IMAGES, MEANING AND ORGANIZATIONAL NAMES

Thesis for the Degree of M. A. MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY GRANT J. MILLER 1973

THESIS

3 1293 10525 0397

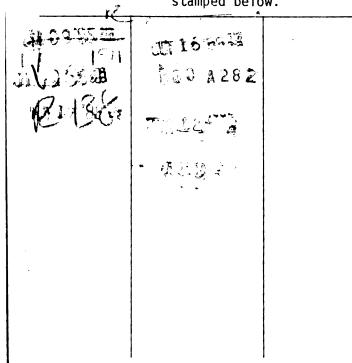
LIBRARY
Michigan State
University





RETURNING MATERIALS:

Place in book drop to remove this checkout from your record. FINES will be charged if book is returned after the date stamped below.



ABSTRACT

IMAGES, MEANING AND ORGANIZATIONAL NAMES

By

Grant J. Miller

The concept of image is a vital and often discussed aspect of advertising and public relations practices. Often a name or title for a company or organization is the first opportunity for the public to perceive the image of such organizations.

If an organization's public image is poor, a name change can be a first step toward altering that image. One such organization with a less than desirable public image is the Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center in Lansing, Michigan.

This study was designed to develop a viable public name-change model and to suggest a new name(s) for the Community Mental Health Center (CMHC). A secondary purpose was to determine what effect (if any) "knowing" about the CMHC's problems and the type of new name they were seeking had on <u>Ss</u> evaluation of possible alternative names.

A step-by-step procedure (the name-change model) is reported in the study in which all <u>Ss</u> rated each of six alternative names for appropriateness as a new name for the CMHC. <u>Ss</u> also selected descriptive adjectives from the adjective list

to determine meaning and meaningfulness for each alternative name. Additional descriptive data was also gathered from Ss.

Data analysis revealed the following results:

- 1. The CMHC should change its name.
- 2. The issue of mental health care is not a salient issue to the sample respondents.
- 3. The name Tri-County Center for Social Consultation is the most appropriate new name for the CMHC based on a mean appropriateness score criterion.
- 4. The names Counseling Services Center and TriCounty Center for Social Consultation contain the
 most meaning and are the most meaningful of the
 alternative names as the terms "meaning" and
 "meaningful" were defined in this study.
- 5. The names Tri-County Center for Social Consultation and Counseling Services Center correlate most closely with the Center's administrators' concept of an ideal name for a community-based mental health center on a meaning and meaningfulness criterion.
- 6. "Knowing" had a significant effect on respondents' appropriateness rating for two of the alternative names.
- 7. Respondents' sex and the names themselves had significant effects on how many adjectival descriptors were selected for each of the six alternative names.

Description of the name-change model, limitations of the study, as well as future research possibilities, are also discussed.

IMAGES, MEANING AND ORGANIZATIONAL NAMES

Ву

Grant J. Miller

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

College of Communication Arts
Department of Advertising

Accepted by the faculty of the Department of
Advertising, College of Communication Arts,
Michigan State University, in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the Master of Arts degree.

Thu Jumplum Director of Thesis

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A great deal of gratitude and admiration is due many people who have helped me develop this study from a mere idea to its completed form.

My deepest thanks goes to my friend and advisor,

Dr. John Simpkins, whose time and ideas have been invaluable contributions. They have given this study direction, guidance and stability, without which it would not have been possible.

I would also like to thank Mr. Ed Oxer of the Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center for his cooperation in supplying materials and information on matters related to the Center.

Thanks is also in order for Mr. Larry Pontius for the use of his advertising class as participants in gathering data.

Finally, to those others, too numerous to single out, who have provided assistance in many diverse ways, thanks again for your help.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chap	<u>ter</u>	Page
List	of Tables	iii
List	of Figures	iv
ı.	THE PROBLEM	. 1
	Introduction	. 1
	Nature of the Problem	. 1
	Images	. 1
	Images of Mental Health	. 8
	Ingham Medical Hospital	
	Community Mental Health Center	. 14
	Purpose of the Study	. 16
	Importance of the Study	. 18
	Organization of the Study	. 19
II.	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	20
	Meaning	20
	Stereotype	. 27
	Relationships Among Dimensions	
	of Stereotypes	36
	More on Stereotypes	
	Names	
	Proper or Personal Names	41
	Clinical Research on Names	
	Research Studies Into Names	52
	Brand Names, Trademarks, Corporate Names	
	Corporate Name Changes New Product Names	
	Set Research	67
III.	METHODS AND PROCEDURES	76
	The Data	78
TV.	RESILTS	79

Chapte	<u>er</u>	Page
v.	DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY	85
	Appropriateness of Alternative Names	85
	of Each Alternative Name	87
	The Effect of Knowing	90
	Recommendations for a New Name for CMHC	97
	Statement of Name-Change Model	99
	Summary of Results	101
	Implications for Future Research	102
	Limitations of the Study	103
	Some Notes on Consequences of Name Changes	104
BIBLIC	OGRAPHY	107
APPENI	DICES	117
A	PRE-TEST DEVELOPMENT PROCEDURES	117
В	THE TEST INSTRUMENT	122
С	MR. OXER'S SELECTION OF DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES FOR "IDEAL" NAME	128

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Appropriateness Scores for Alternative Names	80
2	Respondents Closeness to Social Issues	81
3	Subset of Adjectives (Comprising the Meaning) for Each Name and Meaningfulness Score (Number of Adjectives)	83
4	Analysis of Variance	84
5	Mean Number of Adjectives Selected by Sex Across All Six Names	91
6	Ranked Adjective Mean Scores for Each Alternative Name	95

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Pigure</u>															Page											
1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	21
2	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	23
3	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		•	•	•	•	•	24
4	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	93
5																	_									100

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The concept of "image" is a vital and often discussed aspect of today's advertising and public relations practices. Scholars and practitioners refer to image in relation to all other facets of advertising: copy, media selection, management strategy and research. Businesses often hire advertising agencies or public relations firms as consultants in relation to the presentation of a favorable "corporate image" for the organization, or "brand image" for one of its products.

Not only businesses, but individuals -- often political candidates -- hire "image merchants" to construct an image for them that will be seen as favorable by voters.

Nature of the Problem

Images

An examination of the literature on images reveals two different but related conceptions. The dimension along which the distinction between the two can be made is the source of control of the image. Images, when projected by a business firm or individual, can be said to be controlled by the source (the object or person being imaged). Daniel Boorstin¹

1

Boorstin, Daniel, The Image (New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1962), pp. 183-197.

describes image in terms of being a studiously crafted personality profile of an individual, institution, corporation, product or service. The image is planned, was created to serve a purpose and to make a certain kind of impression.

The other viewpoint of an image is that it is the perceived characteristics of an object or person by other individuals. Images are the result of the observer drawing out certain characteristics about objects from his perceptions of those objects. Herman Kelman² is of this view and this agrees with Kenneth Boulding, who sees image as one's subjective knowledge of the world. This complex of elements by the fact that it is a perception, belongs only to the individual, not groups, organizations, etc. It is the receiver who controls the image.

The relationship between these two viewpoints of image is best seen in the area of promotion. Be it a product, service, political candidate or organization, both the source (object) control and receiver (public) control are vital. The source (business, candidate, organization, etc.) through its ads, public information releases and operating procedures, presents itself in a manner that it hopes will be viewed by the receiver (individual or group members) in the same manner.

Simultaneously, the receivers look at the source and are developing ideas and opinions about what the source is or how

²Kelman, Herman, <u>International Behavior</u>: <u>A Social-Psychological Analysis</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), pp. 24-28.

³Boulding, Kenneth, <u>The Image</u> (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1956), pp. 5-7.

it operates and conducts itself. The resulting success measured in sales, votes, greater understanding or increased visibility, is how closely the image the receiver has of the source and the image that the source is putting forth are in agreement with one another.

For the remainder of this study, the term "image" will be used in the manner defined by William Crissy. "Image is the aggregate stimulus value the company, store, brand or product, has for a particular individual or group. There can be as many images as there are people reacting." 4

Businesses or organizations interact with too many people to explore in depth its image with each one. Grouping, then, must occur because there are many publics which view a firm or organization. These may include employees, customers, competitors, suppliers or associates.

Each individual in a group may have a different image of the company or organization, but the image any group has may be composed of common elements from the individuals.

Images aren't disparate. They are interactive. The image of a business influences the image of its products. Product images might be reflected by the media in which it is advertised. A store's image may be influenced by the area in which it is located. 5

⁴Crissy, William, "Image! What Is It?" <u>Business Topics</u>
(East Lansing: Michigan State University, Winter 1971), p. 28

⁵Ibid., p. 29.

Crissy maintains that in order to be meaningful, an investigation of images requires careful definition of reference groups as well as the array of images that are likely to be interactive. The images are individual in nature, because knowledge of life's values, experience, needs, thinking and perceiving are found in human beings. There are variables which affect the image in each individual.

Communication of products by the product itself or by promotional means results in a meaning or cognition to the individual consumer. This has been termed "brand image." The product, especially to the extent that it is differentiated from similar products and not viewed as a commodity item, tends to possess an abstract social-symbolic meaning. 8

Social-symbolic meaning "says something" about the purchaser or owner. The auto consumer buys more than just transportation. A "luxurious" Cadillac, and the lifestyle that goes with owning it, expresses a significantly different social-symbolic meaning than a car with luxury at Chevrolet prices.

This results from communication being essentially a symbolic process. Man's thought processes depend upon symbolic manipulation. Language consists of symbols, and the spoken word represents the object with which we become familiar. The

⁶ Ibid.

Gardner, B.B. and Levy, S.J., "The Product and the Brand," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 33 (March-April, 1955), pp. 33-39.

Robertson, T.S., Consumer Behavior (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1970), p. 2.

word itself is not the object, by any means. 9

Boorstin¹⁰ says of this process that "We are in a world where people talk constantly not of things themselves but of their images." As an example, take the presidential candidate who considers it more important what people think of his image than what he really is. People vote for him because his is the public image they want to see in the White House.

Levy¹¹believes that people buy things not only for what they can do, but for what they mean. Therefore, there is really no such thing as a product existing by itself. It must be experienced by consumers, and these consumers have sets of values, needs, etc. Not all products are perceived by all consumers. To the extent that perception does occur, however, it is organized and meanings are attached to products, according to Robertson. Although there is often considerable variation in meaning, fairly consistent brand images generally occur.

Lipson and Darling 13 talk of image as a qualitative performance goal that focusses on the favorable or unfavorable perception of an enterprise and its market offerings. This

⁹Ibid., p. 18.

¹⁰ Boorstin, D.J., op. cit., p. 204.

¹¹ Levy, S.J., "Symbols for Sale." Harvard Business Review, Vol. 37 (July-Aug., 1959), pp. 117-124.

¹² Robertson, T.S., op. cit., p. 18.

¹³Lipson, H.A. and Darling, J.R., <u>Introduction to Marketing</u>: <u>An Administrative Approach</u> (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1971), p. 514.

goal can be stated quantitatively in that the firm always strives to increase the number of individuals who see it in a favorable light.

A company's image, once perceived, encompasses everything that an enterprise does. This includes factors such as its employee relations, behavior of its employees outside the firm, the architectural aspects of its building, promotional operations, and services it offers its customers. 14

Products vary in the degree to which the social-symbolic meaning is important. Cars and clothing are high in visual display; that is, they are outwardly and readily visible. In our society we recognize this as saying something about a person. Other products, canned food for example, are less important. A marketer must decide to what extent to feature functional or social-symbolic attributes of a product in his communication programs. 15

The process of image promotion is quite evident in our everyday lives. An examination of print or television advertising shows the preoccupation advertisers have with their images. One aspect of image formation is the choice of a symbolic name for the company or its products. A name often is the first contact that a firm has with its potential

^{14&}quot;Store Designers Help Ring the Cash Register." Business Week (July, 1967), pp. 42-48.

¹⁵ Robertson, T.S., op. cit., p. 3.

customers. The opportunity for potential customers to obtain a favorable image of a company or product often depends on their first perception of the name.

Zenith Corporation, for example, in its advertising stresses that "Quality Goes In Before the Name Goes On" to symbolize that its products are of high quality. Old Milwaukee Beer, a product of Joseph Schlitz Brewing Company, uses the slogan "Tastes As Great As Its Name" to symbolize that their beer comes from Milwaukee, the brewing capital of the U.S. There are numerous other examples.

Occasionally, when the image of companies or products is not favorable, or other circumstances arise, a change in name often comes about in an effort to remedy the situation. For example, in the early 60's the Cities Service Oil Company changed its brand name to CITGO and changed its stations' decor in an effort to rejuvenate their image. Many businesses undergo this process every year.

Thus far, the emphasis on image has been on businesses and products in their promotion. These same principles can also be applied to and are true of non-profit organizations and the services and concepts upon which these organizations are based. Individuals have images of these types of organizations along the same dimensions that they do for commercial concerns.

Service organizations, art and music societies, fraternal orders, civic groups, public agencies and medical societies all have image problems peculiar to their own organizations

or type of organization. A closer look at the promotional problems of one of these organization types -- a mental health center -- will be a focal point of this study.

Image of Mental Health

The concept of mental health is one plagued with complex promotional problems. The image held by the general public of mental health and institutions whose function it is to work with the mentally ill, has not been favorable over the years.

Mental hospitals have traditionally been viewed negatively as "nuthouses" or places where we (society) put crazy people away. Star, in a national survey, found that "People are afraid of psychotics and afraid of being infected by their irrational way of thinking. So they keep what they call mental illness at arm's length by emphasizing the difference between them and 'crazy' people."

It is known that people who are similar tend to be attracted to and express liking for one another. The opposite is true for dissimilar people. In a study in 1968, Novak 17 had 56 males form impressions of persons viewed on videotape. Ss interacted with three classes of people: normals (those

¹⁶ Star, S.A., "The National Opinion Research Center Study." Psychiatry, the Press and the Public (Washington, D.C.: American Psychiatric Association, 1956).

Novak, D.W., "Social Psychological Processes and Reactions to the Handicapped (unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Kentucky, 1968).

appearing and acting normal), physically handicapped and mentally ill. Ss responses indicated that physically handicapped persons were less attractive than so-called normals and the mentally ill were the least attractive.

Scribner, ¹⁸ using a cross-cultural study in 1970, found that in all the cultures studied (14 over a 90-year period), certain formal properties of behavior underly naive perceptions of craziness. This suggests the importance of the organizational properties of behavior to the perception of everyday behavior in general.

Bentz and Edgerton¹⁹conclude that since mental illness more often than not manifests itself as some kind of deviant behavior from community norms, it follows that persons labeled as mentally ill will also be subjected to rejection and isolation.

Using a questionnaire survey, Nunnally ²⁰ concluded that the public regards the mentally ill with fear, distrust and dislike. Cumming and Cumming ²¹ suggest from their data that

¹⁸ Scribner, S., "A Cross-Cultural Study of Perception of Mental Disorders" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, New School for Research, 1970).

¹⁹ Bentz, W.K. and Edgerton, J.W., "The Consequences of Labeling a Person as Mentally Ill." Social Psychiatry, Vol. 6, No. 1, 1971.

Nunnally, J.C., Jr., Popular Conceptions of Mental Health (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961).

²¹ Cumming, J. and Cumming, E., Closed Ranks: An Experiment in Mental Health Education (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1957).

once a person is identified as mentally ill, it would lead to a patterned response of denial, isolation and rejection.

Phillips, ²²in a study in 1967 designed specifically to measure public acceptance or rejection of the mentally ill, concluded that one's ability to identify correctly certain behaviors as mental illness is not associated with acceptance, but rather rejection.

The data reviewed above suggests there is a stigma attached to the term "mental illness," or to a person labeled as mentally ill. Goffman 23 describes a stigma in terms of an attribute that is deeply discrediting. He adds that a language of relationships, not attributes, is needed. An attribute that stigmatizes one type of individual or group can confirm the usefulness of another and therefore is neither creditable nor discreditable.

Riesman²⁴believes that by definition we believe that the person with a stigma to be not quite human. Assuming this, he says we exercise a variety of discriminations through which we effectively, though often unthinkingly, reduce the stigmatized person's life chances. We construct a stigma-theory or

²²Phillips, D., in <u>Bentz</u> and <u>Edgerton</u>, <u>op</u>. cit.

²³Goffman, E., Stigma -- The Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity (Englewood-Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), p. 3.

Riesman, D., "Some Observations Concerning Marginality." Phylon (Second Quarter, 1951), p. 122.

ideology to explain his inferiority and account for the danger
he represents.

Goffman²⁵indicates we use specific stigma terms, such as cripple, bastard and moron in our daily speech as a source of metaphor and imagery. We often do this without giving thought to the original meaning. We tend to attribute a wide range of imperfections on the basis of the original one.

Avoidance provides a frequent and effective way of reducing anxiety in the normals in their relationships to and with the mentally ill. The World Health Organization, ²⁶ in a technical report, suggests that a community may attempt to keep as distant as possible from the mentally ill by building big isolated hospitals and by refusing to employ or be near former mental patients. The pleasure of acting out aggressive impulses based on the prejudice subtly reinforces rejection of the mentally sick.

Bentz, Edgerton and Miller, ²⁷in a study in North Carolina, found that 70 percent of the public felt that mental hospitals were needed to protect the community.

²⁵Goffman, E., <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., p. 4.

World Health Organization, Social Psychiatry and Community Attitudes. World Health Organization Technical Report, Series No. 177 (Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization, 1959).

²⁷Bentz, W.K., Edgerton, J.W., and Miller, F.T., "Attitudes of Teachers and the Public Toward Mental Illness." Mental Hygiene, Vol. 55, No. 3 (July, 1971), pp. 324-330.

Not all attitudes toward mental illness are unfavorable. The stereotype of a mental hospital as a "snake pit" or "mad house" has been diminishing in recent years. Bentz, Edgerton and Miller 28 say this trend is taking place, but suggest that mental hospitals have not been accepted on the same basis as general hospitals.

According to the World Health Organization, ²⁹ if a community believes that the goal of psychiatric practitioners is to help their patients to regain and maintain their personal and social adequacy, the community will be far more prepared to go into active partnership.

Perhaps the main reason that the mentally ill are being better accepted is that mental illness is being looked upon more and more as a medical illness rather than a deviant social behavior. Crocetti and Lemkau in 1963 found that a substantial majority of their sample was able to identify several case descriptions as mentally ill and that they recommended medical treatment of such cases.

They are optimistic and state that:

"In defining mental illness as a medical sickness rather than a deviant social behavior, the mentally ill person should receive sympathy, understanding and support from the public, and should

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹World Health Organization, op. cit.

not be held responsible for his behavior regardless of how bizarre it may be. This is in accordance with the manner in which we define the sick role in our society." 30

Bentz, Edgerton and Miller³¹ speak of a movement toward more open hospital environments and treatment within the community of mental patients. Hunt³² comments on these changes and suggests that the general public doesn't know about them. He reasons that the long-standing literary tradition in which every mental hospital is pictured as a hellish bedlam has thoroughly conditioned the public to see and hear only evil of them and to overlook or forget the good that has been emerging of late.

In another study in North Carolina, Bentz and Edgerton³³ speak of changes in perceptions on the part of the general public toward the mentally ill and mental illness and predict that this will require changes in program activities in the mental health professions.

One of these changes is the development of the community mental health center. It is a localized unit in various communities throughout the nation and staffed by professionals.

Demkau, P.W., and Crocetti, G.M., "An Urban Population's Opinion and Knowledge About Mental Illness." American Journal of Psychiatry, No. 118 (1967), pp. 692-700.

