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ADVERTISING STANDARDIZATION BETWEEN AMERICAN AND
MEXICAN WOMEN'S MAGAZINES: A CONTENT ANALYSIS STUDY

A Thesis
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Master of Science
Degree
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Timothy E. Dumont
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ABSTRACT

For companies to be competitive in the global marketplace, it is crucial that they develop effective international advertising programs. Much of the research in this area centers around whether the economies of scale support the use of a standardized (globalized) international advertising approach; or, due to fundamental differences in culture, values and customs, whether it is more effective to adopt a nonstandardized (regionalized) strategy. As a starting point for gaining knowledge in this area, it is useful to assess the levels of standardization, or nonstandardization, being used in practice by international advertisers, which is the primary focus of this study.

Replicating the methodology of a content analysis study by Whitelock and Chung (1989), advertisements were compared from the 1989 issues of two American magazines, Goodhousekeeping and Vogue, with advertisements for the same products in the 1989 issues of Buenhogar, the Mexican version of Goodhousekeeping. The advertisements were compared based on the characteristics of picture, size, color, layout, headline, and copy. From the analysis of these factors, each pair of ads was assessed a degree of standardization score ranging from 0 to 10, with a 0 representing a case of total nonstandardization and 10 representing a case of total standardization, i.e., no differences in the ads.

The results of the analysis of the 24 unduplicated pairs of ads found that 58% had standardization scores of zero, or cases of total nonstandardization; 12.5%, with scores ranging from 4-5.5, were considered to be somewhat standardized; 17% of the pairs had scores of 6 and were considered to be standardized; and 12.5%, with scores ranging from 6.5-8 were considered to be highly standardized. No cases of total standardization, a score of 10, were discovered in this analysis. Another interesting finding of this study was that advertisements for products in the Perfume/Cologne, Make-up, and Face Cream/Lotion categories tended to be more highly standardized than ads for products in the Home Appliance Clothing, and Other categories.

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CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION

Technological and communication advances are bringing the world closer together. The era of a "global economy" seems to be upon us. One prime example of this direction is the much-awaited Single European Market, which is slated to begin in 1992. As these trends unfold, we see the continued rise of multinational corporations. For these companies to be successful, it is critical that they understand the cultures and values of the countries with which they intend to do business. What cultural or value differences could impede or expedite a successful business relationship? What are the marketing implications? Can companies advertise to peoples of different countries with the same advertising messages, or is it necessary to change the creative approach?

There are three prevailing schools of thought concerning the Cross-Culturalization of advertising: 1) The needs of the people are the same the world over and the same advertising messages can be used universally from one country to the next; 2) Each and every country is different and, not only must advertising be adjusted to meet varying social and cultural needs between different countries, but it must also be altered to deal with differences within the same country; and 3) Finally, for certain types of products, advertising can remain standardized among different cultural groups, but for other types of products aimed at other groups, changes must be made (Whitelock and Chung, 1989).

From the advertiser's standpoint, it is much more efficient to maintain the same creative message to all countries and cultural groups. As an advertiser begins to create different messages tailored to different groups, the costs of producing these advertisements go up accordingly. If, however, advertisers do not change their messages, they could find themselves offending peoples of other countries or, at the very least, having them misinterpret the meaning of the advertising.

The U.S. has been accused in past years of taking a monolithic approach to international advertising, toward Latin America in particular. The annals of marketing are littered with many colorful examples of US marketers' blunders in advertising to Hispanics. One brand name blunder committed by Chevrolet in marketing the Nova to Latin America serves as a classic example of the "shortsightedness" of US marketers. The word Nova translated into Spanish ("no-va") means it won't go. Hence, Chevrolet was trying to market a car whose brand name said it wouldn't run. In another example, an American toothpaste promised its customers that they would be more "interesting" if they used the firm's toothpaste. Unfortunately, "interesting" is a euphemism for being pregnant in some Latin countries (Valencia, 1985).

Pepsico also fell victim to inadequate research when it attempted to market its product to Latin America. A translation of "Catch the Pepsi Spirit" had major problems because the word spirit in Spanish has a much different meaning. "Espiritu" is normally associated with spirits from

the dead or evil that can hurt you (Newsweek, 1982). Frank Perdue of Perdue Chickens also had problems with the literal translation of his slogan, "It takes a tough man to make a tender chicken." In Spanish, the slogan was understood as, "It takes a sexually excited man to make a chick sensual." (Valencia, 1985)

Other translation blunders have occurred in marketing research, reports Valencia. A common error occurs with the translations being too literal. For example, an introductory statement of a questionnaire asked to speak to the head-of-the household. Imagine a literal household "head." Oftentimes, American marketers use stereotypes and their self-reference criterion for designing and judging strategies aimed at Hispanics. The self-reference criterion is an unconscious reference to one's own cultural values. Since Hispanic and "average American" values often differ, blunders occur. One beer company ad targeted to Hispanics featured a supposedly "macho" male with his arm around a girl, a beer in one hand and a taco in the other. Not surprisingly, Hispanics found this degrading stereotype offensive (as if all a Hispanic male wants is sex, drink, and food). (Gilliam, 1982)

Need for This Study

International companies clearly have much to learn about marketing their products and services to foreign countries, Latin America in particular. A crucial first step in determining the most effective methods of marketing to foreign countries is to document the levels of

standardization that companies have utilized in past international advertising efforts, which is the primary focus of this thesis.

CHAPTER II.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The questions of whether to standardize or localize advertising programs across countries, and whether indeed advertising currently is standardized in practice, have fueled much research. The following literature review takes a chronological look (beginning with the most recent) at research in this area.

In an effort to help marketers improve their performance in their international marketing efforts, knowing when to globalize or localize marketing practices; Wills, Samli, and Jacobs (1991) have developed a global product and marketing strategy development decision model. In this model, the following dimensions are incorporated: 1) learning, 2) involvement, 3) diffusion-adoption, and 4) culture context. The successful development of international products and marketing strategies, according to these researchers, lies in being global while acting locally. The implementation of this challenge begins with an understanding of international markets at the macro level and consumer behavior.

