

**A COMPARATIVE CONTENT ANALYSIS OF
GREEK, AMERICAN, AND BRITISH
MAGAZINE ADVERTISING**

By

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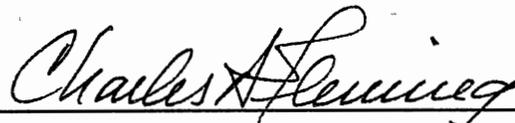
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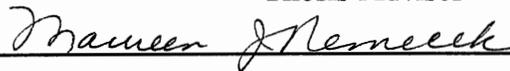
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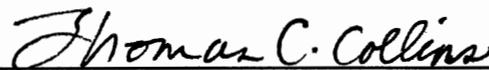
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Advertising is considered by many to be an excellent reflector of culture. According to Ewen (1977), ever since the rise of advertising and consumerism, advertising did not act as the determinant of change, but was in many ways both a reflection of culture and an agent of cultural transformation. Unwin (1974) said that advertising acts as a reflector of culture, and suggested that this reflective quality of advertising is most evident in the content of advertisements.

As Baudot (1989) said, "Advertising is bound by language and culture.... The rationale for advertising is the satisfaction of human needs according to manners dictated by culture and expressed by language." Therefore, advertising messages are designed with the specific purpose of coinciding with the cultural norms of the society in which they are to function.

People take for granted their own modes of expression until they see them compared with those of another culture communicating in the same medium. A comparison reveals not only differences in social behavior and customs, such as dress, eating habits and everyday situations, all of which are clearly visible in the content of the advertisements, but it also draws attention to differences in advertising expression.

Miracle (1966) offered a number of possible cultural differences between

consumers in two countries: They speak different languages; they adhere to different religions, philosophies and traditions; they differ with regard to family patterns, childhood training and the role of different family members. The occupational hierarchy varies among nations; climate and geography and other aspects of the consumers' physical environment are diverse; consumers engage in a wide variety of sports, hobbies, and other forms of amusement and entertainment.

Different cultural groups present a challenge to advertising decision makers owing to the role culture plays in providing behavioral norms and values and in socializing the consumer. Cultural values and norms are a key influence on the needs, motives and underlying drives in consumer behavior. Hence, there is a need to understand how culture functions in each society.

The advertising practitioner must learn how consumer behavior in different societies is motivated and what special demands it places on the development of advertising in different cultural environments. Different cultures have different norms and values, and advertising must be adapted to such conditions.

It is important to note, however, that cultural differences sometimes create important barriers to truly global advertising. Communicating to people in diverse cultures represents one of the great creative challenges in advertising. In moving from one culture to another, communication is more difficult because cultural factors largely determine the ways various phenomena will be perceived. If the perceptual framework is different, perception of the message itself will

differ (Kaynak, 1989).

The problems multinational advertisers face are further complicated by a scarcity of reliable data necessary to create a multinational advertising campaign (Dunn, 1966). The purpose of this study is to provide primary data by identifying cultural differences between Greece, the United States and Great Britain through an examination of advertising expression in these countries. Multinational companies may thus be assisted in their search for appropriate international advertising campaigns involving Greece, the United States and Great Britain.

Background

In recent years, the increased cost of international advertising and accelerating international product failures have prompted some companies to focus on the dilemma of standardization versus localization. A major concern of advertisers in both the United States and Europe is whether their advertisements will be effective in foreign markets. The question of the standardized advertisement (that which is produced in the home country) versus the localized advertisement (that which is locally produced in the country where the advertisement is used) has been studied extensively. Each type of advertisement offers unique advantages (Kaynak, 1989).

Many multinational firms have opted for standardization of their advertising in all countries they operate in order to achieve cost savings. Standardized advertisements offer better control of campaigns, cost savings and

widespread recognition of advertisements. The standardized approach is based on the assumption that the basic human needs are the same everywhere. Therefore, according to this approach, the same products can be sold with similar promotional appeals (Fatt, 1967).

Sorenson and Weichmann (1975) found in their study of a select group of multinational companies operating in Western Europe, that there was a high degree of standardization in over 70 percent of these enterprises' basic international advertising message decisions. However, the standardization was typically applied only to the theme and not the creative expression of it (Peebles, Ryans and Vernon, 1977).

Some multinational corporations have opted for the localized approach whereby a local advertising agency and the local branch office handle all the advertising decisions. Proponents of localized advertisements claim that the standardized advertisement often fails because a Western advertising approach can be ineffective and the projected lifestyle may be unacceptable by the local audience. Advocates of localized advertisements opt for advertising copy that, though costly to produce and hard to control, is always localized in context and approach (Tan and Tsui, 1984). Wills and Ryans (1977) also found that "headquarters management tends to be less involved in creative strategy and media decisions."

Recent research indicates that multinational advertisers are increasingly emphasizing "national identity" in their international advertising by shifting from

the centralized approach. That is, studies indicate that many companies do not practice standardization (Kaynak, 1989).

An advertiser should not assume that members of different cultural groups will respond to a particular advertisement in the same way, and that domestic success guarantees a good product performance in a different country. Theophilopoulos (1974) said that "a great disadvantage of the multinational agencies is the lack of flexibility according to the local requirements." Although products such as Coca-Cola developed a single identity around the world and their advertisements transferred successfully from the U.S. to other countries, they could be considered as the exceptions. On the other hand, there are many examples of the ineffectiveness of the standardized approach.

The localized approach also has its disadvantages. When a localized approach is used, planning and control are removed from the parent company and in many cases, subsidiaries do not utilize the parent firm's knowledge and experience. Furthermore, localized advertising is much more costly to the parent company than standardized advertising (Peebles, Ryans and Vernon, 1978).

In both international and domestic advertising, the advertiser must learn about the audience, define the market segments as precisely as possible, and study backgrounds and motivational influences in detail before beginning an advertising campaign. Most international advertising blunders occur when the foreign culture and its social norms are misunderstood (Ricks, Arpan, and Fu, 1974).

Statement of the Problem

The internationalization of the advertising agency business has made it necessary for multinational corporations to direct more attention to international policy decisions. Today, there is greater need than ever for an analysis of the European climate in which American businesses must compete. Since advertising is an important indicator of cultural values, any differences between the American, British, and Greek cultures of interest should thus be exposed.

The research problem examined in this study is how the American, British, and Greek cultures are different in terms of advertising content and expression.

Purpose of the Study

The use of comparative content analysis for the study of advertising content will reveal differences in advertising expression between the United States, Great Britain, and Greece. At the same time, this content analysis will draw attention to the exact nature of differences in social behavior and customs among the three countries of interest.

The content of Greek versus American versus British news magazine advertisements will be examined. Two perspectives of print advertising content will be studied: The first aspect of advertising content to be examined is information levels, and the second aspect is the type of advertising appeals, with emphasis placed on emotional versus factual appeals.

Significance of the Study

This type of cross-cultural study is valuable because of the important role cultural differences play in the international advertising decision-making process.

"Global" communication professionals should understand the impact of cultural factors on communication, seek to get into the "world" of the receiver, and improve cross-cultural communication skills. Thus, this research could provide valuable information towards the production of advertisements that will successfully convey the attitudes of goods or services wherever those goods or services make their home in the globe. Therefore, this research study examining advertising expression across cultures would be useful for multinational corporations and international advertising agencies operating in the United States, Europe, and Greece in particular.

Furthermore, this study could assist in the identification of environmental variables which were responsible for past international advertising failures so that similar mistakes can be avoided in the future. Scholars and students may also benefit from the results produced by this study. Finally, this investigation will provide the researcher with a better understanding of the similarities and differences between print advertisements from the United States, Great Britain and Greece.

Assumptions and Limitations

It is important to note that there are some limitations to this study. A much greater number of advertisements from all the different mass media of each country must be examined in order to arrive at more conclusive results. Also, such a future examination must include advertisements used over a long period of time, in order to expose changes in advertising expression over time.

Additionally, environmental factors such as technological and economic development, literacy levels, political stability, media usage patterns, and perceived purpose of the mass media, must also be examined as factors responsible for differences in advertising expression. The present study is limited to a small number of variables (advertising appeals and information levels), while there are many other variables to consider such as the frequency of use, effectiveness, ethical standards and type of symbols used by the advertisements. Finally, only three countries were examined, while many more would be necessary in order to be able to generalize the results of this study.

Organization of the Study

In Chapter II, literature relating to cultural differences and cross-cultural advertising is examined. In Chapter III, the research design and the methodology used are discussed in detail. In Chapter IV, the research data are analyzed and presented. The summary and conclusions of this thesis as well as recommendations for further study are given in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section examines the importance of cultural awareness in multi-national advertising. The second section contains examples of international advertisements that were unsuccessful due to a lack of cultural awareness. The third section contains a review of research studies related to advertising content analysis, including several research studies focused on cross-cultural advertising. Finally, the fourth section describes how the Greek, British, and American cultures differ with respect to attitudes, customs and values that pertain to advertising.

Culture and Advertising

There seems to be little doubt that culture plays an important role in the perception and use of advertising. This can be illustrated by using Canada as an example, considering its two cultures, French and English. A number of studies have shown the differential impact of similar advertising messages in Quebec (French) and the rest of the English Canada (Kaynak, 1981). For this reason, advertisers must particularly understand that French Canada is different and must adapt their advertising strategy accordingly to meet the needs prompted by this difference. Culture, including language, is an important factor to consider in this

case (Mallen and Litvak, 1968). According to Ewen (1977), ever since the rise of advertising and consumerism, advertising did not act as the determinant of change, but was in many ways both a reflection of culture and an agent of cultural transformation.

Harris and Moran (1987) suggested that one's personal needs, values standards, and expectations, are all culturally conditioned. They said that a "global" communication professional should understand the impact of cultural factors on communication, seek to get into the "world" of the receiver, and improve cross-cultural communication skills. Such an executive, according to Harris and Moran, must also be cognizant that even when people speak the same language, cultural differences can alter communication symbols and meanings.

Communicating to people in diverse cultures represents one of the great creative challenges in advertising. In moving from one culture to another, communication is more difficult because cultural factors largely determine the ways various phenomena will be perceived. If the perceptual framework is different, perception of the message itself will differ (Kaynak, 1989).

Miracle (1966) offered a number of possible cultural differences between consumers in two countries: They speak different languages; they adhere to different religions, philosophies and traditions; they differ with regard to family patterns, childhood training and the role of different family members. The occupational hierarchy varies among nations; climate and geography and other aspects of the consumers' physical environment are diverse; consumers engage in

a wide variety of sports, hobbies, and other forms of amusement and entertainment. Miracle suggested that these environmental differences play an important role in shaping the demand for specific types of goods and services and in determining what advertising appeals are best for each specific country.

