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CHANGES IN NUTRITION ATTITUDES AND KNOWLEDGE AS A FUNCTION OF SIMILAR AND EXPERT COMMUNICATION SOURCES AMONG THE GUSII OF. KENYA
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DISSERTATION
Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology in the Graduate School of Syracuse University,

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## _PREFACE

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## CHAPTER I

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND ON SIMILARITY AND EXPERTISE AS COMMUNICATOR VARIABLES INFLUENCING PERSUASION

The present study was designed to consider the impact of source expertise and source-receiver similarity on persuastipeness in a non-western culture. The study examined changes in nutrition attitudes and knowledge of Gusii secondary school students of southwestern kenya. Both "similarity" and "expertise" are components of the communication source. Kelman $(1958,1961)$ and McGuire (1969) postulate, three main communication source components: credibility, attractiveness and power. The credibility of the source has itself been.analyzed into two elements: expertise '(the extent to which the source is perceived as knowing the correct answers) and trustworthiness (the degree of confidence in the source's intent to communicate this knowledge objectively) (Hoviand, Janis and Kelley, 1953 and McGuire, 1969).

In a similar manner, McGuire has analyzed attractiveness in terms of liking, familiarity, and similarity (the extent to which the receiver perceives the source as similar to himself/herself.) Therefore, this study examined the expertise component of credibility, and the similarity component of attractiveness.

Studies of source expertise have found that respondents exposed to a message attributed to a high expert source show greater attitude change than respondents exposed to a medium expert source (Aronson, Turner and Carlsmith, 1963; Bochner and Insko, 1966) and respondents exposed to a high expert source show significantly greater attitude change than respondents exposed to a message attributed to a low expert source (Aronson and Golden, 1962; Bonchek, 1967; Johnson and Izzett, 1972; Johnson and Scileppi, 1969; Page, 1970; and Rhine and Severance, 1970).

In a communication setting where the expertise of the source is salient, the focus of the individual is on attaining the correct position on an issue.

The individual utilizes his/her pexception of the source's expertise as a cue to the "correctness" of the position advocated by the source. In contrast, where sourcereceiver similarity is present, the focus of the individual is on maintaining attitudes in agreement with some model, whether an individual or a group. The individual utilizes his/her perception of the source's similarity as a cue that they both share common needs and goals.

In discussing source-receiver similarity it is
useful to distinguish between attitudinal similarity and group-membership similarity. Similarity between source and receiver based upon commonly held attitudes has been shown to not only produce interpersonal attraction and liking for the similar person (Byrne, 1961), but also to have a positive effect upon attitude change (Berscheid, 1966). Berscheid found that a source with similar attitudes relevant to the message, produced greater attitudinal change than a source with dissimilar attitudes relevant to the message. This present study. however, focused on source-receiver similarities due
to group-membership or demography. It is presumed that the chief function of group-membership similarities is in serving as a form of indirect suggestion: Individuals receiving the message may then infer attitudinal similarities (eg. "since the speaker and I are both farmers, he must share my concern about . . .") (Simons, Berkowitz and Moyer, 1970, p. 2).

The finding in the area of source-receiver
similarity among such groups as young children (Duncker, 1938), primary school boys (Burnstein, Stotland and Zander, 1961). college students (Stotland and Patchen, 1961, and Mills and Jellson, 1968), and adult paint customers (Brock; 1965) is that source communicators who-are perceived to be high in similarity to their audiences tend to produce significantly greater attitude change in the direction of the source's position than source communicators who are seen as low in similarity. A problem arises when the source components of expertise and similarity are both simultaneously present in the comunication source. For example, a source who is both
high in expertise and low in similarity would gain persuasiveness from his/her high expertise, but lose persuasiveness from his/her low șimilarity. Conversely, a source who is low in expertise and high in similarity, would gain persuasiveness from his/her similarity, but lose persuasiveness from his/her lack of expertise (McGuire, 1969). Therefore, if the source components of expertise and similarity are both present, questions arise as to which component has the greater influence on persuasiveness, and as how the two variables might interact.

A number of studies among college students in
well-structured "laboratory-type" setitings (Aronson,
Turner, and Carlsmith, 1963; Bonchek, 1967; Haiman, 1949;
Mausner, 1953; Paulson, 1954; and Whittaker and Meade, 1968) compared sources which were authorities (high in expertise, Iow in similarity) with college students (low in expertise; high in similarity) and found that authorities produced greater attitude change than college students. In contrast, research among non-college populations in "natural environments" have found
authorities to be less persuasive than housewives (Katz and Lazarfeld, 1955) and less persuasive than neighbors and friends (Rogers and Meyner, 1965).

The difference in the findings may be due to a difference between the natural-field and classroomlaboratory situations in the reception of a communication message. In actual social settings, sociologists (eg. Katz and Lazarfeld, 1955) have repeatedly found. that people have little contact with those unlike themselves and are therefore, less exposed to authorities than to people like themselves. In contrast, the classroom-laboratory situation usually gives equal exposure to both expertise and similarity. Therefore, when the expert gets his/her message heard, (s) he has more impact than the non-expert, but in the natural community the expert is heard less than the non-expert (McGuire, 1969) and therefore, has less influence.

Field research by Rogers and Meyner (1965) adds support to this explanation: They report that in the adoption of an innovation (weed spray) among farmers
in Colombia neighbors, frienḍs and family were more persuasive than outside experts (extension agents) during the first three stages of the adoption process (awareness, interest and evaluation). But by the fourth (trial) stage, experts were found to be more persuasive than neighbors; friends and family. Therefore, it appears that the more a population has contact with authorities, the greater the saliency of the expertise component, with the consequent reduction in the saliency and influence of the similarity component. Hence, the school environment, and especially the university environment with its strong emphasis on authorities (egs. books and instructors), would influence the greater acceptance of expert opinion.

This present study, examined the persuasibility of secondary school students in Kenya. These students have not only completed seven years of primary school, but as secondary school students are in an environment that places great emphasis on the admiration and respect for authorities. Therefore, it is predicted that
secondary school students examined in a classroom setting, would be more influenced by the expertise component than the similarity component, that is, a source of high . expertise/low similarity would be more persuasive than a source of low exper, tise/high similarity.

One criticism of the studies cited above is that they examined only two source descriptions: high expertise/ low similarity and low expertise/high similarity. Therefore, it is not possible to determine whether expertise, similarity or some interaction of the two is the reason for the difference in persuasibility. This study, however, separated the effects of expertise and similarity from the interaction of expertise and similarity.

Attitude Chanqe and Knowledge Change
$\square$
In describing the source's impact" on his/her"
audience a distinction is made between the "evaluationperception" of the message and the "learning-retention" of its content. Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953) report that how a message is perceived and evaluated depends on
whether the source is perceived positively or negatively. A given message is judged as fairer, more factual, more thoroughly documented, its conclusions following more validly from its premises, and even more grammatical, when it.is ascribed, for example, to a high credible as opposed to low credible source (McGuire, 1969).

Though ample evidence has been presented demonstrating differences in attitudinal change due to source expertise and source-receiver similarity, evidence for differential learning or recall of the message content dúe to the attributed source variable is sparse. The general finding is that varying the attributes of the source does not lead to differences in knowledge change (i.e., increasing the receiver's knowledge of the message content.)

The lack of significant differences in knowledge change has been reported between high and low credible, sources (Anderson, 1966; Tompkins and Samovar, 1964), high and low trustworthy sources (Hovkand and weiss, 1951 and Hovland and Mandell, 1952), high and low expert
sources (Johnson and Scileppi, 1969 and Johnson and Izzett, 1972), and between high and low source-receiver similarity sources (Mills and Jellson, 1968). In all of the above mentioned studies attitude differences between groups were found (or no report of attitude change was made) at the same time that no significant knowledge differences between groups were reported. In contrast to the findings reported in the United States, Lord (1958) found among Ethiopian students that though education had increased their knowledge of science, their attitudes still remained non-scientific. Therefore, the findings of Lord as well as the American data on knowledge and attitude change- are both of interest in examining knowledge and attitude change in a non-western culture.

Sex Differences

Individual-difference characteristics interact with the communication source in effecting attitude change. The first-order effect of the demographic

## 11

variable of sex on attitude change has been extensively studied, but the results are inconclusive. Many studies report that females, are more persuasible than males. This is reported among high school students (Janis and Field, 1959 and King, 1959), college students (Hàiman, 1949; Littlejohn, 1970; Whittaker, 1965a and 1965b), and among Hindi speaking Indian graduate students (Singh, 1970).

Other studies found no significant difference in attitude change-scores between male and female respondents. This is reported by Andersen (1961), and Cherrington and Miller (1933), among college students; Abelson and Lesser (1959), among primary school students; and Rosenberg (1962) among five Israeli subcultures. In a cross-cultural study, Whittaker and Meade (1967), reported that females were more persuasible than males among American adolescents'and Hong Kong Chinese university students. But no significant sex differences were found among university students from the United States, Rhodesia, Brazil, 'Lebanon and Peru.

To explain the conflicting findings, Aronson (1972) proposed examining the topics of the communication messages. He suggested that people are more persuasible on topics that they do not care about or do not know about. Therefore, the studies which report that females are more persuasible than males may have considered topics in which men are more interested and/or more expert than women.

This present study examined nutrition attitudes.
If it can be assumed that female students are more interested and/or more knowledgeable about nutriṭion than male students, then according to Aronson's hypothesis male students should exhibit greater attitudinal change than female students. On the other hand, a prediction that females are more• persuasible than males would be hased on the notion that women (in Gusii society as well as in American society) are socialized to be more submissive and less skeptical than men, and are rewarded for submissiveness rather than assertiveness. Therefore, it is one of the goals of this study, to examine sex
differences as they pertain to nutrition attitudes and knowledge.

## Nutrition Studies

## Nutrition knowledge and attitudes were chosen

for investigation because of their central importance to the culture under study. Food and nutrition are both involved in many aspects of the life and values of the people in East Africa. Dietary practices in traditional and transitional societies ${ }^{1}$ differ notably from those in westernsocieties. In the developing nations of Africa the prevalence of malnutrition is due in part to the lack of knowledge about proper nutrition practices. The inse of experts and non-experts, varying in terms of both expertise and similarity, engaged in programs to inform people about proper nutrition highlights the relevancy and importance of the research.

