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Persuasion via audiovisual transmission: Is the persuasiveness of a message affected by whether the audience believes the message presentation is a videotaped recording or is an unrehearsed live telecast?

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Dufour, Charles Laurier, Ph.D.

University of New Hampshire, 1989

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PERSUASION VIA AUDIOVISUAL TRANSMISSION:
IS THE PERSUASIVENESS OF A MESSAGE AFFECTED
BY WHETHER THE AUDIENCE BELIEVES THE
MESSAGE PRESENTATION IS A VIDEOTAPED RECORDING
OR IS AN UNREHEARSED LIVE TELECAST ?

BY

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B.A. Hofstra University, 1983
M.A. University of New Hampshire, 1985

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the University of New Hampshire
in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Psychology

September, 1989

This dissertation has been examined and approved.

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7/28/89
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This dissertation is dedicated to my parents,
Louis and Gilberte,
and to Kara

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An incredible amount of energy is expended in completing a doctoral program. Many sacrifices are made with little chance of recovering many of the losses. Although I am receiving the degree, it was with much help and support from so many important people. These people and their contributions will always be remembered.

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On a final note, I'd like to thank all of you who cared enough to follow my progress during this process. For everyone who has helped me along, I will not let you down.

PREFACE

One night, in the summer of 1987, I was watching the evening news on television when a reporter was commenting on the persuasiveness of Oliver North's presentation earlier that day. At the time, Oliver North's actions in relation to the Iran-Contra Affair were under severe scrutiny. This day had apparently been one of the first in which North was testifying in his defense. The news telecast then showed a clip of North answering some questions. I sat there, relatively unaffected by North's delivery, being neither more nor less convinced of his position. Yet the reporter claimed that North's delivery had been evaluated by most as being quite convincing. I began to ponder just why the reporter's evaluation was different from mine, we had both heard North say the same things. Among several other factors differentiating my experience from the reporter's was the fact that the reporter was actually there as North was making the delivery whereas I was watching and listening to the delivery at a later time. I wondered if people who had watched the delivery when the hearings were aired earlier that day had been as persuaded by North as the reporter, and if others who were seeing the delivery "after the fact" like me were as unimpressed as I. This led to my remembering friends who had told me that they had videotaped televised sports programs and upon watching them (without knowing the outcome), were not as enthused about the game as they usually are when watching it as it is being telecast live. "Are live telecasts more involving and

therefore more persuasive than recorded telecasts?", I asked myself. And from there, I proceeded to develop the skeleton for this dissertation project.

The 1988 election campaign was in full force throughout the development and execution of this project. Strong speeches were forwarded by skillful orators such as Jesse Jackson, and how I wished I knew the answer to my question and what the explanations might be. The University of New Hampshire hosted the first national democratic debate in January, 1988, and I quickly seized the opportunity to find an answer to my question. I designed a small scale study examining my subject. Unfortunately, there were unanticipated structural differences between the "live" telecast and a "recorded" presentation and results were inconclusive. The frustration of missing a golden opportunity only served to increase my desire to answer the question empirically.

The following dissertation is an attempt at answering that question I asked myself during the summer of 1987. The data I collected helped to answer that question, at least under specific conditions. I am still searching for a more complete, less qualified answer to it. I'm hoping that maybe, just maybe, by the 1992 election campaign

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ABSTRACT

PERSUASION VIA AUDIOVISUAL TRANSMISSION:
IS THE PERSUASIVENESS OF A MESSAGE AFFECTED BY WHETHER
THE AUDIENCE BELIEVES THE MESSAGE IS A VIDEOTAPED RECORDING
OR IS AN UNREHEARSED LIVE TELECAST ?

by

Charles Laurier Dufour
University of New Hampshire, September, 1989

One hundred and fifty-nine university students participated in a study examining the effect on persuasion of believing that an audiovisual message presentation was a videotaped recording or was an unrehearsed live telecast from an adjacent room. Participants were also assigned to one of two other groups, one instructed to focus its attention on the information being presented (i.e., a centrally focused group), the other instructed to focus on the message source's physical appearance (i.e., a peripherally focused group).

A 2 (Believed Live vs. Believed Recorded) X 2 (Centrally Focused vs. Peripherally Focused) Analysis of Variance was performed on the data. The interaction approached significance ($F(1, 155) = 3.049, p = .083$). Significance was reached for the live/recorded manipulation ($F(1, 155) = 4.68, p = .032$), but not reached for the central/peripheral manipulation ($F(1, 155) = 1.159, p = .283$). Results are explained in terms of involvement, psychological reactance, and the particular persuasion characteristics chosen for this study.

INTRODUCTION

We are continually bombarded with countless messages via the television medium. Whether they be news broadcasts, televised advertisements, or political speeches, these audiovisual messages invariably affect our daily thoughts, feelings, and actions. Thanks to modern technology, information from around the world can reach us with scarcely any time delay, a feat no doubt considered impossible only a few generations ago.

Just as with other social phenomena, there has been scientific investigation of the various effects of this form of mass communication. Some has focused, for instance, on the effects of televised violence on its viewing audience, especially young viewers (e.g., Feshbach & Singer, 1971; Hoffman, 1977). Other social psychologists (e.g., Andreoli & Worchel, 1978; Chaiken & Eagly, 1976; Williams, 1975) have studied the various comparisons between the different forms of mass media (i.e., print vs. audio vs. audiovisual).

Some televised information comes to us as previously recorded material whereas the remainder reaches us as live broadcasts. How are we, the viewing audience, affected by this difference in the timing of the message transmission? More specifically, are we more persuaded, less persuaded, or equally persuaded by message presentations that we believe are being transmitted to us as they are occurring versus those that we believe have been previously recorded? This question has yet to be answered and will be the

focus of this dissertation.

I will first present an overview of the literature on persuasion (also referred to as attitude change or simply "attitudes"). That will be followed by a detailed description of the variables manipulated in the present study and then by what will be measured. The introductory section will end with the hypotheses for this study based on previous findings from related research and from the most recent theoretical perspective on persuasion in psychology.

CHAPTER I

AN OVERVIEW OF PERSUASION RESEARCH

Brief History

Few topics currently studied in psychology have been under investigation longer than that of persuasion. The first major work on this topic was undertaken by Aristotle in his Rhetoric (See Cooper, 1932). For many centuries thereafter, philosophers discussed their opinions and personal ideas on the matter and skillful orators seemed to know how to be persuasive, but it was not until the 20th century that particular attention was paid to the scientific investigation of persuasion. One of the first formal areas of investigation in social psychology was the study of attitudes. Efforts from psychologists such as Thurstone and Chave (1929) and Guttman (1944) represent the seminal work on attitude measurement. Measurement scale models that were developed 50 years ago are still in use today, with none so widely used as the Likert-type scales (Likert, 1932).

The study of attitudes declined during the latter part of the 1930s through the 1950s, during which time research on group dynamics became the major thrust in social psychology (McGuire, 1985). Major areas of investigation during that period included topics such as group cohesiveness, conflict resolution, conformity, and power. It was not until the late 1950s that a second thrust in the study of attitudes began to develop. This time, research

efforts moved from measurement to theoretical modeling. For example, the behavioral perspective was introduced to attitude change research. Behavioral models were proposed by well-respected psychological researchers such as Hovland, McGuire, Janis, and Campbell, among others. The impact of consistency theory on attitude research was forwarded through research efforts by other equally acclaimed researchers such as Heider, Festinger, Walster, Osgood, and Brehm, among others. Other less popular theorizing included psychoanalytic efforts by Katz, Sarnoff, and others as well as perceptual efforts by Sherif, Asch, and others. (For a more comprehensive review of the theoretical research conducted by the above noted authors, see McGuire, 1985.) Much of what we understand today about the various factors involved in persuasion has been derived from the studies that were conducted between the late 1950s and the late 1960s.