A recent study by Sriram and Gopalakrishna (1991) sought to determine whether a standardized approach could be implemented among countries that were similar in terms of economics, culture, and media availability and usage. Forty countries were clustered into six groups

within each of which standardization of advertising campaigns was attempted. Discriminant analysis supported the use of this clustering technique; however, the researchers caution that the results of this study are preliminary in nature.

A new technique called 'Global Scan Survey' is providing invaluable data for international advertising researchers. (American Demographics, 1990) Global Scan is an annual report which studies the behavior and attributes of a 15,000 person sample covering the US and 13 foreign countries. Findings indicate that while consumers in the US and abroad have become closer in behavior and attributes, significant differences still remain, hence a totally standardized approach to advertising would not be recommended. Another interesting finding of the study was the emergence of a common framework for measuring consumers across countries. The study purports that "five common segments have emerged: Strivers, Achievers, Pressured, Adapters, and Traditionals." These five distinct groups provide a comprehensive basis by which to study consumer preferences around the world.

In an article by Chan (1990), the process of international branding is studied. The study looks specifically at the brand name, "that part of a brand which can be vocalized--the utterable" rather than all the components of a brand. The study looks at what multinational corporations must do to localize their brand names in foreign countries, specifically, localized Chinese names of foreign brands in Hong Kong. The framework for analyzing brand localization for this study focuses on

three dimensions of the names themselves: 1) Length (the physical appearance of the brand name); 2) pronunciation (the spoken part of the brand name); and 3) connotation (the implied meaning of the brand). Findings indicated that "sampled brand names in Chinese/Cantonese are found to be of reasonable length, easily pronounceable, and to contain either positive or neutral connotations." For example, translation of a brand of cigarette, 'Mild Seven', into Cantonese is very similar in pronunciation and length, but it literally means 'to be prosperous in every deed'. A brand name of mattress, 'Simmons', also has a very similar pronunciation in Cantonese, but its literal meaning is 'mat-dream-meditation'.

Another study which looks at the question of international branding (Rosen, Boddewyn and Louis, 1989) takes a different perspective on this issue. The penetration and standardization of US brands on a global scale is examined by conducting a survey of the 10 most-heavily advertised brands, by product category, according to the Leading National Advertisers (1984). A random sampling was conducted of 100 consumer goods categories. In total, 1,000 brands were selected. Results showed that, "while some 66% of the responding brands were used abroad and most were internationally standardized, about 80% of sales still came from the US." The study goes on to purport that the seeming "omnipresence" of US products globally may be more due to a few brands such as Coca-Cola and McDonald's rather than wide distribution of many products. One implication of this study to advertisers and marketers who

are considering a global approach might be to reexamine whether it would be wiser to intensify efforts domestically.

A study by Verhage, Dahringer and Cundiff (1989) looked at the standardization of marketing across four nations based on their attitudes and behaviors toward energy conservation. The results of the study indicated that similar market segments, in attitudes and behavior, did exist across the four countries indicated. And, within specific market segments, a standardized approach could be effective. The authors go on to stress, however, that a single global strategy aimed at all groups would not be effective.

In a study by Jain (1989), the author synthesizes works, both theoretical and empirical, to produce a model for making marketing standardization decisions. The study purports that standardization contains two aspects: "marketing *program* and marketing *process*. The term 'program' refers to various aspects of the marketing mix and 'process' implies tools that aid in the program development and implementation." One strong recommendation made by the study is not to take a standardized or regionalized approach, but rather to determine the "degree of standardization." And, only by looking at target market (geographic area and economic factors), market position (market development, market conditions, and competition), nature of product (type of product and product positioning), environmental factors (physical, legal, and political environments, and marketing infrastructure), and organizational factors (corporate orientation, headquarters-subsidary

relationship, and delegation of authority) can a degree of standardization program be assessed.

A content analysis study by Whitelock and Chung (1989), which analyzed differences in advertisements for products that appeared in women's magazines in France and the UK, showed that the majority of advertisers used a partially standardized approach rather than either extreme. For this study, Whitelock and Chung developed a model for testing standardization which analyzed the ads as they appeared: picture, headline, layout, copy, etc. The results of their analysis showed that 13.5% of the ads were cases of total standardization, i.e., no difference; 69.2% of the pairs of ads analyzed were partially standardized, and 17.3% were cases of total nonstandardization, i.e., no elements of the ads were the same.

Deciding between a globalized or regionalized international advertising strategy may be a moot point in some situations (Boddewyn, 1988). Many countries require pre-approval of advertising messages by government agencies. Hence, an advertising approach that is accepted in one country may be outlawed in another country. For example, the mentioning of a competitor's name in an advertisement is strictly prohibited in some countries. Another area of concern is sales promotion: "Many countries place severe restrictions on the use of promotions, such as coupons, free samples, and sweepstakes." The article suggests that for companies advertising globally: "1) have their legal counsel carefully check foreign advertising restrictions, 2) monitor and oppose regulations

and taxes that restrict advertising, and 3) support the worldwide move toward advertising self-regulation."

A survey of successful multi-national corporations (MNC) who employed international advertising strategies sought to: 1) determine the levels of standardization being utilized, 2) identify determinants of the transferability of advertising, and 3) identify demographic variables (Hite and Fraser, 1988). Of the firms that advertised internationally, 54% used a combination strategy of standardizing or localizing advertising for some foreign markets. Only 9% used totally standardized advertising for all foreign markets, and 37% reported using all localized advertising. When assessing the transferability of promotional campaigns, most advertising firms rated acceptance of trademarks and brand names as the most important factor. Other factors included: 1) levels of education of the consumers, 2) attitudes toward the US, 3) the degree of nationalism, and 4) the competence of personnel in foreign offices.