³¹ Bentz, Edgerton and Miller, op. cit.

³²Hunt, M.M., Mental Hospital (New York: Pyramid Books, 1961).

³³ Bentz, and Edgerton, op. cit.

Its emphasis is on community-based services. These services range from short-term counseling on drug or marital problems to the more critical types of mental illness. These much needed community (locally) based centers are alternatives to private high-cost mental care and the state hospital systems.

Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center

The Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center in Lansing, Michigan, is one of these centers. It is one of the facilities of the Tri-County (Ingham-Clinton-Eaton) Mental Health Programs.

The impetus for this community approach came from citizens of the area who organized first in the 1930's as an advisory board to the Child Guidance Clinic. The board later served as another board to the Adult Mental Health Clinic and eventually as an Executive Community Mental Health Board under Public Act 54, in 1964.

The Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center (CMHC) began providing outpatient services in 1966. Rapid movement toward providing a comprehensive program of services to the community has been made in the last couple of years.

A federal grant has been awarded to assist implementation of the essential services of a comprehensive center.

One of the problems which the Center faces is the difficulty it has dealing with the image the public holds of its functions and the services it offers. The writer became aware of the problem in the spring of 1972 while doing work with the CMHC concerning the diffusion of information about the Center.

The specific problem is that the public's image of the Center

and the Center's own image (as held by its staff) are apparently very different.

The CMHC staff views the Center as one offering comprehensive mental health services. These comprehensive services range from outpatient short-term crisis intervention counseling and other short-term treatments for marriage, family or drug related problems to the inpatient services at the Ingham Medical Hospital. These inpatient services focus on stabilization and short-term hospitalization.

Precare-aftercare services are included and are rehabilitative in nature and are provided to counter the effects of severe, chronically disabling mental illness. Their goal is stabilization and enhancement of functioning through long-term supportive treatment, retraining for employment, socialization, etc.

A 24-hour emergency service is available through Ingham Medical Hospital and consultation and education services make mental health information available to individuals and organizations in the community.

The Lansing public apparently views the CMHC as merely a place where the very mentally ill are taken and "put away" for a while. CMHC staff members related this information to this writer in meetings concerning the diffusion problem. This information is based on CMHC staff reports from meetings with other community organizations and staff personnel's everyday and casual contacts. Patient interviews (especially those of

first-time users) also support this conclusion.

Staff members spoke of a stigma attached not only to the Center, but also to those who use its services. Interviews showed patients were often reluctant to seek treatment because of rejection or denial by friends or family members. One administrator related that the stigma is so strong that in frequent cases husbands or wives will come in for treatment without their mate's knowledge.

One of the suggestions that came out of the diffusion work was that the Center develop a new name or title. This is to be a first step in the process of attempting to slowly change the image of CMHC in the Lansing public's eyes.

In further conversations with the CMHC staff, they stressed that the image they would like to see perceived is that of the comprehensive mental health services; something more complex and richer in meaning than the single simple perception of the Center and mental health that is presumably in common use.

It is to this problem -- development of a new name for the Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center -- that this study will be directed.

Purpose of the Study

This study is exploratory in nature. It is intended to develop a name-change model of generalizable value and to suggest a new name or names for the Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center. It is hoped by the Center and writer that the name suggested will be perceived by its

audience (the Lansing public) as including those services that comprise the concept of what the Center refers to as "comprehensive mental health."

The problem seems to be one of image and meaning. At present the meaning that the public gets from the name Community Mental Health Center does not appear to include those services which the Center staff in their definition of services offered lists under the concept of "comprehensive mental health." The Center's administrators point out that in initial interviews with patients that these people just don't know enough about the Center or mental health to be aware of or understand the services offered. Compounding this problem of lack of public awareness is the stigma attached to mental health care, facilities and patients by society's "normals." 34

This study, as it is planned, will be a first step to a better understanding of the concept of "comprehensive mental health." Lowering the rejection rate among society's normals of patients using mental health services and facilities is another objective of this study. The study, as reported, is designed to serve as a model for the development of new names for the Community Mental Health Center and similar other

³⁴ Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health, Action for Mental Health (New York: Basic Books, 1961).

The Commission describes society's many sided pattern of rejection of the mentally ill. They cite a major lack of recognition of mental illness as illness and a predominant tendency toward rejection of both the mental patients and those who treat them.

institutions and organizations.

A secondary purpose of this study is to examine the effects of knowing on both appropriateness of names and the adjectival descriptions provided by Ss. Knowing in this study is defined as Ss being informed of the problem facing the Center and the Center's reasons for seeking a name change prior to any performance of evaluative tasks on the part of the Ss. The "knowing" variable was randomly assigned to one of the sample segments.

Importance of the Study

The importance of the need for the new name and this study is the result of several factors.

The need for a viable, public name-change model is primary. An equally important factor is that the public just doesn't know enough about mental health or the Community Mental Health Center to be aware of its services.

The public and the majority of first-time users of the Center's services look at the Center as a place where only long-term mental problems are dealt with.

The reduction of the stigma attached to mental health and the agencies that deal with it is another factor in the need for a study such as this.

A lack of understanding of the comprehensive services offered by the Center and a hope that the new name will trigger a recognition (or at least not serve to promote and support prevailing stereotypes of the Center) of the concept in the

minds of those who see, hear or read of it is perhaps the most fundamental need for this study into finding a new name.

Organization of the Study

This study is divided into five chapters. The remaining four chapters deal with reviewing applicable literature; data collection; data analysis and a discussion and summary of the results.

In Chapter II an extensive literature review providing reference and perspective about what is already known about the goals and purposes of this study will be presented.

In Chapter III a detailed description of how the data is collected and from whom is discussed. Sampling procedures and experimental procedures are presented.

In Chapter IV an analysis of the data is presented.

This presentation centers around the measurement of image for each of the alternative names and the inter-relationships between the dependent and independent variables.

A discussion of the findings and implications will be presented before the final summary section in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

An extensive review of the literature failed to reveal a model for the naming or changing of a name for institutions or organizations similar to a mental health center.

Corporations and private enterprises, when reporting a name change, often list reasons for the change or criteria that the new name must meet. However, the method of development remains private and within each specific firm involved.

In relation to the procedure and method of approaching the problem, appropriate research falls under the following topic areas: meaning; images; stereotypes; names and labels; and "set" research. By dealing with these topics, the study was given limits and direction. Another purpose of the literature review is to provide an interpretive framework.

Meaning

Meaning is the essential element of this study. It is related to most topic areas of the study and a solid grasp of the concept as used in this study is essential to facilitate an understanding of the study.

Berlo³⁵states that meanings are in people. They are covert responses of human organisms. Charles Osgood³⁶ posits a "mediation hypothesis" to develop a concept of meaning. Briefly, this hypothesis holds that certain stimuli cause internal responses which in turn act (mediate) as stimuli for other responses, either overt or covert. Diagramatically, this is as follows:

Figure 1

Berlo³⁷ relied on this hypothesis for the suggestion that the internal response that acts as an internal stimulus can be defined as the meaning of the external stimulus for the person who is responding. He further discusses one's meaning for things as consisting of the ways people respond to them internally and the predispositions which one has to respond to them (stimuli) generally.

³⁵Berlo, D.K., The Process of Communication (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960), p. 175.

³⁶ Osgood, C., in E.P. Bettinghaus' <u>Persuasive Communication</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968), p. 123.

³⁷ Berlo, D.K., op. cit.

The type of meaning involved in this study has been termed "connotative meaning." Berlo³⁸ calls it primitive meaning -- a meaning which has never gone beyond the personal learning stage. Connotative meaning is characterized by a relationship with people and a sign (word) and an object (stimulus).

In his work in persuasive communication, Bettinghaus 39 draws on the work of Osgood 40 and Staats and Staats 41 to explain connotative meaning. His description of connotative meaning refers to the set of internal mediating responses to a word $(r_m S)$ which in turn are responsible for a set of internal stimuli $(S_m S)$ and these help to determine the kinds of external reactions that the individual is likely to make to the perception of a word (see Figure 2).

^{38&}lt;sub>Ibid., p. 209.</sub>

³⁹ Bettinghaus, E.P., <u>Persuasive Communication</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968), p. 124.

⁴⁰ Osgood, C., Method and Theory in Experimental Psychology (New York: Oxford University Press, 1953), pp. 680-727.

⁴¹ Staats, A., and Staats, C., Complex Human Behavior (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), pp. 115-238.

Figure 2

The initial responses elicited by a word (covert responses) are analogous to the external responses (overt responses) and can be said to constitute another kind of meaning, an internal meaning for the word. This is connotative meaning.

Some writers have suggested that connotative meaning functions to mediate incoming stimuli and to help to determine the character of external (overt) responses made to the messages.

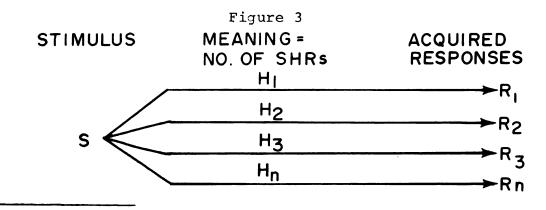
This discussion suggests that the internal mediating responses may occur in varying numbers. Certain stimuli may elicit more internal responses than other stimuli, which in turn elicit more internal responses. Dealing with these internal responses in a hierarchical fashion suggests a concept related to meaning; i.e., meaningfulness.

Since meaning is described as the internal responses to a stimulus, meaningfulness correlates to the number of and hierarchial nature of those responses. Stimuli that elicit more internal responses and subsequent external responses can be said to be more meaningful (more complex, richer) than stimuli

that elicit fewer internal responses.

For example, a stereotype of a certain ethnic group that describes that group as being intelligent, shrewed, industrious, proud and peaceful is more meaningful than a stereotype of that same group which describes it as being industrious and proud. This is so because the first stereotype elicited more adjective responses than the latter.

C.E. Noble⁴²in a now classic article on the analysis of meaning also deals with the concept of meaning and meaning-fulness in terms of stimulus (S) and response (R). Briefly, he describes meaning as a relation between S and R. It was coordinated with Hull's⁴³theoretic construct class of corresponding habit strengths (H) (see Figure 3).



For the reader who is unfamiliar with the conception of response hierarchies, he is referred to the writings of C.L. Hull.

, Principles of Behavior. New York: Appleton-Century, 1943.

⁴²Noble, C.E., "An Analysis of Meaning." <u>Psychological</u> <u>Review</u>, Vol. 59 (1952), pp. 421-430.

Hull, C.L., <u>Principles of Behavior</u> (New York: Appleton-Century, 1943).

Since meaning is a relation between variables, Noble defines it as the number of Hs subsisting between S and the several Rs taken together. More specifically, the particular meaning of Sx are H_1 H_2 H_3 . . . H_n , and different conceptual combinations of these Hs yield different numbers of meanings. Meanings increase as a simple linear function of the number of S multiple R connections acquired in a particular organism's history. 44

In other words, the meaning of S is a function of the number of Hs developed for it. A habit is a linkage between a stimulus and an acquired response for it. A simple explanation is that meanings are habits. A S conditioned to twenty Rs has more meanings and is therefore more meaningful than a S conditioned to five Rs. As more habits (meanings) build-up to particular stimulus situations, so does the meaningfulness increase.

It is this explanation of meaning as developed by Noble 45 that will be used in this study. Meaning refers to the number of responses elicited by a stimulus.

Also in this study, response to the alternative names

(see Appendix A) will be elicited from the entire combination

of words making up the name. The adjectives and nouns making

up each alternative name will be considered as a single stimulus.

⁴⁴ Noble, C.E., op. cit., p. 424.

⁴⁵ Noble, C.E., op. cit.

Howes and Osgood 46 and Bettinghaus reported studies that indicate evaluative meanings are affected by the adjectives used to describe a name.

A congruity or balance principle, as Bettinghaus ⁴⁷ refers to it, enables researchers to predict an estimate of the meaning that would be held for a combination of two or more words. As an example, if the evaluative meaning for an adjective was neutral and the meaning for the noun was positive, the meaning of the combination might fall in between the two.

A second phase of the Bettinghaus study tested the hypothesis that results of prior associations with particular adjectives would be persistent, even when the noun was no longer associated with the adjectives. A series of combinations were tested for three days. The nouns were then presented alone. The results were upheld. As an example, one group judged the combination "wonderful doctor." After three days, the group was asked to judge the concept of "doctor" alone.

Results showed that nouns associated with adjectives had been affected by the adjectives. The adjectives had "rubbed off" onto the nouns. The group who rated "horrible doctor" rated the noun alone less favorably than the group who rated "wonderful doctor."

Howes, D., and Osgood, C.E., "On the Combination of Associative Probabilities in Linguistic Context," American Journal of Psychology, Vol. 67 (1954), pp. 241-258.

⁴⁷Bettinghaus, E., "Cognitive Balance and the Development of Meaning," <u>Journal of Communication</u>, Vol. 13 (1963), pp. 94-105.

Bettinghaus suggests words have an effect on the ways in which language is perceived. For example, books or motion pictures described as "colossal" or "enchanting" will acquire some of the characteristics of the adjectives that are used to describe it.

Another indicator of the studies of word combination is that even words that have already had meanings developed, meanings that are rather strong or highly polarized, can have those meanings modified by the ways in which they are combined with other language units. Using persistence and repetitions, a communicator can change the evaluations that the audience has of a person, product or idea. 48

Osgood, Tannenbaum and Suci ⁴⁹ suggest that when people are asked about their feelings (inner responses, meanings) they have for words or concepts, they frequently are given in terms of descriptive adjectives of various kinds. A descriptive adjective is often referred to as a trait. Traits are important to this study in that each adjective used to describe the alternative names will be considered as a trait. This concept is reviewed and discussed in the description of pre-test design.

Stereotype

One of the first areas where traits were used as a description of thoughts, feelings, or meanings of terms is the area of

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ Bettinghaus, E.P., <u>Persuasive Conversation</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968), p. 143.

stereotypes. In recent years, stereotype has evolved into meaning a "category that singles out an individual as showing assumed characteristics on the basis of his group membership." 50

Walter Lippman, a pioneer in this area, recognized stereotype as part of a simplifying mechanism to handle the real environment which to many is too big, too complex and too fleeting for direct acquaintance. 51

In a work on stereotypy of imagery as an ego defense, Rosemary Gordon ⁵² gives an explanation of how we attempt to cope with the environment and form stereotypes. She likens stereotyped constructs to and places their dependence upon the cognitive processes. As part of the attempt to understand the external environment, they are also accepted by their possessors as the result of logic and reason.

After examining stereotypes, one must admit that emotions and interests are far more responsible for their existence than are reason and logic or experience. In short, interested urges predominate over disinterested ones in the production of stereotyped constructs.

Components of an individual's mental construct which lead to stereotype formation are outlined by Gordon. 53 They include

⁵⁰ VanderZanden, J.W., American Minority Relations: The Sociology of Racial and Ethnic Groups (New York: Ronald, 1966).

⁵¹Lippman, W., Public Opinion (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1922), p. 16.

⁵²Gordon, R., Stereotypy of Imagery and Belief as an Ego Defense (Cambridge, Great Britain: The University Press, 1962), p. 2.

^{53&}lt;u>Ibid.</u>, pp. 10-13.

cognition, perception, images and concept. Images are mental structures, distanced considerably from actual stimulation by the environment. They are more exposed to the influence of subjective forces than are perceptions (the means of providing raw material for other cognitive contents).

Perceptions and images are both concerned with the apprehension of sense impressions. While perceptions occur in the presence of and in response to a stimulus, images have no such external exciting cause.

Lippman's work supports this in that he points out that men's actions are not based on direct and certain knowledge but on pictures made by himself or given to him. It is "the way in which the world is imagined that determines at any particular moment what men will do. We react not to the real world but to our reconstruction of it -- the pictures in our heads." 54

Encyclopedia Britannica, 11th edition, defines a concept as a general idea derived from and considered apart from the particulars observed by the senses. The mental process by which this is obtained is called abstraction.

Snake 55 describes concept formation as the reaction to the relationship common to two or more stimulus patterns and the

⁵⁴ Lippman, op. cit., p. 11.

⁵⁵ Snake, K.L., An Objective Study of Concept Formation ("Princeton-Psychological Monographs," Vol. 43; Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press).

result of both analytical and synthetic thought processes.

Formation of a concept according to Gordon⁵⁶ implies setting up in one's mind a new pattern which comprehends all the traits essential to the classification of a number of separate units under the same heading. This is done while traits which are irrelevant to that classification are discarded, even though possessed by individual members of the group.

The new pattern will be different from any actually perceived and must be the outcome of something more than a purely analytical procedure. If the latter were so, the procedure would lead to nothing more complex than the listing of a number of isolated traits.

Concepts -- such as stereotypes -- constitute the most important mental content by means of which impressions are organized and systematized. The number of items apprehended are also reduced by their organization into distinct types and classes.

In addition, they facilitate learning and use of past experience in order to deal with novel situations.

In his work, Lippman⁵⁷put forth that we react to the stereotype of the object and not to the object itself. This was varified in studies conducted by Secord.⁵⁸

⁵⁶Gordon, R., <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., pp. 10-13.

⁵⁷Lippman, W., op. cit., p. 11.

⁵⁸Secord, P.F., "Stereotyping and Favorableness in the Perception of Negro Faces," <u>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</u>, 59 (1959), pp. 309-314.

Members of ethnic groups were rated as being more similar on traits included in their stereotype than on traits not included in their stereotype in research done by Tajfel, Sheikh and Gardner. 59

Once a person is identified as belonging to a minority group (i.e., stereotyped) he is automatically given the presumed characteristics of that group. Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss⁶⁰ indicate that this would imply that naming an object automatically results in the individual's social experience attaching a whole complement of attributes to the name of the object providing we had experience with others in the class.

Edwards, in dealing with assessing stereotypes, breaks the concept down into four dimensions: content, uniformity, direction and intensity.

 Content. Refers to the traits that make up the stereotype. The content of stereotypes has shown tremendous stability over time.

⁵⁹Tajfel, H., Sheikh, A.A., and Gardner, R.C., "Content of Stereotypes and the Inference of Similarity Between Members of Stereotyped Groups," Acta Psychology, 22 (1964), pp. 191-201.

Cauthen, N., Robinson, I., and Krauss, H., "Stereotype: A Review of the Literature. 1926-1968," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 84 (July, 1971), pp. 103-125.

⁶¹ Edwards, A.L., "Studies of Stereotypes: I. The Directionality and Uniformity of Response to Stereotypes," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 12 (1960), pp. 357-366.

Katz and Braly, ⁶² one of the first to use the adjective checklist in assessing traits, demonstrated the traits associated with each of 10 ethnic groups. For example, the traits assigned to Jews (shrewd, grasping, intelligent and ambitious) in 1932 were quite similar to traits found in 1965 by Ehrlich and Rinehart. ⁶³ The latter used a method of free association. Some 18 years after Katz and Braly and using the same method, Gilbert ⁶⁴ found the content of all stereotypes unchanged except for the Chinese, Japanese and Germans. These changes were believed to come about as the results of these nations' participation in World War II.

The universe of traits of stereotypes remains recognizable over time. A ten year old list of stereotypes without identifying their nationalities was given to subjects by Meenes. 65

⁶²Katz, D., and Braly, K.W., "Racial Stereotypes of 100 College Students," <u>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</u>, 28 (1933), pp. 280-290.