The paucity of studies in all cultures concerning nutrition knowledge and attitudes is striking. Boyd (1943) developed a questionnaire for measuring food
${ }^{\prime}{ }_{A}$ further discussion of the terms "traditional,". "transitional" and "western" societies can be found in Dawson (1969).
practices among primary school children in Kentucky; and Doob (1972) conducted public health surveys in 1968 and 1970 among Ugandan secondary school students. Doob found students to be well informed concerning some aspects of public health and less well informed concerning mental illness. He also reported non-significant relationships between public health knowledge and sex, ethnicity, religion and acculturation.

Duncker (1938) conducted an experiment to try to modify young English children's food preferences. He found that other children were more effective persuasive agents than adults. Three studies under the direction of Kurt Lewin (1958, reprinted) reported that the group decision method was more effective than the lecture method in changing the food habits of housewives. An experiment by Bavelas, Festinger, Woodward and Zander (cited, 1955) studied the use of intestinal meats, another study by Radke and Klisurich (1947) investigated increasing the use of fresh and evaporated milk and a third experiment also by Radke and Klisurich (1947) involved persuading
mothers to supplement infant diets with orange juice and cod-liver oil.

Bennett (1955) evaluating the three Lewinian
studies found that the group decision method employed in these studies differed from the lecture method not only in terms of the channel variable (the means of conveying information), but in terms of three other variables. In an extensive study of the four variables that contribute to the Lewinian group decision method, Bennett reported that two of the factors, i.e., group decision as an influence technique and public committment, were found not to be essential to the reproduction of the results previously found by Lewin and his co-workers. However, the combination of the other two variables, the process of making a decision and the degree to which group consensus is obtained and perceived, together produced differences as large as those reported in the three Lewinian experiments. Therefore, in re-evaluating. -
the Lewinian results in terms of Bennett's findings, the "group-decision method" defined as "decision about
individual goals in a setting of shared norms regarding such goals" (Bennett, 1955, p. 272) is more effective than the lecture method in changing the food habits of housèwives.

In another study, Walbeck (1972) found among Colombian women that attendance at four weekly class meetings concerning nutrition produced significantly greater knowledge and attitude change than non-attendance at the class meetings.. However, no significant differences were found between the different types of nutrition class presentations.

Due to the lack of studies, no generalization can be made concerning knowledge and attitude change that focuses on nutrition in comparison to other content areas. It is hoped that the results of this study will contribute to a better understanding of the process of knowredge and attitude change in the area of nutrition.

A Brief Description of The Research Design

Numerous studies investigating communication source variables and sex variables have been cited. This doctoral dissertation study examined two levels of expertise (high and low) and two levels of similarity (high and low). Each of the four experimental treatment groups received the same written message which aimed to produce nutritionally-advantageous changes in nutrition knowledge and attitudes, while a control group did not receive any nutrition message.

In addition, within each experimental treatment
half the respondents received a written message attributed to a member of their own sex and half the respondents received a written message attributed to a member of the opposite sex resulting in a $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial design. After receiving the written communication, a questionnaire was given to all of the respondents, experimental and control, to measure the effect of source
expertise and source-receiver similarity on nutrition knowledge and attitudes.

## Hypotheses

On the basis of the preceding discussion, the following hypotheses were proposed.

- 1. Respondents receiving a message on nutrition (the sixteen experimental conditions) will exhibit attitudes significantly closer to the position advocated by the communication sources than respondents not receiving a nutrition message (the control conditions).

2. Respondents receiving a message on nutrition (the sixteen experimental conditions) will exhibit significantly greater knowledge scores than respondents not receiving a nutrition message (the control conditions).
3. Respondents in the high expertise condition
will exhibit significantly greater attitude scores than respondents in the low expertise condition.
4. Respondents in the high similarity condition. will exhibit significantly greater attitüde scores than respondents in the low similarity condition.
5. Respondents in the high expertise/low similarity condition will exhibit significantly greater attitude scores than respondents in the low expertise/high similarity condition.
6. No significant differences are expected among experimental conditions in terms of knowledge scores.
-7. If females (males) prior to receiving a message are more knowledgeable about nutrition than males (females), which would be determined by the performance of the, control groups, then males (females) in the experimental conditions will exhibit significantly greater attitude scores than females (males).
7. If similarity of sex is perceived as the most salient dimension of the source, then males will be more influenced by a male source, and females will be'more influenced by a female source.
8. If the sex of the nutrition expert is perceived as the most salient dimension of the source, and if nutrition experts are perceived as female, then
both males and females will be more influenced by a female source than by a male source. Comparable results will occur if nutrition experts are perceived as being male.

## CHAPTER II

## METHOD

## Respondents:

The respondents in the study were 184 female and 178 male Gusii secondary school students. Based upon a survey of secondary schools in Kisii District, it was, decided that the population of the study would consist of lower-level (Form I and Form II) students from harambee (self-help) secondary schools. It was found that health science, which includes nutrition, is studied, either formally as a school subject, or informally by the students on their own time, in Forms III and IV. Therefore, the populatifon was restricted to Forms I and II. It was also discovered that almost half of the students at government secondary schools were non-Gusii, therefore, the research did not examine students from , government schools, but only at private, self-help harambee schools. Hence, the final restricted population

# of Forms 

ensured of population of ethnically homogeneous students who had not studied nutrition.

The Preliminary Phase of the Research

Since the content of the communication message
was on nutrition, the first phase of the research was to obtain information about the nutrition practices of the Gusii of Kenya. Discussions were held with Kenya's chief nutritionist in Nairobi, and with the provincial nutritionist of Nyanza Province in western Kenya.

At the time this preliminary work was being conducted, the Institute for Development Studies, of the University of Nairobi, was forming a "Nutrition Study Group" to work on the problems of malnutrition in Kenya. This writer was invited to join the Nutrition Study Group. Discussions with doctors, nutritionists. and other nutrition researchers at meetings of the Nutrition Study Group were helpful during this stage of the research. Also at this time, the writer presented
a working paper of the proposed research (Feldman, 1973) at a seminar of the Institute for Developmentístudies. Discussions held at this seminar also proved to be helpful.

In Kisii District, the district of the research, meetings were held with the two government nutritionists working in the district. One of the nutritionists was working at the district hospital, and the other nutritionist was working at a rural health center. Consultations were also made with Gusii biology and health science teachers.

## Development of Research Materials

The second phase of the research was the development of research materials. A group of 22 Gusii secondary school students in Kisii District ${ }^{1}$ were asked to elicit a list of similarity and expertise characteristics. Then the researcher in conjunction with a number of Gusii research assistants greatly expanded the list of characteristics. Additional lists were also made of
${ }^{1}$ It should be noted that all phases of the research were conducted in classrooms in Kisii District among Gusii .harambee secondary school students.
attitude statements and knowledge questions about nutrition.

The expanded lists of similarity and expertise characteristics were then given to another sample of 42 Gusii students. They were asked to decide for each similarity characteristic, whether a person having this characteristic was similar or different from them. In the same fashion, for each expertise characteristic they were asked to decide whether a person having this characteristic was or was not an expert in nutrition. For each characteristic the degree of expertise and similarity was measured on a five-point scale.

Form of the Attitude Questionnaire

Results from this sample seemed to indicate that the respondents were having difficulty utilizing a five-point attitude scale. Therefore, another sample was chosen and given the expertise characteristics, with , 19 students receiving a five-point scale and 15 students. receiving a three-point scale. Sixty (60) expertise
characteristics made up each questionnaire form. With five alternatives, the expected value of each alternative is 12. It was decided that if a respondent chose an
alternative 50 percent or less of the expected value, i.e., six or less times, then this was an indication that the respondent was not utilizing all of the alternatives.

Of the 19 respondents receiving the five-point scale, six respondents chose two alternatives 50 percent or less of the expected value, strongly demonstrating that they were not. utilizing all of the alternatives. A seventh respondent did not choose one alternative even once out of 60 items, and an eighth respondent appeared to demonstrate a diagonal response pattern (A-B-C-D-E). Therefore, $8 / 19$ or 42 percent of the respondents who received a five-point attitude scale. demonstrated difficulty utilizing the five-point scale.

In contrast, of the 15 respondents receiving a three-point scale, only one respondent or seven percent. chose one alternative 50 percent or less of the expected
value, i.e., ten or less times. It, therefore, appeared that the students have difficulty using a five-point scale. They had not experienced attitude scales and were not used to making such fine distinctions.

## Examining nutrition attitudes, it was also found

 that the students tended to choose the "agree" response more than the other two, responses, "neither agree' nor disagree" or "disagree." This acquiescence or "yea-saying" may have been due to their inexperience with attitude questionnaires or to the form of the questionnaire. In an attempt to reduce this type of response bias, two forms of attitude questionnaires were administered to another sample.Thirty-three (33) respondents'receifed the
conventional attitude form, with "a,b,c," written to the right of the attitude statement. The attitude form was balanced with 16 respondents receiving the version where "a" was "agree," " $\dot{b}$ " was "neither agree nor disagree," and " $c$ " was "disagree" and 17 respondents receiving the balanced version where "a" was "disagree,"
"b" was "neither "disagree nor agreé," and "c" was "agree."

A simpler and less confusing form, especially
for students who have never responded to an attitude questionnaire, was also administered. In this form each of the three possible alternatives were clearly "written-out." For example:

I like -
(a) soda better than juice.
(b) them both the same.
(c) juice better than soda.

The respondent was asked to choose the letter with the sentence that (s) he most agreed with, by putting a circle around the letter $a, b$, or $c$. This attitude form was also balanced with 16 of the 31 respondents receiving the above version, and 15 of the 31 respondents receiving the version where (a) and (c) were reversed. That is, I like -
(a) - juice better than soda.
(b) them both the same.
(c) soda better than juice:

Combining both balanced versions within each form
over 35 questionnaire items produced different results for each questionnaire form. Excluding blanks, the "a," $b, c$ " form resuilts were: 460 ( 41 percent) agrees, 277. ( 25 percent) neutral, and 394 ( 35 percent) disagrees. Excluding blanks, the "written-out" form results were: 400 ( 37 percent) first/third alternative, 272 (25 percent) second (neutral) alternative, 407 ( 38 percent) third/first alternative. In both forms, 25 percent of the responses were the neutral or midgle response. Though both forms were counter-balancepd, the first form, the "a, b, c" form, produced greater "agree" responses than "disagree" responses ( 41 percent versus 35 percent). That is, there were slightly more "agree" responses than "disagree" responses regardless of whether" "a" was "agree" or "c" was "agree." Therefore, it appears that the "a, b, c" form tends to elicit slightly greater response bias. The "written-out" form produced about an equal number of polar responses ( 38 percent versus 37 percent).