Another survey attempting to measure the extent to which multinational corporations may be using standardized advertising approaches was conducted by Ryans (1987). The guiding variables were target markets and product positioning, while the strategy variables were campaign objectives, campaign themes, and media objectives. The survey instrument used was designed to measure actual practice with respect to the standardization of advertising. The final sample included 34 usable responses, a response rate of 23%. In contrast to the findings of previous studies, the results revealed relatively high levels of standardization by

the firms in the sample across all the relevant variables. An interesting finding was the high standardization of creative execution (visual). Cultural similarity was found to be related to the extent of standardization, at least for some of the variables.

Johnstone and Kaynak (1987) investigated cross-cultural and cross-national differences in marketing communications through an analysis of television commercials selected from six different channels--three in Maine and three in the Maritime region of Canada. The commercials were selected randomly on each day of the week, and bilingual judges were asked to use 14 criteria to determine whether an advertisement was informative or noninformative. Results indicated that 68.2% of ads were informative on at least one cue level and 25.7% were informative on two or more cues. The data also indicate that French-Canadian TV commercials contain more information than US TV commercials.

A study investigated advertising executives' perceptions of the importance of culture in international advertising, as well as advertising message approaches used by international corporations (Kanso, 1987). It was hypothesized that more nonculturally oriented managers would agree to the use of the same creative strategies to advertise in both domestic and foreign markets than would culturally oriented managers. The sample consisted of 118 firms from the 1985 Fortune magazine directory of the 500 largest industrial companies; of these, 96 international advertising

managers whose companies' business networks represented 120 countries, completed a mailed questionnaire.

The hypothesis was supported. Findings indicated that two groups of advertising managers emerged from the analysis of data: culturally oriented managers and nonculturally oriented managers. In designing messages for foreign markets, culturally oriented managers emphasize the use of diverse frames of reference through the use of varied message content, layout, symbols, appeals, and themes, as opposed to managers who use the same message elements regardless of any particular country or situation. The results also indicated that about 75% of the firms followed a localized approach in their international advertising campaigns, and that the use of a standardized approach seems to be decreasing.

The advertising/marketing strategies of autonomous subsidiaries of a large multinational corporation were examined using a case study of a US firm. (Diamantopoulos, 1987) The data used came from questionnaires completed by 23 subsidiaries of the US firm. Cluster analysis was used to derive four different classifications of firms. Classification variables included: macroeconomic, cultural, microeconomic, and organizational variables. Marketing variables were divided into two major classes, one describing the overall marketing mix, the other describing the promotional mix. The analysis was unable to detect any systematic difference in the marketing operations of the 23

subsidiaries, and the study offers three possible reasons for this result:

- 1) executives responsible for marketing decisions at the subsidiary level,
- 2) buying behavior in the countries concerned, and 3) past strategic choices.

Onkvisit and Shaw (1987), in an article that looked at both sides of the advertising standardization issue, reported that it is almost impossible to prove the superiority or inferiority of advertising standardization, and research studies have yielded conflicting results. Managers should decide whether or not to standardize based on whether the approach is feasible, given environmental restrictions and whether it is desirable given: 1) cost savings, 2) communication effectiveness, and 3) consumer homogeneity. "Until the world adopts a single language and currency, it is premature to accept the sweeping generalization of the standardized approach," the researchers add.

A study examining the feasibility of the global approach to international advertising (Huszagh, Fox and Day, 1986) sought to identify: 1) similar foreign markets, 2) those products exhibiting similar acceptance rates as measured by penetration or consumer expenditure within similar markets, and 3) fundamental product characteristics that can explain acceptance rates. Results indicated that the potential for global marketing does exist for specific product categories in the countries analyzed. While nondurable, sensory and personal product categories do have more potential for global marketing, many exceptions

emerged. Also, substitutability, enhanced by essentialness emerged as a meaningful characteristic of the potential global product.

A study by Steinberg (1987) attempted to show whether or not psychological meaning can be used to help answer the standardized vs. regionalized question in respect to international marketing. Specifically, Steinberg investigates whether the free-association method (first introduced by Freud) could provide insight as to which product attributes were paramount in consumers' minds. Results indicated, however, that this psychological meaning method, by itself, was too unreliable to be of use to international marketing managers. Steinberg adds that the technique may be extremely valuable, however, when combined with other market research techniques, e.g., conjoint analysis. "In conjoint analysis, consumers are asked to make judgements about relevant product attributes." Methods of determining relevant product attributes include: focus groups, interviews, etc. Steinberg also suggests that this method could be useful in uncovering possible changes in product attributes of products currently being distributed in international markets.

Farley (1986) purports that meta-analysis, or generalized marketing knowledge, holds potential for creating real fundamental knowledge from a collection of disparate and sometimes seemingly contradictory results, all of which will benefit international advertising efforts. In spite of observable differences in markets worldwide, marketers should look for parallel similarities of buyer response. Applications of meta-analysis show that Europeans are more responsive

to advertising than Americans, and advertising as a percent of sales of advertisable products is growing faster in the developing world.

According to a study by Patzer (1985), understanding the effects of physical attractiveness can increase international marketing effectiveness. Research has shown, Patzer purports, that physical attractiveness: 1) is an informational cue, 2) is subtle and inescapable, 3) transcends culture in its effects, and 4) produces verifiable differences. He claims that marketers can use this knowledge in the design, promotion, and implementation of marketing strategies to overcome international customers' perceptual barriers.

An article by Harris (1984), failed to show support for a totally standardized approach. The study examined the validity of four arguments in favor of the the globalization of a product's advertising efforts: "1) A single message worldwide strengthens a brand's image and its sales performance; 2) Markets all over the world are becoming increasingly alike in their demand characteristics; 3) The marketing skills in a firm's headquarters are under-utilized unless applied internationally; and 4) There are sufficiently significant economies of scale to justify globalization." Harris' analysis failed to show any "theoretical rationale or any sort of priori rational for advertising integration." Harris purports that "only in rare cases" does there appear to be any economic logic in standardizing advertising across the globe. Harris goes on to suggest that "the risks of advertising standardization are many, while the perceived benefits remain insubstantial." Where consumer response patterns are

shown to be similar, he adds, some standardization of global marketing strategies can be adopted, preferably on a market-by-market basis rather than on the assumption that a homogeneous world market can be broken down into units.

