

THE USE OF FEAR APPEAL IN WORK SAFETY: AN EXPERIMENTAL
STUDY ON WORK SAFETY POSTERS



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IZMIR UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

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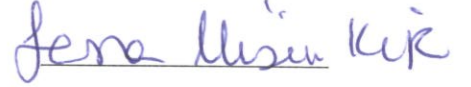
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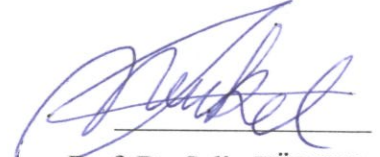
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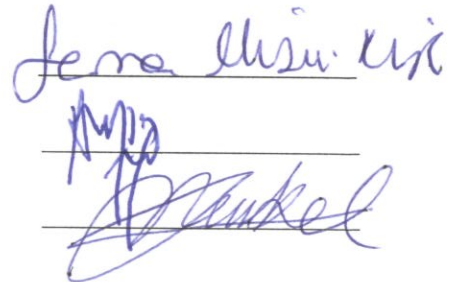
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ABSTRACT

THE USE OF FEAR APPEAL IN WORK SAFETY: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON WORK SAFETY POSTERS

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The fear appeal has gained popularity today and it has been used on a great variety of fields, particularly work safety. In this study, it is expected that fear appeal has an influence on workers' safety intentions with regard to recommended protective action that motivates to take preventive measures towards work accidents that could happen. Within the scope of this study, it is aimed to compare the effect of visual stimuli (i.e. posters) that demonstrate work accident disability versus poster of not having disability on fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the message and safety intentions. Moreover, it is another considerable aim to include intervening variables which are composed of fatalism tendency, having occupational experience, having a working accident, and self-efficacy. The research, which is carried out in this direction, includes an experimental study. Total participant number of this study is determined as 300 worker who work under heavy conditions, consisting of 150 per group.

There is a significant difference between groups of poster of work accident disability and poster of not having disability in terms of scared emotion. Poster of not having disability is perceived as acceptable if it will lead to reduced number of working accidents, in the best interest of the employee, morally right, and fair. Workers who are exposed to poster of not having disability evaluate this poster as pleasant and pleasing. Also, workers who are exposed to poster of not having disability have intention to safety adaptation.

Keywords: Fear appeal, work safety, work accident, poster

ÖZET

İŞ GÜVENLİĞİNDE KORKU ÇEKİCİLİĞİ KULLANIMI: İŞ GÜVENLİĞİ AFİŞLERİ ÜZERİNE DENEYSEL BİR ÇALIŞMA

Yasdıman, Feyza Elif

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Korku çekiciliği günümüzde popülerlik kazanmıştır ve özellikle çalışma güvenliği olmak üzere çok çeşitli alanlarda kullanılmaktadır. Bu çalışmada korku çekiciliğinin, meydana gelebilecek iş kazalarına yönelik engelleyici önlemler almaya teşvik eden tavsiye edilen koruyucu eylemlerle ilişkili olarak işçilerin güvenlik niyetleri üzerine etkisi olduğu umulmaktadır. Bu araştırmanın kapsamında, korku duyguları, algılanan etik, mesaja karşı tutum ve güvenlik niyetleri konularında iş kazası sakatlanması olana karşı iş kazası sakatlanması olmayan görsel uyarıcıların etkisini kıyaslamak amaçlanmaktadır. Bunun ötesinde, kadercilik eğilimi, mesleki deneyime sahip olma, iş kazası yaşamış olma ve öz yeterlilikten oluşan ara değişkenleri de dahil etmek bir başka kayda değer amaçtır. Bu yönde sürdürülen bu araştırma deneysel bir çalışmayı da içermektedir. Bu çalışmanın toplam katılımcı sayısı her grupta 150 kişi olacak şekilde ağır şartlarda çalışan 300 işçi olarak belirlenmiştir.

Ürkeklik duygusu açısından iş kazası sakatlanması olan poster ve iş kazası sakatlanması olmayan poster grupları arasında kayda değer bir farklılık vardır. Sakatlanma olmayan poster iş kazalarının sayısını azaltırsa kabul edilebilir, çalışanın çıkarlarına en uygun olacak şekilde, ahlaki olarak doğru ve haklı olarak görülmüştür. Sakatlanma olmayan poster gösterilen işçiler bu posteri hoşça giden ve rahatsız edici olmayan olarak değerlendirmiştir. Ayrıca, sakatlanma olmayan poster gösterilmiş işçiler güvenlik uyumu niyetinde olmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Korku çekiciliği, iş güvenliği, iş kazası, afiş

To my family



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Communication is of capital importance to human life and it is irreplaceable in that it is most fundamental ability of whole humanity. Speaking historically, people have experienced communication since primitive life. Ever since people live in a body, they have transmitted their thoughts and feelings by virtue of communication. Communication is a factor that makes easier for people to survive and above all it has been within various disciplines' area of interest and adopted by multifarious disciplines in academic sense. Over the last five decades communication has been the subject of many academic studies.

Advertising, which is considered to be one of the most important elements of the marketing communication approach, is a vitally an effective way of communicating with the masses. From past to present within the context of marketing efforts, a great variety of communication forms have been benefited from and undoubtedly one of the most important forms of communication is advertisements (Elden, 2009; p. 135). In the history of advertising, the focus has always been people's needs, interests and concerns. The aim of the advertising is to create a certain effect on consumer group by virtue of meeting their needs, interests or fulfilling their concerns and also to direct them towards buying behavior through effecting their perceptions, thoughts and some habits.

Emotions accompany every moment of human life; moreover, they expressively contribute to human life. Additionally, emotions that provide vital motivation to human life are in the position of complement of logic. To define broadly, emotion

is “an internally experienced physiological event, together with its distinctive thoughts, psychological effects, biological states, and variety of propensities for action” (Masters, 2004; p. 66). In the light of these, emotions are an irreplaceable part of whole humanity and it is the most essential communication system every living people express themselves.

Fear as a negative emotion, is the natural part of human life; furthermore, all people experience fear emotion in their life. Fear is a roughly interconnected series of “...physiological, behavioral and cognitive...” (Bouton and Waddell, 2007; p. 41) reactions which are conceived to hold the system ready for a disincentive happening. To be obvious fear as a basic survival emotion removes people from danger. Although fear is an unsettling emotion, fear emotion nevertheless revolves around self-protection. Fear emotions, such as being afraid, panicky, scared, worried, nervous, tense (Laros and Steenkamp, 2005; p. 1443) can be categorized at the level of basic emotions. As can be seen obviously that there are fear emotions more than one and it is good to emphasize each of fear emotions such as being afraid, scared, worried, nervous and tense has a different influence on people.

Advertising appeals can be succinctly characterized as motivations that advertisement directs. It is generally agreed today that advertising appeal is a key condition in effectiveness of the advertisement. It can be taken advantage of a great number of varied appeals based on advertising messages to communicate message recipients. To date, it has been attempted to classify advertising appeals by numerous prominent authors, but it has occurred that there is no consensus about classification of advertising appeals. At the most comprehensive level, advertising appeal are divided into two categories (Belch and Belch, 2007; p. 267). Rational or logical appeal is an advertising appeal type that includes fundamental facts about the product and/or service on the other hand emotional appeal is an advertising appeal type that incites positive emotions (e.g., joy, pride) and/or negative emotions (e.g., fear, shame) that will motivate buying behavior by the way of an emotive response. Crane (2010; p. 184) emphasizes that the most common emotional appeals involve sex appeals, humor appeals, and fear appeals.

Use of fear is fast becoming key instrument in great number of disciplines. Fear is of prime importance from the point of numerous sub-disciplines of social sciences such as advertising, marketing, public relations and political communication by its virtue of motivating and persuasive characteristic. Use of fear as an appeal has received much attention for many years and thus, numerous prominent and extensive studies have been performed in the field of fear appeal. The question, whether use of fear appeal is an effective strategy in advertising has been preoccupying the experts for some time. A number of researchers have studied on fear appeal, but there is still inconsistency related to whether fear appeal should have been used. Although there is inconsistency on current literature about opinions relating to use of fear appeal, there are numerous studies that prove that fear appeal is a successful creative strategy if it is designed most correctly.

Fear appeals are messages which are planned to arouse fear in the receivers of the messages by means of addressing to the damaging outcomes of the behavior towards behavioral change in the message (Jansen et al., 2008; p. 108). The outcomes which are studied in fear appeals divided into two general groups consisting of (1) outcomes with regard to admission of the message's advices and (2) outcomes with regard to rejection of the message (Witte and Allen, 2000; p. 591).

In marketing of product or service, many advertises or marketing people commonly take advantage from fear-based messages (e.g. If you don't want to lose your hair, use x product). Fear appeals are not only used in marketing of a product or service but also in drawing attention to social matters. To give an example, smoking, child abuse, AIDS prevention, safe driving (driving safety) and drug use are vital issues that concern all people worldwide. Great numbers of examples can be given relating to using fear appeal about public issues, but one of the most significant public issue is work safety for which social awareness can be created by using fear appeal strategy.

Work accidents are increasingly recognized as a serious, worldwide public health concern and they create serious problems in both Turkey and whole world. In order to minimize growing work accidents based on poor working condition, particularly industrialized countries go into the effort of improving health and safety at work. It is crucial to state that work safety posters are effective method to communicate work safety messages and also enable to reach a large number of workers simultaneously with the objective to improve health and safety at work. In this regard, work safety posters, which contain some warnings and statistical information towards blue-collar workers who have worked under heavy conditions, can be used in order to raise work health and safety consciousness and create awareness in the matter of taking measure.

At the end of fear appeal studies that continued through long ages, various following theories and models have been developed regarding the effects of use of fear on persuasion process. Drive Theories (The Fear-as-acquired Drive Model (Hovland et al., 1953), The Family of Curves Model (Janis, 1967) and The Non-monotonic Model (McGuire, 1968)), The Parallel Response Model (Leventhal, 1970), The Protection Motivation Theory (Rogers, 1975, 1983) and The Extended Parallel Process Model (Witte, 1992) which are the most widely used and well accepted models to explain the process of the complementary fear appeal models in chronological order. Moreover, Drive Theories are classified into emotion focused theories while The Parallel Response Model, The Protection Motivation Theory and The Extended Parallel Process Model are classified into cognitive focused theories.

The theoretical part of the study includes the literature review consisting of three parts. The first part of literature review addresses the concept of advertising and the process of advertising communication. In second part of literature review, various definitions of advertising appeals and the classification of advertising appeal which is common and most accepted in the literature are presented. Additionally, this part includes studies on rational and emotional advertising appeals in the literature. Third part of literature review involves several emotion definitions and topic of

what fear emotion is. Furthermore, it is taken fear appeal theories and models which is the most accepted and common in literature in third part.

Methodology chapter firstly includes objective of thesis research and importance of thesis research. In this study, it is aimed to compare the effect of visual stimuli (i.e. posters) that demonstrate work accident disability versus poster of not having disability on fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the message and safety intentions. Moreover, it is another considerable aim to include intervening variables which are composed of fatalism tendency, having occupational experience, having a working accident, and self-efficacy. Research questions, research model, hypotheses of research, research design, data collection and analysis of result are important phases which are presented in this chapter relating to method. Total participant number of this study is determined as 300 workers who work under heavy conditions, consisting of 150 people per group. Groups are composed of poster of work accident disability and poster of not having disability.

Sixth chapter of thesis study involves findings that have been obtained from experimental research. Sampling characteristics, reliability analysis, factor analysis and findings related to research model and research hypotheses are included in this chapter.

In the conclusion chapter, a general evaluation relating to research model and hypotheses is involved. Moreover, this chapter involves limitations and and suggestion for future researches.

CHAPTER II

ADVERTISING

2.1. Advertising: A Persuasive Communication Perspective

Today, advertising has become an indispensable part of people's daily life. Advertising, which is a part of disciplines such as marketing and public relations, is a way of communication that becomes a necessary. Information and news dissemination in the ancient Egyptian, Babylonian and Roman civilizations, which improve parallel to the trade life, explains the logic of beginning of advertisement. (Babacan, 2008; p.8). Initial examples of advertising are encountered in Medieval Europe; furthermore, advertising has gained importance and it is started to be exactly used in the world owing to big role of Industrial Revolution (Elden, 2009; p. 147-148). Advertising has been as old as history of humanity and has changed day by day.

Several authors have attempted to define advertising concept (Belch and Belch, 2007; Wells et al., 1998), but it is impossible to identify advertising conception with one and common definition. Basically, advertising can be essentially described as a form of mass communication. Belch and Belch (2007; p. 17) characterize advertising as the most known and most largely discussed form of promotion, due to its pervasiveness. Batı (2010; p. 15) has provided a definition that advertising is a basically common, universal way of communication that is functionally executed on the purpose of sales. As mentioned in the definition, one of the fundamental function of advertising is seen as sales. Wells et al. (1998) state that “advertising is *paid nonpersonal communication* from an identified *sponsor* using mass media to

persuade or influence an audience” (p. 13). It can be clearly understood that advertising is a message paid for by sponsor and conveyed through medium of mass communication. “As a product, advertising is a manifestation, a professionally conceived and executed artifact of a culture and society” (Wells, 1994; p. 84). Advertising can be defined as artifact of a culture and society by the reason of the fact that it is perceived as mirror of society today.

Advertising increases demand and sales by attracting attention of consumer so that increasing of sales accompanies output growth (Akbulut and Balkaş, 2006; p. 32). Advertising spreads product information that enables consumers to know that product exists, informs consumers about competing brands, and allows consumers to make wise choices among product options (Lane et al., 2004; p. 39). It is quite apparent that advertising makes a major contribution to society with its economic role and its important place in selling-enhancing efforts.

Advertising in that becoming like an indicator system in modern societies, has started to play much more integrated role in cultural practices and take an active role in growth dynamics of capitalism at the present time (Bati, 2010; p. 18). Advertising not only has economic role but also social and cultural role in communicating product and more importantly social values (Lane et al., 2004; p. 39). Advertising plays a big role in economic growth by developing competition and creating demand; moreover it plays a crucial role in reflecting popular culture and social values.

From past to present within the context of marketing efforts, a great variety of communication forms have been benefited from and undoubtedly one of the most important forms of communication is advertisements (Elden, 2009; p. 135). Advertising is a specialized form of communication because it has to do more than keep informed on the purpose of fulfilling the marketing function (Jefkins and Yadin, 2000; p. 13). Advertising persists in being a prominent part of integrated marketing communications (Clow and Baack, 2012; p. 134). Additionally, it should be emphasized that it is vitally an effective way of communicating with the masses.

No matter how much it debates over whether advertising is a science or an art, advertising is basically a 'persuasion work' (Bati, 2010; p. 11). The most dominant and outstanding characteristic of advertising is persuasiveness in comparison with other communication types. The main aim in advertising is to create a conscious effect on the perceptions or on the learning and acceptance processes of the target audience and ultimately to change their behavior (Babacan, 2008; p. 87). In this connection, advertising plays a part as an influential tool in bringing a desired change in social behavior of audience (Panda, 2007; p. 553). To give an example, many social-content advertising campaigns tend towards fear appeals in order to persuade people for practice a healthier or safer life-style (Chiang et al., 2018; p. 72). Besides all these, advertisers basically aim to persuade consumers to buy advertised product or services by using different methods. In this manner, advertising fulfills persuasion function by the way of bringing superior features of advertised product or service into the forefront and/or showing evidence or appealing to emotions.

People utilize persuasion in everywhere or anywhere. In other saying, persuasion is an omnipresent function of human communication. "People are social animals, constantly interacting with each other and, in the process, persuading and being persuaded" (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2004; p. 7). Starting from this point of view, persuasion can be characterized as an indispensable ability of whole humanity for the purpose of surviving.

As defined by Andersen (1971; p. 6), persuasion is a communication process in which communicators make an effort to arouse a desirable response from their receiver. Advertisers guide consumers to adopt specific belief, attitude or behavior and while they do this, they take advantage from a variety of emotional or cognitive persuasion techniques. As a part of mass media, "...persuasion is most commonly pursued through advertising- for consumer products and services, for political candidates, for prosocial causes (e.g., encouraging exercise or recycling), and so forth" (O'Keefe, 2009; p. 269). Persuasive communication can be used in

detergent advertisement and/or in various political advertising practices (e.g. political advertising posters of candidates), and/or in social advertising addressing to a serious health concern.

In the context of persuasive communication, public service advertising can be a good example of persuasion in communication. No matter the subject is (e.g., drug use, alcohol abuse, unprotected sex, smoking, etc.), the basic expectation is that persuasive communication results in a change in people's behavior. Commercial advertising brings the audiences services or products advantages to purchase nevertheless public service advertising aspires to stop or deter from potentially detrimental public attitudes relating to health or public safety issues (Borrelli, 2014; p. 213). Public service advertising is usually designed to engage in the public interest and encourage the public welfare (Chandrasekar, 2010; p. 282). Public service advertising persuades and keeps informing public and additionally advocates for public interest and it differs from type of commercial advertising on that sense. In today's conditions, it is possible to be exposed to several public service advertisements or public service announcements relating to occupational health and safety which is just one of the issues addressed.

It is seen that advertisements based on social messages are ever-increasingly used in recent years. Companies or organizations usually apply to social advertising in order to earn reputation in society within the framework of social responsibility. It would be useful to make a definition of the concept of social advertising in order to make the concept easily understandable. Social advertising is the utilization of advertising to give information the public on a social issue or to have an impact to their behaviour (Truss et al., 2010 ; p. 24). Social advertisements are profit-oriented or non-profit advertisements however these advertisements are designed in order to get people adopt particular habits or beneficial ideas (Babacan, 2008; p.32). To put it simply, social advertising aims the benefit of society; moreover, the main purpose is to raise awareness of public with regard to social issues. As is the case with other types of advertising, social advertising has particular characteristics that become prominent.

Sharma and Kwatra (2008; p. 289) state some of the characteristics of social advertising as follows: • Its main focus is on some matter of social importance, • It is a type of public relations advertising, •It is deal with social, economic or cultural issues, • It promotes those causes and activities which are generally accepted as desirable, •It may be sponsored by the government, voluntary organisations or sometimes by a business house.

Based on given definitions and prominent characteristics of social advertising, it is clear that whatever the subject of social advertising is, it is completely for social benefit and directs society in the direction of useful habits, behaviors and activities.

2.2. Advertising Communication Process: The Main Elements and Its Functioning

All living creatures are obliged to communicate by the reason of continuing their existence. People bring into connection with each other thanks to communication which is the most important ability of human life. Through communication, people bring new groups together by getting closer, several systems can be created in institutions in corporate level, relations can be established in international level, and also many intercultural dealings can occur. According to a definition provided by Shimp (2003; p. 3), communication is the process in which ideas are transferred and meaning is shared between individuals or between organization and individuals. Thus, it can be come to the inference that communication has a multifaceted effect.

Wells et al. (1998) identified four different roles of advertising which it plays in business and in society: “(1) Marketing, (2) Communication role, (3) Economic role, and (4) Societal role” (p. 14). It is a well-known fact that the most fundamental function of the advertising is communication role. It can be achieved the success of advertising communication by taking into consideration many factors such as the feature of the message, development of the most suitable advertising strategy, some criteria relating to the media choice, and how audiences response to the advertised product or service.

Advertising is a mass communication process whereby verbal and non-verbal symbols are transmitted through a channel to a receiver with the objective to communicate an idea, change or reinforce an attitude or provide important information about a particular product or service (Koekemoer, 2004; p. 66).

The advertising communication process is composed of elements such as source/sender, message, channel, target/receiver and feedback (Elden, 2009; p. 184). In this regard, it is possible to express that the advertising communication process work similarly to other communication processes. The elements of the advertising communication process are explained in detail below.

2.2.1. Source/Sender

“In advertising, the sender can be the advertiser, the advertising agency, or rather, the advertising company” (Janoschka, 2004; p. 16). To put it another way, the advertiser, the advertising agency, or rather, the advertising company encodes the message content verbally or non-verbally and sends to the target audience. The advertiser encodes an ad message by turning ideas into symbolic format in order to achieve its communication objective (Chitty et al., 2011; p. 26). In the context of advertising communication process, the advertisers as sender are knowledgeable with the benefits and advantages of the advertised product and/or service and also recommended action which they provide with the target audience. Characteristics of the advertiser such as prestige, credibility and expertness affect the awareness of the messages, and also attitude or behavior (Elden, 2009; p. 185). For example, the audiences more quickly and easily accept messages from reliable sources (e.g. celebrity endorsement).

2.2.2. Message /Ad Message

Chitty et al. (2011; p. 26) define the message as a symbolical phrase of what communicator wants to succeed in communicating. The message, which is what is perceived by the audience or target group of it, points to both the content and execution of the ad (Batra et al, 2009; p. 60). The length of message, the number

of messages, the message style and its suitability for the needs of the target audience, and the format of presentation play a crucial role in decoding and in consequence with the success of advertising communication. The message can be executed in a numerous manner. Elden (2009; p. 185) emphasizes that factors such as message appeals used in advertising message (humor, fear, sex etc.) and presentation formats of advertising message (sound, picture, photo, animation, moving image etc.) play an active role in message effectiveness. The choice of appropriate message appeal and the choice of presentation format are of capital importance in process of creating an ad message.

2.2.3. Channel/Advertising Channel

The channel involves communication instruments that the source transmits to target audience. In the simplest term, it is possible to define advertising channel as the environment in which the message is sent and received. Advertising messages usually can be transmitted in a great variety of formats which utilize many different media. “The channel in an advertising communication system consists of one or more kinds of media, such as radio, television, newspapers, magazines, billboards, point-of-purchase displays, and so on” (Batra et al., 2009; p. 60). The effects of the use of radio or television as an advertising channel differ in by the reason of the fact that different channels create different effects on the target audience.

2.2.4. Receiver/Target Audience

Target in advertising communication process; refers to receivers who face with advertising message. A sufficient advertising communication happens when receiver or target audience understand the message as it was intended by the sender (Clow and Baack, 2012; p. 22). The target audience or receiver can be characterized with regard to “...audience segmentation, lifestyle, benefits sought, demographics, and so on” (Chitty et al., 2011; p. 26). It is clearly understood that target audience can fundamentally be separated with demographic, psychological and socio-economic characteristics.

2.2.5. Feedback

In the simplest form, feedback can be described as the determination of the effect that the advertising message creates on the receivers. Feedback enables the advertiser with a means of appraising how correctly the intended message is being received and whether it is achieving its, intended objectives (Chitty et al., 2011; p. 27). In a similar manner, Egan (2007; p. 33) states that the sender or source needs evidence (feedback) that the message is not only received by receivers and but also it is clearly understood and created desired effect. In this sense, the reaction of the receivers after receiving the message has an important place in advertising communication process.