Persuasion research has often involved the study of factors that affect the different components of communication. These components consist of who sends the message (the source), what information is being sent (the message), how it is being sent (the medium or channel), who receives the message (the audience or receivers), and at which kind of behavior it is directed (the target) (Lasswell, 1948; Lasswell, Casey, & Smith, 1935; Smith, Lasswell, & Casey, 1946). Today, the target behaviors are not emphasized per se, and coverage of existing research generally focuses on the first four components listed. Numerous variables affecting the components have been studied and the following pages outline some of these critical variables, beginning with source

variables.

Communication Components: The Source

Source credibility effects on persuasiveness have been studied extensively (for reviews see McGuire, 1985; Sternthal, Phillips & Dholakia, 1978). Studies focusing on the persuasive effect of source credibility are concerned with source expertise (e.g., Aronson & Golden, 1962; Horai, Nacarri, & Fatoullah, 1974; Heesacker, Petty, & Cacioppo, 1983; Mills & Harvey, 1972; Ward & McGinnies, 1974) or with source trustworthiness (e.g., Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Fine, 1957; Andreoli & Worchel, 1978; Miller, Maruyama, Beaver, & Valone, 1976; Kelman & Hovland, 1953). Generally speaking, the greater the perceived expertise in a message relevant topic, the more persuasive the source. Also, in general, higher levels of source trustworthiness tend to be associated with greater source persuasiveness. Other factors such as the message medium, timing of the source introduction, and the attractiveness of the source have been found to interact with source credibility (e.g., Mills & Harvey, 1972; Andreoli & Worchel, 1978). Also, with sufficient time following message presentation allowing for the forgetting of the source's credibility, differences in persuasiveness between credible and noncredible sources tend to disappear (Hovland & Weiss, 1951). This "sleeper effect" can be eliminated with the reinstatement of the source's credibility (Kelman & Hovland, 1953).

Source attractiveness has also been found to play a role in the persuasive power of a communicator. Generally speaking, higher physical attractiveness is associated with greater persuasiveness (e.g., Chaiken, 1979, 1980; Mills & Aronson, 1965; Mills & Harvey, 1972; Eagly & Chaiken, 1975; Horai, Naccari, & Fatoullah, 1974; Worchel, Andreoli, & Eason, 1975; Dion & Stein, 1978). Mills and Aronson (1965) suggest that we generally wish to please those whom we like and that we tend to like people who are physically attractive to us, thereby increasing the general persuasiveness of sources who are physically attractive. Another attempt to explain how physical attractiveness affects persuasion is presented by Chaiken (1979). She found that physically attractive communicators possessed greater communication attributes and skills than physically unattractive communicators. This finding led her to posit that physically attractive communicators may be more persuasive than unattractive communicators due to differences between these two groups in relevant communicator characteristics.

Communication Components: The Message

There are many message variables that affect persuasion. Examples include the order of argument presentation (e.g., Sponberg, 1946; Cann, Sherman, & Elkes, 1975), clarity or forcefulness of delivery (e.g., Chaiken & Eagly, 1976; Burgoon & Chase, 1973), the use of humor in message presentation (e.g., Chapman & Foot, 1976), and the use of distractors during message presentation (e.g., Freedman & Sears, 1965; Haaland & Venkatesan,

1968), etc. However, of particular importance to this project is the effect produced by the variable known as message quality. According to Petty and Cacioppo (1984), a high quality message is described as being cogent (i.e., containing compelling, reasonable, and pertinent arguments), whereas a low quality argument is specious (containing arguments that are alluring but ingenuine, or falsely deceptive). Petty and Cacioppo (1984) found that both quantity and quality of information within a message are important to the persuasiveness of a message. More specifically, they were interested in observing the effects of issue-relevance (i.e., high personal involvement vs. low personal involvement) on responses to the quantity and quality of persuasive arguments. The researchers manipulated the number of arguments presented (three vs. nine) as well as the quality of the arguments (all cogent vs. all specious). They found that the number of arguments (argument quantity) had a greater impact under conditions of low- than on high-involvement whereas the argument quality had a greater impact under conditions of high- rather than low-involvement. Thus, both quality and quantity of arguments are important message characteristics.

Communication Components: The Channel

Which is the most effective channel or medium through which to send messages: in person, via audiovisual transmission (i.e., t.v. screen), via audio only transmission (i.e., radio or telephone), or via the print medium? Past research has shown that there is no unconditional answer to that question. Chaiken and Eagly (1976)

compared a videotaped message with an audiotaped message and a written message. These researchers manipulated message complexity. They found that when the message was difficult to understand (i.e., complex), written messages were more persuasive than either the audiovisual or the audio only channel. However, when the message was easy to understand (i.e., simple), the audiovisual channel was most persuasive, with the audio channel next in persuasiveness and the written message least persuasive.

The data on the various media effects are not consistent across studies, however. Frandsen (1963) found no significant differences between messages that were audiotaped, live from closed circuit transmission, and live in person, regardless of the amount of threat appeal used in the message. Short (1973, as described in Williams, 1977) found that the audio only as well as the audio-video conditions witnessed more opinion change than his face-to-face condition. The difference between the two telecommunications media in that study was not significant, however. Finally, in studies conducted by Andreoli and Worchel (Andreoli & Worchel, 1978; Worchel, Andreoli, & Eason, 1975), message transmissions via television were found to be significantly more persuasive than via radio and newspaper when the message source was rated as trustworthy (i.e., a newscaster or former political representative). When the source was rated as not trustworthy (i.e., political candidate for office), television was found to be the least persuasive medium. In summary, there is no definitive rule governing the persuasiveness of messages in the context of the message medium.

Communication Components: The Audience

Several audience characteristics affecting message persuasiveness have been identified (Eagly, 1981). For this project, the relevant audience characteristic affecting communication persuasiveness is the message receiver's sex. Recent emphasis has been placed on understanding the underlying processes involved in reported sex differences (Cacioppo, J.T., & Petty, R.E., 1980). Eagly and Carli (1981), in a meta-analytic review of sex differences on influenceability, found that although there was a tendency for women to be reported as more influenceable than men in a majority of studies, this could be explained in terms of the sex of the author of the publication. Women were found to be significantly more persuadable when men were the authors (79% of the research examining influenceability through 1981 was authored by men) yet there were no significant sex differences when women were the authors. [For possible explanations forwarded, see Eagly & Carli, 1981.]