O'Connor (1974) said that when a company considers launching an international advertising campaign "national prejudices have to be taken into account as have also religious differences and those of translating precise meanings into a large number of languages..."

Papavassiliou (1989) offered four major social factors that determine buyer needs and expectations: (1) family, (2) reference groups, (3) lifestyle and social stratification, and (4) culture, including ethnic subcultures. Alexandrides and Moschis (1977) suggested that if a company's international advertising is to be successful, it needs to take into account the cultural, economic, political, and legal differences in the foreign market. Apparently, in advertising firms where managers feel cultural differences are important, these attitudes have been reflected in advertising policies and practices (Keegan, 1969).

In both international and domestic advertising, the advertiser must learn about the audience, define the market segments as precisely as possible, and study backgrounds and motivational influences in detail before beginning an advertising campaign. Most international advertising blunders occur when the foreign culture and its social norms are misunderstood (Kaynak, 1989). This can take many forms, ranging from blatant rejection of existing customs and tastes to innocent

insensitivity to the environment (Ricks, Arpan, and Fu, 1974, p. 49). That is why advertisements that fail to reflect the local life-style are often unsuccessful.

Cultural and national differences frequently occur together, but they can also occur independently of each other. Cultural differences can be found within nations themselves and may result from a diversity of languages or cultural values. Populations in different nations may or may not have different cultures. However, even culturally identical cross-national groups would be at least subject to different laws and varying stages of socioeconomic and technological development and thus experience national differences (Kaynak, 1989).

Different cultural groups present a challenge to advertising decision makers owing to the role culture plays in providing behavioral norms and values and in socializing the consumer. Cultural values and norms are a key influence on the needs, motives and underlying drives in consumer behavior. Hence, there is a need to understand how culture functions in each society. The advertiser must learn how consumer behavior in different societies is motivated and what special demands it places on the development of advertising campaigns in different cultural environments. Different cultures have different norms and values, and the mode of communication (advertising) must be adapted to such conditions. Moreover, the function and processes of communication and advertising vary from culture to culture (Kaynak, 1989).

Unwin (1974) suggested that advertising acts as a reflector of culture, and said that this reflective quality of advertising is most evident in the content of

advertisements. Social standards, situations and lifestyles are reproduced in idealized form so that the audience will want to identify with the subject of the advertisement. But, according to Unwin, there is another, more subtle and often more revealing way in which advertising manifests the cultural values of the society in which it is published. This is the manner in which the advertising practitioner communicates; the mode of expression or creative style he employs to put across his/her advertising concept or idea. Unwin said that this "language of advertising," although less apparent to communicator and audience alike, is firmly anchored to cultural norms and often says more about a society's psyche than the more obvious stereotypes of content.

People take for granted their own modes of expression until they see them compared with those of another culture communicating in the same medium. A comparison reveals not only differences in social behavior and customs, such as dress, eating habits and everyday situations, all of which will be clearly visible in the content of the advertisements, but it also draws attention to differences in advertising expression.

International Advertising Failures Due to Lack of Cultural Awareness.

In recent years, the increased cost of international advertising and accelerating international product failures have prompted more companies to focus on the dilemmas of international advertising standardization and

localization. A major concern of advertisers in both the United States and Europe is whether their advertisements will be effective in foreign markets (Kaynak, 1989).

The question of the standardized advertisement (that which is produced in the home country) versus the localized advertisement (that which is locally produced in the country where the advertisement is used) has been studied extensively. Each type of advertisement offers unique advantages.

Proponents of the feasibility and desirability of universal themes and campaigns have offered several benefits in support of standardization (Peebles, Ryans, and Vernon, 1977): (1) Present a worldwide corporate reduce message confusion. Theodore Levitt (1985) contended that the world is becoming a common marketplace in which people, no matter where they live, desire the same products and lifestyles. Schiller (1989) suggested that "American advertising was one of the major contributors to the making of a transnational commercial culture." In turn, the advertising industry as a whole has awakened to the existence of the "global" or "world" brand. A world brand is described as a product which is sold the same way everywhere, regardless of culture, like Coca-Cola and Pepsi-Cola, IBM computers, Fiat automobiles, Marlboro cigarettes, McDonald's hamburgers, Kodak film, Parker pens, Goodyear tires, Gillette razors and Timex watches.

On the other hand, advocates of localized advertising opt for advertisements that, though costly to produce and hard to control, are always

localized in context and approach (Tan and Tsui, 1984). Proponents of localized advertisements claim that the standardized advertisement often fails because a Western advertising approach can be ineffective and the projected lifestyle may be foreign to the local audience. David Ogilvy (1983) said that "The best way to settle these arguments is to test the international campaign in each country. Only when the results are positive should it be used locally, and even then it should be modified to fit the local culture."

It is important to note, however, that examples of truly global brands are strictly limited and despite Levitt's predictions of the globalization of markets, the obstacles to the creation and diffusion of global brands are enormous; the most important of these are culture-based (Tunball and Doherty-Wilson, 1990).

Local market conditions exert a tremendous influence on how a product can be advertised. People from different cultures have distinct attitudes, habits, systems, etc. Thus, it is seldom practical, or wise, to simply translate advertising country-to-country. Only a handful of products are safely standardizable. It is possible however, to transform and adapt basic concepts and strategies to conform to different cultures (Bovee and Arens, 1986). In the majority of cases, the campaign must be modified, taking into account sociological and cultural peculiarities, for experiences are not transmissible from one country to another (Tal, 1974). To be successful in global markets, international advertisers must discern the differences before they address the similarities among countries (Kaynak, 1989).

The following examples of international advertising failures due to lack of cultural awareness show that standardization does not work for some products, thus creating the necessity for localization. Sometimes harmless and amusing, these blunders have at times proven insulting, embarrassing, and costly:

(A) The Caterpillar company has learned from experience that corporate logotypes should never be translated but, instead, should appear in original form. They learned this lesson when Caterpillar tractors in Japanese turned out to be "bugs that crawl" tractors (Axtell, 1989).

(B) A Mexican magazine advertisement for an American brand shirt carried a message stating the exact opposite of what had originally been intended. Instead of declaring "when I used this shirt, I felt good," the ad read "until I used this shirt, I felt good" (Ricks, 1983).

(C) The widely acclaimed and successful Exxon campaign "Put a tiger in your tank," failed to elicit favorable reaction in Thailand. Tigers were not considered as symbols of power and strength in Thailand since man is always superior to animals, therefore the message received was "Put a weakling in your tank" (Kaynak, 1989).

(D) General Motors who introduced its Chevrolet Nova model was troubled by the lack of enthusiasm among Latin Americans for this automobile. The name "Nova" meant "star" when literally translated. However, when spoken, it sounded like "no va" which in Spanish means "it doesn't go." General Motors changed the automobile name to "Caribe" and sales increased (Ricks, 1983).

(E) A manufacturer of automobile horns advised his potential customers in Australia of the "resounding warning reverberating from hill to hill," while the joyous motorist "wound slowly up mountain-side and down into valley." The Australians gazing at a flat horizon were uninterested in such claims (Elridge, 1985).

(F) A large U.S. cosmetics firm featured the image of the armless statue of Venus de Milo in its advertising and instructed their agency to use it in order to promote the product in the Middle East. The agency alertly replied that in the Middle East an armless figure denotes a punished thief (Axtell, 1989).

(G) An automobile manufacturer claimed its product "topped them all" in English, but the French Canadians would not have known. When the product was introduced, the phrase was mistranslated in French. The result: the company actually boasted that its cars were "topped by them all." Another American manufacturer in the auto industry advertised its auto battery as "highly rated." When the company introduced its product in Venezuela, the battery was described as "highly overrated" (Ricks, 1983).

(H) An American corporation decided as a promotion to distribute simulated old coins displaying the company logo and it used the obviously phony value of \$1 billion. The coins angered the Germans who felt that the company was trying to show off American wealth, and they resented this impression (Kaynak, 1989).

(I) In order to show the strength of a British-made bicycle in Nigeria, the

product was launched by posters using the picture of an elephant riding the bicycle. The campaign turned out to be a total failure. The basic comment given to the advertising agency's researchers was: "We have never seen an elephant riding a bicycle" (Tal, 1974).

(J) An advertiser knew there are camels in Sudan so he showed one in his advertisement. Unfortunately, he showed a two-humped camel while Sudanese camels have only one hump. This advertisement, therefore produced the same effect as a five-legged horse would in an American ad (Kiwi, 1959).

(K) The advertisements for Camay, Procter and Gamble's body soap, offended many Japanese viewers by showing a man and a woman who meet for the first time and compare the softness of their skin. The man's conduct was considered rude and unethical by Japanese norms (Tanzer, 1986).

(L) A U.S. firm marketing in Brazil found itself embarrassed when it used a large deer as a sign of masculinity. The word *deer* is a Brazilian street name for a homosexual. Another company blundered in India when it used an owl in its advertisements. To an Indian, the owl is a symbol for bad luck, and indeed it proved to be just that for the firm (Ricks, 1983).

(M) Another famous blunder was recorded by Pepsi Cola in the country of Taiwan. There, the familiar slogan "Come Alive with Pepsi" was translated into Chinese but came out saying "Pepsi Brings Your Ancestors Back From the Grave" (Kaynak, 1989).

(N) What General Motors had intended to convey to its Belgian market

was that the car being promoted had a "Body by Fisher." Instead the phrase was interpreted in Flemish as "Corpse by Fisher" (Mazze, 1964).

(O) A private Egyptian airline, Misair, proved to be rather unpopular with the French nationals. The fact that the name, when pronounced, means "misery" in French contributed to the airline's plight. Another airline trying to gain acceptance in Australia only complicated matters when it chose the firm name "EMU." The emu is an Australian bird which is incapable of flying (Ricks, 1983).

(P) Finally, the well-known vacuum cleaner company Electrolux was purchased by a Swedish firm that designed new advertisements and sent them back into English-speaking markets without first checking into American slang. The ads read: "Electrolux sucks better" (Axtell, 1989).

The principles and concepts of U.S. advertising are directly applicable to international advertising. However, the media, strategy, and appeals will always differ from country to country, depending on environmental differences. To meet the international challenge successfully, U.S. advertisers need to develop skills and outlooks that are not usually required to operate successfully in the domestic U.S. market. In most cases, this task involves a planning process, which, in many cases entails learning the rules that govern sociocultural and economic life in foreign markets. As a communication medium, advertising must provide the flexibility required to communicate effectively in situations that change from country to country, from time to time, from product to product, and from culture to culture (Kaynak, 1989).

One lesson to learn from the failures of international advertising reviewed is that the international advertising practitioner must be sensitive to cultural differences. To this end, the advertising company or agency must make detailed studies of the most prominent cultural, traditional and behavioral characteristics of each culture of interest.

