focused on attitudes towards the advertising of various controversial products, and possible strategies
for marketing sensitive products. According to the academic and industry literature, there are numerous types of controversial products/services/ideas, clients, and advertisements.

Wilson and West (1981, page 92) discussed “unmentionables”, which are described as: “...products, services, or concepts that for reasons of delicacy, decency, morality, or even fear tend to elicit reactions of distaste, disgust, offence, or outrage when mentioned or when openly presented”. The examples they presented of unmentionables were “products” (for personal hygiene, birth control, warfare, and drugs for terminal illness), “services” (for abortion, sterilization, VD, mental illness, funeral directors, and artificial insemination), and “concepts” (for political ideas, palliative care, unconventional sexual practices, racial/religious prejudice and terrorism). While revisiting this issue Wilson and West (1995) suggested how the AIDS issue had changed what was previously thought of as “unmentionable.”

Feminine hygiene products were the focus of Rehman and Brooks (1987), but included undergarments, alcohol, pregnancy tests, contraceptives, medications, and VD services, as examples of controversial products. When asked about the acceptability of various products being advertised on television, only two products were seen as unacceptable by a sample of college students, contraceptives for men and contraceptives for women. Feminine hygiene products has also been mentioned in industry articles as having advertisements that are in “poor taste”, “irritating” and “most hated” (Alter, 1982; Hume, 1988; Rickard, 1994).
Triff et al. (1987) presented an overview of the area of "advertising ethics", and surveyed 100 people regarding various aspects of advertising. The three types of advertising chosen in their study were advertising directed towards:

- children;
- alcoholic beverage advertising; and
- political advertising

Shao undertook a large global study of advertising agencies attitudes regarding various issues, including the legal restrictions of advertising of "sensitive" products, which can be controversial for the agency which handles the account (Shao, 1993; Shao and Hill, 1994a, 1994b). The products/services discussed in these studies were cigarettes, alcohol, condoms, female hygiene products, female undergarments, male undergarments, sexual diseases (e.g. STDs, AIDS), and pharmaceutical goods.

Tinkham and Weaver-Larisey (1994) began their study on ethical judgments of political advertising by discussing its "controversial status", pointing out that political advertising is "one of the least regulated form of marketing communication" as it is excluded from the rigorous surveillance undertaken on commercial advertising. The main ethical criticisms they found focused on deceptive or misleading statements and unfairness as some practices would be illegal if in a commercial context, the use of emotional persuasion and negative messages and the potential detrimental effects resulting from electing the "wrong" candidate.
In a study that focused on advertising sensitive products, Fahy et al. (1995) asked a sample of over 2,000 people their attitudes toward the advertising on certain products on television. The products were grouped into three main categories:

- alcoholic beverages
- products directed at children
- and health/sex-related products

Comparing the attitudes according to sex, age, income, region, education, and race, they found that women particularly aged 50 and over, had much higher disapproval levels for such commercials.

Waller (2003) noted that most of the research has observed “controversial advertising” as a negative concept, and if controversial advertising resulted in only negative responses advertisers would shy away from this type of campaign. However, advertisers are not shying away but using it in increasing numbers. The use of controversial images has been successful for a number of organizations in the past (for example, Evans and Sumandeep 1993; Hornery 1996; Waller 1999; Irvine 2000; McIntyre 2000; Phau and Prendergast 2001). This is particularly important when the reason for controversy is based on the nature of the product.

Barnes and Dotson (1990) discussed offensive television advertising and identified two different dimensions: offensive products and offensive execution. The products in their list, included condoms, female hygiene products, female undergarments, and male undergarments. Waller (1999) and Waller and Fam (2000) looked further at the issue of
offensive products and offensive execution in studies in Australia and Malaysia respectively.

It has been claimed that as the amount of advertising and the extent of competition among companies increase, so will the amount of controversial advertisements, as companies try to gain the audience's attention and cut through the "clutter" (Lyons, 1996). In recent years, there has been a growing interest in industry and press publications about controversial advertising and the advertising of controversial products (Hornery, 1996; Lyons, 1996; Petty, 1997; Matthews, 1997; Waller, 1997).

The topics of interest focus on advertising regulation, the various industry bodies, and examples of controversial advertising. It must be remembered, however, that any client can become controversial either because of the nature of the industry, an activity undertaken by the company, or even because of some change in the marketing environment. However, agencies should be aware of the possibility of causing offence by taking on a particular client or by the advertising appeal being used. Recently, there have been a growing number of examples of controversial advertising, involving multinational companies, which indicate needs of continuing research in this area.

2.3 Reasons for finding advertisements offensive

The concept of advertising being offensive is not new. Bartos (1981) asserted that ‘there is clear evidence, however, that dislike of ads correlates with negative attitudes towards the industry’ (p. 138). He reported on research conducted by an advertising agency
indicating that advertising is increasingly insulting consumers’ intelligence. Most of the criticisms concerned taste: the advertising was ‘insulting to my intelligence’, ‘in poor taste’, ‘offensive’, ‘distasteful’ or ‘too overtly sexual’.

Dahl et al. (2003) proposes that offensive advertising is an act and/or a process that violates the norm. Offensive advertising includes messages that transgress laws and customs (e.g. anti-human rights), breach a moral or social code (e.g. profanity, vulgarity) or outrage the moral or physical senses (e.g. gratuitous use of violence, use of disgusting images). This definition is more comprehensive and instrumental as it extends the concept of offensive advertising from the marketing of unmentionables (the product or services) to a broader spectrum about advertising contents and forms.

Phau and Prendergast (2001) investigated “the matter” (products or services being advertised), “the manner” (advertising executions) and “the media” (advertising media/vehicles) of offensive advertising. Consumers find an advertisement offensive because the advertising execution is considered to be vulgar, obscene or irritating or the type of advertisement is not appropriate for a particular medium. (Prendergast & Chia 2003)

Sexism and racial discrimination are two offensive appeals of major concern in Western literature (Boddewyn, 1991; Ma, 1996). The former is about discrimination against people based on their sex and prejudice towards women in particular. Sexism appeals include female stereotypes (Ford and LaTour, 1993) and sexual appeals (LaTour, 1990). This execution in advertisements is seen when women are portrayed as sexual toys or
victims of violence, reinforcing cultural values of subservience, domination and inequality between sexes (White, 1990). Racial discrimination is about disrespecting people based on their race, often in the form of depreciating the customs, religions, and cultures of the minority.

In the Asian context, empirical studies found that sexist themes, fear, nudity and cultural insensitivity were the most frequently cited reasons for finding advertisements offensive (Phau and Prendergast, 2001; Prendergast et al., 2002). Offensiveness falls in the “soft issues” of advertising. It has nothing to do with “hard matters” such as improper substantiation or deception. As Boddewyn (1991) argued, offensive advertisements involve products, services, concepts, claims and/or imageries that elicit reaction of distaste, disgust, or outrage. Quite often, ads accused of offense are legal and truthful. Offensive advertising is context sensitive. As Ma (1996) suggested, the word “offensive” is highly associated with the subtleties of relational and situational context. Whether a word or an image is perceived to be offensive depends on the relationship between the parties involved and the occasion/situation where it is exposed. Offensive advertising is also culture specific (Boddewyn, 1991). It is perceived and judged by different criteria across cultures. For example, Chinese consumers were most offended by advertisements with indecent language, anti-social behavior, racist images, and nudity (Waller and Fam, 2001).

In Hong Kong Study (Prendergast, Ho & Phau 2002), the respondents generally found advertisements offensive due to sexist attitudes displayed in the advertisement followed by indecent language and nudity. Prior research (Phau and Prendergast, 2001) has
indicated that sexual connotation is regarded as an important reason for respondents finding advertisements offensive. However, sexual connotations in Hong Kong research ranked sixth followed by cultural insensitivity ranking at the bottom of the list. With respect to gender, the results are generally consistent with the overall findings. Female respondents ranked nudity in advertisements to be most offensive; while nudity ranked fourth for male respondents.

In Hong Kong view of offensive advertising, when compared to chat-line services, other products/services (Funeral services, gambling, condoms, dating services, female contraceptive, female hygiene products, weight loss product, female underwear, sexual disease, male underwear, pharmaceutical, hair replacement products, and alcohol) are generally ranked with lower levels of offensiveness among Hong Kong subjects (Prendergast, Ho & Phau 2002). As to why chat-line services are found to be so offensive maybe because, unofficially, in Hong Kong chat-line services means telephone sex (Prendergast, Ho & Phau 2002). It is not as innocent as the name ‘chat-line’ suggests. The mean scores with respect to offensive products are generally lower than those for the reasons for finding advertisements offensive.

2.4 Offensive Advertising and Products Categories

The offensiveness of an advertisement depends not only on the product/service (i.e. the subject matter), but also on the type of appeal and the manner of presentation. Sexuality in advertising creates high attention-obtaining value (LaTour et al., 1990). However,
strong erotic stimuli in some advertisements (i.e. nudity and overt sexual content) may produce a physiological arousal response and corresponding negative cognitions (Belch et al., 1981; La Tour, 1990). The recent Years Saint Laurent Opium perfume advertisement depicting a model in a provocative pose wearing nothing but high-heeled shoes is suspended in response to numerous public complaints about the advertisement. Women’s groups in the UK also claimed that the advertisement denigrated women (Phillips, 2001). However, only three complaints are received when the advertisement appeared only in magazines. Boddewyn (1989) suggested that people have different levels of tolerance to different media, but this issue is yet to be verified through research. Studies have found that advertisers could increase the interest and persuasiveness of an advertisement using a fear appeal. However, fear appeals may ‘expose a person against one’s will to harmful or seriously offensive images’ (Henthorne et al., 1993, p. 60). Products such as deodorants, mouthwash and dandruff shampoos have been criticized for attempting to create anxiety and using fear of social rejection in order to sell these products (Belch and Belch, 1998). Some advertisers offend simply by using ‘shock’ tactics. Italian clothier Benetton, which has made shocking advertisements its trademark, ran advertisements in magazines and billboards featuring condemned prisoners with the slogan ‘sentenced to death’ from January to March 2000 in major US cities. The company also published a supplementary catalogue entitled “We, on Death Ro,” which included photographs of 26 inmates and interviews in which they discussed how they viewed their impending punishment. The campaign received serious criticisms and social
outcry that the advertisements merely ‘cause unnecessary pain and distress to the families of the people killed by the men the campaign intends to “humanize”’ (Gwin, 2000, p. 12).

Hong Kong and Singapore consumers are more concerned about “the manner” than the other two dimensions for arousing offense among consumers (Prendergast et al., 2002). It is “the manner” that would commonly be perceived controllable by the advertisers and thus inexcusable if it is the cause of offensiveness in the eyes of consumers. Hong Kong viewers in general value the market information and entertainment created in advertising. However, a common criticism of advertising has been expressed over its taste aspects or what has been referred to as the manner rather than the matter of advertising. Objections include the use of sex or fear in order to sell a product or the silliness of presentation.