More importantly, in debriefing sessions with the students who had utilized the ."a, b, c" form and the "written-out" form; the general opinion was that the "written-out". form was clearer, less confusing and easier to understand. A greater degree of consensus of responses was also more apparent among respondents to the "written-out" form than to the "a, b, c" form. Based on these findings, the "written-out" form was utilized in the remaining phases of the research.

The Empirical Determination of Similarity and Expertise

After piloting determined the optimum form of the attitude questionnaire, the next phase of the research was to determine which characteristics the stüdents perceived as high in similarity, medium in similarity, and low in similarity to themselves. Seventy-three (73) similarity characteristics were given to a sample of 70 students. The 70 students consisted of 36 male and 34 female. The students were given the following instructions:

For each characteristic, you may feel that the person having this characteristic is:-
(a) similar to you
(b) a little similar and a little different to you
(c) different to yous

Then they were asked to circle the appropriate letter for each characteristic. The questionnaire was balanced with approximately half the students receiving the above version and the remaining students receiving the alternate version with
(a) different to.you
(b) a little different and a little similar to you

- (c) similar to you.

In determining which similarity characteristics were perceived as being either similar, neutral, or different to the respondents, the first basic criterion was that over 50 percent of the respondents had to. classify the characteristic the same. It was found that none of the characteristics were classified as neutral (a little similar and a little different) by 50 percent of the respondents. Therefore, a second criterion was utilized, which was that the characteristic had to be
classified into one category by at least 55 percent of the total respondents, with less than 20 percent of the respondents classifying the characteristic in the polar opposite category. For example, for the tribe characteristic "Gusii" to be accepted as a high similarity characteristic, more than 55 percent of the respondents would have to have classified "Gusii" as "similar" with less than 20 percent of the respondents classifying Gusii as different.

A third criterion for acceptance was that for each class of characteristics, at least one characteristic must be chosen as similar and one characteristic be chosen as different. For example, for the class, tribe, if. Gusii (tribe) was chosen as similar, then another tribe (eg. Masai) would have to have met the second criterion as different (i.e., 55 percent classifying Masai'as different and less than 20 percent classifying it as similar) for both Gusii and Masai to be accepted. In order to obtain a consensus on similarity among the various groups, a fourth consensus criterion
was formulated. At least 50 percent of each group (males, females, Form I and Form II) would have to classify the characteristic alike with fewer than 25 percent classifying the characteristic in the opposite direction.

Based on these four criteria, five classes of similarity characteristics were found: tribe, religion, place of birth, language knowledge, and age.

In a similar manner, expertise characteristics were determined. Sixty (60) expertise characteristics were given to a sample of 82 students. The 82
students consisted of 40 males and 42 females. The students were given the following instructions: For each of the characteristics^ Iisted below, how would you consider this person:-
(a) Knows very little about human nutrition
(b) Knows some about human nutrition
(c) Knows very much about human nutrition.

Then they were asked to circle the appropriate letter for each characteristic. The questionnaire was balanced with half the students receiving the above version and
half the students receiving the alternative version with (a) and (c) reversed, that is.
(a) Knows very much about human nutrition
(b) Knows some about human nutrition
(c) Knows very little about human nutrition.

As with the similarity characteristics, none
of the expertise characteristics were classified as medium in expertise (i.e., knows some about human nutrition) by 50 percent of the respondents. Therefore, the main criterion for acceptance, was that at least 55 percent of all respondents had to classify the characteristic in one, category, with less than 20 percent of the respondents classifying the characteristic in the polar opposite category. For example, if a world Health Organisation doctor was classified by more than 55 percent of the respondents as someone who knows very much about human nutrition, and'was classified by fewer than 20 percent of the respondents as someone who knows very little about human nutrition, then the World Health Organisation doctor would be accepted as someone who is high in expertise.

As with the similarity characteristics, another criterion was that at least 50 percent of. each group (males, females, Form I and Form II) would have to classify alike the characteristic with fewer than 25 percent classifying the characteristic in the opposite direction.

Unlike the similarity characteristics, the expertise characteristics were not grouped into classes. But, in deciding which characteristic to accept, another criterion was proposed: Since the final communication source description was to be a description of a supposedly real person, the set of characteristics making up the description had to make sense together. Therefore, expertise characteristics which fitted all of the above criteria and which together formed a coherent reasonable description were chosen.

After setting the criteria•for similarity and expertise, and determining which characteristics met these criteria, a large set of characteristics was found. Four classes of similarity characteristics strongly met
the criteria, and a fifth class, age, moderately met the criteria. In determining an expertise description, groups of four or five characteristics-made coherent reasonable descriptions. Therefore, two problems had to be solved: (1) Which of the accepted characteristics should be used? For example, for the tribal characteristics, 52 respondents chose Masai as different, and eight chose Masai as similar. And 49 respondents chose Kuria as different and six chose Kuria as similar. Therefore, which tribe should be used as different, Masai or Kuria?
(2) Would a description consisting of five characteristics be stronger than a description consisting of four characteristics?

In order to solve these two problems, 14 similarity descriptions made up of either four or five characteristics with different combinations of tribal and religious characteristics, and eight expertise descriptions made up of either four or five different characteristics were given to another sample of 195 students.. The general finding from this phase of the research, was that
descriptions containing five characteristics produced stronger results and showed greater consensus than descriptions containing four characteristics.

For example, respondents given the four characteristics of dissimilar (different) descriptions chose different as the appropriate alternative 58 percent of the time (two percent chose similar), while the respondents given five characteristics (age: over 30 years, being the fifth characteristic) of dissimilar (different) descriptions chose different as the appropriate alternative 72 percent of the time (two percent chose similar). Therefore, the number of characteristics chosen for the descriptions was five rather than.four. That is, high and low, similar and expert descriptions, all contained five characteristics. The characteristics that had the strongest responses, and which were chosen for the final source descriptions are listed below. A summary table of the responses to the four source descriptions are in Appendix A.

The characteristics of the high similar source were:
Tribe: Gusii
Place of Birth and Grew Up in: Kisii District
Language:, EkeGusii
Religion: Christian
Age: Under 30 years old.
The characteristics of the low similar source were:
Tribe: Masai
Place of Birth and Grew Up in: City of Nairobi
Language: Masai
Religion: not a Christian
Age: Over 30 years old.
The characteristics of the high expert source were:

1) World Health Organisation Doctor
2) Teaches human nutrition at a nutrition college
3) Wrote a textbook on human nutrition
4) Worked at Kenyatta Hospital in human nutrition
5) Taught human nutrition at Kenyatta Hospital

The characteristics of the low expert source were:

1) Clothing Shopkeeper
2) Helped a shopkeeper in a clothing shop
3) Been a trader
4) Been a farmer
5) Worked in a coffee processing factory *

It should be noted that the similarity descriptions and the expertise descriptions were examined separately. In the final phase of the study, the similarity descriptions and the expertise descriptions were combined.

The Development of the Message

The next phase of the research was the development
of a communication based on the deficiencies in the studdents' knowledge of proper nutrition and a message advocating nutritious foods for which the students hold negative attitudes. Therefore, a large battery of knowledge questions and attitude statements were given to samples of students.

A set of knowledge questions were given to a sample of 65 students. . For a knowledge question to be accepted, at least $2 / 3$ of the total sample had to answer. the question incorrectly. In, addition, a second criterion was formulated that at least 60 percent of each group (males, females, Form I and Form II) had to answer the question incorrectly. After selecting the questions,
it was found that only 19 percent of the selected questions were on the-average answered correctly, that is, 81 percent of the selected questions were answered incorrectly or not answered.

Attitude statements were given to a sample 70 students. For an attitude statement to be selected, fewer than 25 percent of the total sample had to agree with the statements. A second criterion was that fewer than 30 percent of each group (males, females, Form I and Form II) had to agree with the statement for it to be accepted. After selecting the statements, it was found that an average of 13 percent of the statements were agreed upon by the total sample.

After obtaining all of the acceptable knowifage questions and all of the acceptable attitude statements, the next step was to develop a communication on a single topic. That is, to develop a message on a topic which the students both lacked knowledge (as demonstrated by incorrect answers on the knowledge questions) and held negative attitudes (as demonstrated by themattitude
statements on food preferences.)
An informational (non-emotional) message was written about the vitamin content of fresh fruits and vegetables that are found in Kisii District. Another sample of 67 students received a copy of the message, to determine whether the message was readable and easy to understand. Of the 67 students, 31 students received the message together with knowledge questions about the message. Results of their post-message responses showed that 78 percent of the questions were answered correctly. The remaining 36 students did not receive the knowledge questions until they had read the written message and the message was removed from them. That is, they answered the questions without the message in view. In this condition, 71-percent of the questions were answered correctly.
, It, therefore, appeared that on the average, the students were able to comprehend and learn the information of the message based upon the result that approximateiy 75 percent of the questions were answered.correctly
(th e-range of individual questions answered correctly was from 43 percent to 88 percent). It should be noted that the message was read by the students without a source associated with the message.

Minor word modifications were made in the message and a "dry-run" of the final phase of the study was conducted. This dry-run was helpful to familiarize the administrators with the final phase of the study and with the materials and the procedures. Materials ${ }^{1}$ and Setting

A sample of 362 Form I and Form II harambee secondary school students-took part in the final phase of the research. There were 331 experimental respondents and 31 control respondents. The students attended four secondary schools in Kisii District. Male and female respondents were randomly assigned to either a control group, which did not receive a communication message or to one of eight experimental treatments:
(I) high similar/high expert/male,
(2) high similar/high
$1_{\text {The }}$ communication materials are found in
Appendix B.
expert/female, (3) high similar/low expert/male, (4) high similar/low experfe/female, (5) low similar/high expert/ male, (6) low similar/high expert/female, (7) low similar/low expert/male and (8) low similar/low expert/ female. That is, the communication source varied in: terms of high or low similarity, high or low expertise, and whether the sex of the source was male or female. Each of the eight experimental treatments consisted of about 40 respondents ( 20 male and 20 female). ${ }^{1}$ The control.group of 31 respondents consisted of 15 male and 16 female respondents.

Since each source description contained both a.
similarity description and an expertise description, the manner in which the source was described was controlled. That is, within each of' the eight experimental treatments, half of the descriptions had the similarity description first and the expertise description second while the other half had the expertise description first, and the similarity description second.

The data for all the experimental and control respondents are found in Appendix $C$.

Since both attitudes and knowledge were being measured, to control for a possible primacy and/or recency effect; after reading the message, half of the respondents received the attitude statements first knowledge questions second and the remaining half of the respondents received the knowledge questions first attitude statements second. The attitude statements were presented in the "written-out" form and were balanced, that is, half of the respondents received the statements with the alternatives "(a)" and "(c)" reversed.