⁶³Ehrlich, H.J., and Rinehart, J.W., "A Brief Report on the Methodology of Stereotype Research," <u>Social</u> <u>Forces</u>, 43 (1965), pp. 564-575.

⁶⁴Gilbert, G.M., "Stereotypes Persistence and Change Among College Students," <u>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</u>, 46 (1951), pp. 245-254.

Meenes, M., "A Comparison of Racial Stereotypes of Negro College Students in 1935 and 1942," <u>Psychological Bulletin</u>, 39 (1942), pp. 467-468.

Subjects were asked to match the trait list to a list of nationalities. All stereotypes were identified correctly except Japanese and Chinese. He interprets the inability of subjects to identify correctly the Japanese and Chinese as an indication of the content change over the intervening years.

A similar recognition technique with the same results was used by Centers. 66

2. <u>Uniformity</u>. It is defined by Edwards ⁶⁷ as agreement on the assignment of traits.

Instructions were used by Schoenfield⁶⁸to have subjects mark those traits useful in describing ethnic groups in general. This instruction produced a uniformity of response beyond that of chance.

Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss⁶⁹ indicated that another measure to assess uniformity is the frequency of individual traits assigned to a group. This can be thought of as the importance of a trait to the stereotype. They cite numerous studies that have used this method.

⁶⁶ Centers, R., "An Effective Classroom Demonstration of Stereotypes," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 34 (1951), pp. 41-46.

⁶⁷ Edwards, <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., pp. 566-572.

⁶⁸ Schoenfield, N., "An Experimental Study of Some Problems Relating to Stereotypes," <u>Arch. Psychology</u>, 38 (1942), Whole No. 270.

⁶⁹ Cauthen, N., Robinson, I., and Krauss, H., op. cit., pp. 112-113.

3. <u>Direction</u>. Refers to the favorablesness-unfavorableness of a stereotype. Studies of direction show that once an object is associated with a stereotype, the object is regarded as being in the same direction as the stereotype.

Sherif⁷⁰ found that the pairing of an author previously rated as unfavorable with a literary passage rated as favorable resulted in the author's acting as a stereotype. Consequently, an unfavorable rating of the passage resulted.

In similar studies, Stagner⁷¹ found that subjects responded favorably to unlabeled principles of Fascism, although they had previously responded in a highly unfavorable direction to the principles when labeled as Fascist.

4. <u>Intensity</u>. Refers to the degree of favorableness-unfavorablesness of a stereotype. This can be determined either from the stereotype itself or separately from it.

Katz and Braly, ⁷²Saenger and Flowerman ⁷³ used a social desirability rating of traits to

⁷⁰ Sherif, M., "An Experimental Study of Stereotypes,"

Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 29 (1934), pp. 371-375.

⁷¹ Stagner, F., "Fascist Attitudes -- An Exploratory Study," Journal of Social Psychology, 7 (1936), pp. 309-319.

⁷² Katz and Braly, op. cit.

⁷³ Saenger, G., and Flowerman, S., "Stereotyping and Prejudiced Attitudes," <u>Human Relations</u>, 7 (1954), pp. 217-238.

determine intensity. Assessing intensity separately from the stereotype, Katz and Braly, Schoenfield 5 and Taft 6 measured intensity by a favorability ranking of ethnic groups.

In using both measures, Katz and Braly ⁷⁷ found ranking of nationality preference very similar to the ranking of social desirability ratings of the traits.

Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss⁷⁸make clear that intensity, as it was originally conceived by Edwards, ⁷⁹was mentioned in terms of degrees of reaction to a stereotype. Intensity they say has now been used more lately in terms of what groups are liked and disliked.

Both high and low-prejudiced people hold stereotypes, but high-prejudiced individuals are more

⁷⁴ Katz and Braly, op. cit.

⁷⁵ Schoenfield, op. cit.

Taft, R., "Ethnic Stereotypes, Attitudes and Familiarity: Australia," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 49 (1959), pp. 177-186.

⁷⁷ Katz and Braly, op cit.

⁷⁸ Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss, op. cit.

⁷⁹ Edwards, op. cit.

likely to hold more intense stereotypes (Barton, ⁸⁰ Hasling, ⁸¹Saenger and Flowerman, ⁸² and Secord ⁸³).

It seems likely that the intensity is a consequence of individual attitudes rather than characteristic of the stereotypes themselves.

Eysenck and Crown⁸⁴ found individuals who were high and low on anti-semitism agreed in rating of statements as to degrees of prejudice expressed toward Jews.

Relationships Among Dimensions of Stereotypes

Content to Direction. Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss⁸⁵ report that Edwards⁸⁶ hypothesized that while two groups may respond in opposite directions to a concept and still show equal uniformity and intensity of response, one can expect to find significant content differences in the response of the groups.

⁸⁰Barton, J.B., "A Study of Attitudes Toward Jews and Mormons at a Southern University" (unpublished master's thesis, University of Georgia, 1965).

⁸¹Hasling, J.T., "A Study of Attitude Intensity Among Dogmatic Students" (unpublished master's thesis, University of Georgia, 1969).

⁸² Saenger and Flowerman, op. cit.

⁸³ Secord, op. cit.

⁸⁴ Eysenck, H.J., and Crown, S., "An Experimental Study in Opinion Attitude Methodology," <u>International Journal of Opinion and Attitude Research</u>, 3 (1949), pp. 47-56.

⁸⁵ Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss, op. cit.

⁸⁶ Edwards, loc. cit.

Edwards used a list of 30 items relating to Socialism,

Democracy and Fascism. He found those who disapproved of Socialism had checked different items as characteristics of both

Democracy and Socialism than did those who had approved of Socialism.

In an earlier study Edwards⁸⁷ noticed differences in content for groups who were opposed to or favorable to Communism for the stereotypes of Communism. This indicates that differences in direction produced differences in content. It is not illogical that the concept "Communism" has a different meaning to those who favor it than it does for those who are opposed to it. 88

Uniformity to Direction. Schoenfield ⁸⁹pointed out that Edwards ⁹⁰groups of different direction, Communist and non-Communist, had produced stereotypes of different content toward Communism. As a result, the combining of different content rather than different direction produced the lower uniformity. There were two stereotypes of Communism.

Uniformity to Intensity. In another hypothesis, Edwards 91 predicted that greater intensity of an attitude toward a

⁸⁷ Ibid.

^{88&}lt;u>Ibid.</u>, p. 70.

⁸⁹ Schoenfield, op. cit.

⁹⁰ Edwards, op. cit.

⁹¹ Ibid.

concept of government would result in a greater uniformity of stereotyping.

He showed this to be the case when a group of subjects which approved of Socialism and a group which opposed Socialism had more uniform stereotypes of Socialism than neutrals. Content of a Socialism stereotype was different for the two groups, but the relationship of intensity and uniformity does not depend on similarity of content. 92

Saenger and Flowerman ⁹³ found that high anti-semitic individuals were more uniform in assigning stereotype traits to Jews than were low anti-semitic individuals.

High-prejudiced individuals assigned more stereotyped terms to Negroes than did low-prejudiced ones. 94 Greater intensity is directly related to greater uniformity within a stereotype. 95

In other relationships between dimensions of stereotypes, Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss⁹⁶cite evidence of a tendency for high familiarity to be associated with a positive direction

^{92 &}lt;u>Ibid.</u>, p. 113.

⁹³ Saenger and Flowerman, op. cit.

⁹⁴ Secord, P.F., Bevan, W., and Duke, W.F., "Occupational and Physiognomic Stereotypes in the Perception of Photographs," Journal of Social Psychology, 37 (1953), pp. 261-267.

⁹⁵ Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss, op. cit., p. 113.

⁹⁶Ibid., pp. 110-116.

and low familiarity with negative direction. They also report that general trends seem to indicate that greater familiarity is associated with greater uniformity.

For a comprehensive review of stereotype literature, the reader is directed to Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss, ⁹⁷ "Stereotypes: A Review of the Literature 1926-1968," to which this section is greatly indebted.

More on Stereotypes

Gordon ⁹⁸describes the essential characteristics of a stereotyped construct to be rigidity, resistance to change and a tendency to persist in their original form in the face of all demands for modification made by objective facts and conditions.

The effects on stereotypes varying with the amount of information has received little study. Stereotypes are likely to be most influential when the amount of information is either very low or very high. 99

Sheikh and Miller 100 found that stereotypes did not differ as a function of age.

⁹⁷ Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss, op. cit., p. 114.

⁹⁸ Gordon, <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., p. 2.

⁹⁹ Schroeder, H.M., Driver, M.J., and Struefert, S., Human Information Processing (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967).

¹⁰⁰ Sheikh, A., and Miller, p., "Investigation of Some Variables Influencing Stereotyping in Interpersonal Perception," Journal of Psychology, 78 (1971), pp. 213-216.

Gordon 101 reminds that the attributed stereotype is not synonomous with false or erroneous, for it is possible to find correct stereotyped constructs as well as incorrect stereotyped constructs. The chance, she says, that a stereotyped construct is false is greater than it is true. The reason is the complexity of the external world; it is dynamic with constant movement. Stereotyped content is rigid and static, therefore true stereotyped constructs are likely to be rare and accidental.

Lambert and Klineberg¹⁰²demonstrated that while there may not be a universal core of stereotypes, it is safe to say that there is no known group that does not use negative stereotypes or derogatory names.

The spreading of a new concept -- be it a stereotype or a concept designed to change a stereotype -- will be slow and protracted. Gordon 103 emphasizes that every member of a group will have to learn the new and unlearn the old piece of knowledge or sentiment before he in turn can pass it on to the next person and form an active link in a necessary chain.

An additional factor hindering a quick change, she adds, is man's fears of social isolation which might follow the acceptance of new atypical or eccentric ideas. Standing up to defend thoughts whose acceptability by the rest of the group

¹⁰¹Gordon, op. cit., p. 2.

¹⁰²Lambert, and Klineberg, "A Pilot Study of the Origin and Development of National Stereotyping," <u>International Social</u> Science Journal, 11 (1959), pp. 221-238.

¹⁰³ Gordon, op. cit., p. 9.

may be in doubt seems to require more courage and strength than most people are endowed with.

It follows, Gordon says, that a new thought, idea or fashion will be obstructed in its passage through a social group -- especially at the beginning of its career -- by this reluctance of men to embrace something new which might result in the withdrawal from them of general social approval. Many may be familiar with a new concept or practice, but only when they realize that others are in possession of the novelty and it isn't something that might separate them from the group will they consent to acknowledge it.

The process of ideological change could therefore be very slow.

Names

Research about names is both numerous and relevant to the problem outlined in the purpose of the study. Names, from personal or proper, to business or product, have one thing in common. They are symbolic of something: ideas, processes, geographical places, occupations, personality variables (traits), and many other referents.

Proper or Personal Names

At an early stage in his development, nameless man showed an intelligent curiosity concerning his needs and surroundings. One of these needs was to call one's children, relatives and friends by distinctive signs or symbols, whereby they could be distinguished from one another.

The need for names, when a mere inflection of the voice or a gesture was considered no longer sufficient, appears to have been felt almost simultaneously with the origin of speech. 104 A man's name was his individuality. His personality and the rights and obligations connected with it would not exist without the name. Those who knew him or heard his name pronounced, connected it immediately in their thoughts with the idea of his physical characteristics, mental make-up and moral character. 105

There was a general belief that an intimate connection between the meaning of the proper name and the character of destiny of the man who bore it existed, according to Masani. 106

Since creation -- when in the Book of Genesis, Adam is referred to as the giver of names for all living creatures -- the need for naming every living thing has been felt. Later years showed that people came to believe that the character and destiny of the person named was determined by the choice and significance of the name. 107 Almost every Hebrew name had some significance originally. Some names had a symbolical significance concerning all the aspects of Jewish child life. An example is Emmanuel, meaning "God is with us." Other names had

¹⁰⁴ Masani, R.P., Folk Culture Reflected in Names (Bombay: Popular Prakashu, 1966), pp. 6-7.

^{105&}lt;u>Ibid</u>.

^{106&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

^{107&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

a commemorative character, such as Jacob, because he followed on the heels of Esau. $^{108}\,$

Brown reports that the "early Greeks regarded the name or logos of a thing as intimately connected with its very nature. Plato held the view that it was not merely a label, symbol or representation, but a true reality with independent existence, the material thing being but its shadow."

Unbaptized children are called dragons and snakes in parts of modern Greece because they are believed to turn into snakes and vanish if they remain unbaptized. Studies from other parts of the world show that unbaptized children are believed to have no soul. Instances are recorded where such children were refused burial by the church. 110

A name is so closely related to the soul and vital to it, that it must be carefully guarded from attack. An attack on the name is regarded in many places to be just as dangerous as an attack on any physical part of the self. Even in today's western culture this is evident. People speak of "defending one's good name" or of a name being tarnished when a person's honor has been attacked. 111

¹⁰⁸ Ibid., p. 14.

¹⁰⁹ Brown, P.W.F., "Names Magic," <u>Names</u>, 2 (1954), pp. 21-26.

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹¹ Walker, E.A., "Self-Concept and Degree of Liking of One's First Name by Self and Others" (unpublished master's thesis, Michigan State University, 1970), p. 17.

Maintaining this protection has resulted in various name taboos. These taboos are found in great quantity all over the world and show great similarity in places quite distant from each other. 112

An example of this taboo is that once a person knows the true name of another he gains power over him. Folk-tales, customs and religious legend in every culture will show this to be the case. The fairy tale of Rumplestiltskin is a form of this belief. The heroine in the story must know the name of the little magic dwarf in order to be released from his power.

Similar versions of this story in Scotland, Wales, England, Ireland, Germany, Austria and other countries have been found by ${\sf Clodd.}^{114}$

Masani reports that a widespread belief in Eastern and Western cultures is to give a child a deprecatory name as protection from evil spirits. In some places this is done only if the child is sickly -- the rationale being that the spirits won't think someone with such a terrible name is worth bothering.

Another form of the custom is to give disgraceful names to children after previously born children given good names have died. Some primitive people are under the belief that a child

^{112&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

¹¹³ Fenichel, O., <u>Psychoanlytic Theory of Neurosis</u> (New York: Norton, 1945).

¹¹⁴ Clodd, E., "The Philosophy of Rumplestiltskin, The Folk-lore Journal, 7 (1889), part 2, pp. 135-163.

¹¹⁵ Masani, op. cit.

named after someone will acquire the namesake's qualities. Naming helps create the character of the child. 116

A change of a personal name can occur on many occasions and for different reasons. An important event, sickness, a ceremonial occasion such as marriage, baptism, puberty rites, circumcision or even old age can serve as the impetus for changing a name. Any event that changes the status of a person may be accompanied by a name change or addition of a name. ¹¹⁷ Many of these reasons are still used today such as marriage, baptism, divorce, adoption, conferring of certain degrees or joining an order such as the Black Muslims.

Often in today's society the name becomes part of one's personality. Masani 118 discusses what is in a name. He believes it is important. One's future and fortune depend on it. It is a storehouse of folk culture. He believes it is like being stamped on the forehead, this stamp reflecting the tradition and usages of the community to which the individual belongs and the level of culture attained by the community. He suggests a look to religion, psychology, history and folk philosophy to understand this vital connection.

Jahoda, 119 in a study of the Ashanti tribe of the British Gold Coast, found that children were given a name according to

¹¹⁶ Walker, op. cit.

^{117 &}lt;u>Ibid</u>., pp. 19-22.

¹¹⁸ Masani, op. cit., p. 21.

¹¹⁹ Jahoda, C., "A Note on Ashanti Names and Their Relation-ship to Personality," <u>British Journal of Psychology</u>, 45 (1954), pp. 192-195.

the day of the week on which they were born. Two outstanding cultural stereotypes existed regarding the names. Boys born on Monday were supposed to be quiet and peaceful. Wednesday boys were supposed to be troublemakers. His conclusion in the study was that results obtained were consistent with his hypothesis that Ashanti beliefs about a connection between personality, character and day of birth may be effective in selectively enhancing certain traits which otherwise may have remained latent.

Regarding names and the identity of self, Allport called the name the most important anchorage point for selfhood. As the child grows, the name becomes a point of contact with the interpersonal world. He says that, "With the name comes the formality of receiving salutations and addresses from others and with this formality comes a sense of self-importance and of position within the social hierarchy." 120

Allport refers to an earlier work where he found that defending one's name was second only to the immediate physical safety of oneself as a cause of justifiable homicide.

DeLevita speaks of name in relation to identity in this manner:

"The name has in common with the body the fact that it fulfills a function as a format of identity before it becomes an idential. The child says its name before it says 'I' and needs its name in order

¹²⁰ Allport, G.W., <u>Personality</u> (New York: Holt, 1937), p. 163.

to be able to delineate itself as an ego....The personal role expectation of the parent -- name givers with regard to the child -- is expressed in it but is inseparably interwoven with the communis opinio in the prevailing culture with regard to what the name symbolizes." 121

He hints further that identity problems may arise from names that are too unusual, leading to loneliness, or from names that are too common, leading a person to feel he must do something to distinguish himself from others. Other studies show that these are two of the most common reasons given by people who dislike their name. 122

In his work on identity, Strauss discusses names and says it reveals the judgement of the namer:

"The names that are adopted voluntarily reveal even more tellingly the indissoluble tie between name and self-image. The changing of names marks a rite of passage. It means such things as that the person wants to have the kind of name he thinks represents him as a person. He does not want any longer to be the kind of person that his previous name signified."123

To name is to know. This isn't in a magical sense, but in the sense that naming is central to a person's cognition of the world.

Clinical Research on Names

Much has been revealed about names through clinical research in such areas as social psychiatry and psychoanalysis.

 $^{^{121}\}text{DeLevita, D.J., }\frac{\text{The Concept}}{173-174.}$ of Identity (Paris: Mouton and Company, 1965), pp. 173-174.

¹²² Ibid.

¹²³ Strauss, A.L., Mirrors and Masks: The Search for Identity (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1959), p. 16.

Stekel¹²⁴had a belief that a person's neurosis, character and occupation may be related to his name. Abraham¹²⁵supported Stekel's assumption by citing two of his cases where the content of an obsession was related to the name of the patient and one homosexual case where there was an obvious correspondence between the name and the problem.

He also suggested that in families where the name suggests a character trait, both may be handed down providing the original ancestor was appropriately named. He also has basis to think that one's name might be an important determinant in the choice of a love object. 126

Flugel 127 agrees with Abraham. He describes the cases he has encountered where unconscious influence of name on conduct has been present. There are three main divisions in these cases: (1) general influence on character and behavior; (2) choices of profession or occupation; and (3) choice of love object. In addition, some cases showed influence of a name being shown in more than one of the categories.

Murphey reported the following cases. A doctor had patients named Small and Little with inferiority complexes, a

¹²⁴ Stekel, W., Compulsion and Doubt, I. (New York: Liveright, 1949).

¹²⁵ Abraham, K., Clinical Papers and Essays on Psychoanalysis (New York: Basic Books, 1955).

¹²⁶ Ibid.

¹²⁷ Flugel, I., "On the Significance of Names," <u>British</u>
<u>Journal of Medical Psychiatry</u>, 10 (1930), p. 209.

¹²⁸ Murphey, W.F., "A Note on the Significance of Names," Psychoanlytic Quarterly, 26 (1957), pp. 91-106.

McCold who had troubles with his sinuses and a Hogg who first overate and then developed anorexia nervosa (loss of appetite).

