AN ANALYSIS OF GENDER DIFFERENTIATED

SEMIOTIC CHARACTERISTICS IN

MAGAZINE AUTOMOBILE

ADVERTISEMENTS

By

KELLI SUZANNE SHAFER
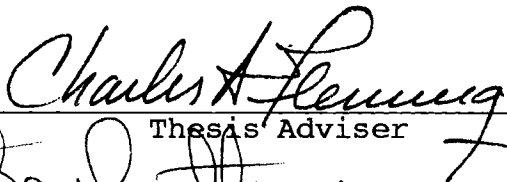
Bachelor of Arts

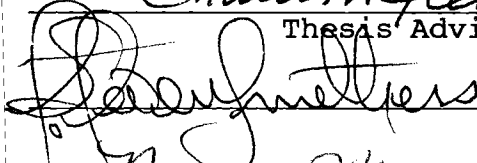Oklahoma State University
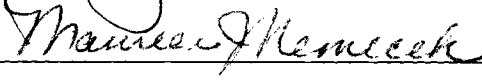
Stillwater, Oklahoma

1991

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirement for
the Degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE
December, 1995

AN ANALYSIS OF GENDER DIFFERENTIATED

SEMIOTIC CHARACTERISTICS IN

MAGAZINE AUTOMOBILE

ADVERTISEMENTS

Thesis Approved:

_____
Thesis Adviser

_____

_____

_____
Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Ever since the age of ten, I knew that I wanted to earn
a master's degree. And now as I approach the finalization of
that dream, I know I could not have made it this far without
the help I received throughout my many years of school,
especially graduate school.

I would like to sincerely express my most heartfelt
gratitude to my thesis adviser, Dr. Charles Fleming, for his
patience, knowledge and selfless dedication. He knows, as
well as I, that without the care and time he gave, I would
not be writing these acknowledgments.

I also want to thank Dr. Maureen Nemecek and Dr. Steve
Smethers for serving on my graduate committee. Their
comments and suggestions were helpful in preparation for the
final manuscript.

A huge THANK YOU goes to my coders: Lee Ann Roberts and
Grant Schwartz. Thank you for giving up more than 12 weeks
of Saturdays (plus the other days) in order to get this study
done. I will always remember the kindness you expressed to
me on those days. I could not have done it without you. I
owe you a "brown-bag special."

I also want to thank the OSU College of Human
Environmental Sciences University Extension and Development

Office. The entire office made my desires their own and with all of their help and encouragement this project finally reached completion.

I would like to thank my family for all of their love and support. They always knew I could. Now I know it too.

Lastly, I would like to thank my friends. Thank you, Kristi Hill for believing in me even when I did not. Thank you also, Tara Gentry and Gina Clements, for all the endless talks at Mexico Joes, the support when times got tough and the good times (you know what they are). I cannot imagine going through a graduate program without two people like you to soften the blows. Godspeed!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

General

Past research has indicated that men and women are socialized differently and have different cognitive processes. Because of these differences, it is likely that men and women relate to advertising appeals in different ways. Advertising is a powerful and influential force in American society and is both a creator and perpetuator of the dominant attitudes, values and ideology of the culture, the social norms and myths by which most people govern their behavior.1

It seems reasonable, therefore, that certain types of advertising messages directed at one gender may not be as effective if directed at the other gender because of gender differences in cognitive processing of information and gender difference in frames of reference.

Background

Advertising, and the effects advertising has had on its audiences, has been a much studied issue throughout the years. Researchers have also studied the cognitive

1

differences between men and women. Recently, more research
has been conducted combining the two; advertising and gender
-- how each sex interprets an advertisement and why there are
differences in that interpretation.

Because men and women are socialized differently, each
brings a different orientation to an advertisement. Each
listens to, reads and reacts differently to different types
of advertising. For example, in their 1991 study of gender
differences in the use of message cues and judgments, Meyers-
Levy and Sternthal concluded that males tended to process
information selectively while females tended to select
information comprehensively.[2]

Along with socialization is the notion of traditional
gender roles for both sexes and how these roles influence
advertising practices. Research has shown that in
advertising, men are believed to purchase products of greater
importance that those purchased by females.

Courtney and Lockeretz found, in their 1971 study of
gender depiction in advertisements, that women were depicted
as buyers of relatively inexpensive items such as cosmetics
or cleaning products. In contrast, men were often depicted
as buyers of more expensive items such as automobiles and
financial services.[3]

Using these traditional roles, advertisers often work to
create a gender image for a brand by featuring the targeted
gender in an advertisement as the "typical user" of the
product. In their 1978 study of masculinity and femininity

factors in product perception and self image, Kansas State University researchers Gentry, Doering and O'Brien found women are more accepting of typically masculine products than the other way around.[4] This acceptance could be helped by the fact that most females grow up in a patriarchal-based society. Therefore, most of the "expensive" products have been gendered to the males because women will accept those products if advertised in that way.[5]

However, since women and minorities are fast claiming their respective shares of the automobile purchasing market, advertising attempts may be changing. "Among all new car buyers under the age of 25, women account for sixty-one percent," said researchers Widgery and McGaugh. "In the 26-44 age group women constitute forty-eight percent of the buying."[6]

Not only are advertisements beginning to target women as well as men; magazine diversity may help contribute to changing the basic advertising appeal for so-called expensive products. The diversity of magazines allows for a greater number of different audiences to be reached. Therefore, the appeals may have to change to reflect this diversity if the advertisers want to continue to reap the benefits of their time and efforts towards the particular product.

Statement of the Problem

If advertising images do indeed persuade people to action, a study of certain advertisements, and the semiotic

characteristics employed in those advertisements, should yield insight into how our society (or, at least, the advertiser) views the purveyors of such advertisements.

The study should also yield insight into how difference in the socialization of both sexes, in general, influences the persuasive techniques employed throughout advertising of even non-gender specific products.

Purpose of the Study

The use of content analysis for this study of automobile advertising content revealed differences in the semiotic techniques employed in the magazines selected. The study addressed the issue of gender as it related to the different techniques employed in advertisements aimed at the two different genders.

The study expected to find different semiotic techniques employed in automobile advertisements within magazines aimed at men, women and both.

Research Problem & Questions

The problem this study addressed was the lack of information on gender-related advertising, on persuasion techniques using semiotics, and on changes in gender-related advertising over time. Research questions of this study are:
- What semiotic characteristics are used in automobile advertisements directed at women?

- What semiotic characteristics are used in automobile advertisements directed at men?
- What differences and similarities are there between the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile advertisements aimed at women and use of semiotic characteristics in automobile advertisements aimed at men?
- What changes have occurred during the period, 1985-1994, in the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile advertisements aimed at women?
- What changes have occurred during the period, 1985-1994, in the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile advertisements aimed at men?
- What changes have occurred during the period, 1985-1994, in the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile advertisements aimed at both men and women (non-gender specific).

Significance of the Study

This study is guided by the supposition that advertisers attempting to sell a similar product to both genders use different semiotic characteristics for each gender. And these may have changed over time.

Over the last 10 years, the nature of advertising directed at men and women has changed. In particular, men are now the subject of more "sexist" advertising than they were previously, and traditional sex-roles continue to

diminish which, in turn, also changes the content of advertising.

The author believes because of these reasons that the appeals themselves have also changed for both sexes. Research to support this includes Jaime Trapp's article <u>Men Now Fair Game for In-Your-Face Ads,</u>[7] John Leo's article <u>Madison Avenue's Gender War</u>[8] and Barbara Lippert's article <u>Send in the Wimps.</u>[9]

Therefore, it is possible that this research will enable men and women to become better consumers of advertising information in that they will be able to recognize persuasive techniques and the semiotic characteristics of advertisements directed at them.

Students of communication in general, and of advertising in particular will better understand gender-related communication.

<center>Persuasion Theory</center>

Persuasion theory relates to the cognitive differences that exist between men and women, and how advertisers act upon those differences.

Persuasion, in its basic sense, is a communication process in which the communicator seeks to elicit a desired response from a receiver.[10] Nowhere is this more readily apparent to the average person than in advertising. William Bernbach, an advertising professional once said that "advertising is persuasion, and persuasion is ... an art.

Therefore, advertising is the art of persuasion."[11] (Snyder and Debono, 1985, 586).

The content of any persuasive communication, such as advertising, includes appeals, arguments and various stylistic features, as well as a main theme or conclusion which defines the topic.[12] According to Anderson, persuasion is:

> the process of communication in which the communicator seeks through the use of symbolic agencies to affect the cognition of the receiver and thus effect a voluntary change in attitude and/or action desired by the communicator.[13]

It is the persuasive power of advertisements that draw an individual to read or listen to the appeal of the product being featured. Persuasion is an intrinsic part of advertising. Therefore, advertisers will do anything to affect that persuasion. Since women and men have been socialized differently in the past, this study believed that advertisers used different semiotic characteristics and different appeals for men and women, even for the same product. Thereby, the advertisers increase the persuasive effect of the advertising by feeding off of the already established gender-orientation for different products.

Methodology

Type of Study

This study consisted of a content analysis of print advertisements of automobiles in twelve magazines.

<u>What was studied</u>

The research studied the automobile advertisements found in eight different magazines aimed at men and women, and also used four magazines aimed at both.

This study used four selected magazines from the following list for the automobile advertisements aimed at women, four from the list for the automobile advertisements aimed at men and four from the list for the automobile advertisements aimed at both. The magazines were:

<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Both</u>
Vogue	Esquire	Vanity Fair
Cosmopolitan	GQ	Newsweek
Good Housekeeping	Popular Mechanics	Rolling Stone
Better Homes & Gardens	Field & Stream	U.S. News & World Report

These magazines were selected for inclusion based on the publisher's profile, within-gender diversity and popularity. Chapter III contains a rationale for each magazine selected.

The sample for this research included a randomly selected issue of each magazine for each of the 10 years examined (1985-1994). Two of the magazines are weeklies and the first week of the selected month was also randomly selected for inclusion into this study.

Assumptions and Limitations

This study is limited to the magazines examined, the time period examined, the semiotic persuasion techniques

identified and the print advertisements for automobile products.

Other limitations include:

• Missing pages that were ripped out from some of the magazines

• The form for which the advertisements were viewed (on microfiche the advertisements were difficult to read and difficult to determine vital information concerning people in the advertisements)

• The number of advertisements in certain issues of certain magazines (if more than seven advertisements were present, the coders selected the first advertisement for analysis and then, after randomly selecting the number three from the table of random numbers, picked every third advertisement for inclusion into this study)

While effectiveness of advertising appeals is an issue, this study did not examine effectiveness of advertisements directed at women or men. This study assumed that whatever appeals are present are perceived as effective by the advertisers based on sales or other methods of evaluation.

Outline of Subsequent Chapters

In Chapter II, existing literature and relevant studies are examined to further define the problem and justify the reasoning for the research techniques used in this study.

In Chapter III, the research methodology, design, selection of subjects and sample size is discussed. The data

collection, processing and analysis is also discussed to establish the relevance of the research. This chapter also addressed the methodological assumptions, research limitations and weaknesses of the study.

In Chapter IV, the statistical findings and their interpretations are discussed.

In Chapter V, the main points of the entire study is summarized, followed by conclusions, inferences and significance of the findings. Recommendations are made for further research.

ENDNOTES

[1]Linda Lazier-Smith, "The Effect of Changes in Women's Social Status on Images of Women in Magazine Advertising: The Pingree-Hawkins Sexism Scale Reapplied, Goffman Reconsidered, Kilbourne Revisited" (Ph.D. diss., Indiana University, 1988), 1.

[2]Joan Meyers-Levy and Brian Sternthal, "Gender Differences in the Use of Message Cues and Judgments," Journal of Marketing Research 28 (February 1991): 84.

[3]Alice E. Courtney and Sarah Wernick Lockeretz, "A Women's Place: An Analysis of the Roles Portrayed by Women in Magazine Advertisements," Journal of Marketing 8 (February 1971): 94.

[4]James Gentry, Mildred Doering and Terrence V. O'Brien, "Masculinity and Femininity Factors in Product Perception and Self Image," In Advances in Consumer Research: Proceedings of the Association for Consumer Research, edited by K. Hunt, (Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research, 1978), 326.

[5]Ibid, 326.

[6]Robin Widgery and Jack McGaugh, "Vehicle Message Appeals and the New Generation Woman," Journal of Advertising Research 33 (September/October 1993): 36.

[7]Jaime Trapp, "Men Now Fair Game for In-Your-Face Ads," Advertising Age, 4 (October 1993), s12.

[8]John Leo, "Madison Avenue's Gender War," U.S. News and World Report, 25 (October 1993), 25.

[9]Barbara Lippert, "Send in the Wimps," Vogue, 178 (November 1988), 414.

[10]Kenneth Anderson, Persuasion: Theory and Practice (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc. 1971), 6.

[11]Mark Snyder and Kenneth DeBono, "Appeal to Image and claims About Quality: Understanding the Psychology of Advertising," <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</u> 49 (Fall 1985): 586.

[12]Carl Hovland, Irving Janis, Peter Field, Harriet Linton, Elaine Graham, Arthur R. Cohen, Donald Rife, Robert P. Abelson, Gerald S. Lesser, and Bert King, <u>Personality and Persuasibility</u> (Westport, Conn: Greenwood Press Publishers, 1959), 6.

[13]Anderson, <u>Persuasion: Theory and Practice</u>, 23.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section examines the cognitive differences between men and women. Next, advertising in general will be discussed. Third, gender-related advertising will be examined. Finally, automobile advertising, and the role it plays in gender-related advertising will be included in a summary of the basic problem, in relation to issues addressed above, and will conclude this chapter.

Cognitive Differences Between Men and Women

According to Frank Beach, the author of Sex and Behavior, masculinity and femininity are by no means automatic consequences of being born a boy or a girl.[1] According to Beach, there are two major steps in the defining and measuring the gender role. The first is an empirical procedure in which males and females are examined to discover the way in which their behavior differs.[2]

In regards to those differences, Beach found that evidence concerning styles of aggression exhibited in

13

permissive doll play by three year olds suggests that gender-role differentiation has already been strongly started by that early age.[3]

According to Beach, the second step is one of measurement. "Observational or other devices must be constructed to permit the precise measurement of frequency, duration, or intensity of the specific forms of behavior that have been found to differentiate the sexes," said Beach.[4]

Beach found that the ways in which behavior differs between the sexes is in the areas of personality and intellect. Difference in the areas of intellectual functioning include such things as verbal ability, arithmetical reasoning and spatial ability. Occupational choices are also correlated with gender role, or at least show substantial sex differences.[5]

Anne Beall and Robert Sternberg, authors of The Psychology of Gender, described gender as socially defined masculinity and femininity.[6] From the beginning of a person's life, the physical determinants of that person's sex dictate the response given by others to that person, and also dictates that person's gender role.

According to Hilary Lips and Nina Lee Colwill, authors of The Psychology of Sex Differences, "every individual is born into a social environment, which exists prior to the individual and is the context within which the individual develops."[7] It is through interaction with this social

environment that the biological organism becomes extensively modified.[8]

According to Lips and Colwill, socialization of the different sexes is a life-long process. Chronologically, sex-role socialization begins with the family in both explicit (admonitions, teachings, examples) and implicit ways (subtle attitudes, gestures and value-laden language). Differential clothing, punishment, toys, and activities as well as the interaction between children and parents and the role models provided by each parent and older siblings all contribute to sex-role socialization.[9]

The socialization process that begins at home is reinforced in the school system and throughout the rest of the child's early years. "Most grade-school teachers are women; textbooks still tend to portray women as wives, mothers, nurses, teachers or secretaries and men in a greater variety of functions but less often as husbands or fathers, said Lips and Colwill.[10] And, in universities, higher up the education ladder where greater prestige and work autonomy are accorded, most of the teachers are male, except in home economics, nursing and other traditionally female occupations.[11]

According to their 1986 research in to gender differences and advertising formats, Ved Prakash and R. Caeli Flores stated that males may be characterized as having a degree of aggressiveness (defined by the intent of one individual to hurt another), dominance and instrumentality;

while females have a degree of empathy (defined as the ability to feel the same emotion as another), submissiveness, modesty and nurturance.[12]

According to Del Hawkins and Kenneth Coney, the biological and physical factors are associated with the different roles the male and female play in the reproductive function serve as the primary basis for assigning individuals to one or the other gender.[13]

These socialization tactics provide an individual with stereotypes about other people which caused biased perceptions and discriminatory treatment of them, including discriminatory role and status assignments. According to Beall and Sternberg, these gender stereotypes are organized together in a person's mind into mental structures called schemas.[14] Beall and Sternberg define a schema as "an organized body of knowledge about a concept or category containing all of its attributes and the relations among the attributes."[15]

In spite of conscious beliefs in gender equality, traditional stereotypes remain encoded in the knowledge structures or schemas that automatically, without one's awareness, interpret and guide a person's perceptions, inferences, memories and treatment of men and women.

