Product Placement

A study about Swedes attitude towards product

placements in Movies and TV-shows

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Abstract

Marketers have always been looking for alternative ways to reach the target population with their messages. One approach that has grown the last decades is product placement that has become a large arena for companies to involve in their marketing communication. It has been shown that people tend to dislike traditional advertisement such as commercial brakes in TV and tries to avoid it by switching channel. Since product placement is a type of advertisement that is embedded in a movie or TV-show and cannot be zapped away without missing the story of the movie or TV-show, it is a good opportunity to reach out with a company's message.

Several studies have been done in the field of mapping the attitudes towards product placement but no research has been done with the Swedish audience in focus. Therefore the purpose of this thesis is: "*…to investigate what attitudes the Swedish audience has towards product placements in Movies and TV-shows",* which will lead to a greater knowledge for Swedish marketing managers about the attitudes towards product placement in Sweden.

This thesis is a quantitative study with a descriptive single cross-sectional design. The data was retrieved through a questionnaire online. The sample frame was generation Y which is people that are between the ages 18-35.

The study showed that the general attitude towards product placement is positive for the Swedish audience. When it comes to the different dimensions of product placement; visual-only, audio-only and a combination audio-visual it is shown that the visual placements is seen as the most positive way to place a product in a movie or a TV-show. It could also be seen several similarities with previous studies that prominent placement has a lower attitude while a subtle placements has a more positive attitude.

Keywords: Product Placement, Attitudes, Brand, Brand Recall, Generation Y

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Chapter 1.

Introduction

1.1 Background

Branding is a way to differentiate a company from others in the competitive market. A Brand is build up by a name with different signs, symbols and attributes that together makes a company´s brand unique (Armstrong et al., 2009). Through marketing communication a company can be able to promote its products or services for the consumers. Even if a company has good products or services it is still important that prospect customers recognize their existence and learn about the value the company can be able to give them. Therefore marketing communication is essential for a company's success (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2010).

According to Armstrong et al. (2009) companies advertising strategy is consisted of two elements: the created advertising *message* and the selection of advertising *media*. In a world where an average person is exposed to around 1,600 ad messages a day, advertising can only succeed if the ad gains attention and is communicated well (Armstrong et al., 2009).

Marketers are always looking for alternative methods to convey their messages and communicate with their target population. One approach that has continued grown and received attention the last decades is product placements (Balasubramanian, Karrh & Patwardhan, 2006; van Reijmersdal, Neijens & Smit, 2009; Karniouchina, Uslay & Erenburg, 2011). The practice of product placements where brands are placed into media content, mainly in movies and TV-shows is not new. Product placements have a history back to the mid-1890s but it was not until 1982 with the blockbuster movie "E.T.: The Extra Terrestrial" with the placement of Reese's Pieces candy that the real product placements industry was born. After the movie release, Reese's Pieces increased their sales with 65 % and other marketers saw the benefits with product placements (Newell, Salmon & Chang, 2006; Balasubramanian, Karrh & Patwardhan, 2006; Gregorio & Sung, 2010).

For what has been an effective tool for reaching audiences for more than 50 years, the role of product placements has shifted from being a part of the background settings to being a substantial part of a movie or TV-show (Yang & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2007). For instance that James Bond is driving a kitted up Aston Martin car in the movie Casino Royale (Campbell, 2006) and in the movie Castaway (Zemeckis, 2000) where Tom Hanks is stranded on a empty island with numerous of FedEx packages that helps him to survive and he even creates a relationship with a Wilson volleyball, that he aptly names Wilson. The different types of product placement can be divided into two types of placements; prominent and subtle. Prominent placements is easy to notice and can be very obvious through showing, using or talking about the brand while subtle placement is harder to notice and does often occur in the background (Ferraro & Avery, 2000).

1.1.1 How about in Sweden?
Peter Carnello, CEO at InBetween Entertainment, has worked with product placement in Sweden since 1991. In an interview in 2011 with the newspaper *Svenska Dagbladet*, SvD, he estimates that the product placement category of advertisement has a turnover between 500 million - 1 billion SEK per year in Sweden (svd.se). In a recent report from IRM-Media their study shows that the whole advertisement industry in Sweden had a turnover at 32 billion SEK in 2011, where 6.5 billion was internet advertising and 5.7 billion were regular TV-commercials (irm-media.se). In relation to the whole Swedish advertising industry, product placement represents only about 1.6-3.1% of the total turnover.

Since 2010 the Swedish government decided a new law around product placement in Swedish television and movies. Earlier it was an invisible line between sponsorship and product placement which made it almost impossible for public service TV companies to use product placement. But the new law specified what was meant with product placement in the law and results in that even SVT that does not have the right to send commercials can now use product placement (sydsvenskan.se). But the new law also says that the viewer has to be informed in the beginning and at the end of the movie, TV-show etc. that it contains product placement. Further on it is not allowed in programs specially directed to children and as in all commercials in Sweden, alcohol and prescript medicine is not allowed either. (riksdagen.se)

The first product placement after the new law was a "Sibylla"-kiosk in the TV program Robinson at TV4. The media agency Mindshare did a research after the broadcast to see the viewers' reactions. The result was that 52% of their respondents thought the product placement did not disturb at all and melted in naturally and 21% answered that they got a better attitude against the brand; only 7% was negative to the placement (mindshare.se).

Other examples of product placements in Sweden are the TV-show "Solsidan" or the movies "Hamilton" and "Jägarna 2". Peter Carnello at InBetween Entertainment has worked with all three and says that it is all about finding the right brand for the right place, to work with the manuscript and see what fits the most (dn.se). In the movie "Jägarna" the main character drives a new Toyota pick-up and stop to meet some friends at a gas station, he describes how much horsepower it has and all the facts about the car. The main character is a masculine poacher with flannel shirt and is supposed to be the bragging kind, Peter Carnello means that this scene is both a good placement for Toyota and at the same time a way to build up the character in the movie (saljarnas.se).

1.2 Problem Discussion

It has been showed that attitudes towards traditional advertising on TV are something that is perceived as something negative for the viewer. A study made by SIFO showed that 75% of Swedish citizens try to avoid the commercials on TV (tns-sifo.se). With this fact that the audience has a negative view of traditional advertising simultaneously with the easiness for the audience to avoid the commercials by switching channel or ignore it, has created

opportunities for product placements (Gupta & Gould, 2008). According to Cowley and Barron (2008) there are a number of different advantages by using product placement compared to traditional advertising in television. The main advantage is that the viewer's cannot avoid the exposure of the placement when they are watching a TV-show (Cowley & Barron, 2008). It has also been shown that product placements can have an increase of the recognition memory and brand attitude of a certain product or brand (Russell, 2002). The primary objective with product placements from a company's view is to increase brand awareness (Karrh, 1998; Karrh et al., 2003; Chang et al., 2009).

Studies of attitudes towards product placement have showed that the practice has generally a positive perception, with exceptions for products that are ethically charged. Products of alcohol, cigarettes and firearms are rated as less favorably than other products for product placements (Brennan, Rosenberger & Hementera, 2004).

"However, one can't ignore the paradox of product placement:
"If you notice it, it's bad. But if you don't notice, it's worthless"
(Ephron 2003, p. 20)."

(Homer, 2009, p.1)

Marketers have acquired more control over the context that their brand appears in due to that higher willingness to invest money in product placement and also by becoming more proactive in creating opportunities of placements in different medias (Karrh, McKee & Pardun, 2003). But it is clear that by the practice of product placement, marketers have less control over the effects compared to traditional media advertising. For an example, Coca-Cola appeared in a way that they did not expect in the movie Natural Born Killers where a Coca-Cola advertisement was interspersed in a bloody murder scene (Johnson in Karrh, McKee & Pardun, 2003).

It has been showed that the brand attitude has a tendency to decrease if the prominent placements are too obvious, and especially if this obvious placement is mentioned repeatedly. When it comes to subtle product placement the consumer attitudes are relatively positive, even if the placement is exposed in a repeated way (Homer, 2009; van Reijmersdal, Neijens & Smit, 2009). But the problem with too subtle placement is that it has

no effect and is worthless for the company that has a placement (Homer, 2009). Homer (2009) continues that prominent placements are perceived to be more distracting, less realistic and is interrupting the plot of a show or movie.

Several studies have been done of how the audience attitudes are toward product placement. Studies of attitudes towards product placements has been done with Austrian, French and Americans (Gould, Gupta & Grabner-Kräuter, 2000), Australians (Brennan, Rosenberger & Hementera, 2004), Dutch (Reijmersdal, Smit & Neijens, 2010) and South Koreans (Lee, Sung & Choi 2011) but no studies have been found to today's date about Scandinavian attitudes towards product placements in movies and television. Because of this it is relevant to study how the Swedish audience´s attitudes is toward product placements, which will lead to a greater knowledge for Swedish marketing managers about the attitudes towards product placements in Sweden.

1.3 Purpose

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate what attitudes the Swedish audience has towards product placements in Movies and TV-shows.

Chapter 2.

Literature Review

2.1 What is a Brand?

Seetharaman et al. defines a brand as *"an asset that does not have physical existence and the value of which cannot be determined exactly unless it becomes the subject of a specific business transaction of sale and acquisition"* (Seetharaman et al., 2001, p. 243). An effective brand name is often characterized by being short and easy to read out and understand, other characteristics of a brand can be that it describes something about the product (de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003).

A brand adds value to a product or service, this is called brand equity and adds value both to possible consumers and to the company it belongs to. Furthermore the added value to a successful brand makes it possible to maintain a high level of consumer acceptance (Farquhar, 1989; Ambler, 1997). The brand equity can only exist as long as customers are aware of it and maintains to be loyal and think it has quality (Seetharaman et al., 2001). Brand equity also makes it possible for consumers to buy products with reliance because of

the value the brand gives and it can also reduce the risk a potential buyer can feel before a purchase (Aaker, 1996). All that a brand can stand for to a person is different to each individual all depending on past experience (Seetharaman et al., 2001).

2.1.1 Communicating the Brand

In communication between a company and its customers the brand takes two aspects, brand identity and brand image. The brand identity is how the company wants to be perceived and originates from within the company (Nandan, 2004). The brand image is the sum of all impressions and perceptions that a customer gets and all of them together form a brand personality (Herzog, 1963). Aaker writes about brand personality in her article "*Dimensions of brand personality*" and describes it as *"the set of human characteristics associated with a brand"* (Aaker, 1997, p. 347). These characteristics can be mirrored in the consumers' self-image or ideal self when consuming a brand, as an extended self were the products characteristics builds up your own image (Belk, 1988). Even if the characteristics of brands are similar to the ones of humans they do differ in how they are built up. Park et al. (1986) believes that humans' personality is based upon individual behavior, physical characteristics, attitudes and demographic. On the other hand brand personality is built up only by direct or indirect contact to a brand according to Plummer (1985). But Aaker (1997) writes that brand personality can also be built up by demographical characteristics such as; feminine or masculine, young or old and upper class or blue collar. Furthermore Keller (1993) describes brand personalities as a self-expressive function when using a brand, where for example Absolut Vodka tends to be characterized as a cool, hip, contemporary 25-year old.

Brand awareness is simply an element about the customers' recognition about a brand, yet this is very important for the companies. There are four levels of awareness, first comes 'dominant' that means that customers think about a whole product category, like Jeep or Thermos. Second is 'top-of-mind' that is the brands that customers think of first in a product segment, e.g. Coca-Cola among sodas. The third level of awareness is 'recall' that is the brands that customers remember after stating the ones that is top-of-mind. The fourth and last is 'recognition' that is the lowest form of awareness (Seetharaman et al., 2001).

In a basic communication model called the railway model a message is communicated from a source and is taken in by a receiver, in this context a company is the source and the

consumers are the receivers. The message is sent through some sort of media channel which can be compared to a noise were a message can be distorted or get lost. And even if it comes through intact every receiver, consumers, interprets the message out from their own perspective (Gripsrud, 2002). To create loyal customers and a unified brand image, it is important that the communication is consistent through all channels (Nandan, 2004).

2.1.2 How can a message affect consumers?

Furthermore, Grönroos writes about how different channels in the media affect consumers in different ways. He proposes four categories of messages; planned message, product message, service message and unplanned message. Each has a different level of trustworthiness towards the consumers were planned messages has the lowest value and could be a TV commercial. Product message is the offerings that follow the physical product and has more trustworthiness. Service message comes often from an employee directly or via an announcement and is even trustworthy. The last is unplanned message that is the messages that the company itself does not send out but rather comes from other customers, reviewers or other sources independent from the company (Grönroos, 2008). It can for instance be word-of-mouth (a message that is spread from person to person (Solomon et al., 2010)) from a close environment, such as friends, or word-of-mouth that is scattered from different governments or medias, or by previous experiences that the customer may have stored in the mind (Karaosmanoglu & Melewar, 2006). This category of messages is the one of these four categories that has the highest level of trustworthy (Grönroos, 2008).

2.2 Attitudes

According to Ajzen (2005) attitudes can be defined as: "*a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event*" (Ajzen, 2005, p. 3).

Schiffman & Kanuk (2004) writes that the decision if a consumer likes a product or not is based on the attitudes that she has to the product itself. Consumer behaviors such as; purchasing decisions, recommendations to friends, beliefs, evaluations about a product or intentions are all related to attitudes. This kind of attitudes and opinions towards an object is something that we are not born with; it is something that is learned during our lives (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004). Anything that someone has an attitude towards is called an attitude object (Solomon et al., 2010).