Review of Cross-Cultural Advertising Studies

Cross-cultural advertising is a fertile area for research and analysis. Various analytical approaches to the solution of marketing problems that are simply taken for granted in the domestic market may involve major operational changes and adaptations in international markets. As a result, cross-cultural consumer behavior research has attracted an increasing interest among advertising researchers, with regard to the development of strategies of multinational companies as well as to the establishment of the universality of theoretical constructs and findings (Van Raaij, 1978).

Cross-cultural advertising research requires study of the major elements of the research methodology and necessary adjustments to suit everything to the local marketing environment. This type of approach will create effective advertising strategies in overseas markets. To this end, four major elements of the research methodology must be examined, namely: sampling plan, data collection procedures, response instrument, and interference. Cross-national factors might require making certain adjustments to these four elements from

country to country (Kaynak, 1989).

All disciplines should take a more coordinated approach to multicountry advertising research before study findings can be available in a format that can be applied to an actual market by the general advertising practitioner. B. Mallen (1973) has pointed out that many of the studies undertaken in this area of investigation do not qualify as cross-cultural advertising research. According to Mallen, most of the research in the area is too narrow in scope, lacks a theoretical framework, makes use of invalid methodologies and concentrates on behavioral outcomes without linking these outcomes to determinants of the behavior.

The methodology of data acquisition in intercultural communication (advertising) research requires further consideration. Tyler, Hall, and Taylor (1979) discussed several factors pertinent to data gathering in the area of cross-cultural communication. They also maintained that the focus of the research in intercultural advertising must be cross-cultural (between cultures) rather than intracultural (within a culture).

The classification of multicountry and/or cross-cultural advertising is done from different perspectives. A classification proposed by Sheth (1979) examined two specific criteria, namely: different components of advertising, and different types of advertising effects. The first criterion includes advertising copy, background, picture, sound, movement, and media which create a dichotomous classification in terms of media versus content of advertising. This broad

categorization is useful in the differentiation between universal and unique advertising research across nations. There is also the need to categorize advertising research in terms of types of advertising effects. These are the behavioral effects of advertising which include exposure, attention, recognition, and the actual purchase behavior of the consumer; and attitudinal effects which include measuring the impact of advertising on comprehension, knowledge, interest, preference, buying intentions, and multi-attribute cognitive beliefs about the product (Sheth, 1979).

On this basis, it is possible to offer certain guidelines on which type of advertising research can be used universally and which type will necessitate some modifications in a cross-cultural or cross-national setting. Four types of cross-national advertising strategies can be used: behavioral measures of advertising media, attitudinal measures of advertising media, behavioral measures of advertising content, and attitudinal measures of advertising content (Sheth, 1979).

In recent years, international marketers attempting to compare two or more cultures/nations have had to deal with the fact that marketing functions in one are absent or unnecessary in the other. Traditionally, cross-cultural analyses have centered on the identification and analysis of common factors and differences in marketing systems, cultures, and other-cultural-enduring attributes among various cultural settings (Wind, 1967; Douglas and Dubois, 1977). However, comparisons of cross-cultural/national consumer studies usually leave much to be desired. For example, Kaynak and Mitchell (1981) conducted a

comparative study of advertising in Canada, the United Kingdom and Turkey. The authors showed that there are cultural differences between countries that advertising practitioners should recognize. Kaynak and Mitchell suggested that differences in number and types of media in conjunction with cultural differences require themes, messages, presentations and illustrations tailored to the receivers of the advertisements. In this case, the secondary data available is not directly comparable, and in certain other cases, the researchers do not even use the same data base. In addition, cultural differences are often confused with other factors since cultural standards and norms in the two countries being compared, in most cases, are different enough to make the cross-cultural studies of little value (Goldman, 1967). Thus, the reported differences may be due to cultural background or other factors such as the political system.

Despite the difficulties involved in cross-cultural/national research, there seems to be an increased demand by marketing scholars and business people as well as public policy makers who want to know the results of such comparisons, as imperfect as they may be for orderly decision-making purposes (Sethi, 1971; Boddewyn, 1981). Nevertheless, few studies have focused specifically on cross-cultural/national research for advertising (Plummer, 1977; Urban, 1977; Dowling, 1980; Miracle, 1984). Perhaps one reason for this lack is the difficulty in isolating cultural from national differences.

Cross-cultural advertising comparisons and normative advertising planning studies imply that differences in consumer characteristics between

countries/cultures should not significantly affect the marketing practices of firms (Green, Cunningham, and Cunningham, 1973). This implication is particularly strong for the advertising strategies of international firms that sell products fulfilling "universal" needs (Fatt, 1967; Ryans and Donnely, 1969).

However, these ideas concerning international advertising strategy are contrary to prevailing advertising thought. As a result, several authors have addressed the question and have found differences in consumer behavior and in the effect of advertising between various "cultural" groups (Ehrenberg and Goodhardt, 1968). For instance, Douglas (1976) examined the purchase patterns of ten convenience products and found significant differences between French and American housewives. Kaynak and Yucelt (1987) conducted a cross-cultural/national study of radio listeners in the United States and Canada. The results of the study indicate that there are attitudinal as well as behavioral differences between American and Canadian radio listeners which may be due to the cultural differences between Canada and the United States.

The information content in advertising has received some attention since Resnik and Stern's (1977) original descriptive study of Australian television advertisements. This study established an advertising information classification system which used 14 "cues" or criteria which belonged to categories of information that could potentially assist a consumer in making an intelligent choice. Although Resnik and Stern used a very liberal definition requiring a commercial to contain only one out of the 14 informational cues in order to be

considered informative, only 49 percent of the commercials were categorized as informative. When two cues had to be present, only 16 percent were found to be informative, and when the number of cues was raised to three, the percentage of commercials that met the requirement dropped to only one percent.

Aaker and Norris (1982) used a different set of requirements for an advertisement to be considered as informative, but they also categorized only 18.2% of television commercials as informative. Marquez (1977) used dictionary definitions of information and persuasion in order to classify magazine advertisements. He categorized 43.3% of the advertisements as "persuasive" and only 22.8% of them as "informative."

Rice and Lu (1988) also used the Resnik and Stern (1977) method in order to examine Chinese magazine advertisements. They reported that 100 % of the Chinese magazine advertisements were considered as informative when only one informational cue was necessary, while 77.7 % were evaluated as informative when two cues had to be present.

The Resnik and Stern study (1977) was also replicated with Australian television by Dowling (1980); with American magazines by Stern, Krugman, and Resnik (1981); and with American television by Tom et al. (1984). Stern, Krugman and Resnik (1981) categorized 86% of the magazine advertisements as informative (only one of Resnik and Stern's informational cues had to be present). Aaker (1985) addressed methodological issues in measuring information content, and Perrien, Dussart and Paul (1985) investigated the perceived effectiveness of

factual content using a sample of advertising professionals. Suzuki (1980), in a content analysis of advertising in four product categories by Japanese firms that appeared in U.S. magazines from 1965 to 1977, concluded that Japanese advertising strategy in the United States had passed sequentially through four phases.

A few studies have been conducted dealing specifically with the information content of television advertisements across cultures (Dowling, 1980). Dowling's comparison of the information content of U.S. and Australian television commercials concluded that Australian commercials are more informative. The level of informativeness for Australian commercials was found to be 74% as compared to 49% for American commercials. This study also provides the best available data for comparison with the earlier U. S. study by Resnik and Stern (1977). Although the work cannot be faulted as an Australian study, using it for cross-cultural/national comparisons involves methodological problems, resulting in alternative explanations for the findings. The apparent differences between Australian and American commercials may be due to: 1) Instrumentation, 2) History, and 3) Seasonality (Campbell and Stanley, 1966). In addition, the difference in Dowling's study may have been due to cultural, political, or economic factors. This is not intended as a criticism of Dowling's work but rather merely as an illustration of the problems this type of cross-cultural/national research occurs (Kaynak, 1989).

Madden, Caballero, and Matsukubo (1986) used the Stern, Krugman, and

Resnik (1981) method to examine the information levels in U.S. and Japanese magazine advertisements. They found that Japanese advertising was more informative than U.S. advertising in terms of the number of cues per advertisement. Price was the most common information cue used in Japanese magazine advertisements (59.2%), as compared to 12.9% of U.S. magazine advertisements.

Johnstone, Kaynak, and Sporkman (1987) examined differences in television advertising content between two English-speaking and one French-speaking Canadian television stations and three American television stations (Maine). Their results indicate that French Canadian commercials contain a greater amount of information than commercials that appear on English Canadian or American television. The researchers suggest that information differences are due to an interaction between nation and culture.

In the case of the United States, Britain, and Greece where a relative cultural uniformity within nations exists and there is a difference in the receptivity of advertising, once again culture is a factor. In the cases of the United States and Britain, there is longer association with advertising and as a result there is a greater understanding of it, whereas in Greece there is more mistrust of advertising; a product that is heavily advertised in Greece is thought to have a degree of inferiority, and is thought to be overpriced. As many marketing scholars have agreed, cultural differences between countries, should be recognized in devising advertising as part of the company's marketing strategy (Fatt, 1967).

Greek, American, and British Cultural Differences

Pertaining To Advertising

An examination of the Greek, British and American cultures reveals some differences with respect to attitudes, customs and values that pertain to advertising.

Greece, a small peninsular country in southeastern Europe with a rugged and mountainous terrain and a population of 9.9 million people (World Advertising Expenditures, 1985) has an illustrious past which has provided a legacy for Western civilization (Kourvetaris and Dobratz, 1987).

Lambiri-Dimaki (1983), summarizing the structural features of Greek society, outlined five major patterns or themes which affect the lifestyles and opportunities available to Greek people and distinguish Greece from most Western European nations: (1) There is a limited number of statuses partly because Greece is an ethnically and religiously homogeneous society, and also because Greek society has no indigenous aristocracy which makes the social class structure less rigid. Furthermore, Greece has fewer occupational categories owing to its slower technological development. (2) Achievement rather than ascriptive orientation of statuses is stressed. However, gerontocracy (rule by the old people) has been traditionally more common than in other European societies. (3) The dual stratification system between agrarian and urban sectors, especially until the 1960s, resulted in a system of inequality. (4) The existence of a large, poor agricultural class, an industrial proletariat, and an expanding entrepreneurial class

had a negative impact on the status of women. (5) The more rewarding positions are held by the males in the upper segments of Greek society which have been maintained by a conservative public sector.

The family is the basic unit in Greek society. Regardless of region or class, the family does not lose its central importance. In Greece no one stands alone; the concept of the independent, unmarried, childless adult who stands apart from the family circle does not exist (Shinn, ed., 1985).