## Classroom Procedure

An administrator ${ }^{1}$ went into each classroom and 30 students were randomly selected: 28 experimental respondents and two control respondents. The students were spread out as far as possible within each classroom. The administrator introduced himself and told the students that he was interested in finding out how they felt about various topics and that they were going to read some materials.

Then three pages were distributed to each of the
28 experimential respondents. All of the materials
received by the respondents (experimental and control)
were numbered. This was to enhance the students'
belief that each student received a unique set of materials. On page one of the first set of materials was a short introductory statement, on page two was the description of the source, fand on page three were further instructions. The two control respondents, at the same time, received either the attitude statements or the knowledge questions.

After the experimental respondents finished reading the three pages, they received a one page written message about proper nutrition. The description of the source remained with the respondents as they read the message.
'After the experimental respondents read the message, both the message and the source description were collected. It took approximately ten minutes to read the message. After the message and"source
description were collected the experimental respondents received either attitude statements or knowledge questions. After the experimental and control respondents finished filling out one section (either attitude or knowledge) then this section was collected. Next, they received the second section (either knowledge or attitude). Since all of the materials were numbered, this ensured that each respondent received both attitude statements and knowledge questions:

After the second section was collected, a third section, or set of materials were distributed. This third section consisted of statements of behavioral intent and background information about the respondents. In adaition, the experimental respondents received statements concerning (1) their perception of the source's similarity to them, (2) their perception of the source's expertise in the area of nutrition, (3) their evaluation of the source (in terms of cleverness (i.e., how smart), likeability, honesty and believability), and (4) their evaluation of the message (in terms of
whether the message made sense and was easy to understand). These statements were presented. in the "written-out". form and were balanced, that is, half of the respondents received the statements with the alternatives "(a)" and "(c)" reversed. The experimental respondents also received a set of questions intended to test whether they could correctly identify the source in terms of sex, ethnicity (similarity dimension), age (similarity dimension), present occupation (expertise dimension), and former occupation (expertise dimension).

After all of the students completed the last section, the students were thanked for taking part in the study and explained the nature of the research. Shortly after the study was completed all of the schools, including the schools which took part in the piloting and exploratory phases of the study, received a variety of books for their school libraries as a way of thanking them for taking part in the investigation.

## RESULTS

A sample of 362 respondents (331 experimental
and 31 control) received attitude statements, knowledge questions, and message and source evaluation materials. The attitude section consisted of 17 attitude statements. The possible range of scores was from 17 to 51 ; the obtained experimental conditions scores ranged from 21 to 51 with a mean score of 38.7 and standard deviation of. 6.6. The Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability equalled .77.

The knowledge section consisted of 17 knowledge questions. The possible range of scores was from 0 to 17; the obtained scores from the experimental conditions ranged from 2 to 17 with a mean of 10.3 and a standard deviation of 3.3. The Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability equalled . 71 .

## Experimental versus Control

To test the difference between experimental and control conditions Dunnett's t statistic (Winer, 1971, p. 201) was employed. Each comparison was made between the lowest experimental group score and the appropriate control group. For each sex there were eight experimental groups (similarity (2) by expertise (2) by sex of source (2)) and one control group. Examining attitude scores among male respondents resulted in a significant difference ( $t=5.0, \underline{d f}=8, \underline{p}<.005$. ). The attitude difference between female experimental and control respondents was also signifićant with $\pm=3.2, \underline{d f}=8$, p<.005: The knowledge difference between male experimental and control respondents was significant with $t=6.9$, df $=8, \underline{p}<.005$. The knowledge difference between - experimental and control female respondents was also significant with $t=5.9$, $\underline{d f}=8, p<.005$. Therefore, the difference between the experimental conditions and the control conditions were significant for both male
and female respondents in both attitudes and knowledge; thus hypotheses one and two were confirmed.

## Validation of Independent Variables

The independent manipulations were source-receiver similarity, source expertise and sex of source. A chisquare analysis was employed to test whether the high similar treatment condition was perceived as higher in source-receiver similarity than the low similar treatment condition. The result was significant with $\underline{x}^{2}=18.2$, $\underline{d \underline{f}}=2, \underline{p}<.001 .^{1}$

To test whether the high expertise treatment condition was perceived as higher in source expertise than the low expertise treatment condition a chi-square analysis was used. .The result was significant with $\underline{x}^{2}=31.6, \underline{d f}=2, p<.001 .^{2}$

A chi-square analysis was also employed to test whether the respondents correctly identified the sex of the source. -The result was significant with $\underline{x}^{2}=151.4$, df $=1, \mathrm{p}<.001$. Therefore, the respondentis (i) perceived the high similar source higher in similarity than the low
$l_{\text {The }}$ high similar source was perceived higher in similarity than the low similar source.
${ }^{2}$ The high expert source was perceived higher in expertise than the low expert source.
similar source, (ii) perceived the high expert source higher in expertise than the low expert source and (iii) correctly identified the sex of the source. Hence, the independent variables were successfufly manipulated and validated.

## Experimental Results--Attitudes

To determine the statistical significance and contribution of each of the independent treatment variables, as well as the interaction of the variables, the 'general linear hypothesis model was employed. Utilizing the BMDO5V program (Dixon, 1970) the following results were obtained for attitudes (see Table 1).

Sex of subject was a significant factor. Male
subjects had higher attitude scores than female subjects (the male mean score was 39.6 and the female mean score was 37,8$){ }^{1}$

Since the male students came from two predominantly male schools ${ }^{\text {and }}$ the female students came from two predominantly female schools, an examination was made

[^0]
## Table 1 <br> Summary Analysis of Attitude Change General Linear Hypothesis

| Variable | df | SS | MS | F | $\omega^{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Similarity (A) | 1 | 52.1 | 52.1 | 1.3 |  |
| Expertise (B) | 1 | 69.1 | 69.1 | 1.7 |  |
| Sex of Source (C) | 1 | 54.1 | 54.1 | 1.3 |  |
| Sex of Subject (D) | 1 | 290.5 | 290.5 | 7.0** | . 017 |
| A X B | 1 | 201.8 | 201.8 | 4.8* | . 011 |
| A XC | 1 | 66.7 | 66.7 | 1.6 |  |
| A X D | 1 - | 10.4 | 10.4 | <1.0 |  |
| B XC | 1 | 123.5 | 123.5 | 3.0 |  |
| B X ${ }^{*}$ | 1 | 18.5 | 18.5 | <1.0 | - |
| C.X D | i | 25.9 | 25.9 | <1.0 |  |
| A X B X C | 1 | 110.5 | 110.5 | 2.7 |  |
| A $\dot{X}$ B X D | 1 | 19.9 | 19.9 | <1.0 |  |
| A X C X D | 1 | 31.0 | 31.0 | $<1.0$ |  |
| B XCX C | 1 | 136.7. | 136.7 | 3.3 |  |
| A XBXCOXD | 1 | 86.7 | 86.7 | 2.1 |  |
| Error | 315 | 13148.2 | . 41.7 |  |  |
| $\text { * } \mathrm{p}<.05$ | 慗 |  |  |  |  |
| ** pr. 01 |  |  |  |  |  |

to determine whether the sex difference held across schools (see Table 2). An analysis of a school effect for attitude scores was significant, $E=3.2$, $\underline{d f}=3 / 327$, p <.025: No school effect was found for knowledge scores, $E=1.2, ~ \underline{d E}=3 / 327$, n.s.

No significant difference was found between the twö male schools and no significant difference was found between the two female schools. The higher scoring male school was significantly different from both the female schools, and the lower scoring female school was significantly different from both the male schools. Though the lower scoring male school had a higher mean attitude score (39.2) than the higher scoring female school (38.1), the difference was not significant.

Therefore, though the difference befween the male and female subjects may be due to a sex difference. Therefore, the difference between the male and female subjects. may be due to a sex difference or to a school difference. The results from the general linear hypothesis model failed to confirm hypotheses three and four, that

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    Table 2
Differences in Sex-School Attitude Mean Scores
Tested by Duncan's New Multiple Range Test
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| Male School-1 | Male School-2 | Female School-1 | Female School-2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\bar{x}=40,519$ | $\overline{\mathrm{x}}=.39 .174$ | $\overline{\mathrm{x}}=38.144$ | $\overline{\mathrm{x}}=36.735$ |
| - $(\mathrm{N}=54)$ | $(\mathrm{N}=109)$. | . $(\mathbb{N}=111)$ | ( $\mathrm{N}=49$ ) |

DIFFERENCE Male Sch-1 Male Sch-2 . Female Sch-1 Female Sch-2
Male Sch-1
1.345 2.375 *
3.748**

Male Sch-2 $\qquad$ 1:030
2.439*

Female Sch-1 $\qquad$ 1.409

Female Sch-2
1
-
*p< 0.05
** ${ }^{\mathrm{p}}<.01$
is, there was neither a first-order effect for expertise nor for similarity (see Figure-1).

A similarity by expertise interaction effect, however, was evident. To determine the source of the effect Duncan's New Multiple Range Test (Kirk, 1968, p. 93) was employed to examine all pairwise comparisons among the means (see Table 3). The Low Similar/High Expert condition and the High Similar/Low Expert condition showed significantly greater mean scores than the Low Similar/Low Expert condition. Though the High Similar/High Expert condition mean score was greater than the Low similar/Low Expert condition's mean score, it did not reach . 05 level of significance. It did however reach the . 10 level of significance. The relationship between these means is shown in Figure 1. The results from Duncan's test therefore failed to confirm hypothesis five, that is, there was no significant difference between the High Similar/Low Expert condition and the Low Similar/High Expert condition.


Figure 1. Attitude scores as a Eunction of Similarity and Expertise

Table 3
Similarity $\times$ Expertise Attitude Mean Scores
Testied by Duncan's New Multiple Range Test


* $\mathrm{p}<.10$
** .p<. 05


## Experimental Results--Knowledqe

The general linear hypothesis model was utilized in determining knowledge score results (see Table 4). No significant results were found and hypothesis six was confirmed. It should also be noted that no significant knowledge difference was found between the male and female control groups, t<1.0, df $=1 / 29$, n.s., therefore, the antecedent clause of hypothesis seven was not satisfied, and thus, it is not possible to test hypothesis seven.