2.2.1 Three components of attitudes

One of the most enduring statements that most researchers agree with is that an attitude has three components; cognition, affect and conation (Ajzen, 2005; Solomon et al., 2010; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004; Evans et al., 2008). These three components of attitudes create the ABC-model that describes the relationship between knowing, feeling and doing (Solomon et al., 2010). The cognitive component is about a person's beliefs and knowledge about a certain attitude object (Evans et al., 2008). The affective component is related to a person's feelings and emotions about an attitude object (Solomon et al., 2010). These feelings can be either negative or positive and is based on the beliefs that the consumers have towards the object (Evans et al., 2008). The conative component that also is called the behavioral component is related to the intentions for a person to act and do something towards the attitude object, e.g. buy a product (Solomon et al., 2010). The likeliness for a person to respond to an attitude object is based on the person's knowledge and feelings to the object (Evans et al., 2008).

2.2.2 The functional theory of attitudes

For better insight about how attitudes are developed can be describes by the functional theory of attitudes that is developed by Daniel Katz (1960). Attitudes exist because it serves a function for a person, which is determined by a person's motive. Katz has identified four different functions of attitudes that are; *utilitarian function, value-expressed function, ego-defensive function and knowledge function.* It is important to consider that an attitude can serve more than just one function, but it is more commonly that one function will be dominant (Katz, 1960; Solomon et al., 2010).

The utilitarian function is associated with rewards and punishment and attitudes is shaped by whether we as people get rewards or punishment because of our actions. If customers like a certain product they will develop a positive attitude to the product (Solomon et al., 2010). The value-expressive function of attitudes is not based on the functional value of the product itself, the attitudes are shaped by the symbolic value of the product and what the usage of the product says about the customers as a person. In the ego-defensive function people use attitudes in order to protect their self-image from either external threats or internal feeling (Solomon et al., 2010). That can for an example be that customers defends themselves by developing negative attitudes towards a product that they cannot afford

(Evans et al., 2008). The knowledge function of attitudes is formed when customers' needs to organize and structure the information they may receive. This kind of need can occur when customers are confronted with a new product and they want more knowledge about it (Solomon et al., 2010).

2.3 Product Placement

Russell and Belch (2005) define product placement as "the purposeful incorporation of a brand into an entertainment vehicle" (Russell & Belch, 2005, p. 74) and this is also the definition that Wilson and Till (2011) uses. Further on Russell and Belch (2005) writes about that product placement is found in many different media, all from obvious as movies, TV and video games but also in novels.

2.3.1 Product placement appearance

The impact that a product placement can have to the audience is according to Lehu (2007) based on the appearance of the placement and it can be divided into four different types of appearance: *classic placement, corporate placement, evocative placement* and *stealth placement*.

Classic placement

The first type of placement that Lehu mention is the classic placement that has existed since the practice of product placement was first derived. In this type of placement the brand appears in the camera's view and is almost naturally integrated in to the scenario of the movie or TV-show. For example when Will Smith is wearing Converse shoes in the movie I, Robot (Proyas, 2004) or in the movie Forrest Gump (Zemeckis, 1994) where Tom Hanks drinks about fifteen Dr. Peppers for free during a visit at the White House. A classic placement is easy to put in place in a certain movie or TV-show for a low cost, or sometimes for free when a brand can appear without the advertisers expressed wish. But it can sometimes pass by unnoticed by the audience, particularly if there are a high number of placements in the same movie or TV-show (Lehu, 2007).

Corporate placement

With a corporate placement the placement is focused on the brand and not a certain product. It can sometimes be easier to put in a brand instead of a product in a movie for instance by putting the brands logo in the background of a movie (Lehu, 2007), such as the

big billboard of McDonalds in the movie The Fifth Element (Besson, 1997). This kind of placement is best to use if the brand is a recognizable brand for the audience, otherwise it may never be noticed. If the placement is successful it will be beneficial for all the product of the brand and not just a certain product (Lehu, 2007).

Evocative placement

An evocative placement is a discreet and subtle placement where the logo or name of the brand is not visual or neither mentioned. With this kind of placement it is important to have an original and unique design or packaging that can be associated and recognized to a brand by the audience. This can for example be different car brands that can be recognized by their design (Lehu, 2007), or in the Swedish TV-show Solsidan (Herngren & Kvensler, 2010) where the character "Fredde" is using a Segway without that the logo or the name of the brand is mentioned or shown.

Stealth placement

The last type of placement that Lehu writes about is stealth placement that is a highly discreet and subtle placement that sometimes almost can be undetectable. This type of placement is often well integrated into the scene that can generate a positive effect when the brand is identified due to that it is placed in a movie or TV-show in a natural way that the audience can perceive as more credible (Lehu, 2007). This type of placement does often concern fashion, for example in the movie Drive (Winding, 2011) where Ryan Gosling is wearing a pair of sunglasses from Selima Optique.

2.3.2 Different dimensions of product placement

The most usual way to integrate product placements into media is to use either just visual-only or audio-only placements (La Ferle & Edwards, 2006; Wilson & Till, 2011). Galician & Bourdeau (2004) assert that vision-only placements are more common than audio-only placements.

According to Russell (2002) product placement can be categorized in to three dimensions: visual, auditory and plot connection. The visual dimension is referred to how the brand is appeared on the screen, this is also called screen placements. This kind of placement can have different levels, depending on different aspects such as the number of appearances on the screen or in which way the product is filmed (Russell, 2002).

The second dimension is the auditory dimension, or the verbal dimension, is referred to how the brand is mentioned verbally in the dialogue and is called a script placement. This type of placement also has different degrees which is depended on in which context the brand is mentioned, how many times it is mentioned and in which way it is mentioned through the tone of voice or place in the dialogue (Russell, 2002).

The third and last dimension, the plot connection is referred to the degree of how the brand is integrated in the plot of the story. In such placement the brand or the product becomes a part of the plot or takes a major role of the storyline. It has been shown that small and subtle plot connected placements do not make any bigger differences to the story while prominent plot connected placements can have a major impact of the story, e.g. building up a character as a person (Russell, 2002).

Wilson and Till (2011) takes up that studies by Gupta & Lord (1998) and Russell (2002) came to the result that audio-only placements have the greatest recall over visual-only and Law & Braun (2000) came to the conclusion that visual-only had the largest recall. But they point out that they came to the conclusion in their field study that it was no significant difference between audio-only and visual-only placements. However Wilson and Till (2011) did find that when both audio and visual placements were combined the recall was higher than the two separate, they also suggest a 'recipe' for the placement with highest recall; "combined audio-visual presentations, that are prominently displayed, have actor involvement, and have two or more verbal mentions" (Wilson & Till, 2011, p. 391). But they also say that marketers often do not have the ability to control the placements exactly how they want in movies and TV.

MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) write about how branded messages have more response when customers have greater opportunities to process the messages. Wilson and Till (2011) agrees and defines these opportunities as time on screen and how often, actor involvement and how prominent the message is. Further they found that placements that were placed in the first half of a movie did not have an equally high level of recall (Wilson & Till, 2011).

Prominent placements are those that are in the foreground of a scene, they are easy to notice and can sometimes be the only thing that can be seen in the screen (Ferraro & Avery 2000). Subtle placements are those that are in the background of a scene, they are not

always so easy to notice. Subtle placement can often share the screen with many other brands (Wilson & Till, 2011). Several studies have showed that prominent placements have a higher recall than the subtle placements (Law & Braun, 2000). Reijmersdal, Neijens and Smit (2009) add that the prominent placements that even are involved into the plot get an even higher brand recall.

2.3.3 Advantages and disadvantages with product placements

Karrh (1998) says that one reason to use products placed in media is to reduce costs in a production. According to Balasubramanian et al. (2006) it can also be about to build up an impression of reality, because a set without brands could look made up. In that occasion Chang et al. (2009) agrees and write that many placements are of serendipity. Placements can also be used from the advertisers view as a way to reach out to customers, due to the potential way it can get supported through the characters in for example a movie (Babin & Carder, 1996; Smit et al., 2009). The primary objective with product placements from a company's view is to increase brand awareness (Karrh, 1998; Karrh et al., 2003; Chang et al., 2009).

According to Cowley and Barron (2008) there are a number of different advantages by using product placement compared to traditional advertising in television. The main advantage is that the viewer's cannot avoid the exposure of the placement when they are watching a TV-show (Cowley & Barron, 2008). It has also been shown that product placements can have an increase of the recognition memory and brand attitude of a certain product or brand (Russell, 2002).

Cowley and Barron (2008) write about two different approaches to describe the shift of attitude when being exposed to product placement. First they write that product placement can increase the implicit memory of the viewer and not necessarily the explicit memory, leaving the viewer with a more accessibility to the brand recall memory that could subconsciously increase the liking of a brand. With just the mere exposure to the placement as explain to the increased brand choice (Cowley & Barron, 2008). The second approach is about that a placement can increase the explicit memory, this with a positive attitude shift when being exposed to just audio-placement that is highly connected to the plot (Russell, 2002; Cowley & Barron, 2008). Cowley and Barron assume that it is because of that the

placement created or increased the positive association with the brand (Cowley & Barron, 2008).

Furthermore Cowley and Barron (2008) write in their article about some downsides in product placement. First of all they write that a prominent placement often increases the memory of a brand, which is good, but that it at the same time makes the viewer more aware of the placement and the notion that it is all about a persuasion attempt (Cowley & Barron, 2008). Van Reijmersdal, Neijens and Smit (2009) agrees and states that "the higher the perceived prominence of a placement, the more negative the placement attitudes and beliefs" (Van Reijmersdal, Neijens & Smit, 2009, p. 433). This could then lead to a decrease in attitude and irritation, not only for the brand itself but also to the movie/TV-show that the placement was in (Cowley & Barron, 2008).

2.4 Results of previous researches within product placement

Gould, Gupta and Grabner-Kräuter (2000) based their research on Gould and Gupta (1997) that conducted the same research but limited to just the US. Now they went further and did the same survey in both France and Austria as well in order to compare the results of attitudes towards product placement in movies in each country. All three surveys were done with a sample that 75 % - 99 % was under the age of 25 and very close to 50/50 balance in terms of gender. (Gould, Gupta and Grabner-Kräuter, 2000)

The results that they came to were that it was difference in how acceptable product placement was in the different countries. In the US the survey showed that they were more tolerant towards placements in movies than in both France and Austria, but at the same time they could see some similarities between all three countries. For example placements regarding cigarettes, alcohol and guns had little acceptance in all three countries. They also found that it was a significant gender difference, women were less positive to placements and this was found across all the three countries. So the conclusion was that it is similar attitudes across the three counties but they differ in intensity. Gould, Gupta and Grabner-Kräuter (2000) article did not take up any difference in the placement types but they gave the recommendation that further studies also should include Television. They also made a managerial advice to be aware of the difference between countries attitudes towards product placements.

An article written by Brennan, Rosenberger and Hementera (2004) was inspired by Gould, Gupta and Grabner-Kräuters (2000) research and wanted to test it further more. Brennan, Rosenberger and Hementera used the same questionnaire and mainly the same hypothesis about gender difference and how unethical placement was judged and then applied this to an Australian sample. The difference in this case beside the country was that they did not get a sample that was as equally distributed between gender as Gould, Gupta and Grabner-Kräuters (2000) researches were. Instead of fairly equal they had roughly 63 % male and 37 % female in their test. But they did anyway draw the same conclusion that women were less positive than men towards placements and that unethical placement with alcohol, guns etc. was regarded less positive overall. They also saw the same indicators as Gould, Gupta and Grabner-Kräuters (2000) that it was the same attitudes across the countries but different intensity, also in Australia.

In 2010 Reijmersdal, Neijens and Smit did a research where they investigated the correlation between a positive attitude toward a movie or television show and the outcome of attitudes against a certain placement that was in the media. The research was conducted in the Netherlands and the method used was a combination of first a TV-program being showed to the respondent in their home setting alone, and then the day after they answered a survey. Some of their findings were that product placements that occurred in programs with high-perceived value such as a cooking program or home makeover program had a higher level of brand recognition than in programs with general program. They also came to the conclusion that people with higher education and also people that were younger tended to be less affected by brand placement, both in terms of attitude and buying intentions. Their reasoning around that is that some studies has shown that just that group has higher knowledge of advertisers' motives with branding and therefore is less persuaded. (Reijmersdal, Neijens & Smit, 2010)

A research comparing the attitudes towards product placement in movies and television was done between USA and Korea by Lee, Sung and Choi (2011). They conducted an internet based survey and let respondents between the ages of 19-29 answer their survey. The both samples were conducted at collages in both countries. What they noticed in their research was that the attitudes were similar but that the Koreans was a little less positive towards placements in TV and movies, they perceived it more unethical than the respondents from

US. They also found that the respondents that had a more positive attitude toward advertisement in general tended to be more positive towards product placement as well and also that individuals that perceived that product placement could lead to a more realistic setting in a movie were those that were likely to pay more attention towards the actual placements. The authors of this article also suggested that a reason to the difference between the two countries can originate from the different cultures where USA is seen to be more materialistic (Lee, Sung & Choi, 2011).

Chapter 3.