There is one more determinat factor that it should be briefly mentioned about the advertising communication process. There are disruptive factors such as physical conditions, psychological factors, or social experiences that are unpredictable in the communication channel and inhibit the sending and receiving of the message (Babacan, 2008; p.76). These factors lead to that advertising communication process is interrupted thus, some problems occur in terms of encoding of advertising message. Noise can be give an example to the problem of signal transmission that happen while watching commercial in advertising communication.

To communicate effectually with target audience, advertisers must figure out who is the target audience, what the target audience feels about the product or service or brand, and how to communicate with their customers to influence their decision-making (Kumari, 2014; p. 88). In conclusion, advertising is a communication which has a certain advertising message which is transmitted by sender, in other words advertiser communicates via an advertising channel (e.g. radio, television, newspaper etc.) for the purpose of reaching to the target audience. It should be emhpasized that each element of advertising communication process has a vital importance.

CHAPTER III

APPEAL IN ADVERTISING AND APPEAL CLASSIFICATION

3.1. Appeal Concept and Its Use in Advertising

Advertising appeals are motivations that advertisement directs; furthermore, they are created from not only people's needs but also persuasion theories and a set of psychological researches. Doubtlessly, there is a large variety of definition of appeal in the available advertising literature. As stated by Belch and Belch (2007; p. 266), the advertising appeal refers to the approach used to attract the attention of consumers and/or to influence their feeling toward the product, service, idea, or issue. In his groundbreaking article, Mueller (1987; p. 52) identifies an advertising appeal as any message planned to prompt the customers to purchase. An advertising appeal can be defined as “something that moves people, speaks to their wants or needs, and excites their interest” (Moriarty, 1991; p. 76). Based upon given definitions, advertising appeal is characterized as any message which is created to attract the attention of customers and influence them as a consequence of attention getting; furthermore it has the aim of fulfilling the customers' needs and motivating the customers to purchasing.

It is a well known fact that customers generally need specific reasons to get a product or service and thereafter they expect that the advertised product or service could fulfill their needs. In the simplest form, appeals which are used in advertising take on a task of presentation of these particular reasons to the customers. Mueller (1987; p. 52) notes that the statement which is used for advertising appeal must be pertinent to the individual's interests, desires, objectives, and problems in an attempt to motivate customer action. Advertising appeals can be employed as a basis of a

particular advertised message in an attempt to draw attention of customers, to affect their awareness, beliefs and attitude towards to the product, and their intention to purchase (Jovanović et al., 2017; p. 36). The point to be emphasized is that the effectiveness of advertising appeal usually depends on the kind of the audience which is needed to be reached therefore the type of appeal should be specified depending on a certain kind of audience need, interest and desire.

It is quite obvious that advertising appeals are not also indispensable elements of any advertisement but also they are an integral part of creative strategy. In this context, it should be highlighted that one of the advertiser's vital creative strategy decisions comprises making a selection of a well-suited appeal (Belch and Belch, 2007; p. 181).

A great numbers of different appeals can be employed based upon advertising messages to communicate with the customers, but the selection of an appropriate appeal have an undeniable role in the effectiveness of the advertisement. The decisions about the selection of appeal should serve the purposes that bring together with the product, service and problem and audience on the same point and achieve to get the message across to them.

Although a common description for appeal cannot be developed in the literature, the types of appeals has composed research topics of researchers to a large extent. To date, numerous authors (Belch and Belch, 2007; Moriarty, 1991; Pollay, 1983) have attempted to classify the advertising appeals. Many different categories of appeal have been identified in the advertising literature; moreover, these appeal categories include many different types of appeal in itself. At the most comprehensive level, advertising appeals can be divided into two general categories which is the prevalent classification in the advertising literature: informational/rational (or logical) appeals and emotional appeals (Belch and Belch, 2007; p. 267). Rational or informational appeals and emotional appeals will be discussed extensively and in detail as two separated titles in the following section.

3.2. The Classification Beginning with Aristotle

The appeal classification beginning with Aristotle plays an important role in the literature due to the fact that the concept of appeal within the context of persuasive communication is based on the classic of Aristotle's 'Rhetoric'. Even while the various kinds of appeal is used in advertising messages, the initial findings depend on Aristotle's persuasion works. Aristotle characterizes the three different modes of persuasion by employing Greek words *ethos*, *pathos* and *logos* (Miller-Cochran and Rodrigo, 2014; p. 178)

Of the modes of persuasion furnished by the spoken word there are three kinds. The first kind depends on the personal character of the speaker; the second on putting the audience into a certain frame of mind; the third on the proof, or apparent proof, provided by the words of the speech itself (Aristo, 2004; p.1356a)

Starting from Aristotle's statement, O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy (2004; p. 45) point out that *ethos* is based on the features of the source of the persuasive communication and source's related trustworthiness. *Pathos* is based on stimulating a particular frame of mind in the audience via appeals to the emotions while *logos* is based on the probative base of the argument and points out message's rationality or to rational appeals (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2004; p. 46). Advertisements that use emotional appeals (e.g. fear appeal, humor appeal, sex appeal etc.) and advertisements that use rational or logical appeal (e.g. practical or functional features of product or service) are the use of the concept of pathos and ethos in modern times.

The appeal of logos (i.e., logical appeal) is the most objective mode by the reason of concentrating on evidence and reason, rather than on perceptions and emotions (Shabo, 2010; p. 17). Logos refers to the "the logical approach to the receiver's capacity on generally accepted principle that on reasonable grounds of capacity the receiver can be motivated to pay for the satisfaction of his wants" (Tyagi and Kumar, 2004; p. 257). Logos calls to intelligence and logic of the target group, for example, it provides price information, presents technical details of the product or

service or informs about the distribution channel (Bati, 2010; p. 75). Additionally, the utilize of statistical data in public service announcement that shows the number of work accidents can be an example to logos.

In an appeal to ethos, which goes by the name of an ethical appeal, the speaker highlights the power of his or her own moral character and experience in order to create personal trustworthiness (Shabo, 2010; p. 8). Ethos is characterized as audience perception of speaker's credibility and creating credibility is subject of what the audience knows about the speaker previously (Gabrielsen and Christiansen, 2010; p. 106). When employing argument depending upon ethos, it is vital to give evidence of speaker's credibility or authority (Miller-Cochran and Rodrigo, 2013; p. 179). Ethos appeal is used in advertisements that reliable, famous and good standing people or institutions speak to audience straight-forwardly (Bati, 2010; p. 75).

Shabo (2010) notes that "Appeal to pathos, also known as "pathetic" appeals, focus on the audience's feelings, setting an emotional tone through the use of provocative language, imagery, and information" (p. 13). As can be understood, appeal to *pathos* directly addresses people's emotions; furthermore, it engages in conduce an emotional response from the viewer. Sellnow (2005; p. 139) states that audiences are more likely to keep ideas that touch upon their emotions in mind. Emotional advertising messages, which are positioned in such a way that they can be remembered easily, are most prevalent example of using pathos in present-day conditions.

People utilize rhetoric while expressing their views without even realizing this and they defend themselves in this way. Communicators deliberately benefit from rhetorical figures while providing their evidence within the scope of persuasive communication on the purpose of getting the desired results. Thus, it is obviously seen that taking part of rhetorical figures in advertising communication is not coincidental.

Within the context of this study, it is crucial how the rhetoric figures take part in advertising and also how these aforementioned rhetorical figures' constructions occur. In today's conditions, Rhetoric, which its origin traces to antique age, is used in visual and printed media and it would be continued to use.

3.3. Appeal Classifications of Pollay's (1983) and Moriarty's (1991)

Pollay's (1983) 42 common appeals and Moriarty's (1991) basic advertising appeals are widely believed to be crucial appeal classifications in the advertising literature.

Pollay (1983; p. 80-84) ensured a list of common advertising appeals consisting of 42 categories that he (1983; p. 78) considered a comprehensive list of all common advertising appeals. Pollay's (1983) list of appeals has been extensively employed on research within the context of not only advertising but also marketing and other disciplines such as cross-cultural analysis (Mogaji, 2018; p. 32). In their seminal content analysis, Albers-Miller and Stanford (1999; p. 47) have categorized each of Pollay's (1983) appeals as emotional or rational. As shown in Table 1 Pollay (1983; p. 80-84) identified common advertising appeals.

Table 1 Pollay's (1983) 42 Advertising Appeals

Effective	Productivity	Freedom
Durable	Relaxation	Casual
Convenient	Enjoyment	Vain
Ornamental	Maturity	Sexuality
Cheap	Youth	Independence
Dear	Safety	Security
Distinctive	Tamed	Status
Popular	Morality	Affiliation
Traditional	Modesty	Nurturance
Modern	Humility	Succorance
Natural	Plain	Family
Technological	Frail	Community
Wisdom	Adventure	Healthy
Magic	Untamed	Neat

Source: Adapted from Pollay , 1983; p. 80-84

Moriarty (1991) identifies an appeal as “a message about a need that has the power to arouse innate or latent desires” (p. 76). To say more clearly, appeals are strong motivations that stimulate people relating to their desires. Wells, Moriarty and Burnett (1998; p. 401) state that ads are created to touch either the head or the heart in addition to that these two approaches are also termed as ‘hard-sell’ and ‘soft-sell’. To put it simply, hard-sell messages basically give a basic and direct messages regarding benefits of product and/or service. Wells et al., (1998; p. 401) describe that a hard-sell is a *rational, informational* message that is laid out to touch the consciousness and compose a response based upon logic. Turow (2011; p.52) characterizes hard-sell ads as messages that gather information about the product with vigorous efforts to get the consumer to purchase it at the first opportunity. To set an example, furniture sales and car sales advertisements are typically hard-sell advertisements that stress features related to product such as quality or price. On the other hand soft-sell employs an *emotional* message and is laid out around an image directed to touch and compose a response based upon sentiments and

attitudes (Wells et al., 1998; p. 401). Ads that emphasize a specific brand of toothpaste that use sex appeal can be a common example for soft-sell advertisements (Carducci, 2009; p. 474). It is also possible to combine hard-sell advertising and soft-sell advertising to make difference for brand. Not only campaigns of banks but also advertising campaigns of insurance companies combine hard-sell and soft-sell.

Moriarty (1991; p. 78) developed basic advertising appeals list that are composed of 24 appeals and additionally 11 emotional appeals such as excitement, love and fear etc., it can be seen in Table 2. Additionally, a brief example may be of help to understand how basic advertising appeals can be used in advertisements that everyone encounters in daily life. Luxury products such as big cars usually satisfy people's ego needs or people buy life insurance in order to satisfy their safety and security needs. Therefore, insurance companies benefit from *safety and security appeals* in advertising, while car companies benefit from *ego appeals* in order to motivate customers to purchase.

Table 2 Moriarty's (1991) Advertising Basic Appeals

1. Acquisitiveness: Money, possession, materialism, getting rich	19. Responsibility
2. Aesthetics: Pleasing, appreciation of the beautiful	20. Safety and Security
3. Appetite: Hunger, taste, cravings	21. Sensory pleasure: Touch, taste, smell, sound, sight
4. Affiliation: belonging to a group	22. Sex
5. Aspiration: Achievement, accomplishment, self-fulfillment	23. Thriftiness
6. Attractiveness	24. Emotional Appeals
7. Avoidance	i. Excitement
8. Cleanliness	ii. Fear: Danger, personal embarrassment
9. Comfort	iii. Family: Love, protection
10. Convenience: Saving time and effort, ease of use	iv. Guilt
11. Economy: Saving time, money	v. Love: Affection, romance, companionship
12. Efficiency	vi. Nostalgia
13. Egoism: Recognition, approval, pride, status, prestige	vii. Pleasure: Humor, happiness, joy, laughter, amusement
14. Health	viii. Poignancy
15. Identification: Respect, hero worship, role models	ix. Pride
16. Luxury	x. Relief
17. Mental stimulation: Curiosity, challenge, involvement	xi. Sorrow: Grief, suffering
18. Patriotism	

Source: Adapted from Moriarty, 1991; p. 78

3.4. Rational Appeals

Rational or logical appeal is an advertising appeal type that consists of fundamental facts about the product and/or service. In his book, Kotler (1994; p. 605) emphasizes that rational appeals are related to the viewer's self-interest. Informational/rational

appeals center upon the customer's practical, functional, or utilitarian need for the product or service and highlight characteristics of a product or service and/or the advantages for having or utilizing a particular brand (Belch and Belch, 2007; p. 267). Leonidou and Leonidou (2009; p. 524) highlight that rational appeals prompt a rational thinking process in recipients of given message and enable them to evaluate the benefits of the product advertised. On the basis of rational appeals, examples could messages "...demonstrating product's quality, economy, value, or performance" (Kotler, 1994; p. 605). To set an example, Great numbers of smartphone brands characteristically use rational appeals and they provide general data that stress quality, price, value or performance of the product by employing statistics, numbers, images that help customers to make choice.

The advertisement which consists of the rational appeal may include some elucidative cues that provide information. These elucidative cues are: "price or value, quality, performance, components or contents, availability, special offers, taste, packaging or shape, guarantees or warranties, safety, nutrition, independent research, company-sponsored research, new ideas" (Resnik and Stern, 1977; p. 51). Numerous rational motives can be constitutively utilized in advertising appeals which contain "...convenience, economy, health, and sensory benefits (such as taste, smell, touch)" (Yeshin, 1998; p. 151). The ad of a particular brand of battery which promises a longer battery life is a common usage of rational appeal and it stresses superior performance of product (e.g. Duracell).

A growing body of literature has examined the differences between the effects of using positive advertising appeal and negative advertising appeal. It is generally agreed today that individuals' responses differ in positive emotional advertising appeal and negative emotional advertising appeal. According to Holbrook's (1978) study, the the factualness/evaluateness of a persuasive message produces a positive impact on beliefs and influence cognitive responses "...reflecting perceived message credibility, confidence and enjoyment" (p. 553). In conformity with their study, Golden and Johnson (1983; p. 207) found that informational appeal advertisements are usually more preferred, include more helpful information and exposed higher purchasing intentions than do emotional appeal advertisements. In

Keshari and Jain's (2014; p. 41) study, it was investigated the response of male and female consumers to rational and emotional appeals and it was displayed that consumers differ in their responses according to rational and emotional appeals. Consumers respond to more affirmative response to rational advertising appeals in comparison to emotional advertising appeals and also there is no significant difference between male and female's responses to rational and emotional advertising appeal (Keshari and Jain, 2014; p. 41). It is quite apparent that individuals responses differ in the type of advertising appeal such as emotional appeal or informational/rational appeal.

3.5. Emotional Appeals

Emotional appeals try to promote negative or positive emotions that will prompt purchase (Kotler, 1994; p. 605). Put it differently, emotional appeals are an appeal type that provoke positive emotions (e.g., joy, pride) and/or negative emotions (e.g., fear, shame) that will motivate buying behavior by the way of an emotive response. Emotional appeals are closely associated with the consumers' social and/or psychological requirements toward to purchase a product or service (Belch and Belch, 2007; p. 270). In their major study, Albers-Miller and Stafford (1999; p. 44) point out that emotional appeals are based upon the emotional, experiential aspect of consumption experience.

Advertisers have managed negative emotional appeals consisting of fear, guilt and shame appeals to ensure audience to do things they should (e.g., brushing teeth) or quit doing things they shouldn't (e.g., unsafe sex) (Kotler, 1994; p. 605). Advertisers also can employ positive emotional appeals such as humor, pride and joy by contrast with negative emotional appeals. Belch and Belch (2007) assert that "Ads using humor, sex, and other appeals that are very entertaining, arousing, upbeat, and/or exciting can affect the emotions of consumers and put them in a favorable frame of mind" (p. 270). Overall, it is clear that positive appeals (e.g. humor etc.) have signal effects on the consumers.

There are particular product categories that emotional appeal would be very influential (Panda et al, 2013; p. 12). For example, marketers or advertisers of

personal care products like perfumes, fashion, drink and high-status oriented products have generally and successfully employed emotional appeals (Panda et al., 2013; p. 8). An advertisement of a shampoo brand that promises brighter hair and also an advertisement of a toothpaste brand that promises stunning smile are common example to emotional appeal advertisements.

Leonidou and Leonidou (2009; p. 527) underline that emotional appeals catch consumers' attention by creating more powerful emotion and interest and also aiming to generating more memorable and attractive moment for a sincere brand. Emotional appeals are intensely used in both traditional and new media to attract consumer attention and arouse their emotions.

Much of the current literature on advertising appeals pays particular attention to emotional advertising appeals. Many studies (Goldberg and Gorn, 1987; Panda et al., 2013; Tellis, 2004) have reported that emotional appeals impact upon individuals more than rational appeals and also several authors emphasize that appeal type. In their research, Panda et al. (2013; p. 19) conclude that the emotional advertisements have the capability to generate more positive feelings towards the brand in comparison with rational appeals. Affective responses and emotional theme appear to be much more significant than cognitive responses in terms of estimating attitude towards the ad (Panda et al., 2013; p. 19). Goldberg and Gorn's study (1987; p. 387) display that emotional advertisements create commonly more positive reactions than informational advertisements. To set an example, Dove usually uses emotional appeal in their advertisements to create more positive reactions instead of informational or logical appeal. Tellis (2004; p. 23) provides many reasons that emotional appeal is more influential than other types. As one of many reasons, Tellis (2004; p. 23) states that emotional appeals lead to bring into action people more immediately than any other appeal types.

A growing body of literature has examined the differences between the effects of using positive advertising appeal and negative advertising appeal. It is known that individuals' responses differ in positive emotional advertising appeal and negative emotional advertising appeal. Lang et al., (1995; p. 313) demonstrate that audiences

remember positive messages better than negative messages; moreover, audiences use the most capacity to positive-arousing messages and they use the least capacity to negative-arousing messages. Use of positive messages in advertisement is more likely to be preferred because of its memorability. Nevertheless, critics alert that the utilizing of fear-inducing appeal or shock appeal advertisement may conduce to increase the level of anxiety that may become a threat to the psychological well-being of audiences (Panda et al., 2013; p. 16). Based on their research, Dens and Pelsmacker (2010; p. 60) conclude that there is no compelling reason to utilize negative emotional appeals for products in point of developing positive attitudes. On the basis of their results, Dens and Pelsmacker (2010; p. 60) suggest that most particularly new brands should not use negative emotional appeals because negative emotional appeals may unfavorably influence the product and brand perceptions of customers. Based on their research, Jovanović et al., (2017; p. 81) point out that fear appeal is defended to be efficient to a particular point, after which it conduces to selective perception and rejection.

On the other hand, Padhy (2011; p. 51) argues that researchers demonstrate the negative emotional appeals are much more effective than the positive emotional appeals. To give an example, print advertisement of a shampoo brand that stresses the problem of dandruff can be a common example for use of negative emotional appeal. Not only the product category, but also fear appeal which is the prevalent and powerful negative appeal are highly utilized to get the message to the public in the field of wearing a helmet or quitting smoking (Padhy, 2011; p. 51). For example, in a fear appeal advertisement that stresses harms of smoking, the main aim is to motivate public to health behavior through showing an image of lung which is affected by cigarette.

Apart from the appeals that use product category as base, there are some studies which examine into the impacts of both rational advertising and emotional advertising appeals on services. The results obtained from the research of Zhang et al. (2014; p. 2122) show that an emotional appeal strategy would be more influential than a rational appeal strategy in the event that the service is dominated by

experience attributes. Starbucks, a well-known experience provider, succeeds in true stories that speak to customer's heart, on the other hand Accenture, global consulting company, stresses its speciality and high performance while marketing its credence service (Zhang et al., 2014; p. 2122). Given examples confirm that emotional appeal is more effective strategy if the service is dominated by experience attributes.

It should be referred to the executed study about social cause advertisement because of the fact that social cause advertising is one of the most commonly used type of advertising. Sciulli and Bebko's (2005; p. 17) results of content analysis which contains 500 magazine advertisements displays that social cause advertisements evoke more emotional appeals than profit oriented advertisements, while profit oriented advertisements reveal more information content. "Social cause advertisements evoked more fear, anger, sadness, disgust, interest, and surprise. Profit oriented advertisements were deemed more pleasant and happier" (Sciulli and Bebko, 2005; p. 17). It is clearly understood that social cause advertising and profit oriented advertising differ in terms of their effects.

It is important to touch briefly the effects of demographic factors on advertising appeal. The effects of advertising appeals show a change based on some demographic factors such as gender, age and culture. Jovanović et al., (2017; p. 81) proved that the emotional appeal has more powerful influence on women whereas the rational appeal has more powerful effect on men. Apart from gender factor, age factor also has an effect on the effectiveness of emotional advertisement. Sudbury-Riley and Edgar (2016; p. 449) propounded that emotional advertising is more effective extremely for young adults than for older adults. By taking into consideration the effect of culture on advertising appeals, it is more likely that people from different cultures have different responses to advertising appeals. De Mooji (2004; p. 277) puts emphasis on that advertising appeals that are influential in one culture may lead to distinct responses when employed in another culture. As an example that appeals differ in culture to culture, De Mooji (2004) states that "Historically in the United Kingdom, beer advertising uses humorous appeals, and historically German car advertising uses technological appeals" (p. 277). It is quite

clear that there is a significant role of cultural differences in the use of advertising appeals.

It is crucial to note that the most common emotional appeals involve sex appeals, humor appeals, and fear appeals (Crane, 2010; p. 184). In the following section, emotional appeals will be thoroughly discussed under three fundamental titles consisting of humor appeal, sex appeal and fear appeal.

3.5.1. Humor Appeal

Humor, which is one of indispensable parts of human life, shows itself in short slices of life. Many actors and actresses, politicians, public speakers, professors and all people at least for once utilize humor so as to generate a desired action (Shimp, 2003; p. 301-302). Humor is a key element of advertising industry (Egan, 2007; p.207). For many years, advertisers benefit from the pleasant atmosphere created by humor in advertisements. Considering the use of humor in advertising, it is obviously seen that humor appeal has been widely used by advertisers for a long time.

Humorous messages attract and hold consumer's attention; moreover, maximize efficiency by putting consumers in an affirmative mood, enhancing their liking of the ad and their feelings toward the product or service (Belch and Belch, 2007; p. 185). Advertisers generally use humor to achieve several communication objectives. Some of communication objectives are: to draw attention, take the lead of consumers understanding of product claims, have an impact on attitudes, increase recall of advertised claims, and, finally, generate customer action (Shimp, 2003; p. 302). It is quite obvious that advertisers usually prefer humor appeal due to its benefits.