A case seeming less coincidental was that of a young man whose parents each had a different nickname for him. "Throughout his life and career he wavered between the choice of one of these nicknames as he wavered in his identification with and his allegiance to each of his parents." 129

A slightly different view is held by Oberndorff. He examined the relationship of name and character and says:

"Although there is a striking frequency with which patients have referred to their attitudes toward their Christian names or in some way altered their surnames...where the reaction had had any intense force, the vital influence has depended not so much on the person as Abraham¹³⁰ states, but upon innate feelings which the patient believes is in some way mirrored in his name, to or against his advantage." 131

In agreement with this viewpoint is Plotke. 132 He adds that certain people focus on their name as a sort of "guiding fixture" to symbolize their lifestyle. Opinions a person has of his name are revealing factors of lifestyle, similarly as can analysis of dreams or childhood recollections.

In a theoretical framework, Feldman 133 sees naming as an essentially hostile limiting act. Names are an expression of

¹²⁹ Ibid., pp. 93-94.

¹³⁰ Abraham, op. cit.

¹³¹ Oberndorff, C.P., "Reaction to Personal Names," <u>Psycho-analytic Review</u>, 5 (1918), pp. 47-52.

¹³² Plotke, P., "On the Psychology of Proper Names," Individual Psychology Bulletin, 5 (1946), pp. 106-111.

¹³³ Feldman, H., "The Problem of Personal Names as a Universal Element in Culture," American Imago, 16 (1959), pp. 237-250.

antagonism which people feel toward what they name. Naming is a means by which they come to terms with unwanted resistant objects. The named person reflects this hostility of the namer. The named feels imposed upon, as the name given him by another is an alien imprint on his personality, and yet he is at the same time identified with the name.

Fenichel addresses himself to magical thinking in children with regard to names. Tying up words and ideas makes thinking as a process possible. The ego has now a better weapon to handle the external world as well as its own excitations. This is the rational content of the ancient magical belief that one can master what one can name. 134

Berguer 135 expands on this concept relating that control comes about through naming for the child. Gradually, as the child learns more and more names of things and people, he is better and better able to get what he wants.

In a speculative manner, Memmi¹³⁶ addresses himself to psychological correlates of name changes. In the case of Jews -- name changes ostensibly for the purpose of concealing their Jewish origin are really compromises between retaining the Jewish identity and concealing it.

¹³⁴ Fenichel, op. cit., p. 46.

¹³⁵ Berguer, G., "La Puissance de Nom," Archives de Psychologie, 25 (1936), pp. 313-322.

¹³⁶ Memmi, A., The <u>Liberation</u> of the <u>Jew</u> (New York: Orion Press, 1966).

Changes discussed are Aron to Nora, a reverse; Benamor to Emmanuel, a change to a name that might be Jewish; Schwartz to Black, Bronstein to Brownstone, Greenfeld to Greenfield, all translations and Davidovitch to David, a shortened form.

Memmi's agrument is that if people really wanted to conceal their Jewish origin, they would take names like Smith or Jones. In place of this, they compromise and take a name that could be Jewish without having to be Jewish.

The change concedes something to the demands of the non-Jewish world, but retains a link with the Jewish name.

"The name literally sticks to the person, and most people suffer when they hear theirs mutilated as if it hurts their very being. It is doubltless the old magical fear of losing one's soul." 137

Israeli Jews do the same, with the intention being just the opposite, yet the mechanisms of transference are identical. A remnant of the old name is kept, either by translation into Hebrew, keeping the meaning of the old name, choosing a name with similar sound or significance, or by the common practice of taking the name Ben___ followed by the Hebraic name of the father.

Memmi concludes, "It seems that even in triumph, an absolute rupture with the self is not always desired." 138

^{137 &}lt;u>Ibid</u>., p. 41.

^{138&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

Research Studies Into Names

Allen, Brown, Dickinson and Pratt, and Walton have shown that stereotypy of first names takes place, but the number is limited.

Lawson, ¹⁴¹ in a semantic differential analysis of men's first names, found that both men and women hold stereotypes for both common and random names. Names with lower frequency were not rated as favorably as common names. Men and women saw high frequency names as closer to the good, strong and active semantic dimensions.

In 1937, Walton 142 found that by paired comparison and absolute judgement, common first names do have affective value (students were able to indicate a like or dislike for the name alone). Men and women generally agree on which names they prefer.

In a sample of college students, Allen, Brown, Dickinson and Pratt 143 found that some 40 percent of men and 46 percent of women were dissatisfied with their first names. They also found that men prefer more common first names but women prefer names neither

¹³⁹ Allen, L. et. al., "The Relation of First Name Preferences to Their Frequency in the Culture," American Journal of Psychology, 14 (1941), pp. 279-293.

¹⁴⁰ Walton, W.E., "The Affective Value of First Names," <u>Journal of Applied Psychology</u>, 21 (1937), pp. 396-409.

¹⁴¹ Lawson, E.D., "Semantic Differential Analysis of Men's First Names," Journal of Psychology, 78 (1971), pp. 229-240.

¹⁴² Walton, op. cit.

¹⁴³ Allen, et. al., op. cit.

too strange nor too common. Both men and women dislike very strange names.

Finch, Kilgren and Pratt, ¹⁴⁴using college and elementary school students and heterogeneous adults as subjects, concluded that common male names were generally preferred by all groups. A greater variability occurred for female names. "Variability of name preference reaches its greatest amount among the females of childbearing age. This means that many unique names, those which are bizarre and those which represent a passing fad will be bestowed upon children." ¹⁴⁵

A preference for unusual names was found by Eagleson 146 among Negro college women. Another result he found was that one of every five who disliked her name and one of every eight who liked hers said the name affected her life in some way.

Dexter¹⁴⁷ found among college students that those with nicknames tended to be more popular than those not having them.

Plank¹⁴⁸ reports that a definite trend is developing in giving
similar names to sets of twins (rhyme, first letter, etc.). This

¹⁴⁴ Finch, M., Kilgren, H., and Pratt, K.C., "The Relation of First Name Preferences to Age of Judges or to Different Although Overlapping Generations," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 20 (1944), pp. 249-269.

¹⁴⁵ Ibid., p. 263.

¹⁴⁶ Eagleson, O.W., "Student's Reactions to Their Given Names," Journal of Social Psychology, 23 (1946), pp. 187-195.

¹⁴⁷ Dexter, E.S., "Three Items Related to Personality: Popularity, Nicknames and Homesickness," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 30 (1949), pp. 155-158.

¹⁴⁸ Plank, R., "Names of Twins," Names, 12 (1964), pp. 1-5.

is dangerous, he cautions, in that a name is closely related to one's status as an individual.

Using Harvard undergrads as subjects, Savage and Wells¹⁴⁹ studied the effects of unusual names. Nine percent of the sample had unusual names. Fifteen percent of those diagnosed as psychoneurotic had unusual names and 17 percent of those flunking out had unusual names. The unusual name could work positively, however, as some students with unusual names did superior work on their exams.

Ellis and Beechly 150 examined case histories of children at a clinic over a period of three years. They found disturbance was associated with peculiar names in boys, not in girls. Their explanation is that women's names have a much wider range of acceptable variability. A girl therefore with an unusual name is not spotlighted as is a boy with a peculiar name.

The relationship between the ratings of degree of liking of first names and the population of children having those names was studied by McDavid and Harari. 151 A correlation was found between the ratings given a name in a group of children and the popularity assessed by sociometric analysis of a child liking

¹⁴⁹ Savage, B.M., and Wells, F.L., "A Note on Singularity in Given Names," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 27 (1948), pp. 271-272.

¹⁵⁰ Ellis, A., and Beechly, R., "Emotional Disturbance in Children with Peculiar Given Names," <u>Journal of Genetic Psychology</u>, 85 (1954), pp. 337-339.

¹⁵¹ McDavid, W., and Harari, H., "Stereotyping of Names and Popularity in Grade-School Children," Child Development, 37 (1966), pp. 453-459.

that name. They found a definite preference for certain names.

"Attention is drawn to the possibility that the child who bears a generally unpopular or unattractive name may be handicapped in his social interactions with peers."

Murphey, in discussing name changes, asserts that "aliases and $\underline{\text{noms}}$ de plume reveal the unconscious factors of those using them." 153

Hartman studied criminal aliases and found many similarities between the alias and the real name of the individual. He is in agreement with Memmi¹⁵⁴ and states that, "Probably the most important psychological process underlying the selection of aliases is a conflict between the desire to achieve anonymity and the need to retain one's personality identity." 155

In addition, he says the degree of similarity between the original and assumed names may be taken as an important indication of the degree of personality reorganization or conflict. When a clear-cut name change is made we can assume corresponding changes in an individual's self-concept. A change also shows in the strength of identification with his original family and social group. 156

¹⁵²Ibid., p. 458.

¹⁵³ Murphey, op. cit., p. 104.

¹⁵⁴ Memmi, op. cit.

¹⁵⁵Hartman, A.A., "Criminal Aliases: A Psychological Study," Journal of Psychology, 32 (1951), p. 53.

¹⁵⁶ Ibid., pp. 49-56.

To explain how important the name is to an individual, Moray 157 conducted a dichotic listening experiment. He found no stimulus would break the attention barrier except the subject's own name. In discussion he says that these results raise a problem that can be termed an identification paradox. While apparently the verbal content of the rejected message is blocked out below the level of conscious perception, nonetheless a subject can respond to his own name.

Using middle class suburban 9th grade students as subjects, Walker 158 concluded that a person's feelings of like or dislike for his name are indicative of his level of self-concept when they are particularly strong in either direction. Feelings about one's first name are closely related to one's feelings about oneself as a member of a homogeneous family unit.

Brand Names, Trademarks, Corporate Names

A brand is a word, name, design or symbol (or combination of these) that is intended to identify visually and/or orally the offering of one enterprise and to differentiate it from offerings of other enterprises. 159

A trademark is a kind of shortened symbol for a corporation.

It is a memory trigger. If it is a good one, it can in an instant,

¹⁵⁷ Moray, N., "Attention in Dichotic Listening," Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, 11 (1959), pp. 56-60.

¹⁵⁸ Walker, op. cit.

¹⁵⁹ Lipson, H.A., and Darling, J.R., Introduction to Marketing: An Administrative Approach (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1971), p. 634.

utilizing conscious and unconscious forces, reflect a corporate image effectively and accurately. 160

The relationship between brand names and trademarks is explained by Lipson and Darling. 161 All brand names and trademarks are brands or parts of brands, but not all brands are either brand names or trademarks. A brand is the inclusive generalized term used to indicate the identification of the product.

The brand name is concerned with that part of the brand that can be vocalized. Trademarks are legal terms for that part of the brand that the law identifies and protects as a trademark.

Each brand is actually a very brief coded message that permits the seller to identify the particular set of specifications represented. Buyers can grasp a code name easier than they can absorb all the specifications that this brand name represents. Sellers find it effective to use brands in order to identify the product specifications. 162

Boorstin eleborates on trademarks stating that they are intended to become a standard for judging all products of a certain kind. He stresses that it is a legally protected set of letters, a picture or a design identifying a particular product. "A trademark is seldom a simple by-product of other activities. It is not merely the name, initials or signature of a maker or guild -- it

¹⁶⁰ Boorstin, D.J., <u>The Image</u> (New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1962), p. 194.

¹⁶¹ Lipson and Darling, op. cit., p. 634.

¹⁶² Ibid., p. 635.

is designed by a specialist." He believes this is so because trademarks have become very important in recent years.

They are not simply "Coca-Cola" or "USS," but are more abstract. He refers to them as a crafted personality profile of an individual institution, corporation, product or service. 164

"We confess a distinction between what we see and what is really there," he says, and "we prefer what we see." 165

This overshadowing that results covers up whatever may really be there. By using the term trademark (image) -- in the manner Boorstin describes -- one can imply that something can be done to it -- refurbish, improve, synthesize or doctor it.

Leo Bogart 166 looks at the brand name, trademark, corporate image and product image in communication terms. A manufacturer is continually involved in the complex process of communication with his product's customers. This is in some ways comparable to interpersonal relations.

In our society of impersonal mass marketing and mass consumption, the relationship of buyer and seller is at quite a distance, yet in a sense the advertiser is still constantly trying to establish a one-to-one relationship with prospective customers or to deepen a relationship that already exists. 167

¹⁶³ Boorstin, op. cit., p. 185.

¹⁶⁴ Ibid.

¹⁶⁵ Ibid., pp. 186-187.

Brace and World, Inc., 1967), pp. 60-61.

Harcourt

^{167&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

The reputation of his company or brand is as complex and subtle a product of events and forces as is the impression one human being has of another. Many bits and pieces of personal experience, conversation, symbolism of name, pricing, packaging and product attributes build that reputation. 168

As a result of research into consumer motivation, advertisers have become aware that in making a product choice among relatively undifferentiated brands, the consumer buys mainly the satisfaction arising from a brand's unconscious symbolic meanings and associations. 169

The principles of generalization and discrimination in learning are relevant to marketing of such undifferentiated products. Generalization refers to the individual's tendency to make the same learned response to similar cues. Discrimination refers to the individual's ability to selectively respond to similar cues. 170

Robertson states that, "Most marketers wish to move their item from being perceived as a product by consumers to being perceived as a brand. They wish consumers to discriminate toward their individual cue rather than to generalize that one item is like any other."

The greater the product differences, the more likely discrimination is to occur. Companies have invested large sums of

^{168&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

¹⁶⁹ Bogart, op. cit., p. 61.

¹⁷⁰ Robertson, T.S., Consumer Behavior (Glenview, Ill.: Scott Foresman Company, 1970), p. 26.

¹⁷¹ Ibid.

money to induce consumers to perceive differences and make discriminating responses for many non-differentiated product categories such as beer, soap or cigarettes.

Advertising has flourished from efforts to produce apparent distinctions in such product categories according to Boorstin. 172

Competing products were precisely similar and very unnoticeably different. Different brands of these commodities could not be distinguished from one another by shape or function. Consequently, each had to be distinguished by being attached to a distinctive image. 173

The Brand Names Foundation (1943) by 1959 had almost a thousand members. Brand names had become household words. Boorstin calls what has happened since with the aid of advertising as going from the "brand name to the name brand." 174

He states that the use of brand as a synonym for trademark had entered the English language as early as 1827. "In America, the usage of the expression 'brand name' called attention to private ownership of trademarks the fact that one firm alone was authorized to designate its product. But the much newer expression 'name brand' makes the name and not the product the center of attention." 175

An objective for any low-interest product is to get a tipof-the-tongue association between the general product category

¹⁷² Boorstin, op. cit., p. 199.

^{173&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

¹⁷⁴ Ibid., p. 200.

^{175&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

and the individual brand. For instance, not a soft-drink but a "Coke;" not a facial tissue, but a "Kleenex." Such an identification makes it more likely that the customer will ask for the brand by name or reach for it on a shelf among similarly priced and packaged items. 176

Generalization, as mentioned earlier, can be a valuable strategy depending on the marketing situation. The use of a "family" brand such as G.E. or Heinz takes account of this principle. The objective behind this is to provide a unified meaning for a line of products and to benefit from strong positive associations developed for the family name. 177

The importance of brand identity to an advertiser was shown in a study by P.E. Van de Bruin and J.H. van Lonkhuyser 178 for the Phillips Lamp Company in the Netherlands.

They composed split-run full-page two color ads for a photo cell in a Dutch publication "The Engineer." The copy and illustration were identified in both ads except that one carried the logotype symbol that identifies "Phillips" and the other a logo for a mythical brand "TAG."

The Phillips logo created five times as much unaided recall scores, and aided recall was twice as high as that created by the unknown brand.

¹⁷⁶ Bogart, op. cit., p. 61.

¹⁷⁷ Robertson, op. cit., p. 27.

¹⁷⁸ Van de Bruin, P.E., and van Lonkhuyser, J.H., in L. Bogart, op. cit., p. 61.

In a similar study, Simon ¹⁷⁹ compared ad content for leading brands and other brands. Brand names were masked for the first evaluation and identified for subsequent evaluations. She concluded that brand name leaders can elicit more favorable attitudes than ad content may warrant. This is true because of the positive influence of their companies' names.

Bucklin, ¹⁸⁰in a study of women shoppers in Oakland, California, found that store reputation (name) may be just as important to the consumer as that of the product. He found consumer familiarity with both the brand of merchandise and the store which sells it reduces the uncertainty which causes people to shop around before they buy. This sense of familiarity and trust is what every advertiser seeks to establish.

An example where a competing brand's name is too closely associated with the name of the brand leader is that of the B.F. Goodrich Tire Company. They feel that they are losing potential sales for their "Lifesaver Radial" tires because of the "curse" of having a name similar to the leading manufacturer, the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company. In an attempt to obtain better discrimination for their product, Goodrich is doing a series of ads rather than change their name. 181

¹⁷⁹ Simon, M.F., "Influence of Brand Name on Attitudes," Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 10 (1970), pp. 10-13.

¹⁸⁰ Bucklin, L., American Druggist (June 6, 1966), cited in L. Bogart, op. cit., p. 61.

^{181 &}quot;Goodrich Out to Dispel 'Curse' of Its Own Name," Advertising Age, 43:49 (December 4, 1972), p. 2.

In changing or choosing a name for a product, marketers may either: (1) coin a name -- Kodak, Dacron; (2) adapt or adopt words -- Pamper, Perfection; or (3) use a name under license or agreement -- Batman, Howard Johnson. 182

In general, brand names should be short, easy to pronounce, pleasing when read or said, timely, adaptable to packaging or labelling needs and any advertising medium, and not used by any other enterprise. Some businesses use brand names to indicate endurance, strength or performance characteristics. 183

In the most recent wave of new product introductions, brand names have imposed a personality upon the product. Joining such old-timers as Dr. Pepper and Mr. Clean are new-comers Baron von Redberry and Sir Grapefellow (breakfast cereals), Big Wally (household cleaner) and Ragedy Ann-Ragedy Andy (disposable diapers). 184

Corporate Name Changes -- New Product Names

Corporations often go to considerable lengths to find a more suitable name for themselves or to introduce a new product.

The classic example is the Ford Motor Company who, prior to launching a new product several years ago, established a judging panel to select a new name. After months of study, they came up with the name they wanted all along: Edsel, named after the son

¹⁸² Lipson and Darling, op. cit., p. 635.

^{183&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

^{1840&#}x27;Connor, J., "Personality Brand Names Seen as Trend in June New-Product Reports," Advertising Age, 43:27 (July 3, 1972), p. 4.

of the company's founder. The car was a dud, so much so that now Edsel has become a synonym for a highly publicized product which flops in the marketplace. 185

Months are often spent in search of new corporate titles. An example is Eaton, Yale and Towne, Inc. Its management decided that the name led to misunderstanding and confusion among its many publics. They undertook a comprehensive study to evaluate possible alternatives. They decided that any choice must be brief, easy to pronounce and linguistically acceptable in all major countries because of the concern's multinational nature. Finally the name Eaton Corporation was chosen since it met all the criteria. 186

A recent example where a brand name was changed because of linguistic non-acceptance was the case of the Humble Oil and Refining Company, changing its Enco brand to Exxon, because in Japanese the word "enco" means stalled car.

Merjos 187 gives another case example in the change from Allis Chalmers Manufacturing Company to Allis Chalmers Corporation.

Its management commented that the new name has brevity, conforms to common usage of the public in referring to the firm, and better identifies it more as a manufacturer of the product it sells.

Whatever the reason, some 250 publicly owned enterprises had changed their name from 1970 to 1971. Merjos 188 gives some

¹⁸⁵ Merjos, A., "Aerodyne to Ziegler, More Companies Than Ever are Changing Their Names," <u>Barron's</u>, 51:38 (September 20, 1971), pp. 9-15.