An article by Levitt (1983) provides strong support for the concept of a completely globalized approach to international advertising. He cites international success stories such as McDonald's, Coca-Cola and others to support his view. Beyond the usual arguments for implementing global advertising strategies, such as economies of scale, universality, etc., Levitt asserts that technology is fueling a new commercial reality. Technology, argues Levitt, is driving the entire globe toward a converging commonality. He goes on to recommend that, "companies must learn to operate as if the world were one large market--ignoring superficial regional and national differences."

Finally, a study by Hornik (1980) investigated the "standardization dilemma" by a comparison between American advertisements and Israeli-designed ads for the same US products advertised in Israel. From this analysis, an attempt was made to detect differences in strategy and creative approaches and to understand the reasons guiding these differences. All of the advertisements reviewed came from national Israeli magazines. Results indicated that there were differences between the two groups of ads, however, "findings suggest the localization of advertising themes in most cases investigated," i.e., American models were changed to Israeli models, or a familiar American landscape would

be changed to an Israeli landscape. But when the advertising strategy itself called for an international appeal (Faberge--international celebrity), to promote a world-wide corporate image and/or the appeal itself has a common international connotation (Coca-Cola--appetizing appeal), standardization might be employed.

Chapter Summary

The questions of whether advertising is currently being standardized or regionalized, and whether one approach is superior to another are only beginning to be discovered. With the rapidly changing climate of the world and international markets, even current research becomes obsolete quickly. After reviewing the studies contained in this literature review, it is nearly impossible to establish any international standardization trends. From the majority of the studies (particularly within the past five years), however, it does appear that international advertisers are pursuing regionalized strategies, crafted to fit the local marketing and consumer landscapes, more often than single globalized approaches.

On the more difficult question of whether one approach is more effective than another, the current research seems to indicate that, in general, a more regionalized approach is superior--that the "economies of scale" of a global approach do not appear to be more economical, at least in terms of increased sales and communication effectiveness. The savvy international advertising manager must take many factors into

consideration before choosing one approach over another--there are no "cut and dried" answers. Perhaps the most important tool for the successful international advertising practitioner is an "open mind."

CHAPTER III.

METHODOLOGY

It was the original intent of this research, through a content analysis study of similar American and Latin-American women's magazines (Good Housekeeping and Buenhogar) to assess, at least for these specific vehicles, the levels of advertising standardization which existed during 1989. Advertising standardization is operationally defined as: "whether, or to what extent, advertising messages are changed from one country to another." (Whitelock and Chung, 1989)

Goodhousekeeping is published by Hearst magazines. The editorial content centers primarily around household, decorating, recipe and cooking types of articles. The magazine's main audience is female homemakers. The majority of the advertisements found in Goodhousekeeping are for products in the household goods, home appliance, and food categories. Buenhogar ("good housekeeping" in Spanish) is licensed by Hearst, but the editorial and advertising offices are separate and located in Mexico. Buenhogar contains a wider range of articles than its American counterpart. In addition to household/recipe type articles, Buenhogar also runs more celebrity/gossip type stories. The advertising is also different from Goodhousekeeping's. While Buenhogar contains advertisements for household/food products, it also contains many more perfume/beauty type ads not found in Goodhousekeeping. As a result of these differences between the two

magazines, a large portion of potentially comparable ads, particularly in the perfume and beauty categories, was being ignored. One possible explanation for this is that the magazine industry in Mexico is less segmented than in the US. Hence, Buenhogar in Mexico is targeted at a wider segment of women.

Due to this finding, it was decided that a "two to one" comparison, the 1989 issues of Goodhousekeeping and Vogue compared to the 1989 issues of Buenhogar, would allow for a more comprehensive analysis, as well as a higher number of total pairs of ads to be reviewed. The fashion magazine Vogue was chosen for several reasons: first, all of the 1989 issues were able to be obtained for analysis; second, the researcher felt that Vogue, a noted fashion magazine, would contain an ample amount of perfume and beauty type ads to compare with those similar type ads in Buenhogar.

Research Questions

1. To what extent were advertisements for products, which appeared in both the 1989 issues of Goodhousekeeping and Buenhogar, or Vogue and Buenhogar, standardized or non-standardized in terms of layout, artwork, copy, etc.?
2. What trends existed, if any, regarding the levels of standardization for certain product types in these publications (i.e., were ads for various product types more/less standardized than ads for other categories)?

This study attempted to answer these research questions by replicating the methodology of a 1989 study by Whitelock and Chung, "Cross-Cultural Advertising: An Empirical Study," International Journal of Advertising. In particular, this thesis attempted to utilize their model for testing advertising standardization to analyze the magazine advertisements in this study.

The major reason for replicating Whitelock and Chung's methodology was that the researcher felt that this was an excellent way of accomplishing the research objectives. The researcher believed that what Whitelock and Chung were able to do, by looking at magazines in France and the UK, was very transferrable to magazines in the US and Mexico. Furthermore, the methodology used by Whitelock and Chung was deemed to be logistically and financially feasible for this thesis research.

Advertisements in print media were measured since they could be evaluated accurately over time, January - December 1989. Broadcast media were not chosen because of the inaccessibility of obtaining Latin-American programming. It would have also been difficult to ensure that all advertisements were assessed over a given time period (Whitelock and Chung). Furthermore, by choosing print publications, it is theorized that a more effective assessment could be made of those advertisements aimed at a specific group, as compared to more general types of ads which appear in the broadcast media.

This study was restricted to women's magazines. The rationale for this was that the advertisements which were compared were intended for a recognizable, measurable, and similar target market in different cultures (Whitelock, Chung, 1989).