Even though humor appeal entertain the audiences by providing a different presentation of message, the effectiveness of humor basically changes depending on the used technique, product group, target audience, advertising object (Bati, 2010; p. 201). Critics debate that funny ads attract the notice of people to the humorous situation but divert their attention away the brand and its attributes (Belch

and Belch, 2007; p. 185). Humor leads consumers to watch, laugh and most of all remember (Clow and Baack, 2012; p. 169) but all product categories may not be suitable for the use of humorous messages. The humor which is used for an inappropriate product or service would create problem towards, rather than being effective. Humor should be utilized much more carefully in subjects of health and security (Odabaşı and Oyman, 2002; p. 114). To set an example, humor based advertisement can succeed for beer advertisement on the other hand humorous appeals can damage the product groups such as advanced technology.

A large and growing body of literature has investigated the use of humor in advertising appeal (e.g. Madden and Weinberger, 1982; Sternthal and Craig, 1973; Weinberger and Gulas, 1992). In his article, Douglas (1998; p. 461) propound that humour is universally adaptive to nearly any medium and it may also enhance the reliability of the ad if the spokesperson is a reputable and pleasing humorist. It is quite apparent that humor can be appropriate for different media. The evaluation of humor factor may be associated with the individual's level of issue involvement. Yoon and Tinkham (2013; p. 30) conclude that low-involvement individuals evaluate the humor ad more positively than the nonhumor ad, and the opposite is valid for high-involvement individuals. In Gelb and Zinkhan's (1986; p. 15) major study, humor is seemed to be negatively with regard to recall and also positively with regard to brand attitude. Humor is not a substantial predictor of purchase probability, in the same vein, it is not a substantial predictor of choice behavior, too (Gelb and Zinkhan, 1986; p. 19). Although humor is usually considered as an important selling tool, it is not a substantial predictor of purchase probability according to results of this study.

3.5.2. Sex Appeal

The use of sex as a means of promoting products and services is both common and controversial (Koekemoer, 2004; p. 150). Shimp (2003; p. 307) underlines that when it is employed properly, sexual theme is competent of triggering attention, increasing recall, and generating a positive relationship with the advertised product. Even if it is generally difficult to estimate customer reaction to sexual appeal, this type of appeal may be extremely useful when it is used appropriately. Today, sexual

appeals are frequently used in advertisements of perfume, underwear, swimwear, cosmetic, chocolate, ice cream and also blue jean (Babacan, 2008; p. 174). Sexuality has been typically used for a variety of products through long ages and it has been taken part in various media such as print ad, billboard, television commercial.

During the recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on the use of sex appeal in advertising. The increasing use of sex appeal in advertising during the recent years has triggered to extensive investigations towards the behavioral and psychological effects of sexual appeal in advertising (Cheung et al., 2013; p. 374). According to Severn et al.'s (1990) study result, participants evaluate the sexually oriented ads as more "...entertaining, favorable, interesting, and original..." (p. 21) than non-sexual ads. Furthermore, they evaluate non-sexual ads as more offensive (Severn et al., 1990; p. 21). Reichert et al. (2001; p. 13) infer that sexual appeals also arouse more favorable advertisement execution concerning thinkings, but have an unfovarable impact on cognitive elaboration. "Respondents also reported that sexual appeals were more attention getting, likeable, dynamic, and somewhat more apt to increase their interest in the topic than were nonsexual appeals" (Reichert et al., 2001; p. 13). Given two studies have some significant characteristics in common. These common characteristics are the followings: sexual appeals attract a great deal of participants attention compared to non-sexual appeals; moreover sexual appeals are evaluated more favorable in comparasion with non-sexual appeals. Based on Sawang's study (2010; p. 181), men are more likely to approve the utilization of sexual theme in advertising than women. According to their study, gender is an significant factor for perception of sexual theme in advertising. Apart from gender, the perceptions of sex appeal in advertising vary from person to person based on cultural differences. "In the area of cultural acceptability, the study findings showed that Asians showed less cultural acceptance of sexual content in advertising than Americans and Asian-Americans" (Sawang, 2010; p. 181). Religion also determines the perception of sexuality. Veloutsou and Ahmed (2005; p. 91) propound that there are differences in perceiving of sex appeal, since the Asian-Islamic British have a rather more

unfavorable attitude towards it, while the Anglo-Saxon have a much more affirmative attitude towards it. In this regard, Clow and Baack (2012; p. 175) state that Muslim nations are in tendency to refuse not only any kind of nudity and any reference to sexuality but also other gender-related issues. It is possible to generalize that demographic factors such as gender, cultural differences, religion have an effect on perception of sexual appeal in advertising.

3.5.3. Fear Appeal

Through long ages, numerous researchers and authors have addressed to fear appeal concept. It is crucial to be clear and understandable about the definitions in relation to 'emotion' and 'the fear emotion' because of the fact that given definitions help to illuminate the concept of fear appeal by completing each other. Before extendedly discussing the fear appeal concept, the use of fear appeal and the fear appeal models, a variety of definitions will be provided relating to the 'emotion' concept and 'fear emotion' concept in the following section.

CHAPTER IV

FEAR APPEAL

4.1. Fear as Emotion

A life in which emotion does not exist is unimaginable. Emotions, an indispensable part of humanity, leave a mark on the most significant moments of people's lives. They also accompany every moment of human life and give the meaning to life. Emotions have a significant role in the lives of human being and affect individual's behavior, thinking, judgement and interplay (Iwuala, 2010; p. 60). It is a known fact that emotions have a crucial role in people's life.

According to the definition provided by Schacter et al. (2016; p. 393), emotion is favorable or unfavorable experience that is correlated with a certain pattern of physiological activity. In the widest sense, an emotion can be identified as "an internally experienced physiological event, together with its distinctive thoughts, psychological effects, biological states, and variety of propensities for action" (Masters, 2004; p. 66). Emotions are characterized as internal states and it is required to be inferred from people's behaviors (Harris and Sanborn, 2014; p. 167). Happiness can't be observed directly, but when people hear someone's laughter, it indicates that he or she is happy; moreover anger can't be observed directly, but the violent behavior indicates that the person feels anger (Harris and Sanborn, 2014; p. 167). It is obviously clear that emotions cannot be observed directly, nevertheless it is possible to understand from some indicators which emotions express.

Emotions give a unique touch, signification and motivation to the whole of the wide-ranging actions which individuals are capable, inclusive of intellectual

activity (Burgin, 2010; p. 221). It is obviously clear that emotions meaningfully contribute to people's lives. Emotion is imperative to hand down a rational decision (Egolf, 2012; p. 34). People employ their emotions and logic together while taking any decision.

Emotions are the way people express themselves in both positive and negative occasions. Happiness and proud that people demonstrate during children's graduation ceremony are examples of emotions. Additionally, emotions undertake communication function that assists individuals express themselves (Félix-Jäger, 2017; p. 71). Emotion is one of the most significant factors that affects interpersonal relationships owing to its undertaking of communication function.

It is a well-known fact that fear is a common emotion for every living individual. It plays a fundamental role in our daily lives and is an inseparable part of human life at all times. Fear is experienced by all people in many periods of their life. As a negative emotion, fear which is the natural part of our lives differently comes to exist in terms of content and degree according to people. There are diverse forms of fear (Lutyens, 2005; p. 649) and also fear varies from person to person, but the common and universal fear for mankind is fear of death which is one of the most fundamental fears.

There is a great number of definition corresponding to what the fear emotion is. Several authors have attempted to define fear emotion, but currently there is still no common definition. As a starting point, it may be helpful to notice that fear is an emotion of unrest that shows up as a typical reaction to perceived threat that may be actual or fanciful (Doctor et al., 2008; p. 232). In other saying, fear is the natural and necessary reaction that people give against visible or invisible hazards. Fear is the situation that follows up a consideration that individual is in distress (Prinz, 2002; p. 138). Fear is an adverse emotion as well as it correlates with an extreme degree of stimulation. (Terblanche and Terblanche, 2010; p. 121). Fear is a roughly interconnected series of "...physiological, behavioral and cognitive..." (Bouton and Waddel, 2007; p. 41) reactions which are conceived to hold the system ready for a disincentive happening. To put a finer point on it, fear enables that people are

on the alert and also they can safe from ordinary hazards. It is crucial to state that fear as a fundamental survival emotion removes us from danger and it revolves around self-protection.

Among other things, it is necessary to emphasize that fear and anxiety emotions are different from each other. “Anxiety is the tense, unsettling anticipation of a threatening but vague event; a feeling of uneasy suspense” (Rachman, 2013; p. 3). Anxiety can be characterized as a feeling of worry, discomfort, uncertainty or fright (Funnell et al., 2009; p. 150) . Rachman (2013; p. 3) states that fear and anxiety are different from each other in terms of the reasons, duration and maintenance, even if fear and anxiety show similarity in many situations. As it seen, several definitions have been put forward in order to make the concept of fear clear and not to put a question mark in the minds about it.

Fear can be classified as one of the basic emotions (Dedeoğlu and Ventura, 2017). Fear emotions, such as being afraid, scared, worried, panicky, nervous and tense (Laros and Steenkamp, 2005; p. 1443) can be categorized at the level of basic emotions. A brief description or statement of every fear emotion that is given will provide to look at fear emotions with a holistic view in the following.

The state of being afraid is composed with the percept of a stimulant as terrifying (Farrell, 2014; p. 405). In the simplest term situation of being afraid is a sort of beneficial alert that makes people ready for rapid action. Feeling afraid is a supplementary factor that can serve to encourage survival (LeDoux, 2015; p. 102). Clore and Gasper (2000; p. 33) state that being afraid is a commitment to the belief that someone is in distress. LeDoux (2015; p. 102) mentions an important point that the situation of being afraid only shows itself in organisms that can be aware of that they are in distress. *Panic* can be defined as follows “...a self-perpetuating, naturally erupting state” (Grossinger, 2002; p. 98). A generally accepted definition of panic is “the sensation of feeling you are in extreme danger, when no real danger exist” (Tubridy, 2003; p. 7). To put it simply, panic emotion is a severe unreasonable fear. Panic is psychologically identified as “a genuine disorder understood as an acute form of anxiety” (Genosko, 1999; p. 65). Scared, which is

another fear emotion, can be defined in the most general sense as "...thrown into or being in a state of fear, fright or panic" (Mish, 2004; p. 1108). It should be overemphasized that scared is also a natural emotion. Worry is a cognitive accustomedness which directs to sense apprehensive as well as it generally focuses on forthcoming happenings in which there is indefiniteness about the consequences. (Mintle, 2011; p. 19). *Worry* can be described as a comparatively uncontrolled series of adverse emotional thinking and images that are related to probable future threats or hazard (Emery and Oltmanns, 2000; p. 157). It is crucial to state that the level of worry, the factors that cause it and how long it last may vary from person to person. " 'Nervous' is a term that has a resonance across both the physical and the psychological registers: to be '*nervous*' is a physiological state, engendered by over-active nerves..." (Jervis, 2015; p. 15). It is obviously clear that to be nervous is a physiological state that can be experienced by every human being. According to Spencer (2014), being nervous can be defined as follows: "Nervousness is defined as a state of restless tension and emotionality in which people tend to tremble, feel apprehensive, or show other signs of anxiety or fear" (p. 146). Nervousness is a healthy reaction towards an uncomfortable situation. Tension composes a vital component of human being's emotion as well as experiencing of tension is related to negative emotions including fear, anxiety or annoyance which are usually endeavored to be kept away from (Lehne and Koelsch, 2015; p. 1). Tension is an intensely unpleasant emotion that makes difficult that people feel relaxed.

Fear has been the subject of several discipline such as psychology, sociology, communication and advertising and so on. The topics of 'what is fear emotion?' and 'what are the fear emotions composed of?' was discussed in the general framework. In the next part, the use of fear in advertising will be discussed in the widest sense because of its being of vital importance for this study.

4.2. Definition of Fear Appeal Concept

In the simplest term, fear appeal is a certain sort of persuasive message (O'Keefe, 2002; p. 178). Fear appeals are messages which are planned to arouse fear in the receivers of the messages by means of addressing to the damaging outcomes of the

behavior towards behavioral change in the message (Jansen et al., 2008; p. 108). More specifically fear or threat appeals (Donovan and Henley, 2010; p. 110) are persuasive messages conceived to frighten people by portraying the fearful things that will occur to them in case they do not to what the message offers (Witte, 1992; p. 329). Shortly, fear appeals typically warn individuals against terrifying consequences in the event which they don't take the proposed actions against.

Pratkanis (2007; p. 50) provided a definition of fear appeal in which fear is generated by combining an unwanted action with adverse results, or a desirable action with the avoidance of an adverse outcome. "Fear appeals take the form of messages or communications intended as a mechanism for manipulating the recipient's intrinsic notions of threat and efficacy regarding a particular threat and corresponding protective behavior" (Johnston, 2015; p. 114). Within this context, great numbers of public health campaigns generally utilize fear appeals to affect perceived threat and efficacy and consequently promote people to self-protective behavior. As stated by Block (2005; p. 2294) a fear appeal is a message that depends on the danger of an a visualised negative result to motivate behaviroal change. As is seen given explanations find a middle ground by completing each other and thus, help to illuminate the term of 'fear appeal'.

Over the past five decades most researchers has comprehensively researched the utilization of fear appeals in persuasive messages. For example, in their meta analysis, Witte and Allen (2000) emphasize that three main concepts, consisting of "...fear, perceived threat and perceived efficacy" (p. 591) have become prominent in fear appeal studies from past to present. The outcomes studied in fear appeals are divided into two general groups consisting of (1) outcomes with regard to admission of the message's advices and (2) outcomes with regard to rejection of the message (Witte and Allen, 2000; p. 591). It is crucial to emphasize that the choice of the appropriate fear appeal is vital in terms of the acceptance or rejection of recommended message by individuals.

Through long ages, the impacts of fear-arousing messages on attitude change have been debated. The meta-analyses, which are attracted considerable attention in the

literature, have provided an insight on some debates. To set an example, two meta-analytic reviews of fear appeal literature have deduced that higher levels of stimulated fear are related to greater persuasive effectiveness (Boster and Mongeau, 1984; Sutton, 1982). The executed fear appeal studies in the literature study will be detailed in thereafter.

4.3. The Use of Fear Appeal

Fear appeals have been utilized by a good many distinct groups of people from past to today (Witte et al., 2001; p. 2). Fear appeals are widely utilized by several politicians, educators, clergymen, doctors and numerous advertisers and marketers. Some brief examples from the daily life might enlighten how fear appeal is used. Fear appeals have been utilized in an occasion in which the doctor attempts to frighten the patient into taking the required actions to keep his/her health better (Hawk and Evans, 2013; p. 28). Doctors make use of fear appeal to scare their patients with the warning of if they consume alcohol overmuch, they are going to have liver cancer. Many educators use fear appeal for their students when they say 'If you do not listen to the teacher well, you will fail the class'.

Fear appeals have long been put to use in marketing of products or services and attracting notice to societal issues or ideas. Fear appeals are ordinarily employed to draw attention to social issues such as "...pregnancy warnings, child abuse, AIDS prevention, safe driving practices ...sun exposure, climate change, food additives, social embarrassment, anti-drug abuse, stress ...and regular health exams" (Williams, 2012; para.7). Advertisers frequently benefit fear appeal for some products and subjects such as "Smoke detector, automobiles tires, unsafe sex, driving under the influence of alcohol and other drugs, and being uninsured..." (Shimp, 2003; p. 304). It can be marketed a set of products like "insurance policies, fire extinguishers, low cholesterol edible oils, security systems and telephones..." (Kohli, 2006; p. 54) based upon fear appeals. There is a number of product class which is largely put fear appeal to use are like "life or general insurance, ... toothpaste, deodorants, helmets, water filters, edible oils, anti-dandruff shampoos" (Sharma and Singh, 2006; p. 239). Advertisers use fear based messages because of the fact that they want to sell products their customers or audiences when they say

'If you buy this deodorant/mouthwash, you will not smell'. Thus, products that are advertised comes to a state of symbol and they act as a super hero which is obligated related to saving customers from difficult situation (Bati, 2010; p. 216). In this type of advertising, advertisers normally present the advertised product as a solution for people's problem.

It is important to emphasize there are numerous specific areas where the fear factor is intensively utilized and advertising is one of them solely. Using fear appeals has gained popularity because of the fact that they have been detected to enhance the relevance and persuasiveness of advertisement (Yeshin, 2006; p. 308). Advertisers make use of fear appeal with the objective to arouse the desired emotional response and mobilise recipient to make an attempt on the disposal of the threat (Kazmi and Batra, 2008; p. 126). In this regard, numerous advertisers use social content in fear appeal advertising with intent to evoke emotional response and motivate individuals to remove the threat. Chitty et al. (2011; p. 154) note that advertisers take advantage of emotions of fear for promoting users to give information and to mobilise by designating the adverse outcomes of either: These are (1) not making use of product which is in advertisement, or (2) trying insecure action (such as drinking habit, cigarette consumption or drug use) (Chitty et al., 2011:154). Sharma and Singh (2006; p. 240) outline that it is essential for the advertisers to recognize how fear emotion processes, which level of fear to utilize in advertising and how dissimilar sort of customers react to fear appeal. Moreover, there are some factors which might affect how consumers react to fear appeal such as "...source credibility, audience characteristics, the message context and the type of fear appeal used" (Sharma and Singh, 2006; p. 240). Thus, it is possible to state that a number of factors have an influence on people's responses to fear appeal.

Public service advertising aims to get the message across to public for changing their attitudes and behaviors since it is of help to the public as a whole (Tyagi and Kumar, 2004; p. 66) and fear strategy is largely utilized in public service advertising in this direction. Batra et al. (2009; p. 319) note that public service advertising that includes the issues such as AIDS, wearing a seat belt, anti-smoking and drug addiction has centered upon the fear of losing one's life in ads. Lantos (2015; p.

469) refers that public service advertisements have made use of fear appeals on the purpose of applying a psychological punishment such as creating worry about unwanted behaviors (e.g. using drugs or smoking). Fear appeal is practiced on public service announcements largely. To set an example, public service announcements relating to driving while being drunk that show a crushed car and the warning of impending death if you drink and drive can be taken into account as a fear appeal (Littlejohn and Foss, 2009; p. 90). Public service announcements may engage in arousing fear in audiences or consumers by means of pointing out the formidable results of unsafe sex such as HIV (Babin and Harris, 2018; p. 148). Today, people are typically exposed to many public service announcements that widely utilize fear appeal strategy.

It should be mentioned that using fear appeal has been played a key role in political communication as well. Negative emotional appeals (e.g. fear appeal) are largely located in political communication (Geise and Coleman, 2016; p. 190). Politicians largely utilize fear appeal strategy during the election campaigns in order to frighten voters (Smith, 2013; p. 224). According to Witte et al. (2001; p. 2), politicians use fear appeal and they warn voters with the message that if they don't vote for X party, thereafter employment rate will step up, the environment will take to pieces and they will have to pay much more taxes. It is obviously clear that use of fear appeal strategy in political communication is a very popular strategy.

Although fear appeals are handled in many diverse cases, they are inherently operated in health promotion campaigns (Ogden, 2012; p. 200). Fear appeal manifests itself in the field of health promotion from "...the obligatory health warnings on cigarette packs to essays about the deleterious effects of obesity" (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007; p. 348) and it is popularly used in health promotion. Harari and Legge (2001; p. 28) put forward that the matter of health promotion communication should comprise fear excitation because of the fact that fear excitation is most evident way to convince individuals that their health is in danger. It is surely beyond doubt that people are ingenuously afraid of illnesses, damages and death because of that they wish for staying healthy in all circumstances. Fear appeals are utilized in community health campaigns to impact perceived threat of a

illness and to demonstrate adverse outcomes of not acceptance of a health behavior (e.g., not being inoculated) or of getting in danger behavior (e.g., drug use) (Salazar et al., 2013; p. 92). Most of people are familiar with several health promotion campaigns that are typically designed in an attempt to promote better health and generally benefit from fear appeal.

4.4. Fear Appeal Theories And Models

Over the past five decades extensive researches have been carried out about fear appeal. For many years, a great number of studies have been performed aimed at finding out the effect of the use of fear on persuasion process and clarifying the role of fear in the persuasive communication. In this direction at the consequence of performed research and studies, various theories and models have been developed regarding the effects of use of fear on persuasion process. Drive Theories (The Fear-as-acquired Drive Model (Hovland et al., 1953), The Family of Curves Model (Janis, 1967) and The Non-monotonic Model (McGuire, 1968)), The Parallel Response Model (PRM) (Leventhal, 1970), The Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) (Rogers, 1975;1983) and The Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) (Witte, 1992) are the most widely used and well accepted complementary models to explain the fear appeal process in chronological order. Before explaining pointedly in the following section, it should be emphasized that Drive Theories are classified into emotion focused theories while The PRM (Leventhal, 1970), The PMT (Rogers, 1975;1983) and The EPPM (Witte, 1992) are classed into cognitive focused theories. These mentioned predominant theoretical models in fear appeal literature will be chronologically explained in the following section.

4.4.1. Drive Theories

Health risk messages shaped like fear-arousing messages are started to be examined in the early 1950s as a beginning (Witte et al., 2001; p. 12). In the 1950s and 1960s, drive models developed with the objective to clarify people's responses to fear appeals (Witte, 1992; p. 332). As a starting point, it may be helpful to indicate that drive explanations with regard to the impacts of fear appeals suppose that fear-arousing theme generates a drive (Hale and Dillard, 1995; p. 66).

Drive theories are classified into three groups consisting of the fear-as-acquired drive model (Hovland et al., 1953), the family of curves (Janis, 1967) and the non-monotonic models (McGuire, 1968). The fear-as-acquired drive (Hovland et al., 1953), the family of curves (Janis, 1967) and the non-monotonic (McGuire, 1968) models propose that the grade of fear arousal which is generated by fear appeal serves as a drive to stimulate actions (Witte and Allen, 2000; p. 593). The earliest scientific study on fear appeals field widely prefaces with Carl Hovland, Irving Janis, and Harold Kelley in 1953. Hovland et al. (1953) based upon the supposition that severe and annoying feelings, which contains fear, are operationally parallel with a drive (Yzer et. al., 2013; p. 165). In the field of fear appeals, various definitions of drive can be found. Drive is a psychological term for a disagreeable situation individuals make an effort to diminish or remove (Stiff and Mongeau, 2003; p. 150). Based on this drive definition, individuals are motivated to find a way to decrease disagreeableness of their sentimental situation, when they expose to severely disagreeable emotions (Yzer et. al., 2013; p. 165).