Effects of Advertising

With the rise of trade came the need for identification with the goods and services each man could provide, and as

such trades and skills descended from family to family, so too did the names that advertised them. Thus trade and advertising were born together and they are inseparable to this day.[16] As Poyntz Tyler, author of <u>Advertising in America</u> wrote, "Advertising is communication--mass produced, a brain child of a mechanized civilization."[17]

According to Tyler, the basics of advertising are much the same as they were ten, twenty, even thirty years ago. What has changed is the means of putting the same basic principles into action.[18] Tyler believes, advertising is still an economical way of bridging the gap between the person with an idea and the person(s) who can benefit from buying the product of the idea.[19]

Most advertisements contain visual elements, and many advertisements provide little product attribute information. "The latter seem to be designed to either trigger an emotional reaction or portray visually the typical users of the brand, said Andrew Mitchell, a Toronto University researcher.[20]

Regardless, the visual formation does indeed affect product attribute beliefs and the attitude toward the advertisement.[21] In his 1986 research on the effect of verbal and visual components of advertisements on brand attitudes and attitude toward the advertisement, Mitchell concluded that "affect-laden photographs had an effect on both attitude to the advertisement and brand attitude."[22] According to the results, the affect-laden photograph usually

enhanced individual recall of the advertisement because of the time-span of attention that was given to the advertisement.[23]

According to Sidney Hecker and David Stewart, authors of Nonverbal Communication in Advertising, the use of imagery, visual associations, drawings and paintings, models, visual memory devices, product and corporate symbols and music are pervasive in advertising and all are forms of nonverbal communication.[24]

Another definition given by David Maxcy in his 1994 research, "Advertising, the Gender System: Changing Configurations of Femininity and Masculinity in Early Advertising in the United States," advertising "correlates the world of industrially-produced commodities with crucial social distinctions such as class, race and especially gender."[25]

According to Vicki Rutledge Shields, in her 1994 research, "The Constructing, Maintaining and Negotiating of Gender Identities in the Process of Decoding Gender," advertising images pervade each individuals' everyday lives, bombarding individuals with snapshots of what the person supposedly lack and what the person needs to fill the void.[26]

Those "snapshots" are designed in such a way to attract a person's attention. These images are used to persuade a person to action: to buy the product. Therefore advertising can be considered persuasive.

<u>Semiotics</u>

Advertising professionals have long been aware that nonverbal elements of a message are as important as verbal one. Advertisements are persuasive, in part, because of the way in which the advertisements are constructed. The use of imagery, visual associations, drawings and paintings, models visual memory devices, and product and corporate symbols are all pervasive in advertising. The visual elements that make up an advertisement also make an advertisement persuasive because these elements act as signs, relaying an understood message (signs are things which stand for something else).[27]

According to Arthur Asa Berger, author of <u>Seeing is Believing: An Introduction to Visual Communication</u>, the visual aspects of an advertisement are made up of socially constructed signs.[28] Semiotics is the investigation of the way those signs are produced and transmitted.[29]

According to Berger, these signs are seen and interpreted by the purveyors of the advertisements based on a mutually agreed-upon socially accepted definition.[30] Certain signs, and the way the signs are used, become encoded in a person's mind due to the understanding or socialization of what that sign represents.[31]

According to Penn State University researcher, Davida Charney, knowing how these signs, or visual elements, affect either gender can be useful in constructing an advertisement.

According to Charney's research, women tend to use more words than men in communication documents. Women also tend to prefer angular, protruding shapes, whereas men prefer rounded, indented figures. Females also tend to be more contextual in their thinking while men are more objective.[32]

As discussed, the visual elements of an advertisement provide the cues that guide a person's behavior toward a specific advertising appeal. These elements, or signs, are capable of influencing behavior, affect or cognition without providing the receiver with an explicit message.

Therefore, by knowing some of the different gender-related tendencies toward an advertisement the visual elements, working together, can enhance the persuasiveness of an advertisement.

<u>Persuasion</u>

Persuasion, according to Yale University researchers Carl Hovland and Walter Weiss, in its most basic sense, is a communication process in which the communicator seeks to elicit a desired response from a receiver.[33]

Kenneth Anderson, author of <u>Persuasion: Theory and Practice</u> said, "Persuasion is a complex, ongoing, interactive process in which a human sender and receiver are linked by symbols which provide a means by which meanings are stirred up in the receiver and by which the sender seeks, at some level, to influence the response of the receiver."[34]

According to Anderson, persuasion is a process of interpersonal communication in which the communicator seeks, through the use of symbolic agencies, to affect the cognition of the receiver and thus effect a voluntary change in attitude and/or action desired by the communicator.[35]

According to his 1990 research, <u>A Model of what Makes a Message Persuasive</u>, Temple University researcher Bruce Rind added that a persuasive message is one that "is resonant, relevant, attractive, plausible and novel, and these intrinsic message factors contribute to the persuasiveness of the message on when the recipient of the communication is both motivated and able to process the message content."[36]

More importantly, according to Hanyan University researcher, Sang-Pil Han, and University of Illinois researcher, Sharon Shavitt, persuasive communications transmit and reflect the values of a culture. Persuasive messages are used to obtain the compliance that achieves the personal, political and economic ends valued in the culture.[37]

University of Oregon researcher, Marian Friestad, and Stanford University researcher, Peter Wright, believe that people learn about persuasion in many ways: from firsthand experiences in social interactions with friends, family and co-workers; from conversations about how people's thoughts, feelings and behaviors can be influenced; from observing marketers and other know persuasion agents; and from

commentary on advertising and marketing tactics in the news media.[38]

Therefore, all communication is persuasive. However, nowhere is this more readily apparent or blatant than in advertising. As William Bernbach, an advertising professional stated "Advertising is persuasion, and persuasion is ... an art. Therefore, advertising is the art of persuasion."[39]

It is the persuasive power of advertisements that draws an individual to read or listen to the appeal of the product being featured. Ernest Calkins and Ralph Holden, authors of <u>Modern Advertising</u> said, "Advertising becomes more effective as more people become more interested in it--in the advertising itself as well as the items being advertised."[40]

In his 1992 dissertation on the psychology of coercive persuasion, University of Spain researcher Alvaro Carballeira said,

> Persuasion is a sequential process resulting from an interactive system between source, message, receiver and context. Coercive persuasion is the exercise of persuasion backed up in the use of force as recourse to obtaining it; other ways of calling it are: thought reforming, brainwashing, mind control and intensive indoctrination. The use of coercive persuasion in areas such as advertising is considered necessary to reeducate or transform the attitudes of a subject.[41]

To accomplish this persuasion, researchers Hovland and Irving Janis believe the content of the message is important. Acocording to Hovland and Janis, in their 1959 research into the order of presentation in persuasion, the content of a persuasive communication includes appeals, arguments and

various stylistic features, as well as the main theme or conclusion which defines the topic.[42]

"The effectiveness of each of these content characteristics is partly dependent upon certain predispositional factors which are designated as content-bound factors of that communication," said Hovland and Janis.[43]

Moreover, the attitudinal acceptance of a persuasive marketing communication may be modeled quite well in terms of an array of cognitive responses. According to University of Illinois researcher Peter Wright, a receiver "relies heavily on his or her evaluative mental responses to message content, rather than on the content itself, to arrive at an attitudinal position after exposure to the advertising."[44]

As discussed in Friestad and Wright's 1994 research, "The Persuasion Knowledge Model: How People Cope with Persuasion Attempts," a consumer's persuasion knowledge enables them to recognize, analyze, interpret, evaluate, and remember persuasion attempts and to select and execute coping tactics believed to be effective and appropriate.[45]

According to Friestad and Wright, persuasion knowledge performs schemalike functions, such as guiding consumers' attention to aspects of an advertising campaign, providing inferences about possible background conditions that caused the agent to construct the attempt in that way, generating predictions about the attempt's likely effect on people and evaluating its overall competence.[46]

What Makes People Buy

Advertising's persuasive devices are only effective when the advertising appeals to a human need or want. The things people buy are seen to have personal and social meaning in addition to their functions.

According to Sidney Levy, modern goods are recognized as essentially psychological things which are symbolic of personal attributes and goals and of social patterns of strivings.[47] All commercial objects, therefore, have a symbolic character. Levy said, "making a purchase involves an assessment implicit or explicit of this symbolism to decide whether or not it fits in with that person's strivings."[48]

According to Levy, a symbol is appropriate when it joins with, meshes with, adds to, or reinforces the way the consumer thinks about himself. Consumers are able to gauge grossly and subtly the symbolic language of different objects, and then to translate them into meaning for themselves.[49]

According to Levy, symbols of social participation are among the most dramatic factors in advertising. "There are social class groupings formed by the way people live, the attitudes they have, and the acceptance and exclusiveness of their associations," said Levy.[50] The things people buy are chosen partly to attest these the social positions.[51]

According to Edward Grubb and Gregg Hupp, the self-congruity model states that a consumer may buy a product because, among other factors he feels that the product enhances his own self-image. Similarly, a consumer may decide not to buy a product or not to shop at a particular store if he feels that these actions are not consistent with his own perceptions of himself.[52] However, according to David Hughes and Jose Guerrero, a buyer may select the brand which fits the image the person would like to be (or what the person considers socially acceptable).[53]

Advertising is an attempt to persuade a person to purchase the product being advertised--to motivate the person into action. Author Ernest Dichter believes that when an attempt is made to motivate people, an attempt is also made to introduce such factors into the decision-making pattern that will result in changing the appraisal or the "estimate of the situation" by the decision-maker.[54]

However, according to Ohio State University researchers, Anthony Greenwald and Clark Leavitt, the effectiveness of the advertising message is widely believed to be moderated by a person's level of involvement to the advertisement.[55] Audience involvement is defined by Greenwald and Leavitt as

> the allocation of attentional capacity to a message source, as needed to analyze the message at one of a series of increasingly abstract representational levels. Low levels use little capacity and extract information that is used first to determine whether a higher level will be invoked and, if so, as raw material for analysis by the next higher level. Higher levels require greater capacity and result in increasingly durable cognitive and attitudinal effects.[56]

According to Greenwald and Leavitt's 1984 study of
audience involvement in advertising, communication effects
can be expected with either high or low involvement, even
though the effects should be different for these two levels
of involvement. With either level, there are four different
aspects of involvement that constitute the level of
involvement: preattention, focal attention, comprehension
and elaboration.[57]

Greenwald and Leavitt explained that with preattention,
stimuli receive extensive immediate analysis that produces
little or no lasting effect. With focal attention, familiar
stimuli are perceived categorically as separable,
identifiable objects (figure, rather than background), and
unfamiliar stimuli establish sensory memory traces. With
comprehension, a message can establish traces at the
propositional level of representation. The highest level of
involvement, elaboration, produces substantial freedom of
memory and attitude from the specific details of the original
message or its setting.[58]

Lynn Kahle and Pamela Homer, University of Oregon
researchers, suggest that additional factors may figure in to
the eight mentioned above. According to Kahle and Homer, in
the world of social adaptation, the consumer may consider the
advertisement on the basis of either low-involvement or high
involvement.[59]

With low-involvement products (such as fragrance or
clothes), many consumers may only glance at an advertisement

for a second or two before moving on to the next source of information, since the advertisement is not advancing adaptation.[60]

In high-involvement advertisements (such as ones for automobiles or certain services), the consumer may send a considerable amount of time reading the copy, and the probative aspects of the verbal copy may exert more influence than the visual impression.[61]

In their 1985 study of the appeals to image and claims about quality, University of Minnesota researchers Mark Snyder and Kenneth DeBono found that there are two basics types of consumers: high self-monitored and low self-monitored.[62]

High self-monitored individuals strive to be the type of person called for by each situation they find themselves. They are adept at tailoring their behavior to fit social and interpersonal considerations of situational appropriateness.[63] Snyder and DeBono's research concluded that high self-monitoring individuals react favorably to image-oriented advertisements and are willing to pay more money for products if the products are advertised with an image orientation.[64]

By contrast, low self-monitoring individuals typically do not attempt to mold their behavior to fit situational and interpersonal considerations. Instead, these individuals tend to guide their behavioral choices on the basis of

for a second or two before moving on to the next source of information, since the advertisement is not advancing adaptation.[60]

In high-involvement advertisements (such as ones for automobiles or certain services), the consumer may send a considerable amount of time reading the copy, and the probative aspects of the verbal copy may exert more influence than the visual impression.[61]

In their 1985 study of the appeals to image and claims about quality, University of Minnesota researchers Mark Snyder and Kenneth DeBono found that there are two basics types of consumers: high self-monitored and low self-monitored.[62]

High self-monitored individuals strive to be the type of person called for by each situation they find themselves. They are adept at tailoring their behavior to fit social and interpersonal considerations of situational appropriateness.[63] Snyder and DeBono's research concluded that high self-monitoring individuals react favorably to image-oriented advertisements and are willing to pay more money for products if the products are advertised with an image orientation.[64]

By contrast, low self-monitoring individuals typically do not attempt to mold their behavior to fit situational and interpersonal considerations. Instead, these individuals tend to guide their behavioral choices on the basis of

information from relevant inner sources, such as attitudes, feelings and dispositions.[65]

Snyder and DeBono suggest that, low self-monitoring individuals react favorably to product-quality-oriented advertisements, are willing to pay more money for products if the advertisements stress product quality, and will agree to try an product if an appeal is made to its quality.[66]

However, Snyder and DeBono's research did not break the two categories into gender. Therefore, no conclusions can be drawn as to which category men and women might typical fall.[67]

Yale researcher, William McGuire, suggested that the domain of behavior and experience surely includes a consumer's decisions regarding a product and his perceptions of and feelings toward that product.[68]

McGuire also believed that some internal psychological factors influence consumer choice. Those factors include: exposure, perception, comprehension, agreement, retention, retrieval, decision making and action. These factors, combined with the motivation to continue through each step, results in the positive absorption of advertising by the consumer.[69]

Research has stated that the feelings toward a product also affects consumer choice. In their 1987 study of the power of feelings to understand advertising effects, Duke University researchers, Julie Edell and Marian Chapman Burke examined whether feelings occur as a result of the

advertisements, the relative importance of feelings and judgments of the advertisement's characteristics on several different outcomes and the variation of the importance of feelings given different advertising characteristics.[70]

Edell and Chapman Burke's research concluded that positive and negative feeling usually co-occur and that both are important predictors of the advertisement's effectiveness. The individual's feeling toward the advertisement contributed uniquely toward the brand and the relative importance of feelings and judgments of the advertisement's characteristics varied based on the extent to which the advertisement was information and transformational.[71]

Primary to the positive and negative feeling towards an advertisement concerns what is in the advertisement. Even as far back as 1951, Yale researchers Hovland and Walter Weiss found in their research on the influence of source credibility effectiveness, that subjects, at the time of exposure, discounted material from "untrustworthy sources.[72]

Hovland and Weiss said, "The extent of agreement is usually higher when the statements are attributed to "high prestige" sources. However, over time, lies seemed to be remembered better than truths.[73]

Magazine Advertising and Gender Differences

The magazine is one medium in the area of mass communication. According to Roland Wolseley, author of

<u>Understand Magazines</u>, magazines are divided into two groups:
(1) consumer or general interest and (2) specialized.[74]

Wolseley said, "Both groups can be subdivided further if
the group of consumers to which the general or specific
appeal is made is specialized, yet numerically extremely
large."[75]

According to Frank Bass, Edgar Pessemier and Douglas
Tigert, an advertising manager cannot change the audience of
a medium, or the media exposure profiles of consumers.
Rather, each manager must select media. In turn, these media
are read, viewed and listened to by different kinds of
consumers in various mixes. If there is a strong matching of
life-styles, attitudes, interest and consumption-related
activities to consumer media exposure sets, segmentation by
media market segments will serve the manager well.[76]

Much like magazines, gender is commonly used to segment
the audience for persuasive appeals. According to Han and
Shavitt, those who attempt to persuade others through
advertising usually select approaches "consistent with their
own past experiences within the cultures to which they
belong, and they are selected, in part, on the basis of their
ability to handle a style congruent with the culture."[77]

According to Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, this practice is
consistent with the common observation that unique interests
and knowledge associated with the genders' social roles guide
males' and females' judgments.[78]

While at Florida International University, researchers
Prakash and Flores studied the psychology of gender
differences as it relates to advertising formats, and found
that advertisers often "gender" their brands by making the
brands appear more masculine or more feminine through the use
of sex stereotypical messages or portrayals.[79]

However, as sex roles continue to change in the United
States, new patterns of consumer behavior will emerge (thus,
eliciting different persuasive techniques). Back in 1976,
researcher William Tucker believed that during most of the
rest of the century marketers will increasingly miss the
center of their markets because they will not understand
them. And, the change in the relations of the sexes will be
the primary cause.[80]

Kansas State University researchers, James Gentry,
Mildred Doering and Terrence O'Brien believe the notion that
sex roles are changing in society, and that this change
should be sufficient for the marketer to become less
interested in the male-female dichotomy and more interested
in the level of masculinity and femininity.[81] "To do so would
mean adapting advertising practices to reflect such a
change," they concluded.[82]

Men and Women: The Advertising Difference

Sex-role stereotyping has become an interesting and
timely issue in advertising. According to Amy Courteny and
Sarah Lockeretz, women are most often depicted as buyers

purchasing relatively inexpensive items such as cosmetics and cleaning products. In contrast, men were often depicted as buyers of more expensive and thus more important items such as automobiles and financial services.[83]

"Implied in these findings is that the decision-making associated with the traditional masculine role was of greater importance than that associated with the traditional female role," said Courteny and Lockeretz.[84]

According to Victor Gornick, advertisements depict not necessarily how an individual will actually behave, but how each peron thinks men and women behave.[85] This depiction serves the social purpose of convincing the individual that this is how men and women are, or want to be, or should be, not only in relation to themselves but in relation to each other.[86]

With this assigning of gender, researchers Gentry, Doering and O'Brien have found that women are more likely to accept a typically masculine product than the other way around since our culture labels the boy who acts like a girl a "sissy," but the girl who acts like a boy is called a "tomboy." The latter is much easier for a girl to accept than the former is for a boy.[87] Therefore, till now, most of the more expensive items have been gendered to the males because women will accept those products advertised in that way.[88]

According to San Diego State University researchers Pamela Alreck, Robert Settle and Michael Belch, advertisers

have accepted, virtually without question, the notion that products can be endowed with a sex-role image that will position the brand as acceptable to a single target market consisting of consumers of one sex.[89]

Armed with this information, Alreck, Settle and Belch set out in 1982 to measure the effect of "gendering" brands in advertisements on their acceptance by the same and the opposite sexes. The three also researched the effect of individual sex-role adherence on perception of "gendered advertisements and examined the relationship between demographic status and the adherence to sex-role prescriptions.[90]

The research concluded that women prefer feminine brands and are somewhat accepting of masculine brands. Men highlight the distinctions in gender symbols more than women, prefer masculine brands and do not readily accept feminine brands.[91]

Does the use of female role portrayals as sexual objects, mother/housewives or career women in print advertising have an effect on the subject's ability to respond to brand name recall and buying attitude? According to Sandra Utt, Ohio University researcher, individuals who see a female portrayed as a sexual object are more likely to recall the brand name and also more likely to purchase the product. Likewise, those advertisements that do not feature women as sexual objects are less likely to receive a

favorable buying attitude."[92] Males and females both took part in this research.