The Whitelock and Chung study also qualified the advertisements to be examined as those for a specific group of products in the perfume and beauty categories. The major reason for choosing these categories is because:

"one of the arguments which has been cited in favor of standardized advertising is that people's needs and desires are the same the world over. The desire of women to be beautiful is given as a particular example of such a need and it is hypothesized that products designed to meet this need would represent a category where standardized advertising could be expected to be found." (Whitelock, Chung, 1989)

It should be noted that the magazines analyzed in Whitelock and Chung, e.g., Marie-Claire, contained more ads for beauty products than were anticipated in the magazines for this study. Hence, because of the lower anticipated number of advertisements for strictly "beauty" products, it was decided that all same-product advertisements be analyzed, regardless of product category. Further, by expanding the number of product categories being analyzed, it was possible to make a comparison across different product categories.

Since the prime objective of this research was to ascertain whether advertisements were standardized in practice, the study has taken as its starting point a comparison of advertisements as they

appeared. It is recognized that this cannot accommodate the policy or intention of the advertisers, but it was the view of the researchers (Whitelock and Chung) after which this methodology was replicated, that the latter are difficult to measure and compare. It was possible, however, by utilizing Whitelock and Chung's model to go "some way" towards measuring the comparability of the advertisements themselves.

A Model for Testing Standardization

The model used in this study is an algorithm (see Figure 1) for evaluating the degree of standardization of advertisements (Whitelock and Chung, 1989). This method takes into consideration the following differences in advertisements:

picture
size
color
general layout
headline
explanatory text

A score was given for each difference.

"No attempt was made to measure the fundamental message of the advertisements compared, since knowledge of the intention of the advertiser and research into the consumers' understanding of each advertisement would be required before any valid measurement or comparison could be undertaken." (Whitelock and Chung).

Picture

Given that the measurement model was tested on print media, an initial point of comparison was whether the pair of advertisements shared a

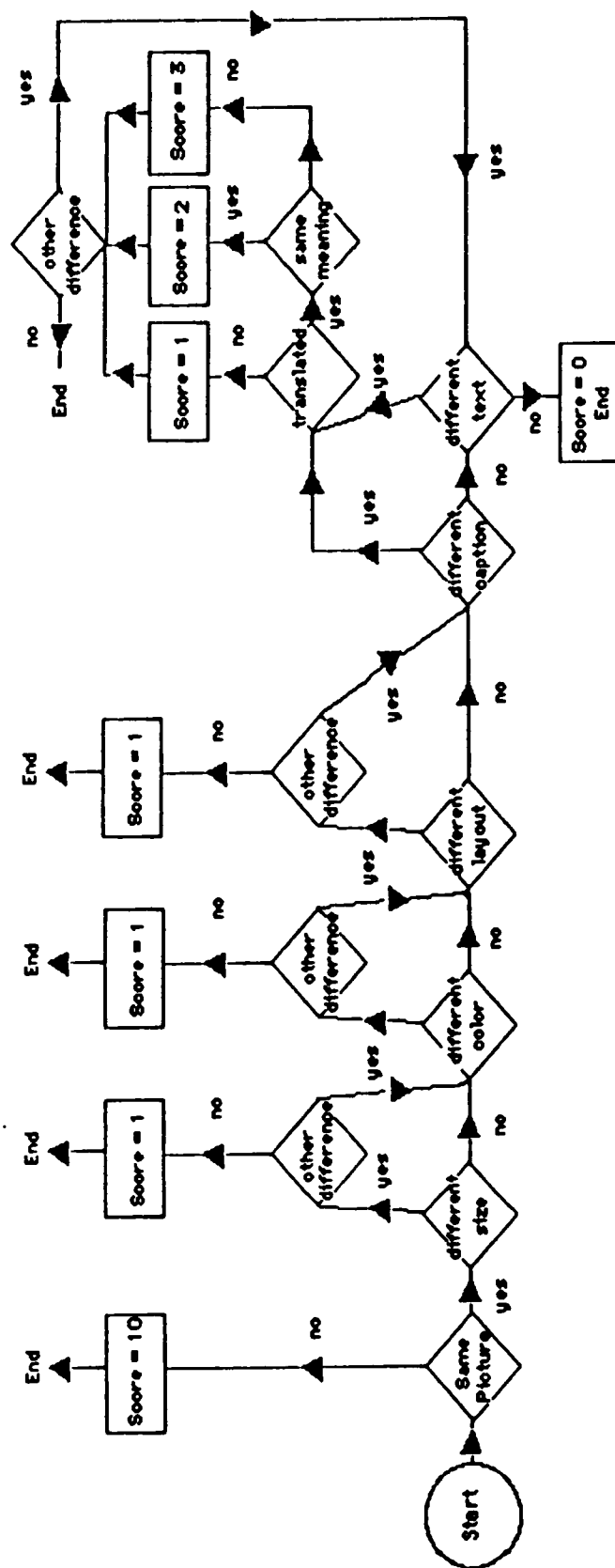


Figure 1: Algorithm for evaluating the degree of advertising standardization

common picture. The picture or photograph is "arguably" the single most important element in print advertisements. Similarities of copy with different pictures would, arguably, result in an advertisement that was essentially "non-standardized." For this reason, advertisements with different pictures were considered to be cases of total non-standardization and given a maximum score of ten.

Size, color, general layout

Each of these differences was given a score of one.

Headline

Regarding differences in the headlines, three possibilities may have arisen:

- i) The headline is different, but the language remains the same. The score is one.
- ii) The headline is written in the language appropriate to the country. The score is two.
- iii) The headline is written in the language appropriate to the country and the meaning is different. The score is three.

Note: The higher the score, the less standardized is the headline of the advertisement.

Explanatory text

This is similar to the headline. The total maximum score for differences in size, color, general layout, headline and explanatory text can be nine:

- 1 for size
- 1 for color
- 1 for general layout
- 3 for headline
- 3 for explanatory text.