¹⁸⁶ Ibid.

 $^{^{187}}$ Ibid.

¹⁸⁸ Ibid.

reasons for and methods of changing corporate names as well as examples of each.

Some corporations change for the sake of simplicity. An example is Red Lake Laboratories, Inc., changing to Redlake Corporation.

Sometimes management comes up with a shorter name by combining the initials of the old one. EMI Ltd., formerly Electric and Musical Industries, Ltd., is an example.

H.G. Sawyer 189 commented on the recent trend of forming names by use of initials. He says that advertisers like the short, initial made-up names for reasons that they are easier to build into ad layouts and more susceptible to modern design.

Theoretically, a name like AME-TEK is more distinctive than "American Gadget Company" or "Ideal Can Corporation." Sawyer questions this theory by arguing that initial made-up names are so much alike that one has to convert to the original to make a positive identification. Advertising is the key to a company making its name stand for what it wants. This holds true for companies whose name no longer stands for the business it is in. Reputation is what counts.

G.E. makes things other than electric items; Frigidaire makes stoves; and Hotpoint makes refrigerators -- yet all are successful and have kept their original names. 190

¹⁸⁹ Sawyer, H.G., "Sawyer: What's In A Name? More Than What's In Initials," <u>Industrial</u> <u>Marketing</u>, 56:8 (August, 1971), p. 35.

¹⁹⁰ Ibid.

Some new names are an anagram of the old title. Artko Company was formerly Aero-Tech, Inc., and Danalab, Inc., was formerly known as Dana Laboratories.

Many switches are brought on by diversification. American Sugar Company, for example, felt the name no longer was descriptive of the full scope of its business. Developments had expanded its activities into areas beyond refining, processing and sale of sugar. The company changed their name to Amstar Corporation.

Quaker Oats Company decided recently to change its corporate symbol but not its name to show its diversification of product lines and contemporary, dynamic policies. The reason given for not changing the name was "because the goodwill and reputation for quality that are now associated with the Quaker Oats Company name are a priceless asset."

When a title no longer reflects the geographical scope of the business, a change may be in order. Culligan, Inc., upon acquiring operations in several other countries, became Culligan International Company.

National Lead found that the term lead carried adverse connotations. For that reason it changed its name to NL Industries, Inc.

New names sometimes come from a desire to identify with a particular company's popular brand. National Biscuit Company recently changed its name to Nabisco, Inc., because the firm was

^{191 &}quot;Quaker Oats Introduces New Corporate Symbol," Advertising Age, 41:39 (September 28, 1970), p. 32.

best known to its customers by its brand name Nabisco.

Airco had long been the principal trademark of the Air Reduction Company. The company is now called Airco, Inc.

Mergers are another large reason for changing corporate names. Warner-Lambert Pharmaceutical merged with Parke, Davis and Company in 1970 under the new title Warner-Lambert Company.

Banks, among other institutions, often change names to indicate a broader operating scope. The First National Bank (Madison) is now First Wisconsin National Bank.

Reincorporation in another state is another reason for a name change. The Cosmodyne Corporation changed its name to Cordon International Corporation after incorporating in Delaware after a move from Florida.

A final reason for changing a name or title is upon recapitalizing. Merrill Island Mining Corporation became Canadian Merrill Limited on such an occasion. 192

Set Research

One cannot talk about responses to stimuli as relating to learning, perception, problem solving or social attitudes without evoking the concept of set as a mediating influence operating somewhere between stimulus and response. 193

^{192&}lt;sub>Merjos, op. cit.</sub>

¹⁹³ McGee, R.K., Response Set in Personality Assessment, ed. I. Berg (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1967), p. 8.

Forgus 194 describes set as a perception which is structured toward a single or few reactions. Set operates to predispose subjects toward certain kinds of behavior rather than other kinds; i.e., they reduce the number of response alternatives.

Set is described by Adcock and Adcock ¹⁹⁵ as the learned predisposition to attend to particular stimuli or respond (behave) in certain habitual ways.

Heimstra and Ellingstad say that one of the major internal factors that influences attention is perceptual readiness or set. Their definition of set is the "disposition of a person to attend to a certain type of stimulus in a particular situation at a given time." 196

For example, as one approaches an intersection while driving an automobile, he is prepared or "set" to attend to such stimulus objects as traffic lights and other vehicles. Set may be established on the basis of instructions as well as habit or experience. Perceptual readiness or set prepares a person for attending to certain categories of stimulation. In other words, stimulation does not affect a passive receiver but rather a receiver who is prepared for certain kinds of stimulation. 197

¹⁹⁴ Forgus, R., Perception (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966), p. 269.

¹⁹⁵ Adcock, C.J., and Adcock, N.V., Psychology (London: Henneman Educational Books, 1968), p.44.

¹⁹⁶ Heimstra, N.W., and Ellingstad, V.S., <u>Human Behavior</u>, <u>A Systems Approach</u> (Monterey, Calif: Brooks/Cal Publishing Co., 1972), p. 120.

^{197&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

One of the first studies to deal with set and its effects was conducted by Luchins 198 in 1942. He refers to set as Einstellung (the German word for mental set) and explained its effect on problem-solving behavior in a series of classic "water jar" studies.

He found that after working several of the problems, typical subjects developed a set for solving the problem by means of a formula he gave them. The <u>Ss</u> continued to work the problems in this way even though a more simple solution was available.

Luchins' study showed that set had a direct effect on the type of problem-solving behavior. Ss ranging from grade school children to graduate students exhibited the same lack of ability to extract the simpler solution. The original response pattern was highly resistant to extinction.

Asher, Tiffin and Knight²⁰⁰reported that the perceiver's set, determined by prevailing feelings, desires and intention, and by activity which is in progress, influences one's perception. It may act as a barrier that keeps a present excitation from calling up the experience produced by similar excitations in the past. In this case, the perception of the present excitation is likely to be determined entirely by the perceiver's set.

¹⁹⁸ Luchins, in N.W. Heimstra and V.S. Ellingstad, op. cit., p. 254.

¹⁹⁹ Ibid., p. 255.

²⁰⁰ Asher, E.J., Tiffin, J., and Knight, F.B., Introduction to General Psychology (Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1964), p. 247.

They list an example stating that if a man lies awake at night thinking about burglars breaking into his house, he is likely to perceive the creaking of a porch swing as a burglar trying to open a window. The man has experienced the creak of the porch swing many times, but tonight however the same creaking noise doesn't set off previous experiences and a recognition of the source of the noise. Instead, the man is set to perceive a burglar.

The set not only acts as a barrier to the recall of the previous experiences with creaking swings, but actually determines that the present noise will be interpreted as a burglar. 201

The influence of set upon perception is easily determined when the stimulus is relatively unstructured, indistinct, new or ambiguous. Since such stimuli will be less likely to set off established perceptions, their perception will be determined more largely by the individual's set. 202

Set appears related to attitudes. Allport writes that the main stream of the concept "set" is that, "In one way or another the essential feature of attitude is a preparation or readiness for response. The attitude is incipient and preparatory, rather than overt and consummatory. It is not behavior but the

²⁰¹ Ibid., p. 248.

²⁰²Ibid., p. 248.

precondition of behavior."203

Meeting expectations of friends, groups, peers and others may be viewed as a form of set or attitudes toward these persons. This social desirability as a response set is described by Edwards as a "tendency of subjects to attribute to themselves self-descriptive personality statements with socially desirable scale values and to reject those with socially undesirable scale values." 204

Such a desire may be created through instructions to respondents in research, as well as in other situations when someone describes his expectations of others.

The response of subjects in the performance of perceptual tasks is determined to some extent by the verbal instructions given. Landaur 205 refers to a common view among some researchers that instructions serve to induce "analytic" or object-directed viewing attitudes which considerably affect the perceptual behavior of the observer. A number of tentative hypotheses have been advanced suggesting various causes for the effect of instruction stimulus.

The most common perceptual determinant mentioned is the familiarity of the observer with the stimulus. This factor

²⁰³ Allport, G., cited in I. Berg, ed., Response Set in Personality Assessment (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1967), p. 9.

²⁰⁴ Edwards, A.L., The Social Desirability Variables in Personality Assessment and Research (New York: The Dryden Press, 1957), p. vi.

Landaur, A.A., "The Effect of Instructing on the Judge-ment of Brightness," Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, 16 (1964), pp. 23-29.

derives largely from the memory color hypothesis of Hering. 206

This has been shown by studies such as Duncker 207 that brightness constancy is increased in a stimulus judgement if the subject believes that he is looking at a familiar object whose reflection he knows.

Mulholland²⁰⁸reports that an instructional set is of a general nature. He used various designs and instructional sets in six experiments and reported subjects perceived a motion more often when instructed to perceive that motion than when no instructions were given.

In an experiment in solving problems which involved turning switches to create certain light patterns, Duncan 209 found that subjects who were strongly instructed to minimize overt responses (turn switches) and to think made fewer overt responses and took a longer time to solve the problem than were uninstructed subjects. These effects of instruction occurred across three different amounts of information levels about the problem and on an initial as well as a transfer basis. Problem information levels are manipulated in this study.

^{206&}lt;sub>Hering</sub>, E., "Zun Lebre von Lichtsinne," <u>S.B. Akad. Wiss.</u> Wien, Abt. <u>III</u> (1969), pp. 85-104.

Duncker, K., "The Influence of Past Experience Upon Perceptual Properties," American Journal of Psychology, 52 (1939), pp. 255-265.

Mulholland, T., "Instructional Sets and Motion Perceived While Viewing Rotating Stimulus Objects," <u>Journal of Psychology</u>, 56 (1963), pp. 233-237.

²⁰⁹ Duncan, C.P., "Effect of Instructions and Information on Problem Solving," <u>Journal of Experimental Psychology</u>, 65:4 (April, 1963), pp. 321-327.

Lucas and Britt²¹⁰speak of the halo effect as a possible bias or set in the pretesting of print ads. They refer to the halo effect as a tendency to pick out the best liked ad and rate it highest in all respects. It is the same tendency which causes people to rate their friends fairly high on almost every human quality and to be correspondingly unfair to people they do not like.

Mills and O'Neal²¹¹write that the anticipation of making choices about other persons increased the intercorrelations of traits attributed to the persons by the subjects involved in the experiment.

Prior exposure and stimulus complexity are other indicators of response set. A study to explore the effects of several amounts of prior exposure to one of two sets of stimuli on subsequent tendencies to choose the previously nonexposed set was conducted by Endsley. 212

Experiments of this type are based on the Berlyne ²¹³proposition that organisms tend to approach stimuli as a function

²¹⁰ Lucas, D., and Britt, S.H., <u>Measuring Advertising Effectiveness</u> (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963), p. 105.

²¹¹ Mills, J., and O'Neal, E., "Anticipated Choice, Attention and Halo Effect," <u>Psychonomic Science</u>, 22 (1971), pp. 231-233.

²¹² Endsley, R.C., "Effects of Differential Prior Exposures on Preschool Children's Subsequent Choice of Novel Stimuli,"

Psychonomic Science, 7 (1967), pp. 411-412.

²¹³ Berlyne, B.E., Conflict, Arousal and Curiosity (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

of their novelty, and on the assumption that both the number of alternations between the two sets (novel stimulus set vs. familiar stimulus set) reflect the subjects' tendencies to maintain commerce with novelty. Berlyne has suggested other variables which influence attention and perception.

Information about the problem and situation at the Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center is provided one group in this study and not the other. Such manipulation is done to explore the possibility that knowledge levels might serve as an "instructional" set in the test situation to precipitate less complexity of responding to the adjective lists with each name in the test instrument (described in the next chapter).

Based on the literature review cited above, the following variables are defined for this exploratory study.

INDEPENDENT:

Knowing. Knowing is defined as <u>Ss</u> being informed of the problem the Center faces and the Center's reasons for seeking a name change, prior to any performance of evaluative tasks on the part of <u>Ss</u>. It will be randomly assigned to one of the sample segments.

DEPENDENT:

Image. The image will be measured for each alternative name for the Ingham Medical Hospital Community

Health Center. It is defined as:

(1) appropriateness scores for each
alternative name; and (2) frequency
of descriptive adjectives for each
alternative name.

In addition, other data on media channels and use for access to social issue information was asked in the test instrument (see Appendix B). Such variables may serve as control variables in the analysis.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The operations of this research were carried out much as in a laboratory experiment.

<u>Sample</u>. The sample consisted of 147 introductory level advertising students enrolled during the Winter Term, 1973, at Michigan State University. The sample was randomly divided into two subsets, $n_1=87$, $n_2=60$.

Instructions (n=87). Group 1 was informed of the Center and of the problem confronting that Center. Ss in that group were read the following:

"The Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center, a facility of the Tri-County Mental Health Programs (Ingham-Clinton-Eaton), desires to develop a new name for the Center.

The Center offers the following services to the public. Outpatient services which are focused on crisis intervention and short-term treatment. Services of this type are provided to individuals, married couples, families and groups. Inpatient hospitalization is provided when necessary and focusses on stabilization and short-term hospitalization.

Precare-aftercare services are rehabilitative in nature and are provided to counter the effects of severe chronically disabling mental illnesses. Partial care services provide alternatives to long-term inpatient care by developing day and night hospitalization, transitional living and the like.

Twenty-four hour emergency service is available through the emergency room of Ingham Medical Hospital. A final service is the consultation and education service which makes mental health information and problem solving skills available to individuals and organizations in the community. The need for the new name arises from several factors:

- The first and most obvious is that the administrators of the Center feel the present name is too long.
- 2. The administrators also feel that the public just doesn't know enough about mental health or the Community Mental Health Center to be aware of the services offered.
- 3. The third factor is that the public and the majority of first-time users of the Center's services view the Center as a place where only seriously ill, longterm mental problems are dealt with.
- 4. The concept of mental health and related agencies that deal with it carries a social stigma. The administrators believe that a change in name may be a first step in reducing or eliminating that stigma.
- 5. Closely related to the above factors is the lack of understanding of the various types of services offered by the Center; ranging from consultation on drug or marriage problems, up to the more serious illnesses. The Center refers to this range of other services as 'comprehensive mental health' services.
- 6. The Center anticipates the new name will generate the concept of 'comprehensive mental health' clearly in the minds of those who see, hear or read of it."

Instructions (n=60). Ss in group 2 were not informed (uninformed) of the Center and the problems faced by it. They were read the following:

"The Tri-County Mental Health programs (Ingham-Clinton-Eaton) is planning to open a new facility in the near future. They are currently conducting research to support the choice of a name for the new facility. The facility will offer a wide range of services."

<u>Data Collection</u>. Groups 1 and 2 met separately for the experimental sessions. A data form (see Appendix B) was developed upon which each respondent was to rate each of six names on a five-point scale for appropriateness as a name for a mental health facility offering a full range of services. The list included the current name of the Center (see Appendix A for alternative name development procedures).

After this first form was completed, each respondent in each S group was asked to check those adjectives which best described that name both as a name for the Center and as a cue to the services offered by the Center (see Appendix A for adjective list development procedures). The order of presentation of items on the forms, as well as the order of the adjective list, was randomly determined.

Upon completion of the six adjective checklists, each respondent completed a data collection form asking for demographic and other related information (see Appendix B).

The Data

The data collected is of three types. Appropriateness scores measured on a scale from one to five for each of the six alternative names are gathered first. Secondly, the selection of adjectives which best "delimit" the meaning of each of the six names for each S are gathered. The final data collected is categorical in nature regarding respondents' sex, information sources -- mass media vs. interpersonal -- and relative importance of certain social issues, including mental health.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

To evaluate the development of the name-change model, to select a new name or names for the Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center, and to evaluate the effect (if any) of the "knowing" (independent) variable on meaningfulness (dependent) variable of the CMHC, several analyses were completed. The results of these analyses are presented in the following tables.

Selection of New Name(s). The mean appropriateness scores of each alternative name as a new name for the CMHC for each treatment group was computed. The results of this computation are presented in Table 1. This table shows that the name Tri-County Center for Social Consultation was rated as the most appropriate name by both treatment groups.

The mean scores for respondents' closeness to (salience) mental health and other social issues were computed and ranked for each of the two treatment groups. Results of this computation are presented in Table 2. Graduation from college and employment was ranked first in salience with mental health care ranked sixth on the list of seven social issues by both treatment conditions.

The frequency of occurrence for each adjective was evaluated for significance for each name. A subset of adjectives occurring

Table 1
Appropriateness Scores for Alternative Names

	$ \begin{array}{c} $	$\frac{n=60}{\underbrace{\frac{\text{Informed}}{x}}}$ s.d.
Ingham Emotional Care Facility	2.89* 1.03	2.52* .95
Counseling Services Center	2.95 1.08	3.05 1.06
Tri-County Center for Social Consultation	3.02 1.12	3.35 1.07
Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center	2.33 1.14	2.28 1.17
Mental Aids Center	2.61* 1.15	2.28* .87
Tri-County Problem Control Center	2.80 1.29	2.62 1.17

^{*} An analysis of variance showed that there was a significant difference in the appropriateness ratings between the informed and uninformed groups across the list of alternative names.

Table 2
Respondents Closeness to Social Issues

Social Issue	Informed Mean	n=87 s.d.
Graduation from college and employment	1.67	1.14
Environmental protection	2.18	1.06
Vietnam War	2.48	.99
Welfare reform	3.05	1.29
Wage price control	3.06	1.10
Mental Health Care	3.11	1.17
Airplane hijacking	3.47	1.25

Social Issue	Not Infor Mean	med n=60 s.d.
Graduation from college and employment	1.64	1.06
Environmental protection	2.08	1.06
Vietnam War	2.42	1.12
Wage price control	3.17	1.16
Welfare reform	3.20	1.31
Mental Health Care	3.21	1.25
Airplane hijacking	3.51	1.36

a significant number of times for each alternative name under each treatment group was defined. The number of statistically significant adjectives checked for each alternative name comprises a meaningfulness score for that name.

Table 3 contains the results of these computations. The names Counseling Services Center and Tri-County Center for Social Consultation emerged as the most meaningful names (meaningfulness scores of 4) and are comprised of the same adjective descriptors (understanding, concerned, helpful, social).

An analysis of variance was performed to test sex, group (informed vs. uninformed) and the names themselves as possible sources of effect on the <u>Ss</u> responses of the alternative names. The results of the analysis of variance are shown in Table 4. Sex and the names themselves were found to be significant sources of variance. The knowing variable (group) showed no effect on Ss responses of the alternative names.

Table 3

Subset of Adjectives (Comprising the Meaning) for Each Name and Meaningfulness Score (Number of Adjectives)

Tri-County Center for Social Consultation	Understanding Concerned Helpful Social (4)	Understanding Concerned Helpful Social (4)
Mental Aid Center	Treat- able (1)	(0)
Ingham Emotional Care Facility	Under- standing Concerned (2)	Under- standing Concerned Helpful (3)
Tri-County Problem Control Center	Immediate Concerned Social (3)	(0)
Ingham Medical Hospital Com- munity Men- tal Health Center	Critical Ill Long-Term (3)	Long-Term (1)
Counseling Services Center	Under- standing Concerned Helpful Social (4)	Under- standing Concerned Helpful Social (4)
	bemroìnI √8≕n	Mot Informed n=60

 $*x^2 \ge 3.84$ at .05 level.