Mongeau (2013; p. 187) notes that Hovland et al.'s (1953) the fear-as-acquired drive model describes fear as a drive; that is, an adversely situation that people are motivated to avoid or remove. Witte et al. (2001; p. 11) state that if fear was removed by the actualization of particular behavior, thereafter the actualization of that behavior would be appeared like 'rewarding' forwhy it took away the offending situation of fear. As suggested by Hovland et al., (1953), a message should not only contain a fear-inducing constituent but also 'reassuring recommendations' in order to keep reactions to a fear appeal under control (Yzer et. al., 2013; p. 166). Hovland et al., (1953) propounded that 'reassuring recommendations' incorporated into a fear appeal would serve as drive-reduction mechanisms if they were showed attention and also accepted (Witte, 1998; p. 425). In keeping with learning theories, recommendations for how an individual can prevent the threat diminish emotional distress which in turn strengthens the behavioral recommendations when alike cues to the threat are existing (Yzer et. al., 2013; p. 166).

In the case of the receivers' acceptance of the recommendation in the message as reassuring and being able to decrease the fear, it is most likely that he or she will attend to the recommendation (Shen, 2013; p. 288). But, if these recommendations do not decrease the unfavorable drive situation, individuals get back to maladaptive strategies such as defensive avoidance (i.e., not considering about the threat) or perceived manipulation (i.e., feeling angry with a sense of manipulation) (Witte, 1998; p. 425). Whatever response decreased the fear would turn into the preferred and habitual response toward the threat (Witte et al., 2001; p. 11).

On the basis of the drive model, Hovland et al. (1953) supposed a curvilinear (i.e., inverted U-shaped) relation between the power of a fear appeal, attitude and behavioral change (Mongeau, 2013; p. 187). Particularly, "from zero to some moderate level, acceptance tends to increase, but as emotional tension mounts to higher levels, acceptance tends to decrease" (Hovland et al., 1953; p. 83-84). Mongeau (2013; p. 188) summarizes briefly that the drive model predicts that greatest levels of attitude and behavior change will occur when fear appeals are moderate (when compared with when they are either low or high).

One of the initial investigations of fear-arousing persuasive messages (Janis and Feshbach, 1953) put forward the probability of a curvilinear (inverted-U) relationship between the quantity of fear-arousing content and the relativistic admission of message recommendations (Stiff and Mongeau, 2003:149). Janis and Feshbach's (1953; p. 91) primary aim is to measure the impacts of three intensities of fear appeal in persuasive communications which motivate 200 high school students to follow a number of recommendations by inducing fear responses on dental hygiene. The strong appeal demonstrated the threat of pain, sickness, and physical damage; the moderate appeal indicated the same threats in a milder and more factual; the minimal appeal seldomly signified to the disagreeable results of inappropriate dental hygiene (Janis and Feshbach, 1953; p. 91).

Findings show that the strong fear appeal group are more worried about the situation of their teeth; moreover, the utilization of a strong fear appeal is less successful than a minimal appeal in generating durable and insistent attitude changes (Janis and

Feshbach, 1953; p. 91). Consequently, the recipients will become motivated to disregard or to diminish the significance of the threat when fear is powerfully evoked, but is not entirely comforted by the reassurances included in a mass communication (Harari and Legge, 2001; p. 29). Janis and Feshbach (1953) provided with a negative linear relationship despite the fact that they made an assumption of a curvilinear (inverted U-shaped) relationship between fear and attitude change (Stiff and Mongeau, 2003; p. 150).

As stated by Witte (1992; p. 332), Janis (1967) propounded an inverted-U relationship between fear and message admission and he argued that fear arousal is required to draw out a motivational drive situation (i.e., create a tension). By the help of a learning theory paradigm, Janis (1967) claimed that the disagreeable tension induced by fear arousal motivated people to eliminate their fear (Witte, 1992; p. 333). Janis's (1967) family-of-curves model (acting of inverted U-shapes) claims that the optimal level of fear is medium, and increase in fear would strengthen maladaptive responses, such as defensive avoidance (Popova, 2012; p. 456). Janis (1967) put forward a curvilinear explication in which increased fear generates adaptive responses up to the point in which fear gets too strong, later on which adaptive responses should reduce (Yzer et al., 2013; p. 166). In connection with this, moderate fear appeals should be most influential in motivating recipients for adaptive action (Yzer et al., 2013; p. 166) and also maximum amount of message admission (Witte et al., 2001; p. 13).

McGuire (1968, 1969) developed an inverted-U elucidation of fear appeals with his two factor theory (i.e., non-monotonic model) which has been derived from widely known learning theory. McGuire (1969) propounded a curvilinear relationship between fear arousal and persuasion (Beck and Frankel, 1981:206). McGuire (1969) propounded a curvilinear relationship between fear arousal and persuasion (Beck and Frankel, 1981:206). McGuire (1968, 1969) defended that the emotion can serve as a cue or as a drive when a persuasive message procreates fear; furthermore, as a cue, recipients rely on learned responses that hinder retrieval and admission of message (Mongeau, 2013:188). Besides, as a drive, fear motivates recipients to refrain from threat and is considered to simplify message admission

(Mongeau, 2013; p. 188). Both of the cue and drive functions are supposed to show an increase monotonically with the level of fear, at slightly distinctive ratings; since they function contrary directions, the resulting relationship is nonmonotonic. (Janis, 1967; p. 183). A moderate level of fear arousal was assumed to be optimal for strengthening the likelihood of the opinion-change response tendency with these two factors merging so as to operate in opposite directions (Beck and Frankel, 1981; p. 206). “Thus, a nonmonotonic (inverted U) relationship was postulated to exist between the level of fear arousal in response to a threat communication and persuasion” (Beck and Frankel, 1981; p. 206).

The drive theories have been strongly challenged over the years by a number of writers. Experimental backing for drive model is weak as well as experimental tests have been unsuccessful to validate the assumed intermediary role of fear reduction in relationships of fear arousal-persuasion (Ruiter et al., 2001; p. 615). In reviewing the literature, there is not very much demonstration that low to moderate levels of fear arousal cause more persuasion than higher levels of fear arousal (Beck and Frankel, 1981; p. 207). It is not valid that high fear arousal produces a defensive avoidance response which leads high threat to be less persuasive than low threat (Higbee, 1969; p. 441). Furthermore, Higbee (1969; p. 441) explicitly states that most related studies have demonstrated that high threat is more predominant than low threat in persuasion.

Rogers (1983; p. 156) outlines that the experimental data have irresistibly refused the drive model of fear appeals and attitude change. In his seminal work, Leventhal (1971; p. 1209) criticizes that the obtained data demonstrates that the variables which are presumed to change fear, to arouse or not to arouse it, do not have any substantial influences on persuasions. Focusing on the notion of fear restrains us from asking related questions about variables that do influence preparation for danger (Leventhal, 1971; p. 1209). On the basis of these reasons, Leventhal (1971; p. 1209) states that neither the practitioner nor the empiricist can utilize the fear model as a trustworthy guide with the objective to affect people.

A key problem and major criticism with much of the literature in relation to drive model is that there is some inconsistencies about this model/s. Several preliminary works backed up for a positive linear relationship such that higher levels of fear arousal was the most useful in terms of persuasive efforts (e.g., Higbee, 1969; Insko et al., 1965; Leventhal and Watts, 1966). As noted by Lewis et al. (2007; p. 204), however, alternative preliminary works have given evidence of a negative linear relationship which in turn decreasing levels of fear ended up more persuasion (e.g., Goldstein, 1959; Janis and Feshbach, 1953). In this direction, Higbee (1969; p. 441) puts down to the fact that high fear arousal seems like more influential than low fear arousal when the message source is sensed by the receivers as greatly reliable.

Over the years, the drive theories have exposed to many criticism but it is critical to note that these theories have importance in terms of fear appeal literature. Even though Rogers (1983; p. 156) defends that the drive model must be refused, he brought into prominence by outlining the significance of this model with regards to beginning of fear appeal studies. This theory not only commenced work in this field but also gave a start to the work in a theoretically great way by implementing learning theory tenets to the study of fear appeals and attitude change (Rogers, 1983:156).

4.4.2. The Parallel Response Model

At the beginning of 1970s, Leventhal who has prominent role in the field of fear appeal research refused the fear drive model. Leventhal (1971; p. 1209) rejected the fear drive model by means of specifying two basic reasons. The first reason is the existing data indicating that the factors which are needed to modify fear, stimulate or not stimulate one's interest, do not have any significant impact upon persuasions (Leventhal, 1971; p. 1209). As mentioned in Leventhal's (1971; p. 1209) seminal work, the second reason is focusing on the fear notion inhibiting us to address questions about factors that have an influence on readiness for danger. Thus, Leventhal (1970) suggested a parallel response model which differentiates between emotional reactions to the threat and efforts to cope with the threat (Rogers, 1983; p. 156).

Leventhal (1971; p. 1222) highlights that a fear appeal might start two parallel and independent processes such as a danger control process which tries to prevent from the threatened danger and also a fear control process which performs to diminish fear. The PRM puts forward that fear appeals include distinct stimulant that evoke dissimilar motivational and coping responses, especially danger control and fear control (Ruiter et. al, 2001; p. 615).

Danger control as a first process is an objective-cognitive process that directs one's problem solving behavior and action; furthermore, it produces a representation of the threat and develops action plan to contend with the threat based on its representation (Lavack, 1997; p. 14). Fear control as secondary process is a subjective process that handles the emotive constituent of persuasive appeals; moreover, it is an emotion-focused coping process in which the recipient makes an effort to decrease the fear (Lavack, 1997; p. 14). As mentioned by Rogers (1983; p. 156), initiative of controlling fear is not required for generating adaptive behaviour and this behaviour principally derives from the danger control process. Fear appeals might stimulate the emotion of fear, however protecting action derives from the initiative of controlling the danger (Rogers, 1983; p. 156).

Stiff and Mongeau (2003; p. 153) mentioned that consequences of fear control process contain avoidance of the state and denial of the threat which is involved in the message whereas consequences of danger control process contain attitude and behavioral change. Therefore, adaptive behavior originates in the process of danger control in the meanwhile maladaptive behavior is ascribed to the process of fear control (Stiff and Mongeau, 2003; p. 153).

Leventhal (1970) argues that danger control and fear control are apart and independent from each other on the other hand they can contend with and intervene in each other (Shen, 2013; p. 282). The efficiency of a fear-arousing persuasive communication is linked to whether danger control or fear control rules over another: when danger control predominates, the message is convincing; when fear control predominates, it is failed at persuasion (Shen, 2013; p. 282). In that case, it

is possible to conclude that danger control appears to be more advantageous than fear control within the context of persuasive communication.

The PRM has been criticized by several writers because of its some weaknesses even though it provides a basis for the next period researchers' studies. The PRM has been subjected to considerable criticism, for example, Beck and Frankel (1981; p. 209) point out that this model does not indicate stimulus variables that cause to the fear or danger control processes. Yzer et al.'s (2013; p. 166) major criticism is that Leventhal's PRM does not indicates clearly when individuals are involved in danger control, fear control, or both processes and how these processes interplay each other. Although the untestable character of the PRM, it maintains as a functional attempt to conceptualizing health hazard communication (Beck and Frankel, 1981; p. 209).

4.4.3. The Protection Motivation Theory

Rogers (1975, 1983) presented the Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) which centers upon the danger control process of the PRM in reply to the shortcoming of specificity in Leventhal's model (Yzer et. al, 2013; p. 166). Witte (1992; p. 334) refers that Rogers developed fear appeal exploration by identifying the message constituents and cognitive processes regarding to fear appeals. As noted by Milne and Orbell (2000; p. 107), the PMT was designed in the purpose of ensuring notional openness in the field of fear appeals and to fill the void between exploration on fear appeals and exploration on attitude change. The most current reiteration of the PMT was advanced by Rogers in 1983 with the objective to much better comprehend how and why people react to threats to their health and wellness and security (Clubb and Hinkle, 2015; p. 2). In the great scheme of things, it is stated that "Protection motivation theory is one of the formulation of the effects of threatening health information on attitude and behavior change" (Rogers and Prentice-Dunn, 1997; p. 113).

The PMT is linked to a well-structured theoretic tradition and may be taken into consideration as a specific case of a more public category of theories utilizing 'expectancy' and 'value' constructs (Rogers, 1975; p. 96). As outlined by Milne

and Orbell (2000; p. 89), in expectancy-value theory, the disposition to adopt a particular behavior presumes as a function of expectancies with respect to the outcomes of behavior and the value of those outcomes.

In Roger's groundbreaking work (1975; p. 97), he states that there are the three most vital stimulant factors in a fear appeal in which Hovland et al.'s (1953) analysis and also expectancy value theories proposed. Rogers (1975; p. 97) notes that the first variable is the magnitude of noxiousness of a portrayed event. Second variable is that conditional probability that the event will happen providing no adaptive activity is actualized or there is no alteration of an existent behavioral tendency (Rogers, 1975; p. 97). Finally, the third variable is the availability and efficacy of a coping response that might decrease or remove the dangerous stimulants (Rogers, 1975; p. 97). It is crucial to be straightforward and understandable about the components of fear appeals in relation to cognitive mediating process, because clarifications of these components help to illuminate the term of 'protection motivation'. In his major study, Rogers (1983; p. 158) presumes that each of the three constituents of a fear appeal commences an alike cognitive mediating process.

Each of these processes appraises communication information about (1) noxiousness, (2) probability, or (3) efficacy by placing each stimulus on dimensions of (1) appraised severity of the depicted event, (2) expectancy of exposure to the event, or (3) belief in the efficacy of the recommended coping response, respectively (Rogers, 1983; p. 158).

These cognitive processes mediate the persuasive impacts of a fear appeal by evoking protection motivation, in addition, it is an intervening variable that prompts, maintains, and leads to act for keeping the self safe from danger (Maddux and Rogers, 1983; p. 470). Rogers (1983; p. 158) adds that the intention to appropriate the communicator's advice is a function of the protection motivation evoked.

Rogers (1983; p. 158) underlines that the model argues that attitude change, which is the function of the protection motivation evoked by the cognitive appraisal

processes, is not mediated by or a consequence of an emotional state of fear. It can be clearly understood that fear that emerges is not a vital variable in terms of behavioral change. As mentioned by Beck and Frankel (1981; p. 209), in this theory, it is presumed that emotional stimulation has minor significance than person's cognitive appraisal of the threat. Tanner et al. (1991; p. 38) claim that the protection motivation model can be advanced by acknowledging that emotional processes are substantial to cognitive appraisal and they are implicitly associated with behavioral intents through cognitive appraisal.

The revised theory of PM (Rogers, 1983) has involved more extensive model regarding the sources of information that commences the coping process, a wider explanation of coping modes, and extra cognitive mediating processes (Maddux and Rogers, 1983; p. 470). Maddux and Rogers (1983; p. 470) note that the revision of the PMT aims to present broader model by integrating self-efficacy expectancy (Bandura, 1977) as a new constituent of the PMT. All constituents of the revised PMT will be detailed below, so that it will be helpful in terms of comprehending a whole of this revised theory.

It may be helpful to start from explaining what the key elements of the sources of information that commence cognitive mediating process. In the context, Floyd et al. (2009) summarize that “Inputs to the model...include environmental sources of information (e.g., verbal persuasion and observational learning) and intrapersonal sources (e.g., personality aspects and feedback from prior experience)” (p. 409). Rogers (1983; p. 167) outlines that the sources of information commence two appraisal processes which are called as threat appraisal and coping appraisal. These cognitive processes assess (1) either the maladaptive or adaptive response(s), and (2) the factors increasing or decreasing the likelihood of the occurrence of the response (Rogers, 1983; p. 167). Rogers and Prentice-Dunn (1997; p. 115) point out that the threat appraisal elements that increase the possibility of the maladaptive response involves in intrinsic rewards (for instance, pleasure) and also extrinsic rewards (for instance, social norms). Salazar et al. (2013; p. 94) state that rewards are favorable results for a maladaptive behavioral response whether the response is engaging in a health-risk behavior or not adopting a protecting behavior. The threat

appraisal elements that reduce the probability of maladaptive response are the severity of the threat and vulnerability (Rogers and Prentice-Dunn, 1997; p. 115). Rogers (1983; p. 167) outlines that even though severity generally characterizes physical damage, it is able to contain intrapersonal threats (e.g., self-respect) and interpersonal threats (e.g., family relations).

Rogers (1983; p. 169) notes that the coping appraisal process assesses individual's capability to cope up with and prevent the threatened hazard. Stroebe (2011; p. 30) shows that the elements presumed to affect coping appraisal are the efficacy of the coping response, the one's perception of his or her capability to the coping response (i.e. self-efficacy) and the response costs of the recommended behavior. Response efficacy is the belief that the adaptive response will serve the purpose that coming into the protecting action will be influential in protecting oneself or someone else (Floyd et al., 2000; p. 411).

As mentioned above, the revised PMT tries to provide a more extensive model by combining self-efficacy expectancy (Bandura, 1977) as a new major constituent of the PMT (Maddux and Rogers, 1983; p. 470). Self-efficacy is pertinent to one's confidence regarding whether he or she is competent of carrying out the advised coping response (Milne and Orbell, 2000; p. 109). In a similar manner, Nikos and Hagger (2005; p. 105) identified that self-efficacy is one's personal prediction of belief in his or her ability to fulfil a particular level of performance. The theory argues that an expectancy regarding superiority or efficacious coping is able to be seen as two separated expectancies: outcome expectancy and self-efficacy expectancy (Maddux and Rogers, 1983; p. 470). In Bandura's groundbreaking work (1977; p. 193), outcome expectancy is identified as an individual's prediction that a particular behavior will create to definite outcomes. An efficacy expectation is the strong belief that person is able to satisfyingly perform the behavior required to generate outcomes (Bandura, 1977; p. 212). Self-efficacy expectancy importantly affects intentions to appropriate the advised coping behavior and it is the strongest precursor of behavioral intents (Maddux and Rogers, 1983; p. 476).

Thirlaway and Upton (2009; p. 35) clearly express that costs are factors that hinder behavioral change and they are able to be external (i.e. deficiency of facilities or resources) or internal (i.e. physiological passions). On the other hand, costs decrease the probability of the needed response (Thirlaway and Upton, 2009; p. 35). It should be emphasized that response efficacy and self-efficacy will enhance the probability of choosing the adaptive response, nevertheless response costs will reduce the likelihood of choosing the adaptive response (Floyd et al., 2000; p. 411).

Rogers (1983) represents that protection motivation results in "...a single act, repeated acts (e.g., return to clinic for follow-up visits), multiple acts or repeated multiple acts" (p. 171). Moreover, the actions are able to either contain direct action or the inhibition of action (Rogers, 1983; p. 171). In other words, the situation of coping with a threat may require that someone actively performs something (e.g., quit smoking, take medicine) or not begin something (e.g., do not start smoking) (Rogers, 1983; p. 171). As summarized by Floyd et al. (2000; p. 411), the output of these appraisal mediating processes is the judgement (or intent) to commence, maintain, or hinder the practicable adaptive responses (or coping modes). In their seminal article, Floyd et al. (2000; p. 411) emphasize that the objective of the PMT is generally to convince individuals to pursue the communication professional's recommendations; therefore, intents demonstrate the efficacy of the attempted persuasion.

The PMT, in comparison with the earlier developed models, appears like a broader study towards explaining the effect of fear stimuli on persuasion, but it was revised and provided a basis for a new model in next period researches. The PMT has been criticized by a number of writers. Witte (1992; p. 336) outlines that it does not clarify why or how an interactive relation between threat appraisal and coping appraisal emerges, or how the interaction is pertinent to protection motivation and next behaviors. Even if the original protection motivation model is not badly affected from the reasonable and experiential inconsequence of the revised model, both protection motivation models cannot succeed to explicate the certain variables causing to message denial (Witte, 1992; p. 337). A considerable criticism of Roger's work is that protection motivation model does not acknowledge the

significance of emotional responses in terms of fear appeals and thus Tanner et al. (1991; p. 37) emphasize the lack of the model.

4.4.4. The Extended Parallel Process Model

The Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) is the latest advanced model for fear appeal research which was put forward by Witte in 1992. Terblanche-Smit and Terblanche (2010; p. 122) note that The EPPM (Witte, 1992) that relies upon the Leventhal's (1971) danger control/fear control frame is an extension of earlier fear appeal hypothetical approaches. Thus, The EPPM is derived from its three antecedents; Hovland et al.'s (1953) fear-as-acquired drive model, Leventhal's (1970) PRM and also Rogers' (1975,1983) PMT (Popova, 2012; p. 455).

In his groundbreaking work, Witte (1992:337) suggests that The EPPM utilizes Leventhal's (1970) PRM in order to distinguish between two processes, 'danger control' and 'fear control'. Witte et.al (2001; p. 30) highlight that the EPPM puts forward that two evaluations process sequentially in contrast with the PMT. EPPM provides a more poised perspective of how individuals handle fear appeals because it deals with cognitive and emotional variables related to processing of message and correlates these processes to a fear appeal's succeeding or failing (Witte, 1994; p. 114).

It is extremely helpful to explanation of each term of EPPM with regards to the comprehension of whole EPPM. This model involves some fundamental components. These components are the followings: "fear, threat (with its two components—perceived severity and perceived susceptibility), efficacy (comprising self-efficacy and response efficacy), and two types of responses (danger control and fear control)" (Popova, 2012; p. 457).

Threat is an outside stimulant that consists in the surroundings whether people realize it or not (Witte, 1992; p. 331). Witte (1992; p. 331) suggests that if a person has a cognition that a threat is present, in that case he or she senses a threat. As distinct from a genuine threat, perceived threat can be characterized as cognitions or considerations regarding the threatening and so it is separated from actual threat

in this sense (Witte, 1994; p. 114). Threat as a message constituent contains message characteristics that ensure actual or visual information regarding the severity of the threatening and susceptibility of the target audience's to the threatening (Popova, 2012; p. 457). A short description of perceived threat may help to better comprehend the dimensions of perceived threat. Popova (2012; p. 457) states summarily that perceived threat is the subjective evaluation of the threat contained in the message. Stern (2018; p. 50) points out that perceived threat consists of two fundamental elements, *perceived severity* of the threat and *perceived susceptibility* to the threat. Perceived severity is beliefs regarding the significance or greatness of the threatening and the seriousness of its results (Popova, 2012; p. 457). In his groundbreaking work, Witte (1994; p. 114) states that perceived susceptibility can be defined as one's beliefs regarding his or her chance of experiencing the threatening. The following brief examples might clarify which items can measure perceived severity of the threat and perceived susceptibility of the threat. It is possible to give a skin cancer example in connection with the concept of perceived severity. Perceived severity can be measured by item such as "...Skin cancer leads to death" while perceived susceptibility can be evaluated by an item such as "...I am at risk for skin cancer because I don't use sunscreen" (Witte, 1998; p. 429). It can be demonstrated as another example of perceived severity of the threat is "...AIDS leads to death" (Witte, 1992; p. 332). It is also possible to give a lung cancer example in connection with the concept of perceived susceptibility. It can be measured perceived susceptibility of the threat by an item such as "...I am at-risk for lung cancer because I smoke cigarettes" (Witte, 1994; p. 114).