The model was used by noting all the scores of the advertisements. From the sum of the scores, the degree of standardization of the advertisements was determined from the following equation:

$$\text{Degree of standardization} = 10 - \text{total score.}$$

Thus, a value of ten would constitute a case of total standardization. Correspondingly, a value of zero would represent a case of no standardization at all. Therefore, the higher the value the more standardized is the advertisement (Whitelock, Chung, 1989).

Two coders were used to test for bias and to establish intercoder reliability. This was achieved by the second coder coding the same advertisements that were coded by the first coder. The results obtained by the two coders were then compared to establish intercoder reliability. It should also be noted that both coders have excellent command of the Spanish language and have taken at least three years Spanish at the college level and have traveled in Latin-America or other Spanish-speaking countries.

For demonstrative purposes, two sets of advertisements were coded and scored. The ads that have been coded represent two different examples on the standardization scale. The first ads that were assessed, for Whirlpool washing machines (see Whirlpool ads and corresponding coding instruments in Appendix A), represented a case of total

nonstandardization. Because the pictures were not the same, the ads were instantly assessed a score of 10, and $10 - \text{the score (10 in this case)} = 0$, which represents a case of total nonstandardization.

The second pair of ads, for Anais Anais Perfume (see Anais Anais ads and corresponding coding instrument in Appendix B), are highly standardized, although not a case of total standardization. The same picture is used in the ads, hence, no points are assessed. The size of the ads is also the same, both constitute full page ads; no points are assessed. Regarding color, while the tone of the colors may appear to be slightly different, it is the judgement of the coder that the colors are the same, no points assessed. The general layout is also determined to be the same, no points assessed. The headlines are the same, the same language used with the same wording. The copy of the ads is translated, but it is judged to convey the same meaning in both languages. The points assessed for the copy being translated but having the same meaning are 2, which are the only points assessed for the this example. The is scoring for this ad then is $10 - 2$ (translated copy with the same meaning) which equals 8.

In summary, the Whirlpool ads represented a case of total non-standardization, or a score of 0. The Anais Anais ads, with a score of 8, would be categorized as "highly standardized." Obviously, the higher the score, the more standardized the ads, with a score of 10 representing a case of total standardization, or no differences in the two ads.

CHAPTER IV.

RESULTS

The analysis of the complete 1989 issues of Goodhousekeeping and Vogue compared with the complete 1989 issues of Buenhogar, produced twenty-four unduplicated (39 with duplicates) same-product pairs of ads. Seventeen pairs of ads were obtained from Vogue and Buenhogar, or 70%, and 7 pairs were obtained from Goodhousekeeping and Buenhogar, or 30% (See Tables 1 and 2).

The results of the coding of these 24 unduplicated pairs of ads showed that over half (See figure 2), 14 (58%), had standardization scores of zero, or cases of total-nonstandardization. (Note: the ads were rated on a 0-10 scale with 0 representing a case of total non-standardization and 10 representing a case of total standardization). Three cases (12.5%), with scores ranging from 4 to 5.5, were categorized as somewhat standardized. Four cases (17%), all with scores of 6, were considered to be standardized. And the remaining three cases (12.5%) with scores ranging from 6.5-8 were considered to be highly standardized. No cases of total standardization, a score of 10, were discovered in this analysis. With regard to product name, 21 out of 24 (88%) maintained the same product name--in only 3 cases were the product names altered.

The product categories which were listed on the coding instrument (See sample coding instrument in Appendix A) were collapsed into eight

Table 1: Results of ads in Vogue and Buenhogar

Vogue: Name	Buenhogar: Name	Product Category	Std Score
Anais Anais	Same	Perfume/Cologne	8
Guerlain	Same	Perfume/Cologne	7
Lancome Systeme	Same	Face Cream/Lotion	6.5
Carolina Herrera	Same	Perfume/Cologne	6
Eliz Arden Immunage	Same	Face Cream/Lotion	6
Eliz Arden Micro 2000	Same	Face Cream/Lotion	6
Eliz Arden 2brush	Same	Make-up	6
Revlon Anti-age	Same	Face Cream/Lotion	5
Eliz Arden Visible Diff	Same	Face Cream/Lotion	4
Buf Puf	Same	Clean/Makeup Removal	0
CK Sport	CK Zapatos Sport	Clothing	0
Cutex	Same	Clean/Makeup Removal	0
Eliz Arden Lipstick	Same	Make-up	0
Eyeserum	Aquaserum	Face Cream/Lotion	0
Ludiderm	Same	Body Cream/Lotion	0
North Beach	Same	Clothing	0
Vanity Fair	Same	Clothing	0

Median Score: 4**Table 2: Results of ads in Goodhousekeeping and Buenhogar**

Goodhouse: Name	Buenhogar: Name	Product Category	Std Score
Les Blondissimes	Same	Hair Color	5.5
Kodak	Same	Other: Film	0
Loreal Advantage	Loreal Dedicace	Hair Color	0
Nivea	Same	Body cream/lotion	0
Osterizer	Same	Home appliance	0
Presto Salad Shoot	Same	Home Appliance	0
Whirlpool	Same	Home Appliance	0