Deqree of Association

The relationship or degree of association among
the different variables was examined. The two main dependent variables under investigation were attitudes and knowledge. The Pearson correlation between attitudes and knowledge was $\underline{x}=.48$, which was significant, $p<.001$. Statements concerning behavfioral intent were also examined and the Pearson correlation between attitudes and behavioral intent was significant with $\pm=.52, p<.001$.

## Table 4

Summary Analysis of Knowledge Change
General Linear Hypothesis

nos.

and the Pearson correlation between knowledge and behavioral intent was significant with $\underline{r}=.28$, $p<.001$. In Appendix $D$ the point-biserial correlations between attitudes and knowledge, and perception of similarity, perception of expertise, source evaluation, message evaluation, and knowledge of source are shown. The general finding is that perception of expertise, source evaluation, message evaluation, and source knowledge are all significantly and positively related to both attitude and knowledge scores. Perception of similarity, however, is not significantly related to either attitude or knowledge scores.
-Appendix $E$ presents the relationship between the independent-variables (source-receiver similarity, source-expertise, sex of source, and sex of subject) and the dependent variables concerned with source and message evaluation and perception (perception of similarity, perception of expertise, source evaluation, message evaluation, and knowledge of source).

As reported above in the discussion of the manipulation of the independent variables, the high similar source was perceived to be higher in similarity than the low similar source, and the high expert source was perceived to be higher in expertise than the low expert source. It was also found that the high expert source and the high similar source were evaluated higher in terms of source evaluation than the low expert source and low similar source, respectively. That is, the high expert source and the high similar source were evaluated in terms of the four-item evaluation list as being more clever (smarter), more likeable, more honest and more believable than the low expert source and the low similar source, respectively.

> Perceived similarity was not related to sex of source for either male or female subjects. That is, male subjects did not perceive the male source as being more similar than the female source for all values (3) of perceived similarity, $\underline{x}^{2}=3.2, \underline{d f}=2, n, s$. and for the recoded (high versus low) values, $x^{2}=2.6, ~ d f=1$, n.s.

## 61

Female subjects did not perceive the female source as being more similar than the male source for all values (3) of perceived similarity, $\underline{x}^{2}=1.3, ~ d f=2, ~ n . s . ~ a n d$ for the recoded (high versus low) values, $\underline{x}^{2}=0.6$, df $=$ 1, n.s. Therefore, sourcè-receiver similarity due to sex was not perceived as a salient dimension and the antecedent clause of hypothesis eight was not satisfied, and thus, it is not possible to test hypothesis eight.

Also, according to Appendix $E$, no significant relationship was found between sex of source and perceived expertise for all values of perceived expertise (3), $\underline{x}^{2}=0.2, \underline{a f}=2$, n.s., and for the recoded (high versus low) values, $\underline{x}^{2}=0.1$, $\underline{d f}=1$, n.s. That is, male sources were not perceived as knowing more about nutrition than female sources, and female sources were not perceived as knowing more about nutrition than male sources. Therefore, the sex of source was not related to nutrition expertise and the antecedent clause of hypothesis nine was not satisfied, and thus, it is not possible to test hypothesis nine.

Appendix F presents the relationship between the source and message evaluation and perception variables. The results of chi-square analyses show that all of the variables, except knowledge of source, are significantly related to each other.

## order and Form Effects

To control for a possible order effect, each source description was balanced. That is, half the descriptions had the similarity description first expertise description second and the remaining half had the expertise description first similarity description seeond. No significant difference in order effect on. attitude scores was found, $t=0.2, \underline{d f}=329$, n.s. Also, no significant difference in order effect on knowledge scores was evident, $\underline{t}=0.8, \underline{d f}=329, \mathrm{n} . \mathrm{s}$. Both attitudes and knowledge were measured. To control for a possible order effect, half of the respondents received the attitude statements first knowledge questions second and the remaining*half of the respondents received the knowledge questions first
attitude statements second. A significant order effect was found with attitude scores, $\underline{\text { w }}=3.0$, $\underline{\text { df }}=329$, $p$ .005 and a significant order effect was found with knowledgé scores, $t=4.1$, $\underline{d f}=329$, $\mathrm{p}<.005$.

In both cases a primacy effect was found. The respondents who received the attitude statements first had higher mean attitude scores (39.8) than the respondents who received the attitude statements second (37.6). The respondents who received the knowledge questions first had higher mean knowledge scores (11.1) than the respondents who-received the knowledge questions second (9.6). For all subjects the correlation between attitudes and knowledge was .48. For subjects who received attitude measure first/ knowledge measure second the correlation between attitudes and knowledge was .55. For subjects who received the knówledgé measure first/attitude measure second the correlation between attitudes and knowledge was .53.

Testing the difference between the two independent correlations (i.e., between the attitude first/knowledge
second group and the knowledge first/attitude second group) was not significant, with $\underline{z}<1$. Therefore, the order of the measures did not effect the correlations between the variables.

In addition, the form of the attitude statements was balanced with half the respondents receiving the statements with the alternatives "(a)" and "(c)" reversed. No form effect was found with $t=1.1$, $\underline{d f}=329$, n.s. Also, a third set of materials, statements concerning perception of source similarity, perception of source expertise, source evaluation, message evaluation and behavioral intent were also balanced with half of the respondents receiving the statements with the alternatives "(a)" and "(c)." reversed. None of these statements showed a form effect.

Therefore, the materials, as a whole, exhibited no form effect, and no order effect was found for source description. However, a strong attitude/knowledge order effect was found. A primacy effect was evident with higher scores on the first set of materials (eitther
attitudes or knowledge) than on the second set of materials.

## Other Results

Since the respondents of the study were students from the first and second year of secondary school, an analysis was done to determine whether a significant difference existed between first and second year students in terms of mean attitude and knowledge scores. No significant difference was found for attitude scores, $t=0.8, \underline{d}=329$, n.s. and no significant difference was found for knowledge scores, $t=0.5$, $\underline{d f}=329$, n.s.

An examination was made of the contribution of
all of the variables of the study in determining attitude and knowledge scores. An overall multiple regression equation for determining attitude scores using 16 variables was found to be significant, $E=2.65$, $\mathrm{d} f=$ 16/314, p<.001. Knowledge of source (SOURCEKN), attitude/ knowledge order (ORDATKN), and sex of subject (SUBJSEX) were all found to make significant contributions (see Appendix G). The total amount of variance explained
by the multiple regression equation (total $R$ square) equalled 0.12.
'An overall multiple regression equation for determining knowledge scores using 14 variables was also found to be significant, $\underline{F}=4.29, \underline{d f}=14 / 316$, p<.001. Attitude/knowledge order (ORDATKN), message evaluation (MESEVAL), knowledge of source (SOURCEKN), and sex of subject (SUBJSEX) were all found to make significant contributions (see Appendix H). The total amount of variance explained by the multiple regression equation (total $R$ square), equalled 0.16 .

The source and message evaluations and perceptions were recoded to binary values and new multiple regression equations were determined. Using 15 variables an overall multiple regression equation for determining attitude scores was found to be significânt, $\underline{E}=3.39, \underline{d}=15 / 315$, p<.001. 'Attitude/knowledge order (ORDATKN), message evaluation (MESEVAL), sex of subject (SUBJSEX), and knowledge of source (SOURCEKN) made significant contributions (see Appendix I). The total amount of
variance explained by the multiple regression equation (total $\beta$ square) equalled 0.14 .

Using 16 variables an overall multiple regression equation for determining knowledge scores was found to be significant, $F=3.86$, $\underline{d f}=16 / 314$, $p<.001$. Attitude/ knowledge (ORDATKN), perception of source expertise (EXPPERC), message evaluation (MESEVAL), and knowledge of source (SOURCEKN) made significant contributions . (see Appendix J.) . The total amount of variance explained by the multiple regression equation (total $R$ square) equalled 0.16. Therefore, in general, multiple regression equations for both attitudes and knowledge explain less than 20 percent of the variance.

## CHAPTER IV

## DISCUSS ION

The primary object of this study was to assess the influence of source-receiver similarity and source expertise on knowledge and attitude change in a nonwestern society. The general findings in the area of attatude change in western societies are; (i) the greater the perceived similarity of the source to the receiver, the greater the attitudinal change toward the position advocated by the source and (ii) the greater the perceived expertise of the source, the greater the attitudinal change toward the position advocated by the source.

The results for this study report neither a main effect for similarity nor for expertise. However, a similarity-by-expertise interaction was found. A source which was both low in similarity and low in expertise induced less attitude change than sources which were either low similar/high expert, high
similar/low expert, or high similar/high expert. The failure to obtain similarity and expertise main effects does not weaken the results of the study because (i) the interaction of similarity and expertise had not been previously reported, and therefore, it was not known whether main effects would appear when both similarity and expertise characteristics were present, and (ii) the similarity-by-expertise interaction found in this study was readily. interpretable and consistent with past attitudinal research.

In terms of expertise, if a low expert was also highly similar, than the source was as influential as a high expert source. That is, Gusii secondary school. students were persuaded comparably by a non-expert (clothing shopkeeper) Gusii as by a doctor (whether high or low similar).
'In terms of similarity, if a low similar source was at the same time an expert, than the source was as influential as a high similar source. That is, Gusii secondary school students were persuaded comparably by
a non-Gusii (Masai) doctor as by a Gusii communicator (whether high or low expert). In other words, for Gusii s'econdary school students an outsider was significantly influential if the outsider was an expert. If the communicator were an insider, then his/her degree of expertise was apparently irrelevant. Therefore, it appears that a source having at least one favorable attribute (i.e., high similarity and/or high expertise) is at advantage in changing the attitudes of Gusii secondary school students.

Past, studies have not reported similarity-byexpertise interactions. A study by Aronson and Golden (1962) , however, closely approximates a similarity-byexpertise approach. Their subjects were white sixthgrade American students. Their sources varied in terms of expertise (high - engineer, low -- dishwasher) and race (white versus black). If it can be assumed that. the white students perceived the white communicator to be more similar than the black communicator (Aronson and Golden's measure of the students' prejudice to
blacks seems to confirm this) then this study examines the similarity-by-expertise interaction.

Aronson and Golden fail to report and/or compute the results of significant tests on main effects, that is, expertise and race (similarity). However, they do mention that the engineer (high expert) induced greater attitude change than the dishwasher (low expert), but do not report whether the difference was significant.