All these elements can lead to general consumer irritation (Sin and Cheng, 1984). With regard to the monitoring of television advertising, K. Chan (unpublished) reported that an overwhelming proportion of consumers objected to the idea that advertising content should be free from government control, while a majority agreed that the government should step up its control of advertising content. Hong Kong is an important area to study because it has been a source of social influence to neighboring countries in Southeast Asia (Tse et al., 1989).

While the majority of these studies are from the United States or Australia, with a focus on western attitudes, there has been a growing interest in observing attitudes toward the advertising of controversial products in Asian countries, including China, Malaysia, Hong Kong, and Singapore (Phau and Prendergast, 2001; Prendergast et al., 2002; Waller
and Fam, 2003; Fam et al., 2004). Phau and Prendergast (2001) found that products like cigarettes, alcohol, condoms, female contraceptives, and feminine hygiene products, are perceived as controversial products that could offend when being advertised, while Fam et al. (2004), who examined the impact of religion on four product categories across six countries found that religion has a direct influence on consumers’ perceptions towards gender/sex related products. Additionally, the authors found that consumers with strong religious affiliation tended to find advertising of gender/sex related products like condoms, male and female underwear, female contraceptive products, and female hygiene products more offensive relative to those who are less religious.

As the focus groups suggested, whether an audience will feel offended by advertising may depend more on the appeal than the product itself. Sin and Cheng (1984) also indicated that common criticisms of advertising mainly fall on the manner of advertising rather than the matter of advertising. Compared to Phau and Prendergast’s (2001) Singapore study, advertisements related to sexual diseases, dating services and male underwear are found to be less offensive in Hong Kong than in Singapore. Looking specifically at underwear, male underwear is found to be more offensive than female underwear in Singapore, yet female underwear is found to be slightly more offensive than male underwear in Hong Kong. Moving on to the manner of advertising, sexist themes, indecent language and nudity are found to be the major reasons for the respondents to find advertisements offensive in Hong Kong. Chat-line services are found to be the most offensive product from the list probably because advertisements for these services are usually presented in poor taste and with double meanings. However, this cannot explain
the reasons why the participants found advertisements regarding funeral services and gambling offensive. Phau and Prendergast (2001) found that, in their study of Singapore, sexist themes, nudity and indecent language are the least offensive ‘advertising manner’ in Singapore. Instead, Singaporeans are most offended by advertisements with sexual connotations, with subjects that are too personal and with subjects evoking unnecessary fear. Phau and Prendergast (2001) also found that female audiences are more sensitive than male audiences are to advertisements for chat-line services, male underwear, and condoms. However, no differences in the levels of offensiveness to any of the products/services are found to be significantly different between the male and female respondents in this Hong Kong study. Respondents with higher education levels generally perceive lower levels of offensiveness towards potentially offensive products and appeals, such as condoms, dating services and feminine hygiene products than do those with lower education levels. On the contrary, Phau and Prendergast’s (2001) Singapore respondents with higher education levels indicate a higher level of offensiveness towards products such as condoms, female underwear, and chat-line services than do respondents with lower education levels. With respect to gender, perceptions towards offensive advertising are generally consistent except on the level of offensiveness elicited by advertisements illustrating nudity. The $t$-test shows that the female participants express a significantly higher level of offensiveness towards this type of advertisement than the males. Consistent with the findings of Phillips (2001), interviewees are more tolerant of offensive advertising if it is placed in men and women’s magazines. Advertising content in magazines in Hong Kong has in the past faced less
legal restrictions than advertisements in the broadcast media. Therefore, Hong Kong people may ‘expect’ to be more offended by print magazines. They have become somewhat conditioned to it. Phau and Prendergast (2001) found that, although consumers in Singapore with tertiary education might find the advertisements for one product offensive, this offending image do not spill over to other products of the same company. The current study shows no such relationship for Hong Kong respondents. Instead, the female respondents show a higher likelihood than the male respondents of boycotting a company using offensive advertising did. In addition, the respondents are unlikely to buy products from a company using offensive advertising if a similar alternative is available from a ‘non-offending’ company.

Waller, Fam, and Yang (2008), conducted research on advertising of controversial products in China. As alcohol and condoms have been popularly examined as controversial products, Waller, Fam, and Yang (2008) specifically investigate the reactions of Chinese consumers toward the advertising of these products. They said, although alcohol is argued to be responsible for many of social ills (see Beaver, 1997; Fox et al., 1998; Jones and Donovan, 2001; Parker, 1998; Slater et al., 1999; Treise et al., 1999; Wolburg, 2005), it is still widely advertised in China. In contrast, despite the value of condoms in the protection from AIDS/STDs and unwanted pregnancies, it is also perceive that condoms promote promiscuous relationships and is very much frowned upon in some Asian societies (Fam et al., 2004; Taylor and Raymond, 2000). Condom is more of a ‘private’ good. A person can find it embarrassing to purchase condoms from retail outlets as possessing of condoms gives the impression that sexual intercourse is
about to take place, and sex before marriage is discouraged, and frowned upon in most of Asia including China (Fam et al., 2004).

Waller, Fam, and Yang (2008), found that gender, age, and values are three independent variables believed to be relevant to the study of Addressing the Advertising of Controversial Products in China attitudes toward controversial advertising. They found in their study that for a ‘public’ product like alcohol, there is little offence if advertised in China, while a ‘private’ product such as condoms will encounter some resistance if advertised in China. In particular, it found that values and the different generations have little impact on perceptions of alcohol advertising, but more of an impact on condom advertisements. The differences in the level of offensiveness can be attributed to Chinese cultural traditions, especially the legacy of Confucianism. The findings from Waller, Fam, and Yang (2008) study indicate that the Chinese consumer stakeholders are very much offended the advertising of condoms.

Chinese consumers are less likely to express their love, anger, and joy in the public. To them, meanings are often embedded in the message and advertisers do not have to declare them directly (Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey, 1988). This attitude is clearly portrayed in the findings for condoms. Females in particular, prefer the message be implied, while males think the use of condoms message be communicated creatively and at an appropriate time. Advertisers should also be aware of the demands of those over 60 years and those who cited ‘Security’ and ‘Traditional’ values oriented. These groups of consumers are more inclined to have the purpose of condoms embedded in the
commercials rather than explicitly announced to the public (Waller, Fam, and Yang 2008).

Although some studies have shown that younger people have a greater acceptance for offensive advertising, with advertisers more often using sexual or violent images to attract younger people (Barnes and Dotson, 1990; Bushman and Bonacci, 2002; Grazer and Keesling, 1995; Reichert, 2003; Waller, 1999), most Chinese insists that the family is a prototype of the society and harmony within the home should be maintained. To this end, advertisers should design their commercials for condoms to include more information that is indirect and nonverbal in order to reduce offensiveness that might create disharmony. In addition, advertisers are advised to use role models and celebrities in order to significantly improve the effectiveness of their commercials as these human icons are popular among the younger generation (Madden and Grube, 1994).

In terms of gender attitudes toward alcohol advertising, Waller, Fam, and Yang (2008) found in their study that females are more than three times likely to find the advertising of alcohol extremely offensive as compared to males. By contrast, the proportion of female respondents who find the advertising of condoms extremely offensive is about 30% more than males. In terms of age group, 62% of them claim they would not find the advertising of alcohol offensive compared to 15% who claim it would be extremely offensive. There is little difference among the three age groups who said the advertising of alcohol is inoffensive, and there is no statistical difference. As for condoms, respondents from the three age groups said they would find the advertising of condoms extremely offensive compared to 170 who will find it inoffensive. Among the three age
groups, those above 60 years is more likely to find the advertising of condoms extremely offensive relative to the 35–50 age groups and the 15–18 age groups.

2.5 Malaysian View of offensive advertising

Waller & Fam (2000) discuss that as Malaysia is a country with a number of influential ethnic and religious groups, an important part of the Advertising Code promotes cultural sensitivity in advertisements. It prohibits advertisements that “contain statements or suggestions which may offend the religious, racial, political, or sentimental susceptibilities of any section of the community.” This means that party political broadcast that targets a specific racial group or incites one group to rise against another is strictly prohibited. Such prohibition stemmed from the 1969 racial riots. This prohibition is deemed vital in achieving racial and national harmony in a multiracial country such as Malaysia. Therefore, any advertisements that depict anti-social behavior will not be tolerated. It would, therefore, be clearly against the Code (especially relating to cultural sensitivity and social responsibility) to advertise such products as "Racially Extremist Groups", "Guns & Armaments", "Religious Denominations" and "Political Parties".

Waller & Fam (2000) found in their study that some product with offensive advertising such as “Racially Extremist Group”, “Guns & Armaments”, “Gambling”, “Religious Denominations”, “political parties”, and “Funeral Services” cannot be legally advertised while other products with offensive advertising such as “Alcohol”, “Cigarette”, “Condoms”, “Female Contraceptives”, “Female Underwear”, “Male Underwear”,

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“Female Hygiene Products”, and “Pharmaceuticals” can be advertised with limitation. They also discuss that the regulations in Malaysia reflect the national aspirations of achieving a Malaysian identity and culture, while conforming to the values of Islam, the national religion. In particular, it prohibits the “adaptation or projection of foreign culture which is not acceptable to a cross section of the major communities of the Malaysian society either in the form of words, slogans, clothing, activity, or behavior.” Advertisements which depict “ways of life that are against or totally different from the ways of life followed by Malaysians” were also disallowed. In some countries, such as Malaysia, certain products cannot be legally advertised or can be advertised with limitations, and advertisers must be careful that the content of the images in the advertisement will not offend the local community (Waller & Fam 2000).

Munusamy & Hoo (2007), in their study examines the relationship between students’ beliefs and their attitude towards advertising in Malaysia. They found that the belief factors have a significant relationship with attitude towards advertising. Hence, they suggested that implication for managers and organizations is to create successful advertising messages in order to achieve their objectives and goals for competitive advantages. They also discussed that it is important for managers to maintain proper focus on the appropriate beliefs of Malaysian students about advertising. While concentrating more effort on building a message that is inclined to favorable beliefs, managers will also need to watch out for the unfavorable factors that may lead to negative attitudes towards their advertisements.
Among favorable belief factors are the Product Information, Consumer Benefit, and Hedonic roles of advertising (Munusamy & Hoo 2007). Excessive communication using the wrong messages; messages that are either manipulative or materialistic or those that corrupt values will have negative effects and cause dissatisfaction among Malaysian students. In addition, changing the existing attitude is a difficult task and needs to be handled with care (Munusamy & Hoo 2007).