Elaboration Likelihood Model

According to recent reviews of the persuasion literature (e.g., Cialdini, Petty, & Cacioppo, 1981; Cooper & Croyle, 1984), a significant contribution to the persuasion literature has been the recent development of the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). According to this model, there are two distinct paths or "routes" to persuasion. When conditions are such that a listener's motivation and/or ability to engage in issue-relevant thinking is high, a condition of high elaboration likelihood exists

and what has been termed as "central route" persuasion is likely to occur. The central route to persuasion involves issue relevant focusing (i.e., focus on the specifics of the information being presented). On the other hand, when conditions are such that a listener's motivation and/or ability to engage in issue-relevant thinking is low, a condition of low elaboration likelihood exists. Persuasion that might occur during conditions of low elaboration likelihood would be persuasion due to factors peripheral to the message itself (e.g., source attractiveness and/or credibility, number of arguments presented in the message, etc.) and thus is termed "peripheral route" persuasion. To reiterate, the peripheral route involves persuasion due to issue irrelevant focusing. An important factor in determining conditions partial to central or peripheral route focusing is involvement (e.g., Petty & Cacioppo, 1979a, 1979b, 1984). High involvement by the message receiver generally increases the likelihood to focus on the information, and therefore, persuasion reliant on central cues. Low receiver involvement, generally decreases the likelihood to focus on the information, and therefore, persuasion more reliant on peripheral cues.

The Concept of Time in Persuasion Research

In past research, the concept of time has been studied in three distinct ways. One way considers the placement in time of various quality arguments during message presentation. For example, Sponberg (1946) found that messages were more persuasive when large arguments were presented first in order of presentation

than when small arguments were presented first. Another way time has been incorporated into persuasion research considers the amount of time that elapses during a message presentation. Generally, speed of speech is positively related to amount of persuasion. Miller, Maruyama, Beaber, and Valone (1976) found, for example, that faster message presentations were related to greater persuasion. They suggested that faster presentations enhanced the credibility of the speaker, thereby affecting the persuasiveness of the argument positively. The third way time has been considered as a factor deals with the placement in time of source information, either before or after the message has been presented. Mills and Harvey (1972) found that subjects who were told that the communicator of a message was an expert were more persuaded when this source credibility information was presented prior to the message presentation than following the presentation. Also manipulated in the same study was physical attractiveness. A photo of a physically attractive source was presented before the message presentation or after the message presentation. The difference in persuasion when physical attractiveness was the source characteristic was not significant. Also, Ward and McGinnies (1974) varied the credibility of the source (high vs. low) as well as the sequence of the credibility information (before vs. after the message presentation). They found that persuasiveness of the message was inhibited in the low-credibility condition when the credibility information was presented before as opposed to after the message presentation. They did not find persuasiveness to be affected, however, in the condition varying timing of presentation

of source credibility information when the source was of high credibility.

There is a fourth time factor that may affect persuasion that has yet to be studied. Consider, for example, persuasion differences that may occur between two audiovisually transmitted message presentations that differ in one way only, that the two audiences have different beliefs about when the performance on the screen has taken place. For one audience, the belief is that the performance characterizing the message presentation is occurring concurrently with its viewing of the performance (i.e., a "live" broadcast). For another audience, the belief is that the performance was recorded at an earlier time and is being replayed to the audience now. Would there be any effect on the persuasive power of a message presentation due solely to a perception or belief about when the audiovisual presentation is performed (i.e., concurrently with the audience viewing it or replayed as a previous recording)? That question will be the focus of this dissertation.

Operational Definitions

It is necessary to operationalize key terms used in the text hereafter. The audience's belief that a message presentation performance is occurring concurrently with the audience's viewing of it will be expressed as the message is "believed live" and when the audience's belief is that the message presentation performance is a replay from an earlier recording, this will be expressed as "believed recorded". It is important not to confuse "live" as used here with any other connotations of "live" that may exist

elsewhere. For instance, people sometimes refer to performances that are unrehearsed as "live" and rehearsed as "not live". This inference about "live vs not live" in relation to "not rehearsed vs rehearsed" is inappropriate in the context of this project.

It is also important to operationalize the term "persuasion". To avoid response biases, many researchers have chosen to examine between-group attitude differences instead of within-subject differences. In persuasion research, between-group differences would be interpreted as suggesting that varying amounts of persuasion have occurred due to the experimental manipulations. Thus, persuasion is operationalized as referring to varying amounts of agreement with a message position following message presentation. In the present study, the message is presented via an audiovisual channel (i.e., television monitor). Again, the reader is cautioned that the term "persuasion" in the present study refers only to between-group differences in agreement with a message position following its presentation. Persuasion here does not refer to personal shifts of a belief or attitude from one point in time to another.

Experimental Hypotheses

It is difficult to predict with much confidence the effect on persuasion that may be produced by the "believed live"/"believed recorded" manipulation. Andreoli and Worchel (1978), based on Weiss (1969), suggest that the more "real" a message presentation is, the more persuasive it will be. Being "live" was equated with being more "real" and, consequently, more involving for the

listener. The conclusion reached by these researchers is that the more involving a message presentation, the greater the subsequent persuasion. If that conclusion is correct, we should expect that performances occurring as one is watching them on screen would seem more "real" than recorded replays of performances, and therefore, would be more persuasive than recorded replays of performances. It is hypothesized that there will be greater agreement with the message presenter's position when the audience members believe that the message is being presented at the same time they are watching the screen (believed live) than when the audience members believe the message is presented as previously recorded (believed recorded).

Would the central and peripheral routes to persuasion be affected differently by a "believed live"/"believed recorded" manipulation? Past studies utilizing the Elaboration Likelihood Model have measured and categorized responses as being either central or peripheral in nature (i.e., as a dependent variable). In the present study, however, an attempt will be made to separate and manipulate the two routes to persuasion as an independent variable in an effort to investigate whether amount of persuasion differs within each route as a result of the "believed live"/"believed recorded" manipulation. The persuasion route manipulation will be accomplished by instructing one audience to focus its attention on the central route to persuasion (i.e., focus on the message information) and by instructing a second audience to focus its attention on the peripheral route to persuasion (i.e., a strong peripheral route cue). As previously mentioned, greater

involvement is positively related to greater persuasion, leading us to predict that the believed live condition should yield higher participant agreement with the speaker's position because "live" is believed to be more "real" or involving than "not live". Would the predicted difference between "live" and "not live" hold true for both the central route as well as the peripheral route? If not, what might we predict? Elaboration Likelihood presents the peripheral route persuasion as being passive processing whereas the central route persuasion is considered active processing. Being an active process, we might expect to see greater differences in amount of persuasion between the believed live and believed recorded groups in the central route condition. Because the participants in the centrally focused group are actively processing the information they are receiving, they should have a better general understanding of the message. If we expect an overall difference in amount of persuasion between the believed live and believed recorded manipulation, this difference would probably be more noticeable in a situation where there is a direct (i.e., active) focus on the information being presented. For the peripheral route groups, on the other hand, the processing is passive. With passive processing, we might expect to see smaller differences in the amount of persuasion that occurs as a result of the "believed live"/"believed recorded" manipulation. In sum, I hypothesize that in regard to differences in persuasion as a result of the "believed live"/"believed recorded" manipulation, the differences will be greater between the the centrally focused groups than between the peripherally focused groups.

CHAPTER 11

METHOD

Subjects

One hundred and seventy-nine subjects were recruited from introductory psychology classes at the University of New Hampshire. Data from twenty of the participants had to be excluded from analysis for reasons described later. Participants received course credit for their participation. Sixty-two percent of the participants who provided usable data for the statistical analysis were female. The median age of participants was 19.