They do report no significant differences between the high similar/high expert (white engineer) and either the high similar/low expert (white dishwasher) or the low similar/high expert (black engineer). They also report no significant difference between the high similar/low expert and the low similar/high expert. These were the same results reported in this study (see Table 3).
'Significant differences were found between the low similar/low expert and the other three sources, that is, the high similar/high expert, low similar/high expert and high similar/low expert. Hence, the findings
in the Aronson and Golden study are in the same direction as this study--the significant findings in both studies were the same, however, the level of significance differed. In conclusion, if a source has at least one favorable quality (either high similar and/or high expertise) then the source is likely to induce more attitude change than a source with no favorable qualities (low similar and/or low expertise.)

## Degree of Association

A high degree of association between attitude change and perception of expertise, source evaluation, message evaluation, and knowledge of source was found. These results can be interpreted in terms of cognitive dissonance theory, as proposed by Festinger and Aronson (1968). Dissonance is produced when an individual receives a message discrepant from the individual's position. Alternative modes of dissonance reduction are (i) attitude change, (ii) derogation of the source, (iii) derogation of the message, (iv) changing the
source's attitudes and (v) seeking social support.
In this study, as in most attitude change studies, "changing'the source's attitudes" and "seeking social support" were unavailable modes of dissonance reduction since the receivers of the message were not allowed/ unable to communicate with either the source or other people. Therefore, according to cognitive dissonance theory, the only available modes of dissonance reduction was attitude change or derogation (or devaluation).

A significant positive relation was found between attitudes and perception of expertise, source evaluation, message evaluation and knowledge of source. That is, the higher the attitude score, the higher the evaluation of the source and message. Respondents with lower postcommunication attitude scores tended to evaluate both the source and the message lower than respondents with higher attitude scores. That is, the lower attitude scoring respondents, may have tended to utilize devaluation or derogation of the source and message as a mode of dissonance reduction more than the higher attitude
scoring respondents. Therefore, the relationship between attitude change scores and source and message evaluation or derogation found in this study is also consistent with a cognitive dissonance interpretation.

This relationship is also consistent wịth a stimulus-response-reinforcement approach. This approach views source characteristics and message content as stimuli, and attitudes as responses. Attitude change (response) occurs when the stimuli are associated with incentives. To quote Insko, "The persuasive communication may provide incentives in the form of arguments or reasons why the advocated point of view should be accepted, or the persuasive communication may arouse expectations of phenomena that are reinforcing (incentives) or that in the past have been associated with reinforcement" (1967, p. 14).

Sources which are evaluated highly (i.e., high expert and/or high, similar sources), are sources which have been associated with positive reinforcement. For example, to quote Insko; "Since experts are thought of
as usually being right, and since the expectation of being right has been associated with reinforcement, conclusions advocated by expert sôurces will, other things being equal, be more readily accepted than conclusions advocated by nonexpert sources" (1967, p. 14). . An equivalent argument could be used for similar sources. Therefore, stimulus-response theory would conclude that greater attitude change would occur with higher evaluated sources (i.e., sources associated with positive reinforcement) than lower evaluated sources. Hence, this relationship can be interpreted in terms of stimulus-response theory.

Sex-School Differences
A significiant main effect for sex was found Gusii male secondary school students exhibited higher at,titude scores than Gusii female secondary school students. However, upon further investigation it seems that the difference between the male and female students may * be due to either a sex difference or to a school difference.

## Past research examining sex differences has

 reported either that females are more persuasible than males (egs. Janis and Field (1959) and King (1959)), or no significant differences in persuasibility between males and females (egs. Andersen (1961) and Abelson and Lesser (1959)). The trend from this study, however, differs from these findings.In explaining why females may be more persuasible than males in American society, Aronson suggests, "This is probably because, in our society, women are socialized to be more submissive and less skeptical than men, and are rewarded for submissiveness rather than assertiveness" (1972, p. 80). In Gusii society women are also socialized to be more submissive and less skeptical than men. Therefore, the reported trend that Gusii males were more persuaded than Gusii females cannot be explained due to sociálization, since Gusii males are not socialized to be more submissive and less skeptical.

- Feldman (1972) examining traditional-modern
attitudes between male and female lower level (Form I
and Form II) Gusii secondary school students reported no significant sex differences. Therefore, the difference between male and female persuasibility cannot be explained due to any differential in modernization of attitudes.

In a further examination of male and female persuasibility, Aronson (1972) suggests that people may be more persuasible on topics that they are less knowledgeable or less interested. ${ }^{1}$ The message content in this study was based upon an extensive piloting of the knowledge of male and female students. The message content was based upon questions that were incorrectly answered by both male and female students. Also, no significant differences were found in knowledge scores between male and female control subjects. Therefore, the difference between male and female attitudes cannot be attributed to differences prior to the communication, or in fact to differences after reading the message, since no significant sex difference wäs found for knowledge scores of the experimental groups. Hence,
${ }^{1}$ Interest in the topic under consideration was not examined, therefore, no conclusions can be made whether male and female students differed in terms of interest in nutrition.
comparison of male and female Gusii socialization, modernization and knowledge do not readily explain differences in persuasibility. Therefore, the discussion returns to the examination of school differences.

All of the secondary schools were self-help
harambee schools in Kisii District and all of the teachers at these schools were African. In examining the schools for any apparent differences, it was noticed that of the four secondary schools, the lower scoring female school had the largest number of non-Gusii
students and was the geographically closest to Masailand (the low similar source was Masai). It was found that the lower scoring female school students were persuaded least by the Masai source of the four schools. Their mean attitude score for the low similar Masai source was 35.5 , compared with $38.2,38.8$, and 39.1 for the other three schools.

It is possible that female Gusii students
exposed to other ethnic/tribal groups in a competitive school situation responded to this situation by being
less open, to a persuasive communication from a low similar Masai source. However, this argument does not explain the lack of a significant difference in overall sources between the two female schools (the other female school had few non-Gusii students and was geographically furthest from Masailand of the four schools). Therefore, a thorough explanation at this point would be speculative due to the lack of data and information on this issue. .

Order of Attitudes and Knowledae

A significant order effect was found. Respondents
who received the attitude statements first had higher attitude scores than respondents who received the attitudes second, and respondents who received the knowledge questions first had higher knowledge scores thian respondents who received the knowledge questions second. Therefore, it appears that measurement of the first dependent variable (either attitudes or knowledge) and/or the passage of time interferes with the responses
on the second measure. That is, measuring both attitudes and knowledge results in the possible proactive inhibition of the second variable by the first variable...

Past studies measuring both attitudes and
knowledge have usually measured attitudes first and knowledge second (Hovland and Mandel (1952), Hovland and Weiss (1951), Johnson and Izzett (1972), Johnson and Scileppi (1969), Kelman and Hovland (1953), and Tompkins and Samovar (1964)): Mills and Jellison (1968) studying the effects of source similarity measured knowledge first and attitudes second and still reported the usual similarity finding.

Few studies have reported the effect of varying the order of the two measures in the same study. Miller and Campbell (1959) examined attitude/knowledge order. and reported no order effect. Insko (1964), however, found attitude/knowledge order effected knowledge, but not attitudes. Respondents who received the knowledge section first/attitude section second had higher knowledge scores than respondents who received the attitude section
first/knowledge section second. Therefore, no generalization can be made from the different findings of Miller and Campbell, and Insko. Since this research produced a third finding, it is clear that attitude/knowledge order is a methodological problem that needs further investigation.

## Summary

The effects of source-receiver similarity and source expertise on nutrition attitudes and knowledge were examined among Gusii secondary school students in Kenya. No differences in knowledge scores among the various experimental groups were found. Neither a similarity main effect nor an expertise main effect was found for attitudes. However, a similarity-by-expertise interaction was found. The low similar/low expert communication source was less persuasive than either the low similar/high expert source, high similar/low expert source or high similar/high expert source.

A main effect for sex of subject was reported.
Male students had higher attitude scores than
female students. However, upon further examination it seems that the difference between the male and female students may be due to either a sex difference or to a school difference.

The order of the measurement of attitudes and knowledge was balanced and an order effect was found. Respondents who received the attitude statements first had higher attitude scores than respondents who received the attitude statements second, and respondents who received the knowledge questions first had higher knowledge scores than respondents who received the knowledge questions second.

## Implications

Nutrition attitudes and knowledge were chosen for investigation because of their central importance to Kenyan society. The prevalence of malnutrition is due in part to the lack of knowledge about proper nutrition practices. In any program to improve nutrition practices, an essential element is nutrition education.

The question that arises is what is the most effective means of transmitting nutrition education, that is, who would be the most effective communication source of proper nutrition practices?

This research reported that a low similar/low expert source was less persuasive than either a low similar/high expert source, high similar/low expert source, or high similar/high expert source. But the attitude scores of the students receiving a message from the low similar/low expert source were still significantly greater than the control group which did not receive any message at all. This research did not contain a group of respondents who received a message and no communication source description. Therefore it is not possible to ascertain the effect of the message by itself. But the research did examine eight. different sources (similarity (2) by expertise
(2) by sex of source (2)) given to two different populations (male and female) and found significant differences (that is, improvement) in both attitudes and knowledge
scores between each of the sixteen experimental groups and the two control (male and female) groups. Therefore, based on this study, the following recommendations are made. To improve the attitudes and knowledge of Gusii/Kenyan secondary school students it is essential to communicate a nutrition message. A general improvement in attitudes and knowledge will be achieved by any source (differing in similarity, expertise and sex). However, the greatest degree of attitude change will be achieved by a source which has at least one positive attribute, that is, a source which is either high in expertise and/or high in similarity:


APPENDIX A
,
PERCEPTION OF SIMILARITY AND EXPERTISE CHARACTERISTICS BY GUSII STUDENTS 0

## Perception of Similarity Characteristics

| Description | Similar | Neutral | Different |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| High Similar. | 12 | 2 | 0 |  |
| Low Similar | 0 | 5 | $\cdots$ | 0 |

## Perception of Nutrition Knowledge (Expertise)

| Description | High | Medium | Low |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| High Expert | $\cdots 23$ | 1 | 1 |
| Low Expert | $\cdots$ | 3 | $\cdots$ |

## APPENDIX B

COMMUNICATION MATERIALS

Introduction: People have many beliefs about food and human nutrition. You are going to read about a person. Also, you are going to read about the food and nutrition beliefs of that person.,

## ONE OF THE SOURCE DESCRIPTIONS

A person is described below. Read the following description of the person carefully.

## Description of a Person

She is a Gusii by tribe. She was born and grew up in Kisii District. She speaks EkeGusii. She is a Christian. She is undér 30 years old.

She is a World Health Organisation doctor. She teaches human nutrition at a nutrition college. She• wrote a textbook on human nutrition. She worked at Kenyatta Hospital in human nutrition. She has taught human nutrition at Kenyatta Hpspital.