2.6 Potential effects of offensive advertising on purchase behavior

Ford et al. (1997) hypothesized a model for examining female responses to offensive sex role portrayals in advertising. The model suggested that the negative company image caused by using potentially offensive advertising has a negative impact on purchase intentions to buy a company’s products. Consumers who are not happy with the role portrayal depictions might not purchase the products of companies that they perceive as using offensive advertisements. However, more recent research (Phau and Prendergast, 2001) found that, while consumers with tertiary education may find the advertisements for one product offensive, this offending image does not spill over to other products from the same company.

Waller, Fam, and Yang (2008) discussed that, meeting and addressing what the consumers want should remain the focus of an effective health information promotional campaign. After all, there is a social responsibility ‘contract’ between the advertisers and the consumers when the latter permits the advertiser to operate in their ‘environment.’ If this condition is not met and offence is taken, inevitably the consumers will tend not to
listen to the message or patronize the business, even though it may be a good product and have benefits to the consumer. This is jive with Michell and Al-Mossawi (1999) study that claim an offensive advertisement will not be effective in capturing an audience’s attention or changing his/her attitudes. In addition, an alienated public will certainly have a negative attitude towards the advertisement and brand recall (Zinkhan and Martin, 1982; Gardner, 1985).

Some of these critics have claimed that, consumers tend to respond favourably to advertisements and reward advertisers with purchases if advertising messages are congruent with their culture (Zhang and Gelb, 1996; Belk et al., 1985; Boddewyn et al., 1986; Buzzell, 1968; Harris, 1984; Hornik, 1980). A number of studies have found that advertisements that reflect some local cultural values are more persuasive than those that ignore them (Gregory and Munch, 1997; Han and Shavitt, 1994; Hong et al., 1987; Madden et al., 1986; Marquez, 1975; Taylor et al., 1997). Therefore, knowing what consumers like about a communication is important, as advertisements that are liked are given greater mental processing effort and this might lead to a purchase of the advertised product (Walker, 1990; Thorson, 1991; Franzen, 1994; Walker and Dubitsky, 1994; Hollis, 1995).

As suggested by Biel and Bridgwater (1990, p. 38) likeability does have a persuasive effect, as it can directly affect feelings towards a brand, that is “If we like the advertising, we are more inclined to like the brand by means of a simple conditioning process”. In their study of US television commercials, Biel and Bridgwater (1990) identified five likeable dimensions which they labeled “ingenuity” “meaningfulness” “energy”
“warmth” and “rubs the wrong way”. They concluded that, the overall contribution each of these dimensions makes towards explaining advertising likeability differs from one product category to another. Aaker and Stayman (1990) also carried out a similar likeability study covering 80 commercials, and came up with identical findings to Biel and Bridgwater (1990).

2.7 Potential effects of offensive advertising on brand loyalty

Loyalty can be defined as a feeling of attachment to a certain brands and companies (Kotler et al, 1989). Aaker (1991) defines brand loyalty as the degrees of consumer’s emotional attachment to the brand and suggests that it has six dimensions: consumer willingness to repurchase, price premium, satisfaction rate, switching cost, preference over brand and commitment to brand. Perhaps the most cited conceptual definition of brand loyalty comes from Jacoby and Chestnut (1978, p.80): “The biased, behavioral response, expressed over time, by some decision-making unit, with respect to one or more alternative brands out of a set of such brands, and is a function of psychological (decision-making, evaluative) processes.” Consistent with this definition are two broad categories of operational definitions. The first stresses the “behavioral response, expressed over time” - typically a series of purchases. For example: The purchase pattern, “Coke, Coke, Coke, Pepsi, Coke” suggests higher loyalty than “Coke, Pepsi, Store brand, Pepsi, Coke.” Companies whose consumers are strongly loyal can gain important competitive advantages in marketing, such as reduced corporate marketing and
transactional cost, increased cross-selling rate, a greater positive word-of-mouth effect and reduced cost failure (Griffin, 1996).

In a recent review of the concept, Oliver (1999) proposed four categories of brand loyalty. The four are based on the classic hierarchy of effects notion that consumers’ first process information to form beliefs, use those beliefs as the basis for attitudes, then make behavioral decisions based on relative attitude strengths. Oliver argues that the value to the firm of loyalty increases as the basis moves from attribute beliefs, to attitudes, to behavioral intentions, and, in the fourth category, he adds, to a behavior pattern that is strong enough to resist most obstacles.

Yim and Kannan (1998) cite that existing literature on brand loyalty has mostly considered loyalty as a notion of consumers being exclusively loyal to a single alternative. However, Yim and Kannan (1998) also suggest that unprecedented number of competing product alternatives and increased fragmentation of markets has led to the decrease in the number of consumer purchasing brands exclusively. For example, from 1975 to 1984, the percentage of consumers drinking Coke exclusively dropped from 18% to 12% (Hartley, 1992). Consumers are therefore embracing a set of acceptable brands that match their needs rather than being loyal to one specific brand.

Offensive advertisements can be harmful for both the products and the brands. Burke and Edell (1989) found that consumers’ feelings generated by an advertisement would transfer to their evaluation of the brand. Such negative perceptions would also lead to low-purchase intention. Consumers were less likely to buy products from a company
using offensive advertisements if a similar alternative was available from a non-offending company (An and Kim, 2006). Consumers in Hong Kong were likely to boycott a company using offensive advertising (Prendergast et al., 2002).

For example, the Benetton campaign showed varying offending visuals, for instance, blood-covered dirty clothes, an overcrowded boat with refugees jumping into the sea in despair, people with tattoos reading “HIV positive,” dying people, etc. was perceived offensive by many Germans and led to many debates, especially among advertising practitioners (Clemens and Stahlschmidt, 1994; Voigt, 1994; Happel, 1995). Pirowsky (1993) reports results of a survey among advertising experts, and according to that study, the Benetton campaign in Germany led to increases in brand awareness but massive decreases in brand sympathy.

Alexander, 1983; Severn et al., 1990) have consistently demonstrated that sex appeal, being one of the offensive advertisement attract attention to the advertisement, but does little for the advertised brand and product. Stewart and Furse (2000) also contended that sex appeal might increase attention to the advertisement, but not necessarily enhance recall or positive attitudes towards a brand. Moreover, previous studies (e.g. Bumler, 1999) also suggested that inappropriate and excessive use of sexual content might lead to negative associations of the advertised brand and subsequently shatter brand loyalty.

Kara Chan et al (2007)’s findings further demonstrates that advertisers have to be careful when using potentially offensive advertisement because the more negative the
advertisement is perceived, the higher the likelihood of rejecting the products and the brands.

2.8 Attitudes towards Offensive Advertisement and Demographic factors

Time, place, and demographics are factors affecting consumers’ levels of perceived offensiveness of an advertisement (Prendergast et al., 2002). Attitudes towards offensive advertisement varies according to demographics in particular gender and educations (Phau and Prendergast, 2001).

Geographic location is not an important factor affecting the perceived levels of offensiveness of the products/services. Waller, Fam & Erdogan (2005) found that geography or location is not a major determinant of attitudes. It is clear that the countries located in the same regions do not have similar views regarding what offends them when it comes to advertising certain controversial products and advertising execution. What is important relates to the issues of culture, language, history and, particularly, religion.

In Western countries, Aaker and Bruzzone (1985) found that the three most disgusting commercials in the USA were those encouraging consumers to purchase the following products: feminine hygiene products, women’s undergarments, and hemorrhoid treatments. Waller (1999) disclosed that the three most offensive products/services in Australia were those related to racially extremist groups, religious denominations, and feminine hygiene products. Recent research carried out in Singapore (Phau & Prendergast 2001) found that the three most offensive products were chat-line services, sexual diseases treatments/ prevention and dating services. Phau and Prendergast (2001)
also found that these attitudes vary according to demographics, particularly in terms of gender and education. The above research suggests that consumers’ attitudes towards offensive advertising might vary across cultures and demographic groups.

According to Armstrong, Kotler & Silva (2005), demography is the study of human population in terms of size, density, location, age, gender, race, occupation, and other statistics. The demographic environment is of major interest to marketers because it involves people, and people make up market. Demographic segmentation divides the market into group base on the variables such as age, gender, family size, family life cycle, income, occupation, education, religion, race, generation, and nationality.

Demographics describe a population in term of its size, distribution, and structure. Demographics influence consumption behaviors both directly and by affecting other attributes of individual, such as their personal values and decision styles. Marketer frequently segment markets based on demographics. (Hawkins, Best & Coney 2004).

Demographic factors are the most popular base for segmenting customer groups. One reason is that consumer needs, wants, and usage rates often very closely with demographic variables. Another is that demographic variable are easier to measure than most other type of variables. Even when market segment are first defined using other bases, such as benefits sought or behavior, their demographic characteristics must be known in order to assess the size of the target market and to reach it efficiently. Kotler & Armstrong (2004) describes demographics, as they are statistics that measure observable aspect of a population, such as birthrate, age distribution, and income.
Demography is the scientific study of characteristics and dynamics pertaining to the human population. The characteristics encompassed by this study include size, growth rate, density, vital statistics, and distribution of a specified population. Demography requires the study of specific information that may be gathered from a population census or vital statistic records (Kneale & Joshi 2008).

Demography is widely used for various purposes and can encompass small, targeted populations or mass populations. Governments use demography for political observations, scientists use demography for research purposes, and businesses use demography for advertising. In real estate, demography is employed to give clients an overview of specific neighborhoods (Kneale & Joshi 2008).

Statistical concepts essential to demography include birth and death rate, infant mortality rate, fertility rate, and life expectancy. These concepts can be further broken down into more specific data, such as the ratio of men to women and the life expectancy of each gender. A census helps provide much of this information, in addition to vital statistic records. In some studies, the demography of an area is expanded to include education, income, the structure of the family unit, housing, race or ethnicity, and religion. The information gathered and studied for a demographic overview of a population depends on the party utilizing the information (Kneale & Joshi 2008).

According to Kneale & Joshi (2008), Advertising relies heavily on demography, since service and goods providers need specific information to reach the maximum number of potential customers in their target audience. Similarly, education relies on demography to
help gather information to provide necessary governmental and local assistance. An example of large-scale demography is the collection of demographic information for an entire country. Such information might be used to determine a need for world assistance due to famine, disease, or other serious issues.

In general, there are strong differences between men and women, with women much more likely to think adverts sometimes go too far (British Market Research Bureau Social Research, 2002). According to Waller (2004), females tend to be more offended than males by alcohol advertisements, while males were more offended than females by advertisements about male underwear. Females also tend to be more offended than males by advertisements with indecent language, nudity, sexist, racist, and anti-social behavior.