 ∞

5.5

3

7

ω

١×

Table 4
Analysis of Variance*

Sources of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	F Statistic	Approximate Significance Probability of F Statistic
Sex	1	13.35	< 0.0005
Group	1	.00	.93
Name	5	7.42	< 0.0005
Sex X Group	1	.06	.80
Sex X Name	5	.46	.81
Sex X Group X Name	5	.42	.83

^{*} In order to perform a three-way analysis of variance, it was necessary to randomly reduce the original sample size to get equal n's in each cell.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

Appropriateness of Alternative Names

The findings in the previous chapter show that the name Tri-County Center for Social Consultation (with mean scores of 3.02 informed group, and 3.35 uninformed group) is the most appropriate name from the list of alternative names under both treatment conditions (see Table 1).

A closer examination of Table 1 shows that the current name -- Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center -- with mean scores of 2.33 informed group, and 2.28 uninformed group, ranked lowest among the six alternative names under each treatment condition.

This result supports the need for a change in name from the current title. Any of the other alternative names were deemed more appropriate than the current if the judgment is to be made only on the basis of the "most appropriate."

Although the name Tri-County Center for Social Consultation was judged most appropriate as a new name, neither of the treatment groups rated it as very appropriate. The 3.02 and 3.35 mean scores are only slightly appropriate on the five-point scale of appropriate (5)-unappropriate (1) upon which each name was rated.

This neutrality of ratings for appropriateness indicates that the respondents in both groups viewed the most preferred name as well as the others in a similar manner. On the one hand the names were not rated as very appropriate as a new name for the CMHC (the highest mean scores being 2.03 informed group, and 3.35 uninformed group), but on the other hand the names were not viewed as rather inappropriate (lowest mean scores being 2.61 informed, and 2.28 uninformed).

A partial explanation for this can be obtained by examining Table 2. This table contains respondents' ratings of how close they feel (how salient) to certain social issues, including mental health care. Mental health care, with mean scores of 3.11 informed group, and 3.21 uninformed group, ranked sixth out of the seven issues presented to both treatment conditions. Mental health care is a rather distant (non-salient) issue to both treatment groups and perhaps explains why none of the alternative names was rated as being very appropriate as a new name for the CMHC. Non-salience may also be an explanation as to why the list of alternative names as a whole was viewed quite neutrally (neither very appropriate nor very inappropriate) as a new name for the Center.

Conceding that the sample consisted of college students with their immediate future of primary concern, if one deletes the rating of the graduation and employment issue (mean scores of 1.67 informed, and 1.64 uninformed) as reported in Table 2, the relative rankings of mental health care with the other

social issues does not change. Mental health care is not a salient issue to the sample population in this study.

Adjectives-Meaning and Meaningfulness of Each Alternative Name

The subsets of adjectives presented in Table 3 of the preceding chapter indicate both the meanings of each alternative name (as evidenced by which adjectives were chosen by respondents a significant number of times) and the meaningfulness of each alternative name (evidenced by the number of adjectives chosen by respondents a significant number of times). The concepts of meaning and meaningfulness were discussed at length in Chapter II.

Two names under each treatment condition -- Counseling
Services Center and Tri-County Center for Social Consultation
-- are comprised of the same adjectival meaning (understanding, concerned, helpful, social) and have the same meaningfulness scores (4). These two names are also rated highest across both treatment groups in meaningfulness scores.

A closer examination of Table 3 indicates other interesting findings. The current name -- Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center -- has a meaning across both treatment groups that is very different from any of the other alternative names. Its meanings (adjectives) (critical, ill and long-term for the informed group; and long-term for the uninformed group) do not appear under any other alternative name.

The above indicates that both subject groups have a distinct meaning of the current name and that meaning seems to support the image of the Center reportedly held by the Lansing public as stated in describing the nature of the problem in Chapter I. This finding again supports the need for a change in name for the CMHC.

A brief look at the names Tri-County Problem Control

Center and Mental Aids Center shows that each has a distinct

meaning from all other names in the informed groups and no

significant meaning in the uninformed group. The name Ingham

Emotional Care Facility has a meaning across both treatment

groups which lies along the same dimensions as does Counseling

Services Center and Tri-County Center for Social Consultation,

however it is less meaningful (see Table 3).

These findings on distinctiveness of meaning for each alternative name indicates that the procedure for developing alternative names and developing adjectival descriptors (presuming adjectives mean the same across all names) as used by this model accomplished its purpose. That purpose is to create alternative names.

When considering the highest meaningfulness scores (4) actually achieved in relation to the total possible meaningfulness score (24), it appears that none of the alternative names are very meaningful. This suggests that <u>Ss</u> current image and meaning for the concept of mental health and mental health

agencies is very restricted and limited in scope. It would seem that current communication efforts on the part of mental health agencies such as the CMHC are failing to get across the specific and wide-range services and sub-concepts that are a part of the total comprehensive mental health concept. However, an examination of the two names rated as most meaningful across both treatment groups (Counseling Services Center and Tri-County Center for Social Consultation) shows that the adjectives which comprise the meanings of both are broad inclusive terms open to many possible interpretations and specific referents.

These broad inclusive terms are typical of stereotypes. Stereotyped concepts are rigid, resistant to change and tend to persist in their original form in the face of all demands for modification which may be made by objective facts and conditions. The broad inclusive type adjectives lend themselves to such characteristics as rigidity, persistence and resistence by their very nature. The many interpretations possible for such broad terms make them ideal components of stereotypes.

This is further evidenced by stereotypes maintaining tremendous stability over time as discussed in Chapter II. This
may be a partial explanation of why the stereotype of mental
health care and mental health agencies is changing at a veritable snail's pace. The universe of traits of stereotypes

²¹⁴ Gordon, op. cit., p. 2.

remains recognizable over time and is one of the reasons why Gordon ²¹⁵ writes about the slow, protracted process of spreading a new concept -- such as a new name to alter the stereotype of the CMHC.

The Effect of Knowing

Based on the findings reported in the previous chapter, knowing about the problems which the Center faced and knowing about the type of new name the Center was looking for had some effect on the appropriateness ratings for two of the alternative names.

Table 1 shows that both treatment groups rated the six alternative names for appropriateness as a new name for the Center in the same rank order. An analysis of variance of mean score differences showed that the informed group rated the name Ingham Emotional Care Facility and Mental Aids Center significantly higher than the uninformed group.

A partial explanation for this can be obtained by examination of the list of six alternative names and the instructions given to the two groups. The two names for which "knowing" was significant can be set apart from the others on a connotative dimension of personal, therapeutic or curative services that none of the other alternative names have. Emotional care and mental aids imply the therapeutic description of their respective names.

²¹⁵Ibid., p. 9.

Combining the above observation with a look at the instructions given to the two treatment groups -- specific, personal services listed individually and briefly described for the informed group vs. a one-term catch-all descriptor for the uninformed group (see Chapter III) -- offers a viable explanation for the significant effect of "knowing" on the appropriateness ratings of Ingham Emotional Care Facility and Mental Aids Center.

The knowing variable showed no effect on <u>Ss</u> selection of adjectives for each alternative name. The three-way analysis of variance (Table 4) confirms this statement.

A significant effect upon \underline{Ss} selection of adjectives was found for the sex variable (F=13.35) at \angle 0.0005 level. This indicates that if all variables are controlled for and sex is the only possible source of variation, that males and females selected adjectives independently (differently) from one another.

Table 5 shows that all females (regardless of treatment group) across all six alternative names selected a significantly higher number of adjectives than did males.

Table 5

Mean Number of Adjectives Selected by Sex Across All Six Names

 $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$

Male 7.7 Female 8.9

To partially explain this sex difference of adjective selection, graphs were constructed (see Figure 4) indicating the proportion of males and females at each position on the scale for measuring <u>Ss</u> closeness to selected social issues (see Appendix B) for the mental health care issue. Examination of the graphs shows that if the extremes are disregarded for each sex (the proportions in the extremes in both distributions are identical), that there are distinct differences in the distributions of the remaining 77 percent for each sex.

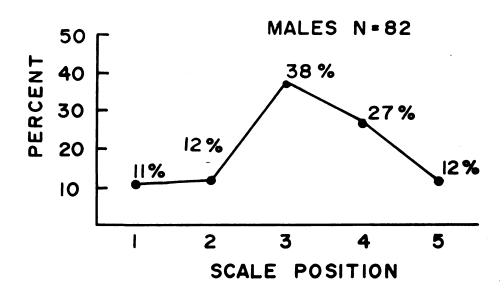
For males, 38 percent (almost one-half of the remaining group) rated themselves as being neither close nor distant (position 3) to mental health care. For females, 34 percent (again almost one-half of the remaining group) rated themselves as being rather distant (position 4) from mental health care.

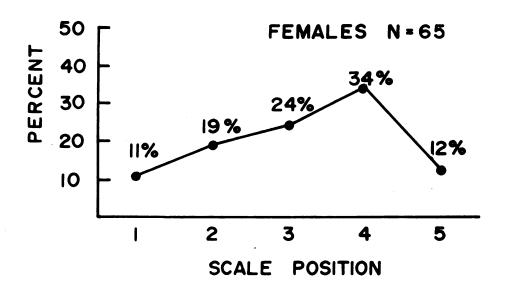
This indicates that females as a group perceive themselves as being psychologically farther away from the mental health care issue or concept. Relating this finding to the concept of low familiarity of stereotypes being associated with negative direction and that greater familiarity is associated with greater uniformity, 216 there is reasonable cause to assume that females should have selected fewer adjectives than males. The reverse was the case, however. The relationship of stereotype dimensions as discussed by Edwards 217 (Chapter II), which predominated

²¹⁶ Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss, op. cit., p. 113.

²¹⁷ Edwards, op. cit., pp. 566-572.

Figure 4





in this instance, were uniformity and intensity. These dimensions are positively correlated. Judging from perceived salience to the issue, females by virtue of feeling farther away from mental health care (greater intensity) as opposed to the males' predominant neutral position, therefore agreed upon (selected) more adjectives per name (higher uniformity).

In comparing numbers of adjectives selected by males and females, females consistently (in every case) selected more adjectives than males, again lending credence to the evidence that females are more uniform ²¹⁸ in their perceived distance from the mental health care issue than males.

Speculation can also be made, based upon the mean number of adjectives selected by males as opposed to females and upon the concept of meaning and meaningfulness as used throughout the study, that the six alternative names were more meaningful to females than males.

A significant effect upon \underline{Ss} selection of adjectives was also found for the names variable (F=7.42) at < 0.0005 level (see Table 4). This indicates that if all variables are controlled for and that if the names are the only possible source of variance, that each name was viewed as distinctive and was rated independently of the other names.

Table 6 shows that the number of adjectives selected by all <u>Ss</u> for the names were significantly different (table ranked

²¹⁸ Cauthen, Robinson and Krauss, op. cit., pp. 112-113.

by mean scores).

Table 6
Ranked Adjective Mean Scores for Each Alternative Name

	\bar{x}
Counseling Services Center	9.6
Tri-County Center for Social Consultation	9.5
Tri-County Problem Control Center	8.1
Ingham Emotional Care Facility	8.1
Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center	7.5
Mental Aids Center	6.8

A close examination of each name and its corresponding mean adjective score and rank helps explain this effect. If mean number of adjectives is to be taken as a measure of meaningfulness, the rankings in Table 6 are compatible with those of an average meaningfulness score derived from Table 3. The average meaningfulness score as derived from Table 3 is the computed average of the meaningfulness score assigned each name by the two groups.

Examination of the two highest ranked names on these criteria indicates that some form of the word <u>counseling</u> appears.

In terms of meaning and meaningfulness, the key word <u>counseling</u> in the names Counseling Services Center and Tri-County Center

for Social Consultation has a meaning that is different from all other key words (see Appendix A) upon which the alternative names were based. The counseling concept is apparently more meaningful also.

The adjectives that comprise the meaning of the two names (understanding, concerned, social and helpful) were commented upon above as being open to many interpretations and additional referents. This indicates a complexity of meaning dimension upon which these names can be examined if one wishes (the more possible interpretations a concept has, potentially the more complex it is also).

Looking at the two lowest ranked names, one immediately views the key word <u>mental</u>. Taking the significantly checked adjectives from Table 3 for those names — Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center and Mental Aids Center — it is obvious that those adjectives make up a sizable proportion of the mean number of adjectives checked (see Table 6) for the two names. Critical, ill, long-term and treatable are specific terms which are a vital part of the current stereotype of mental health and thus it is not surprising that these alternative names not only had the fewest adjectives selected, but the most specific of the significant adjectives of Table 3.

Following through with this explanation, the names Ingham Emotional Care Facility and Tri-County Problem Control Center, with their respective key words "emotional care" and "control" -- lie somewhere between the <u>counseling</u> and <u>mental</u> concepts of the highest and lower ranked names according to meaningfulness

and complexity. An additional explanation for this effect may be the congruity or balance principle as discussed by Bettinghaus²¹⁹ (Chapter II). This concept deals with the meaning of a term made up of a combination of words. Associations of the various component words that made up each alternative name could very easily have given each particular name the distinctive meaning that the analysis of variance indicated.

When sex by group, sex by name and sex by group by name were tested as interaction sources of variation, none of the results were significant.

Recommendations for a New Name for CMHC

Recommendations of a new name or names for the Community
Mental Health Center can be and are based on three criteria:

(1) appropriateness scores as a new name for the Center; (2)
the adjectival meaning and meaningfulness based on which and
how many descriptive adjectives were chosen; and (3) compatibility with the meaning and meaningfulness of an "ideal" name
for a community-based mental health center by the assistant
director of the CMHC.

Based only on the results of the mean score analysis reported in Table 1 of the preceding chapter, the name the data recommends as most appropriate for adoption is Tri-County Center for Social Consultation.

²¹⁹ Bettinghaus, op. cit. (1963), pp. 94-105.

Using the meaning and meaningfulness indicators as reported in Table 3 of the preceding chapter as the determining criterion for new name selection, either the name Tri-County Center for Social Consultation or the name Counseling Services Center is recommended. Both names have identical adjectival meanings and the same meaningfulness scores.

As a third means of evaluating the alternative names, Edward Oxer, administrator at Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center, indicated those adjectives (from the same list that was given each S for each alternative name) which he believed described an "ideal" community-based mental health center offering comprehensive mental health services (see Appendix C).

The adjectives checked by Mr. Oxer and the resulting meaningfulness score for that "ideal" name are as follows:

Meaning	<u>J</u>	Meaningfulness	Score
understanding immediate concerned marital	helpful educational social	7	

Examination of Table 3 shows that the names Tri-County

Center for Social Consultation and Counseling Services Center

come closest to fitting the meaning and meaningfulness of the

"ideal" name as defined by Mr. Oxer. Both names are a subset

of the meaning of the "ideal" name. Both names correlate to

the "ideal" one on four adjectival descriptors (understanding,

concerned, helpful and social). It appears that either of the

two would serve the Center well as a new name.

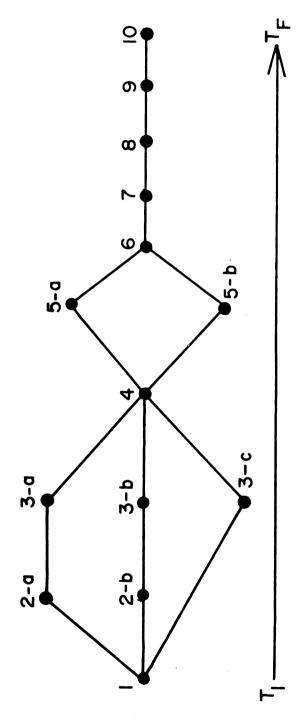
One additional recommendation based on this criterion is that if one of the above two names were selected, that any future communication efforts on the part of the Center try to emphasize the specific aspects or services of comprehensive mental health. Both names matched exactly the broad inclusive types of descriptors which the Center's administrators feel are important to the Center's image. Neither name correlated to the specific terms -- immediate, marital and educational -- which are also viewed as integral to the image of the Center by its administration.

The final decision on a new name must be made by the Center's administrators. It is they who must weigh and trade-off the values of the different criteria against each other in the selection process.

Statement of the Name-Change Model

The initial purpose of the study was to develop a viable public name-change model. The processes and procedures involved in the statement of this name-change model as developed in this study can best be described in Figure 4, plotted against the time dimension (T_1 =start, T_f =finish).

The time-flow description of the model is the writer's recommended procedure for the process of selecting a new organizational, company or product name by some groups of people or a staff (see Figure 5). Certain tasks can be



KEY

- for seeking name change; decide who you are segment or general public; design analysis. Study nature of problem; ascertain reasons Obtain alternative names (see Appendix A); going to sample; i.e., specific audience 2a.
 - inform respondents as to nature of problem. 2b.
 - Obtain adjectives (see Appendix A); inform respondents as to nature of problem.
 - Reduce name list to final form (see Appendix A). 3a.
- Reduce adjective list to final form (see Appendix A). 3b.
- Determine which demographic information to obtain (see Appendix A). 30.

- Prepare and pre-test the test instrument. Select final sample (randomly). 5a.
- Prepare specifics (time, place, etc.) of information gathering.
- Administer test instrument. Include instructions and information on the nature of the problem.* 9
 - Determine final selection criteria for names.
 - Code information; prepare for and complete analysis. 7.
- Analyze results; choose new name based on criteria determined in step 7. о О
 - Prepare for implementing selected name. 10.

under which giving information to Ss resulted in significant 'See discussion on "effect of knowing" to obtain conditions

performed simultaneously as illustrated by the time dimension in the diagram. This can shorten the process considerably.

Summary of Results

The results of this study can be summarized as follows:

- 1. The Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center should change its current name. The present name has a specific meaning which supports the stereotype now in use among the Lansing public regarding mental health and mental health care.
- 2. The issue of mental health care is not a salient issue to respondents.
- 3. The name Tri-County Center for Social Consultation is the most appropriate new name for the CMHC based on a mean appropriateness score criterion.
- 4. The names Tri-County Center for Social Consultation and Counseling Services Center contain the most meaning and are the most meaningful of the alternative names. These two names have identical meanings and meaningfulness.
- 5. The names Tri-County Center for Social Consultation and Counseling Services Center correlate most closely with the Center's administrators' concept of an "ideal" name for a community-based mental health center on a meaning and meaningfulness criterion.

A secondary purpose of the study was to find the effect that "knowing" about the Center's problems and the type of new name they were seeking has on Ss ratings of names.

- 6. Knowing had a significant effect on respondents' appropriateness rating for two of the alternative names.
- 7. Respondents' sex and the names themselves had significant effects on how many adjectives were selected as descriptive of the alternative names.

Implications for Future Research

The name-change model which was generated as a result of this study can be applied to various types of name changes: organizational, product or company. The model is not limited only to name changes. It can also be adopted for use in developing original names for organizations, products or the like.

As a result of the findings of the study which show that knowing had no effect on the evaluation of the alternative names, future use of the model can eliminate the need for two treatment groups.* Ss can be told of the nature of the problem or the purpose for seeking the new name as part of the procedures. Subsequently, the sample won't have to be broken down into sub-groups, thus yielding more accurate results because of the increase in size of the sample resulting from only the one treatment condition.

Future applications of the model can explore such areas and answer such questions as: Are there certain adjectives which individuals checked for every name? Were certain adjectives checked only for certain names? Can factor analysis of individuals and their evaluations uncover certain threads of regularity running through each respondent's selections? From what channels do <u>Ss</u> get most of their information and does that information relate to certain names? What influence do mass media channels vs. interpersonal channels usage have on Ss evaluations?

^{*}Dependent on criterion used for selection of final name. See discussion on "Effect of Knowing."