According to Kathleen Debevec and Easwar Tyler, using these long accepted roles in the positioning and repositioning products, advertisers often work to create a gender image for a brand by featuring the targeted gender in an advertisement as a "typical user" of the product. The advertiser's goal is for the audience to identify with that individual and to perceive the brand as appropriate for themselves.[93]

Meyers-Levy suggested the application of Bakan's agentic-communal dichotomy concept to explore male-female differences in information processing and therefore the difference in the types of advertisements aimed at the two genders. The conclusions of Meyers-Levy showed that

> males, in fulfillment of their agentic roles (e.g., achievement orientation), tended to process information selectively, while females, in fulfillment of their communal (e.g., affiliation orientation), tended to process information comprehensively.[94]

These differences make up a major portion of the differences between men and women in psychological literature. According to the David Bakan, author of The Duality of Human Existence, males are supposed to have a higher level of achievement orientation than females.[95]

Achievement orientation involves the drive to accomplish external goals, to achieve success, and being assertive, independent and self-centered. Affiliation orientation involves concern for other people's feelings, seeking

approval from others, creating nurturing relationships with others and maintaining interpersonal harmony.[96]

To reinforce Gentry, Doering and O'Brien's research is a study on gender positioning. In their 1991 study of gender positioning of traditionally male-dominant products, Joseph Bellizzi, Arizona State University, and Laura Milner, University of Arkansas, studied how men and women react to explicit gender positioning efforts.

Their findings showed that gender positions for traditionally male-dominant products may benefit from female direction, however these masculine explicit approaches may perform reasonably well only with men and with professionally oriented women.[97]

According to Boston University researcher Lynne Jaffe, these masculine explicit approaches may work because different female sex-role segments vary in their market response to modern versus traditional positionings. For example, women with more characteristically masculine traits have a larger measured market response for a modern than a traditional positioning (hence, what is typically seen as a professionally oriented woman).[98]

Other advertising research has also shown that advertising format can help in creating a favorable attitude toward the advertisement which would in turn help create a favorable effect on the intention to purchase. Morgan State University researcher Ved Prakash set out to in his 1992 research of sex roles and advertising preferences to

determine what kind of situations appeal to each of the different sexes.

Prakash's research concluded that males are more likely to prefer an advertising format depicting competition with others than an advertising format showing self-competition. Advertisements that feature large-group socialization is more effective on a male audience than with a female audience.[99]

In their research on gender differences in the use of message cues and judgments, Meyers-Levy and Sternthal found that the genders differ in how they make judgments. In the researchers' analysis, women appeared to have a lower threshold for elaborating on message cues and thus made greater use of such cues in judging products.[100] Therefore it would seem plausible that women are more suspectible to certain types of appeals, according to Meyers-Levy and Sternthal.

Meyers-Levy further concluded that males were more favorable when the appeal was self- rather than other-oriented, while females were equally favorable toward self- and other-oriented appeals.[101]

Females, on the other hand proved to be middle-of-the-road on appeal types. According to Prakash, scenarios featuring competition with other or self-competition were both highly effective as well as scenarios that featured large-group socializing and small-group socializing worked equally as well with females.[102]

Importance of this Study

As stated earlier, researchers believe that, in respect
to larger purchases, the advertising of those products
usually takes on a masculine tone.

In their 1979 study of the role of sex role self-concept
in masculine and feminine product perceptions, Linda Golden,
University of Texas-Austin, Neil Allison, University of
Cincinnati and Mona Clee University of Texas-Austin
investigated the influence of sex, product use and self-
esteem upon masculine and feminine perceptions of products.
The products examined represented traditionally male-typed
products, traditionally female-typed products and a neuter-
typed product.[103]

The researchers found that products have very definite
masculine and feminine sex-typed image. Further, masculinity
and femininity of a product appears to be related to which
sex is more often thought of as using the product.
Therefore, if the product image is derived from the gender
perceived as using the product most frequently, then the
marketer interested in changing product perceptions should
change the gender featured as using the product.[104]

Most advertising scholars and practitioners agree that
the strategies used to target women through the media have
changed importantly during this past generation. The
feminine role in society has traditionally emphasized
passivity and yielding so that when little girls are
socialized into their roles, they may be trained to yield.[105]

However, Alice Eagly, a noted researcher from the
University of Massachusetts, offers a different view. Eagly
believes that the role programming of girls has evolved
dramatically in society since 1970.[106] The modern resurgence
of feminism has encouraged a new generation of women, those
who reject traditional role definitions and thus may not show
feminine yielding when exposed to persuasive appeals. In
support of her argument, Eagly observed that among the 54
studies she reviewed, nearly all reports of greater
persuasibility for women were published before 1970. Few
studies were reported after this date.[107]

Eagly's view suggests a new generation hypothesis to
explain the gender-difference findings: "Females who were
the products of social programming during the decades of the
'70s and '80s might process persuasive appeals in ways that
are more similar to men."[108]

With this information, two Michigan researchers, Robin
Widgery and Jack McGaugh, examined vehicle message appeals
and the new generation woman. The two expected to find that
older adults would think differently with respect to gender,
whereas males and females growing up in the last 20 years
would be more similar to males in their perceptions of
vehicle message appeals.[109]

The researchers found that, as expected, there were
differences between older adults in their perceptions of the
importance of various message appeals related to vehicle
purchases. However, females of all ages, generally

considered the purchase of a vehicle more seriously than males: therefore, females may be more persuadable than males.[110]

"When certain purchase appeals are stressed in advertisingthey receive, who cares more may also listen, view and read with greater attentiveness," said Widgery and McGaugh.[111]

Automobiles are one of the largest purchases advertised on a frequent basis, and traditionally, automobile and truck advertising was treated as though the purchase decision was primarily male. Current evidence shows that this assumption is no longer true. In fact, in a September 1993 issue of Advertising Age, it was reported that among all new car buyers under the age of 25 women accounted for 61 percent. In the 26 to 44 age group, women constituted 48 percent of the buying.[112]

In 1994, this change became more evident as marketers began putting women in the driver's seat more than ever in 1995 model year advertising. "Long gone are the scenes of women draped over the hoods of cars ... nor are women confined to being chauffeurs for groups of suburban kids," said Raymond Serafin, a writer for Automotive News.[113]

Therefore, the advertisements themselves have had to change. "Boasting total magazine advertising budgets of more than $750 million 1993, the top 10 automakers are on every publisher's wish list," said Lambeth Hochwald, a writer for Folio.[114]

With that advertising money came changes in the advertisements in regards to basic appeals. Products that have been polarized to the various sexes will require different strategies when attempts are made to enter the new market segment.

Not only are advertisements aimed at women as well as men, the diversity of magazines allows for a great number of different audiences to be reached. Race, age and gender are all addressed in different types of advertisements to appeal to a certain group.

For example, Chrysler, Toyota and Saturn, have found that real customers can make the best pitchmen, thereby giving a reader (whether male or female) a more soft-shelled approach than what we normally consider for this masculine product.[115]

However, according to Phil Frame, a writer for Automotive News, some advertisements keep it simple, like the Chevrolet Geo messages that entice the reader with the car's low price, safety, quality, reliability, durability, environmental friendliness and comfort.[116]

Along with women, African-Americans and "Generation Xers" continue to find advertising directed at them too, because the automakers realize the growing potential for these markets.[117]

Differences exist between the genders. However, it remains an important research endeavor to discover if these

differences continue to exist with respect to the approaches that are used in the world of advertising.

ENDNOTES

[1]Frank A. Beach, ed., <u>Sex and Behavior</u> (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965), 133.

[2]Ibid., 136

[3]Ibid., 159.

[4]Ibid., 136.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Anne Beall and Robert Sternberg, eds., <u>The Psychology of Gender</u> (New York: Guilford Press, 1993), 10.

[7]Hilary Lips and Nina Lee Colwill, <u>The Psychology of Sex Differences</u> (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978), 105

[8]Ibid., 106.

[9]Ibid., 110-111.

[10]Ibid., 112.

[11]Ibid.

[12]Ved Prakash and R. Caeli Flores, "A Study of Psychological Gender Differences: Applications for Advertising Format." <u>In Advances in Consumer Research: Proceedings of the Association for Consumer Research</u>, 1985, edited by E. Hirschman and M. Holbrook (Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research), 231-232.

[13]Del Hawkins and Kenneth A. Coney, "Advertising and Differentiated Sex Roles in Contemporary American Society," <u>Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science</u> 4 (Winter 1976): 420.

[14]Beall and Sternberg, <u>The Psychology of Gender</u>, 11.

[15]Ibid., 12.

[16]Pontz Tyler, ed., <u>Advertising in America</u> (New York: H.W. Wilson Company, 1959), 3.

[17]Ibid., 160.

[18]Ibid., 161.

[19]Ibid.

[20]Andrew A. Mitchell, "The Effect of Verbal and Visual Components of Advertisements on Brand Attitudes and Attitude Toward the Advertisement," <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u> 13 (June 1986): 12.

[21]Ibid., 23.

[22]Ibid., 12.

[23]Ibid., 21.

[24]Sidney Hecker and David W. Stewart, <u>Nonverbal Communication in Advertising</u> (Lexington, Mass: Lexington Books, 1988), 3.

[25]David J. Maxcy, "Advertising, the Gender System: Changing Configurations of Femininity and Masculinity in Early Advertising in the United States" (Ph.D. diss., University of Massachusetts, 1994), 2.

[26]Vickie Rutledge Shileds, "The Constructing, Maintaining and Negotiating of Gender Advertisements (Advertising Images)" (Ph.D. diss., Ohio State University, 1994), 6.

[27]Arthur Asa Berger, <u>Signs in Contemporary Culture: An Introduction to Semiotics</u> (New York: Longman Inc., 1984), 1.

[28]Arthur Asa Berger, <u>Seeing is Believing: An Introduction to Visual Communication </u>(Mountain View, CA: Mayfield Publishing Company, 1989), 5.

[29]Ibid., 6.

[30]Ibid.

[31]Ibid.

³²Davida Charney, "A Study of Gender and its Influences on Visual Design," Technical Communication 40 (August 1993): 544.

³³Carl Hovland and Walter Weiss, "The Influence of Source Credibility on Communication Effectiveness," Public Opinion Quarterly 15 (Winter 1951): 633.

³⁴Kenneth Anderson, Persuasion: Theory and Practice (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971), 7

³⁵Ibid., 23.

³⁶Bruce Laurence Rind, "A Model for What Makes a Message Persuasive," (Ph.D. diss., Temple University, 1990), 1.

³⁷Sang-Pil Han and Sharon Shavitt, "Persuasion and Culture: Advertising Appeals in Individualistic and Collectivistic Societies," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology 30 (July 1994): 327..

³⁸Marian Friestad and Peter Wright, "The Persuasion Knowledge Model: How People Cope With Persuasion Attempts," Journal of Consumer Research 21 (June 1994): 1.

³⁹Mark Snyder and Kenneth DeBono, "Appeal to Image and claims About Quality: Understanding the Psychology of Advertising," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 49 (Fall 1985): 586.

⁴⁰Earnest Elmo Calkins and Ralph Holden, Modern Advertising (New York: Garland Publishing, Inc., 1985), 12.

⁴¹Alvaro Rodrigues Carballeira, "Pyschology of Coercive Persuasion" (Ph.D. diss., University of Barcelona, 1992), 2.

⁴²Carl Hovland, Irving Janis, Peter Field, Harriet Linton, Elaine Graham, Arthur R. Cohen, Donald Rife, Robert P. Abelson, Gerald S. Lesser, and Bert King, Personality and Persuasibility (Westport, Conn: Greenwood Press Publishers, 1959), 8.

⁴³Ibid.

⁴⁴Peter L. Wright, "The Cognitive Processes Mediating Acceptance of Advertising," Journal of Marketing Research 10 (February 1973): 60.

⁴⁵Friestad and Wright, "The Persuasion Knowledge Model: How People Cope With Persuasion Attempts," 3.

[46]Ibid.

[47]Sidney Levy, "Symbols for Sale," <u>Harvard Business Review</u> 17 (Spring 1959): 119.

[48]Ibid., 120.

[49]Ibid., 121.

[50]Ibid., 122.

[51]Ibid.

[52]Edward Grubb and Gregg Hupp, "Perceptions of Self, Generalized Stereotypes, and Brand Selection," <u>Journal of Marketing Research</u> 10 (1973): 243.

[53]David Hughes and Jose Guerrero, "Automobile Self-Congruity Models Reexamined," <u>Journal of Marketing Research</u> 8 (1971): 125.

[54]Ernest Dichter, <u>The Strategy of Desire</u> (New York: Garland Publishing, Inc., 1960), 50.

[55]Anthony G. Greenwald and Clark Leavitt, "Audience Involvement in Advertising: Four Levels," <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u> 11 (June 1984): 581.

[56]Ibid., 591.

[57]Ibid., 587.

[58]Ibid., 588.

[59]Lynn R. Kahle and Pamela M. Homer, "Physical Attractiveness of the Celebrity Endorser: A Social Adaptation Perspective," <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u> 11 (March 1985): 954.

[60]Ibid., 954.

[61]Ibid., 955.

[62]Snyder and DeBono, "Appeal to Image and claims About Quality: Understanding the Psychology of Advertising," 586.

[63]Ibid., 587.

[64]Ibid., 588.

[65] Ibid.

[66] Ibid.

[67] Ibid., 596.

[68] William J. McGuire, "Some Internal Psychological Factors Influencing Consumer Choice," Journal of Consumer Research 2 (March 1976): 302.

[69] Ibid., 302.

[70] Julie A. Edell and Marian Chapman Burke, "The Power of Feelings in Understanding Advertising Effects," Journal of Consumer Research 14 (December 1987): 421.

[71] Ibid., 421.

[72] Hovland and Weiss, "The Influence of Source Credibility on Communication Effectiveness," 635.

[73] Ibid., 635.

[74] Roland Wolseley, Understand Magazines (Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1965), 3.

[75] Ibid., 9.

[76] Frank Bass, Edgar Pessemier and Douglas Tigert, "A Taxonomy of Magazine Readership Applied to Problems in Marketing Strategy and Media Selection," Journal of Business 42 (July 1969): 338.

[77] Han and Shavitt, "Persuasion and Culture: Advertising Appeals in Individualistic and Collectivistic Societies," 329.

[78] Joan Meyers-Levy and Brian Sternthal. "Gender Differences in the Use of Message Cues and Judgments," Journal of Marketing Research 28 (February 1991): 84.

[79] Ved Prakash and R. Caeli Flores, "A Study of Psychological Gender Differences: Applications for Advertising Format." In Advances in Consumer Research: Proceedings of the Association for Consumer Research, 1985, edited by E. Hirschman and M. Holbrook (Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research), 325.

[80] William T. Tucker, "A Long Day of Discrepent Behavior," Proceedings. (Fall Confernce, American Marketing Assocation, 1976): 353.

[81] James Gentry, Mildred Doering and Terrence V. O'Brien, "Masculinity and Femininity Factors in Product Perception and Self Image," In Advances in Consumer Research: Proceedings of the Association for Consumer Research, edited by K. Hunt, (Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research, 1978), 326.

[82] Ibid.

[83] Alice E. Courtney and Sarah Wernick Lockeretz, "A Women's Place: An Analysis of the Roles Portrayed by Women in Magazine Advertisements," Journal of Marketing 8 (February 1971): 92.

[84] Ibid., 93.

[85] Victor Gornick, "Introduction." In Gender Advertisements, Erving Goffman; ed. (New York:Harper and Row, 1979), ii.

[86] Ibid.

[87] Gentry, Doering and O'Brien, "Masculinity and Femininity Factors in Product Perception and Self Image," 326.

[88] bid., 326.

[89] Pamela Alreck, Robert Settle and Michael Belch. "Who Responds to 'Gendered' Ads, and How?" Journal of Advertising Research 22 (April/May 1982): 25.

[90] Alreck, Settle and Belch. "Who Responds to 'Gendered' Ads, and Howz?" 21.

[91] Ibid., 29.

[92] Sandra Utt, "The Effect of Sexual Stereotyping in Print Advertising on Brand Name Recall, Sales Point Recall, and Buying Attitude: An Experimental Study" (Ph.D. diss., Ohio University, 1983), 3.

[93] Kathleen Debevec and Easwar Iyer, "The Influence of Spokespersons in Altering a Product's Gender Image: Implications for Advertising Effectiveness." Journal of Advertising 15 (Winter 1986): 12.

[94]Joan Meyers-Levy, "The Influence of Sex Roles on Judgment," <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u> 14 (March 1988): 522.

[95]David Bakan, <u>The Duality of Human Existence</u> (Boston: Beacon Press, 1966), 17.

[96]Ibid, 18.