In a study that focused on advertising “sensitive products”, Fahy et al. (1995) asked a sample of more than 2,000 people about their attitudes towards the advertising on certain products on television. The products were grouped into three main categories:

- alcoholic beverages
- products directed at children; and
- health/sex-related products

Comparing the attitudes according to sex, age, income, region, education, and race, they found that women particularly aged 50 and over, had much higher disapproval levels for such commercials than women of other age groups. Female consumers had a lower tolerance level toward advertisements illustrating nudity than male consumers (Prendergast et al., 2002).
According to Waller (1999), within society there are various social aspects like ethnic diversity, the use of multiple languages, and the practice of different religions that can have a large influence on how a company can advertise its products. This may mean a marketer must change advertising material, vary product varieties, and avoid marketing activities that may cause offence to the local market. This is applicable in Malaysia. The country has three main ethnic groups (Malay, Chinese, and Indian) with a mixture of languages and a number of religions being practiced (Islam, Buddhist, Taoism, Hinduism, and Christianity). Waller (1999) also mentioned Malaysia, in particular is a diverse country with a range of large and influential ethnic, language and religion differences, which must be accounted for if undertaking a standardized promotional program.

Religious beliefs play a significant part in sculpting social behavior. Differences in religious affiliations tend to influence the way people live, the choices they make, what they eat, and whom they associate with. According to Hirschman (1983), the religious affiliations of Catholics, Protestants, and Jews significantly shaped their attitudes towards dancing, magazines, restaurants and political ideas. There is also a strong relationship between religious persons and greater concern for moral standards (Wiebe and Fleck, 1980), being conservative (Barton and Vaughan, 1976), and possessing more traditional attitudes (Wilkes et al., 1986). The impact of religion on consumption patterns usually relates to the restriction of certain foods and beverages, for example, Jews and Muslims do not eat pork, Hindus do not eat beef, and drinking alcohol is frowned upon if not forbidden by Islam and strict Christians. Religion also influences gender roles in a
particular culture. In Islamic countries, both men and women must cover their torso and upper legs at all times and in the case of women, only their faces’ skin may be exposed (Deng et al., 1994).

One needs to understand that in Asia the religious sphere has been characterized by a multiplicity of influences. According to Birch et al. (2001): “What many in the West understand as ‘Chinese religions’ or ‘Indian beliefs’ are the results of long and complex periods of interactions between a range of beliefs and practices involving other human endeavors and identities. It would be impossible, then, to speak of an ‘original’ Chinese or Indian religious system without also taking into account the interactions between Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism in the former case, and the long history of coexistence of Hindus and Muslims within the shared spaces in the latter.” (p. 105).

The finding of Waller & Fam (2003) indicates that Malaysians were particularly offended by Gender/Sex Related Products advertisements relative to the other three countries. The higher degree of offence could be attributed to Islam, as Malaysia is a predominantly Muslim country. According to the principles of Islam, both men and women must cover their torso and upper legs at all times and in the case of women, only her face’s skin may be exposed (Deng and Hassan, 1994).

According to Waller & Fam (2003), Gender/Sex Related Products are strongly correlated with “Nudity” and “Sexist Images” and they are the top two reasons for offence in Malaysia. From these findings, it can be inferred that the reasons Malaysians found advertisements related to Gender/Sex Related Products, like male/female underwear, condoms, female contraceptives and female hygiene products offensive, are due to these
products have closely associated with nudity and sexist images, which are deemed contradictory to their religious belief, (Waller & Fam 2003).

This is not to say that other religions such as Buddhism, Christianity and Non-religious Believers condoned such advertisements, or that Non-Religious Believers, who do not adhere to a particular religion, do not have morality. In Table III, although China has no officially sanctioned religion, the Chinese sample found advertisements of Gender/Sex Related Products offensive. New Zealanders showed some degree of offensiveness, but tend to tolerate Gender/Sex Related products advertisements, which could also be attributed to New Zealand being more liberal than the three Asian countries. There is also a strong correlation between Addictive Products and Social/Political Groups and issues relating to nudity, indecent language, subject too personal, sexist images, anti-social behavior and even racist images. There are some consistencies concerning these reasons for offence. Take, for example, many alcohol advertisements use women and women in sexy clothing to advertise the brand. In addition, many people who are drunk tend to hail abuse and use other anti-social behaviors at innocent people. Hence, people would find these behaviors unacceptable and relate it to the source alcoholic beverages. Smoking is also becoming uncoil in today’s health conscious society. Most religions would oppose cigarette advertising, particularly relating cigarette sponsorship and sporting events where women in sexy clothing are often employed to promote the respective brands at the sporting field or motor racing circuit. It would be felt to be inappropriate as those attending, and particularly young children might associate smoking, sexy girls and sport/racing all go together in the one event.
The influence of religious beliefs on individual and social behaviour is well documented (see Greeley, 1977; Hirschman, 1983; LaBarbera, 1987; Uppal, 1986; Anand and Kumar, 1982; Luqmani et al., 1987; Michell and Al-Mossawi, 1999; LaBarbera, 1987; McDaniel and Burnett, 1990; Waller and Fam, 2000; Birch et al., 2001). However, a review of the pertinent literature showed only a handful of studies that directly examined the influence of religion on marketing communications. Moreover, the religious studies which did look at the influence on marketing communications focused only on the influence of Islam on advertising content and regulation in Saudi Arabia (Luqmani et al., 1987) and message contentiousness among Persian Gulf Co-operative Council countries (Michell and Al-Mossawi, 1999). Both of these studies revealed the importance of understanding the Islamic religion in relation to effective advertising. In particular, Luqmani et al. (1987) claim that provocative and unconventional advertising strategies and advertisements must obtain prior approval from religious authorities. Failure to do so will result in alienation of a wide segment of the conservative Saudi public. The findings from Michell and Al-Mossawi’s (1999) study of Persian Gulf Co-operative Council countries showed religiously strict Muslims scored lower in terms of recall and were unfavorable towards contentious advertisements relative to lenient Muslims. The findings suggest that there is a difference in perceived controversial elements in advertisements between a devout and a lenient Muslim.

These findings also highlight the importance of matching creative execution, message content, etc. to a society’s socio-cultural environment (Peebles and Ryans, 1984). Suffice
to say, an alienated public will certainly have a negative attitude towards the advertisement and brand recall (Zinkhan and Martin, 1982; Gardner, 1985). Michell and Al-Mossawi (1999) claim an offensive advertisement will not be effective in capturing an audience’s attention or changing his/her attitudes.

The effects of religion on the advertising of controversial products remain largely unstudied to date. The aim of this study is to narrow the current knowledge gap by extending the number of religious beliefs for analysis to include Buddhism, Hinduism and Islam. The understanding of how various religious beliefs and their intensity influence offence towards the advertising of controversial products is of great importance to international advertisers and advertising agency managers in their efforts to improve advertising effectiveness without offending or alienating their target audience.

Education also plays a role in the perception of offensive advertising but not in the same direction for different cultures (Kara Chan et.al, 2007). There are clear differences in attitude between people of different backgrounds towards offensive advertisement. According to British Market Research Bureau Social Research in 2003 they found that respondents who completed their education at the age of 21 or older (indicating degree level or equivalent education), are more offended than respondents who left school at the end of their compulsory education.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Development of research framework and research hypothesis

This study investigates consequences of the consumers’ attitude towards offensive advertising and its impact on purchase intention and brand loyalty. It is partially a replication of Waller & Fam (2000), and Waller, Fam & Erdogan (2005) as a result, the proposed framework, illustrated in Figure 3.1 is an adaptation of Waller, Fam & Erdogan (2005) with two outcome variables, brand loyalty and purchase intention.

Figure 3.1:

Theoretical (Conceptual) Framework

[Diagram showing the relationship between attitude toward offensive advertising, purchase intention, and brand loyalty]
We established five hypotheses to be tested based on the earlier researches and literatures review explained in the previous chapter.

Offensive advertisements can be harmful for both the products and the brands. Burke and Edell (1989) found that consumers’ feelings generated by an advertisement would transfer to their evaluation of the brand. Such negative perceptions would also lead to low-purchase intention. Consumers are less likely to buy products from a company using offensive advertisements if a similar alternative was available from a non-offending company (An and Kim, 2006). Consumers in Hong Kong are likely to boycott a company using offensive advertising (Prendergast et al., 2002).

Phau and Prendergast (2001) found that, although consumers in Singapore with tertiary education might find the advertisements for one product offensive, this offending image do not spill over to other products of the same company. The current study shows no such relationship for Hong Kong respondents. Instead, the female respondents show a higher likelihood than the male respondents of boycotting a company using offensive advertising do. In addition, the respondents are unlikely to buy products from a company using offensive advertising if a similar alternative is available from a ‘non-offending’ company. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that:

**H1:** There is a negative relationship between attitude towards offensive advertising and brand loyalty
In terms of gender attitudes toward alcohol advertising, Waller, Fam, and Yang (2008) found in their study that females are more than three times likely to find the advertising of alcohol extremely offensive as compared to males. Ford et al. (1997) hypothesized a model for examining female responses to offensive sex role portrayals in advertising. The model suggested that the negative company image caused by using potentially offensive advertising has a negative impact on purchase intentions to buy a company’s products. Consumers who are not happy with the role portrayal depictions might not purchase the products of companies that they perceive as using offensive advertisements, and therefore it is proposes that:

**H2:** There is a negative relationship between attitude towards offensive advertising and purchase intention

In terms of gender attitudes toward controversial products advertising, Waller, Fam, and Yang (2008) found in their study that females are more than three times likely to find the advertising of alcohol extremely offensive as compared to males. By contrast, the proportion of female respondents who found the advertising of condoms extremely offensive is about 30% more than males. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that:

**H3:** There are significant differences between male & female’s with respect to attitude towards offensive advertising
The impact of religion on consumption patterns usually relates to the restriction of certain foods and beverages, for example, Jews and Muslims do not eat pork, Hindus do not eat beef, and drinking alcohol is frowned upon if not forbidden by Islam and strict Christians. Religion also influences gender roles in a particular culture. In Islamic countries, both men and women must cover their torso and upper legs at all times and in the case of women, only their faces’ skin may be exposed (Deng et al., 1994).

One needs to understand that in Asia the religious sphere has been characterized by a multiplicity of influences. According to Birch et al. (2001): “What many in the West understand as ‘Chinese religions’ or ‘Indian beliefs’ are the results of long and complex periods of interactions between a range of beliefs and practices involving other human endeavors and identities. It would be impossible, then, to speak of an ‘original’ Chinese or Indian religious system without also taking into account the interactions between Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism in the former case, and the long history of coexistence of Hindus and Muslims within the shared spaces in the latter.” (p. 105).

The finding of Waller & Fam (2003) indicates that Malaysians were particularly offended by Gender/Sex Related Products advertisements relative to the other three countries. The higher degree of offence could be attributed to Islam, as Malaysia is a predominantly Muslim country. According to the principles of Islam, both men and women must cover their torso and upper legs at all times and in the case of women, only her face’s skin may be exposed (Deng and Hassan, 1994).