Conceptualization

3.1 Research discussion and research gap

From the literature review it was shown that product placements that occur in movies and TV-shows could be divided into different types based on their characteristics. It was shown that the most usual way to integrate a product or brand through placements is to use either visual or audio placements (La Ferle & Edwards, 2006; Wilson & Till, 2011), these two dimensions of placements could also be combined (Wilson & Till, 2011). A product placement could also have different characteristics of how it is integrated into the movie or TV-show, it could either have a connection to the story or not, this is called a plot connection (Russell, 2002). Finally it was shown that a product placement is either subtle (Wilson & Till, 2011) or prominent (Ferraro & Avery, 2000), which define how easy the placement is to notice and how big impact it has to the movie or TV-show. Previous research has shown that different types of product placements form different attitudes towards

product placements for the viewer. Several previous research studies have been done within the area of attitudes towards product placements (Gould, Gupta and Grabner-Kräuter, 2000; Russell, 2002; Brennan, Rosenberger & Hementera,2004; Cowley & Barron, 2008; Van Reijmersdal, Neijens & Smit, 2009; Reijmersdal, Neijens & Smit, 2010; Lee, Sung & Choi, 2011). Even if the area has been investigated before by several researchers, however the authors of this thesis have not found any previous research about the Swedish audience's attitudes towards product placements in movies and TV-shows. This is the research gap that this thesis has the purpose to fill in.

The choice to investigate both movies and television is founded in that both several previous studies have researched both mediums and also that it could be difficult to separate the two mediums apart for a respondent. It gets harder to remember from which mediums what thoughts came from and to investigate this it should probably be done in a more isolated environment. Therefore to investigate both movies and television covers the whole experience that the respondents have of product placement.

The conceptualization model (Figure 3.1) illustrates the concepts that were derived from the literature review. In the model Product placement as a whole concept is marked as a green box and the subcategories is red boxes. The model symbolizes the different subparts of how product placement is built up. From this model seven research questions was formulated in order to answer the purpose of this thesis.
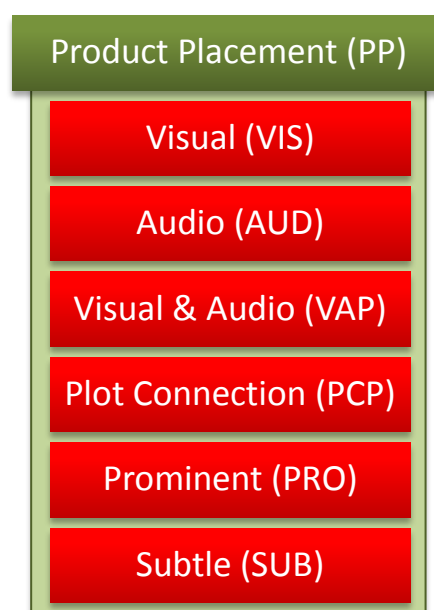
Product Placement (PP)

Visual (VIS)

Audio (AUD)

Visual & Audio (VAP)

Plot Connection (PCP)

Prominent (PRO)

Subtle (SUB)

Figure 3.1: Conceptualization Model

3.1.1 Research Questions

From the information that was found in the literature review and the conceptualization model, seven research questions were developed. They are all based out from the purpose of this thesis and every research question comes from different theories in the area. Each research question has been developed through looking at previous research that has studied the same concepts and also from variables that has been collected from the literature review of this thesis. The research questions make it clearer of what has been investigated in the thesis.

RQ1: *What is the attitude towards product placement in general?*

RQ2: *What is the attitude towards visual placements?*

RQ3: *What is the attitude towards audible placements?*

RQ4: *What is the attitude towards combined visual and audible placements?*

RQ5: *What is the attitude towards a plot connected placement?*

RQ6: *What is the attitude towards a prominent placement?*

RQ7: *What is the attitude towards a subtle placement?*

3.2 Conceptual framework

The concepts that have been carried out from the literature review chapter have been operationalized in order to define the concepts in an easy understanding way. Table 3.1 illustrates the conceptual and operational definitions for each variable in this thesis.

Table 3.1 - Research Constructs and their Definitions

Concept	Conceptual Definition	Operational Definition
Product Placement as a whole concept (PP)	Is the purposeful incorporation of a brand into any form of entertainment-vehicle (Russell & Belch, 2005).	Referrers to a form of advertisement where a brand is placed in a movie or TV-show.
Visual (VIS)	Is how a brand appears on the screen, this is also called screen placement (Russell, 2002).	Refers to how a brand appears on the screen where it can be seen by the viewer. For instance the number of appearances and how the product is filmed.

Audio (AUD)	Is how a brand is mentioned verbally in the dialogue, this is also called script placement (Russell, 2002).	Refers to how a brand can be heard in a movie or television show; for instance in which context, how many times and in which way it is mentioned by characters.
Visual & Audio (VAP)	Is when both visual and audio appearance is combined in a placement (Wilson & Till, 2011).	Refers to when a placement is a combination of both visual and audio, it can both be heard and seen in a movie or TV-show.
Plot connection (PCP)	The degree of how a brand is integrated in the plot of the story (Russell, 2002).	Refers to how a placement of a brand becomes a part of the story in a movie or TV-show.
Prominent (PRO)	Placements that are in the foreground of a scene, easy to notice and sometimes the only thing that appears in the screen (Ferraro & Avery, 2000).	Refers to how a brand is placed noticeable in the screen or is being mentioned clearly.
Subtle (SUB)	Are placements that are in the background of the scene, they are not always so easy to see (Wilson & Till, 2011).	Refers to how a brand is placed discreetly in the screen or being mentioned discreetly.

Chapter 4.

Methodology

4.1 Research Approach

According to Bryman & Bell (2005) a scientific research can be approached in different ways and the major approaches are deduction or induction and if the research approach is quantitative and qualitative research.

4.1.1 Inductive vs. Deductive Research

According to Bryman & Bell (2005) a deductive theory represents the most common interpretation of how the relationship between theory and research looks like. A deductive approach is used when the researcher use existing theories and the knowledge of what is known in a particular area in order to draw conclusions from the research, the researcher goes from theory to empirics. A deductive approach is most common in a quantitative

research. An inductive approach is the opposite of the deductive approach where the theory is the outcome of research. In other words, the researcher arrives at a theory based on the empirical findings. An inductive approach is most common in a qualitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2005).
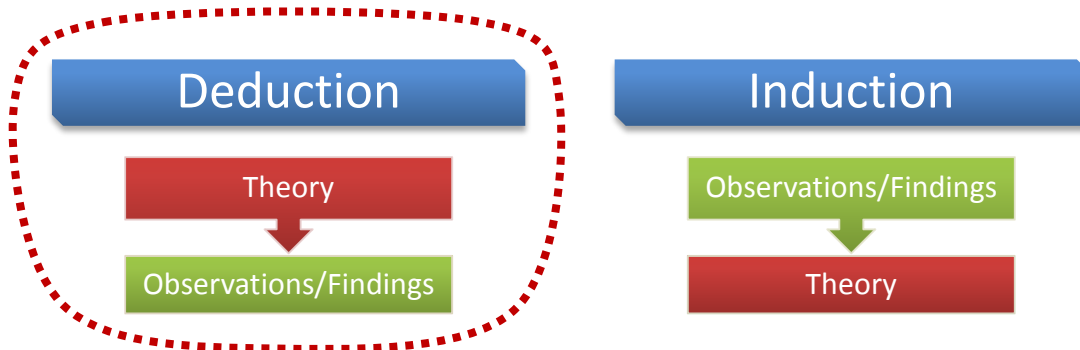

Figure 4.1: Deduction vs. Induction

In this thesis the research questions was based on known theory that was then tested through the collected empirics. The phenomena product placement is not new and there are a lot of theories about the subject that this thesis has been based on, therefore this thesis has a deductive approach.

4.1.2 Qualitative vs. Quantitative Research

According to Bryman & Bell (2005) a quantitative research can be described as a research strategy that emphasizes quantification when it comes to the collection and analysis of numeric data, e.g. through surveys, and the relationship between theory and research is of a deductive kind (Bryman & Bell, 2005). A quantitative research is more formalized and structured then a qualitative research and it can be highly controlled by the researcher. The main purpose of a quantitative investigation is to make generalizations about a certain subject and it also makes it possible to treat the research problem in a broader perspective (Holme & Solvang, 1997).

A qualitative research is a research strategy that unlike the quantitative research emphasizes the collection and analysis of data that is more oriented to words than statistical numbers (Bryman & Bell, 2005). According to Holme & Solvang (1997) the primary aim with a qualitative research is to gain a deeper understanding about the subject that is investigated. This kind of research is characterized by its closeness to the source that the data is gathered from, e.g. through a depth interview (Holme & Solvang, 1997).

In this thesis a quantitative research was used since the purpose was to investigate attitudes from a larger amount of respondents that can be analyzed through numeric data and statistics.

4.2 Research Design

A research design is the framework for how to collect and analyze data, it is a structure that guide how to use a certain method in a concrete way (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

Exploratory research designs

Wallén (1996) writes that exploratory research design is used to gain more knowledge of what the problem really is that will be studied, often as a pre-study to a major project. It is to get the problems' basic facts of what, when, how and in what context the problem occurs (Wallén, 1996). Moreover, Kotler et al. (2002) agrees and write that it is about gather preliminary data that will help to define what a problem is and propose hypothesis (Kotler et al., 2002). Exploratory design is often categorized as highly flexible and easy to adapt to new situations, this because that it often lacks the formal structure of organized questionnaires and large samples. Instead the researcher has to be responsive and open to new ideas and approaches (Malhotra, 2010).

Descriptive research designs

Descriptive research design is used in order to describe for instance a markets potential for a certain product or the demographics and attitudes of customers (Kotler et al., 2002). A descriptive research design is used to decide the subjects' characteristics, values and to determine relations (Wallén, 1996). Eriksson and Wiedersheim-Paul (2011) writes that this type of research design is used to identify and map situation, events, pattern or actions. In order to be useful every description has to be precise of what it will be used to, what data that should be found (Eriksson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 2011). Bryman and Bell (2005) write that a variable that is gathered with a descriptive research is almost impossible to alter, it is what it is. Moreover, they highlight that it is positive because then the variables cannot be manipulated in order to suit the researchers purpose (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

Causal designs

A causal design is a way to test hypothesis about cause-and-effect relationship (Kotler et al., 2002; Eriksson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 2011; Malhotra, 2010), like if a certain discount on a

product would increase the sales of that product and what relation it gives. Wallén (1996) call it the "why"-design and write that it explains the relationship between variables (Wallén, 1996).

Sub segments of Descriptive and Causal Designs

Longitudinal design is about investigating over a period of time; observe in order to collect data. This type of design is meant to see if it is any changes over a predetermined time period (Bryman & Bell, 2005). It uses a fixed sample that is used every time in order to see possible differences over time (Malhotra, 2010).

Cross-sectional design is a type of design that can be used in both causal research and descriptive research. Cross-sectional design is about collecting data at a certain point compared to longitudinal design that observed over a long time. Cross-sectional design can be separated in to two branches; multiple and single. *Multiple cross-sectional design* uses two or more samples to obtain data and as the name applies *single cross-sectional design* use only one sample at one specific time to obtain data. With a cross-sectional design it is only possible to compare the relations between different variables and not be sure of what causes the relation (Bryman & Bell, 2005; Malhotra, 2010).

In this thesis a *descriptive single cross-sectional design* was used in order to serve the purpose of the thesis. The descriptive part comes from that this thesis is about mapping the attitudes and therefore it suits the most. The single cross-section was due to the time and resource limit for this thesis, either a multiple cross-sectional or longitudinal design would simply have taken too long time to execute for this thesis.
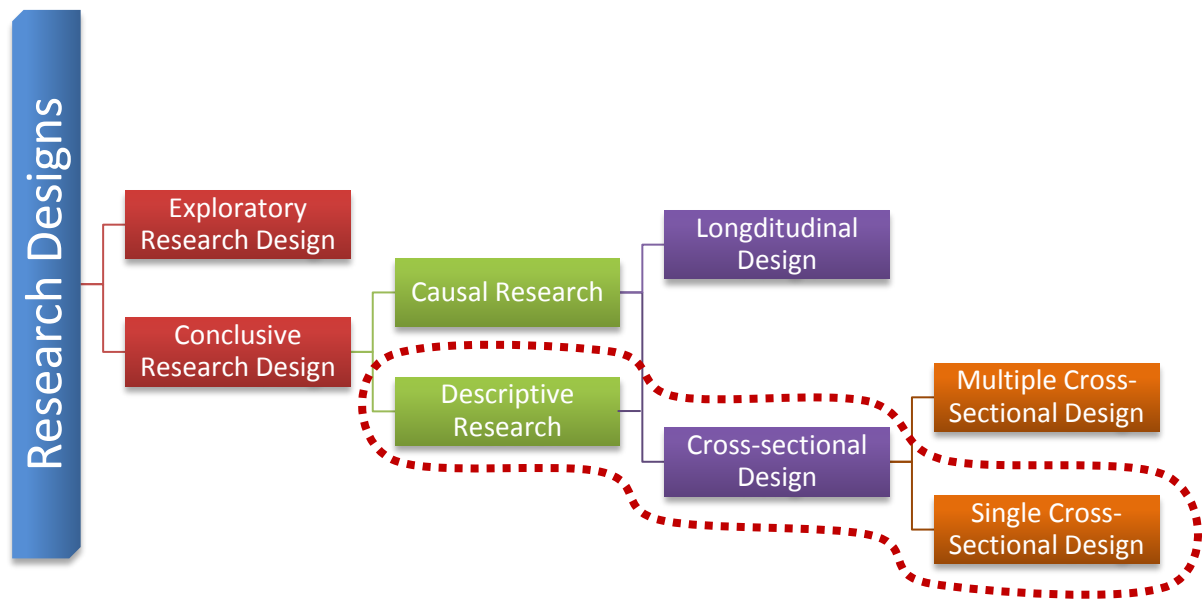
Figure 4.2: "A classification of Marketing Research Designs" (Malhotra, 2010, p.103).