It should be briefly touched on fear notion by the reason of the fact that fear is an another fundamental component of the EPPM. Fear is described as an unfavorable sentimental reaction towards a perceived danger (Popova, 2012; p. 457). Fear, which masters the sentimental fear control process, straightforwardly produces fear control responses and is irrelevant to danger control process (Witte, 1998; p. 434).

Efficacy is another significant component of the EPPM. Efficacy as a message characteristic contains response efficacy and self-efficacy (Stern, 2018; p. 50). Witte (1994; p. 114) points out that perceived response efficacy is beliefs or

cognitions regarding how influential a recommended response is in preventing a threatening. Perceived self-efficacy is a person's beliefs as regards his or her skill to accomplish the proposed response to prevent the threatening (Stern, 2018; p. 50). The following brief instances may help to clarify the concepts of perceived response efficacy and perceived self-efficacy. Perceived response efficacy can be exemplified with the statement of "...I believe condoms prevent HIV contraction" (Witte, 1992; p. 332). Perceived self-efficacy can be illustrated with the statement of "...I think that I can easily use condoms to prevent HIV contraction" (Witte, 1992; p. 332).

Danger control is a cognitive process arising protection motivation that happens when individuals rely on that they efficiently are capable of preventing an important and related threatening by self-protection alterations (Witte et al., 1996; p. 320). As stated by Witte (1994; p. 115), the cognitions emerging in the danger control process evoke protection motivation, which prompts message acceptance responses (i.e., attitude, intention, or behavior changes) that control the danger. Witte et al. (1996), define *danger control response* as "belief, attitude, intention, and behavior changes in accordance with a message's recommendations" (p. 320). According to a definition provided by Witte (1998; p. 429), *fear control* is an emotional process drawing out defensive motivation that emerges when individuals are confronted important and related threatening. Witte (1994; p. 116) points out that defensive motivation is evoked by high fear arousal, which happens when perceived threat is high and perceived efficacy is low, and generates message rejection responses (i.e., defensive avoidance or reactance). However, individuals rely on that they are incapable to fulfill a proposed response and/or they rely on that the response to be inefficacious (Witte, 1998; p. 429). Fear control responses can be explained in the simplest term as coping responses that reduce fear (Witte, 1996; p. 320). Fear control responses, such as defensive avoidance, denial, and reactance are distinct responses in terms of trait that emerges in response to a fear appeal and restrains and avoids attitude, intent, and behavioral change (Witte, 1998; p. 437).

Every individual appraises the constituents of a message according to his or her previous knowledges, culture, and personality traits. As stated in EPPM, individual

differences such as one's general philosophy of life, characteristic variables (e.g., anxiety), or previous knowledges do not straightforwardly affects to results (e.g. intents, defensive avoidance, reactance, etc.) (Witte, 1998; p. 431). It is crucial to state that same fear appeal may create diversified perception in different individuals.

In accordance with the EPPM, fear-arousing messages commence two assessments—assessment of the threat and assessment of the efficacy of the recommended response (Witte, 1998; p. 428). As noted by Witte (1998; p. 428), particularly, people primarily assess the perceived threat (i.e., perceived severity and perceived susceptibility) when they are subjected to a fear appeal. If individuals perceive low threat (i.e., low perceived severity and/or susceptibility), they disregard a fear appeal, do not process any information regarding the efficacy of a proposed response, and also do not make change attitude, intent or behavior (Witte, 1998; p. 428). In the event that the recipients do not sense the threat in high level, they will not possible to experience fear emotion. The EPPM claims that in case of individuals are exposed a fear appeal, they may answer to threat in one of three distinct ways: “(i) non-responses, (ii) danger control responses and (iii) fear control responses” (Maloney et al., 2011; p. 208). Danger control responses and fear control responses will be presented below.

As stated by Witte and Allen (2000; p. 594), when people believe in they are susceptible to an important threat, then they are motivated to start the secondary assessment which is an assessment of the efficacy of the proposed response. In this context, perceived efficacy specifies whether individuals will enter in danger control or fear control processes (Witte, 1998; p. 429).

The EPPM asserts that people will enter in danger control that contains endeavours of reducing their risk, when both of perceived threat and perceived efficacy are high (Basil and Witte, 2012; p. 44). High perceived efficacy along with high perceived threat incite *protection motivation* and danger control responses where individuals consider mindfully regarding the proposed responses recommended in a convincing message and embrace those as an instrument to control the danger (Witte, 1998; p.

430). In the context of danger control, these brief examples show how individuals make sense of the threat and they are conscious of the action which they can take to avert it. Individuals may figure out that sexual activity increases their risk for HIV and AIDS, but they believe that they can use of condoms to efficiently avert the risk (Basil and Witte, 2012; p. 44). As another example, high perceived response efficacy can be demonstrated with the statement of "...I know that wearing my seatbelt protects me if I'm in an accident" (Witte et. al, 2001; p. 26). Additionally, high perceived self-efficacy can be showed with the statement of "...It's easy for me to wear my seatbelt each time I'm in the car" (Witte et. al, 2001; p. 26). Thus, in the example of use of seatbelt, individuals' high perceptions of threat and efficacy stimulate them to control the danger. As it seen from the examples, in the event that perceived efficacy is stronger than perceived threat danger control process gain dominance on fear control process accordingly individuals accept the message.

Individuals enter in fear control processes when they believe they are incapable to adopt the proposed response to prevent the important threat; moreover, they think the recommended response is too difficult, too pricy, time-consuming, or insufficient (Witte, 1996; p. 321). Within the context of fear control process, it can be exemplified with the statement: "...AIDS is terrible and easy to get; I don't think I can do anything to prevent contraction" (Witte, 1992; p. 341). Low self-efficacy perception can be demonstrated with the statement of "...I don't think I can quit smoking, it is too hard" (Witte et. al, 2001; p. 26). Furthermore, low response efficacy perception can be demonstrated with the statement of "...Even if I did quit smoking it's probably too late for me; I probably already have pre-cancerous cells" (Witte et. al, 2001; p. 26). As it clearly seen from the examples, fear control responses starts to gain dominance. Basil and Witte (2012; p. 44) mention that individuals try to find a solution to control their fear, when the perceived threat is high but perceived efficacy is low simultaneously. Accordingly, low perceived efficacy together with high perceived threat incites *defensive motivation* and fear control responses where individuals concentrate on how scared they feel and also struggle to get clear of their fear by *denial*, *defensive avoidance* or *reactance* (Witte, 1998; p. 430). It should be exemplified of each fear control responses in order to clarify fear control process. Defensive avoidance such as "I'm just not going to

consider regarding colon cancer by reason of frightening me too much" and denial such as "...I'm not going to have colon cancer; no one else knows it" (Yzer et al., 2013; p. 168). Lastly, reactance such as "They are only trying to frighten me, but it will not serve the purpose of me" (Yzer et al., 2013; p. 168).

Finally, it is critical to mention about individual differences. As mentioned before, the EPPM posits that individual differences affect the evaluation of threat and efficacy (Witte, 1992; p. 338). If there is no information concerning the efficacy of the proposed response, people will depend on previous experiences and foregoing beliefs in order to detect perceived efficacy (Witte and Allen, 2000; p. 595).

It should be highlighted of the key points how EPPM messages can be successful while designing. The communicators should build their messages on the notion of perceived threat and efficacy while conceiving messages handling the EPPM (Salazar et. el, 2013; p. 98). Basil and Witte (2012; p. 47) underline that the general aim of EPPM message design is to incite in recipients or individuals to the danger control process. In order to work the EPPM ideally, perceptions of efficacy should be more powerful than perceptions of threat and if it is not able to obtain adequate efficacy perception obtain, the utilization of extra threat should be reassess. (Basil and Witte, 2012; p. 47). It should be overemphasized that when conceiving messages according to specific audience member, individual differences should be paid attention to as far as possible and as suitable (Salazar et. al, 2013; p. 99).

Witte et.al (2001; p. 24) claim that the EPPM that elucidates both failures and successes of fear appeals was put forth but the previous studies and theories paid no attention what didn't work in fear appeals. Based on for many years of fear appeal studies, EPPM ensured a descriptive system to analyze apparently conflicting conclusions in previous fear appeal researches and identified several causes regarding why a fear appeal might be unsuccessful (Maloney et. al, 2011; p. 207). It is also required to refer that the EPPM is utilized in many diverse fields. "Tractor safety, skin cancer, HIV/AIDS prevention, dental hygiene, genital warts, radon awareness, violence prevention, and electromagnetic fields are some of the topics in EPPM studies" (Witte et. al, 2001; p. 31). The EPPM extends on earlier

approaches in three ways: (a) it elucidates why fear appeals are not succeeded; (b) it recombines fear as a fundamental factor (c) it determines the association between threat and efficacy in propositional forms (Witte, 1992; p. 345).



CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY

After the first four chapters consisting of literature review, it will be deliberated on the research method in methodology chapter. The phases consisting of purpose of the research, importance of the research, the hypotheses, the research design, the data collection and the analysis of the results respectively will be given here.

5.1. Research Objective

Over the past century there was a dramatic increase in use of fear appeal because of the fact that it enhances the persuasiveness and interest of ads (LaTour et al., 1996; p. 59). Several studies have proved that use of fear appeal can increase the interest and persuasiveness of an ad (Higbee, 1969; Hyman and Tansey, 1990; King and Reid, 1990). Fear appeals characteristically endeavor to increase the level of fear and persuade them to act in a intended way (Basil et al., 2013; p. 29) and they emphasizes the risk of damage or other unfavorable results of not has not been taken recommended action (O'Guinn et al., 2018; p. 218).

“The most extreme form of emotional appeal for a safety message is usually a fear appeals...” (Glendon et al., 2006; p. 210). Fear appeals are utilized in many fields. Baker et al. (1998; p. 359) note that the utilize of fear is broadly promoted in health and safety advertising. Stiff and Mongeau (2003; p. 147) highlight that fear appeals are commonly utilized in prevention and safety campaigns. Some health and safety campaigns depend on “...the assumption that by vividly demonstrating negative and life-endangering consequences of risk behaviors, people will be motivated to reduce

their current risk behavior and adopt safer alternative behaviors” (Ruiter et al, 2014; p. 63).

In this experimental study, it is expected that fear appeal has an influence on workers' safety intentions with regard to recommended protective action that motivates to take preventive measures towards work accidents that could happen. Starting from this, it is aimed to compare the effect of visual stimuli (i.e. posters) that demonstrate work accident disability versus a poster of not having disability on fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the message and safety intentions. Therefore, it has been measured that exposure to different posters effects on fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude toward the ad and finally safety intentions whether differs in or not. Tannenbaum's (2015) meta-analysis outcome shows that “...fear appeals were more effective when the message depicted relatively high amounts of fear...” (p. 46) and thus, it is aimed to test the outcome of Tannenbaum (2015; p. 46).

Moreover, it is another considerable aim to include intervening variables which are composed of fatalism tendency, having occupational experience, having a working accident, and self-efficacy.

5. 2. Importance of The Research

It is important to emphasize that fear appeal poster campaigns are one of the most broadly employed countermeasures (Reason, 2016; pp. 224). Accordingly, utilizing fear appeal through a poster may be appropriate in terms of work safety because it stimulates to take preventive measures towards work accidents that could happen. Thus, in this study in which different posters are used, the answers to research questions have vital importance in terms of contributing to literature.

Anderson (1995, p. 209) emphasizes that self-efficacy is the most powerful predictor because of the fact that it specifies whether individuals will motivate themselves to gain the skills to manage or not. Self-efficacy, which is individual's belief or judgement that he or she has the capability to perform a particular behavior, has a significant role as the strongest predictor in several fear appeal

studies. Self-efficacy may be the most significant dimension in some situations, particularly in cases where the perceived possibility of the threat is 'overrealistic', or omnipresent. (Snipes et al., 1999; p. 276). As it is seen, self efficacy is an important predictor in fear appeal studies.

There are great numbers of factors that influence people's ethical sensitivities. Treise (1994; p. 63) emphasizes that the perception of whether the utilizing of fear appeals is ethical or unethical would differ significantly based on the purpose for which the appeals were utilized. Also, people's perceptions about the severity or susceptibility may influence on perceived ethicality toward fear appeals (e.g. mild fear appeal). LaTour et al.'s study (1996; p. 59) examine the perceived ethicality of the utilize of a powerful fear appeal video shown to a potentially susceptible group of consumers. In this thesis study, it is predicted that if the advertiser is an associaton, work safety poster that workers are exposed to can be considered more ethical. Therefore, a governmental organization is not chosen in this study because of the fact that workers' attitude towards the government might confound the experiment results.

Dedeoğlu and Ventura's (2017; p. 249) findings display that increasing levels of threat appraisal considerably enhance fear emotions. Using of visual element that includes phsical harm and using of message that includes some warnings are believed to expose fear emotions such as being afraid, panicky, scared, worried, nervous and tense in this thesis study.

Several studies (Dedeoğlu and Ventura, 2017; Manyiwa and Brennan's ,2012) show that several considerable factors such as self-efficacy, perceived ethicality, fear emotions have a great importance in fear appeal studies as well as these factors have great importance for this thesis study.

When it is generally taken into account researches on fear appeal (Aydoğan, 2018; Dedeoğlu and Ventura, 2017; Firat, 2013) conducted in Turkey, there is no research that compares the effect of visual stimuli (i.e. posters) that demonstrate work accident disability versus poster of not having disability on fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the message and safety intentions. As stated by

Tannenbaum (2015; p. 32), other studies have measured respondents' current levels of fear (e.g., Cauberghe et al., 2009; Cho and Salmon, 2006; Nabi et al., 2008). Differently from other safety studies, this thesis study intends to measure effects of more than one fear emotions consisting of being afraid, panicky, scared, worried, nervous and tense, instead of measuring the effect of 'fear'. The most significant contribution of this thesis study is to compare fatalism tendencies of workers by way of occupational experience and self efficacy and also to compare in a country such as Republic of Turkey where fatalism is extremely important.

5. 3. Research Questions

The research questions related to thesis study will be included in this section.

1. Does exposure to poster of work accident disability differ in the effect on fear emotions compared to exposure to poster of not having disability?
2. Does exposure to poster of work accident disability differ in the effect on perceived ethicality compared to exposure to poster of not having disability?
3. Does exposure to poster of work accident disability differ in the effect on attitude toward the message compared to exposure to poster of not having disability?
4. Does exposure to poster of work accident disability differ in the effect on safety intention compared to exposure to poster of not having disability?

5. 4. Hypotheses

H1: Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on fear emotions compared to exposure to poster of not having disability.

H2: Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on perceived ethicality compared to exposure to poster of not having disability.

H3: Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on attitude towards the message compared to exposure to poster of not having disability.

H4: Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on safety intention compared to exposure to poster of not having disability.

5.5. Research Model

The research model which is determined in the direction of related literature and researches will be included in this section.

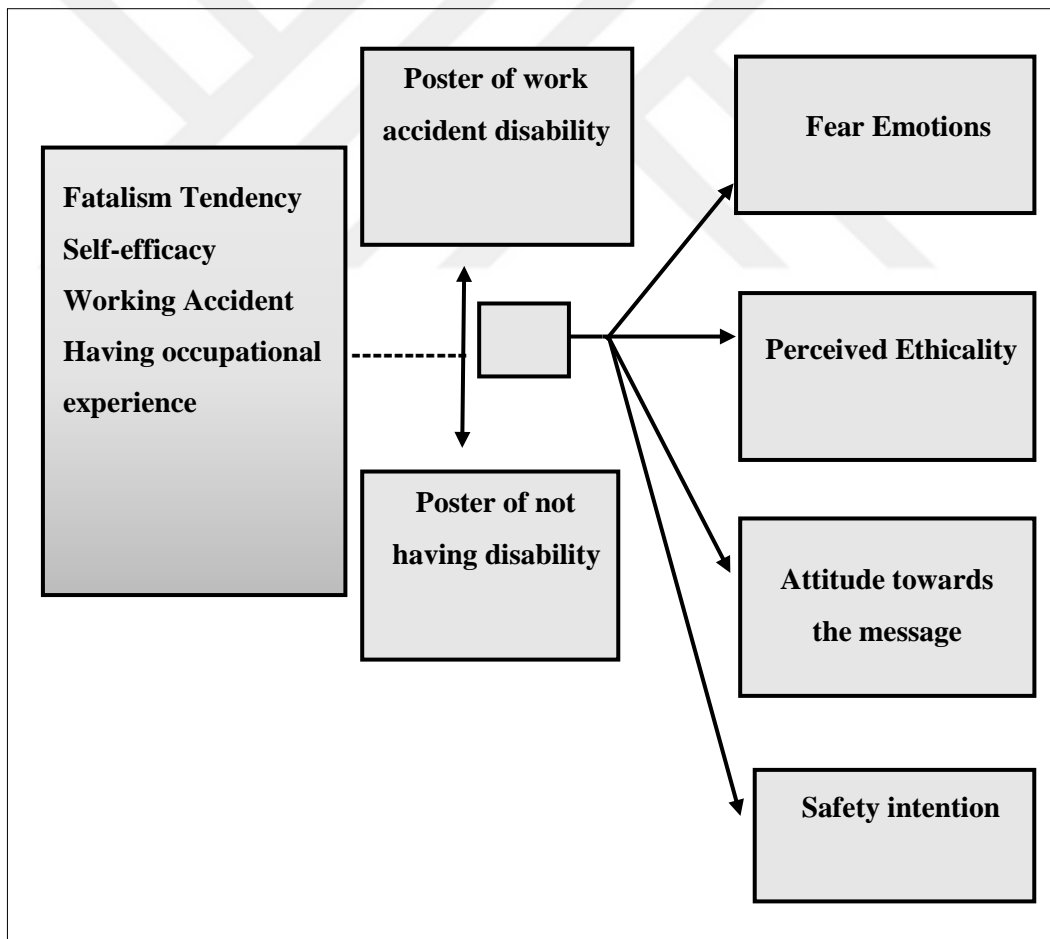


Figure 1. The Research Model

As can be seen from the model in the study, poster of work accident disability is manipulated. Workers are separated into two groups: one exposed to poster of work accident disability and the other poster of not having disability are the independent variables. Dependent variables are composed of fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the message and safety intention. Intervening variables are fatalism tendency, having occupational experience, having a working accident, and self-efficacy. There are intervening variables which stand between independent and dependent variables purposefully measured in the research study.

5.6. Research Design

A pilot test was conducted in order to determine the presumptive brand before experimental study was carried out within the scope of research. After pilot tests that involve determination of hypothetical association's name and logo and testing fatalism tendency scale was conducted, an experimental study was carried out in order to examine the relation specified in the resarch model.

It is extremely important to determine a hypothetical association's name and logo since it was intended to exposure to providing a hypothetical association work. A faculty member, who has worked in the advertising sector through long ages, contributed to determine presumptive association name. After it was put forward a proposal twenty-one presumptive association names to faculty member, faculty member decided to use nine of them as hypothetical association name to be asked in pilot test questionnaire. Additionally, it was paid special attention to that the names of associations are actually unused names.

Suggested association names are composed of following; İş Güvenliği ve Sağlığı Farkındalık Derneği (İGSFD), İş Sağlığı Çalışmaları Derneği (İSÇD), İş Güvenliği Çalışmaları Derneği (İGÇD), İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Eğitim Derneği (İSGED) İş Sağlığı Çalışmaları Derneği (İSÇD), İş Güvenliği Çalışmaları Derneği (İGÇD), İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Eğitim Derneği (İSGED), İş Sağlığı Destek Derneği (İSDD), İş Kazalarıyla Mücadele Derneği (İKMD), İş Güvenliğini Yaygınlaştırma Derneği (İGYD), İş Sağlığı Geliştirme ve Destekleme Derneği, İş

Güvenliđi Bilinçlendirme Derneđi (İGBD). Logos which are mentioned is given in Figure 2 below.



Figure 2 Logos

At this stage, it was asked for 87 participants to evaluate names and visuals (i.e logos) of an association that operates in İzmir. Questions were whether association name and logo is a good choice; moreover, was asked questions whether they remind participants a known association. It was measured with 5 point likert scale. It was measured with 5 point likert scale. 87 participants took part in the survey. Since it will have an effect on the evaluation, it is necessary to avoid logos which arouse positive or negative feelings in participants. Accordingly, in the cause of being able to make a decision One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was used and the following results were obtained. Table 3 points to İş Güvenliği Çalışmaları Derneği (İGÇD) (,158) with the lowest absolute value in the line of the most extreme differences.

Table 3 One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		İGSFD	İSÇD	İGÇD	İSGED	İSDD	İKMD	İGYD	İSGDD	İGBD
N		86	86	86	86	83	82	83	83	83
Normal Parameters(a,b)	Mean	3,30	3,37	3,17	2,38	3,10	2,94	3,35	3,34	2,92
	Std. Deviation	1,480	1,218	1,285	1,481	1,294	1,443	1,204	1,373	1,336
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	,177	,167	,158	,255	,179	,181	,180	,203	,163
	Positive	,126	,167	,135	,255	,116	,181	,180	,136	,163
	Negative	-,177	-,150	-,158	-,175	-,179	-,147	-,169	-,203	-,141
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1,638	1,544	1,468	2,367	1,633	1,643	1,644	1,853	1,485
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		,009	,017	,027	,000	,010	,009	,009	,002	,024
a Test distribution is Normal.										
b Calculated from data.										

5.7. Data Collection and Analysis of Results

This part of thesis study includes development of research instrument, measurement and procedure, and selection of the sample.

5.7.1. Development of Research Instrument

In this thesis, which aims to measure the effect of fear appeal used in work safety posters on workers' fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the message and safety intentions, the survey was used as a measuring tool. In this study which it was conducted an experiment in accordance with aforementioned objective, it was paid strict attention to that work safety poster looks natural such as WorkSafe Victoria's print ad.