According to Waller & Fam (2003), Gender/Sex Related Products are strongly correlated with “Nudity” and “Sexist Images” and they are the top two reasons for offence in
Malaysia. From these findings, it can be inferred that the reasons Malaysians found advertisements related to Gender/Sex Related Products, like male/female underwear, condoms, female contraceptives and female hygiene products offensive, are due to these products have closely associated with nudity and sexist images, which are deemed contradictory to their religious belief, (Waller & Fam 2003). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that:

**H4:** There are significant differences in attitudes towards offensive advertisement among the different religious groups

Respondents with higher education levels generally perceived lower levels of offensiveness towards potentially offensive products and appeals, such as condoms, dating services and feminine hygiene products than do those with lower education levels. On the contrary, Phau and Prendergast’s (2001) Singapore respondents with higher education levels indicate a higher level of offensiveness towards products such as condoms, female underwear, and chat-line services than do respondents with lower education levels.

According to British Market Research Bureau Social Research in 2003, they found that respondents who completed their education at the age of 21 or older (indicating degree level or equivalent education), are more offended than respondents who left school at the end of their compulsory education. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that:
H5: There are significant differences in attitudes towards offensive advertisement between the groups with high and low education.

3.2 Selection of Measures

The questionnaire consists of eight sections. The first section of questionnaire contains questions to measures respondents attitudes towards offensive advertising and, indicates the extent of their agreement and disagreement with each statement. Some of the items were chosen, and their operationalisation reflected those used in past studies (Mittal, 1994). Respondents were asked about the items on attitude toward offensive advertising in general (measured on a five-point scale) with descriptive anchors ranging from (1) ‘strongly disagree’ to (5) ‘strongly agree’. We compare the results across demographics namely gender, religion, and level of education

The second section of the questionnaire presented seventeen products (Waller, 1999) and the respondents are asked to indicate the level to which they are offended by such advertising. The list of products/services presented are based on past literature (Wilson and West, 1981; Triff et al., 1987; Shao, 1993; Fahy et al., 1995; Matthews, 1997; Waller and Fam, 2000) and resulted in 17 examples: Alcohol, Cigarettes, Condoms, Female contraceptives, Female hygiene products, Female underwear, Funeral services, Gambling, Gun & Armaments, Male underwear, Pharmaceuticals, political parties, Racially extremist groups Religious denominations, Sexual diseases (AIDS, STD prevention), Charities, and Weight loss programs.

The section five of the questionnaire presented nine reasons for an advertisement being seen as offensive and the respondents were asked to indicate the level to which they are
offended for those reasons. These reasons are taken from an earlier research (Waller, 1999) and are Racist Image, Sexiest Image, Violence, Stereotyping of People, and Anti-social behavior, Concern for Children, Subject Too Personal, Indecent Language, and Nudity. These causes are taken from previous study done in other countries (Waller, 1999; Waller, 2004). Earlier studies made comparison among countries. However, in this study Malaysian are compared across ethnic groups, gender, religion, and level of education.

Sections, two and five are measured by five-point Likert-type format, replicated from previous study, Waller, D.S. (1999). The respondents are asked to indicate their level of personal “offence” on a five-point scale, (1) = “not at all” offensive and (5) = “extremely” offensive.

The section three and four of questionnaire indicate the source of information and in what form the advertisement have been seen. The list of products/services presented in these two sections are based on past literature (Wilson and West, 1981; Triff et al., 1987; Shao, 1993; Fahy et al., 1995; Matthews, 1997; Waller and Fam, 2000) and resulted in 17 products: Alcohol, Cigarettes, Condoms, Female contraceptives, Female hygiene products, Female underwear, Funeral services, Gambling, Gun & Armaments, Male underwear, Pharmaceuticals, political parties, Racially extremist groups Religious denominations, Sexual diseases (AIDS, STD prevention), Charities, and Weight loss programs.
Sections, six and seven’s statements describe respondents’ response to advertisement that offended them in regards to purchase intention and brand loyalty. Statements related to respondents’ intention to purchase are adopted and adapted from Lundstrom and Sciglimpaglia (1997). Same attitude statements have also been used in studies by Dawson (1981), Ford and La Tour (1993).

Nine brand loyalty statements related to the respondents’ perception towards offensive advertising are employed. These statements are identical to those used by Taylor (2004) and Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001) conducted a study to examine the attitudinal loyalty and behavioral loyalty. Both statements are selected to measure brand loyalty of consumers. It uses five Likert-type scales, ranging from “Strongly disagree” (1) to “Strongly agree” (5).

3.3 Sampling Design

Convenience sampling is employed for the study. The targeted sample size is 100 to provide an adequate level of confidence in the study, a higher level or reliability in data analyzes. However to obtain measure of attitudes towards offensive advertising, questionnaires are conveniently distributed to 350 person with expectation that some of the targeted respondents might not respond or return the questionnaires to the researcher. The rationale for using university students as subjects has been a research method practiced overseas for many years, mainly for their accessibility to the researcher and homogeneity as a group (Calder et al., 1981). Student samples have already been used in the studies mentioned previously by Rehman and Brooks (1987), Tinkham, and Weaver-
Larisey (1994). Many studies have used student samples and justified their use in similar attitude research by arguing that there is little difference between student attitude towards advertising and beliefs and those of other segments of the population (Andrews, 1989; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Ramaprasad and Thurwanger, 1998).

A total of 350 students were sampled. The questionnaires are distributed based on convenient sampling and take approximately five to ten minutes to complete.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

Survey is the method used for collecting the data. The subjects are students mainly from the Klang Valley. The respondents from Klang Valley make up 100% of total responses. The respondents are selected from a number of universities mainly UM (University Malaya), UPM (University Putra Malaysia), UKM (University Kebangsaan Malaysia), MMU (Multimedia University), and a few other private colleges within Klang Valley such as Help University College and Limkokwing University of Creative Technology. Questionnaires are circulated physically, i.e. printed, and face-to-face or drop off and collected later, and through cyber, i.e. e-mail. Respondents are allowed to take home the questionnaire and submit it upon completion within one week. This lead to approximately 100 e-mails and 250 printed questionnaires that are sent to potential respondents and overall, 186 respondents are collected, which represent a response rate of 53%. Only 151 questionnaires are complete and were taken into the consideration (43 %). This number of sample collected is reasonably sufficient for the purpose of this study.
The respondents also are informed of as to whom and when the completed questionnaires would be collected. Self-administered questionnaire is chosen, as it is less expensive in terms of time needed and work force. The purpose of survey is explained in the cover letter of the questionnaire. In case where certain subject filled the questionnaire carelessly, or they unintentionally left behind some unanswered questions for section four and section five we trace back the subject for clarification to ensure that all questions are answered.

3.5 Data Analysis Technique

The questionnaires collected are screened manually to weed out any incomplete response conducted. Statistical analysis of the data collected from the survey was then accomplished by using the Statistical Package for Social Science program (SPSS). Statistical Package for Social Science program are used to analyze the data gathered from the survey via the ordinary methods of data processing such as descriptive and empirical methods as well as Pearson correlation method to explore the strength of the relationship between two continuous variables This gives researcher an indication of both the direction (positive or negative) arid the strength of the relation-ship. Completed questionnaires from respondents are coded in numerical number and keyed into the Statistical Package for Social Science program (SPSS) to be analyzed by the software

This study consists of nominal variable i.e. gender and religion and ordinal variable i.e. level of education, level of offensiveness, brand loyalty, and purchase intention.
CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

This chapter discusses the research results. The main purpose of this study is to examine the attitude of consumers towards the offensive advertising and manner of advertising used by marketer and also to examine the effect of offensive advertising on consumers brand loyalty and purchase intention. In this study the influence of selected variables (i.e., gender, religion and level of education) on the attitude towards offensive advertising were also examined.

4.1 Data collection summary

Table 4.1
Data collection summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaires sent out</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaire returned</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vs sent out questionnaires</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejected</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usable questionnaires</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vs returned questionnaires</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vs sent out questionnaires</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We have collected 186 samples for the analysis. Male consist of 55.6% of the sample and female is 44.4%. Out of 350 questionnaires sent out, a return ratio of 53% or 186 responses has been obtained. Out of the total 186 responses obtained; a rejection ratio of about 18% has occurred. The rejection was due to incomplete or insufficient data. Therefore, the number of usable questionnaires for further analysis was 151, which is about 81% compare to the total returned questionnaires and 43% of total sent out questionnaires.

4.2 Data Screening and Transformation

Data screening and transformation techniques are used in this research to ensure that data have been correctly entered and that the distribution of variables that are to be used in analysis are normal and reliable.

4.2.1 Data Transforming

Before data were tested, some data values have to be recorded. Negatively worded statements were recoded for data testing purpose.

4.3 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Table 4.2 presents demographic data of the respondents based on race, gender, level of education and religion. According to the table 4.2, the demographic distribution is as bellow:
Table 4.2
Demographic Profile of Respondent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographical Data</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>44.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Educational Level**|           |            |
| Low Education        | 53        | 35.1%      |
| High Education       | 98        | 64.9%      |
| Total                | 151       | 100%       |

| **Religion**         |           |            |
| Buddhist/Taoism      | 37        | 24.5%      |
| Islam                | 80        | 53.0%      |
| Hinduism             | 18        | 11.9%      |
| Christianity         | 16        | 10.6%      |
| Total                | 151       | 100%       |

| **Race**             |           |            |
| Malay                | 84        | 55.6%      |
| Chinese              | 44        | 29.1%      |
| Indian               | 23        | 15.2%      |
| Total                | 151       | 100%       |
4.3.1 Gender

The following chart 4.1 shows that most of the total respondents were male (55.6%), while female respondents made up of the balance 44.4%.

Figure 4.1

4.3.2 Educational Level

The chart for the various groups of education level is shown in figure 4.2. We have recoded the level of education into two groups, High and Low educational level whereby, respondents with diploma, high school and lower high school level of education are among low level of education and respondents with graduate and postgraduate degree are
considered as high educational level. Majority of the respondents have obtained a High educational level (64.9%). This is followed by 35.1% of respondents with low educational level.