McNeill (1978) identified several elements of Greek tradition: the Greek language (an unbroken literary tradition since the days of Homer), Greek Orthodox Christianity (a traditional doctrine which is in conflict with the young and with social change), Hellenism (Greekness) and the heroic image.

Campbell (1983) examined some of the other salient traditional values which are also related to Greek identity. The notion of honor is "a subjective awareness of integrity and independence, ... of not being humiliated before others through particular kinds of failure." As far as rank is concerned, Greeks perceive only the highest and the lowest as polar opposites and do not quite accept gradations (Campbell, 1983).

Boulay (1974) spoke of change from traditional and symbolic thinking to more modern and secular thinking, and to a way of life in tune with the natural rhythms of the physical world. Regionalism is a general feature of Mediterranean societies caused by traditionalism, individualism, extremism, and static conformism (Campbell, 1976). Triandis, Vassiliou, and Nassiakou (1968) suggested that the

most central distinguishing features of Greek cultural identity are extreme competitiveness, both at the individual level and between in-groups and out-groups, and anti-authoritarianism against authority figures of the out-group.

Koty (1958) summarized the contradictions of modern Greek national character in these words: "the spirit of democracy along with stubborn conservatism"; "extreme individualism" along with "cooperativeness and touching hospitality", "skepticism and criticism" are paired with "religious credulity and superstition"; "patience and stoic endurance along with excitability, grumbling and discontent". These contradictions offer one perspective of the Greek cultural identity. The Greeks have the ability to change with circumstances, but at the same time they remain skeptical of change and faithful to their main cultural traditions, seeming to possess an inexhaustible reservoir of faith and hope which propel them to strive, to achieve, to fall and to rise again, and finally to master their social milieu and transform it (Kourvetaris, 1987).

Very little primary data is publicly available about the methods, effectiveness, present trends and other applicable quantitative or qualitative characteristics of Greek advertising expression that are related to the culture. Following are the notable exceptions: A yearly research study by MRB Hellas (1987) titled "Tasis" (tendencies) examined Greek public opinion on personal, social, cultural, political and financial matters including advertising. Its 1987 results show that the hierarchy of the top five values for Greek men is: (1) self-actualization, (2) personal contacts, (3) financial matters, (4) security and (5)

ethical conduct. The top five values for Greek women are: (1) self-actualization, (2) personal contacts, (3) devotion to God, (4) security and (5) ethical conduct. Finally, this study found that the top five values for Greeks between 18 and 24 years of age are: (1) self-actualization, (2) self-knowledge, (3) personal contacts, (4) enjoyment of life and (5) productivity.

A study by Kioulafas (1987) examined the effects of Greek cigarette advertising on cigarette sales and can be viewed as a reflector of the Greek culture through advertising. This study found that cigarette advertising does not seem to be a very powerful force in the Greek cigarette market, having "little systematic impact on cigarette sales." These results were in contrast with results of similar studies on other Western European countries' cigarette advertising, which found that cigarette advertising had a direct effect on the demand for a given brand of cigarettes.

Finally, a study of Greek children as advertising targets (Nauridis, Solman and Tsaoula, 1986) seems to suggest among other things, that culture affects children's advertising while at the same time advertising affects culture.

Insights into American modes of advertising expression, and the more fundamental cultural values by which they are influenced, can be obtained by comparing American advertising with that of any other culture. But it is probably more enlightening to compare British and American advertising expression because the apparent absence of the variable of spoken language makes differences in "advertising language" easier to identify.

Although there are numerous exceptions on both sides, transatlantic observers of advertising will notice that in general British advertising expression differs from American advertising expression in two respects (Unwin, 1974). Intentionally or not, British advertising expression has the effect of leaving an audience with rather a general impression of a product's values and benefits, while American advertisements are rarely deterred from focusing on a specific feature or attribute, Unwin said. Secondly, British advertisements sometimes seem to revel in ambiguity; whereas, American advertisements take great pains to be exact and definite. According to Unwin, a British ad often appears to want each individual member of its audience to participate in the communication process and each make his own interpretation of its message. An American ad usually leaves no uncertainties in the minds of its audience and gets the message across loud and clear. British ads are implicit; American ads are explicit. A British copywriter wrote "you can communicate more accurately, more effectively to slightly different groups if you let them decide the responses you want them to have" (Bullmore, 1971).

These comparisons apply to differences in advertising expression, and not to creative content or even the basic selling idea, according to Unwin (1974). They reflect other more subtle yet more profound cultural influences on modes of advertising expression. Unwin said that they reflect the supreme status of the word in American advertising. More American advertisements have big, bold clear headlines set at the top of the ad. More British than American

advertisements use headlines like captions to the visual set beneath the illustration. British headlines, according to Unwin, are sometimes quotations and frequently puns. American headlines are customarily messages which forge a direct connection between the consumer and the product. Unwin said that the British advertising illustration gives a feeling of depth, it pulls the reader into the page and does not jump off the page at the reader like the American visual. Finally, according to Unwin, the British want to convey the total experience of using a product, while the Americans want to recognize, appreciate and dramatize only a part.

In this context, it is hardly surprising that the author of this statement "what we want to do for our clients is to say their bottles are washed in live steam," was an American called Rosser Reeves (Mayer, 1967), and that the author of this statement "it is almost always the total personality of a brand rather than any trivial product difference which decides its ultimate position in the market," is a British ex-patriate called David Ogilvy (Mayer, 1967).

According to Richards (1990), modern British advertisers bring the constructions of the commodity culture which first appeared over one hundred years ago during Queen Victoria's times into new uses. Tunstall (1964) said that British advertising agency employees are often sent on visits to New York offices, and by such means American experience is adapted to British conditions. Therefore, British advertising agencies are closely bound up and influenced by American agencies.

In a study of consumer attitudes toward marketing (including advertising) in England and the United States (French, Barksdale and Perreault, 1982) several interesting attitude trends in both countries were presented. The researchers say that there is obvious mistrust of both countries' citizens of the advertisements used to attract buyers to those products. Respondents did not agree that advertisements were believable or reliable. This skepticism was intense to the point where they refused to acknowledge the extra degree of confidence one usually expresses toward an advertised (versus unadvertised) product. Only one positive set of opinions was expressed: the games and contests used by manufacturers to promote their products were not viewed as dishonest, the researchers said.

Among the British consumers there was some disagreement as to the value of advertising. The factor most strongly related to that disagreement was employment, or more precisely, retirement. While blue-collar and white-collar workers generally reacted negatively to advertising, retired respondents were much more favorable in their views. What French, Barksdale and Perreault call a surprising finding, is the difference between the two countries as to the respondents' trust in advertising. The American sample placed even less faith than did the English sample in the credibility of advertising. The researchers suggest that perhaps an over-exposure to advertisements on the broadcast media in the United States has caused a degree of callousness, which in turn, has led to a similar degree of disbelief.

The present study, as well as studies reviewed in the preceding section examining cross-cultural advertising research, utilized content analysis in order to examine differences in advertising content. The information criteria developed by Resnik and Stern were used in order to analyze information content, and other dimensions examined include the type of advertising appeal and product categories advertised.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Content analysis is an efficient method which has been used successfully by a number of researchers to examine differences in advertising content and expression for the print or broadcast mass media. Berelson defined content analysis as "a research technique for objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication" (Holsti, 1969).

Laswell (1949) further explains the purpose of content analysis as follows: "The operations of content analysis consist of classifying the signs occurring in a communication into a set of appropriate categories. The results state the frequency of occurrence of signs for each category in the classification scheme." Laswell also suggests that content analysis aims at a classification of content in more precise, numerical terms than is provided by the "impressionistic" methods. According to Kassajian (1973), content analysis can provide reliable, valid, and quantitative answers to research comparing advertisements of two different countries.

Previous studies utilizing the content analysis method examined the level of information content in advertisements from many countries including America (Aaker and Norris, 1982; Horman, Rozzouk and Stern, 1983), as well as Canada (Kaynak, 1981), France (Douglas, 1976), Australia (Dowling, 1980), Japan

(Suzuki, 1980; Madden, Caballero and Matsukubo, 1986), Turkey (Kaynak and Mitchell, 1981), and China (Rice and Lu, 1988). The Resnik and Stern (1977) information classification system was used by the majority of the previously mentioned studies. The Resnik and Stern information classification system determines the level of advertising information use on the basis of the presence (or absence) of 14 informational clues. Given the establishment of the Resnik and Stern system as a previously tested and reliable one, that system was selected for use in this study.

Quantifiable advertising information which could potentially be used by consumers as a tool in the product selection process, was identified and examined by this content analysis. Appeal use was measured on two criteria: rational appeal and emotional appeal. This procedure enabled the researcher to establish whether there were significant differences in advertising expression and content among the countries of Greece, U.S. and Britain.

Research Design

This researcher used content analysis in an investigation of the differences in content and expression of Greek, American, and British magazine advertisements. Two variables of interest were examined: informational cue use and type of appeal.

The widely accepted Resnik and Stern (1977) information classification system was used, which utilizes 14 informational categories or "cues" which are

considered informative. These 14 informational cues are used by the consumer as tools in the product selection process, allowing him/her to make intelligent choices among alternatives after reading the advertisement (listed later in this section). Stern, Krugman, and Resnik (1981) suggest that the 14 informational cue method is a highly objective scheme for evaluating overt information content and can be a useful tool for content analysis. While it is important to note that no method is free of evaluator bias, the Resnik and Stern system uses terms that are easily understandable and recognizable by all. This is evidenced by a high overall level of interjudge agreement.

In order for an advertisement to be classified as informative in accordance to the Resnik and Stern (1977) information classification system, it must contain one or more of the 14 informational cues. Advertisements that did not contain any of the 14 Resnik and Stern informational cues were classified as non-informative. The truth, credibility, or soundness of evidence provided in each advertisement of this study's sample were not examined in order to minimize the risk of evaluator bias.

The appeal used in each advertisement was categorized as either rational or emotional. When an advertisement consists of information and arguments that present a logical and reasonable case for buying a product, it uses a rational appeal. When an advertisement appeals to psychological rather than utility needs, it uses an emotional appeal.

Research Questions

This research study examined the following questions:

Research Question One: Do Greek news magazine advertisements contain a smaller proportion of informational cues than U.S. or British news magazine advertisements?

Research Question Two: Do Greek news magazine advertisements contain a greater overall proportion of emotional appeals than rational appeals compared to U.S. and British news magazine advertisements?

Research Question Three: Are there differences among Greek, U.S. or British news magazine advertisements in the frequency of use of the two appeal types among product categories?

Research Question Four: Does the proportion of informative and non-informative advertisements vary among product categories for Greek, U.S. and British news magazines?

Research Question Five: Does the overall proportion of informative and non-informative advertisements vary among Greek, U.S. and British news magazines?