Median Score: 0

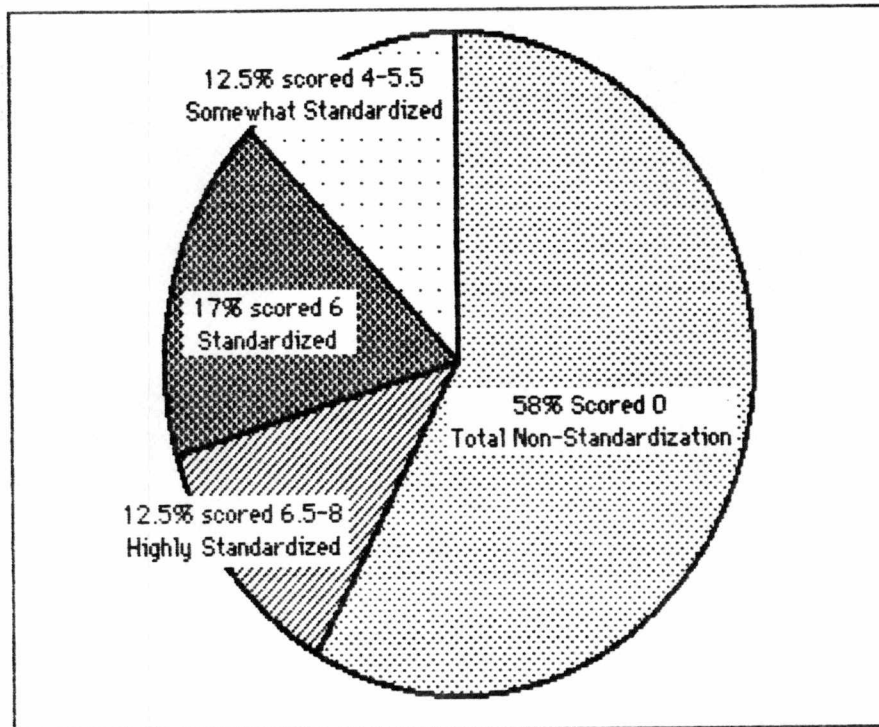


Figure 2: Breakdown of Standardization Scores

general categories as follows: 1) Perfume/Cologne, 2) Face Cream/Lotion, 3) Make-up, 4) Hair Color, 5) Cleanser/Make-up Removal, 6) Clothing, 7) Home Appliances, and 8) Other.

An analysis of the mean standardization scores by product category (see Figure 3) revealed that the Perfume/Cologne category had the highest average score, 7, which accounted for three pairs of ads, or 12.5%. The Face Cream/Lotion category, which accounted for 25% of the ads analyzed, or seven pairs, had a mean score of 4.6. The Make-up category, which accounted for two pairs of ads, or 8.3%, had a mean score of 3.0. The Hair Color category, which also contained 2 pairs of ads, had a mean standardization score of 2.75. The Cleanser/Make-up Removal, Clothing,

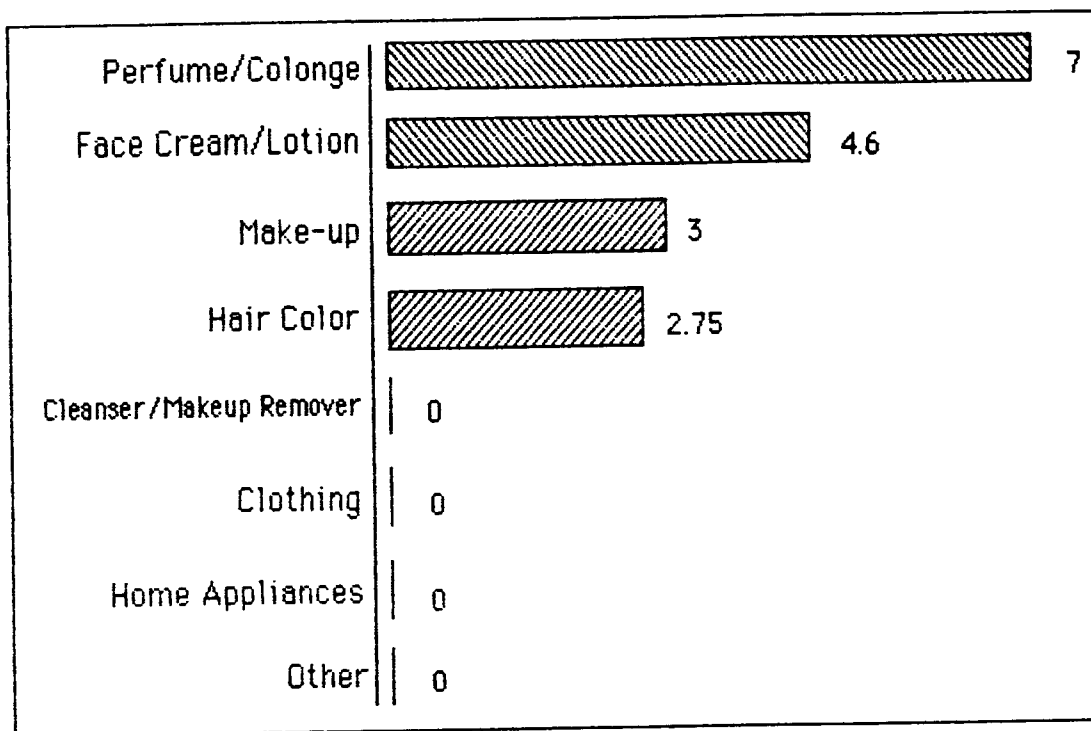


Figure 3: Mean Standardization Scores by Product Category

Home Appliances, and Other categories, which accounted for 8.3%, 12.5%, 12.5%, and 4.2% respectively of the ads analyzed, all had mean standardization scores of zero.

Reviewing the differences in ad sizes, of the 24 pairs analyzed, 14 (58%) were the same size and 10 (42%) were different sizes. Of those pairs that were different, it was found that in eight out of 10 cases the English version was larger than the Spanish. In only two cases were the Spanish ads larger. Regarding the characteristic of color, it was exactly even with 12 pairs (50%) of ads using the same colors and the other 12 using different colors. Eighteen cases (75%) were judged to have differences in terms of general layout, i.e., placement of copy, headline,

artwork, etc, while the remaining 25% were coded as having the same general layout.

The majority (79%) of the ads were found to have different headlines, while only 21% (5 pairs) had the same headlines (same headline is defined as no differences at all, i.e., both versions' headlines are in the same language using exactly the same wording). On the question of headline translation, only those five pairs mentioned above, which were deemed to have the same headlines, were not translated. The remaining 19 pairs' (79%) headlines were translated. These two findings highlight the point that no cases existed where the language used in the headlines was the same but the meaning was different. Of those 19 headlines which were translated, 10 of those were judged to have same meaning in Spanish and English, while the other nine were found to have different meanings.