4.3 Data Sources

There are two different types of empirical data categorized as *primary data* and *secondary data* (Malhotra, 2010).

Secondary data is information that already exist trough other researches and is gathered for another purpose than the one at hand (Kotler et al., 2002; Malhotra, 2010). Secondary data can show problems that exist, but the needed information may not exist and needs to be gathered. It is not often the secondary data provides what is needed for the most usual purposes and even when it might be the right data that is found it is not certain that it can be used anyway. The researcher has to be sure that the source can be trusted and that the data is accurate, impartial and is up-to-date. Secondary data can often be gathered faster and at a lower cost than primary data (Kotler et al., 2002). Secondary data can be divided into two categories; internal and external. Internal secondary data comes from within an organization and takes often more effort to get a hold of due to that it is not published. External secondary data comes from outside an organization and can be found in published papers, computerized databases etc. (Malhotra, 2010).

Primary data on the contrary is information that is collected exclusively in order to serve the specific purpose of a paper, tailor made data. When primary data is used for a paper the researcher can be sure that the information is up-to-date and not inaccurate (Kotler et al., 2002).

In this thesis mainly primary data source was used for analysis, mainly because that relevant data in the area that was researched did not exist pre this study. Related data to what was researched was used in the introduction chapter to explain the situation and why the topic of this study was relevant, that data is secondary.

4.4 Research Strategy

Yin (2008) writes that a research can have different methods in order to collect and analyze the empirical evidence. Yin (2008) takes up five different research strategies that are: experiments, surveys, archival analysis, histories and case studies. All of these strategies can be used in an exploratory, descriptive or explanatory way. To know which research strategy that should be used there is three different conditions that the researcher should follow in order to determine which one to use, these are:

1. *The type of research question posed.*
2. *The extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioral events.*
3. *The degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events.*

Yin (2008) has created a model (Figure 4.3) that shows these three conditions and how each of them is related to the five different research strategies.

METHOD	(1) Form of Research Question	(2) Requires Control of Behavior Events?	(3) Focuses on Contemporary Events?
Experiment	how, why?	yes	yes
Survey	who, what, where, how many, how much?	no	yes
Archival Analysis	who, what, where, how many, how much?	no	yes/no
History	how, why?	no	no
Case Study	how, why?	no	yes

Figure 4.3: "Relevant Situations for Different Research Methods" (Yin, 2008, p. 9)

Since the research questions of this thesis was *what* attitudes the Swedish audience has towards product placement it was shown that experiments, histories and case studies could be eliminated in the decision of which method to use. Due to that this thesis did not need to

have control of the behavioral events and that it was focusing on contemporary events it meant that there was two methods left to choose between, surveys or archival analysis. According to Patel & Davidson (2011) a survey can be useful to measure what respondent thinks about, or what attitudes they have towards something. Since this thesis was about measuring attitudes, the selected research strategy was therefore to conduct a survey study.

4.5 Data collection method

Since this thesis had a quantitative approach it was not relevant to discuss if any qualitative data collection method should be used. The most common data collection method in a quantitative approach is structured interviews, questionnaires, structured observations and content analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

Structured interviews

A structured interview is when an interviewer asks different questions to a respondent from a predetermined interview schedule with decided questions. The reason with this is that the context for every interview will be the same, which means that each respondent faces the same situation. The target for such interview is to ensure that the answers from the respondents can be compiled in a comparable way. This method takes much time due to that the interviews can not be carried out simultaneously (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

Questionnaires

According to Bryman & Bell (2005) a questionnaire is used in a quantitative research, usually with a numbers of questions where the respondents fill in the answers. The aim of a questionnaire is to collect opinions, beliefs and attitudes from the respondents. During the completion of the questionnaire, there is usually no interviewer present who ask the questions, the respondents must therefore read and answer the questions by themselves. Because of this the questions must be easy to understand and answer. A questionnaire is an inexpensive way to reach out to many respondents in a fast way and it is not time-consuming when the replies should be administrated. The research should though have in mind that it takes time to assemble the questions that should be used (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

Structured observations

According to Bryman & Bell (2005) a structured observation is a method where the researcher observes the behavior of an individual or subject and the researcher record the

behavior from a category scheme. The fixed rules that compose the observation scheme should be as specific and concrete as possible that will make it easier for the researcher to focus on those aspects of behavior that are of interest (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

Content analysis

A content analysis is a data collection method where the approach is to analyze different documents and texts that in a replicable and systematic way can quantify the content. This is based on categories that are determined in advance. A content analysis is a flexible method that can be used in connection with many different medias (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

In this thesis questionnaire was selected as the collection method because it was the most suitable for quantitative approaches. Since the purpose was to investigate the attitudes towards product placement from a larger number of entities and that the researchers had limited resources and time a questionnaire was the most suitable data collection method.

4.6 Survey Design

4.6.1 Operationationalization and measurement of variables

According to Eliasson (2010) an operationalization is about carrying out concepts from a theory that through a definition turns into easy understanding words that is possible to measure. The concepts that are operationalized should be relevant for the thesis and significant to the purpose of the thesis. It is also important that the concept is defined as clearly as possible and it should be consistent with the theory from where the concept is collected (Eliasson, 2010). The table with the concepts and the operationalized definitions can be found in Table 3.1 in the conceptualization chapter.

Eliasson (2010) continues with that an operationalization is about making the concepts possible to measure. By making the concepts measurable, it will be possible to investigate, which puts the concepts into focus of the study when conducting a questionnaire (Eliasson, 2010), this is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 - Measurement and scaling construct

Concept	Type of scale and its construction	Items used	Adopted From
Product Placement as a whole concept (PP)	7-items, 7-point Likert scale with (1) as *Strongly Disagree* and (7) as *Strongly Agree*.	**PP1:** Standing point **PP2:** For commercial purposes. **PP3:** Ethical side of product placement **PP4:** Increased realism. **PP5:** Avoidance of placements **PP6:** Impact on favorable movie/TV-show **PP7:** Brand damage	Gupta & Gould, 1997; Ong, 2004; Balasubramanian et al., 2006; Cowley & Barron, 2008; Reijmersdal et al., 2010
Visual (VIS)	3-items, 7-point Likert scale with (1) as *Strongly Disagree* and (7) as *Strongly Agree*.	**VIS1:** Standing point **VIS2:** Example of placements **VIS3:** Number of appearances	Russell, 2002; Wilson & Till, 2011
Audio (AUD)	3-items, 7-point Likert scale with (1) as *Strongly Disagree* and (7) as *Strongly Agree*.	**AUD1:** Standing point **AUD2:** Example of placements **AUD3:** Number of appearances	Russell, 2002; Wilson & Till, 2011
Visual & Audio (VAP)	3-items, 7-point Likert scale with (1) as *Strongly Disagree* and (7) as *Strongly Agree*.	**VAP1:** Standing point **VAP2:** Example of placements **VAP3:** Number of appearances	Russell, 2002; Wilson & Till, 2011
Plot connection (PCP)	4-items, 7-point Likert scale with (1) as *Strongly Disagree* and (7) as *Strongly Agree*.	**PCP1:** Standing point **PCP2:** Example of placements **PCP3:** Actors influence **PCP4:** Excessively	Gupta & Gould, 1997; Russell, 2002; Wilson & Till, 2011
Prominent (PRO)	4-items, 7-point Likert scale with (1) as *Strongly Disagree* and (7) as *Strongly Agree*.	**PRO1:** Standing point **PRO2:** Example of placements **PRO3:** Up-close filming **PRO4:** Annoying placement	Gupta & Gould, 1997; Ferraro & Avery, 2000; Homer, 2009
Subtle (SUB)	4-items, 7-point Likert scale with (1) as *Strongly Disagree* and (7) as *Strongly Agree*.	**SUB1:** Standing point **SUB2:** Example of placements **SUB3:** Brand in background **SUB4:** Subconscious placement	Wilson & Till, 2011; Ferraro & Avery, 2000; Homer, 2009

4.6.2 Questionnaire design

Letter of intent

To reduce the fallout of respondents not answering a questionnaire Bryman and Bell (2005) writes about that it is important to start of a questionnaire with a paragraph describing why it is important that this questionnaire should be filled in. Here it should be stated if the researcher gets any foundation from a company etc. and also state clearly if the answers are being handled with confidentiality and the respondent stays anonymous (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

Question structure

According to Malhotra (2010) the questions in a questionnaire can be built up in three different ways; open-ended, close-ended and partially closed-ended. The open-ended is when the question does not provide any answer but instead leave it open to the respondent to answer what he/she thinks is suitable. An example of such question could be what country someone is from and only an empty box follows to be filled in. Close-ended questions are when the respondent is given alternatives to a question, for example when asked for gender and next to it there is two boxes, one for male and one for female. This type is easier to analyze due to that the possible answers is controlled in forehand. Partially closed-ended question is a combination of the two above, an example here can be "are you satisfied with our service, if no why" and after the question it is two checkboxes followed by a line where the respondent can leave their comment as well (Malhotra, 2010).

Likert scale

Likert scale is a scale that is named by its developer Rensis Likert. Malhotra (2010) writes that the scale is a way to rate what respondents think and feel in an area in a degree of often five levels, for example from strongly disagree to opposite strongly agree. The range can have other intervals as well as for example seven or nine etc. The questions are formulated as statements that the respondent has to decide from where their standing point is. This type of scale is widely used in questionnaires and is a common way to measure attitudes. An advantage with the Likert scale is that is relatively simple to construct and administer, also respondents tend to understand the scale easily which suites questionnaires that is being send out. A disadvantage is however that it can take long time to complete a questionnaire

that contains many questions based on Likert scale, the respondent needs to read every statement carefully in order to answer it correctly (Malhotra, 2010).

How to conduct

How a questionnaire is being conducted can be divided in to four different classifications; *telephone*, *personal*, *mail* and *electronic*. The *telephone* way is simply that the questionnaire is conducted over the phone and the answers are written down. *Personal* is when the researcher meets the respondent and hand them the questionnaire personally and the researcher stays around when the questionnaire is being filled in, this can for example be in someone's home or in a shopping mall. Over *mail* means traditional postal mail and the questionnaire is being sent to the respondents. The fourth way *electronic* can be either over Internet through some kind of on-line questionnaire service or by e-mail which contains the questionnaire (Malhotra, 2010).

In this thesis the *electronic* way was used to conduct the questionnaire. The questionnaire was built up through the web service Keysurvey (keysurvey.com) where the questionnaire was reachable through an Internet link. The address to the site was then spread to the sample trough the social network Facebook as an event. When the event was created over 500 persons from the authors friend lists were invited so that they could reach the link to the questionnaire. The people that were invited could then chose to click attend and the event would be visible to all their friends at Facebook as well and the same for these people and the questionnaire could spread out to the target group. The questionnaire used the Likert scale in order to measure the respondents' attitudes and also both closed and open-ended questions were used in order to collect demographic data about the respondent. The Likert scale used in this questionnaire was graded from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree* on a degree from one to seven. In order to motivate the respondents more to complete the questionnaire a lottery was stated for a cinema gift card with the value of 300 SEK. To be able to win the respondents had to fill in their e-mail at the end as a lottery ticket. In order to avoid half completed questionnaires the option of that all questions had to be filled in order to be able to submit the questionnaire, except the line where the e-mail should be put in for the lottery. The questionnaire was divided into four pages so that it would not seem to long and hard to fill in. Both the Swedish version that was used and a translated version in

English is attached in the appendix, see Appendix 1 for the Swedish version and Appendix 2 for English version.

4.6.3 Pretesting

According to Bryman & Bell (2005) a pre-testing, also called a pilot study should always be done before starting to do the actual questionnaire. Eliasson (2010) writes that a pilot study of a questionnaire can be done by letting an amount of individuals from the target group answer the questions. It is important to take in consideration that those individuals that do the pilot study should not also be included to do the finished one. A pilot study of a questionnaire can provide information about things that the researcher have thoughts about or did not thought about when the questionnaire was conducted. It may involve questions that the researchers have about the answer alternatives, if something is missing or if the respondents find it hard to understand the question. A pilot study makes it possible to discover and eradicate weaknesses with the questionnaire (Eliasson, 2010). A pilot study may be especially important when it comes to questionnaires due to that there is no interviewer present that can answer questions that may occur (Bryman & Bell, 2005). In this thesis eleven persons that all were a part of the target group were included in the pretesting of the questionnaire in order to look for misunderstandings and difficult questions.

4.7 Sampling

According to Malhotra (2010) the aim of the most marketing research studies is to collect information about the characteristics or parameters of a population. To obtain this information it can be done either by taking a census or a sample. A census involves every element of the population while a sample only studies a representative subgroup of the population. To do a census is both time-consuming and costly to conduct and is often unrealistic to do if the population is large (Malhotra, 2010). Due to a limited resources and time this thesis was using a sample of the population instead of study the whole population.