Research Question Six: Which of the 14 informational cues are present most often among Greek, U.S. and British news magazine advertisements?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were examined by this research study:

Hypothesis One: Greek news magazine advertisements contain a smaller proportion of informational cues than U.S. or British news magazine advertisements.

Hypothesis Two: Overall, Greek news magazine advertisements contain a greater proportion of emotional appeals than rational appeals compared to U.S. and British news magazine advertisements.

Hypothesis Three: Greek news magazine advertisements contain a greater proportion of emotional appeals than rational appeals for all product categories compared to U.S. and British news magazine advertisements.

Hypothesis Four: Greek news magazines contain a greater proportion of non-informative than informative advertisements for all product categories when compared to U.S. and British news magazines.

Hypothesis Five: Greek news magazines contain a greater overall proportion of non-informative than informative advertisements when compared to U.S. and British news magazines.

Hypothesis Six: Performance and components or contents are the informational cues that are used most often among Greek, U.S. and British news magazine advertisements.

Data Collection Method

The content analysis method was utilized in order to determine the frequencies of use of the selected communication elements and the differences in content among the three news magazines during the period studied.

A total of 30 issues (ten from each magazine) were randomly selected with the aid of a table of random numbers for advertising content analysis. Table I lists the dates of the issues that were studied. A systematical examination of all full-page advertisements contained in the sample issues was conducted. Finally, this research study encompassed all categories of products advertised in the sample issues.

Selection of Magazines

The content of three leading news magazines, each from a different nation, was analyzed for differences in print advertisements. All full-page advertisements contained in the sample of each of the three news magazines were examined, their contents were identified, coded and subjected to statistical procedures to answer the research problem. The Greek news magazine selected for study was Tachydromos (a weekly magazine). Tachydromos had an average circulation of 90,000 issues in 1988. Time (a weekly magazine) was selected as a comparable American news magazine. Time had an average circulation of 4,911,000 issues in 1988. Finally, The Economist (a weekly magazine) was chosen as a comparable British news magazine. The Economist had an average circulation of 83,426

issues in 1988 (Source for all circulation figures: European Market & Media Fact: 1988). Because of differences in population size between Greece, the United States and the United Kingdom, the selection of magazines could not be based on comparable circulation.

The magazine sample consisted of issues published between January 1991 and December 1991. Ten issues of each magazine were selected, which resulted in a total of 30 issues examined. Each issue to be studied was randomly selected from all published issues within the chosen time period. Table I lists the dates of the issues that were studied.

TABLE I
RANDOMLY SELECTED SAMPLE

<u>TACHYDROMOS</u>	<u>TIME</u>	<u>ECONOMIST</u>
April 25, 1991	January 21, 1991	January 12-18, 1991
June 13, 1991	February 11, 1991	February 9-15, 1991
June 20, 1991	March 18, 1991	March 16-22, 1991
July 4, 1991	May 20, 1991	April 6-12, 1991
July 17, 1991	June 10, 1991	May 25-31, 1991
July 24, 1991	July 29, 1991	June 15-21, 1991
August 14, 1991	September 2, 1991	August 3-9, 1991
August 21, 1991	September 30, 1991	October 19-25, 1991
September 4, 1991	October 7, 1991	November 9-15, 1991
December 4, 1991	November 4, 1991	November 23-29, 1991

Data Recording Form

The measurement of advertising information content was conducted with the use of the Resnik and Stern information classification system, which is widely used as an advertising information content examination method. Advertisements were considered informative if they contained one or more of the 14 informational cues, thus allowing the consumer to make intelligent choices among

alternative products.

Two appeal types, rational and emotional, were contrasted, and the product types were classified into one of 15 categories.

Informativeness

The presence or absence of one or more of 14 evaluative factors first established by Resnik and Stern (1977) was the determining factor in whether an advertisement was classified informative or non-informative.

Prior to evaluating each advertisement on the presence (or absence) of these evaluative factors, the coders were to ask the following question: "Does the advertisement contain any of the following cues about the product, service or organization?" In order for an advertisement to be considered informative according to the Resnik and Stern (1977) classification system, it needed only to communicate one of the 14 informational cues. Many of the informational cue categories are self explanatory and mutually exclusive. Following are the Resnik and Stern (1977) criteria for classification of an advertisement as informative or non-informative (advertisement content was coded accordingly from 1 to 14):

(1) Price-Value. What does the product cost? What is its value-retention capability?

(2) Quality. What are the product's characteristics that distinguish it from competing products based on an objective evaluation of workmanship, engineering, durability, excellence of materials, structural superiority, superiority

of personnel, attention to detail or special services?

(3) Performance. What does the product do? How well does it perform relative to other products?

(4) Components/Contents. What is the product composed of? What ingredients does it contain? What ancillary items are included with the product?

(5) Availability. Where can the product be purchased? When will the product be available for purchase?

(6) Special Offers. What limited-time non-price deals are available with a particular purchase?

(7) Taste. Is evidence presented that the taste of a particular product is perceived as superior in taste by a sample of potential customers? (The opinion of the advertiser is inadequate).

(8) Nutrition. Are specific data given concerning the nutritional content of a particular product, or is a direct specific comparison made with other products?

(9) Packaging or Shape. What package is the product available in which makes it more desirable than alternatives? What special shapes is the product available in?

(10) Guarantee/Warranties. What post-purchase assurances accompany the product?

(11) Safety. What safety features are available on a particular product compared to alternative choices?

(12) Independent Research. Are results of research gathered by an

"independent" research firm presented?

(13) Company research. Are data gathered by a company to compare its product with a competitor's presented?

(14) New ideas. Is a totally new concept introduced during the commercial? Are its advantages presented? (Resnik and Stern, 1977)

Advertising Appeals

An advertising appeal is the creative attempt to motivate consumers toward some form of activity or to influence attitudes toward a product or service (Berkman and Gilson, 1987). The categories usually applied to types of appeals used in advertising are rational versus emotional.

Following are the criteria for the classification of an advertisement as emotional or rational (advertisement content was coded accordingly as 1 or 2):

Rational Appeals. When an advertising message consists of information and arguments that present a logical, reasonable case for buying a product, it uses what is known as rational appeal--an appeal to the consumer's practical utility-oriented needs for products and services.

Emotional Appeals. When an advertising message appeals to psychological needs--needs for love and to be loved, to be regarded as successful, to be considered important by other people, and other similar motivations--rather than utility needs, it is considered as emotional (Jiramongkhollarp, 1990).

Product Categories

Advertised product types were coded from 1 to 15 as follows:

- (1) Furniture, home furnishings/appliances such as vacuum cleaners, refrigerators, dishwashers, air-conditioners, construction materials, crystal, etc.
- (2) Toys, recreational and entertainment such as yachts, outboard engines, music records, motion pictures, hotels, television networks, books, concerts, theme parks, cruise lines, travel agencies, etc.
- (3) Home electronics such as cameras, VCRs, televisions, telephones, etc.
- (4) Business electronics such as computers, copiers, fax machines, typewriters, computer software etc.
- (5) Clothing, including shoes.
- (6) Jewelry, including watches.
- (7) Cars/car products such as car stereo, gasoline, tires, automobile rentals, etc.
- (8) Food, drink, alcohol and tobacco such as table water, fast food, chewing gum, table water, bottling companies, etc.
- (9) Housing and real estate including development areas.
- (10) Personal care products such as cosmetics, shampoo, soap, toothpaste, sanitary pads, perfume, shaving cream, etc.
- (11) Non-personal care products such as detergent, fabric softener, dishwasher liquid, etc.
- (12) Medicine, including vitamins and weight-loss products.

(13) Services such as banking, transportation, financial, airlines, magazines & newspapers, radio stations, colleges and universities, insurance, utility companies, telecommunications, lobbyist groups, duty-free stores, law firms, etc.

(14) Non-profit services. All non-profit public service announcements by organizations that attempt to build identities in the public mind.

(15) Miscellaneous such as pens, eye glasses, light bulbs, post stamps, scotch tape, batteries, trade expositions & conferences, aircraft & aircraft engines, stock markets, security systems, etc. (Jiramongkhollarp, 1990).

Coding Procedure

Two coders (judges) determined whether each advertisement was informative or non-informative, rational or emotional, as well as what the advertised product category was. For the purposes of this content analysis study, the entire advertisement was considered as the context unit. The type of information cue, type of product, and type of appeal were the elements of the specific coding units. The specific magazine each advertisement was contained in was coded as well.

Two Greek coders who had spent three years or longer in the United States and had a good command of the English language, were instructed to evaluate the advertisements independently on an individual basis. Each of the coders 1 and 2 coded only half of the advertisements in the total sample. The advertisements were randomly selected and were randomly assigned to coders 1

and 2.

It is important to note, however, that the relatively objective and accurate nature of the data collection method used in this research does not preclude the possibility of coder bias. In order to test the reliability of the data produced, each coder independently evaluated the same 60 advertisements, 20 of which were Greek, 20 British, and 20 American advertisements. This testing method determined the ability of both coders to follow the instructions as well as the clarity of the given definitions. The classifications of coders on types of information cues present and the appeal type used by each advertisement, were compared for agreement. The reliability application of variable definitions was thus assessed. The results of each reliability category measured should meet the minimum reliability level of 85 percent specified by Kassajian (1977).

Statistical Methods

Given that the results of this research study were produced in the form of frequency (nominal) data, the Chi-Square test was used in order to determine whether the differences and relationships among the variables were real and not due to chance. If marked differences exist between the observed and the expected frequencies for each category, then the Chi-Square test produces a numerical value large enough to be interpreted as statistically significant.

The Chi-Square test determined the probability and significance of differences between Greek, American and British advertisements. Additionally, in

order to examine relationships among the different variables one of two coefficients was calculated: a contingency coefficient was computed when there were more than two categories for either variable, or the Phi coefficient was used in the cases where only two categories of both sides existed.

Assumed Limitations

It is important to note that the results of this study may be limited by certain factors. First, expected differences in advertising expression may be the results of differences in distribution systems, market performance or media availability among Greece, the United States and the United Kingdom. Also, the small sampling size of both advertisements and magazines used in this study presents difficulties in generalizing the conclusions over a wide range of magazines and products. A much larger number of advertisements from many magazines, as well as radio and television, must be examined in order to arrive at more conclusive results.

Only two coders were used, utilizing only a single approach for measuring advertising content and expressions. It is also possible that the coders for this study are not necessarily representative of the average consumer in Greece, the United States, or the United Kingdom. Additionally, environmental factors such as demographics (characteristics such as sex, age, religion, education, and economic status), media usage patterns, and product life-cycles may also be responsible for advertising expression differences among countries. Also,

advertisements from only three countries were examined, so one may not be able to generalize the results of this study. It is thus possible that actual advertising conditions may vary from the results of this study.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Background

A statistical content analysis was performed on the content of Greek, American and British news magazine advertisements in order to examine possible differences between the three countries and cultures in terms of advertising expression. A total of 962 items was recorded. Tachydromos contained 277 items (advertisements), Time contained 223 items, while The Economist contained 462 items.