This area of names, name-changing and the public's perception of organization and company names contains very little research. Possibilities seem unlimited for future studies in this field. To the writer's knowledge, this study was the first attempt to establish a public model or procedures designed specifically for changing an organization's name.

Limitations of the Study

There are four major limitations to this study. All are concerned with its design. The first deals with the randomness of the sample. The sample was not truly random. Although enrollment in the introductory advertising class was open to all students in the University, certain sub-groups of students (evidenced by study-major preference) occurred more often than would be obtainable by chance. Ss were randomly assigned, however, to treatment groups.

A second limitation also deals with the sample. The fact that the <u>Ss</u> were all college students makes tham a rather homogeneous group (by age, interests, lifestyles, etc.) as opposed to the necessary heterogeneous general public upon which a study like this would be based if done on a commercial basis. The lack of heterogeneity and randomness was acceptable in this study because of its exploratory nature and purpose.

A third limitation of the study concerns the time difference between administering the test instrument to the two groups.

The two groups completed the test instrument one week apart.

The amount and effect of information exchange and subsequent

bias between the <u>Ss</u> of the two groups cannot be determined. To insure a minimum of bias, both groups should have met at the same time in different locations.

The final limitation deals with the list of six alternative names. In choosing the final six names (one from each "key word" group, see Appendix A), the criteria used was to randomly select one from each group. If doing the process on a commercial basis, the client should choose one of the names from each group that is compatible to his needs and that he can work with. By randomly choosing a name from each group, there is the possibility of coming up with one that is totally unacceptable to the client.

Some Notes on Consequences of Name Changes

To keep this study in perspective, the writer feels obligated to comment on some of the consequences and results of name changes. On the surface, what may appear as a simple change in name or title for a company or organization, is really an arduous, detailed task.

In addition to the obvious name changes on signs or in its advertising, the company or organization must deal with many other name-associated items to insure a smooth transition from the old moniker to the new.

To best illustrate the consequences of a corporate namechange, a look at the recent change of Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, from its Esso, Enco and Humble trademarks and corporate names to Exxon, is appropriate. 220, 221

Officials at Exxon estimate that \$100 million is being spent to promote the new name. The company has some 25,000 U.S. service stations, each with some 50 signs to be replaced.

In addition, some 300 million sales slips and other service-station forms have to be reordered. Credit cards have to be replaced. Thousands of other items must be replaced or reprinted. These include embroidered emblems on dealers' uniforms, decals for hardhats, mudflaps for trucks, plaques for oil wells and names on buildings and other tanks.

It was estimated that by the beginning of this year, more than a half-million pieces of company property will have had new identities bolted, embossed, painted or glued on.

This is not to mention the legal requirements of registering the new corporate name and trademark in all the states.

Exxon even ran into legal difficulties in Nebraska and had to provide a settlement to an office equipment business -
Exon's, Inc. -- because of the similarity of the name.

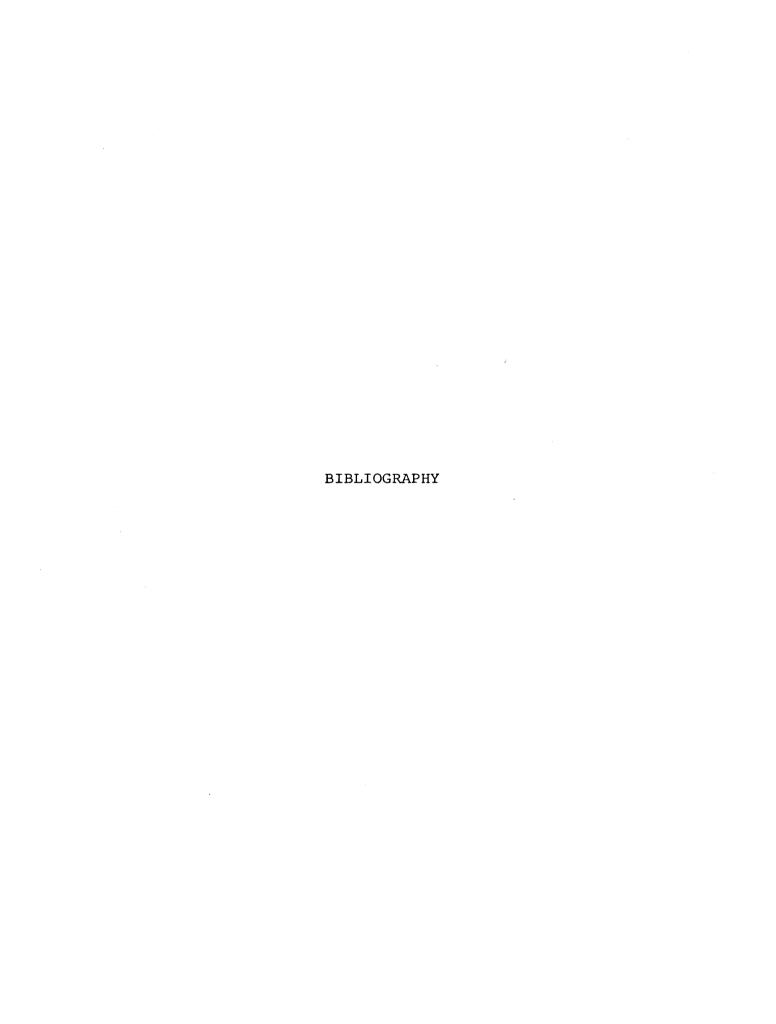
For a concise idea and summary of the mechanics involved in a name-change, see Forsyth, Verlie, "Planning a Name Change? Here's What's Involved," <u>Burroughs Clearing House</u>, 55, No. 5 (February, 1971), pp. 30-31.

Tanner, J.C., "Name Change Brings Exxcedrin Headaches and Costs Approximately \$100 Million," Wall Street Journal (January 9, 1973).

²²¹ Rankin, D.M., "'Exxon' Wins Standard's Reidentification Contest," The State Journal (December 28, 1972).

As one can see, changing a company or organizational name is not a simple matter. Obviously, the smaller the company or organization is, the less problems and potential tie-ups there will be in successfully completing a name change.

In this study, as the writer advocates a name-change when necessary, there is also the obligation on his part to remind those considering changing their company's or organization's name of the consequences that result from such a change. Such consequences usually take the form of some trade-off or establishment of priorities between communication goals and economic/practicality matters.



BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Abraham, K. Clinical Papers and Essays on Psychoanalysis. New York: Basic Books, 1955.
- Adcock, C.J., and Adcock, N.V. <u>Psychology</u>. London: Henneman Educational Books, 1968.
- Allport, G.W. Personality. New York: Holt, 1937.
- Asher, E.J., Tiffin, J., and Knight, F.B. <u>Introduction</u> to <u>General Psychology</u>. Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1964.
- Berg, I. (ed). Response Set in Personality Assessment. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1967.
- Berlo, D.K. The Process of Communication. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960.
- Berlyne, D.E. <u>Conflict Arousal and Curiosity</u>. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960.
- Bettinghaus, E.P. <u>Persuasive Communication</u>. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.
- Bogart, L. Strategy in Advertising. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967.
- Boorstin, D.J. The Image. New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1962.
- Boulding, K. The Image. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1956.
- Cattell, R.B. Personality and Motivation Structure and Measurement. Yonkers on Hudson, New York: World Book, 1957.
- Cumming, J., and Cumming, E. <u>Closed Ranks</u>: <u>An Experiment</u>
 <u>in Mental Health Education</u>. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard
 University Press, 1957.
- DeLevita, D.J. The Concept of Identity. Paris: Mouton and Company, 1965.

- Edwards, A.L. The Social Desirability Variables in Personality Assessment and Research. New York: The Dryden Press, 1957.
- Fenichel, O. <u>Psychoanalytic</u> <u>Theory of Neurosis</u>. New York: Norton, 1945.
- Forgus, R. Perception. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.
- Goffman, E. Stigma -- The Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.
- Gordon, R. Stereotypy of Imagery and Belief as an Ego Defense. Cambridge, Great Britain: The University Press, 1962.
- Gowin, E.B. The Selection and Training of the Business Executive. New York: Macmillan Company, 1918.
- Guthrie, E.R., and Smith, S. General Psychology in Terms of Behavior. New York: Appleton-Century-Crafts, 1921.
- Heimstra, N.W., and Elingstad, V.S. <u>Human Behavior</u>, <u>A</u>
 <u>Systems Approach</u>. Monterey, Calif.: Brooks/Cal
 <u>Publishing Company</u>, 1972.
- Hull, C.L. <u>Principles of Behavior</u>. New York: Appleton-Century, 1943.
- Hunt, M.M. Mental Hospitals. New York: Pyramid Books, 1961.
- Jones, A.J. The Education of Youth for Leadership. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938.
- Kelly, J. Organizational Behavior. Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., and the Dorsey Press, 1969.
- Kelman, H. <u>International</u> <u>Behavior</u>: <u>A Social-Psychological</u> <u>Analysis</u>. New York: <u>Holt</u>, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.
- Lippman, W. Public Opinion. New York: Harcourt-Brace, 1922.
- Lipson, H.A., and Darling, J.R. <u>Introduction to Marketing:</u>
 Marketing: Marketing: New York: John Wiley and Miley and

- Lucas, D., and Britt, S.H. Measuring Advertising Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.
- Masani, R.P. <u>Folk Culture Reflected in Names</u>. Bombay: Popular Prakashu, 1966.
- Memmi, A. The <u>Liberation</u> of the <u>Jew</u>. New York: Orion Press, 1966.
- Nunnally, J.C., Jr. <u>Popular Conceptions of Mental Health</u>. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.
- Osgood, C. Method and Theory in Experimental Psychology.
 New York: Oxford University Press, 1953.
- Robertson, T.S. <u>Consumer Behavior</u>. Glenview, Ill.: Scott Foresman Company, 1970.
- Schroeder, H.M., Driver, M.J., and Struefert, S. <u>Human</u>
 <u>Information Processing</u>. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.
- Staats, A., and Staats, C. Complex Human Behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.
- Starch, D. How to Develop Executive Ability. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938.
- Stekel, W. <u>Compulsion</u> and <u>Doubt</u>. New York: Liveright, 1949.
- Strauss, A.L. Mirrors and Masks: The Search for Identity. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1959.
- VanderZanden, J.W. American Minority Relations: The Sociology of Racial and Ethnic Groups. New York: Ronald, 1966.

Articles and Periodicals

- Allen, L., Brown, V., Dickenson, L., and Pratt, K.C.

 "The Relation of First Name Preferences to Their
 Frequency in the Culture," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 14 (1941), pp. 279-293.
- Bentz, W.K., and Edgerton, J.W. "The Consequences of Labeling a Person as Mentally Ill," <u>Social Psychiatry</u>, Vol. 6, No. 1 (1971).

- Bentz, W.K., Edgerton, J.W., and Miller, F.T. "Attitudes of Teachers and the Public Toward Mental Illness,"

 Mental Hygiene, Vol. 55, No. 3 (July, 1971), pp. 324-330.
- Bettinghaus, E.P. "Cognitive Balance and the Development of Meaning," <u>Journal of Communication</u>, Vol. 13 (1963), pp. 94-105.
- Bradley, C. "New Men at the Personnel Desk," The London Times (January 3, 1968).
- Brown, P.W.F. "Names Magic," Names, 2 (1954), pp. 21-26.
- Burguer, G. "La Puissance de Nom," <u>Archives de Psychologie</u>, 25 (1966), pp. 313-322.
- Cauthen, N., Robinson, I., and Krauss, H. "Stereotype: A Review of the Literature 1926-1968," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 84 (July, 1971), pp. 103-125.
- Centers, R. "An Effective Classroom Demonstration of Stereotypes," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 34 (1951), pp. 41-46.
- Clodd, E. "The Philosophy of Rumpelstiltskin," The Folklore Journal, 7 (1889), pp. 135-163.
- Crissy, W. "Image! What is it?," MSU Business Topics (Winter, 1971), pp. 28-32.
- Cronbach, L. "Response Sets and Test Validity," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 6 (1946), pp. 475-494.
- Damarian, F., and Messick, S. "Response Style as Personality Variables: A Theoretical Integration of Multivariate Research," Educational Testing Services Research Bulletin (April, 1965).
- Dexter, E.S. "Three Items Related to Personality; Popularity, Nicknames and Homesickness," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 30 (1949), pp. 155-158.
- Duncan, C.P. "Effect of Instructions and Information on Problem Solving," <u>Journal of Experimental Psychology</u>, 65:4 (April, 1963), pp. 321-327.
- Duncker, K. "The Influence of Past Experience Upon Perceptual Properties," American Journal of Psychology, 52 (1939), pp. 255-265.

- Eagleson, O.W. "Students Reactions to Their Given Names," Journal of Social Psychology, 23 (1946), pp. 187-195.
- Edwards, A.L. "Studies of Stereotypes I, The Directionality and Uniformity of Response to Stereotypes," Journal of Social Psychology, 12 (1940), pp. 357-366.
- _____. "Four Dimensions in Political Stereotypes,"

 Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 35 (1940),

 pp. 566-572.
- Ehrlich, H.J., and Rinehart, J.W. "A Brief Report on the Methodology of Stereotype Research," <u>Social Forces</u>, 43 (1965), pp. 564-575.
- Ellis, A., and Beechly, R. "Emotional Disturbance in Children with Peculiar Given Names," <u>Journal of Genetic Psychology</u>, 85 (1954), pp. 337-339.
- Endsley, R.C. "Effects of Differential Prior Exposure on Preschool Children's Subsequent Choice of Name Stimuli," Psychonomic Science, 7 (1967), pp. 411-412.
- Eysenck, H.J., and Crown, S. "An Experimental Study in Opinion-Attitude Methodology," <u>International Journal of Opinion and Attitude Research</u>, 3 (1949); pp. 47-86.
- Feldman, H. "The Problem of Personal Names as a Universal Element in Culture," <u>American Imago</u>, 16 (1959), pp. 237-250.
- Finch, M., Kilgren, H., and Pratt, K.C. "The Relation of First Name Preferences to Age of Judges or to Different Although Overlapping Generations," <u>Journal of Social</u> <u>Psychology</u>, 20 (1944), pp. 249-264.
- Flugel, I. "On the Significance of Names," <u>British</u> <u>Journal</u> of <u>Medical Psychiatry</u>, 10 (1930), pp. 203-213.
- Forsyth, Verlie, "Planning a Name Change? Here's What's Involved," <u>Burroughs Clearing House</u>, 55, No. 5 (Feb., 1971), pp. 30-31.
- Fritz, M.F. "Guessing on a True-False Test," <u>Journal of Educational Psychology</u>, 18 (1927), pp. 558-561.
- Gardner, B.B., and Levy, S.J. "The Product and the Brand,"

 Harvard Business Review, Vol. 33 (March-April, 1955),

 pp. 33-39.

- Gilbert, G.M. "Stereotypes Persistence and Change Among College Students," <u>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</u>, 46 (1951), pp. 245-254.
- "Goodrich Out to Dispel 'Curse' of It's Own Name," Advertising Age, 43:49 (December 4, 1972), p. 2.
- Harris, L. "Effects of Amount of Relative Novelty on Children's Choice Behavior," <u>Psychonomic Science</u>, 8 (1967), pp. 319-320.
- Hartman, A.A. "Criminal Asiases: A Psychological Study," Journal of Psychology, 32 (1951), pp. 289-294.
- Heath, C.W., and Gregory, L.W. "What It Takes to Be An Officer," Infantry Journal, 58 (1946), pp. 44-45.
- Hering, E. "Zur Lehre von Lichtsinne," S.B. Akad. Wiss Wien, Abt. III (1969), pp. 85-104.
- Howes, D., and Osgood, C. "On the Combination of Associative Probabilities in Linguistic Context," American Journal of Psychology, Vol. 67 (1954), pp. 241-258.
- Jackson, D., and Messick, S. "Content and Style in Personality Assessment," Psychological Bulletin, 55 (1958), pp. 243-252.
- Jahoda, C. "A Note on Ashanti Names and Their Relationship to Personality," <u>British</u> <u>Journal</u> of <u>Psychology</u>, 45 (1954), pp. 192-195.
- Katz, D., and Braly, K.W. "Racial Stereotypes of 100 College Students," <u>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</u>, 28 (1933), pp. 280-290.
- Lambert and Klineberg, "A Pilot Study of the Origin and Development of National Stereotypes," <u>International Social Science Journal</u>, 11 (1959), pp. 221-238.
- Landaur, A. A. "The Effects of Instructions on the Judgment of Brightness," Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, 16 (1964), pp. 23-29.
- Lawson, E.D. "Semantic Differential Analysis of Men's First Names," <u>Journal</u> of <u>Psychology</u>, 78 (1971), pp. 229-240.

- Lekart, B.T., Briggs, B., and Kirk, J. "Effect of Novelty on Stimulus Selection in Children," Psychonomic Science, 10 (1968), pp. 139-140.
- Lemkau, P., and Crocetti, G.M. "An Urban Population Opinion and Knowledge About Mental Illness," American Journal of Psychiatry, No. 118 (1962), pp. 692-700.
- Lentz, T.F. "Acquiescence as a Factor in the Measurement of Personality," <u>Psychological Bulletin</u>, 35 (1938), p. 659.
- Levy, S.J. "Symbols for Sale," <u>Harvard Business</u> <u>Review</u>, Vol. 37 (July-August, 1959), pp. 117-124.
- McDavid, W., and Harari. "Stereotyping of Names and Popularity in Grade-School Children," Child Development, 37 (1966), pp. 453-459.
- Meenes, M. "A Comparison of Racial Stereotypes of Negro College Students in 1935 and 1942," <u>Psychological</u> Bulletin, 39 (1942), pp. 467-468.
- Merjos, A. "Aerodyne to Ziegler, More Companies Than Ever are Changing Their Names," <u>Barrons</u>, 51:38 (September 20, 1971), pp. 9-15.
- Messick, S., and Jackson, D. "Response Style and Content Measures from Personality Inventories," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 22 (1962), pp. 41-56.
- Mills, J., and O'Neal, E. "Anticipated Choice, Attention and Halo Effect," <u>Psychonomic Science</u>, 22 (1971), pp. 231-233.
- Moray, N. "Attention is Dichotic Listening," Quarterly
 Journal of Experimental Psychology, 11 (1959), pp. 56-60.
- Mulholland, T. "Instructional Sets and Motion Perceived While Viewing Rotating Stimulus Objects," <u>Journal of Psychology</u>, 56 (1963), pp. 233-237.
- Murphy, W.F. "A Note on the Significance of Names," Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 26 (1957), pp. 91-106.
- Noble, C.E. "An Analysis of Meaning," <u>Psychological Review</u>, Vol. 59 (1952), pp. 421-430.
- Oberndorff, C.P. "Reaction to Personal Names," <u>Psycho-analytic Review</u>, 5 (1918), pp. 47-52.