Worksafe Victoria, which is the occupational health and safety arm of the regulator Victorian WorkCover Authority (VWA), have pioneering role in both developing and applying of health and safety at Victorian workplaces. Worksafe Victoria in Australia was stimulating young workers to speak up at workplace before it's too late; furthermore, WorkSafe Victoria's print advertisements, television and radio commercials are conveying message of 'It doesn't hurt to speak up' (Macleod, 2008). WorkSafe Victoria's print advertisement visual was used in experimental study because of the fact that it is in accordance with the purpose of the study. WorkSafe Victoria's print advertisement includes a worker is severely injured so thus, it is possible to utilize the visual. The print advertisement of WorkSafe Victoria is shown in Figure 3.

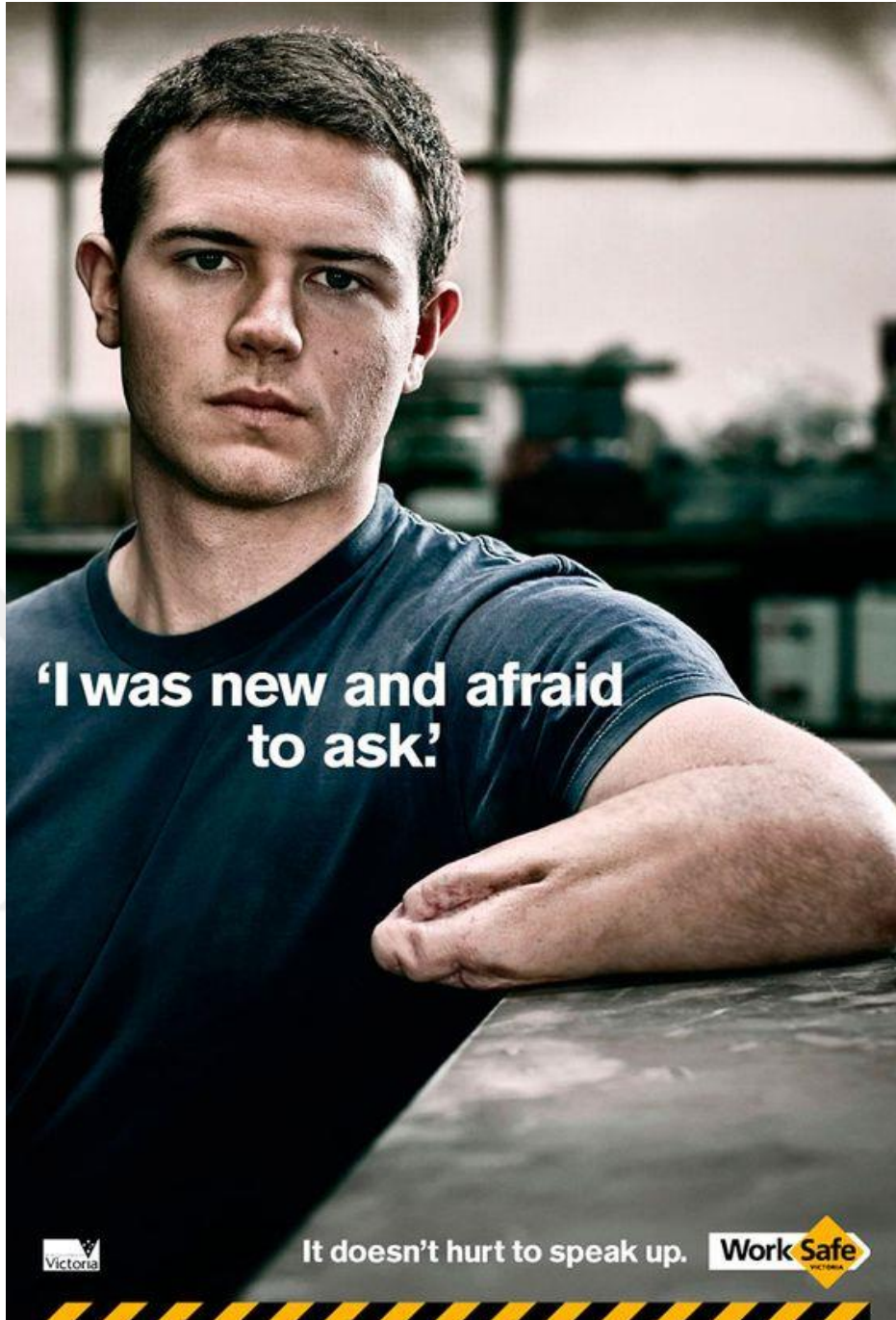


Figure 3. WorkSafe Victoria Print Advertisement

WorkSafe Victoria's print advertisement was adapted to experimental study by a specialist graphic designer and necessary changes were made by graphic designer in accordance with the experimental study (i.e., poster, logo, slogan). As it is seen from Figure 6, graphic designer created a poster, which includes a worker who doesn't have a work accident, in accordance with the experimental study.

İş Güvenliği Çalışmaları Derneği (İGÇD), which was determined according the result of pilot study, was used in experimental study.

The ad of Aksel Occupational Health and Safety Inc. (Aksel İSG A.Ş.) was utilized due to the fact that experimental study was carried out in Turkey. Aksel Occupational Health and Safety Inc. includes the message following: “Before It's Too Late! In Turkey, every day, 172 work accident happens. Do not be one of them.” (Aksel İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği A.Ş., 2005). As follows, Figure 4.illustrates ad of Aksel Occupational Health and Safety Inc. (Aksel İSG).



Figure 4 Aksel İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği A.Ş. Ad

The statistical data of Ministry of Labour and Social Security of the Republic of Turkey (ÇSGB) was used with intent to increase trustworthiness in experimental study.

According to data taken from Directorate General of Occupational Health and Safety (ÇSBG İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Genel Müdürlüğü, 2015; p.13), total number of work accidents of 2013 in Turkey is 191.389; in addition to that daily number of work accidents is 524.

Social Security Institution (SGK) publishes work accident and occupational diseases statistics annual yearbooks on an annual basis. According to Social Security Institution Work Accidents and Occupational Diseases Statistics of 2015, it was occurred 251.547 work accidents in total in 2015 (SGK, 2015).

A calculation has been made for getting the number of work accidents shown in the poster ($x = (241.547 * 524) / (191.389) = 666$). Thus, the data of ‘In Turkey, every day, 661 work accidents happen’ was used.

Public service announcement of Ministry of Labour and Social Security of the Republic of Turkey (ÇSBG) uses the warning of “Take Measure!” (see <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vwb0lwPVfxs>). In this way, ‘Take Measure!’ was utilized for the purpose of creating similarity with public service announcement and increasing familiarity for experimental study.

A faculty member who is expert in her field and worked in advertising sector in the past also contributed to find out tagline in poster. Additionally, another faculty member who worked in advertising sector through long ages has made a decision on how formal and content-related features of tagline and position on poster should have been.

Final form of posters of experimental study are given below.



Figure 5 Work Safety Poster 1



Figure 6 Work Safety Poster 2

5.7.2. Measurement and Procedure

Survey was used as a measurement tool in this thesis study. The characteristics of scales in the survey will be explained below in details.

In order to measure participants' fatalism tendency, fatalism tendency scale was used which was developed by Kaya and Bozkur (2015). Fatalism tendency scale is composed of 24 items. The scale with four factors in this study that includes predetermination (1., 4., 12., 15., 18., 19., 22. and 24.), personal control (2., 6., 8., 11., 14., 21.), superstition (3, 5, 10., 17., 20., 23.) and luck (7., 9., 13., 16.) (Kaya and Bozkur, 2015; p. 941). It should be noted that personal control was reverse coded. In thesis study, likert scale was utilized. It was also aimed to measure participants' fatalism tendency.

After questions relating to fatalism, participants were exposed to poster and they responded to remained questiones according to poster.

Laros and Steenkamp's (2004; p. 895-896) scale of fear emotions (being scared, afraid, panicky, worried, nervous, tense) was implemented in Dedeoğlu and Ventura's (2017; p. 249) study. To measure participants' fear emotions, fear emotions scale was taken from Dedeoğlu and Ventura's (2017; p. 251) study. Thus, a 7-point scale of fear emotions ranging from 'I feel this emotion not at all' to 'I feel this emotion very strongly' was used (e.g. I feel fear emotion not at all).

Ethicality scale in experimental study was taken from Manyiwa and Brennan's (2012; p. 1427) study and was adapted to thesis study. Items involved in the scale for measuring perceived ethicality in Manyiwa and Brennan's (2012; p. 1427) study were indicated below:

...fair/unfair; culturally acceptable/culturally unacceptable; morally right/morally wrong; in the best interest of the smoker/not in the best interest of the smoker; acceptable if it will lead to reduced number of smokers/unacceptable even if it will lead to reduced number of smokers (Manyiwa and Brennan's, 2012; p. 1427).

In accordance with the objective of experimental study, some changes were made relating to fourth and fifth items; therefore, 'employee' was used instead of smoker. To measure perceived ethicality which is composed of 5 items, a 7-point semantic differential scale was used in which opposite adjectives were used at both ends with regards to meaning.

Self-efficacy scale has been taken from Manyiwa ve Brennan (2012; p. 1427)'s study; furthermore, statement that measures participant's abilities in the matter of taking measure, was suitably adapted to this experimental study. Self-efficacy scale that ranges from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' was measured with the statement: "I feel very confident in my ability to take measure toward work accidents". 7-point self-efficacy scale was measured with a single item. Measuring self efficacy perception with single item is not exceptional and conducted in many prominent studies as well (e.g. Basil et al., 2008; Snipes et al. 1999).

In line with measuring attitude towards the message, adjectives taken from Manyiwa ve Brennan (2012; p. 1427) were adapted according to Osgood et al.'s (1957) evaluation factor (e.g., evaluation factor, potency factor and activity factor). Attitude towards the message scale includes following adjectives respectively: positive/negative, interesting/boring, pleasant/unpleasant, pleasing/annoying and useful/useless. To measure attitude towards the advertisement, a 7-point semantic differential scale used. In many studies, semantic differential scales were used to measure attitude (e.g., Nabi et al., 2008; Roskos-Ewoldsen et al.,2004).

Safety Behavior scale developed by Neal, Griffin and Hart (2000) and adapted by Dursun (2011; p. 112) has evaluated the safety behaviors of employees relating to that employees operate their occupation safely. Safety behavior scale is composed of subgroups that consist safety adaptation items (1., 2., 3.) and safety involvement items (4., 5., 6.) (Dursun, 2011:112). Safety Intention scale was adapted from safety behavior scale practiced by Dursun (2011; p. 122) as well. Likert scale was used in the study.

Special attention is given to provide completely corresponding meaning of English which are included in scales of foreign origin. Therefore, adjectives and/or statements were translated by a english teacher who is expert in his field (e.g. fear emotion scale, perceived ethicality scale, self efficacy scale and attitude towards scale).

To analyze obtained data, SPSS 25.0 (Statistical Package For Social Sciences) package program has been used. The differences between the groups were examined by nonparametric techniques because the data in the study were not normally distributed and significance level was accepted as 0.05. The Chi-Square Independence Test was applied with the intention to avoid differences between experimental groups, that could effect results of experimental in terms of demographic characteristics.

5.7.3. Sampling Selection

Convenience sampling is the cheapest and least time-consuming of sampling techniques (Wrenn et al, 2007; p. 184) and it also includes readily accessible people who fulfill study eligibility criteria (Yusen and Littenberg, 2005; p.46). Convenience sampling was used based on given reasons. Thesis research is targeted blue-collar workers who work under hard conditions in İzmir. It is not possible to reach a sizeable sample that can represent this universe due to budget and time limits of researcher. In this study, 300 workers working under heavy conditions in İzmir are the sample of research by reason of the fact that it can be reached by the researcher and also predicted to represent universe. The sample size was determined with the help of the following formula.

$$\frac{2(z\alpha + z\beta)^2 \sigma^2}{\Delta_2}$$

With reference to the formula, the minimum sample size for a 95% test of significance with 80% test power is '63' per group and if test power were increased to 90%, the required sample would be '84' per group (Lusk and Shogren, 2007; p. 56). Thus, total participant number of this study was determined as 300 workers who work under heavy conditions, consisting of 150 people per group. Experimental study was conducted to workers who work under heavy conditions in towns involved Bornova, Karabağlar, Gaziemir (Sarnıç).

Research was conducted taking into account of workers' shift change hours; in other words more specifically, it was conducted to workers who work at daily shift and workers who work at night shift. Additionally, after running survey, it was taken out surveys which are not suitable for experimental study and sample groups were matched in order to avoid demographic differences. Therefore, participants are composed of 220 workers due to the fact that variables of fatalism tendency, occupational experience and having a working accident need to be matched sample.



CHAPTER VI

RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1. Pilot Test Findings

Pilot test survey is composed of 33 items. It was used fatalism tendency scale developed by Kaya and Bozkur (2015) and this scale is composed of 24 items as specified above. Folkman and Lazarus's (1985) Ways of Coping Checklist (WCC) was adapted to Turkish by Siva (1991).

Thus, pilot test questions consisting of items (25, 26., 27., 28., 29., 30., 31., 32. and 33.) were taken from Ways of Coping Checklist's (WCC) factor related to take refuge in destiny. The pilot test survey includes 60 participants. Based on results obtained from reliability factor analysis, Kaya and Bozkur's (2015) fatalism tendency scale questions consisting of 24 items were put to final survey.

6.2. Experimental Research Findings

6.2.1 Sample Qualities

6.2.1.1. Demographic Characteristics

This section includes statistical tables relating to the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Table 4 Gender Distribution

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
<i>Male</i>	220	100,0	100,0	100,0

As is seen from Table 4, 100% of participants are male. In her meta analysis, Tannenbaum (2015; p. 41) asserts that the effects of fear appeal on male and female

participants are different from each other. Only male workers were utilized in this study and it should be conducted with female workers in future studies.

Table 5 Age Distribution

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
<i>20-29</i>	43	19,5	20,4	20,4
<i>30-39</i>	71	32,3	33,6	54,0
<i>40-49</i>	66	30,0	31,3	85,3
<i>50-59</i>	25	11,4	11,8	97,2
<i>60-69</i>	6	2,7	2,8	100,0
<i>Total</i>	211	95,9	100,0	
<i>Missing</i>	9	4,1		

Employees under the age of 18 were not allowed to participate in this survey. The 20,4% of the participants are between the ages of 20-29, 33,6% are between the ages of 30-39, 31,3% are between the ages of 40-49, 11,8% are between the ages of 50-59, and finally 2,8% are between the ages of 60- 69.

Table 6 Marital Status

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
<i>Married</i>	153	69,5	72,5	72,5
<i>Single</i>	58	26,4	27,5	100,0
<i>Total</i>	211	95,9	100,0	
<i>Missing</i>	6	2,7		
	3	1,4		
	9	4,1		
<i>Total</i>	220	100,0		

It is apparent from Table 6. that percentage of marital status indicates that %72,5 of participants are married and %27,5 are single.

Table 7 Education Level

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
<i>Illiterate-Literate</i>	4	1,8	1,9	1,9
<i>Primary School</i>	44	20,0	20,6	22,4
<i>Secondary School</i>	49	22,3	22,9	45,3
<i>High School</i>	90	40,9	42,1	87,4
<i>Graduate +</i>	27	12,3	12,6	100,0
<i>Total</i>	214	97,3	100,0	
<i>Missing</i>	6	2,7		
<i>Total</i>	220	100,0		

In the study in which each level of education is represented, it can be seen that 1.9% of participants are illiterate and literate, 20,6% are primary school graduate, 22,9% are secondary school graduate, 42,1% are high school graduate and 12,6% are graduated+ level.

Table 8 Income Level

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
<i>Low</i>	39	17,7	18,2	18,2
<i>Lower-middle</i>	40	18,2	18,7	36,9
<i>Middle</i>	112	50,9	52,3	89,3
<i>Upper-middle</i>	18	8,2	8,4	97,7
<i>High</i>	5	2,3	2,3	100,0
<i>Total</i>	214	97,3	100,0	
<i>Missing</i>	6	2,7		
<i>Total</i>	220	100,0		

According to acquired findings, %8,6 of the participants have low income level , %18,7 are lower-middle income level %52,3 are middle income level, %8,4 are upper-middle income level and %2,3 are high income level.

Table 9 Near-Miss Incident

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
<i>Yes</i>	112	50,9	52,1	52,1
<i>No</i>	103	46,8	47,9	100,0
<i>Total</i>	215	97,7	100,0	
<i>Missing</i>	5	2,3		
<i>Total</i>	220	100,0		

As shown in Table 9, 52,1 % of participants have come under near-miss incident and 47,9% of participants have not come under near-miss incident.

6.2.1.2. Matching Sample Analysis

Within the experimental study, sample groups were matched to prevent demographic differences between workers who are exposed to poster of work accident disability and poster of not having disability. Statistical table showing that groups of poster of work accident disability and of poster of not having disability are matched based on demographic characteristics such as having working accident and occupational experiences are given below.

Table 10 Matching Sample

	<i>Value</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)</i>
<i>Group*Working Accidents</i>	,315 ^a	1	,575
<i>Group*Occupational Experience</i>	3,756a	8	,878

With the application of the chi-square independence test, it was reached to a significance value which is shown with "p" in table. These values indicate that the groups are not different ($\alpha = 0.05$).

6.2.2. Reliability Analysis

Table 11 Scale Reliability

<i>Scales</i>	<i>Cronbach Alfa</i>	<i>Number of Items</i>
<i>Fatalism tendency</i> <i>Predetermination (0,832)</i> <i>Personal Control (0,773)</i> <i>Superstition (0,705)</i> <i>Luck (0,654)</i>	0,703	24
<i>Fear Emotions</i>	0,852	6
<i>Perceived Ethicality</i>	0,864	5
<i>Attitude towards the message</i>	0,722	5
<i>Intention</i>	0,940	6

The internal consistency of the scale was calculated by the Cronbach alpha coefficient method within the questionnaire directed to the participants. In Table 11 below, the reliability of fatalism tendency, fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the ad and intention are given respectively. As illustrated in Table 11 , it is seen that the reliability values obtained from all scales are within the accepted limits in social sciences (Dursun, 2011; p. 119) and vary between 0.703 and 0.940.

6.2.3. Findings Related to Factor Analysis

It was factor analysis of scales of fatalism tendency, fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the message and safety intention. Findings related to factor analysis are presented below in tables of total variance explained, component matrix and rotated component matrix.

Table 12 Fatalism Tendency Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5,251	21,879	21,879	5,251	21,879	21,879	4,044	16,852	16,852
2	2,790	11,623	33,502	2,790	11,623	33,502	3,082	12,841	29,693
3	2,441	10,171	43,673	2,441	10,171	43,673	2,634	10,973	40,666
4	1,519	6,328	50,001	1,519	6,328	50,001	2,240	9,335	50,001
5	1,150	4,792	54,793						
6	1,053	4,388	59,181						
7	,945	3,938	63,120						
8	,883	3,680	66,800						
9	,781	3,255	70,055						
10	,745	3,105	73,160						
11	,718	2,992	76,152						
12	,640	2,666	78,818						
13	,607	2,528	81,346						
14	,591	2,461	83,808						
15	,553	2,302	86,110						
16	,503	2,095	88,204						
17	,491	2,045	90,249						
18	,423	1,764	92,013						
19	,384	1,601	93,614						
20	,372	1,551	95,165						
21	,325	1,354	96,519						
22	,307	1,278	97,797						
23	,281	1,171	98,968						
24	,248	1,032	100,000						

Table 13 Fatalism Tendency Rotated Component Matrix

<i>Rotated Component Matrix^a</i>				
	<i>Component</i>			
	1	2	3	4
<i>FateI.4</i>	,726	-,139	-,032	-,025
<i>FateI.18</i>	,725	-,231	,003	,067
<i>FateI.22</i>	,724	,133	,016	,046
<i>FateI.19</i>	,721	,051	,106	,177
<i>FateI.12</i>	,697	-,108	,177	,057
<i>FateI.1</i>	,674	-,076	-,124	,148
<i>FateI.15</i>	,573	-,183	,364	-,067
<i>FateI.24</i>	,528	-,194	,205	,004
<i>RecFateI.8</i>	-,085	,800	-,079	-,198
<i>RecFateI.6</i>	-,017	,732	-,010	-,115
<i>RecFateI.11</i>	-,139	,712	-,097	-,119
<i>RecFateI.14</i>	,164	,649	-,308	,094
<i>RecFateI.21</i>	-,317	,608	-,187	,182
<i>RecFateI.2</i>	-,265	,605	,120	,010
<i>FateI.7</i>	,012	-,084	,756	,023
<i>FateI.16</i>	,088	-,048	,698	,156
<i>FateI.5</i>	-,054	-,087	,646	,270
<i>FateI.9</i>	,116	,008	,631	,179
<i>FateI.13</i>	,208	-,147	,474	,132
<i>FateI.10</i>	,123	-,020	,114	,686
<i>FateI.23</i>	-,073	,054	,294	,617
<i>FateI.20</i>	,288	-,039	-,007	,613
<i>FateI.17</i>	,058	-,034	,172	,601
<i>FateI.3</i>	-,035	-,129	,108	,574

As is shown Table 12, The 24-item scale of fatalism tendency measures worker's fatalism tendency at the rate of 50%. To examine the Fatalism Tendency Rotated Component Matrix Table, it is controlled that each item at the highest value will come under which factor. As it seen from Fatalism Tendency Rotated Component Matrix Table, there is a problem in terms of Luck factor (*FateI.7.*, *FateI.9.*, *FateI.13.* and *FateI.16*) and Supersititon factor (*FateI.3*, *FateI.5*, *FateI.10.*, *FateI.17.*, *FateI.20.* and *FateI.23.*) due to the fact that items unexpectedly come under different factor group. . It is quite apparent that Predetermination and Personal Control (*RecFate*) are deemed valid. Predetermination factor group is composed of items following: *FateI.1*, *FateI.4*, *FateI.12*, *FateI.15*, *FateI.18*, *FateI.19*, *FateI.22*, *FateI.24*.

Additionally, Personal Control (RecFacete) factor group is composed of items following: RecFateI.2, RecFateI.6, RecFateI.8, RecFateI.11, RecFateI.14 and RecFateI.21.