MYSTAT, a condensed version of SYSTAT was used for data analysis. The results are discussed according to the information cue variable and appeal variable, based on the product type and information content.

Intercoder Reliability

The intercoder reliability of the magazine advertisement content coding process was tested by coding 60 advertisements in total (20 from one randomly selected issue of each magazine). Twenty advertisements from Tachydromos, 20 from Time and 20 from Economist were coded, in order to determine the information cue categories into which each advertisement should be placed.

Following this, the coders performed the appeal categorization for each advertisement, deciding whether each advertisement used a rational or emotional appeal.

Results of the reliability tests should meet the minimum reliability level of 85 percent specified by Kassajian (1977). As shown in Table II, the average intercoder reliability coefficients were 1.00, 0.94, and 0.97 respectively for the three magazines. As specified by Kassajian, all three values were within acceptable levels.

TABLE II
INTERCODER RELIABILITY

CODER 1 vs. CODER 2	
<u>Magazine Advertisements</u>	<u>Reliability</u>
Tachydromos	1.00
Time	0.94
Economist	0.97

Statistical Analysis

A Chi-Square analysis was used to test the correspondence between observed and expected frequency occurrences for each variable. The level of significance was set at 0.05 meaning that the probability of occurrence by chance for a found relationship is less than five times out of one hundred.

Findings

A total of 962 items was recorded. Of these, 277 items (advertisements) were contained in Tachydromos (the Greek magazine), 223 items were contained in Time (the U.S. magazine), while Economist (the British magazine) contained 462 items.

The statistical analysis results are presented in this section so that the relationships and differences among the variables of interest may be examined. Tables III to VIII show the frequency and percentages of the content distribution by Tachydromos, Time and Economist.

Research Question One: Do Greek news magazine advertisements contain a smaller proportion of informational cues than U.S. or British news magazine advertisements?

Table III presents the frequencies and percentages of the proportion of informational cues used for advertisements in Tachydromos, Time and Economist. The proportions of cues per advertisement are denoted as "no cues," "one cue," etc. A complex Chi Square analysis was performed to examine the relationship between the number of informational cues per ad and the three magazines (nations).

TABLE III
 FREQUENCY OF THE USE OF INFORMATIONAL CUES
 PER ADVERTISEMENT BY MAGAZINE (NATION)

Cues per ad	Greek		U.S.		British	
	# of ads	% of sample	# of ads	% of sample	# of ads	% of sample
No cues	10	(3.7%)	18	(8.1%)	33	(7.1%)
One cue	90	(32.5%)	51	(22.9%)	93	(20.2%)
Two cues	88	(31.7%)	54	(24.2%)	187	(40.5%)
Three cues	68	(24.5%)	44	(19.7%)	98	(21.2%)
Four cues	13	(4.7%)	31	(13.9%)	34	(7.4%)
Five cues	7	(2.5%)	22	(9.9%)	14	(3.0%)
Six cues	1	(0.4%)	3	(1.3%)	3	(0.6%)
>Six cues	0	(0.0%)	0	(0.0%)	0	(0.0%)
Total	277	(100%)	223	(100%)	462	(100%)

Complex Chi Square Statistic = 63.975
 Table Chi Square = 23.7 (p < 0.05, df = 14)

The complex Chi Square analysis of the frequency of use of informational cues per ad in Tachydromos, Time and Economist shows that there is a statistically significant relationship at the 0.05 level between the number of cues per ad and the three magazines (nations). However, the strength of the relationship between the number of cues per ad and the three magazines (nations) is weak since the contingency coefficient is only 0.2497. Simple Chi

Square tests were conducted to find where the difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of the simple Chi Square tests show that there were no significant differences in the frequency of use of ads containing zero informational cues among Greek, U.S. and British magazines. However, significant differences were found among Greek, U.S. and British magazines in the frequency of use of ads containing one informational cue. Specifically, as Table III shows, Greek magazines contained a greater proportion of ads with one informational cue (32.5%) as compared with U.S. magazines (22.9%) and British magazines (20.2%).

Significant differences were also found among Greek, U.S. and British magazines in the frequency of use of ads containing two informational cues. Specifically, British magazines contained a greater proportion of ads with two informational cues (40.5%) as compared with Greek magazines (31.7%) and U.S. magazines (24.2%).

When the three magazines contained ads with three informational cues, significant differences were found among them. Greek magazines contained a greater proportion of ads with three informational cues (24.5%) as compared with British magazines (21.2%) and U.S. magazines (19.7%). Significant differences were also found among Tachydromos, Time and Economist in the frequency of use of ads containing four informational cues. Specifically, American magazines contained a greater proportion of ads with four informational cues (13.9%) as

compared with British magazines (7.4%) and U.S. magazines (4.7%). When the magazines contained advertisements with five informational cues, significant differences were found among them, as well. American magazines were found to contain a much greater proportion of ads with five informational cues (9.9%) as compared with British magazines (3.0%) or Greek magazines (2.5%).

Finally, no significant differences were found among Greek, U.S. and British magazines containing six or more than six informational cues (for the above mentioned cases, differences are significant at the 0.05 level of confidence with $df = 2$).

Research Question Two: Do Greek news magazine advertisements contain a greater proportion of rational appeals than emotional appeals compared to U.S. and British news magazine advertisements?

Table IV presents the frequencies and percentages of rational and emotional advertisements contained in Tachydromos, Time and Economist. A complex Chi Square analysis was performed to examine the relationship between the three magazines (nations) and the two appeal types, rational and emotional.

TABLE IV
 APPEAL TYPES BY MAGAZINE (NATION)

	Greek	U.S.	British
Rational	130 (46.9%)	137 (61.4%)	313 (67.7%)
Emotional	147 (53.1%)	86 (38.6%)	149 (32.3%)
Totals	277 (100%)	223 (100%)	462 (100%)

Complex Chi Square Statistic = 31.503
 Table Chi Square = 6.0 ($p < 0.05$, $df = 2$)

The complex Chi Square analysis of the relationship between the two appeal types (rational and emotional) for Tachydromos, Time and Economist (nation) shows a statistically significant relationship at the 0.05 level. However, the strength of that relationship is very weak, since the value of the contingency coefficient is only 0.178. Simple Chi Square tests were conducted to find where the difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The simple Chi Square results show that the differences in the frequency of use of the two appeal types (rational and emotional) varied significantly among Greek, U.S. and British magazines advertisements. Specifically, British magazines were found to contain a greater proportion of advertisements using a rational appeal (67.7%) than did U.S. magazines (61.4%) and Greek magazines (46.9%).

The results also show that there were significant differences in the frequency of use of emotional appeals among Greek, U.S. and British magazines advertisements. Specifically, Greek magazines were found to contain a greater

proportion of ads using an emotional appeal (53.1%) than did U.S. magazines (38.6%) and British magazines (32.3%). Differences are significant for the above cases at the 0.05 level of confidence with $df = 2$.

Overall, as Table IV shows, Greek magazines used more emotional than rational appeals, while U.S. and British magazines used more rational than emotional appeals.

Research Question Three: Are there differences among Greek, U.S. or British news magazine advertisements in the frequency of the two appeal types among product categories?

Table V presents the frequencies and percentages of rational and emotional advertisements contained in Tachydromos, Time and Economist according to fifteen different product categories. A complex Chi Square analysis was performed to examine the relationship between the three magazines (nations) and the fifteen different product types in terms of the two appeal types, rational (R) and emotional (E).

TABLE V
 FREQUENCY OF APPEAL TYPES BY PRODUCT
 AND MAGAZINE (NATION)

	Greek		U.S.		British	
	<u>R</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>R</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>R</u>	<u>E</u>
Furniture	9	10 (53%)	0	0 (0%)	0	0 (0%)
Toys/Recreation /Entertainment	3	6 (67%)	10	11 (52%)	18	19 (51%)
Home electronics	2	1 (33%)	3	1 (25%)	2	2 (50%)
Business electronics	0	0 (0%)	10	3 (23%)	38	7 (16%)
Clothing	1	30 (97%)	0	3 (100%)	3	5 (63%)
Jewelry	3	6 (67%)	2	1 (33%)	4	18 (82%)
Automobiles/ Car products	19	0 (0%)	59	17 (22%)	19	3 (14%)
Food/Drink Alcohol/Tobacco	14	74 (84%)	17	24 (59%)	4	6 (60%)
Housing/ Real estate	0	0 (0%)	0	1 (100%)	16	2 (11%)
Personal care products	25	10 (29%)	6	0 (0%)	0	0 (0%)
Non-personal care products	1	0 (0%)	0	0 (0%)	0	0 (0%)
Medicine	16	3 (16%)	4	0 (0%)	2	0 (0%)
Services	36	5 (12%)	22	20 (48%)	173	70 (29%)
Non-profit services	0	0 (0%)	2	1 (33%)	3	0 (0%)
Miscellaneous	1	2 (67%)	2	4 (67%)	31	17 (35%)
Total	130	147	137	86	313	149

Complex Chi Square Statistic for Table IV values = 342.105
Table Chi Square = 41.3 ($p < 0.05$, $df = 28$)

A complex Chi Square analysis indicated a significant relationship between rational appeals and magazines (nations) among product categories at the 0.05 level. However, the strength of that relationship is moderate, since the value of the contingency coefficient is 0.609. Simple Chi Square tests were conducted to find where the difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The simple Chi Square results indicate that the differences in the proportions of rational advertisements varied significantly according to the product categories and magazines (nations). Specifically, a significant difference between rational appeals and magazines (nations) was found for the following nine product categories: furniture, business electronics, automobiles\car products, food\drink\alcohol\tobacco, housing\real estate, personal care products, medicine, services, and miscellaneous. However, the difference between rational appeals (as well as for emotional appeals), and magazines (nations) was found to be insignificant for the following six product categories: toys\recreation and entertainment, home electronics, clothing, jewelry, non-personal care products, and non-profit services.

Advertisements for furniture were found to be significantly different for Tachydromos, Time and Economist in terms of rational appeals. Specifically, Greek magazines contained a greater proportion of furniture advertisements using a rational appeal (47%) than did U.S. magazines (0%) and British magazines

(0%). For business electronics advertisements, British magazines contained a greater proportion of advertisements using a rational appeal (84%) than U.S. magazines (77%) and Greek magazines (0%). For automobile and car product advertisements, Greek magazines contained a greater proportion of advertisements using a rational appeal (100%) than did British magazines (86%) and U.S. magazines (78%).