Figure 4.2

4.3.3 Religion

The charts for the various religions are shown in figure 4.3. Majority of respondents are Muslim (53%) followed by Buddhism and Taoism (24.5%) and Hinduism (11.9%). Christianity is the less frequent among religions group by only 10.6%.
4.3.4 Level of Income

The following chart, figure 4.4 shows that most of the total respondents are within RM 3,000-3,999 range of income by 49.7% followed by RM 2,000-2,999 by 36.4% of respondents. 9.3% of respondents are within a range of RM 1,000-1,999 levels of income and respondents with the level of income RM 4,000-4,999, are only made up of the 4.6% of total respondents.
4.3.5 Age levels of Respondents

The charts for the various age levels of respondents are shown in figure 4.5. The age group of 26-35 made up most of respondents by 57% this is followed by 36-45 age group at 18.5 % and below 25 years old respondent by 17.2% . The respondents within age group of 46-55 are made up only 7.3 % of total respondents.
4.4 Data Analysis

SPSS software has been employed as a tool to investigate the data by using Pearson correlation method to explore the strength of the relationship between two continuous variables. This gives researcher an indication of both the direction (positive or negative) and the strength of the relationship.
4.4.1 Reliability Analysis

When researchers are selecting scales to include in his/her study, it is important to find scales that are reliable. There are a number of different aspects to reliability one of the main issues concerns the scale’s internal consistency. This refers to the degree to which the items that make up the scale 'hang together'. Are they all measuring the same underlying construct? One of the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency is Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Ideally, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of scale should be above .7. Cronbach alpha values are however, quite sensitive to the number of items in the scale. With short scales (e.g., scales with less than ten items), it is common to find quite low Cronbach values (e.g., .5)

Cronbach’s alpha also can be interpreted as correlation coefficient, it is ranging from 0 to 1 while determines coeffiecient of internal consistency to ensure a reliable scale. The Cronbach’s alpha for the research factors is 0.686 which is near favourable. But investigating the total item statistics table of reliability test shows that crossing of some of the factors will cause slightly increase in the Cronbach’s alpha. These factors are items 6 “I don’t support offensive advertising” and 9 “Evading offensive advertising” and 72 “discontinue the usage of product due to offensive advertising”. If these three items were to be removed from the scale, the Cronbach’s alpha if items Deleted column shows that overall reliability rise slightly and reach to .751. Therefore, deletion of these items may be considered appropriate.
4.4.2 Normality of Data

Normality is first step of Data Screening, wherein the characteristics of data’s are explored. Assumption of normality is a pre-requisite for many inferential statistical techniques. There are a number of ways to explore this assumption graphically namely histogram, box plot, stem and leaf plot etc.

Normality refers to the ‘shape’ of the distribution of the data. Consider a histogram of values for one variable. By drawing a line across the ‘tops’ of the bars in the histogram, we are able to see the ‘shape’ of the data.

For testing the normality, factors related to each variable are grouped together and analyzed. The first conformity for our Normality is Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Note that for this analysis we use Kolmogorov-Smirnov test because it is to test data larger than 50, ours is 151. In this test if the significance level is greater than 0.05, then Normality is
assumed. Nevertheless, if we look at our results (Table 4.4), we can conclude that the variables are not normally distributed. The distribution can be statistically viewed as non-symmetrical. This shows that one tail of the distribution is longer than the other (skewed), or the distribution of the data is too flat or too peaked, that is the tails are too short or too long (kurtosed).

Though the Kolmogorov-Smirnov result (not normal) is puzzling, we will have to look at the actual distribution graphical graph for confirmation.

Table 4.4

Test for Normality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offensiveness</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>151</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brand Loyalty</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Intention</td>
<td>0.197</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why Offensive</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>151</td>
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Descriptives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>offensiveness Mean</td>
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<td>.16354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</td>
<td>33.8954</td>
<td>34.5417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5% Trimmed Mean</td>
<td>34.2984</td>
<td>4.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>34.0000</td>
<td>2.00962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>2.00962</td>
<td>29.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>38.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
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<td>-9.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interquartile Range</td>
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<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-.197</td>
<td>.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.392</td>
<td>.197</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptives

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brandloyalty Mean</td>
<td>31.5298</td>
<td>.23601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</td>
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<td>31.9961</td>
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<td>5% Trimmed Mean</td>
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<td>32.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
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<td>2.90013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
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<td>15.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
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<td>4.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
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<td>-.026</td>
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<tr>
<td>Range</td>
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<td>-.197</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interquartile Range</td>
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<td>-.175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td>.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.175</td>
<td>.392</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptives

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PurchaseInterest Mean</td>
<td>10.5629</td>
<td>.14331</td>
</tr>
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<td>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</td>
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<td>10.8461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5% Trimmed Mean</td>
<td>10.6107</td>
<td>10.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
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<td>3.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
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<td>Maximum</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>-.299</td>
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<td>Range</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interquartile Range</td>
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<td>.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-.392</td>
<td>.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.584</td>
<td>.392</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As author mention in the previous part for Kolmogrov-Smirnov test we have to look in the distribution tables and our Skewness and Kurtosis test, we could roughly guess that our data is normal distribution (i.e. \(-2 < \text{skewness} < +2\) and \(-2 < \text{kurtosis} < +2\)) with this reason and base on some pervious researches to be more certain, author shall ignore the results obtained using the Kolmogorv-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk calculation.

### 4.5 Pearson product-moment correlation

Pearson correlation coefficients (r) can only take on values from -1 to 1. The sign out the front indicates whether there is a positive correlation (as one variable increases, so too does the other) or a negative correlation (as one variable increases, the other decreases). The size of the absolute value (ignoring the sign) provides an indication of the strength of the relationship. A perfect correlation of 1 or -1 indicates that the value of one variable can be determined exactly by knowing the value on the other variable. A scatter plot of
this relationship would show a straight line. On the other hand, a correlation of zero indicates no relationship between the two variables. Knowing the value on one of the variables provides no assistance in predicting the value on the second variable. A scatter plot would show a circle of points, with no pattern evident.

**Table 4.5**

Summary of Correlations between Offensiveness & Brand Loyalty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
<th>Coefficient (r)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Offensiveness &amp; Brand Loyalty</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>39.00</td>
<td>31.52.95</td>
<td>2.90013</td>
<td>—.364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.6**

Summary of Correlations between Offensiveness & Purchase Intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
<th>Coefficient (r)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Offensiveness &amp; Purchase Intention</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>10.5629</td>
<td>1.76097</td>
<td>—.259</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.1 Interpretation of output from correlation

Correlation provides a table giving Pearson r correlation coefficients between each pair of variables listed. This can be quite large if we select more than a few variables in our list. For each pair of variables the r-value, the significance level, and the number of cases is given. There are number of different aspects of the output that we should consider. We will look at those steps now.

4.5.2 Determining the direction of the relationship

The first thing to consider is the direction of the relationship between the variables. Is there a negative sign in front of the r-value? If there is, this means there is a negative correlation between the two variables, (that is, high scores on one are associated with low scores on the other). The interpretation of this depends on the way the variables are scored. Always should check with the questionnaire, and remember to take into account that for many scales some items are negatively worded and therefore are reversed before scoring. What do high values really mean? This is one of the major areas of confusion for students, so author makes sure to get this clear in his mind before interpret the correlation output. In the tables given above (Table 4.5 and Table 4.6) the correlation coefficient is negative (—.364 for Brand loyalty and —.259 for Purchase Intention), indicating a negative correlation between offensive advertising and Brand loyalty as well as a negative correlation between offensive advertising and Purchase Intention. The more advertising offend people the less they will be loyal to the particular brand. It also indicate that the more advertising offend people the less they will have Intention of
purchasing particular brand or purchasing products from respective companies who they find its advertisings offensive.

4.5.3 Determining the strength of the relationship

The second thing to consider in the output is the size of the value of Pearson correlation (r). This can range from —1.00 to 1.00. This value will indicate the strength of the relationship between our two variables. A correlation of -0- indicates no relationship at all, a correlation of 1.0 indicates a perfect positive correlation, and a value of —1.0 indicates a perfect negative correlation.

Different authors suggest different interpretations; however, Cohen (1988) suggests the following guidelines:

| r=.10 to .29 or r=-.10 to -.29 | Small |
| r=.30 to .49 or r=-.30 to -.49 | Medium |
| r=.50 to 1.0 or r=-.50 to -1.0 | Large |

These guidelines apply whether or not there is a negative sign out the front of our r-value. Author took into consideration that the negative sign only refers to the direction of the relationship, not the strength. The strength of correlation of t=.364 and r —.364 is the same. It is only in a different direction.

In the Table 4.5 presented above there is a Medium negative correlation between offensive advertising and Brand loyalty (—.50 < —.364 < —.30), suggesting quite a
Medium negative relationship between offensive advertising and Brand loyalty. However, Table 4.6 shows Small negative correlation between offensive advertising and Purchase Intention (—.10 > —.259 > —.30), suggesting quite a Small negative correlation between offensive advertising and Purchase Intention.

4.5.4 Calculating the coefficient of determination

To get an idea of how much variance our two variables (offensive advertising and Brand loyalty & offensive advertising and Purchase Intention) share we can also calculate what is referred to as the coefficient of determination. Sounds impressive, but all we need to do is square our r-value (multiply it by itself). To convert this to 'percentage of variance' just multiply by 100 (shift the decimal place two columns to the right). For example, two variables that correlate r=.2, only share .2 x .2 = .044 per cent of their variance. There is not much overlap between the two variables. A correlation of r=.5 however, means 25 per cent shared variance (.5 x .5 = .25).

In our example, the correlation is —.364, between offensive advertising and Brand loyalty which when squared, indicates 13.24 percent shared variance. Offensive advertising helps to explain nearly 14 per cent of the variance in respondents' scores on the Brand loyalty scale. On the other hand, table 4.6 shows the correlation of —.259, between offensive advertising and Purchase Intention which when squared, indicates only 6.7 percent shared variance. Offensive advertising helps to explain nearly 7 per cent of the variance in respondents' scores on the Purchase Intention and indicate of Small negative correlation between offensive advertising and Purchase Intention.
This is quite a respectable amount of variance explained, when compared to a lot of the research conducted in the social sciences.

4.5.5 Attitude Towards Offensive Advertising

The relationship between offensive advertising and Brand loyalty and offensive advertising and Purchase Intention, was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. There was negative correlation between the two variables $r = -.364$, $N=151$, $p<.0005$ for offensive advertising and Brand loyalty, with high levels of offensiveness associated with lower levels of Brand loyalty and $r = -.259$, $N=151$, $p<.0005$ for offensive advertising and Purchase Intention with high levels of offensiveness associated with lower levels of Purchase Intention.

Author’s findings confirm the finding of past researches. Ford et al. (1997) hypothesized a model for examining female responses to offensive sex role portrayals in advertising. The model suggested that the negative company image caused by using potentially offensive advertising has a negative impact on purchase intentions to buy a company’s products. Consumers who are not happy with the role portrayal depictions might not purchase the products of companies that they perceive as using offensive advertisements. However, more recent research (Phau and Prendergast, 2001) found that, while consumers with tertiary education may find the advertisements for one product offensive, this offending image does not spill over to other products from the same company.
On the other hand, some of critics have claimed that, consumers tend to respond favorably to advertisements and reward advertisers with purchases if advertising messages are congruent with their culture (Zhang and Gelb, 1996; Belk et al., 1985; Boddewyn et al., 1986; Buzzell, 1968; Harris, 1984; Hornik, 1980).

With respect to brand loyalty, suffice to say, an alienated public will certainly have a negative attitude towards the advertisement and brand recall (Zinkhan and Martin, 1982; Gardner, 1985). Michell and Al-Mossawi (1999) claim an offensive advertisement will not be effective in capturing an audience’s attention or changing his/her attitudes.