[97]Joseph Bellizzi and Laura Milner, "Gender Positioning of a Traditionally Male-Dominant Product," <u>Journal of Advertising Research</u> 31 (June/July 1991): 78.

[98]Lynn J. Jaffee, "Impact of Positioning and Sex-Role Identity on Women's Responses to Advertising," <u>Journal of Advertising Research</u> 29 (June 1993): 298..

[99]Ved Prakash, "Sex Roles and Advertising Preferences," <u>Journal of Advertising Research</u> 32 (May 1992): 49-50.

[100]Joan Meyers-Levy and Brian Sternthal, "Gender Differences in the Use of Message Cues and Judgments," <u>Journal of Marketing Research</u> 28 (February 1991): 84.

[101]Meyers-Levy, "The Influence of Sex Roles on Judgment," 528-529.

[102]Prakash, "Sex Roles and Advertising Preferences," 50.

[103]Linda Golden, Neil Allison and Mona Clee, "The Role of Sex Role Self-Concept in Masculine and Feminine Product Perceptions." <u>In Advances in Consumer Research: Proceedings of the Association for Consumer Research</u>, edited by K. Hunt, (Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research, 1986), 605.

[104]Ibid., 604.

[105]Widgery and McGaugh, "Vehicle Message Appeals and the New Generation Woman," 37.

[106]Alice H. Eagly, "Sex Differences in Influencibility." <u>Psychological Bulletin</u>, 85 (Spring 1978): 97.

[107]Ibid., 93.

[108]Ibid., 96.

[109]Widgery and McGaugh, "Vehicle Message Appeals and the New Generation Woman," 37.

[110]Ibid., 41.

[111]Ibid.

[112]Robin Widgery and Jack McGaugh, "Vehicle Message Appeals and the New Generation Woman," <u>Journal of Advertising Research</u> 33 (September/October 1993): 36.

[113]Raymond Serafin, "Ads Reflect Women's Buying Power," <u>Automotive News</u>, 14 November 1994, 26.

[114]Lambeth Hochwald, "Women Drive Automotive Ads," <u>Folio: The</u> <u>Mazine for Magazine Management</u>, 15 February, 1994, 18.

[115]Raymond Serafin, "Truth in Advertising: Real Customers Can Make the Best Pitchmen," <u>Automotive News</u>, 19 October 1992, 7(i).

[116]Phil Frame, "Geo Woos Generation X With Subtle Approach," <u>Automotive News</u>, 7 November 1994, 24.

[117]Ibid.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Chapter Overview

The purpose of this chapter was to examine
methodological procedures, statistical tests that were used,
limitations and weaknesses of the study's design and
assumptions that were made. This study utilized the
methodological procedure of content analysis to determine the
difference in semiotic characteristics used in automobile
advertisements aimed at men and similar advertisements aimed
at women.

The automobile advertisements in twelve different
magazines were examined over a ten-year period from January
1985 to December 1994.

The definition of content analysis, as proposed by
Bernard Berelson in 1952, is a "research technique for the
objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the
manifest content of communication."[1]

Because a content analysis is objective, systematic and
quantitative, the study used this system to analyze the
automobile advertisements for differences in semiotic
characteristics between the two genders.

Research Design

This study was intended to answer four questions concerning the use of semiotic persuasion techniques in automobile advertisements aimed at women, aimed at men and aimed at both.

1. What semiotic characteristics are used in automobile print advertisements directed at women?

2. What semiotic characteristics are used in automobile print advertisements directed at men?

3. What differences and similarities are there between the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at women and use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at men?

4. What changes have occurred during the period 1985-1994 in the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at women, the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at men and the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at both women and men (non-gender specific)?

From these questions four specific null hypothesis were formulated:

1. There is no difference in the semiotic characteristics used in magazine automobile advertisements aimed at men, magazine automobile advertisements aimed at women and magazine automobile advertisements aimed at both.

2. There is no difference in the semiotic characteristics used in magazine automobile advertisements aimed at men over the ten year period, 1985 to 1994.

3. There is no difference in the semiotic characteristics used in magazine automobile advertisements aimed at women over the ten year period, 1985 to 1994.

4. There is no difference in the semiotic characteristics used in magazine automobile advertisements aimed at both men and women (non-gender specific) over the then year period, 1985-1994.

Magazines Selected

This study used four magazines for the automobile advertisements aimed at women, four for the automobile advertisements aimed at men and four for the automobile advertisements aimed at both. These magazines were:

Women: The magazines selected were chosen to represent different income levels, ages and interests among women.

Vogue (established in 1892, boasted a circulation of 1,181,313 in 1995) reflects the modern times, serving as a source of ideas and information on style as a way of life. From innovations in fashion and beauty to current personalities, political thought, social consciousness, the arts, the home entertaining, food, health, fitness and

travel. Vogue is edited for the readers seeking inspiration rather than hard-and-fast rules.[2]

Cosmopolitan (established in 1886, had a circulation of 2,527,928 in 1995) is edited for today's young woman. It deals with the emotional side of women's lives. It presents articles on cutting edge issues such as relationships, health, careers, science, money and travel, plus features on state-of-the-art fashion, beauty, food and decorating, as well as celebrity profiles and fiction.[3]

Good Housekeeping (established in 1885, was the largest of the four women's magazines selected with a 1995 circulation of 5,223,935) is edited for the "new traditionalist." Articles which focus on food, fitness, beauty, and child care draw upon the resources of the Good Housekeeping institute. Editorials include human interest stories, articles, that focus on social issue, money management, health news, travel and "The Better Way," an 8-page hard-fact guide to better living.[4]

Better Homes and Gardens (established in 1972, had the smallest circulation of the four magazines examined in this group with 1,076,487) provides home service information for women who have a serious interest in their homes. Better Homes and Gardens covers in-depth these home and family subjects: food and appliances, building and handyman,

decorating, family money management, gardening, travel, health, cars in your family, home and family entertainment, new-product information and shopping.[5]

Men: The magazines selected were chosen to represent different income levels, ages and interests among men.

Esquire (established in 1933, listed a circulation rate of 756,030 for 1995) is a general interest magazine for men. The magazine covers the full spectrum of a man's interests, investigative journalism, quality fiction and coverage of sports, clothes, culture and the arts. Editorials focus on how to live wisely and well. Regular features include Man at his best, news for the well-rounded man; Gentleman, elements of personal style; Esquire Reader, collected excerpts of new books, stories, plays and works in progress: Esquire Guide, a look at the range of subjects affecting men's lives.[6]

Gentleman's Quarterly (GQ) (established in 1977, no circulation rate has been listed since 1992) addresses the people, places, ideas and issues that shape men's personal expression, development and experiences. Each issue of GQ features fashion, journalism and contemporary fiction as well as service articles on fitness, grooming and health.[7]

Popular Mechanics (established in 1902, boasted a circulations rate of 1,636,210 for 1995) is a men's service

magazine covering the home improvement, automotive, electronics, computers, telecommunications, boating/outdoors, fitness, science and technology categories. Each issue contains product evaluations, practical applications advice, 'how-to' information and news of technological developments.[8]

Field and Stream (established in 1971, has not given a circualation rate since 1990) is a lifestyle magazine of the outdoors focusing on the fishing/hunting experience and man's relationship with nature. Editorial covers conservation and environmental issues, current events and sporting ethics. In addition, it has a strong literary tradition. Editorial also informs enthusiasts of products, techniques, and locales to support outdoor lifestyles.[9]

Both Men and Women: The magazines selected in this section were chosen to represent different ages, income levels, and interests among both sexes. Thee magazines here are sometimes listed throughout the rest of the research as non gender-specific magazines. Two of the magazines chosen were weeklies.

Vanity Fair (established in 1983, was the second smallest magazine examined in this group with a circulation rate of 1,130,993) is a special interst magazine which provides an editorial mix, investigative reporting and a definitive point of view. Articles range from personalities

to politics, with columns on books, media, the arts and a variety of subjects related to contemporary culture.[10]

U.S. News and World Report (established in 1933, listed circulation at 2,240,710) covers world and international news with an analytical, anticipatory focus and extensive business and economics coverage is complemented with 'News You Can Use.' life management information on personal finance, health, technology, education and other matters that impact reader's lives.[11]

Newsweek (established in 1933, was the largest magazine in this group with a circulation rate of 3,158,617 for 1995) is edited to report the week's developments on the newsfront of the world and the nation through news, commentary and analysis. News is divided into National Affairs, International Business, Lifestyle, Society and the Arts.
Relevant charts, maps, cartoons, and photographs accompany most of the articles. Opinion columns deal with views on national and international trends, in politics, the economy, personal business, the Washington scene, current affairs, lifestyles, the arts, society, health, science and technology.[12]

Rolling Stone (established in 1976, was the smallest magazine of the group with a circulation of 184,591) is a magazine edited for young adults who have a special interest

in popular culture, particularly music, film and politics.

Regular features include state-of-the-art audio and electronics columns, record reviews, reader correspondence; interviews and photojournalism features. Special issues include Audio, Video, College, Fashion, and Consumer Electronics Supplements.[13]

Sampling

The sample for this research included one randomly selected issue of each of the twelve magazines for each of the ten years examined (1985-1994). These ten years were examined due to the fact that, through previous research, advertising directed towards both genders has shown the most changes during this time period. The month selected was November.

For the two magazines that are weeklies, one issue was randomly chosen from the randomly selected month for inclusion into the study. The week examined was the first week of the selected month.

Ten issues, one issue a year, was examined for each magazine. A total of 120 magazines were examined in this content analysis.

The number of automobile advertisements varied within each magazine. However no more than seven advertisements per issue were included. If more than seven advertisemnets were found in an issue, the coders picked the first advertisement for analysis and then after randomly selecting the number

three from the table of random numbers, picked every third advertisement for inclusion into this study.

Only advertisements that were half a page to two-pages in size were considered. This size limitation was done because automobile advertisements were traditionally no smaller than half a page, and to go longer than a two-page spread made it difficult to determine the prominent semiotic characteristics of the advertisement.

Each automobile advertisement within each selected issue was examined for semiotic persuasive techniques.

Categories of Analysis

Seven different basic semiotic techniques were examined in this study:

Design of the advertisement: Was it asymmetrical-- meaning were the elements within the advertisement unbalanced, not equal on both sides? Or was the advertisement symmetrical--meaning, were the elements in balance; equal on both sides?

Spatiality of the advertisement: Was it spacious-- meaning, was the advertisement full of white space; few words or photos? Or was the advertisement full of items; many words or photos?

Figures in the advertisement: Are there people or animals? If people--what age, ethnicity? What occupation, if any, was given for the individuals in the illustration?

Themes in the advertisement: What message was being communicated? According to Maurice Mandell's <u>Advertising,</u> seven different appeals are used in message delivery:

- Comfort   Comfortable clothes, homes, surroundings.

- Freedom from fear and danger   Doing away with painful things, eliminating dangerous situations.

- Superiority   Winning every race, keeping up with the Joneses.

- Companionship of the opposite sex   Being wanted by the opposite sex.

- Welfare of loved ones   Providing the best for loved ones.

- Social Approval   Winning friends and influencing people.

- To live longer   Enjoying life, living as long as possible.[14]

Language used in the advertisement: Was it rational--meaning, was the text factually listing features of the car using terms low in abstraction? Or was it emotional--meaning, does the text use terms high in abstraction (happiness, security, well-being, safety, etc)?

Typeface used in the advertisement: Was the typeface serif--meaning, did the words have ledges on them to stop the eye and help move the eye from one word to the next? Or was the typeface sans-serif--meaning, did the words lack ledges

to lead the eye? Was the typeface small, medium or large in size?

Quantification System

Items analyzed were counted and listed by magazine. The data collected were nominal data or frequency counts.

Coding

This research used three coders to conduct the content analysis of the advertisements. All coders saw all issues and every advertisement. One coder was male and the other two were female. Each coder recorded the semiotic characteristics found in the automobile advertisements on a coder evaluation form.

After conducting a pre-test, the coder questionnaire was compiled from two semiotic books by Asa Berger: <u>Signs in Contemporary Culture</u>[15] and <u>Seeing is Believing</u>.[16] The information from these books was combined with the information gained from the pre-test to determine the most important and easily distinguishable semiotic elements featured in the automobile advertisements. These elements were not singled out as gender specific semiotic characteristics. The elements were chosen because of importance, distinguishability and regularity of occurrance.

The coder evaluation form asked questions that pertained to the semiotic characteristics mentioned above. The questions asked were about

- The design of the advertisement

- The spaciousness of the advertisement

- The number of people in the advertisement

- The approximate age of the individuals

- The ethnicity of the persons

- The occupation, if any, of the person in the advertisement

- The message or theme of the advertisement

- The language used in the advertisement

- The style of typeface used in the advertisement

- The size of typeface used in the advertisement

Coders followed the procedures set forth on the evaluation form and met to discuss items of disagreement or ambiguity in the attempt to reach common agreement. Differences were resolved by a majority vote.

Before the actual coding, to check procedures and estimate intercoder reliability, a pre-test was conducted using the coder evaluation form to analyze the form, the semiotic characteristics and a select group of automobile advertisements. An intercoder reliability test was conducted.

Statistical Analysis

This study used simple and complex chi-square analysis based on the frequency counts of the different types of

semiotic characteristics found in the automobile
advertisements of the twelve magazines.

This study examined the supposed differences in semiotic
characteristics in advertisements aimed at women,
advertisements aimed at men, and advertisements aimed at
both. Reasons for the supposed differences were discussed in
Chapter II and will be addressed in Chapter V. The 95
percent confidence level was used to determine which
differences were statistically significant.

Limitations

This study is again, limited to the magazines examined,
the time period examined, the print advertisements for
automobiles and the semiotic characteristics identified.

Other limitations include:

- missing pages that were ripped out from some of the
magazines;

- the form for which the advertisements were viewed
(on microfishe the advertisements were very hard to read
or determine vital information concerning people in the
advertisements);

- to the number of advertisements in certain issues
of certain magazines (if more than seven advertisements
were present, the coders selected the first
advertisement for analysis and then after randomly
selecting the number three from the table of random

numbers, picked every third advertisement for inclusion into the study).

.

ENDNOTES

[1]Bernard Berelson, <u>Content Analysis in Communication Research</u>, (New York: The Free Press, 1952), 18.

[2]<u>Consumer Magazine and Agri-Media Source</u> (Des Plaines, IL: SRDS [(1995]), 747.

[3]Ibid., 711.

[4]Ibid., 718.

[5]Ibid., 554.

[6]Ibid., 388.

[7]Ibid., 389.

[8]Ibid., 397.

[9]Ibid., 388.

[10]Ibid., 292.

[11]Ibid., 510.

[12]Ibid., 499.

[13]Ibid., 486.

[14]Maurice I. Mandell, <u>Advertising</u>, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), 201.

[15]Arthur Asa Berger, <u>Signs in Contemporary Culture: An Introduction to Semiotics</u> (New York: Longman Inc., 1984), 35-37.

[16]Arthur Asa Berger, <u>Seeing is Believing: An Introduction to Visual Communication</u> (Mountain View, CA: Mayfield Publishing Company, 1989), 3.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Review of Methodology

For this study, print automobile advertisements were examined for differences in semiotics characteristics as outlined by Asa Berger in the books Seeing is Believing: an Introduction to Visual Communication (1989) and Signs in Contemporary Culture (1984).

Twelve magazines, one issue each year, 1985-1994, were examined. These magazines included Vogue, Cosmopolitan, Better Homes and Gardens, Good Housekeeping, Esquire, GQ, Field and Stream, Popular Mechanics, Vanity Fair, Rolling Stone, Newsweek, and U.S. News and World Report.

The 412 advertisements were coded for overall symmetry, spaciousness, presense of people in the advertisement, age and ethnicity of people present in the advertisement, roles of persons in advertisement, message or themes being presented, language used (rational or emotional), and style and size of typeface used in the advertisement. More than one response was possible among most of the categories.

Intercoder Reliability

An intercoder reliability test was conducted using automobile advertisements appearing in magazines other than those included in this study. Between Coder 1 and Coder 2, the coefficient of reliability was .89. Between Coder 2 and Coder 3, the coefficient of reliability was .92. Between Coder 1 and Coder 3, the coefficient reliability was .85.

Detailed Findings by Magazine Target Audience

Table I illustrates the relationship between magazine target audience (women, men, both) and overall design of the automobile advertisement (symmetrical, asymmetrical).

TABLE I

Overall Design of Advertisement, By Magazine Target Audience

N = 415

Overall Design	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
Sym.	62% (56)	58% (100)	55% (83)	58% (239)
Asym.	38% (35)	42% (72)	45% (69)	42% (176)
TOTAL	100% (91)	100% (172)	100% (152)	100% (415)

Chi-square = 1.1476, df = 2, p>.05,

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 2 df is 6.0. This indicates that the relationship between magazine

target audience and advertisement overall design is not
statistically significant at the 95 percent confidence level.
There is no difference in the symmetry of the advertisment
between the different magazine targert audiences, therefore,
the null hypothesis is supported for this part of the
question.

Table II illustrates the relationship between magazine
target audience and the spaciousness of the automobile
advertisements found in those magazines.

TABLE II

Spaciousness of Automobile Advertisement, By Target Audience

N = 420

Spaciousness	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
Spacious	40% (36)	38% (67)	43% (65)	40% (168)
Crowded	60% (55)	62% (110)	57% (87)	60% (252)
TOTAL	100% (91)	100% (177)	100% (152)	100% (420)

Chi-square = .830, df = 2, p>.05

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 2 df is
6.0 This indicates that the relationship between magazine
target audience and spaciousness of the advertisement is not
statistically significant at the 95 percent confidence level.
There is no difference in the spaciousness of the
advertisement between the different magazine target

audiences, therefore, the null hypothesis is supported for this part of the question.