ONE OF THE SOURCE DESCRIPTIONS
A person is described below. Read the following description of the person carefully.

## Description of a Person

He is a clothing shopkeeper. He has helped a shopkeeper in a clothing shop. He has been a trader. He has been a farmer. He has worked in a coffee processing factory.

He is a Masai by tribe. He was born and grew up in the city of Nairobi. He speaks Masai. He is not a Christian. He is over 30 years old.

You have read a description of a person. Be sure you know exactly who this person is. If you do not remember who this person is, then please read again the description of the person.

- Below is a passage. This passage is about the food and nutrition beliefs of the person you read about. Read the passage carefulily.

In Kisii District there are many healthy foods which are cheap to buy. For example, guavas which are a good source of vitamin A and vitamin C, are cheap to buy. Of the fruits found in Kisii District, guavas are one of the most healthy fruits. Guavas have more vitamin $C$ than oranges, lemons or pineapples. A very good source of vitamin A is pawpaw. Pawpaw has more food value than sugar cane. Though oranges, bananas, and pineapples are good sources of vitamin $A$, pawpaw is a better source. All of these fruits are easily found in Kisii District and are cheap to buy.

Other good sources of vitamin A are deep yellow coloured vegetables. It is most healthy to eat deep yellow coloured vegetables evéry day. Deep yellow coloured vegetables have more vintamin A than light yellow coloured vegetables. Sweet potatoes (amarabwani) which are deep yellow in colour have more vitamin A than posho (obokima) made from maize. Carrots and pumpkins are other examples of deep yellow vegetables that are good sources of vitamin A. English potatoes, however, are a poor source of vitamin A. .

Another way to stay healthy without spending a lot of money, is to eat guavas, pawpaw, oranges, and lemons that are locally grown rather than drinking squash drinks or sodas such as coca cola and fanta. Fruit juices (omochununu bw'amatunda) also have more food value than soda or squash drinks. Sodas, squash drinks and sweets contain lots of sugar and are poor in food value. If a person eats a lot of sugar, he may get tooth decay. Children often get tooth decay from eating sweets. Sugar, however, does not cause malaria.

Therefore, to get the right amount of vitamin $A$ and vitamin $C$ without spending a lot of money, $\underset{\sim}{f}$ person should eat fresh fruits and deep yellow vegetables that 'grow in Kisii District.
toren

Please answer the questions below.
You will find a choice of answers in each question. Put a circle around the letter A, B, C, or $D$ to show' which answer you think is best.

Example. Which is the capital of Kenya?
(A) Mombasa
(B) Kampala
(C) Nairobi
(D) Kisumu

Correct Answer is C.

1) Bananas are a good source of -
(A) Riboflavin
(B) Vitamin A
(C) Vitamin Bl
(D) Fat
2) Of the following fruits, which has the most food value?
(A) Guavas
(B) Lemons
(C) Oranges
(D) Pineapples
3) English potatoes are -
(A) A good source of vitamin
A. (B) A good source of fat
(c) A good source of protein
(D) A poor source of vitamin A
4) Pumpkin is a good source of -
(A) Vitamin A
(B) Vitamin C
(C) Vitamin Bi
(D) Iron
5) Squash drinks -
(A) Can make you strong
(B) Have lots of food vaiue
(C) Are poor in food value (D) Have vitamin C
6) Of the following, which colour of fruits and vegetables
would haye the most vitamin A?
(A) Violet
(B) White
(C) Light yellow
(D) Deep yellow
7) Soda -
(A) Can make you 'strong (B) Is poor in food value
(C) Has vitamin $C$ (D) Has lots of food value
8) Guavas are a good source of -
(A) Riboflavin
(B) Iron
(c) Fat
(D) vitamin $A$
9) If a person eats a lot of sugar, he may get
(A) Tooth decay
(B) Malaria
(C) Tetanus
(D) Polio
10) Sweet potatoes are a good source of -
(A) Vitamin Bl
(B) Protein
(C) Vitamin A
(D) Fat
11) Of the following, which has the most vitamin $A$ ?
(A) Bananas
(B) Lemons
(c) Pawpaw
(D) Pineapples
12) It is most healthy to eat deep yellow coloured vegetables -
(A) Once a week
(B) Every day
(C) Many times a month
(D) Once a month
13) Oranges are a good source of -
(A) Vitamin A
(B) Vitamin B1
(C) Iron
(D) Protein
14) Of the following, which has the most vitamin $C$ ?
(A) Oranges
(B) Lemons
(C) Pineapples.
(D) Guavas
15) Carrots are. a good source of -
(A) Vitamin Bl
(B) Vitamin A
(C) Vitamin $C$
(D) Iron
16) Guavas are a good source of -
(A) Fat
(B) Vitamin Bl
(C) Vitamin $c$
(D) Protein
17) Pineapples are a good source of -
(A) Fat.
(B) Vitamin Bl
(C) Niacin
(D) vitamin $A$

How do you feel about food? Below you will find sentences with three possible choices. Pick the letter with the sentences you most agree with by putting a circle around the letter $a, b$, or $c$.

Note: This is not a test. THERE ARE NO RIGHT NOR WRONG. ANSWERS .
(a) Swahili books better than English books..
(b) them both the same.
(c) English books better than Swahili books.

- If you like Swahili. books better than English books, then you would put a circle around the letter 'a.'
- If you like them both the same, then you would put a circle around the letter 'b.'
- If you like English books better than Swahili books, then you would put a circle around the letter 'c.'

Remember: You are to choose only one letter for each sentence.

1) I like
(a) guavas better than pineapples.
(b) them both the same.
(c) pineapples better than guavas.
2) I like -
(a) oranges better than fanti orange soda.
(b) them both the same.
(c) fanti orange soda better than oranges.
3) It is -
(a) necessary to spend a lot of money in order to eat healthy foods.
(b) sometimes necessary to sperid a lot of money in order to eat healthy foods.
(c) not necessary to spend a lot of money
in order to eat healthy foods.
4) I like -
(a) lemons better than guavas.
(b) them both the same.
(c) guavas better than lemons.
5) I like
(a) carrots better than English potatoes.
(b) them both the same.
(c) English potatoes better than carrots.
6) I like -
(a) soda better than fruit juice.
(b) them both the same.
(c) fruit juice-better than soda.
7.) I like
(a) pawpaw better than pineapple.
(b) them both the same.
(c) pineapple better than pawpaw.
7) If a person has a lot of money -
(a) he should not buy sweets for his children.
(b) it does not matter whether he buys sweets for his children.
(c) he should buy sweets for his children.
8) I like -
(a) oranges better than guavas.
(b) them both the same.
(c) guavas better than oranges.
9) I like -
(a) coca cola better than pawpaw.
(b) them both the same.
(c) pawpaw better than coca cola.
10) I like
(a) deep yellow coloured vegetables better than light yellow coloured vegetables.
(b) them both the same.
(c) light yellow coloured vegetables better than deep yellow coloured vegetables.
11) I like -
(a) soda better than guavas.
(b) them both the same.
(c) guavas better than soda.
12) I like
(a) sweet potatoes with meat better than posho with meat.
(b) them both the same.
(c) posho with meat better than sweet potatoes with meat.
13) I like
(a) lemons better than fanta lemonade.
(b) them both the same.
(c) fanta lemonade better than lemons.
14) 

(a) I do not like to eat deep yellow vegetables every day.
(b) It does not matter whether I eat deep yellow vegetables every day.
(c) I like to eat deep yellow vegetables every day.
16). I like -
(a) squash drinks better than guavas.
(b) them both the same.
(c) guavas better than squash drinks.
17) I like
(a) pawpaw better than sugar cane.
(b) them both the same:
(c), sugar cane better than pawpaw.
I. You have'read about a person. Decide whether this person is similar to you, or a.little similar and a little different to you, or different to you.

Pick the sentence you most aqree with by putting a * circle around the letter $a, b$, or $c$.
(a) The person $I$ read about is similar to me.
(b) The perston I read about is a little similar and a little different to me.
(c) The person I read about is different to me.
II. Decide whether the person you read about knows very much about human nutrition, or knows some about human nutrition, or knows very little about human nutrition.

Pick the sentence you most agree with by putting a circle around the letter $a, b$, or $c$.
(a) The peŕson I read about knows very much about human nutrition.
(b) The person I read about knows some about human nutrition.
(c) The person I read about knows very little about human nutrition.
III.How do you feel about the person you read about? Below you will find sentences with three possible choices. Pick the letter you most agree with by putting a circle, around the letter $a, b$, or $c$.
i) The person I read about is -
? $\quad \therefore(a) \dot{\text { very clever. }}$
(b) a little clever.
(c) not clever. .
2) The person I read about is -
(a) very likeable.
(b) a little likeable.
(c) not likeable.
3) The person I read about is -
(a), very honest.
(b) a little honest.
(c) not honest.
4) The person I read about is -
(a) very believeable.
(b) a little believeable.
(c) not believeable.
IV. The passage you have read was about food and nutrition. How do you feel about the passage? Below you will find sentences with three possible choices. Pick the letter you most aqree with by putting a circle around the letter $a, b$, or $c$.

1) The passage -
(a) made very much sense.
(b) made some sense.
. (c) made-very little sense.
2) The passage -
(a) was easy to understand.
(b) was a little easy and a little difficult . to understiand.
(c) was difficult to understand.
v. Do you remember who is the person you read about? Answer each of the following questions by putting a circle around the correct answer.
3) The person I read aboute is -
(A) Male (B) Female
4) The person I read about is -
(A) Kuria
(B) Gusiii
(C) Luo
(D) Masai
5) The person I read about is a -
(A) Clothing Shopkeeper (B) New Teacher
(c) World Health Organisation Doctor (D) Biologist
6) The person I read about is -
(A) Under 30 years old (B) Over 30 years old
7) The person I read about has worked at -
(A) Kenyatta Hospital (B) A Primary School
(C) A Coffee Processing Factory
(D) A Hotel
VI. Now that you have read a passage about food and nutrition, what would you do? Below you will find sentences with three possible "choices. Pick the sentence you most agree with by putting a circle around the letter $a, b$, or $c$.
8) If I have extra money when I go to town -
(a) I would buy fresh fruits rather than squash đrinks or soda.
(b) I would buy either one.
(c) I would buy squash drinks or soda rather than fresh fruits.
9) If I have extra money when I go to town -
(a) I would buy pineapple rather than pawpaw.
(b) I would buy either one.
(c) I would buy pawpaw rather than pineapple.
10) When I feave secondary school -
(a) I will not spend a lot of money in order to eat healthy foods.
(b) I will sometimes spend a lot of money in order to eat healthy foods.
(c) I will spend a lot of money in order to eat healthy foods.
4). When I leave secondary school and if I have a lot of money -
(a) I will buy sweets for my children:
(b) I do not know whether I will puys sweets for my children.
(c) I will not buy sweets for my che fexten.