There are many psychographic variables like emotions associated with the brand image, which constitute the personality of a brand. In case typical product category advertisements are associated with negative effect, the particular advertising functions act as a counter-attitudinal message, which is more persuasive in the case of a mismatch rather than a match with the category advertisements. However, a persuasive advertising may affect consumer preferences.

In a recent review of the concept, Oliver (1999) proposed four categories of brand loyalty. The four are based on the classic hierarchy of effects notion that consumers’ first process information to form beliefs, use those beliefs as the basis for attitudes, then make behavioral decisions based on relative attitude strengths. Oliver argues that the value to the firm of loyalty increases as the basis moves from attribute beliefs, to attitudes, to behavioral intentions, and, in the fourth category, he adds, to a behavior pattern that is strong enough to resist most obstacles.
Yim and Kannan (1998) cite that existing literature on brand loyalty has mostly considered loyalty as a notion of consumers being exclusively loyal to a single alternative. However, Yim and Kannan (1998) also suggest that unprecedented number of competing product alternatives and increased fragmentation of markets has led to the decrease in the number of consumer purchasing brands exclusively.

Offensive advertisements can be harmful for both the products and the brands. Burke and Edell (1989) found that consumers’ feelings generated by an advertisement would transfer to their evaluation of the brand. Such negative perceptions would also lead to low-purchase intention. Consumers were less likely to buy products from a company using offensive advertisements if a similar alternative was available from a non-offending company (An and Kim, 2006). Consumers in Hong Kong were likely to boycott a company using offensive advertising (Prendergast et al., 2002).

Alexander, 1983; Severn et al., 1990) have consistently demonstrated that sex appeal, being one of the offensive advertisement attract attention to the advertisement, but does little for the advertised brand and product. Stewart and Furse (2000) also contended that sex appeal might increase attention to the advertisement, but not necessarily enhance recall or positive attitudes towards a brand. Moreover, previous studies (e.g. Bumler, 1999) also suggested that inappropriate and excessive use of sexual content might lead to negative associations of the advertised brand and subsequently shatter brand loyalty.
4.5.6 Demographic Comparison and Attitude Towards Offensive Advertising

Firstly, the respondents were presented with the list of products for which they indicated their level of offence. With a midpoint of 4 on the Likert scale, Racially extremist group with mean score of 4.44 were perceived to be most offensive when advertised, It also confirms Waller (1999) results while different from Phau & Prendergast (2001) finding in Singapore. Racially extremist group followed by Gun & armaments (4.00), Alcohol (3.82), Condom (3.78), Gambling (3.73), Female hygiene products (3.69) and Religious denominations and Funeral services with mean score of 3.44 (Table 4.7). However, in this study author found that Weight loss programs and Pharmaceutical products with mean score of 1.33 and Charities and Cigarette with the mean score of 1.39 and 1.41 are the less offensive products out of the list of 17 products. Comparing gender the females were more offended by Condoms and Women’s Underwear advertisements than the males.

Waller (1999) disclosed that the three most offensive products/services in Australia were those related to racially extremist groups, religious denominations, and feminine hygiene products. Recent research carried out in Singapore (Phau & Prendergast 2001) found that the three most offensive products were chat-line services, sexual diseases treatments/prevention and dating services. Phau and Prendergast (2001) also found that these attitudes vary according to demographics, particularly in terms of gender and education.
Table 4.7

Offensiveness of Controversial Products

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Products</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cigarette</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>.76905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condom (4)</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>.79463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funeral services</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>.78005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling (5)</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>1.66417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol (3)</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>1.77421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racially extremist group (1)</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>5.0000</td>
<td>.79696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gun &amp; armaments (2)</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>.77886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious denominations</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>.77254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political parties</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>.81352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female contraceptives</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>.89709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female underwear</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>2.0000</td>
<td>.85284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male underwear</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.0000</td>
<td>.79546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female hygiene products</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>.89077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual diseases (AISDS, STD Prevention)</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>2.0000</td>
<td>1.02838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>.73686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charities</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>.80807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight loss programs</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>.72927</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Descriptive analysis of data shows that there is no significant difference between male and female respond to offensive products such as racially extremist group and Gun & armaments with the mean score of 4.00 for men and 4.005 for women. On the other hand descriptive analysis of data found that there is significant differences between male and female respond to advertising of Condom (M= 3.61 & F= 4.00) and Alcohol (M= 3.68 & F= 4.01) and base on that female tend to be more offended by advertising of Condom and Alcohol compare to men which may find them less offensive. Education also plays a role in the perception of offensive products but not in the same direction for different cultures (Kara Chan et.al, 2007). Author also fined that there is significant differences between responses of those with higher level of education compare those with lower level of education; which those with higher level of education tend to be less sensitive towards offensive products and advertising of such products may appear less offensive to them compare those with lower level of education.

Overall, all religion are sensitive about offensive advertisements. Islam is most sensitive towards gambling and condom advertisements compared to the other two religions. This is not a surprise because Islam prohibits gambling and adultery to its followers. In addition, Islam and Hinduism are both have significantly negative perception on nudity compared to Buddhism. Fam et al. (2004), who examined the impact of religion on four product categories across six countries found that religion has a direct influence on consumers’ perceptions towards gender/sex related products. Additionally, the author found that consumers with strong religious affiliation tended to find advertising of
gender/sex related products like condoms, Alcohol, female contraceptive products, and female hygiene products more offensive relative to those who are less religious.

From the research, we can conclude that there is significant difference in attitudes towards controversial products/services and contain of advertisements. Demographics are factors affecting consumers’ levels of perceived offensiveness of a controversial products/services and it is varies according to gender, religion and level of education.

4.5.7 Reason Why Consumers Find Advertising Offensive

Sexism and racial discrimination are two offensive appeals of major concern in Western literature (Boddewyn, 1991; Ma, 1996). The former is about discrimination against people based on their sex and prejudice towards women in particular. Sexism appeals include female stereotypes (Ford and LaTour, 1993) and sexual appeals (LaTour, 1990). However, in this study author find that Malaysian respondents are offended by Racist Image (4.27) the most, it is due to the unique condition of Malaysia as an multiracial and multicultural country this finding is in consistence with those of Waller & Fam (2000). They discuss that as Malaysia is a country with a number of influential ethnic and religious groups, an important part of the Advertising Code promotes cultural sensitivity in advertisements. It prohibits advertisements that “contain statements or suggestions which may offend the religious, racial, political, or sentimental susceptibilities of any section of the community.” This means that party political broadcast that targets a specific racial group or incites one group to rise against another is strictly prohibited. Such prohibition stemmed from the 1969 racial riots. This prohibition is deemed vital in
achieving racial and national harmony in a multiracial country such as Malaysia. Therefore, any advertisements that depict anti-social behavior will not be tolerated. It would, therefore, be clearly against the Code (especially relating to cultural sensitivity and social responsibility) to advertise such products as "Racially Extremist Groups", "Guns & Armaments", "Religious Denominations" and "Political Parties".

### Table 4.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for Offensiveness</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nudity</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.9223</td>
<td>1.08251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indecent Language</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.1788</td>
<td>.60096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject Too Personal</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.6672</td>
<td>.67428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for Child</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.7748</td>
<td>.88824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti Social Behaviours</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.7682</td>
<td>.82820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stereotyping of People</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.8742</td>
<td>.86645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.07117</td>
<td>1.06595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexiest Image</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.9682</td>
<td>1.02270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racist Image</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2728</td>
<td>.61209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (list wise)</td>
<td>151</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were presented with the list of reasons for advertising offensiveness for which they indicated their level of offence. With a midpoint of three on the Likert scale, the total sample indicated offence to all of reasons (Table 4.8). Although a few reasons were claimed to be less offensive by males and the younger age group, but these were generally just above the midpoint and so indicating more of indifference. Indecent Language (4.17) and Violence (4.07) followed Racially Extremist Groups as the most offensive reason; this was followed by Sexiest Image (3.96) and Nudity (3.92).
Comparing gender, females were significantly more offended than males for Sexist Image, Violence, Concern of Children, Indecent Language, Nudity and Subject Too Personal. This can be due to the fact that women are often the objects of the sexism, stereotyping and nudity. Looking at age, the older group was significantly more offended by advertisements with Violence, Nudity, and Concern for Children, and Anti-social Behavior. This would indicate the older group being more conservative and more concerned with things like child welfare and anti-violence.

Table 4.9

Why Consumer find Advertising Offensive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Products</th>
<th>Total (Mean)</th>
<th>Males (Mean)</th>
<th>Females (Mean)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Racist Image</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>4.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sexist Image</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>4.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Violence</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>4.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Stereotyping of People</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Anti-Social Behavior</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Concern of Children</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Subject Too Personal</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Indecent Language</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6 Testing of Hypothesis

By considering the results of the data analysis in support of or against the research hypotheses, the hypotheses can be divided in two categories, Accepted, and Rejected Hypotheses. However, there was no rejected hypothesis for this study.

Accepted Hypotheses:

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, this study uses Pearson Correlation test to explain the relationship between each variable in this research. The correlation value will explain the degree of the relationship while the coefficient value will help determine the overall significance of the constructs. According to the Pearson Correlation test which was conducted in this chapter the below mentioned hypothesis are accepted:

H1: There is a negative relationship between attitude towards offensive advertising and brand loyalty

H2: There is a negative relationship between attitude towards offensive advertising and purchase intention

H3: There are significant differences between male & female’s with respect to attitude towards offensive advertising

H4: There are significant differences in attitudes towards offensive advertisement among the different religious groups

H5: There are significant differences in attitudes towards offensive advertisement between the groups with high and low education.
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary and Conclusion

Overall, it appears that those sampled hold similar views in their perception of the advertising of particular controversial products/services. Their responses indicate that they perceive the advertising of controversial products/services are offensive, and that some are more offensive than others are.

In particular they feel that advertising for “Racially extremist group” is the most offensive, being the product/service with a mean score above the midpoint of three in the total sample (4.44). Other products/services that have a mean score of between three and four, indicating a perceived level of offensiveness by are:

- Gun & armaments (4.00)
- Alcohol (3.82)
- Condom (3.78)
- Gambling (3.73)
- Female hygiene products (3.69)
- Religious denominations (3.44)
- Funeral services (3.44)
Among all products/services, Female hygiene products receive more negative perception by male than female. There is no significant difference in how male and female perceive other products.

As for the reasons why the advertisements personally offend the respondents, there are similar results among the respondents, although female respondents tend to be significantly more offended by nudity and sexist element than males. However, male is more offended by Anti-Social Behavior than female. Overall, the main reason for being personally offended by an advertisement is if it is contain "sexist" element.