Table III illustrates the relationship between magazine target audience and the advertisements featuring people in the advertisements.

TABLE III

Person Featured in Advertisement, By Magazine Target Audience

N = 405

Legend

Y = persons present, N = No persons present

Persons Present	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
Y	28% (25)	23% (39)	18% (27)	22% (91)
N	72% (65)	77% (129)	82% (120)	78% (314)
TOTAL	100% (90)	100% (168)	100% (147)	100% (405)

Chi-square = 2.581, df = 2, p>.05

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 2 df is 6.0. This indicates that the relationship between magazine target audience and advertisements featuring people is not statistically significant at the 95 percent confidence level. There is no difference in the featuring of people in an advertisment between the different magazine target audiences,

therefore, the null hypothesis is supported for this part of the question.

Table IV illustrates the relationship between the magazine target audience and the age of the persons featured in the advertisements.

TABLE IV

Age of Person in Advertisements, By Magazine Target Audience

N = 99

Legend

A = Children, B· = Young Adults,

C = Middle Adults, D = Older Adults

Age	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
A	25% (7)	7% (3)	11% (3)	13% (13)
B	21% (6)	14% (6)	25% (7)	19% (19)
C	43% (12)	74% (32)	43% (12)	57% (56)
D	11% (3)	5% (2)	21% (6)	11% (11)
TOTAL	100% (28)	100% (43)	100% (28)	100% (99)

Chi-square=14.13, df=6, p<.05, C=.35, C of D=13%

The tabled chi-sqaure value at this level with 6 df is 12.6. This indicates that the complex chi-square of the relationship between magazine target audience and the age of the people in the advertisements is statistically significant

at the 95 percent confidence level. The contingency coefficient is .35 and the coefficient of determination is .13.

According to the scale (0 = none, +1 = strong) there is a definite but small relationship between magazine target audience and the ages of the people in the advertisements. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for this part of the question. However, because almost half of the fitted cells used to compute this chi-square were sparse (with a frequency of less than five), significance tests are suspect.

The coefficient of determination is 13 percent which means that 13 percent of the variation of the ages of people in the advertisements can be indicated by magazine target audience. This is a weak relationship because approximately 87 percent of the variation of ages cannot be attributed to magazine target audience. Since the relationship was significant, simple chi-squares tests were done to find out what the relationship was and where the differences were between magazine target audiences.

Children (under age 18). Simple chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference at the 95 percent confidence level between the overall counts of advertisements in terms of the proportion of advertisements featuring children in magazines targeted at women, men and both. The overall chi-square is 7.69. The table value at this level (95 percent) with 2 df is 6.0.

Between magazines targeted to women and to men, chi-square is 5.38. Between magazines targeted to both and to women, chi-square is 4.668. All other comparisons failed to show any genuine differences.

Young Adults (19-25). No significant difference was found between magazines in terms of the proportion of advertisements featuring young adults. The simple chi-square with 2 df is 1.99, which is not significant at the 95 percent confidence level.

Middle Adults (26-50). Simple chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between magazine target audiences in the proportion of advertisements featuring middle adults. The simple chi-square with 2 df is 7.24, which is significant at the 95 percent confidence level. The table value at this level with 2 df is 6.0.

Significant differences in the proportion of advertisements featuring middle adults were found at the 95 percent confidence level between magazines targeted to men and to both. All other comparisons failed to show any genuine differences.

Older Adults (51+). No significant difference was found between magazines in terms of the proportion of advertisements featuring older adults. The simple chi-square

with 2 df is 2.46, which is not significant at the 95 percent
confidence level.

Therefore, according to this analysis, women's magazines
featured children more than magazines targeted to men or to
both. Men's magazines tended to feature more middle adults
than magazines aimed at both. Younger and older adult
results did not show any real differences between any of the
magazines.

Table V illustrates the relationship between magazine
target audience and the ethnicity of person(s) featured in
the advertisements.

TABLE V

Ethnicity of Person(s) in Advertisements,

By Magazine Target Audience

N = 87

Legend

A = Caucasian, B = African-American, C = Hispanic American,

D = Native American, E = Asian American,

F = Unable to Determine

Ethnicity	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
A	82% (18)	93% (39)	93% (21)	90% (78)
B	10% (2)	5% (2)	7% (2)	7% (6)
C	4% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	1% (1)
D	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
E	0% (0)	2% (1)	0% (0)	1% (1)
F	4% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	1% (1)
TOTAL	100% (22)	100% (42)	100% (23)	100% (87)

Chi-square=7.7969, df=10, p>.05

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 10 df is
18.3. This indicates that the relationship between magazine
target audience and ethnicity of the people in the
advertisement is not statistically significant at the 95
percent confidence level. There is no difference in the
ethnicity of the people featured in the advertisements

between the magazine target audiences. Therefore, the null hypothesis is supported for this part of the question. However, this table again had sparse frequency counts, which makes the tests suspect.

Table VI illustrates the relationship between magazine target audience and the roles the person(s) play in the advertisements.

TABLE VI

Roles of Person(s) in Advertisements, By Magazine Target Audience

N = 85

Legend

A = Professional, B = Technical, C = Homemaker, D = Student, E = Unable to Determine, F = All

Role	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
A	27% (6)	7% (3)	18% (4)	15% (13)
B	0% (0)	12% (5)	9% (2)	8% (7)
C	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
D	0% (0)	5% (2)	0% (0)	2% (2)
E	68% (15)	76% (31)	73% (16)	74% (62)
F	5% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	1% (1)
TOTAL	100% (22)	100% (41)	100% (22)	100% (85)

Chi-square=15.03, df=10, p>.05

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 10 df is 18.3. This indicates that the relationship between magazine target audience and role of the people in the advertisement is not statistically significant at the 95 percent confidence level. The research indicates that there is no difference in the role of the people in the advetisements between the different magazine target audiences. Therefore, the null hypothesis is supported for this part of the question. However since some of the fitted cells are sparse, significance tests are suspect.

Table VII illustrates the relationship between magazine target audience and the theme (or message) being communicated in the advertisements.

TABLE VII

Theme of Advertisement, By Magazine Target Audience

N = 744

Legend

A = Comfort, B = Freedom..., C = Superiority,

D = Companionship,

E = Welfare of Loved Ones, F = Social Approval,

G = Living Longer (better)

Theme	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
A	22% (41)	16% (45)	20% (56)	19% (142)
B	13% (24)	18% (47)	13% (36)	14% (107)
C	21% (40)	28% (76)	19% (53)	23% (169)
D	2% (2)	1% (4)	1% (4)	1% (10)
E	3% (5)	2% (6)	3% (8)	3% (19)
F	4% (7)	3% (9)	1% (3)	3% (19)
G	37% (73)	32% (86)	43% (119)	37% (278)
TOTAL	100% (192)	100% (273)	100% (279)	100% (744)

Chi-square = 16.798, df = 12, p>.05

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 12 df is 21.0. This indicates that the relationship between magazine target audience and the theme presented in the advertisement is not statistically significant at the 95 percent confidence level. There is no difference in the theme represented in

the advertisement between the difference magazine target audiences. Therefore, the null hypothesis is supported for this part of the question.

Table VIII illustrates the relationship between magazine target audience and the language used in the advertisements.

TABLE VIII

Language used in Advertisement, By Magazine Target Audience

N = 415

Legend

Numbers on a scale where 1 = rational, 7 = emotional

Language	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
1	0% (0)	1% (1)	0% (0)	0% (1)
2	3% (3)	11% (19)	8% (12)	8% (34)
3	15% (14)	23% (40)	9% (13)	16% (67)
4	13% (12)	22% (38)	20% (30)	19% (80)
5	38% (35)	23% (40)	24% (36)	27% (111)
6	15% (14)	18% (30)	26% (40)	20% (84)
7	16% (15)	2% (3)	13% (20)	20% (38)
TOTAL	100% (93)	100% (171)	100% (151)	100% (415)

Chi-square=47.72, df=12, p<.05, C=.33, C of D=11%

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 12 df is 26.2. This indicates that the complex chi-square of the

relationship between magazine target audience and the language used in the advertisements is statistically significant at the 95 percent confidence level. The contingency coefficient is .33 and the coefficient of determination is 11 percent.

According to the scale (0 = none, +1 = strong) there is a definite but small relationship between magazine target audience and the language used in the advertisements. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for this part of the question. However, because some of the fitted cells used to compute this chi-square were sparse (with a frequency of less than five), significance tests are suspect.

The coefficient of determination is 11 percent which means that 11 percent of the variation of the language used in the advertisements can be indicated by magazine target audience. This is a weak relationship because approximately 89 percent of the variation of language type cannot be attributed to magazine target audience. Since the relationship was significant, simple chi-squares were done to find out what the relationship was and where the differences were between magazines.

#1 (Rational). Simple chi-square analysis revealed that there is no significant difference at the 95 percent confidence level between the overall counts of advertisements in terms of the proportion of advertisements featuring rational language targeted at women, men and both. The

overall chi-square is 1.04. The tabled value at this level
(95 percent) with 2 df is 6.0.

#2. No significant difference was found between
magazines in terms of the proportion of advertisements
featuring level 2 language. The simple chi-square with 2 df
is 4.57. The tabled value at this level (95 percent) with 2
df is 6.0.

#3. Simple chi-square analysis revealed that there is a
significant difference at the 95 percent confidence level
between the overall counts of advertisements in terms of the
proportion of advertisements featuring level 3 language in
magazines targeted at women, men and both. The overall chi-
square is 11.37. The tabled value at this level (99 percent)
with 2 df is 9.2.

Significant differences in the proportion of
advertisements featuring level 3 language were found at the
99 percent confidence level between magazines aimed at men
and at both.

No other comparisons showed any genuine differences.

#4. No significant difference was found between
magazines in terms of the proportion of advertisements
featuring level 4 language. The simple chi-square with 2 df
is 2.60, which is not significant at the 95 percent
confidence level.

#5. No significant difference was found between magazines in terms of the proportion of advertisements featuring level 5 language. The simple chi-square with 2 df is 5.883, which is not significant at the 95 percent confidence level.

#6. No significant difference was found between magazines in terms of the proportion of advertisements featuring level 6 language. The simple chi-square with 2 df is 4.219, which is not significant at the 95 percent confidence level.

#7 (Emotional). Simple chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between magazines in the proportion of advertisements featuring level 7 (emotional) language. The simple chi-square with 2 df is 17.94, which is significant at the 99 percent confidence level. The tabled value at this level (99 percent) with 2 df is 7.4.

Significant differences in the proportion of advertisements featuring emotional language were found at the 99 percent confidence level between magazines aimed at women and at men, and magazines aimed at men and at both.

No other comparisons showed any genuine differences.

Therefore, according to this analysis, magazines aimed at men tended to be more rational (#3) than magazines aimed at both. On the other hand, magazines aimed at both and at women tended to be more emotional (#7) than those magazines aimed at men.

Table IX illustrates the relationship between magazine target audience and the style of typeface used in the advertisement.

TABLE IX

Typeface used in Advertisement, By Magazine Target Audience

N = .478

Legend

S = Serif, SS = Sans Serif

Typeface	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
S	65% (62)	61% (129)	59% (102)	61% (293)
SS	35% (33)	39% (81)	41% (71)	39% (185)
TOTAL	100% (95)	100% (210)	100% (173)	100% (478)

Chi-square=1.414, df=2, p>.05

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 2 df is 6.0. This indicates that the relationship between magazine target audience and style of typeface used in the advertisement is not statistically significant at the 95

percent confidence level. This means that there is no
difference in the style of typeface used in the advertisement
between the different magazine target audiences. Therefore,
the null hypothesis is supported for this part of the
question.

Table X illustrates the relationship between magazine
target audience and the size of the typeface used in the
advertisements.

TABLE X

Size of Typeface in Advertisements, By Magazine Target

Audience

N = 872

Legend

A = small (1-12 point), B = medium (13-24),

C = Large (25+ point)

Typeface Size	Magazine Target Audience			
	Women	Men	Both	Total
A	21% (41)	27% (96)	31% (101)	28% (238)
B	41% (78)	40% (139)	37% (118)	38% (335)
C	38% (70)	35% (126)	32% (103)	34% (299)
TOTAL	100% (189)	100% (361)	100% (322)	100% (872)

Chi-square=5.81, df=4, p>.05

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 4 df is 9.5. This indicates that the relationship between magazine target audience and the size of the typeface used in the advertisement is not statistically significant at the 95 percent confidence level. There is no difference in the size of typeface used in the advertisements between the different magazine target audiences. Therefore, the null hypothesis is supported for this part of the question.

Detailed Findings by Magazine

Table XI illustrates the relationship between magazine type (Cosmopolitan) and the semiotic techniques examined over the ten-year time period, 1985-1994, for the selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XI

Semiotic Techniques in <u>Cosmopolitan</u>, By Time Period

<u>Time Period</u>

	1985		1989		1994		TOTAL	
Symmetry (N=14)								
A	71%	(5)	67%	(2)	75%	(3)	71%	(10)
B	29%	(2)	33%	(1)	25%	(1)	29%	(4)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(3)	100%	(4)	100%	(14)

Chi-square=.053, df=2, p>.05

	1985		1989		1994		TOTAL	
Spaciousness (N=13)								
A	29%	(2)	33%	(1)	0%	(0)	23%	(3)
B	71%	(5)	67%	(2)	100%	(3)	77%	(10)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(3)	100%	(3)	100%	(13)

Chi-square=1.17, df=2, p>.05

	1985		1989		1994		TOTAL	
People (N=13)								
Yes	43%	(3)	33%	(1)	0%	(0)	31%	(4)
No	57%	(4)	67%	(2)	100%	(3)	69%	(9)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(3)	100%	(3)	100%	(13)

Chi-square=1.808, df=2, p>.05

Age (N=4)

A	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
B	33%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	25%	(1)
C	34%	(1)	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	50%	(2)
D	33%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	25%	(1)
TOTAL	100%	(3)	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	100%	(4)

Chi-square=1.32, df=6, p>.05

Ethnicity (N=4)

A	67%	(2)	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	75%	(3)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	23%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	25%	(1)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(3)	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	100%	(4)

Chi-square=.437, df=10, p>.05

Roles (N=4)

A	23%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	25%	(1)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	67%	(2)	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	75%	(3)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(3)	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	100%	(4)

Chi-square=.437, df=10, p>.05

Themes (N=24)

A	0%	(0)	20%	(1)	30%	(3)	17%	(4)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	20%	(2)	8%	(2)
C	33%	(3)	20%	(1)	20%	(2)	25%	(6)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	11%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	4%	(1)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
G	56%	(5)	60%	(3)	30%	(3)	46%	(11)
TOTAL	100%	(9)	100%	(5)	100%	(10)	100%	(24)

Chi-square=8.355, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=13)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
3	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	23%	(1)	8%	(1)
4	14%	(1)	67%	(2)	0%	(0)	23%	(3)
5	29%	(2)	23%	(1)	67%	(2)	38%	(5)
6	43%	(3)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	23%	(3)
7	14%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	8%	(1)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(3)	100%	(3)	100%	(13)

Chi-square=10.519, df=12, p>.05

Typeface (N=14)

A	25% (2)	67% (2)	23% (1)	36% (5)
B	75% (6)	23% (1)	67% (2)	64% (9)
TOTAL	100% (8)	100% (3)	100% (3)	100% (14)

Chi-square=1.64, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=31)

A	18% (3)	14% (1)	29% (2)	19% (6)
B	41% (7)	43% (3)	29% (2)	39% (12)
C	41% (7)	43% (3)	42% (3)	42% (13)
TOTAL	100% (17)	100% (7)	100% (7)	100% (31)

Chi-square=.658, df=4, p>.05

As Table XI indicates, when examining the selected
years, no differences are found in Cosmopolitan for any of
the areas analyzed.

Table XII illustrates the relationship between magazine
type (Better Homes and Gardens) and the semiotic techniques
examined over the ten-year time period, 1985-1994, for the
selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XII

Semiotic Techniques in <u>Better Homes and Gardens</u>,

By Time Period

<u>Time Period</u>

	1985		1989		1994		TOTAL	
Symmetry (N=8)								
A	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	20%	(1)	50%	(4)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	80%	(4)	50%	(4)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	100%	(5)	100%	(8)

Chi-square=4.8, df=2, p>.05

	1985		1989		1994		TOTAL	
Spaciousness (N=8)								
A	0%	(0)	50%	(1)	20%	(1)	25%	(2)
B	100%	(1)	50%	(1)	80%	(4)	75%	(6)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	100%	(5)	100%	(8)

Chi-square=1.056, df=2, p>.05

	1985		1989		1994		TOTAL	
People (N=8)								
Yes	0%	(0)	50%	(1)	20%	(1)	25%	(2)
No	100%	(1)	50%	(1)	80%	(4)	75%	(6)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	100%	(5)	100%	(8)

Chi-square=5.916, df=2, p>.05

Age (N=3)

A	0%	(0)	50%	(1)	100%	(1)	67%	(2)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	50%	(1)	0%	(0)	23%	(1)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	0%	(0)	100%	(2)	100%	(1)	100%	(3)

Chi-square=.76, df=6, p>.05

Ethnicity (N=2)

A	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(2)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(2)

Chi-square=0, df=10, p>.05

Roles (N=2)

A	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(2)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(2)

Chi-square=0, df=10, p>.05

Themes (N=19)

A	50%	(1)	33%	(2)	28%	(3)	32%	(6)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	36%	(4)	21%	(4)
C	0%	(0)	33%	(2)	0%	(0)	11%	(2)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	17%	(1)	18%	(2)	16%	(3)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
G	50%	(1)	17%	(1)	18%	(2)	20%	(4)
TOTAL	100%	(2)	100%	(6)	100%	(11)	100%	(19)

Chi-square=8.669, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=8)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
3	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
4	0%	(0)	100%	(2)	20%	(1)	38%	(3)
5	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	40%	(2)	24%	(2)
6	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	40%	(2)	38%	(3)
7	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	100%	(5)	100%	(8)

Chi-square=5.853, df=12, p>.05

Typeface (N=9)

A	50%	(1)	100%	(2)	80%	(4)	78%	(7)
B	50%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)	22%	(2)
TOTAL	100%	(2)	100%	(2)	100%	(5)	100%	(9)

Chi-square=1.49, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=15)

A	50%	(1)	0%	(0)	12%	(1)	13%	(2)
B	0%	(0)	50%	(2)	44%	(4)	40%	(6)
C	50%	(1)	50%	(2)	44%	(4)	47%	(7)
TOTAL	100%	(2)	100%	(4)	100%	(9)	100%	(15)

Chi-square=3.624, df=4, p>.05

As Table XII indicates, there are no differences found in Better Homes and Gardens in any of the areas analyzed for the examined years.