The results also show that for food, drink, alcohol and tobacco advertisements, U.S. magazines contained a greater proportion of advertisements using a rational appeal (41%) than British magazines (40%) and Greek magazines (16%). Also, for housing and real estate advertisements, British magazines contained a greater proportion of advertisements using a rational appeal (89%) than U.S. magazines (0%) and Greek magazines (0%). The results also indicated that for personal care product advertisements, U.S. magazines contained a greater proportion of advertisements using a rational appeal (100%) than Greek magazines (71%) and British magazines (0%). For advertisements about medicine, U.S. magazines contained the same proportion of advertisements using a rational appeal (100%) than British magazines (100%), but a greater proportion than Greek magazines (84%). Finally, for advertising of services, Greek magazines contained a greater proportion of advertisements using a rational appeal (88%) than British magazines (71%) and U.S. magazines (52%).

Research Question Four: Does the proportion of informative and non-informative advertisements vary among product categories for Greek, U.S. and British newsmagazines.

Table VI presents the frequencies and percentages of informative and non-informative advertisements contained in Tachydromos, Time and Economist according to fifteen different product categories. An advertisement was considered informative if it contained at least one of the 14 informational cues described previously. A complex Chi Square analysis was performed to examine the relationship between the three magazines (nations) and the different product types in terms of the proportion of informative (I) and non-informative (N) advertisements.

TABLE VI
 INFORMATIVE VERSUS NON-INFORMATIVE ADVERTISEMENTS
 BY PRODUCT AND MAGAZINE (NATION)

	Greek		U.S.		British	
	<u>I</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>N</u>
Furniture	19	0 (0%)	0	0 (0%)	0	0 (0%)
Toys/Recreation /Entertainment	9	0 (0%)	21	0 (0%)	36	1 (2%)
Home electronics	3	0 (0%)	4	0 (0%)	3	1 (25%)
Business electronics	0	0 (0%)	13	0 (0%)	45	0 (0%)
Clothing	28	3 (9%)	0	3 (100%)	5	3 (38%)
Jewelry	9	0 (0%)	3	0 (0%)	20	2 (9%)
Automobiles/ Car products	19	0 (0%)	75	1 (1%)	21	1 (4%)
Food/Drink Alcohol/Tobacco	82	6 (7%)	36	5 (12%)	8	2 (20%)
Housing/ Real estate	0	0 (0%)	0	1 (100%)	18	0 (0%)
Personal care products	35	0 (0%)	6	0 (0%)	0	0 (0%)
Non-personal care products	1	0 (0%)	0	0 (0%)	0	0 (0%)
Medicine	19	0 (0%)	3	1 (25%)	2	0 (0%)
Services	40	1 (2%)	37	5 (12%)	224	19 (8%)
Non-profit services	0	0 (0%)	2	1 (33%)	3	0 (0%)
Miscellaneous	3	0 (0%)	5	1 (16%)	44	4 (8%)
Total		10		18		33

Complex Chi Square Statistic for Table VI values = 588.803
Table Chi Square = 41.3 (p < 0.05, df = 28)

A complex Chi Square analysis indicated a significant relationship between the proportion of informative advertisements among product categories for the three magazines (nations) at the 0.05 level. However, the strength of that relationship is moderate, since the value of the contingency coefficient is 0.628. Simple Chi Square tests were conducted to find where the difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The simple Chi Square results indicate that the differences in the proportions of informative advertisements varied significantly according to the product categories and magazines (nations). Specifically, a significant difference between informative as well as non-informative advertisements and magazines (nations) was found for the these eleven product categories: furniture, toys\recreation and entertainment, business electronics, clothing, automobiles\car products, food\drink\alcohol\tobacco, housing\real estate, personal care products, medicine, services, and miscellaneous. However, the difference between informative advertisements, and magazines (nations) was found to be insignificant for the following four product categories: home electronics, jewelry, non-personal care products, and non-profit services.

Advertisements for furniture were found to be significantly different for Tachydromos, Time and Economist in terms of informativeness. Specifically, Greek magazines contained a greater proportion of informative furniture advertisements (100%) than did U.S. magazines (0%) and British magazines

(0%). For toys, recreation and entertainment advertisements, Greek and U.S. magazines contained the same proportion of informative advertisements (100%), which is slightly higher than the proportion for British magazines (98%). For business electronics advertisements, Greek, U.S. and British magazines contained the same proportion of informative advertisements (100%). For clothing advertisements, Greek magazines contained the greatest proportion of informative advertisements (91%) than did British magazines (62%) or U.S. magazines (0%). For automobile and car product advertisements, Greek magazines contained the greatest proportion of informative advertisements (100%) which is slightly higher than the proportion for U.S. magazines (99%) or British magazines (96%).

The results also show that for food, drink, alcohol and tobacco advertisements, Greek magazines contained the greatest proportion of informative advertisements (93%) which is slightly higher than the proportion for U.S. magazines (88%) or British magazines (80%). For housing and real estate advertisements, Greek and British magazines contained the same proportion of informative advertisements (100%) which is considerably higher than the proportion for U.S. magazines (0%).

The results also indicated that for personal care product advertisements, Greek, U.S. and British magazines contained the same proportion of informative advertisements (100%). For advertisements about medicine, Greek and British magazines contained the same proportion of informative advertisements (100%) which is considerably higher than the proportion for U.S. magazines (75%).

Finally, for advertising of services, Greek magazines contained a greater proportion of informative advertisements (98%) than British magazines (92%) and U.S. magazines (88%).

Research Question Five: Does the proportion of informative and non-informative advertisements vary among Greek, U.S. and British news magazines?

Table VII presents the frequencies and percentages of informative and non-informative advertisements contained in Tachydromos, Time and Economist in terms of the total number of advertisements contained in the sample. A complex Chi Square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a relationship between the three magazines (nations) in terms of the proportions of informative and non-informative advertisements.

TABLE VII
INFORMATIVE VERSUS NON-INFORMATIVE ADVERTISEMENTS
BY MAGAZINE (NATION)

	Greek	U.S.	British
Informative	267 (96.3%)	205 (91.9%)	429 (92.9%)
Non-informative	10 (3.7%)	18 (8.1%)	33 (7.1%)
Totals	277 (100%)	223 (100%)	462 (100%)

Complex Chi Square Statistic = 5.009
Table Chi Square = 6.0 (p < 0.05, df = 2)

The complex Chi Square analysis of advertising content shows that the relationship between the three magazines (nation) and the proportion of informative advertisements is not significant at the 0.05 level. This simply means that the observed differences might have been due to chance more than five times in a hundred. A lack of statistical significance means that there is no change in the proportions of informative and non-informative advertisements for Tachydromos, Time and Economist.

Research Question Six: Which of the 14 informational cues are present most often among Greek, U.S. and British news magazine advertisements?

Table VIII presents the frequencies and percentages of the use of the 14 informational cues in Tachydromos, Time and Economist advertisements. The

total number of cues given is greater than the total sample size since some advertisements contained more than one information cue. A complex Chi Square analysis was performed in order to determine whether there was a relationship between the three magazines (nations) and the proportions of each informational cue.

TABLE VIII
 FREQUENCY OF USE OF THE 14 INFORMATIONAL CUES
 BY MAGAZINE (NATION)

	Greek	U.S.	British
Price-Value	15 (5.4%)	35 (15.7%)	73 (15.8%)
Quality	2 (0.7%)	1 (0.4%)	2 (0.4%)
Performance	93 (33.6%)	106 (47.5%)	314 (68.0%)
Components/ contents	118 (42.6%)	110 (49.3%)	218 (47.1%)
Availability	121 (43.7%)	82 (36.8%)	259 (56.1%)
Special Offers	13 (4.7%)	16 (7.2%)	10 (2.2%)
Taste	3 (1.1%)	7 (3.1%)	4 (0.9%)
Nutrition	1 (0.4%)	6 (2.7%)	0 (0.0%)
Packaging/ shape	184 (66.4%)	107 (48.0%)	74 (16.0%)
Guarantee	7 (2.5%)	22 (9.9%)	9 (1.9%)
Safety	1 (0.4%)	10 (4.5%)	10 (2.2%)
Independent Research	2 (0.7%)	34 (15.2%)	13 (2.2%)
Company Research	1 (0.4%)	5 (2.2%)	2 (0.4%)
New Ideas	1 (0.4%)	6 (2.7%)	5 (1.1%)
Total	562	547	993

For Greek magazines: 277 total ads = 2.03 info cues per ad
 For U.S. magazines: 223 total ads = 2.45 info cues per ad
 For British magazines: 462 total ads = 2.15 info cues per ad

Percentage may not equal 100 percent due to multiple information cues per advertisement.

Complex Chi Square Statistic for Table VIII values= 322.4139
 Table Chi Square = 38.9 (p < 0.05, df = 26)

A complex Chi Square analysis indicated a significant relationship between the 14 informational cues for Tachydromos, Time and Economist (nations) at the 0.05 level. However, the strength of that relationship is weak, since the value of the contingency coefficient is only 0.364. Simple Chi Square tests were conducted to find where the difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of the simple Chi Square tests show that significant differences exist between the various informational cues for the three magazines (nations) for these nine product categories: price\value, performance, availability, special offers, nutrition, packaging, guarantee, safety and independent research. However, the differences between the following five informational cues and three magazines (nations) was found to be insignificant: quality, components, taste, company research and new ideas.

As shown in Table VII, packaging and shape was the informational cue that was used most often in Greek magazines (66.4%), followed by availability (43.7%), components or contents (42.6%), performance (33.6%), and price or value (5.4%). The same five cues were also found most often in U.S. and British magazines, but not in the same rank, with the exception of price or value, which ranked fifth for all three magazines. Specifically, for U.S. magazine

advertisements components or contents were mentioned most often (49.3%), followed by packaging or shape (48%), performance (47.5%), availability (36.8%), and price or value (15.7%). Finally, for British magazine advertisements performance was used most often (68%), followed by availability (56.1%), components or contents (47.1%), packaging or shape (16%), and price or value (15.8%).

In terms of the least used informational cues, for Greek magazines those were nutrition (0.4%), company research (0.4%) and new ideas (0.4%). The least used informational cues in advertisements found in U.S. magazines were quality (0.4%), company research (2.2%), and new ideas (2.7%). For British magazines the results indicate that nutrition (0.0%), quality (0.0%) and company research (0.4%) were the least used informational cues.

Greek advertisements were found to contain an average of 2.03 informational cues per advertisement, while U.S. magazines were found to contain an average of 2.45 informational cues per advertisement, and British magazines contained an average of 2.15 informational cues per advertisement. This means that U.S. magazines were found to contain a higher average number of informational cues per advertisement than either Greek or British magazines.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Communicating to people in different cultures is one of the great creative challenges in advertising. In moving from one culture to another, communication is more difficult because cultural factors largely determine the ways advertising will be perceived.