Materials

A 48 cm Panasonic color television set (model CTF-1911) was used in this study as well as a Panasonic VHS video cassette recorder (model PV-1330). The persuasive message was recorded on a Sony VHS T-120 video cassette tape (further details about the recording are forthcoming). The use of two rooms was required for this study. The larger of the rooms contained a table measuring 4 m X 1.5 m with four laboratory seats situated along one side. Cloth partitions were arranged between the seats such that individuals seated on the benches could not visually communicate with individuals seated on neighboring benches. The television monitor was arranged across the table in a way that allowed all individuals to have a clear view of the screen. The television monitor was connected via a 15 m wire to the VCR that was located

in the second room, out of sight of the participants.

Vocal Hygiene Videotape. A videotape containing information about the deleterious effects of prolonged strain on the vocal apparatus from various strenuous vocal activities was developed. Vocal hygiene was chosen as the topic for the persuasive communication because it is emotionally neutral subject matter that is not often even considered in day-to-day activity. This neutrality allows for easier persuadability because, for most people, there is not a particularly strong commitment to the general idea that people should or should not pay special attention to their own vocal behavior or that there is any particular age group that is more susceptible to vocal abuse than others.

The videotaped message lasts seven minutes and forty-five seconds (i.e., 3 minutes and 45 seconds of actual message presentation with 2 minutes of silence and an empty room both immediately before and immediately following the message). The message was presented by a certified speech/language pathologist from a local hospital. For the purposes of the study, it was necessary for subjects to focus their attention on either the central or peripheral cues to persuasion. This attentional focus was facilitated by choosing a relatively complex, information-loaded message and by choosing an attractive message source (i.e., rated as "very pretty" or "pretty" on a five point qualitative scale by 80% of a different yet demographically similar sample of 30 subjects viewing a slide photograph of the message source).

Cognitive Response Form. A cognitive response form was designed as described in previous studies that employed a cognitive response analysis (e.g., Cacioppo & Petty, 1981; Eagly, 1974; Petty & Cacioppo, 1979; Heesacker, Petty, & Cacioppo, 1983). On this form, subjects were asked to write for 2 1/2 minutes all relevant thoughts specific to their particular cue instructions. For example, participants who were asked to focus on the information (i.e., the central cue focus) wrote for 2 1/2 minutes about that information.

The purpose of the cognitive response form in this study was to provide another means of trying to ensure that participants were focusing their attention on their particular persuasive cue. Because the form was provided immediately following the attentional focus and immediately prior to their judgments of agreement with the speaker on the videotape, there was little time for the participants' attention to wander. The purpose of the form as described here is different than in most other studies that have employed a cognitive response form (e.g., Eagly, 1974; Heesacker, Petty, & Cacioppo, 1983; Petty & Cacioppo, 1979). Traditionally, the form is used as a dependent measure by collecting data on the thoughts experienced by participants during a persuasive manipulation. The thoughts of the participants are then coded and quantified. In the present study, however, subjects were specifically instructed to write about that which they were asked to focus. The cognitive response form, then, served as a manipulation check in the present study. The relevant bits of

information expressed by each participant within each condition were quantified as in previous studies. See Appendix B for a copy of the cognitive response form used for the thought listing procedure.

Dependent Measure. A questionnaire was developed that asked subjects to indicate their level of agreement with the speaker's position. The question used as the primary dependent measure was the first on the questionnaire. This was an 11 point scale item with "1" corresponding to complete agreement with the speaker, "6" corresponding to neutrality (neither agreeing nor disagreeing with the speaker), and "11" corresponding to complete disagreement with the speaker.

The questionnaire also contained two other questions. The second question on the questionnaire asked subjects to predict whether they would change their vocal behavior in the future after having seen the videotape. This question was also an 11 point likert item with "1" corresponding to being more concerned about their vocal behavior in the future, "6" corresponding to no change in the future, and "11" corresponding to being less concerned about their vocal behavior in the future. Because responses to this question do not represent an actual measure of behavioral change but rather only a personal prediction of future behavioral change, this question was not treated as a primary dependent measure. Instead, this question was designed to serve as a check for consistency of the subject's responses. For instance, subjects indicating general agreement with the speaker should not indicate that they predict less personal concern in the future, and subjects

indicating general disagreement with the speaker should not indicate that they predict greater personal concern in the future.

The third question on the questionnaire was an open-ended question asking subjects to describe their overall assessment of the study. This question was designed to allow subjects who suspected deception in the study (e.g., the presentation was actually a recording and not presented live) to express this belief. See Appendix C for a copy of the complete questionnaire.

Procedure

A 2 (Message transmission: Believed live or Believed recorded) X 2 (Cue focus: Central (information) or Peripheral (physical appearance)) factorial design was employed. Participants arrived at the experimental lab in groups of four. Upon arrival, participants were assigned a lab seat and were asked to complete a form containing demographic questions. There were always two experimenters present, a male and a female. After instructing the participants to complete the demographic form, the male experimenter would exit the room and close the door behind him. Out of sight and sound of the participants, he would enter the second room and begin the videotape. Meanwhile, after participants had completed of the demographic form, the female experimenter would distribute the written individual instructions. These instructions were divided into two stacks. One stack included instructions identifying the forthcoming telecast as a videotaped recording whereas the other stack included instructions identifying the telecast as presented live from another room in the lab. Within each stack, the instructions to focus on the information or

on the speaker's physical appearance were shuffled to ensure random distribution of the forms. The random distribution of the forms provided for the random assignment of participants into the different conditions since the various sets of instructions provided for the different conditions of the independent variables (i.e., "believed live" vs. "believed recorded" and central cue focus vs. peripheral cue focus). The wording of the four sets of instructions was basically the same except that one set explained that the message would be transmitted live asking participants to focus on the information, a second set explained that the message would be transmitted live asking participants to focus on the physical appearance of the message presenter, a third set explained that the message would be a recording from a previous day asking participants to focus on the information, and the fourth set explained that the message would be a recording from a previous day asking the participants to focus on the physical appearance of the speaker. (See Appendix A for copies of the instructions.)

While the participants were reading the instructions, the female experimenter would turn on the television monitor. Because the videotaped recording had already begun, depicted on the screen was the beginning of the recording which consisted of 2 minutes of silence while viewing an empty room. After reading the instructions to themselves, each participant looked up to the monitor and waited for the speaker and the male experimenter to appear on the screen. When the message presentation commenced, the female experimenter remained in the same room but moved out of sight of the participants so as not to provide any unnecessary

distraction.

After viewing the message presentation, the female experimenter distributed the cognitive response forms to the participants. She then instructed the participants to read the written instructions silently while she read them aloud. During the 2 1/2 minutes that the participants were writing their thoughts as instructed, the female experimenter turned off the television monitor.

The sequence of events surrounding the playback of the videotape were performed very precisely to provide an appearance of genuineness necessary for the believability of the experimental instructions. On days when the participants' instructions claimed that the presentation would be live, the male experimenter would wear the same clothes as he was wearing on the videotape. On days when the presentation was described as a recording from a previous day, the male experimenter wore clothes identical in style but different from that which he was wearing on the videotape. The female experimenter always wore fashionable clothes and stood away from the monitor during the presentation to ensure participant attention was focused on the television screen and not on the female experimenter.