Table XIII illustrates the relationship between magazine type (<u>Good Housekeeping</u>) and the semiotic techniques examined over the ten-year time period, 1985-1994, for the selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XIII

Semiotic Techniques in <u>Good Housekeeping</u>, By Time Period

<u>Time Period</u>

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Symmetry (N=3)				
A	0% (0)	100% (1)	100% (1)	67% (2)
B	100% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	23% (1)
TOTAL	100% (1)	100% (1)	100% (1)	100% (3)

Chi-square=3.03, df=2, p>.05

Spaciousness (N=4)				
A	50% (1)	100% (1)	0% (0)	50% (2)
B	50% (1)	0% (0)	100% (1)	50% (2)
TOTAL	100% (2)	100% (1)	100% (1)	100% (4)

Chi-square=2, df=2, p>.05

People (N=3)

Yes	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	23%	(1)
No	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	67%	(2)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(3)

Chi-square=3.03, df=2, p>.05

Age (N=2)

A	50%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	50%	(1)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	50%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	50%	(1)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(2)	0%	(·0)	0%	(0)	100%	(2)

Chi-square=0, df=6, p>.05

Ethnicity (N=1)

A	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	100%	(1)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	100%	(1)

Chi-square=0, df=10, p>.05

Roles (N=1)

A	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	100%	(1)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	100%	(1)

Chi-square=0, df=10, p>.05

Themes (N=5)

A	0%	(0)	33%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	33%	(1)	100%	(1)	40%	(2)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
G	100%	(1)	34%	(1)	0%	(0)	40%	(2)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(3)	100%	(1)	100%	(5)

Chi-square=3.66, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=3)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
3	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	33%	(1)
4	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	33%	(1)
5	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	0%	(0)	34%	(1)
6	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
7	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(3)

Chi-square=6.06, df=12, p>.05

Typeface (N=3)

A	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(3)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(1)	100%	(3)

Chi-square=0, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=7)

A	33%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	14%	(1)
B	33%	(1)	50%	(1)	50%	(1)	43%	(3)
C	34%	(1)	50%	(1)	50%	(1)	43%	(3)
TOTAL	100%	(3)	100%	(2)	100%	(2)	100%	(7)

Chi-square=1.95, df=4, p>.05

As Table XIII indicates, there are no differences found in Good Housekeeping in any of the areas analyzed for the examined years.

Table XIV illustrates the relationship between magazine type (<u>Esquire</u>) and the semiotic techniques examined over the ten-year time period of 1985-1994, for the selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XIV

Semiotic Techniques in <u>Esquire</u>, By Time Period

<u>Time Period</u>

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Symmetry (N=10)				
A	50% (2)	80% (4)	0% (0)	60% (6)
B	50% (2)	20% (1)	100% (1)	40% (4)
TOTAL	100% (4)	100% (5)	100% (1)	100% (10)

Chi-square=2.49, df=2, p>.05

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Spaciousness (N=10)				
A	50% (2)	40% (2)	100% (1)	50% (5)
B	50% (2)	60% (3)	0% (0)	50% (5)
TOTAL	100% (4)	100% (5)	100% (1)	100% (10)

Chi-square=1.2, df=2, p>.05

People (N=10)

Yes	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
No	100%	(4)	100%	(5)	100%	(1)	100%	(10)
TOTAL	100%	(4)	100%	(5)	100%	(1)	100%	(10)

Chi-square=0, df=2, p>.05

Age, Ethnicity, Roles (N=0)

Themes (N=19)

A	29%	(2)	30%	(3)	50%	(1)	32%	(6)
B	0%	(0)	10%	(1)	50%	(1)	10%	(2)
C	29%	(2)	40%	(4)	0%	(0)	32%	(6)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	10%	(1)	0%	(0)	5%	(1)
F	0%	(0)	10%	(1)	0%	(0)	5%	(1)
G	42%	(3)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	16%	(3)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(10)	100%	(2)	100%	(19)

Chi-square=11.09, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=10)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
3	75%	(3)	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	40%	(4)
4	0%	(0)	60%	(3)	0%	(0)	30%	(3)
5	0%	(0)	40%	(2)	0%	(0)	20%	(2)
6	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	10%	(1)
7	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(4)	100%	(5)	100%	(1)	100%	(10)

Chi-square=10.625, df=12, p>.05

Typeface (N=13)

A	20%	(1)	71%	(5)	100%	(1)	54%	(7)
B	80%	(4)	29%	(2)	0%	(0)	46%	(6)
TOTAL	100%	(5)	100%	(7)	100%	(1)	100%	(13)

Chi-square=4.04, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=20)

A	25%	(2)	30%	(3)	0%	(0)	25%	(5)
B	25%	(2)	40%	(4)	50%	(1)	35%	(7)
C	50%	(4)	30%	(3)	50%	(1)	40%	(8)
TOTAL	100%	(8)	100%	(10)	100%	(2)	100%	(20)

Chi-square=1.51, df=4, p>.05

As Table XIV indicates, there are no differences found in Esquire in any of the areas analyzed for the examined years.

Table XV illustrates the relationship between magazine type (<u>Gentlemen's Quarterly</u>) and the semiotic techniques examined over the ten-year time period, 1985-1994, for the selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XV

Semiotic Techniques in <u>Gentlemen's Quarterly</u>, By Time Period

<u>Time Period</u>

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Symmetry (N=14)				
A	57% (4)	80% (4)	100% (2)	71% (10)
B	43% (3)	20% (1)	0% (0)	29% (4)
TOTAL	100% (7)	100% (5)	100% (2)	100% (14)

Chi-square=1.232, df=2, p>.05

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Spaciousness (N=14)				
A	29% (2)	20% (1)	50% (1)	29% (4)
B	71% (5)	80% (4)	50% (1)	71% (10)
TOTAL	100% (7)	100% (5)	100% (2)	100% (14)

Chi-square=1.1, df=2, p>.05

People (N=14)

Yes	17%	(1)	40%	(2)	50%	(1)	29%	(4)
No	83%	(6)	60%	(3)	50%	(1)	71%	(10)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(5)	100%	(2)	100%	(14)

Chi-square=1.954, df=2, p>.05

Age (N=4)

A	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	100%	(1)	100%	(4)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	100%	(1)	100%	(4)

Chi-square=0, df=6, p>.05

Ethnicity (N=4)

A	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	100%	(1)	100%	(4)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	100%	(1)	100%	(4)

Chi-square=0, df=10, p>.05

Roles (N=4)

A	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	25%	(1)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	0%	(0)	75%	(3)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(2)	100%	(1)	100%	(4)

Chi-square=3.99, df=10, p>.05

Themes (N=23)

A	22%	(2)	10%	(1)	25%	(1)	17%	(4)
B	0%	(0)	30%	(3)	25%	(1)	17%	(4)
C	11%	(1)	10%	(1)	0%	(0)	8%	(2)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	11%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	4%	(1)
G	56%	(5)	50%	(5)	50%	(2)	54%	(12)
TOTAL	100%	(9)	100%	(10)	100%	(4)	100%	(23)

Chi-square=5.175, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=14)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	0%	(0)	20%	(1)	0%	(0)	7%	(1)
3	15%	(1)	40%	(2)	0%	(0)	21%	(3)
4	30%	(2)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	14%	(2)
5	55%	(4)	20%	(1)	50%	(1)	44%	(6)
6	0%	(0)	20%	(1)	50%	(1)	14%	(2)
7	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(5)	100%	(2)	100%	(14)

Chi-square=8.885, df=12, p>.05

Typeface (N=19)

A	45%	(5)	67%	(4)	50%	(1)	53%	(10)
B	55%	(6)	23%	(2)	50%	(1)	47%	(9)
TOTAL	100%	(11)	100%	(6)	100%	(2)	100%	(19)

Chi-square=.694, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=35)

A	28%	(5)	42%	(5)	40%	(2)	34%	(12)
B	33%	(6)	33%	(4)	40%	(2)	34%	(12)
C	39%	(7)	25%	(3)	20%	(1)	32%	(11)
TOTAL	100%	(18)	100%	(12)	100%	(5)	100%(| 35)

Chi-square=1.208, df=4, p>.05

As Table XV indicates, there are no differences found in Gentleman's Quarterly in any of the areas analyzed for the examined years.

Table XVI illustrates the relationship between magazine type (<u>Popular Mechanics</u>) and the semiotic techniques examined over the ten-year time period, 1985-1994, for the selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XVI

Semiotic Techniques in <u>Popular Mechanics</u>, By Time Period

Time Period

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Symmetry (N=12)				
A	100% (3)	50% (2)	40% (2)	58% (7)
B	0% (0)	50% (2)	60% (3)	42% (5)
TOTAL	100% (3)	100% (4)	100% (5)	100% (12)

Chi-square=2.96, df=2, p>.05

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Spaciousness (N=13)				
A	25% (1)	50% (2)	20% (1)	31% (4)
B	75% (3)	50% (2)	80% (4)	69% (9)
TOTAL	100% (4)	100% (4)	100% (5)	100% (13)

Chi-square=1.023, df=2, p>.05

People (N=12)

Yes	0%	(0)	75%	(3)	20%	(1)	33%	(4)
No	100%	(3)	25%	(1)	80%	(4)	67%	(8)
TOTAL	100%	(3)	100%	(4)	100%	(5)	100%	(12)

Chi-square=5.02, df=2, p>.05

Age (N=5)

A	0%	(0)	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	100%	(1)	20%	(1)
C	0%	(0)	75%	(3)	0%	(0)	60%	(3)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	0%	(0)	100%	(4)	100%	(1)	100%	(5)

Chi-square=4.955, df=6, p>.05

Ethnicity (N=5)

A	0%	(0)	75%	(3)	100%	(1)	80%	(4)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	0%	(0)	100%	(4)	100%	(1)	100%	(5)

Chi-square=.2675, df=10, p>.05

Roles (N=5)

A	0%	(0)	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)
E	0%	(0)	50%	(2)	100%	(1)	60%	(3)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	0%	(0)	100%	(4)	100%	(1)	100%	(5)

Chi-square=.742, df=10, p>.05

Themes (N=24)

A	33%	(2)	0%	(0)	17%	(2)	17%	(4)
B	0%	(0)	17%	(1)	25%	(3)	17%	(4)
C	33%	(2)	17%	(1)	8%	(1)	17%	(4)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	8%	(1)	4%	(1)
G	34%	(2)	66%	(4)	42%	(5)	45%	(11)
TOTAL	100%	(6)	100%	(6)	100%	(12)	100%	(24)

Chi-square=7.815, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=12)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	67%	(2)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	17%	(2)
3	23%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)	17%	(2)
4	0%	(0)	50%	(2)	20%	(1)	24%	(3)
5	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	60%	(3)	25%	(3)
6	0%	(0)	50%	(2)	0%	(0)	17%	(2)
7	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(3)	100%	(4)	100%	(5)	100%	(12)

Chi-square=15.845, df=12, p>.05

Typeface (N=12)

A	67%	(2)	75%	(3)	100%	(5)	83%	(10)
B	23%	(1)	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	17%	(2)
TOTAL	100%	(3)	100%	(4)	100%	(5)	100%	(12)

Chi-square=1.81, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=26)

A	14%	(1)	12%	(1)	20%	(2)	16%	(4)
B	43%	(3)	44%	(4)	30%	(3)	38%	(10)
C	43%	(3)	44%	(4)	50%	(5)	46%	(12)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(9)	100%	(10)	100%	(26)

Chi-square=.611, df=4, p>.05

As Table XVI indicates, there are no differences found in Popular Mechanics in any of the areas analyzed for the examined years.

Table XVII illustrates the relationship between magazine type (<u>Field and Stream</u>) and the semiotic techniques examined over the ten-year time period, 1985-1994, for the selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XVII

Semiotic Techniques in <u>Field and Stream</u>, By Time Period

<u>Time Period</u>

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Symmetry (N=10)				
A	23% (1)	60% (3)	50% (1)	50% (5)
B	67% (2)	40% (2)	50% (1)	50% (5)
TOTAL	100 %(3)	100% (5)	100% (2)	100% (10)

Chi-square=.52, df=2, p>.05

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Spaciousness (N=10)				
A	23% (1)	60% (3)	0% (0)	40% (4)
B	67% (2)	40% (2)	100% (2)	60% (6)
TOTAL	100% (3)	100% (5)	100% (2)	100% (10)

Chi-square=1.71, df=2, p>.05

People (N=10)

Yes	23%	(1)	60%	(3)	0%	(0)	40%	(4)
No	67%	(2)	40%	(2)	100%	(2)	60%	(6)
TOTAL	100%	(3)	100%	(5)	100%	(2)	100%	(10)

Chi-square=1.71, df=2, p>.05

Age (N=5)

A	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
B	0%	(0)	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)
C	100%	(1)	50%	(2)	0%	(0)	60%	(3)
D	0%	(0)	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(4)	0%	(0)	100%	(5)

Chi-square=.82, df=6, p>.05

Ethnicity (N=4)

A	100%	(1)	100%	(3)	0%	(0)	100%	(4)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(3)	0%	(0)	100%	(4)

Chi-square=0, df=10, p>.05

Roles (N=4)

A	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
C	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	100%	(1)	100%	(3)	0%	(0)	100%	(4)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(1)	100%	(3)	0%	(0)	100%	(4)

Chi-square=0, df=10, p>.05

Themes (N=20)

A	0%	(0)	10%	(1)	0%	(0)	5%	(1)
B	0%	(0)	20%	(2)	40%	(2)	20%	(4)
C	20%	(1)	10%	(1)	20%	(1)	15%	(3)
D	20%	(1)	10%	(1)	0%	(0)	10%	(2)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
G	60%	(3)	50%	(5)	40%	(2)	50%	(10)
TOTAL	100%	(5)	100%	(10)	100%	(5)	100%	(20)

Chi-square=4.52, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=10)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	33%	(1)	20%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(2)
3	33%	(1)	20%	(1)	50%	(1)	30%	(3)
4	0%	(0)	20%	(1)	0%	(0)	10%	(1)
5	0%	(0)	40%	(2)	0%	(0)	20%	(2)
6	34%	(1)	0%	(0)	50%	(1)	20%	(2)
7	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0 %(0)		0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(3)	100%	(5)	100%	(2)	100%	(10)

Chi-square=6.25, df-12, p>.05

Typeface (N=14)

A	60%	(3)	50%	(3)	67%	(2)	57%	(8)
B	40%	(2)	50%	(3)	23%	(1)	43%	(6)
TOTAL	100%	(5)	100%	(6)	100%	(3)	100%	(14)

Chi-square=.246, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=20)

A	40%	(2)	18%	(2)	0%	(0)	20%	(4)
B	20%	(1)	45%	(5)	50%	(2)	40%	(8)
C	40%	(2)	37%	(4)	50%	(2)	40%	(8)
TOTAL	100%	(5)	100%	(11)	100%	(4)	100%	(20)

Chi-square=2.64, df=4, p>.0

As Table XVII indicates, there are no differences found in <u>Field and Stream</u> in any of the areas analyzed for the examined years.

Table XVIII illustrates the relationship between magazine type (<u>Rolling Stone</u>) and the semiotic techniques examined over the ten-year time period, 1985-1994, for the selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XVIII

Semiotic Techniques in <u>Rolling Stone</u>, By Time Period

<u>Time Period</u>

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Symmetry (N=26)				
A	20% (1)	100% (2)	80% (4)	58% (7)
B	80% (4)	0% (0)	20% (1)	42% (5)
TOTAL	100% (5)	100% (2)	100% (5)	100% (12)

Chi-square=5.41, df=2, p>.05

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Spaciousness (N=12)				
A	80% (4)	50% (1)	40% (2)	58% (7)
B	20% (1)	50% (1)	60% (3)	42% (5)
TOTAL	100% (5)	100% (2)	100% (5)	100% (12)

Chi-square=1.69, df=2, p>.05

People (N=12)

Yes	20%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)	17%	(2)
No	80%	(4)	100%	(2)	80%	(4)	83%	(10)
TOTAL	100%	(5)	100%	(2)	100%	(5)	100%	(12)

Chi-square=.462, df=2, p>.05

Age, Ethnicity, Roles (N=0)

Themes (N=18)

A	14%	(1)	0%	(0)	22%	(2)	17%	(3)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	44%	(4)	22%	(4)
C	14%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	5%	(1)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
G	72%	(5)	100%	(2)	34%	(3)	56%	(10)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(2)	100%	(9)	100%	(18)

Chi-square=11.94, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=12)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	0%	(0)	50%	(1)	0%	(0)	8%	(1)
3	40%	(2)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	17%	(2)
4	20%	(1)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)	17%	(2)
5	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
6	0%	(0)	50%	(1)	40%	(2)	25%	(3)
7	40%	(2)	0%	(0)	40%	(2)	33%	(4)
TOTAL	100%	(5)	100%	(2)	100%	(5)	100%	(12)

Chi-square=1.57, df=12, p>.05

Typeface (N=12)

A	40%	(2)	100%	(2)	60%	(3)	58%	(7)
B	60%	(3)	0%	(0)	40%	(2)	42%	(5)
TOTAL	100%	(5)	100%	(2)	100%	(5)	100%	(12)

Chi-square=2.115, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=26)

A	36%	(4)	50%	(2)	45%	(5)	42%	(11)
B	28%	(3)	0%	(0)	19%	(2)	19%	(5)
C	36%	(4)	50%	(2)	36%	(4)	39%	(10)
TOTAL	100%	(11)	100%	(4)	100%	(11)	100%	(26)

Chi-square=1.455, df=4, p>.05

As Table XVIII indicates, there are no differences found in Rolling Stone in any of the areas analyzed for the examined years.