When talking about different sampling techniques it is broadly classified as either non-probability or probability (Malhotra, 2010). Bryman & Bell (2005) writes that a probability sample is a sample that has been chosen on a random basis, which means that each unit of the selected population has a known chance to be selected. A non-probability sample is different, it is a sample that has not been selected through a random sampling method. It

essentially means that some units in the population are more likely than others to be selected in the sample (Bryman & Bell, 2005). A simple random sample is the most basic form of a probability sample and is primary used in a cross-sectional research design. It is used when the researcher has a large population and by making a sample would be able to represent that to the whole population (Christensen et al., 2010). In this thesis the population was as the purpose states Swedish TV- and movie viewers.

4.7.1 Sampling frame

Malhotra (2010) describe a sampling frame as a representation of the elements of the target population, which the sample will be selected from.

Generation Y is a segment that is described to be having high purchasing power. The generation is specified to be individuals born from 1977 to 1994 which today, 2012, equals people in the age of 18-35 (Noble et al., 2008). In a research made by Noble et al. (2008) the conclusion was that it strengthen the previous theories about that the segment has high purchasing power and adds that their respondents were chasing high value in their purchasing. Furthermore they write about generation Y that "Branded products provide consumers a sense of comfort from knowing that they look and feel good in these garments" (Noble et al., 2008, p. 626) and that targeting this segment should include letting them know that they can trust brand X (Noble et al., 2008).

Out from this data it seemed logical to investigate this particular segment due to the purchasing power they possess. Therefore an age limit of 18-35 was being set as sampling frame.

4.7.2 Sample selection and data collection procedure

The sample size is referred to the number of element that will be included in the thesis (Malhotra, 2010). In other words, it is about how many respondents that is desired to answer the questionnaire.

The sampling frame of the age 18-35 in Sweden that was used in this thesis was at the 31 December 2011 a total of 2 206 763 individuals (scb.se). Calculated from a formula fetched from Malhotra (2011) a desired minimum value of respondents would be as follows:

$$n = \frac{2500 \times N \times Z^2}{\left(25(N-1) + (2500 \times Z^2)\right)}$$

n = Sample size required
N = Population size   *= 2 206 763 people*
Z = Number of standard errors   *= 1,96 for 95 % confidence level*

$$\frac{2500 \times 2\,206\,763 \times 1{,}96^2}{\left(25(2\,206\,763 - 1) + (2500 \times 1{,}96^2)\right)} = 384{,}09331$$

Figure 4.4: "Calculation of Sample Size", Formula from (Malhotra, 2011)

Out from this formula the desired number of respondents was calculated to 384 people. To reach the specific sampling frame the Internet link to the questionnaire was spread through Facebook. In a research made by the social media analysis company *SocialBakers* based on the usage the six last months until 2012-03-21 a mean of 4 638 500 Swedish citizens used Facebook and they are distributed between 51% females and 49% males. Of all users 43% is within this thesis´ sampling frame of 18-35 years old and is the largest user group on Facebook (socialbakers.com). This is a total of 1 994 555 people. The sampling frame of this thesis is as mention earlier 2 206 763 people and according to the statistics from *SocialBakers* 90.4% of the sampling frame could potentially be reached through this network.

4.8 Data analysis method

Deciding what analysis that will be used in a research is a matter that is important to take a stand to before retrieving the data that will be analyzed. This is because of how it implies the gathering of the data. Depending on which data analysis methods that will used the gathering of the data differs and must retrieve the right information to make certain data analysis methods possible. In order for some methods to work it is of importance to retrieve the right kinds of variables (Bryman & Bell, 2005)

In order to that the data retrieved from a questionnaire should be able to analyze the questions in a questionnaire should be coded into numbers. For example a question about gender with the answers *Male* or *Female* can be coded with; *male* = 0 and *female* = 1. Furthermore some questions are automatically pre-coded like for example questions that

use the Likert scale, if it is a scale of 5 it automatically becomes 1,2,3,4,5 as answers and is simple put in the coding sheet and if a question ask for age or similar the number itself is the coding (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

Sometimes of different reasons (misunderstanding, unwillingness, simple mistake etc.) some questions are not answered and in order to be able to use these respondents' data the missing data has to be filled in. In some cases the number 0 can be placed instead to apply that it is no input and sometimes it can be filled in with the mean from other respondents if the respondents´ other answers is in line and not stands out (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

4.8.1 Descriptive statistics
According to Hinkle et al. (1994) descriptive statistics are used to show a clear summary of the sample and measures. It classifies and summarizes numerical data, in other words it describe the data that has been collected. Descriptive statistics includes measurements of the average or variation around the average. This can be done through using different statistics tables, such as a histogram, or different parameters such as the mean, median or the standard deviation (Hinkle et al., 1994).

4.8.2 Correlation analysis
According to Bryman & Bell (2005) the correlation coefficient provides information about the probability that the coefficient also is applicable to the population from which the sample was drawn from. The larger the sample size is, the more likely it is that the calculated coefficient is statistical significant. If the correlation coefficient is statistically significant or not is controlled by two factors which is the size of the calculated coefficient and the size of the sample (Bryman & Bell, 2005). In order to be certain that the coefficient can be trusted the significance value needs to be controlled. In economics and marketing significance is recommended to be at least 95%, which equals a value of 0.05 (Malhotra, 2010).

The correlation analysis explains how two variables are related to each other. The coefficient can be between -1.00 and 1.00 were a positive correlation means that if a respondents with a high scores at variable 1 tend to have a high scores on variable 2, and those with low scores on variable 1 tend to have low scores at variable 2 as well. A negative correlation means that respondents with a high score on variable 1 tend to have a high score on variable 2 and those that have high scores on variable 1 tend to have a low score on variable 2 (Nolan

& Heinzen, 2008). According to Farrar and Glauber (1967) a rule of thumb is to have a correlation coefficient lower than .8 or .9 to be sure that the variables do not measure the same thing.

4.8.3 One-Sample T-Test

A one-sample T-test compares the mean for each variable that is put in the formula, in this test only one sample of a population is used. When testing it is also possible to chose a value to have as a test value to compare the means to, for example if a seven graded scale is used the test value could be 4 to see if the means are significant different to that test value (Nolan & Heinzen, 2008).

4.9 Quality Criteria

The quality of a research can be measured by validity and reliability, which can define the strength and trustworthiness of a research (Yin, 2008). According to Bryman and Bell (2005) validity refers to the question of whether one or more indicators that are designed to measure a certain concept really measure that concept. Validity can be divided into three different forms when it comes to evaluate the quality of a quantitative research; these are content, construct and criterion validity (Bryman & Bell, 2005).

4.9.1 Content validity

According to Bryman and Bell (2005) the content validity, also called face validity, is about how well and clear a measurement reflects the concept in question. The content validity can be determined by asking other people if the measurement is capturing the concept from their views. A good way to do this is to involve experts in the certain research area that can determine if the measurement seems to reflect what the concept is about in a clear and understanding way (Bryman & Bell, 2005). In this thesis different professors of Linnaeus University that can be seen as experts in the field of marketing looked over the questionnaire to determine if the concepts were described in a clear and complete way.

4.9.2 Construct validity

Construct validity is used when the researcher is deducing hypothesis and/or research questions from a theory that is relevant to the concept (Bryman & Bell, 2005). Malhotra (2010) describes this as a type of validity that makes it clear of what construct or characteristics the scale is measuring, the researcher answer theoretical questions that

explain why the scale works and describe what deductions that can be done concerning the underlying theory (Malhotra, 2010). This measurement has been done in this thesis through a correlation test.

4.9.3 Reliability

According to Yin (2008) the objective of measuring the reliability of a study is that if later researcher would follow the same procedure and constructed the exactly same study as an earlier researcher it should turn up with same conclusions and findings. In other words, the study should be repeatable (Yin, 2008). Bryman and Bell (2005) writes that the reliability is about the consistency, conformation and the trustworthiness of a measurement of a concept and it can be measured in different ways, for example by doing a repeatable study or by measuring the Cronbach alpha by a reliability test, that will be used in this thesis. The Cronbach alpha calculates the average of all possible reliability coefficients in terms of so called "split-half", in other words that the questions is randomly divided and then compared with each other (Bryman & Bell, 2005). The coefficient for Cronbach alpha is a number between 0 and 1 and the higher the more reliable it is. Hair et al. (2003) writes about a rule of thumb that to be sufficient reliable the coefficient should be at least .6, everything below that is poor reliability. They also write as a recommendation to have at least three items per concept to increase the actual reliability (Hair et al., 2003).

Chapter 5.

Analysis and Results

5.1 Descriptive statistics

The questionnaire was sent out to approximately 912 persons via the social network Facebook where 434 persons responded the questionnaire, which is a response rate of 47,7%. Jin (2011) writes that a typical response rate for Internet questionnaires is about 6-15 %. The high response rate in this research can be explained by that the questionnaire was sent out to the respondents on Facebook as an event. Because of that several of the respondents filled in that they either "Attend" or "Not Attending" on the event page, this made the event also visible for their friends. This may have led to that people who were not invited to the event from the beginning also responded the questionnaire, this could mean that the actual response rate might be a bit lower. In the end 418 respondents was used in this thesis.

The questionnaire was available online for one week. The 418 that responded were included in the target groups, which were Swedish citizens between 18 and 35 years old. To ensure that respondents that did not match the target group did not fill in the whole questionnaire a control question was made in the beginning of the questionnaire where persons that was not included in the target group was sifted out. It was a simple yes or no question about if they were between the ages 18 and 35, if yes they could continue, if no the questionnaire was ended.

Regarding the age at least one person for every age from 18 to 35 answered the questionnaire. Mainly, the responses were from people that were 23 years old, followed by the ages 22 and 24. The majority of the respondents were conducted by people in the ages between 22 and 25, which was 275 people (66 %). It was shown that older respondents had fewer responses, in the age group 26-35, 68 persons (16 %) out of 418 answered the questionnaire. Because of the uneven age distribution no reliable conclusions could be drawn regarding the difference in attitude between ages.

A majority of responses of the questionnaire were from females. From the total amount of responses, females made 267 responses and males made 151 responses. This shows that 63.9 percent of the answers were made by females while males made 36.1 percent of the answers. It was shown that students with a number of 89.7 percent mainly conducted the questionnaire. 7.7 percent of the respondents worked full time while 1.7 percent had a part-time work. Only 1 percent was unemployed. When it comes to how often the respondents watch movies the majority watch movies 1-2 times a week and that the respondents watch TV-shows more frequently than movies. The majority of the respondents watch TV-shows every day.

All variables – Movie & TV-show consumption

In Table 5.1 the means for every concept in connection with how often the respondents watch movies is shown. It is some variance between the means but it is no drastically difference. For instance under the variable PP (Product Placement as a whole), it can be seen that respondents that watch movies every day has a mean of 5.46 while respondents that watch movies "less than above", which equals more less than every second week, has a mean of 5.58.

Table 5.1 - How often do you watch Movies?

	N		PP	VIS	AUD	VAP	PCP	PRO	SUB
Every day	13	Mean	5,46	5,54	4,77	4,77	4,77	3,92	5,00
		Std. Dev.	*1,20*	*1,13*	*1,17*	*1,42*	*1,59*	*1,50*	*1,68*
3-6 times a week	84	Mean	5,30	5,04	4,00	4,04	4,20	3,64	5,51
		Std. Dev.	*1,05*	*1,30*	*1,62*	*1,28*	*1,47*	*1,33*	*1,30*
1-2 times a week	190	Mean	5,27	4,78	3,88	3,97	4,11	3,38	5,55
		Std. Dev.	*1,15*	*1,37*	*1,40*	*1,45*	*1,48*	*1,25*	*1,18*
Every second week	93	Mean	5,42	5,03	4,17	4,34	4,42	3,85	5,14
		Std. Dev.	*1,16*	*1,36*	*1,54*	*1,45*	*1,54*	*1,32*	*1,39*
Less than above	38	Mean	5,58	4,84	4,32	4,68	4,21	3,82	5,03
		Std. Dev.	*1,06*	*1,37*	*1,51*	*1,45*	*1,44*	*1,33*	*1,39*
Total	418	Mean	5,34	4,92	4,04	4,16	4,23	3,59	5,39
		Std. Dev.	*1,13*	*1,35*	*1,49*	*1,43*	*1,49*	*1,31*	*1,30*

Table 5.2 is similar to Table 5.1 but instead it shows the means for every concept in connection with how often the respondents watch TV-shows. What's also similar is the response, for instance as above the means for the variable PP (Product Placement as a whole) for every day viewers are 5.43 and for less than every second week are 5.50 which is very similar.

Table 5.2 - How often do you watch TV-shows?

	N		PP	VIS	AUD	VAP	PCP	PRO	SUB
Every day	227	Mean	5,43	4,93	3,92	4,19	4,27	3,59	5,37
		Std. Dev.	*1,12*	*1,32*	*1,45*	*1,43*	*1,43*	*1,30*	*1,31*
3-6 times a week	102	Mean	5,19	4,92	4,18	4,08	4,12	3,59	5,50
		Std. Dev.	*1,17*	*1,44*	*1,51*	*1,49*	*1,53*	*1,32*	*1,29*
1-2 times a week	67	Mean	5,24	4,90	4,24	4,30	4,48	3,69	5,27
		Std. Dev.	*1,09*	*1,42*	*1,63*	*1,38*	*1,51*	*1,34*	*1,19*
Every second week	10	Mean	5,40	5,00	4,50	4,30	3,80	3,80	5,30
		Std. Dev.	*1,17*	*0,94*	*1,08*	*1,16*	*1,55*	*1,48*	*1,89*
Less than above	12	Mean	5,50	4,58	3,67	3,42	3,33	3,08	5,58
		Std. Dev.	*1,00*	*1,17*	*1,44*	*1,38*	*1,83*	*1,24*	*1,38*
Total	418	Mean	5,34	4,92	4,04	4,16	4,23	3,59	5,39
		Std. Dev.	*1,13*	*1,35*	*1,49*	*1,43*	*1,49*	*1,31*	*1,30*

Excluded & Individual questions

Of all items used in the questionnaire four were taken out before merging and measuring each variable. It was the questions PP3 (Product Placement), PCP2, PCP3 (Plot Connection)

and SUB4 (Subtle) that did not measure the variable intended. Two of the questions were however still of interest, PCP2 and PP3, because of the facts it still brought to the research.