While the participants completed the cognitive response forms, the male experimenter would stop the videotape, rewind it to the beginning, then reenter the experimental room thereby joining the other experimenter and participants. Once the cognitive response forms were completed and collected, the male experimenter distributed the final questionnaire to the participants, and asked

them to complete this last form. After completion of the final questionnaire, it was explained to the participants that due to the nature of the study, they would not be fully debriefed until all data had been collected (a period of approximately 3 to 4 weeks). Participants were told that questions specific to the nature of the study would not be entertained until the time of the debriefing. Participants were then escorted out of the laboratory.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Inspection of subjects' responses on the cognitive response forms indicated that 10 of the original 179 participants supplied responses that contained inconsistencies between their written responses and their instructions and therefore their data were excluded from the analyses. In addition, 9 subjects indicated inconsistent responses to the two questions serving as the dependent measures (e.g., indicating disagreement with the speaker's position yet also indicating greater personal concern for their future vocal behavior) and therefore had to be excluded from the analyses. Of the remaining 160 participants, 1 suspected deception (i.e., that the recorded presentation may have actually been live) and his data were also excluded from the analyses. A total of 159 respondents provided usable data for the analyses.

Neutrality of the item used as the primary dependent measure was confirmed by administering a questionnaire that contained the final version of the primary dependent variable item (see below) to a separate, demographically similar, sample of 19 subjects. The questionnaire contained ten items unrelated in context and written in 11-point likert format with scale responses ranging from "1" corresponding to strongly agree through "11" corresponding to strongly disagree. Embedded within the group of unrelated items was the item used as the dependent measure in the experiment. With

"6" on the scale indicating neutrality (i.e., not in strong agreement nor disagreement with the item's position), a mean of 5.95 with a standard deviation of 1.81 was obtained on this item. Neutrality can therefore be assumed because the mean that was obtained closely approximated the center of the agreement/disagreement scale and because there was so little variability in the responses.

The question serving as the primary dependent measure was reworded during the course of the study. Originally, the question read, "People in their late teens and early twenties should try to monitor their vocal behavior since they are probably at greater risk for vocal abuse than people in other age groups." The first 55 subjects responded to this version of the dependent variable. The reason for rewording the question was to avoid possible misinterpretation of the question since responses of agreement or disagreement could pertain to either the suggestion that participants should monitor their vocal behavior or to there being greater risk for vocal abuse in young adults. Because of possible participant confusion, the question was reworded to read, "People in their late teens and early twenties are probably at greater risk for vocal abuse than people in other age groups." There were 104 respondents to this version of the dependent variable. To determine whether the possible ambiguity significantly affected responses, a 2 ("believed live" vs. "believed recorded") X 2 (central focus vs. peripheral focus) X 2 (Question 1: original version vs. reworded version) analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the data from all respondents. Responses to the two

versions were not significantly different, $F(1, 151) = .088$, $p = .767$ (See Table 1). Because there was no statistically significant effect attributable to the particular question version, the data from all respondents

Table 1. Three-way ANOVA summary table for the two experimental conditions and the two versions of the primary dependent variable item (Question 1).

SOURCE OF VARIATION	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
-----	--	--	-	-----
Main Effects				

A : Believed Live/Believed Recorded	1	24.234	4.689	.032
B : Central Focus/Peripheral Focus	1	5.797	1.122	.291
C : Question 1 version 1/version 2	1	0.457	0.088	.767
2-way Interactions				

A x B	1	12.850	2.486	.117
A x C	1	15.650	3.028	.084
B x C	1	3.037	0.588	.445
3-way Interaction				

A x B x C	1	7.252	1.403	.238
Residual	151	5.168		

to both versions of the question were combined for the final analyses.

A 2 (believed live vs. believed recorded) X 2 (central focus vs. peripheral focus) ANOVA was performed on the data obtained from Question 1 which asked about speaker agreement and that served as the primary dependent measure (see Table 2). A significant main effect was obtained for the "believed live"/"believed recorded" variable, $F(1, 155) = 4.69, p = .032$. There was more agreement with the message source when the message presentation was believed to be live than when it was believed to be a recording from a previous day (See Figure 1). The persuasion route variable did not produce a significant main effect, $F(1, 155) = 1.159, p = .283$. A summary table of the ANOVA results is found in Table 3.

A two-way interaction approached significance, $F(1, 155) = 3.05, p = .083$. To examine the effects of the "believed live"/"believed recorded" variable on each of the routes to persuasion, two univariate ANOVAs were performed. For the group instructed to focus on the information (central route focus), the belief that the message was live yielded more agreement with the speaker than belief that the message was recorded, $F(1, 71) = 6.63, p = .012$. No significant effect was obtained between the "believed live" and "believed recorded" conditions for the group instructed to focus on the source's physical appearance (peripheral route focus), $F(1, 84) = 0.20, p = .653$. See Table 4 for a summary of the ANOVAs and Figure 2 for a graph of the group means.

Table 2. Group means, standard deviations, and sizes by condition
 ----- for the primary dependent variable item (Question 1).

		PERSUASION ROUTE FOCUS	
		Central	Peripheral
		-----	-----
	Live	$\underline{M} = 3.45$	$\underline{M} = 3.66$
	----	$\underline{SD} = 1.67$	$\underline{SD} = 2.16$
		$\underline{n} = 42$	$\underline{n} = 41$
AUDIENCE BELIEF			
ABOUT MESSAGE			
	Recorded	$\underline{M} = 4.94$	$\underline{M} = 3.87$
	-----	$\underline{SD} = 3.19$	$\underline{SD} = 2.11$
		$\underline{n} = 31$	$\underline{n} = 45$
	Control	$\underline{M} = 5.95$	
	Group	$\underline{SD} = 1.81$	
		$\underline{n} = 19$	

Figure 1. Bar graph displaying agreement with speaker as a function of audience belief about message presentation.

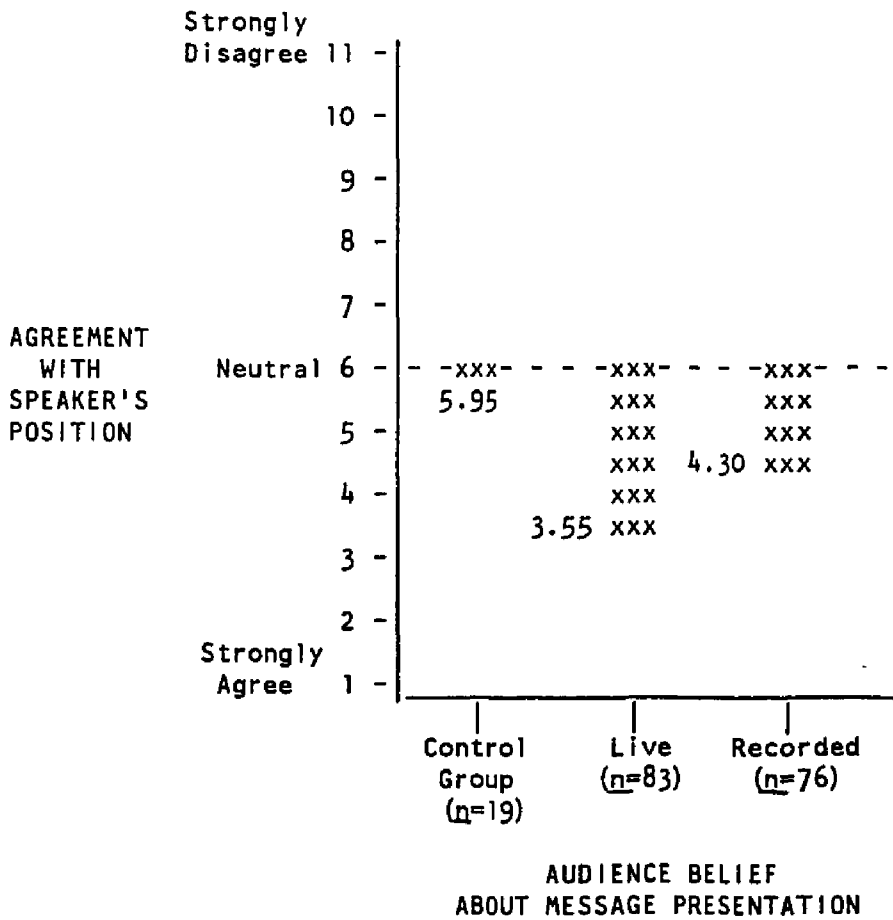


Table 3. Two-way ANOVA of primary dependent variable (Question 1).