Table XIX illustrates the relationship between magazine type (U.S. News and World Report) and the semiotic techniques examined over the ten-year time period, 1985-1994, for the selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XIX

Semiotic Techniques in U.S. News and World Report,

By Time Period

Time Period

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Symmetry (N=9)				
A	50% (2)	67% (2)	50% (1)	56% (5)
B	50% (2)	23% (1)	50% (1)	44% (4)
TOTAL	100% (4)	100% (3)	100% (2)	100% (9)

Chi-square=.215, df=2. p>.05

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Spaciousness (N=9)				
A	50% (2)	23% (1)	100% (2)	56% (5)
B	50% (2)	67% (2)	0% (0)	44% (4)
TOTAL	100% (4)	100% (3)	100% (2)	100% (9)

Chi-square=2.22, df=2, p>.05

People (N=9)

Yes	0%	(0)	23%	(1)	0%	(0)	11%	(1)
No	100%	(4)	67%	(2)	100%	(2)	89%	(8)
TOTAL	100%	(4)	100%	(3)	100%	(2)	100%	(9)

Chi-square=2.25, df=2, p>.05

Age, Ethnicity, Roles (N=0)

Themes (N=17)

A	17%	(1)	0%	(0)	14%	(1)	12%	(2)
B	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	29%	(2)	12%	(2)
C	33%	(2)	50%	(2)	14%	(1)	29%	(5)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	14%	(1)	6%	(1)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
G	50%	(3)	50%	(2)	29%	(2)	41%	(7)
TOTAL	100%	(6)	100%	(4)	100%	(7)	100%	(17)

Chi-square=6.482, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=9)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	11%	(1)
3	50%	(2)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	22%	(2)
4	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	50%	(1)	22%	(2)
5	0%	(0)	23%	(1)	0%	(0)	11%	(1)
6	0%	(0)	67%	(2)	50%	(1)	34%	(3)
7	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
TOTAL	100%	(4)	100%	(3)	100%	(2)	100%	(9)

Chi-square=9.666, df=12, p>.05

Typeface (N=11)

A	40%	(2)	75%	(3)	100%	(2)	64%	(7)
B	60%	(3)	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	36%	(4)
TOTAL	100%	(5)	100%	(4)	100%	(2)	100%	(11)

Chi-square=2.55, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=19)

A	0%	(0)	43%	(3)	25%	(1)	21%	(4)
B	50%	(4)	14%	(1)	50%	(2)	37%	(7)
C	50%	(4)	43%	(3)	25%	(1)	42%	(8)
TOTAL	100%	(8)	100%	(7)	100%	(4)	100%	(19)

Chi-square=5.231, df=4, p>.05

As Table XIX indicates, there are no differences found in U.S. News and World Report in any of the areas analyzed for the examined years.

Table XX illustrates the relationship between magazine type (<u>Newsweek</u>) and the semiotic techniques examined over the ten-year time period, 1985-1994, for the selected years of 1985, 1989 and 1994.

TABLE XX

Semiotic Techniques in <u>Newsweek</u>, By Time Period

<u>Time Period</u>

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Symmetry (N=12)				
A	25% (1)	67% (2)	60% (3)	50% (6)
B	75% (3)	23% (1)	40% (2)	50% (6)
TOTAL	100% (4)	100% (3)	100% (5)	100% (12)

Chi-square=1.52, df=2, p>.05

	1985	1989	1994	TOTAL
Spaciousness (N=12)				
A	0% (0)	100% (3)	80% (4)	58% (7)
B	100% (4)	0% (0)	20% (1)	42% (5)
TOTAL	100% (4)	100% (3)	100% (5)	100% (12)

Chi-square=8.72, df=2, p<.05, C = .65, C of D = 42%

The tabled chi-square value at this level with 2 df is 6.0. This indicates that the complex chi-square of the relationship between time period examined and the spaciousness of the advertisements is statistically

significant at the 95 percent confidence level. The contingency coefficient is .65 and the coefficient of determination is 42 percent.

According to the scale (0 = weak, +1 = strong) there is a moderate relationship between the time period examined and the spaciousness of the advertisements. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for this part of the question. However, because all of the fitted cells used to compute this chi-square were sparse (with a frequency of less than five), significance tests are suspect.

The coefficient of determination is 42 percent which means that 42 percent of the variation of the spaciousness of the advertisements can be indicated by the time period examined. This is a weak relationship because approximately 58 percent of the variation of spaciousness cannot be attributed to the time period examined. Since the relationship was significant, simple chi-squares were done to find out what the relationship was and where the differences were between magazines.

Spacious. Simple chi-square analysis revealed that there is no significant difference at the 95 percent confidence level between the overall counts of advertisements in terms of the proportion of advertisements featuring spacious advertisements during the time period examined. The overall chi-square is 2.31. The tabled value at this level (95 percent) with 2 df is 6.0.

Crowded. Simple chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference at the 95 percent confidence level between the overall counts of advertisements in terms of the proportion of advertisements featuring crowded advertisements during the time period examined. The overall chi-square is 10.08. The tabled value at this level (99 percent) with 2 df is 9.2.

Significant differences in the proportion of advertisements featuring crowded advertisements were found at the 99 percent confidence level between the years 1985 and 1989 and the years 1985 and 1994. No other comparisons showed any genuine differences.

Therefore, the research showed that advertisements in Newsweek were more crowded with design elements in 1985 than in 1994, and more spacious in 1989 than in 1985.

People (N=12)

Yes	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
No	100% (4)	100% (3)	100% (5)	100% (12)
TOTAL	100% (4)	100% (3)	100% (5)	100% (12)

Chi-square=0, df=2, p>.05

Age, Ethnicity, Roles (N=0)

Themes (N=21)

A	14%	(1)	0%	(0)	30%	(3)	19%	(4)
B	0%	(0)	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	5%	(1)
C	14%	(1)	25%	(1)	20%	(2)	19%	(4)
D	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
E	14%	(1)	0%	(0)	10%	(1)	10%	(2)
F	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
G	58%	(4)	50%	(2)	40%	(4)	47%	(10)
TOTAL	100%	(7)	100%	(4)	100%	(10)	100%	(21)

Chi-square=6.682, df=12, p>.05

Language (N=12)

1	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
2	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
3	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	0%	(0)
4	50%	(2)	23%	(1)	0%	(0)	25%	(3)
5	25%	(1)	67%	(2)	0%	(0)	25%	(3)
6	0%	(0)	0%	(0)	20%	(1)	8%	(1)
7	25%	(1)	0%	(0)	80%	(4)	42%	(5)
TOTAL	100%	(4)	100%	(3)	100%	(5)	100%	(12)

Chi-square=10.36, df=12, p>.05

Typeface (N=14)

A	40%	(2)	67%	(2)	83%	(5)	64%	(9)
B	60%	(3)	23%	(1)	17%	(1)	46%	(5)
TOTAL	100%	(5)	100%	(3)	100%	(6)	100%	(14)

Chi-square=2.227, df=2, p>.05

Type Size (N=26)							
A	12%	(1)	29%	(2)	27%	(3)	23%	(6)
B	38%	(3)	42%	(3)	46%	(5)	42%	(11)
C	50%	(4)	29%	(2)	27%	(3)	35%	(9)
TOTAL	100%	(8)	100%	(7)	100%	(11)	100%	(26)

Chi-square=1.40, df=4, p>.05

As Table XX indicates, the only differences found in
Newsweek in any of the areas analyzed for the examined years
was in spaciousness of the advertisements. Advertisements
tended to be more spacious in 1989 and 1994 than in 1985 when
the advertisements were more likely to be crowded with design
elements.

Magazines Vogue and Vanity Fair both received too few
counts (only one out of the three years examined in-depth
recorded responses) to conduct the tests. Since the fitted
cells were so sparse, all chi-squares were 0.00, therefore no
significant differences were able to be determined from these
two magazines.

Summary

This chapter reported on the differences between the
semiotic characteristics used in automobile advertisements
and magazine target audiences. The research also reported on
the differences of the semiotic characteristics used in each

of the twelve magazines' automobile advertisements during the time period examined, 1985-1994.

When examining the magazines by target audience, the only statistically significant relationships found were in the presence of people in the advertisements, and the type of language used in the advertisements.

Women's magazines tended to feature more children than magazines aimed at men and at both. Whereas, men's magazines tended to feature more middle adults. Younger and older adults were noticably absent in this section of data. Lastly, magazines aim at both tended to feature older adults more often than did the women's and men's magazines.

Men's magazines also tended to use more rational language (albeit at level 3) than magazines aimed at women and at both. Magazines aimed at both and at women used more emotional language than men's, according to this data.

The only other statistically significant relationship was found in Newsweek by time period examined. Advertisements in 1989 and 1994 tended to be more spacious than advertisements found in 1985. The advertisements in 1985 tended to be more crowded with design elements.

Generally, based on these data, it can be said that women's magazines do indeed use emotional language and feature automobile advertisements that have more children and less young adults or older adultss Men's magazines feature automobile advertisements that use rational rather than

emotional language and tend to feature middle-aged men with their peers than with any other age group.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This study examined automobile advertisements in
magazines aimed at women, men and both for differences in
semiotic characteristics. The magazines examined were:
Vogue, Cosmopolitan, Good Housekeeping, Better Homes and
Gardens, Esquire, Gentelmen's Quarterly, Popular Mechanics,
Field & Stream, Vanity Fair, Newsweek, U.S. News and World
Report and Rolling Stone.

The purpose of this analysis was to find out if
differences in several basic semiotic characteristics existed
and if these characteristics were actively used throughout
the advertising in the selected magazines. The advertisements
were also examined to determine if any changes in the use of
the semiotic characteristics occurred over the period of time
examined.

Summary

For each of the twelve magazines, automobile
advertisements appearing in one issue each year from 1985-
1994 were analyzed. A total of 412 advertisements were
selected for analysis. Advertisements were evaluated for

symmetry, spaciousness, theme(s), language (rational or emotional), and type and size of text. The advertisements were also analyzed for the number of people, their age(s), occupation(s) and ethnicity.

A panel of three judges coded each advertisement according to the categories outlined above.

After coding the 412 advertisements according to the level or classification into which they fell for each of the variables, the results were examined for each variable, for each magazine over time and among magazines. The results were used to answer the following research questions:

1. What semiotic characteristics are used in automobile print advertisements directed at women?

According to the results of this study, the only characteristics of any significance found were that women's magazines tended to feature more children than younger or older adults. Women were more often featured throughout all of the magazines with children in the advertisements than men. Thus, the author believes that the traditional gender-role is still being carried out in regards to the twelve magazines examined for this study.

Women's magazines were also found to use more emotional language rather than rational language. The advertisements usually stressed more feeling through the language used than what features the car actually had (rational).

symmetry, spaciousness, theme(s), language (rational or emotional), and type and size of text. The advertisements were also analyzed for the number of people, their age(s), occupation(s) and ethnicity.

A panel of three judges coded each advertisement according to the categories outlined above.

After coding the 412 advertisements according to the level or classification into which they fell for each of the variables, the results were examined for each variable, for each magazine over time and among magazines. The results were used to answer the following research questions:

1. What semiotic characteristics are used in automobile print advertisements directed at women?

According to the results of this study, the only characteristics of any significance found were that women's magazines tended to feature more children than younger or older adults. Women were more often featured throughout all of the magazines with children in the advertisements than men. Thus, the author believes that the traditional gender-role is still being carried out in regards to the twelve magazines examined for this study.

Women's magazines were also found to use more emotional language rather than rational language. The advertisements usually stressed more feeling through the language used than what features the car actually had (rational).

However, due to some of the fitted cells in the comparison analysis low in frequency counts the findings are somewhat suspect.

2. What semiotic characteristics are used in automobile print advertisements directed at men?

According to the results of this study, the only semiotic characteristics of any significance found were that men's magazines tended to use more rational language than emotional language, and feature middle-aged adults rather than children, younger or older adults.

Men's magazines stressed through the language use, the details of a certain automobile. However, the majority of the advertisements in men's magazines contained both emotional and rational language with the rational side taking precedence.

Very few of the advertisements featured men with children. The majority of the advertisements featured middle-aged (26-49, according to this survey) men with either their peers or significant others. Most often, however, the men were shown alone, playing to the males egocentric, individualistic side.

3. What semiotic characteristics are used in automobile advertisements in non-gender specific magazines?

According to the results of this study, the only characteristics found were that magazines aimed at both

tended to be more like women's magazines and use more emotional language than men's magazines and tended to feature older adults rather than children or any other age group.

These differences could be because of the age of the target audience for 3 of the 4 magazines in this group. The author believes that an older target audience of over 25 years of age more than likely are the chief consumers of these magazines (except Rolling Stone).

The author also believes these differences exist because of the neutrality of the magazine audiences of the magazines examined in this field. Most of the magazine are written to appeal to both sexes, therefore the intent is not as blatant as those of the gender-specific magazines' advertising.

4. What differences and similarities are there between use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at women and use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at men?

According to the results of this study, the similarities that exist between women's and men's magazine automobile advertising consisted of everything else that has not already been mentioned. There were no differences found with regards to symmetry, spaciousness, ethnicity of the people in the advertisements, the roles the person(s) played in the advertisement, the theme being communicated, the typeface used nor the size of typeface used in the advertisement.

The only differences were the ones noted above in questions 1 and 2.

Again, due to some of the fitted cells in the comparison analysis low in frequency counts the findings are somewhat suspect.

5. What changes have occurred during the period 1985-1994 in the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at women, the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at men and the use of semiotic characteristics in automobile print advertisements aimed at both women and men (non-gender specific).

All the magazines were examined for changes in semiotic characteristics over time. The only differences of any significance found between any of the magazines were in Newsweek and pertained to spaciousness.

According to the results of this study, Newsweek advertisements in 1985 tended to be more crowded with design elements than those of 1989 and 1994 which were found to be more spacious.

No other changes were found in Newsweek or any of the other eleven magazines examined throughout this study. However, as noted before, several of the women's magazines featured few advertisements in them, therefore the results of any analysis of changes over time for those magazines are suspect.

Conclusions

From these results, a number of conclusions can be
drawn.

1. Advertising is persuasive. However, a buyer may
select the brand which fits the image he or she would like to
match or what he or she considers socially acceptable or
desirable. The individual's level of involvement with the
item being advertised is crucial to the success of both the
advertising and the product. This involvement is dependent
on how effective the advertising is at persuading the
consumer to pay attention.

For an individual to pay attention several factors must
occur. According to Hughes and Guerrero, the first factor to
emerge for self-evaluation of an advertisement contains
physical and functional attitude (dependability, comfort,
safety and engineering) toward the product. This means that
first, a person must decide if the product is something that
will affect his or her life in some way that warrants his
attention.[1]

After the inward attention is garnered the advertising
must appeal to another factor. According to Hughes and
Guerrero, the next factor for evaluation of the advertising
concerns choice brand selections which contains social
attitudes (masculinity, social status, aggressiveness and
style and leadership) towards the product. This suggest that

brand choice for a product used socially, such as an automobile, may involve social rather than self-congruity.[2]

For advertising to be persuasive, the advertising must appeal to both the self-congruent side of an individual as well as the socially motivated side. This probably explains why the sex-role stereotypes continue to be effective and the use of those roles in advetising so persuasive.

2. As the research in Chapter II notes, advertisements are usually designed on the basis of the cognitive sex-roles that are learned at an early age. However, since so few significant differences existed between the magazine target audiences (according to this research), this idea of sex-roles may be relenting somewhat.

3. As more women and ethnic groups continue to increase their numbers as the major purchasers of automobiles, the automakers will have no choice but to diversify the advertising to reflect those markets.

Some of this is being done now, but since women are more accepting of traditionally male-dominated products and the advertising that persists with those products, this may not change as quickly as hoped.

4. As anticipated, the automobile advertisements examined in this study confirmed that women's magazine advertisements tend to be more child-oriented and use

emotional language, while men's magazines tend to use more rational language and feature more middle-aged adults. This corresponds to the traditional type of advertising that exists where products are sex-oriented and the advertising examined in this study reflects that orientation.

<div align="center">Recommendations</div>

This research may raise more questions than it answers, suggesting a number of possibilities for further investigation.

First, researchers may want to do a more in-depth content analysis by increasing the number of advertisements examined. However, it should be noted that the content analysis performed in this study was a long process, therefore, further research in this area needs to allow a greater amount of time for the actual coding if more advertisements are examined.

Further research on the type of automobiles featured in each of the different magazine's advertisements would be interesting. Analyzing the different automobiles featured in the advertising could perhaps add credence to the continued use of the advertising that reflects gender-roles and the effectiveness of such advertising. Time did not allow for this particular aspect in this study.