1 VII.Thank you very much. Would you please answer the following questions about yourself.

1) Your tiribe
2) Your Location $\qquad$
3) Your Sex
4) Your Form
5) Your Religion
6.) Your Age (Circle One) (a) Under 20 years (b) 20-25 years (c) 26-30 years (d) Over 30 years
6) Your place of Birth (Circle One) (a) Kisii District (b) Nairobi (c) Other $\qquad$


## Instructions for Reading Raw Data Table

Each line represents the responses of an individual respondent.

Column 1 is 5 for all respondents.
Column 2 represents school with values 3, 4, 5, 6.
Column 3 represents grade with l=Form I, 2=Form II.
Columns 4, 5, 6 represents ID number.
Column 8 represents similarity with l=High, 2=Low, 9=Control. Column 9 represents expertise"with 1=High, 2=Low, 9=Control. Column 10 represents sex of source with 1=Male, 2=Female, $9=$ Control.

Column 11 represents sex of subject with l=Male, $2=$ Female. Column 13 represents order of.source description with 3=similarity first/expertise second, 4=expertise first/similarity second, 9=control. Column 14 represents order of attitude/knowledge with 3=attitude first/knowledge second 4=knowledge first/attitude second.

Column 15 represents the form of the. attitude statements with 6=standard form, 7=reverse form " "a" and "c" reversed)

Column 16 represents the form of the third set of materials with 6=standard farm, 7=reverse form ("a" and "c" reversed). Columns 21-37 represents knowledge responses. To calculate the knowledge score for each respondent, first see Appendix B-Communication Materials where the correct knowledge answers are circled. Each correct answer is worth one point. Blanks and incorrect answers are worth zero points. Since there are 17 questions, the possible range of points is from 0 to 17.

> Columns 4l-57 represent attitude responses.

To calculate the attitude score for each respondent first see Appendix $\mathrm{B}^{--C o m m u n i c a t i o n ~ M a t e r i a l s ~ w h e r e ~}$ the nutritionally-advantageous attitudes are circled. This is the standard form (As) of the attitude statements. Blank responses are treated as neutral responses and given the value "2." Respondents who received the standard form have "6" in column 15. To determine the scores for respondents receiving the standard form the following transformation is necessary: in columns

41, 42, 45, 47, 48, 51, 53, 54, and 57 (i.e., where "a" is the nutritionally-advantageous response) change the response 3 to 1 , and the response 1 to 3 .

Respondents having a "7" in column 15 have the reversed form with "a" and "c" reversed. To determine their scores the following transformation is necessary: in columns $43,44,46,49,50,52,55$, and 56 change the responses 3 to 1 and the response 1 to 3. Now, for both the standard form and the reverse form, 3=nutritionallyadvantageous response, $2=n e u t r a l$ response, $1=n u t r i t i o n a l l y-$ disadvantageous response. Summing the 17 responses yields a possible range of scores from 17 to 51.

It should be noted that columns 58-70 refer to
items about the source and message. Since the control respondents did not receive source and message materials these items are blank for control respondents.

Columns 5'8-65 represent part of the third set of materials. Blank responses are treated as neutral responses and given the value "2." Respondents having a "6" in column 16 received the standard form (form A).

To determine their scores the following transformation is necessary: change the responses 3 to 1 and the responses 1 to 3. Respondents having a "7" in column 16 received the reverse form with "a" and."c" reversed. No transformation is necessary for these responses. Column 58 represents perceived similarity with 3=similar, 2=neutral, 1=different.

Column 59 represents perceived expertise with $3=$ knows very much, $2=$ knows some, $1=$ knows very little.

Columns 60-63 (four items) represent source evaluation with a possible range from 4 to 12; higher the score, the higher the evaluation.

Columns 64-65 (two items) represent message evaluation with a possible range from 2 to 6; the higher the scorethe higher the evaluation.

Columns 66-70 (five items) represent source knowledge, with a possible range from 0 to 5. To determine the score it is necessary to examine columns 8, 9, and 10 (source description).

Each correct identification receives one point. Columns•71-74 represent behavioral intent
responses. Blank responses are treated as neutral responses and receive the value " 2.0 To determine the score for respondents receiving the standard form ("6" in column 16) the following transformation is necessary: in columns 71 and 73 change the response 3 to 1 and the response 1 to 3. To determine the scores for respondents receiving the reverse form ("7" in column 16) the following transformation is necessary: in columns 72 and 74 change the response 3 to 1 and the response 1 to 3. Now, for both the standard form and the reverse form 3=nutritionally-advantageous behavioral intent, 2=neutral behavioral intent, l=nutritionally-disadvantageous behavioral intent. Summing the 4 items yields'a possible range of scores from 4 to 12 .

Column 75 represents religious affiliation with l=Christian, 2=non-Christian.

Column 76 represents age with $1=$ under 20 years, $2=20-25$ years, $3=26-30$ years, $4=0$ ver 30 years.

110
Column 77 represents place of birth with l=Kisii District, 2=Nairobi, 3=other.




Column $\frac{1}{542121}$ $\qquad$ 21
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APPENDIX D.
3

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEPENDENT VARIABLES *) TESTED BY POINT BISERIAL CORRELATIONS

## (a) All Values

Variable.
Perception of Similarity (3)
Perception of Expertise (3)
Source Evaluation (9)
Message Evaluation (5)
Source Knowledge (6)

Attitudes
.03
.14**
.13*
.15**
.19***

Knowledqe
-. 02
.18***
. 10
.19***
.17**
(b) Recoded (High versus Low Values)

Variable
Perception of Similarity
Perception of Expertise (2)
Source Evaluation (2)
Message Evaluation (2)
Source Knowledge (2)

Attitudes
$.07^{*}$
Knowledge
-. 02
.16**
.20***
.19***
.21***
.18***
.14**13*
( ) - number of values
*. p<. 02
** $\mathrm{p}<.01$
*** $\mathrm{p}<.001$

## APPENDIX E.

THE DEGREE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND SOURCE AND MESSAGE EVALUATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS TESTED BY CHI SQUARE ANALYSES

(a) All Values

Independent

| Measures | Dependent Measures. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | SIMPERC (3) | EXPPERC (3) | SRCEVAL (9) | MESEVAL (5) | SOURCEKN (6) |
| SIMILARITY (2) | 18.2*** | 4.4 | 18.9* | 6.9 | 8.6 |
| EXPERTISE (2) | 7.4* | 31.6*** | 24.7** | 5.8 | 5.6 |
| SEX OF SOURCE (2) | 0.7 | 0.2 | 11.9 | 5.5 | 5.2 |
| SEX OF SUBJECT ( 2 ) | 4.7 | 0.2 | 5.4 | 3.0 | 2.4 |

(b) Recoded (High versus Low Values) * p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001 Independent
Measures • Dependent Measures

|  | SIMPERC(2) | EXPPERC(2) | SRCEVAL(2) | MESEVAL (2) | SOURCEKN (2) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SIMILARITY (2) | $14.3 * * *$ | 3.7 | 5.6 | 1.0 | 3.7 |
| EXPERTISE (2) | 0.3 | $29.5 * * *$ | $.0 .0 *$ | 1.1 | 0.8 |
| SEX OF SOURCE (2) | 0.2 | 0.1 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 0.7 |
| SEX OF SUBJECT (2) | 2.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 0.3 |

SIMPERC - Perception of Similarity, EXPPERC - Perception of Expertise, SRCEVAL - Source Evaluation, MESEVAL - Message Evaluation, SOURCEKN - Source Knowledge () - Number of) Values

APPENDIX F -
THE DEGREE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN SOURCE AND MESSAGE EVALUATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS TESTED BY CHI SQUARE ANALYSES
(a) All Values

| - . | SIMPERC | EXPERC | SRCEVAI | MESEVAL | OURCEKN |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SIMPERC (3) |  | 18.7*** | * 44.0*** | 16.2* | 12.2 |
| EXPPERC (3) |  |  | 120.2*** | 24.6** | 10.3 |
| SRCEVAL (9) |  |  |  | 59.2** | 50.6 |
| MĖSEVAJ (5) |  |  |  |  | 18.6 |
| SOURCEKN (6) |  |  |  |  |  |

(b) Recoded (High versus Low Values)

SIMPERC EXPPERC SRCEVAL MESEVAL SOURCEKN
SIMPERC(2) $\quad 12.6 * * * 23.6 * * *$ 6.1* 0.0.

EXPPERC (2) $\qquad$ $52.9 * * *$ - $9.2 * * \quad 0.0$
SRCEVAL (2)
24.4***
0.0

MESEVAL (2)
0.5

SOURCEKN (2)

SIMPERC - Perception of Similarity
EXPPERC - Perception of Expertise
SRCEVAL - Source Evaluation
MESEVAI - Message Evaluation
SOURCEKN- Source Knowledge
*- p<. 05
** p<.01
*** p<. 001
( ) - Number of Values

KEY FOR INTERPRETING VARIABLE LABELS FOR APPENDICES G, H, I, J Variable Labels

AGE - age of the respondent
ATTFORM - form of the attitude statements
BIRTHPL - place of birth of the respondent
EXPERT - expertise of the source
EXPPERC - perception of expertise
GRADE - grade of the respondent
MESEVAL - evaluation of the message
ORDATKN - order of attitude/knowledge materials
ORDESCRP - order of the source description (similarity/expertise)
RELIG - religion of the respondent
SCHOOL - school of the respondent
SIMIIAR - similarity of the source
SIMPERC - perception of similarity
SOURCEKN - knowledge of the source
SRCEVAL - evaluation of the source
SRCSEX - sex of the source
SUBJSEX - sex of the subject


YAPIAFLE(S) ENFEPER (KN STFP NUMBER 16. . . SIMPFRC.


## DEPEYOENT VAFTABLE. KNWCH KNOWLEDGE CHANEE-ALLL VALUES --. APPENDIX H

 VAPIARIE (S) FNTERFD CN STFP AUMBFR 14.9..... SPCFVAL


## 




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[^0]:    - $\mathbf{l}_{\text {It }}$ should be noted that no significant attitude difference was found between male and female control groups, t<1.0, df $=1 / 29$, n.s.