SOURCE OF VARIATION	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
-----	--	--	-	-----
Main Effects				

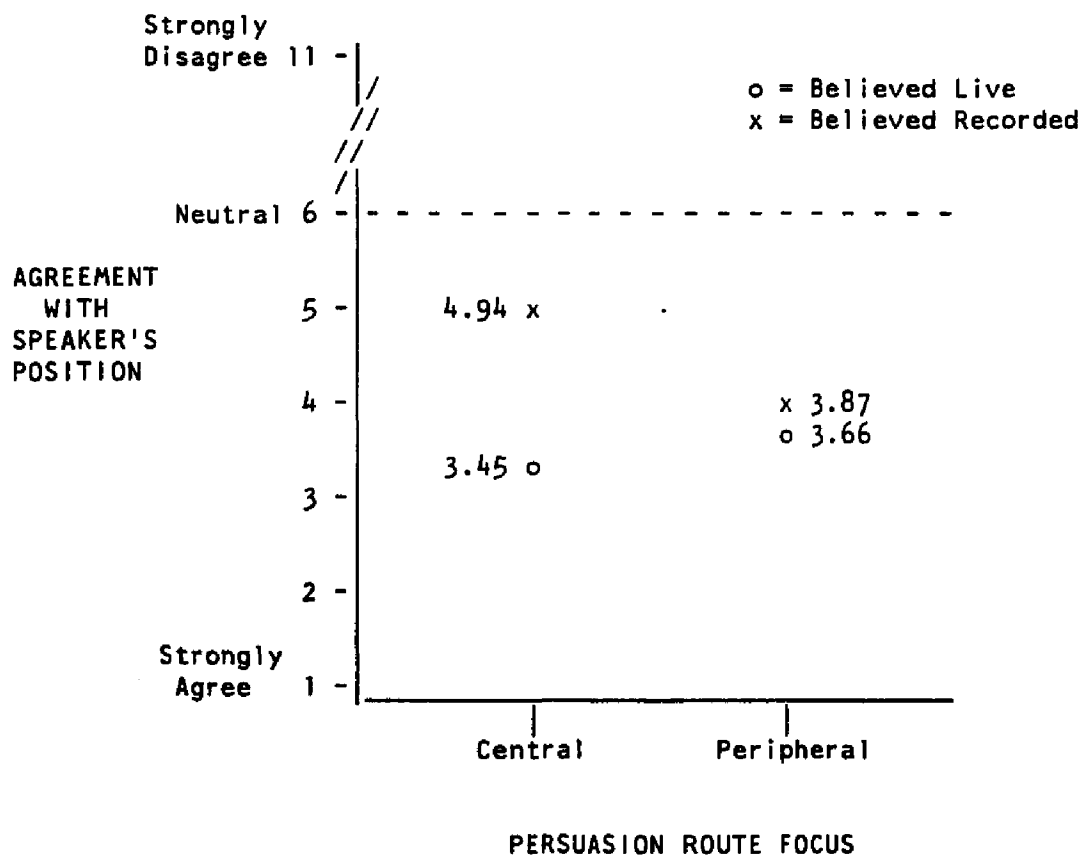
A : Believed Live/Believed Recorded	1	24.329	4.686	.032
B : Central Focus/Peripheral Focus	1	6.019	1.159	.283
Two-way Interaction				

A x B	1	15.831	3.049	.083
Residual	155	5.192		

Table 4. One-way ANOVAs for Question 1 for each persuasion route.

CENTRAL ROUTE FOCUS				
Source of Variation	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
-----	--	--	-	-----
Believed Live/Believed Recorded	1	39.231	6.628	.012
Residual	71	5.919		
PERIPHERAL ROUTE FOCUS				
Source of Variation	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
-----	--	--	-	-----
Believed Live/Believed Recorded	1	0.929	.203	.653
Residual	84	4.576		

Figure 2. Graph displaying agreement with speaker's position as a function of persuasion route focus and audience belief about message presentation.



A Pearson correlation was performed on the data obtained for Question 1 (the primary dependent variable) and Question 2 (the secondary dependent variable). The correlation proved to be significant, $r(158) = .41, p < .001$.

A 2 ("believed live" vs. "believed recorded") X 2 (central focus vs. peripheral focus) ANOVA was performed on the data obtained from Question 2 which asked subjects to indicate a personal prediction of future behavior based on the message presentation. Statistical significance was not reached for the "believed live"/"believed recorded" manipulation, $F(1, 155) = 0.124, p = .725$. The persuasion route manipulation proved to be directional but nonsignificant as well, $F(1, 155) = 3.183, p = .076$. The interaction between these two manipulations also did not prove to be significant, $F(1, 155) = 1.879, p = .172$. See Table 5 for a table of group means for each condition and Table 6 for a summary of the ANOVA.

A 2 (Believed Live vs. Believed Recorded) X 2 (Centrally focused vs. Peripherally focused) ANOVA was performed on the number of thoughts listed (i.e., bits of information written) on the cognitive response forms. A main effect was obtained for the route focus manipulation ($F(1, 155) = 44.436, p = .000$) such that peripherally focused participants listed more information bits than centrally focused participants. No significant effect was obtained for the live/recorded manipulation ($F(1, 155) = .712, p = .400$), nor for the interaction ($F(1, 155) = .033, p = .857$). See Table 7 for a table of group means for each condition and Table 8 for a summary of the ANOVA.

Table 5. Group means, standard deviations, and sizes for the secondary
 ----- dependent variable (Question 2).

		PERSUASION ROUTE FOCUS	
		Central	Peripheral
		-----	-----
AUDIENCE BELIEF ABOUT MESSAGE	Live	$\bar{M} = 4.83$	$\bar{M} = 5.36$
	-----	$\bar{SD} = 1.10$	$\bar{SD} = 0.91$
		$\bar{n} = 42$	$\bar{n} = 41$
	Recorded	$\bar{M} = 5.03$	$\bar{M} = 5.09$
	-----	$\bar{SD} = 1.11$	$\bar{SD} = 1.18$
		$\bar{n} = 31$	$\bar{n} = 45$

Table 6. Two-way ANOVA for secondary dependent measure (Question 2).

SOURCE OF VARIATION	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
-----	--	--	-	-----
Main Effects				

A : Believed Live/Believed Recorded	1	0.146	0.124	.725
B : Central Focus/Peripheral Focus	1	3.737	3.183	.076
Two-way Interaction				

A x B	1	2.206	1.879	.172
Residual	155	1.174		

Table 7. Group means, standard deviations, and sizes for the number of
 ----- thoughts listed on the cognitive response forms.