In the study author find that Malaysian respondents are offended by Racist Image (4.27) the most, it is due to the unique condition of Malaysia as an multiracial and multicultural country, this finding is in consistence with those of Waller & Fam (2000). They discuss that as Malaysia is a country with a number of influential ethnic and religious groups, an important part of the Advertising Code promotes cultural sensitivity in advertisements. It prohibits advertisements that “contain statements or suggestions which may offend the religious, racial, political, or sentimental susceptibilities of any section of the community.” This means that party political broadcast that targets a specific racial group or incites one group to rise against another is strictly prohibited. Such prohibition stemmed from the 1969 racial riots. This prohibition is deemed vital in achieving racial and national harmony in a multiracial country such as Malaysia. Therefore, any advertisements that depict anti-social behavior will not be tolerated. It would, therefore, be clearly against the Code (especially relating to cultural sensitivity and social
responsibility) to advertise such products as "Racially Extremist Groups", "Guns & Armaments", "Religious Denominations" and "Political Parties".

Comparing the two sections, it appears that the respondents perceive the reasons given as more of an indication of why an advertisement is personally offensive than the controversial products/services. For those agencies involved with controversial clients or controversial campaigns, it appears that they should be aware of the potential to offend the public. Although some campaigns aim to be controversial, care should be made to ensure that they are not sexist and contain nudity, particularly when targeting the female market.

Overall, all religions are sensitive about offensive advertisements. Islam is most sensitive towards Alcohol, Gambling and Condom advertisements compared to the other two religions. This is not a surprise because Islam prohibits gambling and adultery to its followers. In addition, Islam and Hinduism are both have significantly negative perception on nudity compared to Buddhism.

Last but not least, author’s finding also shows that those with higher level of education are less offended compare those with lower level of education; which those with higher level of education tend to be less sensitive towards offensive products/services and advertising of such products may appear less offensive to them compare those with lower level of education. From the research, we can conclude that there is significant difference in attitudes towards controversial products/services and contain of advertisements. Demographics are factors affecting consumers’ levels of perceived offensiveness of an advertisement and it is varies according to gender, religion and education.
There was negative correlation between the two variables, offensive advertising and Brand loyalty; whereby high levels of offensiveness associated with lower levels of Brand loyalty and also for offensive advertising and Purchase Intention which high levels of offensiveness associated with lower levels of Purchase Intention.

5.2 Suggestion for Future Research

A complete list of products/services known to offense people should be included in future research. Other demographic factors such as age, geographic location i.e. urban, rural, and level of income and their direct and indirect effect on brand loyalty and purchase intention should be considered. Furthermore, reasons advertisement being offensive need to be broadening up and include sexual connotation, disrespecting the authority, against the culture and national sovereignty.

Burke and Edell (1989) found that consumers’ feelings generated by an advertisement would transfer to their evaluation of the brand. Such negative perceptions would also lead to low-purchase intention. Consumers were less likely to buy products from a company using offensive advertisements if a similar alternative was available from a non-offending company (An and Kim, 2006). We might want to test this in the context of Malaysia in the future by testing the effect of other variables such as age, geographic location, urban and rural and level of income.

From the advertising agency point of view, further research should develop an understanding of the relationship between an advertising agency and its controversial clients. In particular, the importance or otherwise of the agency in the decision-making
process and the actual implications on an agency's business of handling a controversial or offensive campaign.

Also, additional cities in Malaysia should be included in the future and bigger sample sizes with general respondents need to be considered. The study can also include other countries to determine if views hold across different countries.

5.3 Implication

Before we proceed further on the managerial implications, a caveat is appropriate at this juncture. This study is based on student sample and their might not reflect reality nor can be generalized to the wider population even though, many studies have used student samples and justified their use in similar attitude research by arguing that there is little difference between student attitude towards advertising and beliefs and those of other segments of the population (Andrews, 1989; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Ramaprasad and Thurwanger, 1998).

Offending the public can result in a drop in sales or, at an extreme, a boycotting of the product, which can then reflect poorly on the agency behind the campaign. Therefore, cautious must be taken to ensure that advertisements are not sexist and contain nudity, particularly when targeting the female market. As for male market, agency must not include racist element in the advertisement and be extra careful when deal with client whose providing gambling services.

Other than that, any advertisements that dedicated to Muslim and Hindus market, must avoid using the element of nudity and sexist. Islam is also very sensitive towards
gambling and condom advertisement. Therefore, agency may want to reconsider taking these controversial clients especially in country that has Muslim as its major population. However, generally a great care should be made when dealing with controversial products/services because the study shows that they are all offensive to consumers in Malaysia. The way an advertisement is conducted is also vital so that it does not contain any sensitive element such as Racially extremist group, Nudity, Sexist Image, Indecent language and Anti-social behavior. People in Malaysia are not ready to accept that kind of advertisement yet, at least at this point of time.

Nevertheless, there are agencies which are willing to take on controversial clients/campaigns despite the potential problems. It may be that these "problems" are compensated for through other financial or non-financial benefits.

Some agencies attempt to position themselves as having expertise in developing controversial campaigns, or encourage controversy as part of a campaign as a way to attract public attention and obtain extra publicity. Controversy can, therefore, result in a very successful overall campaign. However, the agency should keep track on whether the strategy may be going too far for the target market's tastes/values, or if there is any possible negative reaction from members of the agency's staff or other clients.

Finally, it must be remembered that any client can become controversial. It is not just due to a product which is a "lost cause", but because of a controversial advertisement or campaign, an activity undertaken by the company, or even as a result of the media chosen for the campaign. Agencies should, therefore, be aware of this possibility and maybe ask
themselves some "hard questions" before taking on new accounts or setting a plan of action for when a controversy may occur.
REFERENCES


Ricks, D.A. (1983), Big Business Blunders, Dow Jones-Irwin, Homewood IL.


Dear Sir/Madam

This survey is conducted as part of a research project, which shall be submitted in part of fulfillment of the requirements for a Master of Business Administration degree at the University of Malaya.

The general purpose of this research is to examine the attitudes towards advertising, advertising of related products among Malaysians.

We are therefore inviting you to participate in this survey by filling up the attached questionnaire.

All information will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. Should you have any enquiries please do not hesitate to contact me through email: kami.toghani@gmail.com Tel: +60123254944

Thank you very much for participating in this survey.

Yours Sincerely

Mohammad Esmaeel Toghani CGA050115

Supervised by:

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ong Fon Sim

Faculty of Business & Accountancy

University Of Malaya
1. **Attitudes towards offensive advertising**

Please read the statement carefully and by putting **☑** in the box, indicate the extent of your agreement & disagreement with each statement. There is no right or wrong answer to any of these statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree (1)</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Slightly Agree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I consider some of offensive advertising useful as it promotes the latest products</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Through offensive advertising I got to know innovative ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I refer to advertising because it allows me to enjoy the best deal out of the competing products advertised</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I don’t like offensive advertising because it offends our society</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I support any form of advertising it is where creativity is highly appreciated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I don’t support offensive advertising as it doesn’t results in lower prices of products</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I avoid offensive advertising because it does not provide a true picture of the product advertised</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I support advertising it plays an important role part in my buying decisions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I evade offensive advertising because most of the advertisement is misleading</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>My general opinion of offensive advertising is not favorable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Below is a list of products/services/ideas whose advertisements have been known to offend people. To what extent do advertisements for the following products offend you? Please put a [ ] in the relevant box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Not Offensive (1)</th>
<th>Slightly Offensive (2)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Very Offensive (4)</th>
<th>Extremely Offensive (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Cigarette</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Condom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Funeral services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Gambling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Alcohol</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Racially extremist group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Gun &amp; armaments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Religious denominations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Political parties</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Female contraceptives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Female underwear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Male underwear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Female hygiene products</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Sexual diseases (AIDS, STD Prevention)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Charities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Weight loss programs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Have you seen any form of advertisements on the following products? If so, please put a ☑ in the relevant box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Advertisement seen in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Please put ☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Printed advertisement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cinema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Billboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Television &amp; radio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cigarette</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funeral services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racially extremist group</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gun &amp; armaments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious denominations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political parties</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female contraceptives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female underwear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male underwear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female hygiene products</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual diseases (AIDS, STD Prevention)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight loss programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. This section asks about your source of information prior to the purchase decision for certain sensitive products. Please indicate the source that you rely on for information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Sources of information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Families members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional advisers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Printed advertisement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chat rooms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Television &amp; radio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cigarette</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funeral services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racially extremist group</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gun &amp; armaments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious denominations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political parties</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female contraceptives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female underwear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male underwear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female hygiene products</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual diseases (AIDS, STD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight loss programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Below is a list of reasons why advertisements for various products/services/ideas offend you. To what extent advertisements for various products/services/ideas offend you due to these reasons. Please put a ✓ in the relevant box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not Offensive (1)</th>
<th>Slightly Offensive (2)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Very Offensive (4)</th>
<th>Extremely Offensive (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Racist Image</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Sexiest Image</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Violence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Stereotyping of People</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Anti-social behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Concern for Children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Subject Too Personal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Indecent Language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Nudity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. The following statements describe how you response to advertisement that offended you in regards to purchase intention. Kindly put ✓ in the boxes to reflect your feedback.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If a product is introduced with advertisements that I find offensive, I might still buy it if it offers me benefit which I find attractive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If a new product or service, which I use, adopts an advertisement campaign, which I find offensive, I will discontinue using it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even though I may see an advertisement which is offensive, I would continue to purchase other products that I have been using from the same company</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. The following statements describe *how you response to advertisement that offended you* in regards to brand loyalty. Kindly put ✕ in the boxes to reflect your feedback.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would continue to use the product from the company I am evaluating because it is the best choice for me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I consider myself a loyal patron of the company I am evaluating.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am committed to the company I am evaluating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the future, I would be willing to pay a higher price for the product from the company I am evaluating over competitive offerings.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I consider the company I am evaluating my first choice when buying product.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I had it to do all over again, I’d buy the product from a different company</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intended to keep buying the product of the company I am evaluating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would not switch to a competitors , even if I had a problem with the product/services of the company I am evaluating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intend to purchase the product from the company I am evaluating in the future</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. Demographic Information

Below are questions about you. These questions are for statistical purpose only. Please put ✓ in relevant box or explain where appropriate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>&lt; 25</th>
<th>26 – 35</th>
<th>36 – 45</th>
<th>46 – 55</th>
<th>56 – 65</th>
<th>&gt; 65</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Malay</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monthly Income</th>
<th>&lt; RM1,000</th>
<th>RM 1,000 – RM 1,999</th>
<th>RM 2,000 – RM 2,999</th>
<th>RM 3,000 – RM 3,999</th>
<th>RM 4,000 – RM 4,999</th>
<th>&gt; RM 5,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>&lt; High School</th>
<th>High School</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Graduate</th>
<th>Post Graduate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Buddhism/Taoism</th>
<th>Islam</th>
<th>Hinduism</th>
<th>Christianity</th>
<th>Non-Believers</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

THANK YOU FOR YOUR KIND COOPERATION