- O'Connor, J. "Personality Brand Names Seen as Trend in June New Product Reports," Advertising Age, 43:27 (July 3, 1972), p. 4.
- Phillips, D., in Bentz, W.K., and Edgerton, J.W. "The Consequences of Labeling a Person as Mentally Ill," Social Psychiatry, Vol. 6, No. 1 (1971).
- Plank, R. "Names of Twins," Names, 12 (1964), pp. 1-5.
- Plottke, P. "On the Psychology of Proper Names," <u>Individual</u> <u>Psychological Bulletin</u>, 5 (1946), pp. 106-111.
- Names," Individual Psychological Bulletin, 6 (1947), pp. 144-145.
- "Quaker Oats Introduces New Corporate Symbol," Advertising Age, 41:39 (September 28, 1970), p. 32.
- Rankin, Deborah. "'Exxon' Wins Standard's Reidentification Contest," The State Journal (December 28, 1972).
- Riesman, D. "Some Observations Concerning Marginality," Phylon (Second Quarter, 1951), p. 122.
- Rorer, L.G. "The Great Response-Style Myth," <u>Psychological</u> <u>Bulletin</u>, 63:3 (March, 1965), pp. 129-156.
- Saenger, G., and Flowerman, S. "Stereotyping and Prejudice Attitudes," Human Relations, 7 (1954), pp. 217-238.
- Savage, B.M., and Wells, F.L. "A Note on Singularity in Given Names," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 27 (1948), pp. 271-272.
- Sawyer, H.G. "Sawyer: What's In A Name? More than What's In Initials," <u>Industrial Marketing</u>, 56:8 (August, 1971), p. 35.
- Schoenfield, N. "An Experimental Study of Some Problems Relating to Stereotypes," <u>Arch. Psychology</u>, 38 (1942), Whale No. 270.
- Secord, P.F. "Stereotyping and Favorableness in the Perception of Negro Faces," <u>Journal of Abnormal and Social</u> Psychology, 59 (1959), pp. 309-314.
- Secord, P.F., Bevan, W., and Katz, B. "Perceptual Accentuation and the Negro Stereotype," <u>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</u>, 53 (1956), pp. 78-83.

- Secord, P.F., Bevan, W., and Dukes, W.F. "Occupational and Physiognomic Stereotypes in the Perception of Photographs," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 37 (1953), pp. 261-267.
- Sheikh, A., and Miller, P. "Investigation of Some Variables Influencing Stereotyping in Interpersonal Perception,"

 <u>Journal of Psychology</u>, 78 (1971), pp. 213-216.
- Sherif, M. "An Experimental Study of Stereotypes," <u>Journal</u> of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 29 (1934), pp. 371-375.
- Simon, M.F. "Influence of Brand Names on Attitudes,"

 Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 10 (1970), pp.

 10-13.
- Snake, K.L. "An Objective Study of Concept Formation,"

 <u>Princeton-Psychological Monographs</u>, Vol. 42. Princeton,

 <u>New Jersey: Princeton University Press.</u>
- Stagner, R. "Fascist Attitudes: An Exploratory Study," Journal of Social Psychology, 7 (1936), pp. 309-319.
- Star, S.A. "The National Opinion Research Center Study,"

 Psychiatry, the Press and the Public. Washington, D.C.:

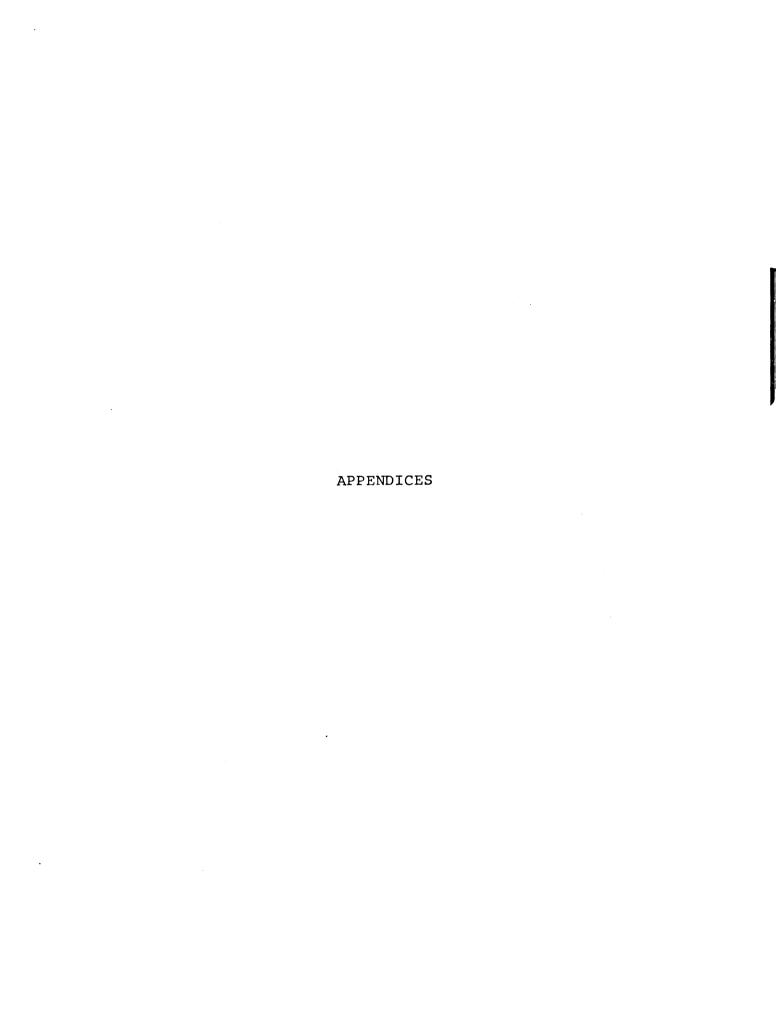
 American Psychiatric Association, 1956.
- "Store Designers Help Ring the Cash Registers," <u>Business</u> Week (July, 1967), pp. 42-48.
- Taft, R. "Ethnic Stereotypes, Attitudes and Familiarity: Australia, " <u>Journal</u> of <u>Social</u> <u>Psychology</u>, 49 (1959), pp. 177-186.
- Tajfel, H., Sheikh, A.A., and Gardner, R.C. "Content of Stereotypes and the Inference of Similarity Between Members of Stereotyped Groups," Acta Psychology, 22 (1964), pp. 191-201.
- Tanner, J.C. "Name Change Brings Exxcedrin Headaches and Costs Approximately \$100 Million," Wall Street Journal (January 9, 1973).
- Walton, W.E. "The Affective Value of First Names," <u>Journal</u> of <u>Abnormal Psychology</u>, 21 (1937), pp. 396-409.
- Woodworth, R.S. "Situation and Goal-Set," American Journal of Psychology, 50 (1937), pp. 130-140.

Theses and Dissertations

- Barton, J.B. "A Study of Attitudes Toward Jews and Mormons at a Southern University" (unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Georgia, 1965).
- Hasling, J.T. "A Study of Attitude Intensity Among Dogmatic Students" (unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Georgia, 1969).
- Novak, D.W. "Social Psychological Processes and Reactions to the Handicapped" (unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Kentucky, 1968).
- Scribner, S. "A Cross-Cultural Study of Perception of Mental Disorder" (unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, New School for Research, 1970).
- Stanek, F.J. "The Effect of Stimulus Complexity on Selective Attention" (unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Syracuse University, 1970).
- Walker, E.A. "Self-Concept and Degree of Liking of One's First Name by Self and Others" (unpublished Master's Thesis, Michigan State University, 1970).

Other Sources

Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center,
 personal interivew with administrators. May-June, 1972;
March, 1973.



APPENDIX A

PRE-TEST DEVELOPMENT PROCEDURES

Alternative Names

Sample. Ss were 29 students enrolled in an advertising research course during the Fall Term, 1972, at Michigan State University.

Instructions. Ss were read the following:

"The Ingham Medical Hospital Community Mental Health Center, a facility of the Tri-County Mental Health Programs (Ingham-Clinton-Eaton), desires to develop a new name for the Center. The need for the new name arises from several factors.

- 1. The first and most obvious is that the administrators of the Center feel the present name is too long.
- 2. The second is that the public and the majority of first-time users of the Center's services view the Center as a place where only serious, long-term mental problems are dealt with.
- 3. Closely related to the second factor is the lack of understanding of the various types of services offered by the Center -- ranging from consultation on drug or marriage problems, up to the more serious cases. The Center refers to this range of other services as 'comprehensive mental health' services.
- 4. The Center anticipates the new name will generate the concept of 'comprehensive mental health' clearly in the minds of those who see, hear or read of it.

Using the information supplied and your creative abilities, please list as many names as possible that you feel may be appropriate as the new name for the Center. Put down any name that comes to your mind...no matter how remotely related to the concept of the Center or to that of 'comprehensive mental health' it may seem."

The <u>Ss</u> followed the instructions and the names were collected. The names were then examined. Any with slang terms were eliminated. Names were separated by the occurrence of key words and each such key word was counted and assigned a frequency. The <u>New American Roget's College Thesaurus</u> was used to determine synonyms among the key words. All names containing synonyms were then grouped together, counted and assigned a frequency.

The number of names within each group determined the criteria for which groups of names would be included in the final name list. Five groups with a frequency of seven names or more were chosen (the groups with the five largest frequencies). There was a considerable gap between the groups with seven names and the next group, four names.

One name from each key word group was then randomly chosen by the writer. These five names plus the current name made up the final list of possible new names (see Appendix B).

The names were gathered in this manner because a large number of people could come up with a wider range of names (to get as many degrees of meaning as possible) than a single person could. The concept involved here (comprehensive mental health) is too complex for any one person to be able to generate a full range of names.

Adjective List

Sample. Ss were 27 students enrolled in an introductory public relations course during the Fall Term, 1972, at Michigan State University.

Instructions. Ss were read the following:

"Concepts are often made up of many components and there are many words to describe both the concept as a whole or its components.

One such concept is 'comprehensive mental health.'

Please list as many adjectives as you can (no limit) to describe what you think of when you think of the term 'comprehensive mental health.' Put down any adjective that describes the concept, no matter how far-out or remotely related it may seem."

Ss followed the instructions and the adjectives were collected. The adjectives were then examined. Slang words or terms were eliminated. Adjectives were separated by frequency. The New American Roget's College Thesaurus was used to determine synonyms. All synonyms were grouped together as the adjective which had originally the highest frequency among the snyonyms for each words.

Seventeen adjectives which had a frequency of three or more were chosen for the final adjective list. Added to this list were six adjectives derived from the services offered by the Community Mental Health Center (see Appendix B). The list of services was obtained from the brochure "Community Mental Health -- At Your Service" put out by the Center.

The generation of an adjective list to identify trait characteristics of a person, organization, etc., has been used in numerous areas.

Kelly defines trait as, "An individual characteristic or mark descriptive of personality. In brief, an adjective

descriptive of behavior."222

In industrial psychology, Gowin, ²²³Heath and Gregory, ²²⁴

Jones ²²⁵ and Starch ²²⁶ have traditionally used different groups of people, usually businessmen and professionals, to list traits they believe to be essential to leadership.

Bradley²²⁷explains that the use of the trait approach to leadership is still accepted by most managers today.

Katz and Braly, ²²⁸in the first empirical studies of stereotypes, presented <u>Ss</u> with a list of adjectives. From the list, <u>Ss</u> checked those adjectives which they believed were typical of given ethnic and national groups.

Schuman, 229 in a study of stereotype effect and veridicality, used Pakistani college students who were asked to describe the

Richard D. Irwin, Inc., and the Dorsey Press, 1969).

²²³Gowin, E.B., The Selection and Training of the Business Executive (New York: Macmillan Company, 1918).

Heath, C.W., and Gregory, L.W., "What It Takes to Be An Officer," Infantry Journal, 58 (1946), pp. 44-45.

²²⁵ Jones, A.J., The Education of Youth for Leadership (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938).

²²⁶ Starch, D., "How to Develop Executive Ability" (New York: Harper, 1943).

²²⁷ Bradley, C., "New Men at the Personnel Desk," The London Times (January 3, 1968).

²²⁸ Katz, D., and Braly, K.W., "Racial Stereotypes of 100 College Students," <u>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</u>, 28 (1933), pp. 280-290.

²²⁹ Schuman, H., "Social Change and Validity of Regional Stereotypes in East Pakistan," Sociometry, 29 (1966), pp. 428-440.

peoples of 12 dialects in East Pakistan. Students selected four adjectives from a checklist which characterized the people in each district.

Noble, 230 in the work cited earlier on meaning, used the adjective checklist to define that concept.

Lucas and Britt²³¹discuss projective techniques using word association. Subjects were given various kinds of rather vague stimuli. The object of the theory in this instance is the person being tested will project his own personality traits through the associations he makes to the stimuli, into the situation. The adjective compilation of this study is an extension of the word association technique described by Lucas and Britt.

Noble, C.E., "An Analysis of Meaning," <u>Psychological</u> <u>Review</u>, 59 (1952), pp. 421-430.

²³¹ Lucas, D., and Britt, S.H., Measuring Advertising Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963).

APPENDIX B

THE TEST INSTRUMENT

Respondent					()
following sca	le for app	following nateropriateness of set	as a name f			
1	2	3	4	5		
Very Ina propriat				Ver App	y propria	te
		he following me for a store				
7	2	Thrifty Mar	t	5	X	
Very Ina propriat	-	3	4	Ver		— te
	health fac	the names for ility offering Emotional Care 3 4	g a full ra			
1	Coun	seling Service	es Center 5		()
1	i-County C	enter for Soci	ial Consulta	ation	()
Ingham Me 1	dical Hosp 2	ital Community34	y Mental Hea	alth Cent	er ()
1	2	Mental Aids Co	enter 5_		()
1	Tri-Coun	ty Problem Con	ntrol Center		()
$name wh \overline{1}$ for a me	ch you fee ntal healt	adjectives for the second and the se	oes that nam	ne as a t	itle ser-	

does not describe the name, leave it blank. (The instructions at the top of the next 5 pages are identical.)

Counseling Services Center

()	1.	anxious	2.	joy	Ĺ)
()	3.	understanding	4.	immediate	()
()	5.	critical	6.	healthy	()
()	7.	adjusted	8.	good	()
()	9.	addictive	10.	ill	()
()	11.	stable	12.	complete	()
()	13.	concerned	14.	marital	()
()	15.	helpful	16.	analytical	()
()	17.	long-term	18.	educational	()
()	19.	loving	20.	thinking	()
()	21.	total	22.	social	()
()	23.	treatable	24.	other(please specify)	()
	nai foi vi do	me wh r a m ces a es no	check those adjectinch you feel best dental health centerend as a cue to those the name dedical Hospital Com	escrib offer e serv , leav	es that name as a t ing a full range of ices. If the adjec e it blank.	itle ser- tive	
()	1.	anxious	2.	joy	()
()	3.	understanding	4.	immediate	()
()	5.	critical	6.	healthy	()
()	7.	adjusted	8.	good	()
()	9.	addictive	10.	ill	()
()	11.	stable	12.	complete	()

()	13.	concerned	14.	marital	()
()	15.	helpful	16.	analytical	()
()	17.	long-term	18.	educational	()
()	19.	loving	20.	thinking	()
()	21.	total	2 2.	social	()
()	23.	treatable	24.	other(please specify)	()

Please check those adjectives from the list below each name which you feel best describes that name as a title for a mental health center offering a full range of services and as a cue to those services. If the adjective does not describe the name, leave it blank.

Tri-County Problem Control Center

()	1.	anxious	2.	joy	()
()	3.	understanding	4.	immediate	()
()	5.	critical	6.	healthy	()
()	7.	adjusted	8.	good	()
()	9.	addictive	10.	ill	()
()	11.	stable	12.	complete	()
()	13.	concerned	14.	marital	()
()	15.	helpful	16.	analytical	()
()	17.	long-term	18.	educational	()
()	19.	loving	20.	thinking	()
()	21.	total	22.	social	()
()	23.	treatable	24.	other (please specify)	()

Please check those adjectives from the list below each name which you feel best describes that name as a title for a mental health center offering a full range of services and as a cue to those services. If the adjective does not describe the name, leave it blank.

Ingham Emotional Care Facility

			ingnam Emotion	ar care	Facility		
()	1.	anxious	2.	joy	()
()	3.	understanding	4.	immediate	()
()	5.	critical	6.	healthy	()
()	7.	adjusted	8.	good	()
()	9.	addictive	10.	ill	()
()	11.	stable	12.	complete	()
()	13.	concerned	14.	marital	()
()	15.	helpful	16.	analytical	()
()	17.	long-term	18.	educational	()
()	19.	loving	20.	thinking	()
()	21.	total	22.	social	()
()	23.	treatable	24.	other(please specify)	()
	nai foi v i	me wh r a n ces a	check those adject nich you feel best of mental health center and as a cue to those of describe the name	describer offerse servie, leave	es that name as a ing a full range ices. If the adj	title of ser-	
			Mental A	ids Cent	ter		
()	1.	anxious	2.	joy	()
()	3.	understanding	4.	immediate	()
()	5.	critical	6.	healthy	()
()	7.	adjusted	8.	good	()

10. ill___

12. complete___

14. marital___

16. analytical____

() 9. addictive___

() 11. stable___

() 13. concerned____

() 15. helpful___

(,)

()

()

()

()	17.	long-term	18.	educational	()
()	19.	loving	20.	thinking	()
()	21.	total	22.	social	()
()	23.	treatable	24.	other (please specify)	()
	na fo vi	me whir a m ces a es no	ich you feel best de ental health center	scrib offer serv leav		le er-	
()		anxious		joy	()
. ()				immediate	()
()				healthy	()
()				good	()
()	9.	addictive	10.	ill	()
()	11.	stable	12.	complete	()
()	13.	concerned	14.	marital	()
()	15.	helpful	16.	analytical	()
()	17.	long-term	18.	educational	()
()	19.	loving	20.	thinking	()
()	21.	total	22.	social	()
()	23.	treatable	24.	other (please specify)	()
		1	PLEASE FILL IN THE FO	OLLOW:	ING INFORMATION		
C	14		70				

Sex:	M	F

From the key below, select the letter which represents the source which provides you with the majority of your information about each of the issues named. Place an a, b, c, d, e, f or g in the blank beside each of the social issues.

<pre>KEY a - TV b - Radio c - Conversations with friends or parents d - Magazines e - Newspapers f - Personal Experience g - Books</pre>				Mental Sex-rel	oblems		(((((((((((((((((((()))))
					sue at hand.		acc	
SELF 1 Very C	lose Ra		3 lose		4 Rather Dis- tant (RD)			_ ISSUE ht
Example: T	ax Refor	rm						
SELF 1 Very C	lose Ra	ther C.	3 lose	······································	4 Rather Dis- tant (RD)	Very		_ ISSUE nt
all to	the iss	sue of	tax ref	orm. u feel t	not feel cl o each issue			
SELF 1		3	4	5	Viet Nam Wa	r	()
SELF 1	2	3	4	5	Environment Protection	al	()
SELF 1	2	3	4	5	Graduation College and Employment		()
SELF 1	2	3	4	5	Mental Heal	th Car	e ()
SELF 1	2	3	4	5	Airplane Hijacking		()
SELF 1	2	3	4	5	Welfare Ref	orm	()
For the pro	ceeding	list of	social	l issues	, pick out t	he one	that	you Eter

Name of issue:

128 APPENDIX C

MR. OXER'S SELECTION OF DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES FOR "IDEAL" NAME

()	1.	Anxious
()	2.	Joy
()	3.	Understanding X
()	4.	Immediate X
()	5.	Critical
()	6.	Healthy
()	7.	Adjusted
()	8.	Good
()	9.	Addictive
()	10.	III :
()	11.	Stable
()	12.	Complete
()	13.	Concerned X
()	14.	Marital X
()	15.	Helpful X
()	16.	Analytical
()	17.	Long-term
()	18.	Educational X
()	19.	Loving
()	20.	Thinking
()	21.	Total
()	22.	Social X
()	23.	Treatable
()	24.	Other (please specify)