		PERSUASION ROUTE FOCUS	
		Central	Peripheral
		-----	-----
AUDIENCE BELIEF ABOUT MESSAGE	Live	$\bar{M} = 5.59$	$\bar{M} = 9.17$
	----	$\bar{SD} = 2.38$	$\bar{SD} = 3.35$
		$\bar{n} = 42$	$\bar{n} = 41$
	Recorded	$\bar{M} = 5.26$	$\bar{M} = 8.64$
-----	$\bar{SD} = 2.53$	$\bar{SD} = 4.22$	
	$\bar{n} = 31$	$\bar{n} = 45$	

Table 8. Two-way ANOVA for cognitive response forms.

SOURCE OF VARIATION	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
Main Effects				
A : Believed Live/Believed Recorded	1	7.622	0.712	.400
B : Central Focus/Peripheral Focus	1	475.375	44.436	.000
Two-way Interaction				
A x B	1	0.348	0.033	.857
Residual	155	10.698		

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

As predicted, the "believed live" condition produced significantly greater agreement with the message source's position than did the "believed recorded" condition. As Andreoli and Worchel (1978) and Weiss (1969) suggest, the more "live" a message presentation is, the more real it appears, which may lead to greater involvement and, therefore, more persuasion. Neither Weiss (1969) nor Andreoli and Worchel (1978) offered an operational definition of involvement, thereby limiting our ability to use their position to explain our findings. Given this limitation, perhaps the "believed live" situation seemed more real and involving because subjects in this condition could relate to the message source, perhaps perceiving her as being a participant of the experiment concurrently with their own participation. Subjects in the "believed recorded" condition may have found their experimental situation to be less involving and real because they are less certain about the motives of the message source since she participated on a previous day for reasons that are unknown to the participants. The important distinction may be that in the "live" condition, the message source was perceived as being a member of the "ingroup", whereas in the "recorded" condition, she is perceived as being a member of the "outgroup" (e.g., Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, 1961; Locksley, Ortiz, & Hepburn, 1980). Ingroups are social units with which individuals identify,

whereas outgroups are social units with which individuals do not identify. It has been demonstrated that simply conceptualizing the world in terms of "us" and "them" can arouse ingroup sympathies and heighten ingroup attractiveness (Tajfel & Billig, 1974).

Heightened ingroup attractiveness can lead ingroup members to assume greater member similarity than actually exists (Holtz & Miller, 1985). As previously noted, similarity and attractiveness are important regulators of persuasive strength. The possible perceived ingroup membership status of the message presenter, as in the "live" condition, may lead to greater group polarization on an issue (i.e., agreement on the message position) than would be observed in the "recorded" condition, where the message presenter may have been perceived as an outgroup member. Future studies might attempt to measure the participants' perceptions of the message presenter's ingroup-outgroup status.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model distinguishes between two persuasion routes, central and peripheral. These two distinct routes generally operate simultaneously and are not described as being in opposition to one another. They simply coexist. Apparently, however, as separate persuasion routes, they are not affected similarly when information about a message presentation's live/recorded status is revealed. As was demonstrated in this dissertation project, the persuasive power of the message was essentially the same for the believed live and the believed recorded groups when a peripheral focus was operating (see Figure 2). When a central route focus was operating, however, the live/recorded distinction significantly affected the persuasiveness

of the message such that the belief that the message had been previously recorded diminished the amount of persuasion relative to the amount that occurred when the audience believed the message was a "live" telecast. More specifically, the live/recorded distinction was important when subjects focused on the information presented but not when subjects focused on the attractiveness of the message source. Perhaps the audience perceived that a recorded message polarized to a relatively extreme position was an attempt made by the experimenter to persuade them. The effects of psychological reactance are well documented (e.g., Brehm, 1966; Brehm & Brehm, 1981). It is important to note that the shift in persuasiveness within the central route group relative to the peripheral route group was on both ends; that is, the apparent live telecast was more persuasive for the central route group and the apparent recorded telecast was less persuasive for the central route group. Because the central route group attended to the specifics of the information being presented, they may have created counterarguments to the presented arguments once they perceived that an attempt was being made at limiting their freedom of choice. This reactance effect would probably be more likely to occur when the experimenter has chosen to play a prerecorded videotape to the audience than when the experimenter has apparently asked a speaker to present her personal position through an unrehearsed "live" telecast. The difference in speaker agreement between the central route groups may have been due to the development of counterarguments that stemmed from an apparent experimenter manipulation.

The pattern of results obtained within the centrally focused group would not be expected in the peripherally focused group. Neither the believed live nor the believed recorded groups would begin to develop counterarguments because both of these groups are paying close attention to her appearance and not to her message. Because the groups have been told that their task will be to describe in detail her physical appearance, they are probably less likely to reach the conclusion that the message is an attempt at persuading them. To the peripheral route group, the information being presented is probably irrelevant and therefore, insignificant. Counterarguments are therefore not created by the believed recorded group and careful analyses of the cogent arguments are not executed by the believed live group. The result is that an appreciable amount of persuasion occurs from the vicarious attention given to the speaker during message presentation, but not to the degree demonstrated when close attention is paid to the information in the central route live condition. Assuming the persuasion via the peripheral route is essentially vicarious, we should witness no statistical difference in persuasion between the believed live and the believed recorded groups. As shown in Figure 2 and in Table 4, the findings are consistent with this analysis.

Involvement plays an important role in the Elaboration Likelihood Model. Perhaps participants in the "believed live" condition experienced a greater sense of involvement because the experimenters apparently exerted much effort in arranging for a

speaker to come to the laboratory and present her position to the viewing audience. Relative to the "believed live" condition, participants in the "believed recorded" condition would probably have experienced less involvement because placing a videotape into a videocassette player was not perceived as involving much effort. This proposed greater sense of experiment involvement from members of the "believed live" group might be explained in terms of equity theory (e.g., Walster & Walster, 1978; Walster & Piliavin, 1972). Equity theory predicts that members of a relationship are most satisfied when they believe that exchanges are fair. Unfair exchanges, whether they be perceived overcompensation or perceived undercompensation, lead to distress and subsequent attempts to restore equity. In the present study, it is possible that participants in the "believed live" condition may have attempted to restore equity in the experimenter-participant relationship (i.e., avoid overcompensation distress that would stem from the perception of high experimenter effort) by taking their participant role very seriously (i.e., higher task involvement). Because making arrangements for presenting a videotape are less effortful on the part of the experimenter than making arrangements for a speaker to be present, participants in the "believed recorded" condition would be less inclined to experience overcompensation distress than participants in the "believed live" condition. Lower distress would require less effort in attaining an equitable relationship, thereby requiring relatively lower task involvement. Greater involvement as an effort to restore equity may in turn have led to greater persuasibility of the "believed live" participants.

Future studies might attempt to assess equity in the experimenter-participant relationship by asking participants to rate experimenter effort in the experimental arrangements. Also possible would be the manipulation of relationship equity. This could possibly be achieved by explaining to a group of participants in the "believed live" condition that there was difficulty in acquiring the speaker's participation for many reasons (e.g., availability, cost, etc.). Another group in the "believed live" condition would be told that acquiring the speaker was not at all difficult because the speaker's voluntary participation is not unusual for her (e.g., it could be a requirement for her job). Greater inequity would be expected in the experimenter-participant relationship for the first of the two groups just described because apparently greater effort is exerted by the experimenter relative to the second group. Again, greater inequity leads to a greater sense of overcompensation, possibly followed by increased task involvement and, therefore, greater persuasibility. A similar manipulation could be achieved in the "believed recorded" condition by informing one group of participants that the tape was very difficult to acquire and must be returned as soon as possible whereas other participants in the "believed recorded" condition would be told that the tape was the property of the experimenters who could use it whenever desired.