Regarding the question if the product or brand that is placed into a movie or TV-show should match the story (Figure 5.1) the response showed a high agreement. The highest response was number 7 with 40.9 % of all respondents. The mean was 5.67 with a standard deviation of 1.513.

The question about if the respondents think it is inappropriate with placements of alcohol, cigarettes and guns (Figure 5.2) the respondents answered mostly positive. The mean was 4.87 with a standard deviation of 1.899, which shows that the respondents think that it is slightly inappropriate to include alcohol, cigarettes and guns in product placements.
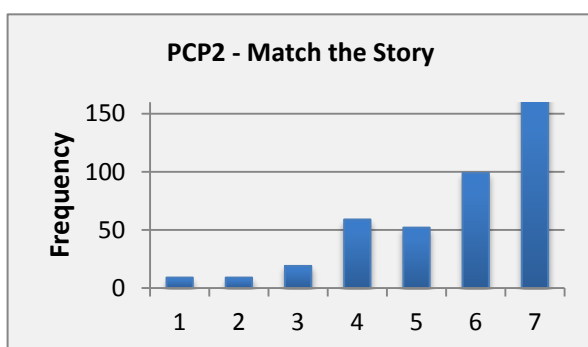
Figure 5.2: PCP2 - Match the Story
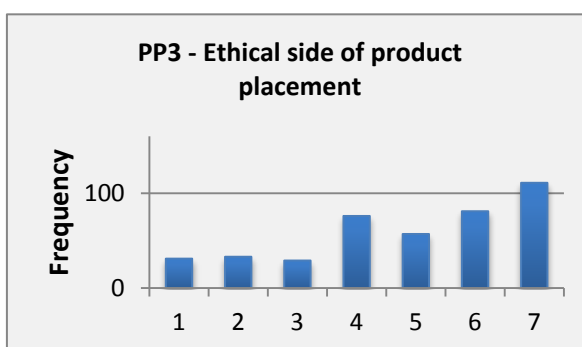
Figure 5.1: PP3 - Ethical side of product placement

5.2 Reliability & Validity

As described in the methodology part a Cronbach alpha test was done in order to see the reliability for every variable. In Table 5.3 the Cronbach alpha is displayed for each variable. The majority of the variable uses all previous stated items for measuring the variable. Before merging the items to each variable four items was removed since they decreased the Cronbach alpha. Two of these items (PCP2 and PP3) were still interesting for the study independently due to the nature of the questions.

When first examined the Cronbach alpha for each variable it was one variable that was lower than 0.6, PCP (Plot Connection) with an alpha of 0.523 with 434 respondents. It was then noticed that several responses had not reacted well to the control question PCP4 that was a negative stated question. When examined the relation between the questions for the variable PCP it was revealed that some respondents answered nr 1 on the first question and nr 7 on the second, or vice versa. It was a sum of 16 respondents, 3.7 % of the total.

According to Hair et al. (2007) a question with more than 10 % missing data should be removed. In this case it was not missing data rather an indicator towards misinterpreting the question or that the respondent did not read before answering. In order to increase the alpha and also increase the reliability over all questions these respondents´ answers were removed and decreased the respondents' number from 434 to the used 418. This meant that now the variable PCP has just two items compared the recommended three, this has to be taken in consideration although it is just a recommendation and not a rule.

As can be seen in Table 5.3 each variable is at least 0.6, which is acceptable, and the lowest in this test was plot connected placement (PCP) with the alpha of 0.667.

5.3 Correlation Analysis

In Table 5.3 all correlation data is presented. As can be seen the highest coefficient is .753 and is lower than the rule of thumb of .8 or .9 that Farrar and Glauber (1967) writes about. This means that none of the variables measures the same concept.

Under the column PP (Product Placement) it can be seen that all variables has a positive correlation towards product placement as a whole, however it has to be taken into consideration that the variable Subtle (SUB) is not significant with a score of .513. The highest correlation coefficient is between PP and VIS (Visual) and has a value of .691.

As mentioned the correlation between SUB (Subtle) and PP (Product Placement) was not significant, but also the correlation between SUB and VIS (Visual) has no significance either with its value of .566. This is the only two variables in the table that has no significance in the coefficient. This means that there is no significant correlation between these variables. All the other correlation has at least a significance level of 95 % and the majority even at 99 %.

The highest positive coefficient over all is .753 and is between VAP (Visual/Audio) and AUD (Audio). Moreover it can be seen that the correlation between the variable SUB (Subtle) is negative correlation with audio (AUD), visual/audio (VAP), plot connection (PCP) and prominent (PRO) placements. This means that if a respondent tend to like subtle placement they tend to dislike the four mentioned variables and vice versa. The highest negative correlation is between SUB and PRO, -.393.

Table 5.3 - Correlations and Cronbach Alpha

	Cronbach α	Mean	Std. Dev.	PP	VIS	AUD	VAP	PCP	PRO	SUB
Product Placement										
PP	,771	5,34	1,13	1						
Visual										
VIS	,816	4,92	1,35	,691**	1					
				,000						
Audio										
AUD	,862	4,04	1,49	,480**	,617**	1				
				,000	,000					
Visual & Audio										
VAP	,745	4,16	1,43	,556**	,610**	,753**	1			
				,000	,000	,000				
Plot Connection										
PCP	,667	4,23	1,49	,428**	,447**	,509**	,492**	1		
				,000	,000	,000	,000			
Prominent										
PRO	,775	3,59	1,31	,476**	,502**	,531**	,560**	,476**	1	
				,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		
Subtle										
SUB	,783	5,39	1,30	,032	,028	-,103*	-,173**	-,112*	-,393**	1
				,513	,566	,035	,000	,022	,000	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Notes: N = 418.

5.4 Analysis of the Research Questions

RQ1: What is the attitude towards product placement in general?

What can be seen in Figure 5.3 is the result from merging the result from six questions regarding the concept of "Product Placement as a whole concept (PP)". The mean for the variable was 5.34 on the 7-graded scale and the standard deviation 1.13. The most usual response regarding product placement was number 6 with 36.4 % of all responses. The tendency is that the overall attitude towards product placement is positive. When looking at male and female separately it is a significant difference towards that males are a little more positive towards product placements, the mean for males are 5.47 and females 5.27 (see Appendix 3).
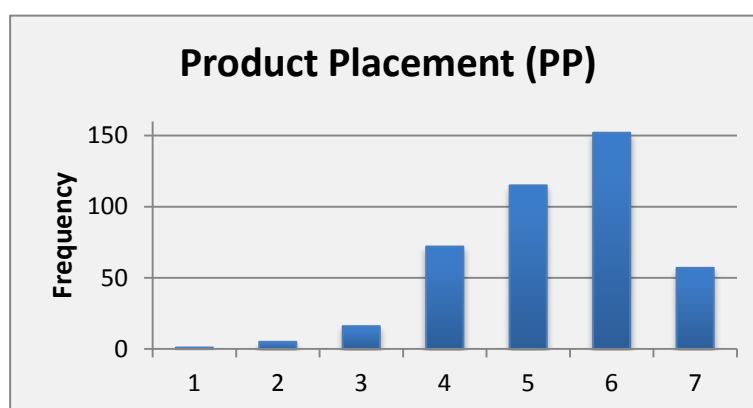
Figure 5.3: Product Placement (PP)

RQ2: What is the attitude towards visual placements?

Figure 5.4 illustrates the result of merging the three questions regarding visual placements. The mean for the variable was 4.92 on the 7-graded scale and the standard deviation 1.35. The most usual response for visual placements was nr 5 with 29.4 % of all responses. The tendency is a mainly a positive attitude towards product placements that are visible. When looking gender vise at visual placements males are significant more positive, the mean for males are 5.07 and females 4.83 (see Appendix 3).
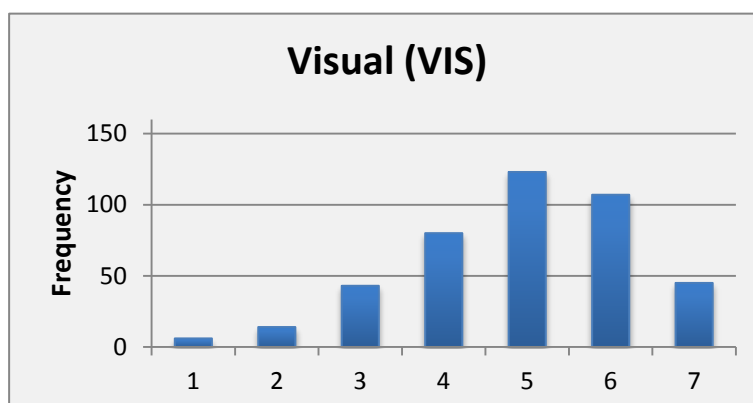
Figure 5.4: Visual (VIS)

RQ3: *What is the attitude towards audible placements?*

Figure 5.5 illustrates the result for audible placements can be seen. The result comes from the merging of the three questions regarding placements with audio characteristics. The mean for the variable was 4.04 on the 7-graded scale and the standard deviation 1.49. The most frequent response was number 4, with 29.9 % of the responses. The attitude towards a placement that is audible is regarded neutral and when looking at males and females separately for this concept there were no significant difference between their attitudes (see Appendix 3).
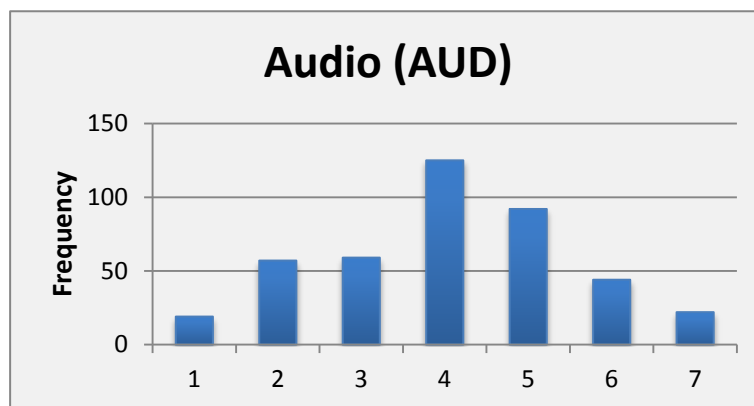
Figure 5.5: Audio (AUD)

RQ4: *What is the attitude towards combined visual and audible placements?*

Figure 5.6 illustrates the result of Visual & Audio placements are shown. The result comes from three questions that were merged to one variable. The mean for the variable was 4.16 and the standard deviation 1.43. The most frequent response was number 4 with 36.4 % of the responses. The attitude toward placement that has the combination of both visual and audible attributes is rather neutral and it is a significant difference between male and female where males have a little higher mean than females. The mean for males are 4.30 and for female it is 4.08 (see Appendix 3).
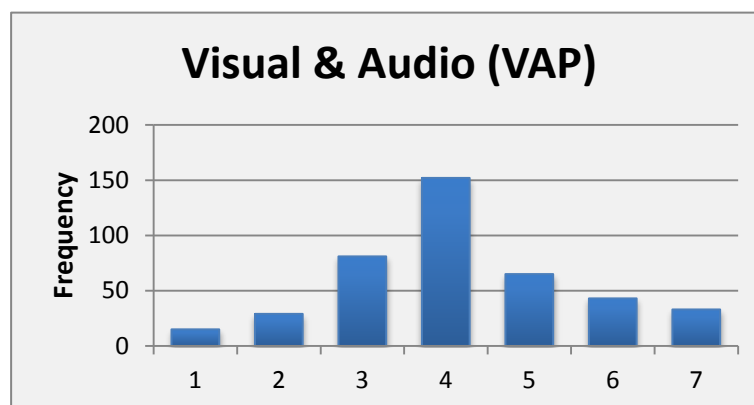
Figure 5.6: Visual & Audio (VAP)

RQ5: *What is the attitude towards a plot connected placement?*

Figure 5.7 illustrates the result of plot connected placement is shown. The variable comes from two questions regarding the concept. The mean for the variable was 4.23 and the standard deviation 1.49. The most frequent response was number 4 with 30.1 % of all responses. The attitude towards a plot connected placement is rather neutral. When looking at males and females separately there were no significant difference in attitudes (see Appendix 3). Also, when looking at this concept it has to be taken in to consideration that it has only two items that represent the attitude.
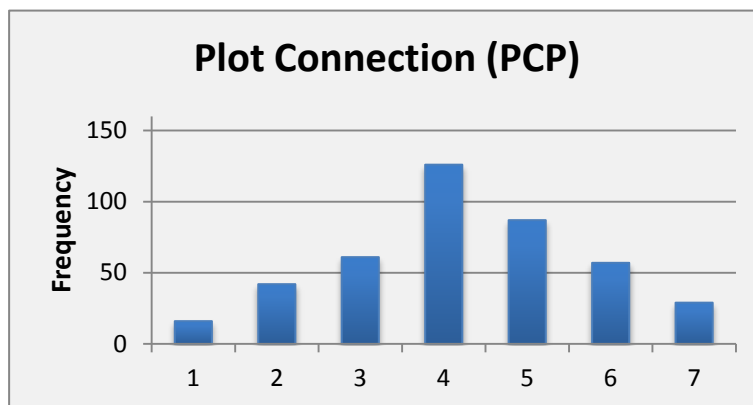
Figure 5.7: Plot Connection (PCP)

RQ6: *What is the attitude towards a prominent* placement?