Cultural differences between countries should therefore be recognized in producing advertising as part of a company's multinational marketing strategy. Therefore, American businesses in Europe, and Greece in particular, must analyze the cultural climate they must compete in.

The purpose of this research was to investigate the existence of possible differences between Greek, American and British advertising expression and form, thus inferring that such differences are related to cultural differences among the three countries.

A comparative content analysis that was performed on Greek, American and British news magazine advertisements revealed several major differences between the three countries and cultures in terms of advertising appeal use and information content. The findings support the general hypothesis that differences

among the three cultures were related to differences in advertising expression and form.

The commonly accepted Resnik-Stern (1977) information classification method was used in order to examine the use of advertising information use through the presence (or absence) of 14 information cues. Advertisements were also classified as emotional or rational.

A total of 30 magazines was examined (ten from each country), which contained 962 advertisements. Of these, 277 advertisements were contained in Tachydromos (the Greek magazine), 223 advertisements were contained in Time (the U.S. magazine), while Economist (the British magazine) contained 462 advertisements. All randomly selected issues of the three news magazines were from the January 1991 to December 1991 period. All full-page advertisements for all categories of products contained in the randomly selected issues were analyzed. The results of this study allowed the researcher to determine the validity of the following research hypotheses:

The first hypothesis examined was that Greek news magazine advertisements contained a smaller proportion of informational cues than U.S. or British news magazine advertisements. The results show that Greek advertisements were found to contain an average of 2.03 informational cues per advertisement, while U.S. magazines were found to contain an average of 2.45 informational cues per advertisement, and British magazines were found to contain an average of 2.15 informational cues per advertisement. Thus, the

findings suggest that the first hypothesis is accepted. However, it must be noted that the strength of the relationship between the number of cues per ad and the three magazines is weak, which does not allow us to further evaluate the differences in the proportion of use of informational cues among the advertisements of the three nations.

The second hypothesis examined was that overall, Greek news magazine advertisements contained a greater proportion of emotional appeals than rational appeals when compared to U.S. and British news magazine advertisements. The analysis of magazine advertisement content showed that Greek magazines contained a greater proportion of ads using an emotional appeal (53.1%) than did U.S. magazines (38.6%) and British magazines (32.3%). On the other hand, British magazines were found to contain a greater proportion of advertisements using a rational appeal (67.7%) than did U.S. magazines (61.4%) and Greek magazines (46.9%). The second hypothesis is confirmed, since Greek magazines were found to use a greater proportion of emotional than rational appeals, while U.S. and British magazines used more rational than emotional appeals.

The third hypothesis examined by this research project was whether Greek news magazine advertisements contained a greater proportion of emotional appeals than rational appeals for all product categories compared to U.S. and British news magazine advertisements.

The statistical analysis results indicate that greater proportions of rational advertisements than emotional advertisements were found in Greek magazines for

the following product categories: home electronics, automobiles\car products, personal care products, non-personal care products, medicine, and services. For U.S. magazines, the following product categories were found to contain more rational than emotional advertisements: home electronics, business electronics, jewelry, automobiles\car products, personal care products, medicine, services and non-profit services. For British magazines, the following product categories were found to contain more rational than emotional advertisements: business electronics, automobiles and car products, housing\real estate, medicine, services, non-profit services and miscellaneous.

The remaining product categories for all three magazines were found to contain more emotional than rational advertisements. Therefore, hypothesis three was rejected, since for the three magazines not all of the product categories were found to contain more rational than emotional appeals.

The fourth hypothesis examined was whether Greek news magazines contained a greater proportion of informative than non-informative advertisements for all product categories when compared to U.S. and British news magazines. The results indicate that Greek and British magazines were found to contain a greater proportion of informative than non-informative advertisements for all product categories. However, United States magazines were found to contain a greater proportion of informative than non-informative advertisements for all product categories except clothing and housing\real estate. Therefore, hypothesis four is accepted for Greek and British magazines, but rejected for U.S.

magazines.

The fifth hypothesis examined by this research project was whether Greek news magazines contained a greater overall proportion of informative than non-informative advertisements when compared to U.S. and British news magazines.

The analysis of the results indicates that for all three magazines, the proportion of informative advertisements is greater than the proportion of non-informative advertisements. The fifth hypothesis is therefore accepted. However, when the three magazines were contrasted, the observed differences among them might have been due to chance more than five times in a hundred. This simply means that there is no real difference in the proportions of informative and non-informative advertisements among Tachydromos, Time and Economist.

The sixth and final hypothesis examined was that performance and components or contents were two of the five informational cues that were used most often among Greek, U.S. and British news magazine advertisements.

The results show that packaging and shape was the informational cue that was used most often in Greek magazines (66.4%), followed by availability (43.7%), components or contents (42.6%), performance (33.6%), and price or value (5.4%). The same five cues were also found most often in U.S. and British magazines, but not in the same rank, with the exception of price or value, which ranked fifth for all three magazines. Specifically, for U.S. magazine advertisements components or contents was the cue that mentioned most often (49.3%), followed by packaging or shape (48%), performance (47.5%), availability

(36.8%), and price or value (15.7%). Finally, for British magazine advertisements performance was the cue that was used most often (68%), followed by availability (56.1%), components or contents (47.1%), packaging or shape (16%), and price or value (15.8%). These results generally support the sixth hypothesis that performance and components or contents were two of the five informational cues that were used most often among Greek, U.S. and British news magazine advertisements.

Conclusions

The results which emerged from the analysis of the data indicate that there are several significant differences in advertising expression and form among Greece, the United States and Great Britain. The first difference is that Greek magazine advertisements were found to contain a lower average of informational cues than U.S. and British magazine advertisements. A possible explanation for this may be that since there is a lower number of competing consumer products in Greece (given its small population) than in Britain and the United States, Greek advertisers choose to concentrate only on those product attributes that their research shows are the most important to Greek consumers. Another explanation for this result may be found in the fact that both the British and the American cultures are more information-intensive, where the consumer may require more rational informational cues about a product in order to purchase it. The Greek culture, however, is more emotion-intensive, in which case the consumers may be

conditioned to require fewer rational informational cues about the product.

Another difference suggested by the results of this study is that Greek magazines were found to use a greater proportion of emotional than rational appeals, while U.S. and British magazines used more rational than emotional appeals. This may be explained by the fact that both Britain and the United States have more information-intensive cultures, where the consumer may require more information and stimulation about a product in order to make a buying decision. Greek culture, on the other hand, is a more emotion-intensive culture, in which case the consumers may be conditioned to require more information about the emotional satisfaction they may receive from buying a product. Also, Greek consumers are generally exposed to a lower number of advertising messages per day than American or British consumers due to the availability of mass media. Therefore, it is possible that there is more intense competition by advertisers for the Greek consumer's attention, so Greek advertisers are forced to use emotional appeals which they consider more effective for a quick formation of a positive opinion about a product in the minds of Greek consumers.

It is interesting to note that for the specific product categories of home electronics, automobiles\car products, medicine, and services, the results show that all three nations' magazines contain more rational than emotional appeals. These products usually require larger amounts of money to purchase than consumables, which may mean that even in the emotion-intensive Greek culture such products are purchased more out of a need to satisfy practical and utility-

oriented needs.

Greek and British magazines were found to contain a greater proportion of informative than non-informative advertisements for all product categories. The same was found to be true for United States magazines except clothing and housing\real estate advertisements. A possible explanation for this may be that for the Greek and British cultures some objective information about a product is more desirable than no information at all, which may be slightly less true for image-conscious American buyers of clothing and housing\real estate.

However, the results of this research study suggest that there is no difference among the three magazines on the overall proportion of informative advertisements, which was found to be greater than the proportion of non-informative advertisements. This may mean that there are no real and significant differences in the proportions of informative and non-informative advertisements among the Greek, American, and British cultures.

Finally, the results of this study generally seem to suggest that performance and components or contents were two of the most common informational cues contained in the Greek, U.S. and British news magazine advertisements. This may mean that performance and components or contents are the two most sought-after pieces of information by consumers from all three cultures. Therefore, a possible similarity in consumer behavior emerges from this result. A possible explanation may be that the three cultures, however different, have some basic similarities in terms of consumer behavior, which is the result of an

internationalized "consumer culture" or a result of their common Western heritage.

Recommendations for Further Research

This content analysis may provide valuable information to international advertising and marketing decision makers who focus on the dilemma of advertising standardization versus localization around the world. To be successful in a global market, international advertisers must discern the differences before they address the similarities among countries.

The results of this study show that the distinct cultures of Greece, the United States, and the United Kingdom exert a tremendous influence on how a product is advertised. Therefore, it is unwise to simply translate advertising from American English to Greek or to British English. In contrast, it is possible to transform and adapt advertising campaigns, taking into account the cultural peculiarities of the three countries. Specifically, advertisers should note the differences in the use of rational versus emotional appeals, as well as the differences in the use of informational cues in advertisements for different product categories among Greece, the United States, and the United Kingdom.

However, it is important to note that the exposed differences in advertising expression may be the results of differences in the distribution systems, market performance or media availability among Greece, the United States, and the United Kingdom. A much larger number of advertisements from many

magazines, newspapers, as well as radio and television, must be examined in order to arrive at more conclusive results. Also, such a future examination must include advertisements used over a longer period of time in order to expose advertising expression changes over time.

It is strongly recommended that future research be conducted to identify the exact cultural differences that lead to the aforementioned differences in advertising expression among Greece, the United States, and the United Kingdom.

Additionally, environmental factors such as political and economic stability, media usage patterns, and product life-cycles must also be examined as factors responsible for advertising expression differences among countries. Other variables such as the frequency of use, effectiveness, and type of symbols used by advertisements must also be considered. Also, further research may be conducted to examine psychological factors that are the causes of differences in consumer behavior which in turn may cause differences in advertising expression among countries. Finally, advertisements from more than three countries must be examined in order to be able to generalize the results of this study. Future research by students and scholars might focus on emerging nations such as the former Communist nations of Europe now being introduced to capitalism.

In conclusion, this researcher hopes that multinational advertisers planning on operating in Greece can use the results of this study and draw some useful conclusions about the special demands the Greek culture places on the

development of advertising campaigns. Thus, effective advertising messages may be designed with the specific purpose of coinciding with the cultural norms of the Greek society in which they are to function.

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APPENDIX

EVALUATION CODING FORM

VITA 2

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Master of Science

**Thesis: A COMPARATIVE CONTENT ANALYSIS OF GREEK,
AMERICAN, AND BRITISH MAGAZINE ADVERTISING**

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