Another possible explanation relating to "believed live"/"believed recorded" differences within each of the route focus conditions is that the differences are simply a product of

the cues chosen for the study. Perhaps, for instance, physical appearance is less affected by a belief of live or recorded presentations than other peripheral cues might be. Or, perhaps physical appearance is an appropriate peripheral cue choice, but that different levels of physical attractiveness are differentially affected by the "believed live"/"believed recorded" manipulation. As for the information, perhaps different topics would produce different effects. For instance, vocal hygiene as a topic was relatively neutral and was specifically directed at individuals in their late teens and early twenties, the age group of the participants. Perhaps topics not so neutral or else not as relevant to the message receivers would provide different results.

The lack of a significant effect from the secondary dependent measure should not be considered as particularly discouraging because the responses were based on a personal prediction of future behavior. To illustrate using an everyday example, it is one thing to express agreement about the deleterious effects of overeating, but it is another to predict an increased future concern about personal overeating behavior. Predicting future behavior is difficult.

As for the thought listing on the cognitive response forms, a significant difference was obtained for the number of relevant bits of information written between the central and peripherally focused groups. This finding is not particularly interesting because the material about which the participants wrote were very different from each other; that is, one group wrote about the information presented whereas the other group wrote about the speaker's

physical appearance. Because the content of the material focused upon were dissimilar, no hypotheses could be made. As a post-hoc analysis, however, the greater number of bits expressed by the peripherally focused groups may have been due to the manner in which the groups listed their thoughts. There was a tendency for peripherally focused participants to simply list the physical attributes of the speaker whereas the centrally focused participants tended to express their thoughts in sentence form. Simple listing is quicker and that alone probably explains the difference in number of bits expressed.

In conclusion, the belief that a message is presented as an unrehearsed live telecast significantly increased persuasion relative to the belief that the message was presented as a videotaped recording only when the audience was instructed to focus on the information presented but not when the audience was instructed on the physical appearance of the speaker. This qualification is especially important because the difference evidenced could have been due to the development of psychological reactance in one group. The development of counterarguments is not generally in operation in everyday television viewing. We would be more likely to develop counterarguments when we experience relatively high involvement in the material being presented and that our freedom of choice is being limited. Be cautious in generalizing these findings.

Perhaps the most important contribution of this study is that in at least one condition, there is a difference in persuasiveness between message presentations believed to be live as opposed to recorded. Hopefully, future studies will be conducted to further understand the limits of the live/recorded manipulation and the cognitive processes involved. Until then, when answering the question, "Is it live, or is it Memorex?", we can respond that in at least one condition, "Live is the one that is more persuasive".

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

WRITTEN INSTRUCTIONS DISTRIBUTED TO THE PARTICIPANTS
IN EACH OF THE FOUR EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS

Believed Live - Centrally Focused

Your task in this experiment begins by you watching the t.v. screen. One of the experimenters will go into another room and turn on a camera that will transmit onto this t.v. screen. What you see on the screen will be live from another room in the lab. On the screen you will see an experimenter escort someone into another room in the lab. The person he brings into the room will be asked to present an argument about a certain topic. Today, the topic will be ----- .

While the other volunteer is speaking, you are to pay very close attention to the information he/she presents. After the experimenter escorts that person out of the room, you will be asked to recount in great detail as many of your thoughts about the information presented that you had during the transmission. Therefore, it is EXTREMELY IMPORTANT that you pay close attention to this information when you're watching the screen. For now, just sit quietly, watch the screen, and wait for the action to begin. You will receive further instructions when necessary. Thank you.

Believed Live - Peripherally Focused

Your task in this experiment begins by you watching the t.v. screen. One of the experimenters will go into another room and turn on a camera that will transmit onto this t.v. screen. What you see on the screen will be live from another room in the lab. On the screen you will see an experimenter escort someone into another room in the lab. The person he brings into the room will be asked to present an argument about a certain topic. Today, the topic will be ----- .

While the other volunteer is speaking, you are to pay very close attention to his/her physical appearance. After the experimenter escorts that person out of the room, you will be asked to recount in great detail as many of your thoughts about the speaker's physical appearance that you had during the transmission. Therefore, it is EXTREMELY IMPORTANT that you pay close attention to his/her physical appearance when you're watching the screen. For now, just sit quietly, watch the screen, and wait for the action to begin. You will receive further instructions when necessary. Thank you.

Believed Recorded - Centrally Focused

Your task in this experiment begins by you watching the t.v. screen. One of the experimenters will go into another room and turn on a VCR that will transmit onto this t.v. screen. What you see on the screen will be a recording from the other day in the lab. On the screen you will see an experimenter escort someone into another room in the lab. The person he brings into the room will be asked to present an argument about a certain topic. Today, the topic will be ----- .

While the other volunteer is speaking, you are to pay very close attention to the information he/she presents. After the experimenter escorts that person out of the room, you will be asked to recount in great detail as many of your thoughts about the information presented that you had during the transmission. Therefore, it is EXTREMELY IMPORTANT that you pay close attention to this information when you're watching the screen. For now, just sit quietly, watch the screen, and wait for the action to begin. You will receive further instructions when necessary. Thank you.

Believed Recorded - Peripherally Focused

Your task in this experiment begins by you watching the t.v. screen. One of the experimenters will go into another room and turn on a VCR that will transmit onto this t.v. screen. What you see on the screen will be a recording from the other day in the lab. On the screen you will see an experimenter escort someone into another room in the lab. The person he brings into the room will be asked to present an argument about a certain topic. Today, the topic will be ----- .

While the other volunteer is speaking, you are to pay very close attention to his/her physical appearance. After the experimenter escorts that person out of the room, you will be asked to recount in great detail as many of your thoughts about the speaker's physical appearance that you had during the transmission. Therefore, it is EXTREMELY IMPORTANT that you pay close attention to his/her physical appearance when you're watching the screen. For now, just sit quietly, watch the screen, and wait for the action to begin. You will receive further instructions when necessary. Thank you.

APPENDIX B

COGNITIVE RESPONSE FORM

For the following 2 1/2 minutes, please write about THAT WHICH YOU WERE ASKED TO FOCUS during the transmission. Please give as much detail as possible; it isn't important for you to write in complete sentences.

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE USED FOR THE DEPENDENT MEASURES

For the following items, please circle the value which most accurately describes YOUR HONEST JUDGMENTS.

1. People in their late teens and early twenties tend to be at greater risk for vocal abuse than people in other age groups.

1----2----3----4----5----6----7----8----9----10----11
 Strongly Agree Neutral Strongly Disagree

2. After participating in this study, how do you think YOU will behave?

1----2----3----4----5----6----7----8----9----10----11
 I will most definitely be MORE concerned about my vocal behavior No change whatsoever I will most definitely be LESS concerned about my vocal behavior

3. What was your overall impression of this study (i.e., the topic chosen for the speaker, the experimental setup, etc.)?

Thank you very much for participating in this study. Please wait quietly for the experimenter to give you instructions about the debriefing for this study.