Table 14 Fear Emotions Total Variance Explained

<i>Component</i>	<i>Initial Eigenvalues</i>			<i>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</i>		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>
<i>1</i>	3,470	57,838	57,838	3,470	57,838	57,838
<i>2</i>	,838	13,965	71,802			
<i>3</i>	,565	9,418	81,221			
<i>4</i>	,485	8,090	89,311			
<i>5</i>	,354	5,892	95,204			
<i>6</i>	,288	4,796	100,000			

Table 15 Fear Emotions Component Matrix

	<i>Component</i>
	<i>1</i>
<i>Fear</i>	,704
<i>Panicky</i>	,786
<i>Scared</i>	,806
<i>Worried</i>	,804
<i>Nervous</i>	,672
<i>Tense</i>	,780

As can be seen from Table 14, scale measures workers' fear emotions at the rate of 57%. Table 15. illustrates that scale items which are composed of fear, panicky, scared, worried, nervous and tense come under single component.

Table 16 Perceived Ethicality Total Variance Explained

<i>Component</i>	<i>Initial Eigenvalues</i>			<i>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</i>		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>
<i>1</i>	3,248	64,961	64,961	3,248	64,961	64,961
<i>2</i>	,599	11,974	76,935			
<i>3</i>	,462	9,233	86,169			
<i>4</i>	,365	7,293	93,462			
<i>5</i>	,327	6,538	100,000			

Table 17 Perceived Ethicality Component Matrix

	<i>Component</i>
	<i>1</i>
<i>Culturally unacceptable</i>	,830
<i>Morally wrong</i>	,799
<i>In the best interest of the employee</i>	,811
<i>Unacceptable even if it will lead to reduced number of working accidents</i>	,806
<i>Unfair</i>	,784

As can be seen from Table 16., scale measures workers' perceived ethicality at the rate of 47%. Table 17. illustrates that scale items which are composed of negative, boring, unpleasant, annoying and useless come under single component.

Table 18 Attitude towards the message Total Variance Explained

<i>Component</i>	<i>Initial Eigenvalues</i>			<i>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</i>		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>
<i>1</i>	2,373	47,466	47,466	2,373	47,466	47,466
<i>2</i>	1,136	22,719	70,184			
<i>3</i>	,614	12,282	82,466			
<i>4</i>	,477	9,534	92,000			
<i>5</i>	,400	8,000	100,000			

Table 19 Attitude towards the message Component Matrix

	<i>Component</i>
	<i>1</i>
<i>Negative</i>	,764
<i>Useless</i>	,691
<i>Boring</i>	,677
<i>Unpleasant</i>	,673
<i>Annoying</i>	,634

As can be seen from Table 18., scale measures workers' attitude towards message at the rate of 47%. Table 19. illustrates that scale items which are composed of negative, boring, unpleasant, annoying and useless come under single component.

Table 20 Safety Intention Total Variance Explained

<i>Component</i>	<i>Initial Eigenvalues</i>			<i>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</i>			<i>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</i>		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>
1	4,634	77,239	77,239	4,634	77,239	77,239	2,663	44,387	44,387
2	,648	10,794	88,033	,648	10,794	88,033	2,619	43,646	88,033
3	,264	4,407	92,440						
4	,245	4,089	96,529						
5	,130	2,160	98,689						
6	,079	1,311	100,00						

Table 21 Safety Intention Component Matrix

	<i>Component</i>	
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Safety Intention I</i>	,368	,883
<i>Safety Intention II</i>	,352	,905
<i>Safety Intention III</i>	,492	,756
<i>Safety Intention IV</i>	,796	,429
<i>Safety Intention V</i>	,871	,388
<i>Safety Intention VI</i>	,877	,340

As can be seen from Table 20., scale measures workers' intentions at the rate of 88%. As shown in component matrix table, items of Safety Intention I (I will use all the necessary safety equipments while working) , Safety Intention II (I will use appropriate security procedures when I work), Safety Intention III (I will provide the highest levels of security during working) come under second group, on the other hand Safety Intention IV (I will promote security programs at workplace) , Safety IntentionV (I will make extra effort to develop workplace safety) and Safety Intention VI (I will voluntarily perform tasks and activities that will help to develop workplace safety) come under first group. Factor of Intention to Safety Adaption is composed of items of Safety Intention I, Safety Intention II, Safety Intention III. Additionally, factor of Intention to Safety Involvement is composed of items of Safety Intention IV, Safety Intention V and Safety Intention VI.

6.2.4. Findings related to Research Model and Research Hypotheses

6.2.4.1. Findings related to Research Model

It is expected to measure the effect of fatalistic tendency variable which is included in research model on groups' self-efficacy and safety intentions. For this reason, groups of poster of work accident disability and poster of not having disability were matched up in terms of self-efficacy and safety intention. Regression analysis typically allows to find the cause and effect relation between variables. Regression analysis was used to find the cause and effect relation between variables in this study.

Table 22 Model Summary Fatalism Tendency

<i>Model Summary</i>				
<i>Model</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R Square</i>	<i>Adjusted R Square</i>	<i>Std. Error of the Estimate</i>
1	,219 ^a	,048	,038	1,03906
<i>a. Predictors: (Constant), MEANREC, MEANPRE</i>				

Table 23 ANOVA Fatalism- Safety Intention

<i>ANOVA^a</i>						
<i>Model</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>1</i>	<i>Regression</i>	10,085	2	5,043	4,671	,010 ^b
	<i>Residual</i>	200,815	186	1,080		
	<i>Total</i>	210,901	188			
<i>a. Dependent Variable: MEANINT123</i>						
<i>b. Predictors: (Constant), MEANREC, MEANPRE</i>						

Table 24 Coefficients Fatalism-Safety Intention

<i>Coefficients^a</i>						
<i>Model</i>		<i>Unstandardized Coefficients</i>		<i>Standardized Coefficients</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
		<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>		
<i>1</i>	<i>(Constant)</i>	6,144	,407		15,091	,000
	<i>MEANPRE</i>	,075	,061	,092	1,230	,220
	<i>MEANREC</i>	-,150	,064	-,174	-2,339	,020
<i>a. Dependent Variable: MEANINT123</i>						

Table 22 Model Summary Fatalism indicates that intention to safety adaptation factor take form based upon factors of predetermination and personal control at the rate of 4,8%. The significance value ($p=0,010$) in the significance column of the Fatalism-Safety Intention ANOVA Table indicates that the relationship between the variables is statistically significant ($p < 0,01$). If the significance value in the significance column of the Fatalism-Safety Intention ANOVA Table was above 0.05, the relationship would be interpreted as meaningless (i.e.coincidental). Coefficients table gives information about the regression coefficients and their significance levels which is used for regression equation. According to Fatalism-Safety Intention Coefficients Table, it can be deduced that personal control factor has an effect on intention to safety adaptation.

Table 25 Model Summary Self-efficacy

Model Summary				
<i>Model</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R Square</i>	<i>Adjusted R Square</i>	<i>Std. Error of the Estimate</i>
1	,386 ^a	,149	,145	1,10197
<i>a. Predictors: (Constant), Self-efficacy+1</i>				

Table 26 ANOVA Self-efficacy- Safety Intention

ANOVA^a						
<i>Model</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
1	<i>Regression</i>	44,568	1	44,568	36,702	,000 ^b
	<i>Residual</i>	255,010	210	1,214		
	<i>Total</i>	299,578	211			
<i>a. Dependent Variable: MEANINT123</i>						
<i>b. Predictors: (Constant), Self-efficacy+1</i>						

Table 27 Coefficients Self-efficacy-Safety Intention

Coefficients^a						
<i>Model</i>		<i>Unstandardized Coefficients</i>		<i>Standardized Coefficients</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
		<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>		
1	<i>(Constant)</i>	4,686	,233		20,124	,000
	<i>Self-efficacy</i>	,244	,040	,386	6,058	,000
<i>a. Dependent Variable: MEANINT123</i>						

Table 25 Model Summary Self-efficacy indicates that intention to safety adaptation factor takes form depending upon factors of self-efficacy at the rate of 14,9%. The significance value (p=0,000) in the significance column of the Self-efficacy–Safety Intention ANOVA Table indicates that the relationship between the variables is statistically significant (p < 0,01) . As stated previously, if the significance value in

the significance column of the Self-efficacy-Safety Intention ANOVA Table was above 0.05 ($p > 0,05$), the relationship would be interpreted as meaningless (i.e. coincidental). Based on Self-efficacy-Safety Intention Coefficients Table, it can be deduced that self-efficacy factor has an effect on intention to safety adaptation.

6.2.4.2. Findings related to Hypotheses

In this thesis study, four basic hypotheses have been developed concerning research questions with reference to the theory, as mentioned in the methodology section. Hypotheses have been tested with Mann-Whitney U Test, which is used for non-parametric data, since data of the study does not show a normal distribution.

In the first hypothesis of the research, it is predicted that exposure to poster of a work accident disability will differ in the effect on fear emotions compared to exposure to poster of not having disability. Accordingly, the Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to determine whether a meaningful difference could be found between exposure to poster of work accident disability and exposure to poster of not having disability in terms of fear emotions. In groups that are in tables, Group 1 represents poster of a work accident disability and group 2 represents poster of poster of not having disability. The results are presented in Table 28 and Table 29.

Table 28 Fear Emotions Ranks

	<i>Fear</i>	<i>Panicky</i>	<i>Scared</i>	<i>Worried</i>	<i>Nervous</i>	<i>Tense</i>
<i>Mann-Whitney U</i>	5349,500	5674,500	4688,000	5611,500	5577,000	5250,000
<i>Wilcoxon W</i>	11020,500	11239,500	10253,000	11176,500	11142,000	10815,000
<i>Z</i>	-1,284	-,676	-2,724	-,700	-,886	-1,491
<i>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	,199	,499	,006	,484	,376	,136

Table 29 Fear Emotions Test Statistics

	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>	<i>Sum of Ranks</i>
<i>Fear</i>	<i>1</i>	112	114,74	12850,50
	<i>2</i>	106	103,97	11020,50
	<i>Total</i>	218		
<i>Panicky</i>	<i>1</i>	114	112,72	12850,50
	<i>2</i>	105	107,04	11239,50
	<i>Total</i>	219		
<i>Scared</i>	<i>1</i>	113	120,51	13618,00
	<i>2</i>	105	97,65	10253,00
	<i>Total</i>	218		
<i>Worried</i>	<i>1</i>	113	112,34	12694,50
	<i>2</i>	105	106,44	11176,50
	<i>Total</i>	218		
<i>Nervous</i>	<i>1</i>	114	113,58	12948,00
	<i>2</i>	105	106,11	11142,00
	<i>Total</i>	219		
<i>Tense</i>	<i>1</i>	113	115,54	13056,00
	<i>2</i>	105	103,00	10815,00
	<i>Total</i>	218		

Since the significance level of being scared ($p=0,006$) is smaller than 0.05 ($p<0,05$), it can be said that there is a significant difference between groups of poster of work accident disability and poster of not having disability in terms of being scared. Moreover, Table 28 indicates that there is difference in mean ranks between groups in terms of being 'scared' as a result of exposure to poster of work accident disability.

In second hypothesis, it is defended that exposure to poster of a work accident disability will differ in the effect on perceived ethicality compared to exposure to poster of not having disability. In order to test this hypothesis, the Mann-Whitney U test was performed to determine whether there was statistically significant difference between poster of work accident disability and poster of not having disability. Table 30 and table 31 include the results.

Table 30 Perceived Ethicality Ranks

	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>	<i>Sum of Ranks</i>
<i>Culturally unacceptable</i>	<i>1</i>	113	103,38	11682,50
	<i>2</i>	105	116,08	12188,50
	<i>Total</i>	218		
<i>Morally wrong</i>	<i>1</i>	113	96,85	10944,00
	<i>2</i>	103	121,28	12492,00
	<i>Total</i>	216		
<i>Not in the best interest of the employee</i>	<i>1</i>	114	99,92	11391,00
	<i>2</i>	105	120,94	12699,00
	<i>Total</i>	219		
<i>Unacceptable even if it will lead to reduced number of working accidents</i>	<i>1</i>	114	101,75	11599,50
	<i>2</i>	104	118,00	12271,50
	<i>Total</i>	218		
<i>Unfair</i>	<i>1</i>	114	101,91	11617,50
	<i>2</i>	104	117,82	12253,50
	<i>Total</i>	218		

Table 31 Perceived Ethicality Statistics

	<i>Culturally unacceptable</i>	<i>Morally wrong</i>	<i>Not in the best interest of the employee</i>	<i>Unacceptable even if it will lead to reduced number of working accidents</i>	<i>Unfair</i>
<i>Mann-Whitney U</i>	5241,500	4503,000	4836,000	5044,500	5062,500
<i>Wilcoxon W</i>	11682,500	10944,000	11391,000	11599,500	11617,500
<i>Z</i>	-1,569	-3,046	-2,655	-2,236	-2,064
<i>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	,117	,002	,008	,025	,039

As it seen in Table 31, the significance levels of morally wrong ($p=0,002$), not in the best interest of the employee ($p=0,008$), unacceptable even if it will lead to reduced number of working accident ($p=0,025$) and unfair ($p=0,039$) indicate that there is statistically significant difference ($p<0,05$) between groups of poster of work accident disability and poster of not having disability. Examination of Table 30 offers opportunity in order to compare mean ranks of groups. With the except of culturally acceptable, there are differences in mean ranks between groups in terms of ethical perceptions such as morally right, in the best interest of the employee, acceptable if it will lead to reduced number of working accidents, and fair. Poster of not having disability is perceived as acceptable if it will lead to reduced number of working accidents, in the best interest of the employee, morally right, and fair.

The third hypothesis which is intended to be tested refers to that exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on attitude towards the message compared to exposure to poster of not having disability. The Mann-Whitney U test was also conducted to find out whether there is any difference between groups of

poster of work accident disability and poster of not having disability in terms of attitude towards the message. Findings are illustrated in Table 32 and Table 33.

Table 32 Attitude towards the message Ranks

	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>	<i>Sum of Ranks</i>
<i>Negative</i>	<i>1</i>	114	105,21	11993,50
	<i>2</i>	105	115,20	12096,50
	<i>Total</i>	219		
<i>Boring</i>	<i>1</i>	113	114,00	12882,50
	<i>2</i>	103	102,46	10553,50
	<i>Total</i>	216		
<i>Unpleasant</i>	<i>1</i>	112	88,37	9897,50
	<i>2</i>	103	129,34	13322,50
	<i>Total</i>	215		
<i>Annoying</i>	<i>1</i>	114	92,02	10490,50
	<i>2</i>	105	129,52	13599,50
	<i>Total</i>	219		
<i>Useless</i>	<i>1</i>	114	112,80	12859,50
	<i>2</i>	105	106,96	11230,50
	<i>Total</i>	219	105,21	11993,50

Table 33 Attitude Towards the Message Test Statistics

	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Boring</i>	<i>Unpleasant</i>	<i>Annoying</i>	<i>Useless</i>
<i>Mann-Whitney U</i>	5438,500	5197,500	3569,500	3935,500	5665,500
<i>Wilcoxon W</i>	11993,500	10553,500	9897,500	10490,500	11230,500
<i>Z</i>	-1,227	-1,454	-4,923	-4,563	-,728
<i>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	,220	,146	,000	,000	,466

The significant levels of unpleasant ($p=0,000$) and annoying ($p=0,000$) given in table display that there is a significant difference ($p<0,05$) between groups of poster of work accident disability and poster of not having disability in terms of attitude towards the message. With the exceptions of negative, boring and useless there are differences in mean ranks between groups in terms of attitude towards the message such as unpleasant and annoying. To be more precise, workers who are exposed to poster of not having disability evaluate this poster as pleasant and pleasing.

The fourth hypothesis of research predicts that exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on safety intention compared to exposure to poster of not having disability. The hypothesis was tested by using the Mann-Whitney U test as in others. Findings are shown in Table 34 and Table 35.

Table 34 Safety Intention Ranks

<i>Intention to Safety Adaptation</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>	<i>Sum of Ranks</i>
<i>I will use all the necessary safety equipments while working</i> +	<i>1</i>	111	99,20	11011,50
	<i>2</i>	105	118,33	12424,50
	<i>Total</i>	216		
<i>I will use appropriate security procedures when I work</i> +	<i>1</i>	110	102,34	11257,00
	<i>2</i>	104	112,96	11748,00
	<i>Total</i>	214		
<i>I will provide the highest levels of security during working</i>				
<i>Intention to Safety Involvement</i>				
<i>I will promote security programs at workplace.</i> +	<i>1</i>	110	102,34	11257,00
	<i>2</i>	104	112,96	11748,00
	<i>Total</i>	214		
<i>I will make extra effort to develop workplace safety.</i> +				
<i>I will voluntarily perform tasks and activities that will help to develop workplace safety</i>				

Table 35 Safety Intention Test Statistics

	<i>Intention to Safety Adaptation</i>	<i>Intention to Safety Involvement</i>
	<i>I will use all the necessary safety equipments while working</i> +	<i>I will promote security programs at workplace.</i> +
	<i>I will use appropriate security procedures when I work</i> +	<i>I will make extra effort to develop workplace safety.</i> +
	<i>I will provide the highest levels of security during working</i>	<i>I will voluntarily perform tasks and activities that will help to develop workplace safety</i>
<i>Mann-Whitney U</i>	4795,500	5152,000
<i>Wilcoxon W</i>	11011,500	11257,000
<i>Z</i>	-2,346	-1,318
<i>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	0,19	,187

As is seen from Table 35, the significance level of intention to safety adaptation ($p=0,019$) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference ($p<0,05$) between groups in terms of their intentions to safety adaptation. On the other hand, significance level ($p=0,187$) of intention to safety involvement indicates that there is no statistically significant difference ($p>0,05$) between groups in terms of their intentions to safety adaptation. Additionally, Table 34 shows that workers who are exposed to poster of not having disability have intention to safety adaptation.

6.2.4.3. Findings Summary

Summary findings relating research hypotheses are given in Table 36.

Table 36 Summary Findings

<i>Hypotheses</i>	<i>Result</i>
H1: Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on fear emotions compared to exposure to poster of not having disability.	Accepted
H2: Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on perceived ethicality compared to exposure to poster of not having disability.	Accepted
H3: Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on attitude towards the message compared to exposure to poster of not having disability.	Accepted
H4: Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on safety intention compared to exposure to poster of not having disability.	Accepted

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION

After the sixth chapter containing the findings, the final part of this thesis study includes conclusion of study and also suggestions for future researches. In this section, it is firstly discussed results relating to research model and hypotheses; moreover, it is touched on limitations of thesis. Findings related to hypotheses are included in fourth chapter. Results related to the findings of research model and hypotheses are included in below.

In this experimental study, it is expected that fear appeal has an influence on workers' safety intentions with regard to recommended protective action that motivates to take preventive measures towards work accidents that could happen. Starting from this, it is aimed to compare the effect of visual stimuli (i.e. posters) that demonstrate work accident disability versus a poster of not having disability on fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the message and safety intentions. Therefore, it has been measured that exposure to different posters effects on fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude toward the ad and finally safety intentions whether differs in. Tannenbaum's (2015) meta-analysis outcome shows that "...fear appeals were more effective when the message depicted relatively high amounts of fear..." (p. 46) and thus, it is aimed to test the outcome of Tannenbaum's (2015; p. 46). Moreover, it is another considerable aim to include intervening variables which are composed of fatalism tendency, having occupational experience, having a working accident, and self-efficacy.

When it is generally taken into account researches on fear appeal (Aydoğan, 2018; Dedeoğlu and Ventura, 2017 ; Firat, 2013) conducted in Turkey, there is no research that compares the effect of visual stimuli (i.e. posters) that demonstrate poster of work accident disability versus poster of not having disability on fear emotions, perceived ethicality, attitude towards the message and safety intentions. As stated by Tannenbaum (2015; p. 32), other studies measured respondents' current levels of fear (e.g., Cauberghe et al., 2009; Cho and Salmon, 2006; Nabi et al., 2008). Differently from other safety studies, this thesis study intends to measure effects of more than one fear emotions consisting of being afraid, panicky, scared, worried, nervous and tense, instead of measuring the effect of 'fear'. The most significant contribution of this thesis study is to compare fatalism tendencies of workers by way of occupational experience and self efficacy and also to compare in a country such as Republic of Turkey where fatalism is extremely important.

As described in detail in the methodology chapter, research questions were constituted from the research model and four hypotheses were developed as probable answers to these questions. Findings related to the hypotheses are found in the sixth chapter. The results of the findings of the research model and hypotheses are given below.

As stated above, first hypothesis of the thesis is in the way that "Does exposure to poster of work accident disability differ in the effect on fear emotions compared to exposure to poster of not having disability". From this point of view, first hypothesis is formulated as "Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on fear emotions compared to exposure to poster of not having disability". Findings indicate that exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on fear emotions compared to exposure to poster of not having disability. According to findings, there is significantly difference in mean ranks between groups in terms of being 'scared' as a result of exposure to poster of work accident disability. With reference to literature, this finding may be resulted from "...fear appeals emphasizing severity information are particularly effective when conveyed with vivid/visual messages and fear appeals emphasizing susceptibility

information are particularly effective when conveyed using less vivid/verbal messages” (Tannenbaum, 2015; p.8). Furthermore, this findings supports that “The stronger severity manipulations probably can be accounted for by the vivid and often gruesome pictures accompanying fear...” (Witte and Allen, 2000; p.602). Thus, it can be deduced that severity of fear appeal poster has influence on workers' fear emotions level such as being ‘scared’.

As stated above, second hypothesis of the thesis is in the way that “Does exposure to poster of work accident disability differ in the effect on perceived ethicality compared to exposure to poster of not having disability”. From this point of view, second hypothesis is formulated as “Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on perceived ethicality compared to exposure to poster of not having disability”. According to finding, Poster of not having disability is perceived as acceptable if it will lead to reduced number of working accidents, in the best interest of the employee, morally right, and fair. Tansey et al. (1992) deduce that the employing of graphic images is considered more ethically acceptable if the advertiser is a non-profit or governmental organization. Starting from this, workers may consider that work safety poster is ethical if the advertiser is an association. Hyman and Tansey (1990) suggest that fear appeals can be perceived as unethical because of the fact that they can “expose a person against his or her will to harmful or seriously offensive images” (p.110). With reference to Hyman and Tansey’s (1990) suggestion, work safety poster that includes seriously offensive images may be perceived as less ethical in this study.

As stated above, third hypothesis of the thesis is in the way that “Does exposure to poster of work accident disability differ in the effect on attitude toward the message compared to exposure to poster of not having disability”. From this point of view, third hypothesis is formulated as “Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on attitude towards the message compared to exposure to poster of not having disability”. With the excepts of negative, boring and useless there are differences in mean ranks between groups in terms of attitude towards the message such as unpleasant and annoying. To be more precise, workers who are exposed to poster of not having disability evaluate this poster as pleasant and

pleasing. Workers tend to be annoyed more by work safety poster that includes physical harm.