Also, a longer time span than ten years could be examined. This might provide a better groundwork to examine the differences (and changes) in sex-roles throughout the

years. This attention to time could also further examine how
advertising, with respect to the traditional sex-roles, has
changed in accordance to how those roles appear in each of
the twelve magazines.

Lastly, since women are fast becoming the majority of
first-time car buyers (under the age of 25), researchers
could study the advertisements that led these women to buy
the automobilies. This could lend insight into whether
female-oriented advertisements made a difference in the
women's decision or if male-oriented advertisements are still
effective in persuading women to purchase a product.

Concluding Comment

Much research has been done on the cognitive aspects of
personality development and what makes people buy. This
study attempted to lay the groundwork for other possible
research on the basis of using the personality development
differences in respect to major purchase buying (such as
automobiles).

The time period examined, however interesting, did not
lend itself easily to examining any real differences, if any,
that may have occurred in the sex-role development of the two
genders. However, it was interesting to discover that some
of what was originally perceived, continues to exist in the
world of advertising.

Through the research it was discovered that audience
involvement levels are important to advertising

effectiveness. Otherwise, advertising would fail if it did not meet someone's needs or standards somewhere.

Because of the segmented nature of magazines today, only a few types of cars are represented throughout an entire magazine. Therefore, audience involvement is not hard to measure if the advertising executive has done the readership research.

However, audience involvement becomes more difficult to measure by the continued decreasing of difference in sex-roles for men and women. That could be why so few differences were found in the semiotic characteristics used in the automobile advertisements between the different magazine target audiences.

In conclusion, automobile advertising like most other kinds of advertising, remains gendered. However, as discussed, traditional sex-roles continue to blend together and, because of such blending, forces advertising as a whole to reconsider the techniques employed for a particular product.

ENDNOTES

[1]Hughes, David and Jose Guerrero. "Automobile Self-Congruity Models Reexamined." Journal of Marketing Research 8 (1971): 125.

[2]Ibid., 125.

ENDNOTES

[1]Hughes, David and Jose Guerrero. "Automobile Self-Congruity Models Reexamined." <u>Journal of Marketing Research</u> 8 (1971): 125.

[2]Ibid., 125.

.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alreck, Pamela, Robert Settle and Michael Belch. "Who
     Responds to 'Gendered' Ads, and How?" Journal of
     Advertising Research 22 (April/May 1982): 25-31.

Anderson, John R. The Architecture of Cognition. Cambridge,
     Mass: Harvard University Press, 1983.

Anderson, Kenneth. Persuasion: Theory and Practice.
     Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971.

Bakan, David. The Duality of Human Existence. Boston:
     Beacon Press, 1966.

Bass, Frank, Edgar Pessemier and Douglas Tigert. "A Taxonomy
     of Magazine Readership Applied to Problems in Marketing
     Strategy and Media Selection." Journal of Business 42
     (July 1969): 337-363.

Beach, Frank A., ed. Sex and Behavior. New York: John
     Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965.

Beall, Anne and Robert Sternberg, eds. The Psychology of
     Gender. New York: Guilford Press, 1993.

Bellizzi, Joseph and Laura Milner. "Gender Positioning of a
     Traditionally Male-Dominant Product." Journal of
     Advertising Research 31 (June/July 1991): 72-79.

Berelson, Bernard. Content Analysis in Communication
     Research. New York: The Free Press, 1952.

Berger, Arthur Asa. Signs in Contemporary Culture: An
     Introduction to Semiotics. New York: Longman Inc.,
     1984.

_____. Seeing is Believing: An Introduction to
     Visual Communication. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield
     Publishing Company, 1989.

Bickhard, Mark H. Cognition, Convention, and Communication.
     New York: Praeger Publishers, 1980.

Bisanz, Gay L. and Brendan Gail Rule. "Gender and the
     Persuasion Schema: A Search for Cognitive Invariants."

Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin 15 (March 1989): 4-10.

Carballeira, Alvaro Rodrigues. "Pyschology of Coercive Persuasion." Ph.D. diss., University of Barcelona, 1992.

Calkins, Earnest Elmo and Ralph Holden. *Modern Advertising*. New York: Garland Publishing, Inc., 1985.

Capossella, Frederick Louis. "Persuasion Efficacy as a Function of Adult Moral Reasoning." Ph.D. diss., Claremont Graduate School, 1992.

Charney, Davida. "A Study of Gender and its Influences on Visual Design." *Technical Communication* 40 (August 1993): 543-547.

Consumer Magazine and Agri-Media Source. Des Plaines, IL: SRDS (1995).

Courtney Alice E., and Sarah Wernick Lockeretz. "A Women's Place: An Analysis of the Roles Portrayed by Women in Magazine Advertisements." *Journal of Marketing* 8 (February 1971): 92-95.

Deaux, Kay. "From Individual Differences to Social Categories: Analysis of a Decade's Research on Gender." *American Psychologist* 39 (February 1984): 105-116.

Debevec, Kathleen and Easwar Iyer. "The Influence of Spokespersons in Altering a Product's Gender Image: Implications for Advertising Effectiveness." *Journal of Advertising* 15 (Winter 1986): 12-27, 42.

Dichter, Ernest. *The Strategy of Desire*. New York: Garland Publishing, Inc., 1960.

Eagly, Alice H. "Sex Differences in Influencibility." *Psychological Bulletin*, 85 (Spring 1978): 86-116.

_____. "Gender and Social Influence." *American Psychologist* 38 (August 1983): 971-981.

Edell, Julie A. and Marian Chapman Burke. "The Power of Feelings in Understanding Advertising Effects." *Journal of Consumer Research* 14 (December 1987): 421-433.

Frame, Phil. "Geo Woos Generation X With Subtle Approach." *Automotive News*, 7 November 1994, 24.

Friestad, Marian and Peter Wright. "The Persuasion Knowledge Model: How People Cope With Persuasion Attempts." Journal of Consumer Research 21 (June 1994): 1-31.

Gentry, James, Mildred Doering and Terrence V. O'Brien. "Masculinity and Femininity Factors in Product Perception and Self Image." In Advances in Consumer Research: Proceedings of the Association for Consumer Research, 1978, edited by K. Hunt, 326-332. Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Goffman, Erving. Gender Advertisements. New York: Harper and Row, 1979.

Golden, Linda, Neil Allison and Mona Clee. "The Role of Sex Role Self-Concept in Masculine and Feminine Product Perceptions." In Advances in Consumer Research: Proceedings of the Association for Consumer Research, 1978, edited by K. Hunt, 599-605. Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Gornick, Victor. "Introduction." In Gender Advertisements. Erving Goffman, ed. New York:Harper and Row, 1979.

Greenwald, Anthony G. and Clark Leavitt. "Audience Involvement in Advertising: Four Levels." Journal of Consumer Research 11 (June 1984): 581-592.

Grubb, Edward and Gregg Hupp. "Perceptions of Self, Generalized Stereotypes, and Brand Selection." Journal of Marketing Research 10 (1973): 241-243.

Han, Sang-Pil and Sharon Shavitt. "Persuasion and Culture: Advertising Appeals in Individualistic and Collectivistic Societies." Journal of Experimental Social Psychology 30 (July 1994): 326-350.

Haskin, Lynn Martin. "Experimental Comparison of Persuasive Print Messages Involving Occupations, Sex Roles, and Motivational Attributes Designed By Advertising Copywriters With and Without the Aid of computerized Cognitive Mapping." Ph.D. diss., Temple University, 1981.

Hawkins, Del and Kenneth A. Coney. "Advertising and Differentiated Sex Roles in Contemporary American Society." Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science 4 (Winter 1976): 418-428.

Hecker, Sidney and David W. Stewart. Nonverbal Communication in Advertising. Lexington, Mass: Lexington Books, 1988.

Henry, Jim. "Comparitive Ads Speek Ahead for Luxury Imports."
    Advertising Age, 12 September 1994, 10.

Hochwald, Lambeth. "Women Drive Automotive Ads." Folio: The
    Mazine for Magazine Management, 15 February, 1994, 18.

Hovland, Carl. The Order of Presentation and Persuasion.
    New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1957.

Hovland, Carl and Walter Weiss. "The Influence of Source
    Credibility on Communication Effectiveness." Public
    Opinion Quarterly 15 (Winter 1951): 633-650.

Hovland, Carl, Irving Janis, Peter Field, Harriet Linton,
    Elaine Graham, Arthur R. Cohen, Donald Rife, Robert P.
    Abelson, Gerald S. Lesser, and Bert King. Personality
    and Persuasibility. Westport, Conn: Greenwood Press
    Publishers, 1959.

Hughes, David and Jose Guerrero. "Automobile Self-Congruity
    Models Reexamined." Journal of Marketing Research 8
    (1971): 125-127.

Jaffe, Lynn J. "Impact of Positioning and Sex-Role Identity
    on Women's Responses to Advertising." Journal of
    Advertising Research 29 (June 1993): 297-310.

Johnston, Patricia A. "Edward Steichen's Advertising
    Photography: The Visual Strategies of Persuasion."
    Ph.D. diss., Boston University, 1988.

Kahle, Lynn R. and Pamela M. Homer. "Physical Attractiveness
    of the Celebrity Endorser: A Social Adaptation
    Perspective." Journal of Consumer Research 11 (March
    1985): 954-961.

Keller, Kevin Lane. "Perceived Manipulative Intent: A
    Potential Risk to Advertising." Ph.D. diss., Stanford
    University, 1991.

Kilbourne, Jean. "The Changing Images of Females and Males
    in Television Commercials." Ed.D. diss., Boston
    University, 1980.

Kilburn, David. "Recession Drive New Approaches: Japanese
    Autos Shift Gears with Low Prices, New Ads." Advertising
    Age, 17 January 1994, 27(I), 30(I).

Kitson, Harry. The Mind of the Buyer: The Psychology of
    Selling. New York: McMillan Company, 1921.

Klassen, Michael L., Cynthia R. Jasper and Anne M. Schwartz. "Men and Women: Images of Their Relationships in Magazine Advertisements." Journal of Advertising Research 33 (March/April 1993): 30-39.

Lazier-Smith, Linda. "The Effect of Changes in Women's Social Status on Images of Women in Magazine Advertising: The Pingree-Hawkins Sexism Scale Reapplied, Goffman Reconsidered, Kilbourne Revisited." Ph.D. diss., Indiana University, 1988.

Leo, John. "Madison Avenue's Gender War." U.S. News and World Report, 25 October 1993, 25.

Levy, Sidney. "Symbols for Sale," Harvard Business Review 17 (Spring 1959): 117-124.

Linden, Roberta Barbara. "Media Images of Women and Social Change: A Feminist Perspective (Magazines)." Ed.D. diss., University of Toronto, 1990.

Lippert, Barbara. "Send in the Wimps." Vogue, November 1988, 414-415.

Lips, Hilary and Nina Lee Colwill. The Psychology of Sex Differences. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978.

Mandell, Maurice. Advertising. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.

Maxcy, David J. "Advertising, the Gender System: Changing Configurations of Femininity and Masculinity in Early Advertising in the United States." Ph.D. diss., University of Massachusetts, 1994.

McGuire, William J. "Some Internal Psychological Factors Influencing Consumer Choice." Journal of Consumer Research 2 (March 1976): 302-319.

Mehta, Abhilasha. "Celebrity Advertising: A Cognitive Response Approach." Ph.D. diss., Syracuse University, 1990.

Meyers-Levy, Joan. "The Influence of Sex Roles on Judgment." Journal of Consumer Research 14 (March 1988): 522-530.

Meyers-Levy, Joan and Brian Sternthal. "Gender Differences in the Use of Message Cues and Judgments." Journal of Marketing Research 28 (February 1991): 84-96.

Miller, Gerald R. <u>New Techniques of Persuasion</u>. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.

Mitchell, Andrew A. "The Effect of Verbal and Visual Components of Advertisements on Brand Attitudes and Attitude Toward the Advertisement." <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u> 13 (June 1986): 12-24.

Naether, Carl. <u>Advertising to Women</u>. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1928.

Petty, Richard, John Cacioppo and David Schumann. "Central and Peripheral Routes to Advertising Effectiveness: The Moderating Role of Involvement." <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u> 19 (Septeber 1983): 135-46

Prakash, Ved. "Sex Roles and Advertising Preferences." <u>Journal of Advertising Research</u> 32 (May 1992): 43-52.

Prakash, Ved and R. Caeli Flores. "A Study of Psychological Gender Differences: Applications for Advertising Format." <u>In Advances in Consumer Research: Proceedings of the Association for Consumer Research</u>, 1985, edited by E. Hirschman and M. Holbrook, 231-238.. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Renzetti, Claire M. <u>Women, Men and Society: The Sociology of Gender.</u> Needham Heights, Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon, 1989.

Rind, Bruce Laurence. "A Model for What Makes a Message Persuasive." Ph.D. diss., Temple University, 1990.

Rosengren, Karl Erik, ed. <u>Media Effect and Beyond: Culture, Socialization and Lifestyle</u>. New York: Rutledge, 1994.

Serafin, Raymond. "Truth in Advertising: Real Customers Can Make the Best Pitchmen." <u>Automotive News</u>, 19 October 1992, 7(i).

_____. "Harkening Back to Advertising 101." <u>Advertising Age</u>, 22 March 1993, 18(S), 36(S).

_____, and Cleveland Horton. "Still No Substitute for Traditional Ads." <u>Advertising Age</u>, 28 March 1994, 24(S).

_____, and Riccardo A. Davis. "Detroit Moves to Woo Blacks." <u>Advertising Age</u>, 11 April 1994, 10.

_____. "Ads Reflect Women's Buying Power." <u>Automotive News</u>, 14 November 1994, 26.

Shields, Vickie Rutledge. "The Constructing, Maintaining and Negotiating of Gender Advertisements (Advertising Images)." Ph.D. diss., Ohio State University, 1994.

Simpson, Amelia S. XUXA: The Mega-Marketing of Gender, Race and Modernity. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1993.

Smale, John. "Smale On Saturn -- Don't Change What's Working." Advertising Age, 28 March 1994, 24(S).

Snyder, Mark and Kenneth DeBono. "Appeal to Image and claims About Quality: Understanding the Psychology of Advertising." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 49 (Fall 1985): 586-597.

Strnad, Patricia. "In-Your-Face Marketing." Automotive News, 21 October 1991, 141.

Stuteville, John. "Sexually Polarized Products and Advertising Strategy." Journal of Retailing 47 (Summer 1971): 3-13.

Trapp, Jaime. "Men Now Fair Game for In-Your-Face Ads." Advertising Age, 4 October, 1993, s12.

Trent, Judith S. and Teresa Sabourin. "Sex Still Counts: Women's Use of Televised Advertising During the Decade of the 80's." Journal of Applied Communication Research 21 (February 1993): 21-40.

Tucker, William T. "A Long Day of Discrepent Behavior." Proceedings. Fall Confernce, American Marketing Assocation (1976): 351-353.

Tudor, Andrew. Image and Influence. London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1974.

Tyler, Pontz, ed. Advertising in America. New York: H.W. Wilson Company, 1959.

Utt, Sandra. "The Effect of Sexual Stereotyping in Print A dvertising on Brand Name Recall, Sales Point Recall, and Buying Attitude: An Experimental Study." Ph.D. diss., Ohio University, 1983.

Walker, Sherry Jo. "Gender Ideology and Drinking Norms: Content Analysis of Alcohol Advertisements in Selected Magazines." Ph.D., diss., University of Tennessee, 1992.

Widgery, Robin and Jack McGaugh. "Vehicle Message Appeals and the New Generation Woman." <u>Journal of Advertising Research</u> 33 (September/October 1993): 36-41.

Wolff, Janet L. <u>What Makes Women Buy: A Guide to Understanding and Influencing the New Women of Today.</u> New York: McGraw Hill, 1958.

Wolseley, Roland. <u>Understand Magazines</u>. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1965.

Wright, Peter L. "The Cognitive Processes Mediating Acceptance of Advertising." <u>Journal of Marketing Research</u> 10 (February 1973): 53-62.

Young, Charles E. and Michael Robinson. "Visual Connectedness and Persuasion." <u>Journal of Advertising Research</u> 32 (March 1992): 51-59.

Yu, Shu-Fen. "Gender, Memory Accessibility, and Persuasion: Are Women More Susceptible to Influence than Men?" M.A. thesis, Michigan State University, 1992.

Zhang, Yong. "Audience Involvement and Persuasion in Humorous Advertising." Ph.D. diss., University of Houston, 1992.

VITA

Kelli Suzanne Shafer

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: AN ANALYSIS OF GENDER DIFFERENTIATED SEMIOTIC
           CHARACTERISTICS IN MAGAZINE AUTOMOBILE
           ADVERTISEMENTS

Major Field: Mass Communications

Biographical:

   Personal Data: Born in Guthrie, Oklahoma, January 22,
         1968, the daughter of Jack Shafer and Ceilia
         Stratton.

   Education: Graduated from Mulhall-Orlando High School,
         Orlando, Oklahoma, in May 1986; received Bachelor
         of Arts degree in Radio-Television from Oklahoma
         State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, in May
         1991; completed requirements for the Master of
         Science degree at Oklahoma State University in
         December 1995.

   Professional Experience: Contributing Writer, Daily
         O'Collegian, June to July 1988; News Director, KRAD
         Radio Station, December 1988 to May 1989; Video
         Producer's Assistant, May to August 1990; Graduate
         Assistant, College of Human Environmental Sciences
         University Extension and Development Office,
         Oklahoma State University, September 1994 to June
         1995; Publications Coordinator, College of Human
         Environmental Sciences, Oklahoma State University,
         July 1995 to present.