Figure 5.8 illustrates the result is shown for placements that are prominent. The variable comes from four questions regarding the concept. The mean for the variable was 3.59 and the standard deviation 1.31. The most frequent response was number 4 with 31.3 % of all responses. The attitude towards a placement that is prominent has the tendency towards negative with the position a little lower than neutral. Gender vise females have significant lower attitude and acceptance towards prominent placements than males. The mean for males are 3.71 and females 3.53 (see Appendix 3).
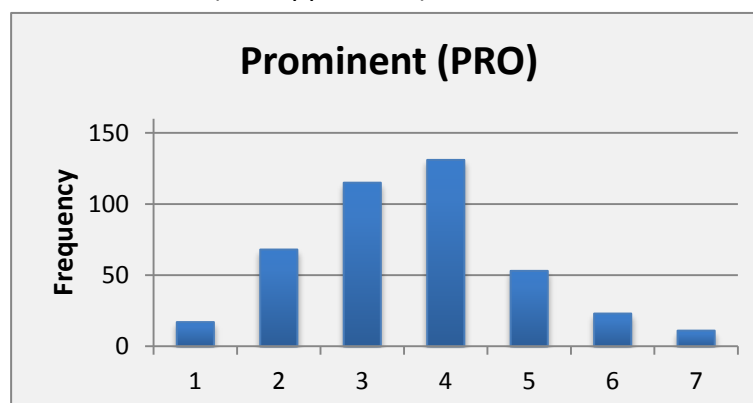
Figure 5.8: Prominent (PRO)

RQ7: What is the attitude towards a subtle placement?

Figure 5.9 illustrates the result is shown for responses towards placements that are subtle. The variable comes from three questions regarding the concept. The mean for the variable was 5.39 and the standard deviation 1.30. The most frequent response was number 6 with 27.8 % of all responses. The attitude towards placements that are subtle is rather positive and the research showed that there was no difference between the genders regarding the attitude towards subtle placements.
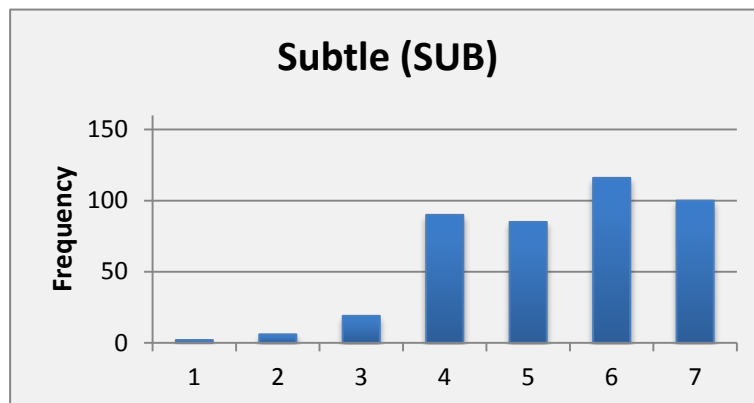
Figure 5.9: Subtle (SUB)

Chapter 6.

Discussion & Conclusion

6.1 Discussion

The aim for this thesis was to map and describe what the Swedish audience´s attitudes are towards product placements that occur in Movies and TV-Shows. Out from the result of the research it was shown that the general attitude toward product placement is positive in Sweden. This is similar to what researchers have found in USA, France, Austria (Gould et al., 2000), Australia (Brennan et al., 2004), Netherlands (Reijmersdal et al., 2010) and Korea (Lee et al., 2011) that the attitude is generally positive toward product placements.

In the studies made in USA, France, Austria (Gould et al., 2000) and Australia (Brennan et al., 2004) the findings showed that females were significant less positive towards product placements. From the research made in this thesis the result showed some similarities to the

previous researches. For four (Product Placement, Visual, Visual/Audio and Prominent) of the seven concepts males had a significantly more positive attitude towards placements than females, just like in USA, France, Austria (Gould et al., 2000) and Australia (Brennan et al., 2004). It is not a big difference but still significant. The other three concepts (Audio, Plot Connection & Subtle) showed no significant difference between males and females. The studies in USA, France, Austria and Australia also showed that it was little acceptance for placements where cigarettes, alcohol and guns were involved (Gould et al., 2000; Brennan et al., 2004). Even this shows similarities to the Swedish people since they have the same negative attitude and thought it was inappropriate to include these products in a placement.

In general the Swedish audience has a positive attitude toward placements that are visual. It was shown that the correlation between a visual placement and product placement as a whole is high and the attitudes is similar. Mainly, the majority of all product placements are visual, if not it is just audible. This classic way of placement is the type of placement that is the most associated with product placement. The classic way to place a product in a movie or TV-show is to let it appear in the cameras´ view in a way that should be naturally integrated to the movie or TV-show, often in a background setting (Lehu, 2007). The Swedish audience has a positive attitude towards this kind of appearance of a product placement. Since earlier studies has shown that a visual-only placement has a large recall for the viewer (Law & Braun, 2000), the companies should keep this into consideration in the decision making of how to place their product in a movie or TV-show. This is due to the combination of the positive attitude towards a visual placement that the Swedish audience has, and the opportunities for a good recall.

When it comes to product placements that are audible, by for instance being mentioned verbally by the character in a movie or TV-show, the attitude towards this kind of placement was overall neutral for the Swedish audience. Even if the audience of Sweden neither have any positive or negative opinions about an audible product placement it is still appropriate for companies to use this kind of placement since it has been shown by Wilson and Till (2011) that audio-only placements has at least an equal large impact of the recall by the viewers as visual-only, where both of them combined has a larger recall. It was shown that the Swedish audience´s has a neutral attitude, that slightly tend to be positive, with product placements that has a combined appearance of a visual and audible dimension at the same

time. If the different dimensions visual-only, audio-only and a combination audio-visual are compared with each other it is shown that a product placement that has a visual appearance is seen as the most positive way to place a product in a movie or TV-show according to the Swedish audience, due to the positive attitude.

Regarding placements that are involved in the plot of a movie or TV-show, a so-called plot connection (Russell, 2002), the Swedish audience had a small positive significant response from the research. It was shown that the viewers do not really have a clear opinion about a plot connected placement since the attitude was nearly neutral. However the viewers had strongly beliefs about that the product that would be involved in the plot should definitely match the story of the movie or TV-show.

It was clearly shown that the Swedish audience prefers a subtle placement before a prominent placement. The attitudes towards a subtle placement, where the placement is harder to notice and does often occur in the background (Ferraro & Avery, 2000), was overall positive for the audience in Sweden, with no differences between the gender. This shows similarities to other studies that have come up with that the consumer attitudes are relatively positive, even if the placement is exposed in a repeated way (Homer, 2009; van Reijmersdal, Neijens & Smit, 2009).

A prominent placement that can be seen as the opposite to a subtle placement where the placement can be easy to notice and be very obvious (Ferraro & Avery, 2000), is not preferable for the Swedish audience since they tend to have a negative attitude towards it. Even if the attitude towards a prominent placement is negative it could even though be an opportunity for companies since it has been shown by Law and Braun (2000) that a prominent placement has a higher recall than a subtle placement. Still, it can have a negative impact since the brand attitude has a tendency to decrease if the placement is too obvious (Homer, 2009; van Reijmersdal, Neijens & Smit, 2009). The negative attitude that the Swedish audience have towards a prominent placement may be caused by the opinion that it could be distracting, less realistic and an interruption to the story of a movie or TV-show. This can be connected to utilitarian function of attitudes that states that attitudes are shaped from that people get either rewards or punishments (Solomon et al., 2010). Since a prominent placement can be distracting it can be seen as a punishment to the viewer and

that can lead to a negative attitude towards the placement itself and both the product and movie/TV-show.

6.1.1 Conclusion

It was shown that the attitude towards product placement in Sweden has similarities to other countries where previous research of the subject has been done. The general attitude towards product placement in Sweden is positive. The Swedish audience has also a positive attitude towards placements that is visual in a movie or TV-show.

Placements that has an audible appearance or a combination of both visual and audio is something the Swedish audience doesn't have a stronger opinion about, since their attitude towards it is neutral. This level of attitude can also be applied to a placement with a connection to the plot, with a small difference towards a positive attitude.

The Swedish audience's attitude towards placements that are either subtle or prominent has big differences since the attitude towards a subtle placement is seen as positive while the attitude towards a prominent placement is negative.

6.2 Theoretical & Managerial Implications

This thesis was focusing on the Swedish attitude towards product placements. Through the investigation this thesis expands the research about the attitudes towards product placements. It describes what the attitude towards different concepts of product placement is, both from a general view and also towards six sub concepts of product placement.

Furthermore, this thesis has after concluding the result from the Swedish audience that was collected from quantitative empirical data compared the findings with previous research that has been carried out in other countries. The thesis shows that the attitudes in Sweden are in line with what has been found in other countries before. Earlier studies that have been done in this field have a similar pattern for the attitudes towards the different product placements dimensions as the conclusions from this thesis.

Cowley and Barron (2008) wrote that the main advantage with product placement is that the viewer's cannot avoid the exposure of the placement when they are watching a TV-show or a movie. It has been shown that the Swedish audience´s attitudes towards product placement do not differ by how often they watch TV-shows or movies. An interesting part is

that Swedes watch TV-shows and movies very frequently, the majority watch TV-shows every day and movies one to two times a week. Since the Swedish citizens tend to avoid the commercials increasingly (tns-sifo.se), product placement is a good opportunity for companies to reach out to many people due to the high viewing rate of TV-shows and movies.

Furthermore it can be good for marketers to consider how they want their brand to be seen since according to Herzog (1963) the brand image is the sum of all impressions and perceptions that customers gets. Due to this it is important to take in to consideration how different placements have different attitudes. Therefore a placement can create a negative attitude to the placement itself and trough that create a negative attitude towards the brand that is placed. But at the same time the main purpose with product placement from a company´s view is to increase brand awareness (Karrh, 1998; Karrh et al., 2003; Chang et al., 2009) and it is therefore a balance between to be not seen at all or risk creating a negative attitude.

6.3 Limitations

In this thesis a single cross-sectional research method was used as mentioned before. This was due to both time and monetary constrains. With this type of study it is more limited to investigate causal relations and what is an underlying reason for the attitudes, now the results only give exactly what the attitudes are. With more time at hand a longitudinal or multi cross-sectional research method could be used to increase the foundation of the result by mapping if the attitude is consistent or change over time.

Another limitation in this thesis is regarding the concept Plot Connection (PCP) that from the beginning had four items for measuring the attitude. After the questionnaire was conducted it become clear that two of the items did not measure the concept in the way that it was supposed and these two items were removed and left the concept with just two items. Due to the time constraint it was no possibility to make an improvement for this concept and make a new measurement.

Due to the uneven distribution of the age responses it was not possible to draw any conclusions about if it was any difference between the attitude and age. The same situation

occurred regarding to what occupation the respondents had, where the majority were students. Also it has to be taken in to consideration that the respondents was a majority of females with a percentage of 63.9, a goal would of course be 50 % per gender to have a total equal distribution. As seen in the comparison between genders, females had a significant lower attitude in general towards product placement. Due to this the uneven distribution could potentially decrease the total attitude for both genders.

6.4 Suggestions for future research

Product placement is a growing field of marketing in today's society and it needs more research in the field. Through this thesis several questions have been raised that needs further research and therefore some suggestions have been made.

An interesting thought that was raised during this thesis is regarding the line between subtle and prominent placements. In the existing literature and previous research no clear line between these concepts is drawn. The attitudes towards subtle placements are higher than prominent placements in Sweden but it has been proven by earlier researches that prominent placements have higher recall than subtle placements. That means that marketers want to use prominent placements to make use of the higher recall yet the audience prefers subtle placement. On the other hand if a prominent placement is too obvious it could have a negative impact. Therefore a study focused on where the line goes between subtle and prominent placements are and what is acceptable, this would bring interesting facts to the field.

A suggestion for researchers in the future is to improve the measurement for the concept Plot Connection (PCP). This is a concept that in this thesis is on the verge of not being reliable. To make it more reliable in future research other items has to be used to fully measure the attitude.

Another suggestion is to make a more adequately research by better control and work for a more evenly distribution of the sample. In this thesis the sample frame were between the ages 18 and 35 but 66 % was between 22-25 years old and also 89.7 % of all respondents was student. To make a more generally stated research in the future it would be interesting

to involve other age categories and also make sure that the survey reaches more peoples that are not students.

Grönroos (2008) writes about how a message can have different trustworthiness depending on how the message is transmitted, he writes about four levels where planned message is the least trustworthy. This is the category he writes about that product placement fit the most in and it is of course a planned message from the company´s side but still differ from regular commercials that is the examples Grönroos writes about. Out from this it can be seen that an investigation of the trustworthiness in product placements and even if different placements has different trustworthiness would be interesting and bring new theories to the field.