As mentioned above, fourth hypothesis of the thesis is in the way that “Does exposure to poster of work accident disability differ in the effect on safety intention compared to exposure to poster of not having disability. From this point of view, fourth hypothesis is formulated as “Exposure to poster of work accident disability will differ in the effect on safety intention compared to exposure to poster of not having disability”. A surprise finding based on fourth hypothesis indicates that workers who are exposed poster of not having disability have intention to safety adaptation. Tannenbaum’s (2015) most comprehensive fear appeal meta-analysis finds out that fear appeals have “...positive effects on attitudes, intentions, and behaviors when they were high in depicted severity and/or susceptibility” (p.37). Findings of hypothesis does not completely support Tannenbaum’s (2015; p.37) outcome, but it is possible to deduce that work safety poster has effect on workers' intention to safety adaptation.

It should be mentioned that self efficacy has influence on workers’ intention to safety adaptation depending on findings, in addition to that Snipes et al. (1999) have concluded that self-efficacy positively effects behavioral intention. This finding corresponds with Snipes et al’s (1999) study that measures the effect of self efficacy in fear appeal. Findings in relationship with workers’ fatalism tendency and safety intention indicate that workers have intention of safety adaptation based upon their personal control. People who have fatalistic beliefs tend to believe that fate is responsible for much that happens; moreover, people in such fatalistic cultures tend to stress external causes of behaviour (Aquinas, 2006; p. 68). It has been thought that fatalistic tendency is related with negative behavioral patterns such as passivity, not taking measure and also risk taking and therefore various studies have been made in this regard (e.g., Haynie et al., 2014; McClure et al., 2011; Ramirez, 2014). It is also thought that fatalism inhibit occupational practices that promote workplace safety (Aycan and Kanungo, 2001 ; p. 401). The belief in fatalism concerning works accidents is based on the notion that work accidents cannot be prevented even if all measures are taken for work safety and therefore taking measure is not beneficial

for employees who have fatalistic beliefs (Üngüren, 2018; p.44). It is crucial to emphasize that work accidents happen more frequently in firms where workers have higher fatalistic beliefs relating to work accidents (McClure et al., 2001; Patwary et. al, 2012; Salminen, 1992; Wong and Weiner, 1981). On the other hand, this study findings shows that workers who don't have fatalistic beliefs have intention of safety adaptation; furthermore, personal control has significant influence on intention to safety adaptation.

The study is limited in terms of its scope by virtue of the fact that it is executed in Turkey. Similarly, the choice of subjects among blue-collar workers working in İzmir is another limitation. This situation arouses from material things and time limitation. It is possible to mention the bias of social desirability from the leading problems related to attitude scales as a limitation in thesis study. It is considered that the use of the questionnaire in the experimental study may have produced this result.

In this study, it was measured workers' safety intentions. It is critical to state that to measure safety intention is another limitation for this study.

In this study poster was used as medium. Thus, the use of different media in order to measure the effects of fear appeal is recommended for future studies. Fear appeal was used as a type of emotional appeal in this study. The utilize of another emotional appeal type such as shock appeal is recommended for future fear appeal studies. This study has been performed in İzmir. Accordingly, the fear appeal studies in future may be performed in different cities. Finally, this study focuses on workers who work under heavy conditions. In this direction, the future studies in the field of fear appeal may be consisted of different groups.

It is quite apparent that the choice of a work safety poster that does not involve extreme severe physical disability relating to work accident would be more appropriate and also effective in terms of workers' perceptions, attitudes and intentions to safety. Even though fear appeal poster campaigns are generally

considered as most commonly countermeasures, work safety posters that utilize strong fear appeal can lead to that workers feel uncomfortable. When workers are uncomfortable with the use of poster that involves severe physical disability and injury, recommended protective action (e.g. take measure) may be get rejected. If it is aimed that workers have intention to safety at workplace, managers should not benefit from the fear appeal poster that includes severe physical disability and/or harm or injury. It is possible to state that managers should tend to utilize milder fear appeal in work safety posters to promote health and safety at work.



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APPENDIX

ANKET FORMU

Değerli Katılımcı,

İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Pazarlama İletişimi ve Halkla İlişkiler Anabilim Dalı bünyesinde Doç. Dr. SELİN TÜRKEL'in danışmanlığı altında yürütülen yüksek lisans tezinde çalışanların iş sağlığı ve güvenliğine ilişkin görüş ve tutumlarının belirlenmesi amaçlanmıştır.

Bu anket formundan elde edilecek bilgiler, yüksek lisans tez çalışmamın araştırma bölümünde kullanılacaktır. Elde edilen bilgiler kişi bazında değil yığın olarak değerlendirilecek, tez çalışması dışında başka bir amaçla kullanılmayacaktır. Vereceğiniz bilgiler kişisel bazda kesinlikle gizli kalacak, hiçbir kişi ve kurumla paylaşılmayacaktır.

Araştırmanın geçerliliği açısından lütfen her soruyu okuyunuz ve mutlaka her soruyu cevaplayınız. Araştırmamıza katılarak çalışmamıza destek verdiğiniz için teşekkür eder, başarılı bir iş hayatı dilerim.

Saygılarımla,

Feyza Elif YASDIMAN
İEÜ. SBE, Pazarlama İletişimi
ve Halkla İlişkiler Anabilim
Dalı
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

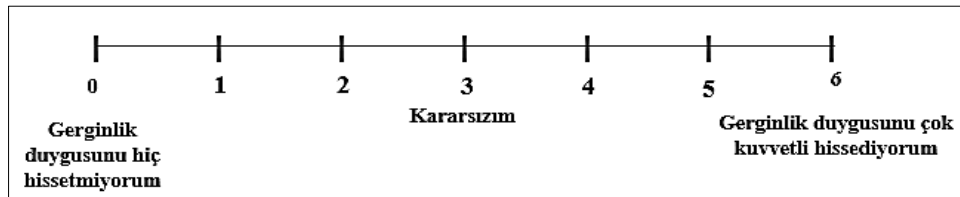
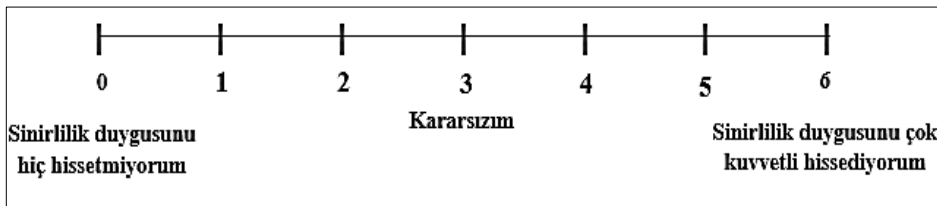
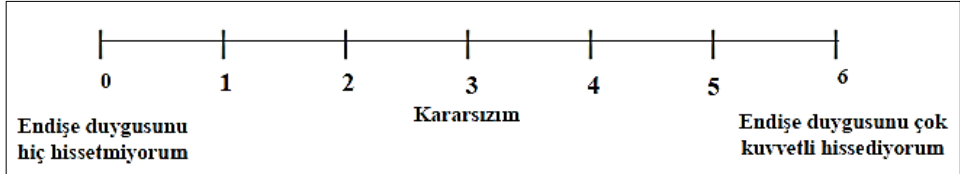
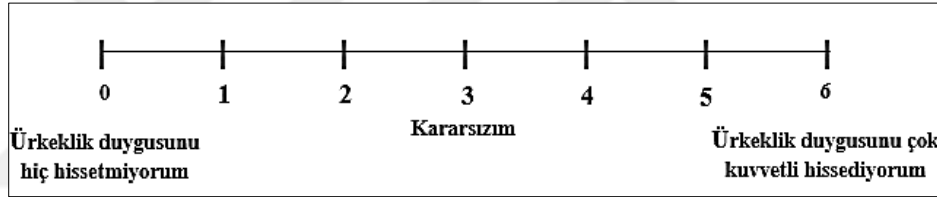
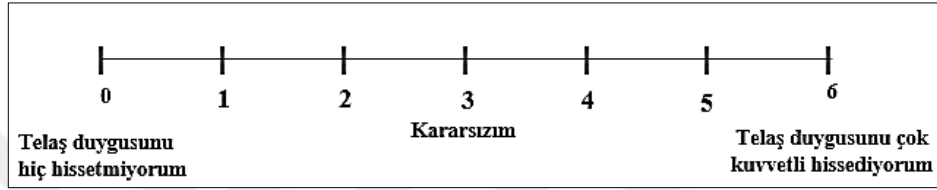
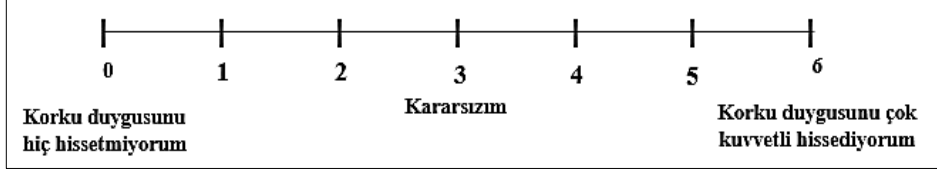
I. LÜTFEN AŞAĞIDAKİ İFADELERDEN HER BİRİNE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI UYGUN SEÇENEĞİ İŞARETLEYEREK BELİRTİNİZ.

İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Bilmiyorum
1.Hayatımızda olacak şeyler önceden belirlenmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
2.Yaşadığım her şeyin kendi davranışlarımın bir sonucu olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
3. Bazı nesnelere (nazar boncuğu, tütsü, şans yüzüğü vb.) koruyucu olduğuna inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
4. Başıma gelecek şeylerin kaderim olduğuna inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
5. Bazı nesnelere uğursuzluk getirdiğine inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
6.Geleceğimin gösterdiğim çabaya göre şekilleneceğine inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
7.İnsanların yaşamlarındaki mutsuzluklar kötü şanslarına bağlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
8.Yaşadığımız şeyler seçimlerimizin bir sonucudur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88

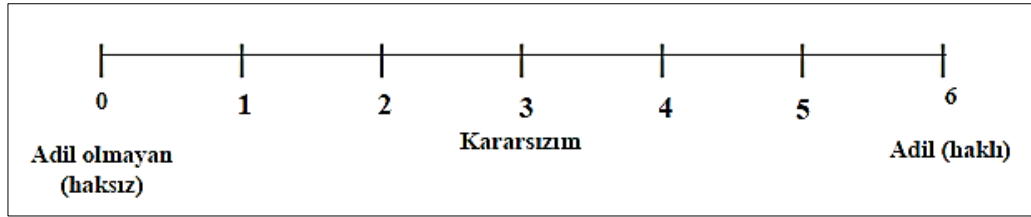
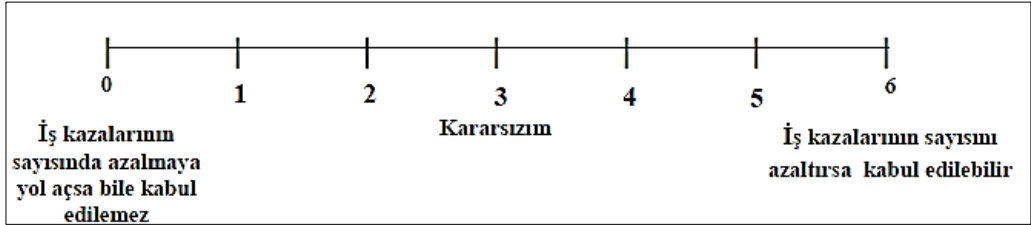
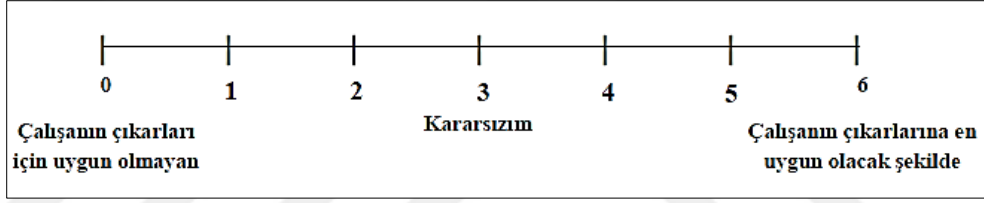
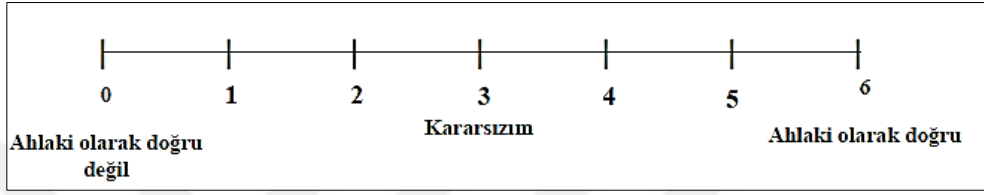
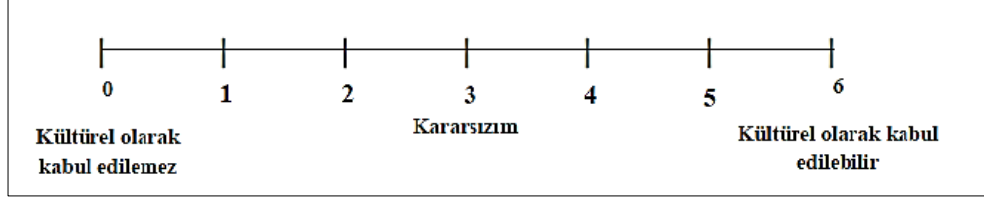
İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Bilmiyorum
9. Kötü şeylerin gelip beni bulduğuna inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
10. Bazı sözleri söylersem (cin, vb.) çarpılacağıma inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
11. Kendi irademle bazı şeylere yön verebileceğime inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
12. Kaderimde varsa hastalığa yakalanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
13. Bazı insanların doğuştan şanslı olduklarına inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
14. Hayatımın kontrolü benim elimdedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
15. Hiç kimse yazgısını değiştiremez.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
16. Kaderimin zaman zaman bana oyun oynadığını düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
17. Bazı ritüellerin (tahtaya vurmak, sağ ayakla odaya girmek vb.) koruyucu olduğuna inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88

İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Bilmiyorum
18. İstediğim bir şey olmayınca “kısmet değilmiş” derim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
19. Kaderimiz bizi nereye savurursa oraya gideriz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
20. Bazı davranışlarda bulunursam çarpılacağıma inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
21. İnsan kendi tercihlerini kendisi yapar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
22. Kaderimin hayatıma yön vermesine razı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
23. Bazı durumların (kara kedi görmek, gece tırnak kesmek, vb.) uğursuzluk getireceğine inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
24. Her iş olacağına varır diye düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88

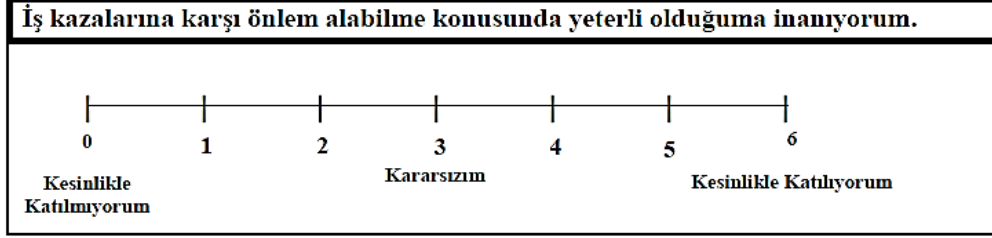
II. BİRAZ ÖNCE GÖRDÜĞÜNÜZ AFİŞİN MUHTEMEL (OLASI) ETKİLERİNİN SİZDE YARATTIĞI DUYGU NE DÜZEYDEDİR? LÜTFEN SİZİN İÇİN EN UYGUN OLAN NUMARAYI YUVARLAK İÇİNE ALARAK DEĞERLENDİRİNİZ.



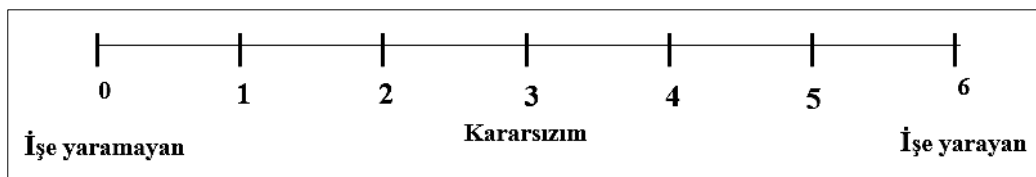
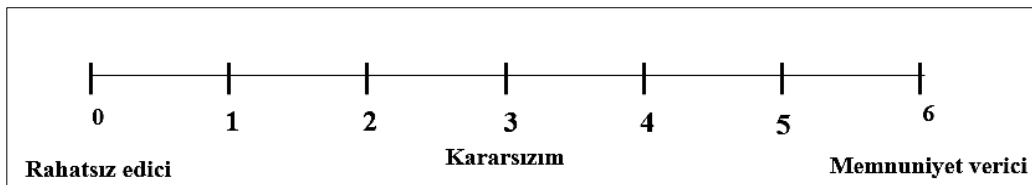
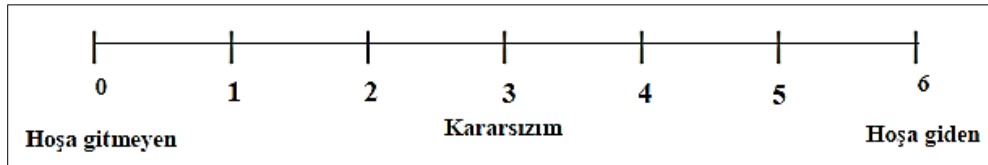
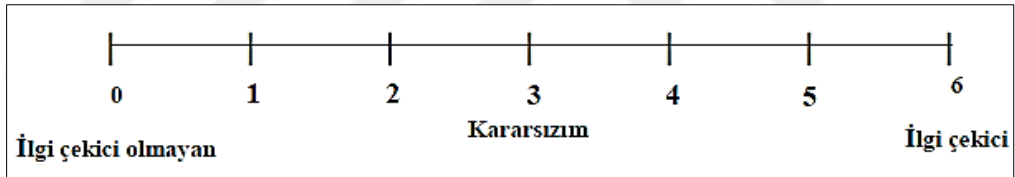
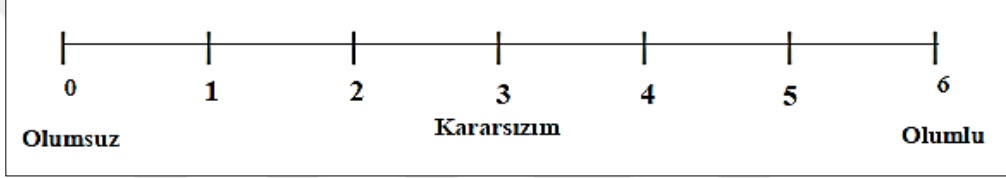
III. GÖRDÜĞÜNÜZ AFİŞİN İŞ YERİNDEKİ İLAN PANOSUNA ASILDIĞINI DÜŞÜNÜN. BU AFİŞİN İLAN PANOSUNA ASILMASINI NE ÖLÇÜDE DOĞRU BULUYORSUNUZ? LÜTFEN SİZİN İÇİN EN UYGUN OLAN NUMARAYI YUVARLAK İÇİNE ALARAK DEĞERLENDİRİNİZ.



IV. AŞAĞIDAKİ VERİLEN İFADEYE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI SİZİN İÇİN EN UYGUN OLAN NUMARAYI YUVARLAK İÇİNE ALARAK DEĞERLENDİRİNİZ.



V. GÖRDÜĞÜNÜZ AFİŞİ AŞAĞIDA VERİLEN SIFATLARA GÖRE DEĞERLENDİRİNİZ. (LÜTFEN SİZİN İÇİN EN UYGUN OLAN NUMARAYI YUVARLAK İÇİNE ALINIZ).



VI. LÜTFEN AŞAĞIDAKİ İFADELERDEN HER BİRİNE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI UYGUN SEÇENEĞİ İŞARETLEYEREK BELİRTİNİZ

İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Bilmiyorum
1. İşimi yaptığım esnada bütün gerekli güvenlik ekipmanlarımı kullanacağım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
2. İşimi yaparken uygun güvenlik prosedürlerini kullanacağım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
3. İşimi yaptığım esnada en yüksek güvenlik seviyelerini sağlayacağım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
4. İş yeri içinde güvenlik programlarımı teşvik edeceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
5. İş yeri güvenliğinin iyileştirilmesi için fazladan (ekstra) çaba harcayacağım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88
6. İş yeri güvenliğinin iyileştirilmesine yardım edecek görev ve aktiviteleri gönüllü olarak yapacağım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88

DEMOGRAFİK SORULAR

- 1. Cinsiyet**
 - a. Erkek
 - b. Kadın
- 2. Kaç yılında doğdunuz? ----- (YAZINIZ)**
- 3. Medeni Durumunuz**
 - a. Evli
 - b. Bekar
 - c. Boşanmış/Eşi vefat etmiş
- 4. Eğitim durumunuz yani en son bitirdiğiniz okul nedir?**
 - a. Okuma-yazma bilmiyor
 - b. Okuma-yazma biliyor ama okul bitirmemiş/diplomasız
 - c. İlkokul mezunu (5 yıl)
 - d. İlköğretim mezunu (8 yıl)
 - e. Genel ortaokul mezunu
 - f. Mesleki ortaokul mezunu
 - g. Genel lise mezunu
 - h. Mesleki lise mezunu
 - i. Üniversite veya yüksek okul mezunu
 - j. DİĞER (YAZINIZ)-----
- 5. Sizce haneniz hangi gelir grubunda yer alıyor?**
 - a. Alt
 - b. Ortanın altı
 - c. Orta
 - d. Üst orta
 - e. Üst
- 6. Şu anda sahip olduğunuz mesleğinizdeki tecrübenizin kaç yıl olduğunu belirtiniz(YAZINIZ)**
- 7. İşteki konumunuzu belirtiniz**
 - a. Çalışan
 - b. Şef
- 8. Çalışma hayatınız boyunca daha önce hiç iş kazasına uğradınız mı?**
 - a. Evet
 - b. Hayır
- 9. Çalışma hayatınız boyunca daha önce hiç ramak kala olay (az kalsın) başınıza geldi mi?**
 - a. Evet
 - b. Hayır