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Appendix 1 – Swedish questionnaire

Svenska tittares attityder mot produktplaceringar i Film och TV.

Hej,

Vi är två studenter från Marknadsföringsprogrammet på Linnéuniversitetet i Växjö som för tillfället skriver vår kandidatuppsats som undersöker Svenskars attityder mot produktplacering i film och TV. Därför behöver vi nu din åsikt i ämnet, och vi vore väldigt tacksamma om du vill deltaga i vår undersökning.

Läs igenom frågorna noga och fyll i det svar som passar dig bäst, alla svar förblir givetvis helt <u>anonyma</u>!

Enkäten tar ca 5 minuter att genomföra och genom ditt deltagande har Du möjlighet att vara med i utlottningen av ett SF-Bio presentkort laddat med 300 kr.

Vid frågor eller problem, tveka inte att höra av er.

jens_abrahamsson@hotmail.com Tel: 0709568214
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Är du mellan 18-35 år?

○ Ja
○ Nej

Next ▶

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Linnéuniversitetet
Ekonomihögskolan

Hur gammal är du?

Välj ett ... ▾

Kön?

○ Man
○ Kvinna

Sysselsättning?

○ Student
○ Arbetar (Heltid)
○ Arbetar (Deltid)
○ Arbetslös

Hur ofta tittar du på _Film?_

○ Varje dag
○ 3-6 ggr i veckan
○ 1-2 ggr i veckan
○ Varannan vecka
○ Mer sällan än ovanstående

Hur ofta tittar du på _TV-program_?

○ Varje dag
○ 3-6 ggr i veckan
○ 1-2 ggr i veckan
○ Varannan vecka
○ Mer sällan än ovanstående

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Produktplacering är en form av reklam där ett varumärke är placerat i en film eller TV-program. Produktplacering kan delas in i flera olika kategorier och förekomma på olika sätt. Till exempel kan varumärket synas lite diskret i bakgrunden, så som att en Coca-Cola burk står på ett bord, eller vara mer tydlig då ett varumärke kan nämnas i dialogen. Ibland kan det även vara helt invävt i handlingen och ha en stor del av själva storyn av en film eller ett TV-program, ett exempel på detta är i filmen Cast Away från 2000 där företaget FedEx syns ofta och spelar en roll i filmens handling.

Apple i TV-serien House

FedEx i filmen Cast Away

Coca-Cola i TV-programmet American Idol

Generell uppfattning om produktplacering i Film och TV-program.

	Instämmer INTE alls			Neutral			Instämmer HELT
Jag har inga problem med produktplaceringar i film och TV.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag avskyr att se varumärken i filmer och TV om de är placerade i ett kommersiellt syfte.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag tycker INTE att det är lämpligt med produktplaceringar som innehåller alkohol, cigaretter eller vapen.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Produktplaceringar av varumärken höjer realismen i en film eller ett TV-program.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag försöker undvika filmer och TV-program som innehåller produktplaceringar.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag gillar INTE produktplaceringar som förekommer i min favoritfilm eller favorit TV-serie.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Produktplaceringar skadar min syn på varumärket eller produkten.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Synlig produktplacering

	Instämmer INTE alls			Neutral			Instämmer HELT
Jag har inget emot produktplaceringar som är synbara.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag gillar att man till exempel kan se vilket märke av bil som körs eller vilket märke av läsk som dricks i en film eller i ett TV-program.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag har inget emot att varumärken kan ses ofta i film eller TV-program.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Produktplacering som hörs

	Instämmer INTE alls			Neutral			Instämmer HELT
Jag har inget emot produktplaceringar som är hörbara eller blir omnämnda i film eller TV.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag gillar när karaktärer i film och TV-program pratar om ett varumärke.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag har inget emot att när varumärken hörs eller nämns ofta i film eller TV.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Produktplacering som är både synlig och hörbar samtidigt.

	Instämmer INTE alls			Neutral			Instämmer HELT
Jag har inget emot med produktplaceringar som både syns och blir omnämnda på samma gång.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag gillar INTE när en karaktär pratar om ett varumärke samtidigt som märket är synbart	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag har inget emot att varumärken syns eller nämns ofta i film eller TV.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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Produktplacering som är invävd i handlingen

	Instämmer INTE alls			Neutral			Instämmer HELT
Jag har inget emot att ett varumärke är involverad i handlingen av en film eller TV-program.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ett varumärke eller en produkt som är placerat i en film eller TV-program ska passa in i handlingen.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag köper varumärken som jag ser kändisar använder i filmer eller TV-program.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag gillar INTE när ett varumärke har en stor del av en film eller TV-program.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Tydlig produktplacering

	Instämmer INTE alls			Neutral			Instämmer HELT
Jag har inget emot när ett varumärke är väldigt tydligt placerat i en film eller TV-program.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Filmer eller TV-program borde INTE ge för mycket plats för ett speciellt varumärke (t.ex. visa samma varumärke väldigt ofta)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag har inget emot att kameran uppenbart fokuserar på ett visst varumärke i film eller TV.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Produktplaceringar som är uppenbara tar fokus ifrån handlingen.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Diskret produktplacering

	Instämmer INTE alls			Neutral			Instämmer HELT
Jag tycker det är mer acceptabelt när en produktplacering är svår att upptäcka.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag gillar när till exempel en karaktär bär ett par Ray-Ban solglasögon (Top Gun) utan att märket varken hamnar i fokus eller nämns.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag gillar när ett varumärke är placerat i bakgrunden på ett diskret sätt.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Produktplacering i film och TV är vilseledande jämfört med vanlig reklam då tittarna inte är medvetna om att den sker.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Ladda med en bioupplevelse!
300 kr ger dig =

För att vara med i uttlottningen av ett SF-Bio presentkort värde 300 kr, var vänlig fyll i din e-mail adress.

(Denna ruta är EJ obligatorisk. Vill du inte lämna ut din e-mail behöver du inte, men är då inte heller med i utlottningen.)

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Appendix 2 – English questionnaire

Swedish viewers attitudes towards product placement in movies and TV-shows.

Hello,

We are two students from the Marketing program at Linnaeus University in Växjö and are currently writing our bachelor thesis which investigates the Swedes' attitudes toward product placement in movies and TV. Why we now need your opinion on the subject, and we would be very grateful if you would participate in our study.

Please read the questions carefully and fill in the answer that suits you best, all responses will of course remain completely anonymous!

The survey takes about 5 minutes to complete and trough your participation you have the opportunity to be in the draw for an SF Bio gift card loaded with 300 kr.

For questions or problems, please do not hesitate to contact us.

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Are you between 18-35 years old?
○ Yes
○ No

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Linnéuniversitetet
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How old are you?

Please select one ... ▾

Gender?

○ Male
○ Female

Occupation?

○ Student
○ Working (Full time)
○ Working (Part time)
○ Unemployed

How often do you watch _Movies_?

○ Every day
○ 3-6 times a week
○ 1-2 times a week
○ Every second week
○ Less than above

How often do you watch _TV-shows_?

○ Every day
○ 3-6 times a week
○ 1-2 times a week
○ Every second week
○ Less than above

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Product placement is a form of advertising where a brand is positioned in a movie or TV-show. Product placement can be divided into several categories and occur in different ways. For example, the brand seen quietly in the background, such as a Coca-Cola bottle stands on a table, or be more obvious like when a brand can be mentioned in the dialogue. Sometimes it can even be completely woven into the plot and have a large part of the story of a film or television program, an example of this is in the movie Cast Away in 2000 where the company FedEx is often seen and is having a part of the movies story.

Apple in the TV-series House

FedEx in the movie Cast Away

Coca-Cola in the TV-show American Idol

General opinion of product placement in film and television programming.

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
I have no problem with product placement in movies and TV-shows in general.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I hate seeing brand name products in movies if they are placed for commercial purposes.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don´t think it is appropriate with placements of alcohol, cigarettes and guns.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The presence of a brand named products in a movie makes it more realistic.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to avoid movies or TV-shows that contains product placement.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don´t like product placements that occurs in my favorite movie or TV-show.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Product Placements damage my view against a brand or a product.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Visible product placement

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
I have no problem with product placements that is visible.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like when for example you can see the brand of a car they are driving.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do not mind when brands are being seen often.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Product placement that can be heard

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
I have no problem with product placements that is heard or mentioned.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like when a character refers to a brand name.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do not mind when brands are being heard or mentioned often.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Product placement that is both visible and audible at the same time

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
I have no problems with product placements that is both seen and mentioned at the same time.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don´t like when a character refers to a brand name and the logo or product is being seen at the same time.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do not mind when brands are being mentioned and seen often.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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Product placement that is woven in to the story

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
I don´t have any problem when a brand is involved in the story.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The product or brand being placed into a movie or TV-show should match the story.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I buy brands that I see movie stars using or holding in movies.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don´t like when a brand has a big part of a movie or TV-show.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Prominent product placement

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
I don´t have any problem when a brand is very noticeable in a movie or TV-show.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Movies should not give too much importance to a particular brand (e.g., showing the same brand very frequently in a movie).	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don´t mind when the focus in the screen is at a brand name or product.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Product Placements that are obvious are distracting me from the story.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Subtle product placement

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
I think it is more acceptable when product placement is hard to notice.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like when for instance an actor is wearing Ray-Ban glasses (in Top Gun) without it ever being mentioned or focused on.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like when a brand is only placed discrete in the background.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Product placements in movie and TV-shows is more misleading compared to regular advertisement due to that the viewers are not aware of the placements.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Ladda med en bioupplevelse!
300 kr ger dig =

POP
Coca-Cola

To be included in the draw of an SF Bio gift card with the value of 300 SEK, please fill in your e-mail address.

(This box is NOT mandatory. If you don't want to disclose your e-mail, you don't, but then you are not in the draw.)

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Appendix 3 – T-test

Ap.3.1 T-Test

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PP	418	5,34	1,125	,055
VIS	418	4,92	1,348	,066
AUD	418	4,04	1,488	,073
VAP	418	4,16	1,432	,070
PCP	418	4,23	1,491	,073
PRO	418	3,59	1,309	,064
SUB	418	5,39	1,300	,064

Measured against test value 4

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 4					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
PP	24,383	417	,000	1,342	1,23	1,45
VIS	13,894	417	,000	,916	,79	1,05
AUD	,526	417	,599	,038	-,10	,18
VAP	2,254	417	,025	,158	,02	,30
PCP	3,116	417	,002	,227	,08	,37
PRO	-6,351	417	,000	-,407	-,53	-,28
SUB	21,815	417	,000	1,388	1,26	1,51

Ap.3.2 Gender

Product Placement

One-Sample Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	PP	151	5,47	1,136	,092
Female	PP	267	5,27	1,115	,068

One-Sample Test

Gender		Test Value = 5.47					
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Male	PP	,002	150	,998	,000	-,18	,18
Female	PP	-2,936	266	,004	-,200	-,33	-,07

Visual

One-Sample Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	VIS	151	5,07	1,312	,107
Female	VIS	267	4,83	1,363	,083

One-Sample Test

Gender		Test Value = 5.07					
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Male	VIS	,027	150	,979	,003	-,21	,21
Female	VIS	-2,905	266	,004	-,242	-,41	-,08

Audio

One-Sample Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	AUD	151	4,11	1,571	,128
Female	AUD	267	4,00	1,441	,088

One-Sample Test

Gender		Test Value = 4.11					
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Male	AUD	-,032	150	,975	-,004	-,26	,25
Female	AUD	-1,248	266	,213	-,110	-,28	,06

Visual & Audio

One-Sample Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	VAP	151	4,30	1,531	,125
Female	VAP	267	4,08	1,370	,084

One-Sample Test

Gender		Test Value = 4.3					
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Male	VAP	-,016	150	,987	-,002	-,25	,24
Female	VAP	-2,640	266	,009	-,221	-,39	-,06

Plot Connection

One-Sample Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	PCP	151	4,18	1,654	,135
Female	PCP	267	4,25	1,394	,085

One-Sample Test

Gender		Test Value = 4.18					
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Male	PCP	-,009	150	,993	-,001	-,27	,26
Female	PCP	,876	266	,382	,075	-,09	,24

Prominent

One-Sample Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	PRO	151	3,71	1,436	,117
Female	PRO	267	3,53	1,230	,075

One-Sample Test

Gender		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
				Test Value = 3.71			
						Lower	Upper
Male	PRO	-,012	150	,991	-,001	-,23	,23
Female	PRO	-2,416	266	,016	-,182	-,33	-,03

Subtle

One-Sample Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	SUB	151	5,32	1,397	,114
Female	SUB	267	5,43	1,244	,076

One-Sample Test

Gender		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
				Test Value = 5.32			
						Lower	Upper
Male	SUB	-,019	150	,985	-,002	-,23	,22
Female	SUB	1,406	266	,161	,107	-,04	,26

Linnaeus University – a firm focus on quality and competence

On 1 January 2010 Växjö University and the University of Kalmar merged to form Linnaeus University. This new university is the product of a will to improve the quality, enhance the appeal and boost the development potential of teaching and research, at the same time as it plays a prominent role in working closely together with local society. Linnaeus University offers an attractive knowledge environment characterised by high quality and a competitive portfolio of skills.

Linnaeus University is a modern, international university with the emphasis on the desire for knowledge, creative thinking and practical innovations. For us, the focus is on proximity to our students, but also on the world around us and the future ahead.

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