All of the 20 (out of 24) pairs of ads that contained copy were found to be different. And, as with the headlines above, no cases existed in which the language used was the same but the meaning was different--all were translated. Of these, 10 pairs were judged to have the same meanings, and the other half were judged to have different meanings.

Results of Intercoder Reliability Analysis

The results of the intercoder reliability revealed that out of the 264 total questions (11 questions multiplied by 24, the number of unduplicated pairs ads analyzed) to which the two coders responded, 252

of the responses were the same. This gives an intercoder reliability of 95.4%. It should be noted, however, that this reliability score may be somewhat inflated because of the low number of response options contained in the coding instrument, i.e., the majority of the questions were "yes/no", hence it is possible that some of the "same" responses to the questions on the survey were due to chance. If the coding instrument had contained more "scaled" questions, for example, it is expected that the intercoder reliability would have been lower.

CHAPTER V.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The majority of same-product ads, 58%, were scored as zero, or cases of total nonstandardization. This result indicates that advertisers, in general, did not standardize, or globalize, their advertising messages between these Mexican and American magazines during 1989. They did appear, however, to maintain at least a universal thread in their ads with the finding that 88% of the ads used the same product name. In only three cases was the product name altered, and in those cases only slightly.

These levels of standardization, or nonstandardization, did not appear to be equal across product categories. The results of this study clearly show that advertisements for products in the Perfume/Beauty and Make-up categories were much more standardized than products in other categories such as Home Appliances, Clothing, etc. This is illustrated in Figure 3 in the Results section. (The higher the mean standardization score for the product category, the more likely a standardized approach was implemented.)

One of the most surprising results of this research was that 17 pairs (70%) of the ads analyzed were found in Vogue and Buenhogar, while only 7 pairs (30%) were found in Goodhousekeeping and Buenhogar. This result is particularly surprising considering the fact that Buenhogar is the Spanish version of Goodhousekeeping. Another surprising discovery was that the 17 pairs of ads compared between Vogue and Buenhogar

produced a median standardization score of 4, while the median score of the Goodhousekeeping and Buenhogar ads was zero. This is most likely explained by the fact that the standardization scores for ads in the Beauty/Make-up categories, contained primarily in Vogue, were much higher. Goodhousekeeping's seven pairs of ads were mostly in the Home Appliance type categories.

Another interesting finding of this study was the number of ads for "familiar" American/International products contained in Buenhogar which were not found in either Goodhousekeeping or Vogue. Everyday items such as Post-it Notes and Head and Shoulders shampoo, etc. were not found in the American magazines (see Table 3). There are several possible explanations. First, due to the relatively short time span of the data set, one year, it is very possible that if issues before or after 1989 were reviewed, ads for these familiar products would be discovered in Vogue or Goodhousekeeping. A second explanation is that these products were being advertised in other magazines, or perhaps other media, during this period. Another conceivable explanation, for at least some of the

Table 3: Partial list of familiar US/International brands found in Buenhogar but not found in Goodhousekeeping or Vogue

Bacardi Rum	Carnation Evap. Milk	Coffee-Mate
Corningware	French's Black Pepper	Head & Shoulders
Marlboro	Pond's	Post-it Notes
Royal Gelatin	Tampax Tampons	Vaseline

products, is that the products were simply at different stages of development in their respective countries. Coffee-Mate, Head and Shoulders, and Carnation Evaporated milk, for example, which are so well-known in this country that they are almost approaching the point of being generic, may simply not be advertised any longer. To help answer these questions, the 1989 Leading National Advertisers Index (LNA) was consulted.

It was found that Bacardi Rum, Coffee-Mate, Marlboro, Post-it Notes, Tampax and Vaseline were advertised in magazines and other media, but apparently not in either Goodhousekeeping or Vogue for the year in question. Corningware was advertised in outdoor, network TV, spot TV and cable, but there was no expenditure for magazine advertising in 1989. Royal Gelatin and Ponds were not found in LNA.

In support of a possible "generic" theory, it was found that while Carnation and Head and Shoulders products were advertised quite heavily in 1989 in all types of media, the specific brands, for which ads were found in Buenhogar (Carnation Evaporated Milk and Head & Shoulders "Regular" Formula Shampoo), showed no expenditures listed. The listing for Head & Shoulders, for example, only showed expenditures for its "Conditioning" Formula.

Limitations

In considering the outcome of this study, several limitations must be pointed out. First, this study only looks at three magazines, which are

aimed at women. It is very possible that if this study looked at publications aimed at a different target market, or even different women's magazines, these results could vary widely. Another limitation of this study is that it only looks at one year, 1989. If another time period was examined, again, the results could be very different. Hence, it is impossible to establish any trends or generalize these results. Another problem with making any kind of generalizations from these findings is the fact that only one medium was examined, magazines. It would be invalid to assume that the same levels of standardization would persist in TV, radio, newspapers, and others.

Another limitation was discovered in using Whitelock and Chung's model for testing advertising standardization--specifically the portion of the model which states that advertisements with different pictures would be considered cases of total nonstandardization, regardless of the similarity of headline, copy, layout or any other factors. This researcher feels that there were certain pairs of ads analyzed in this study, that although they did have different pictures, and hence were scored as 0 according to W&C's model, they were certainly not cases of total nonstandardization. A prime example is the pair of ads discovered for Guerlain Issima aquaserum (See Appendix C). The pictures are most definitely different, but the color, size and general layout are all the same. The headline and copy are translated, but the meanings are the same in both ads. Granted there are differences between the two ads, but there are also many similarities. Hence, assessing a score of zero in this example, and labeling these ads as a case of total nonstandardization

seems misleading to this researcher. Should this model for testing standardization be replicated in future studies, perhaps some logical modifications could be made to the model to avoid situations such as the aforementioned. It should be qualified, however, that some limitations are inherent in any model. No model can test for all variables, in all situations.

A final limitation of this study relates to various assumptions that the author made about the magazine industries in the US and Mexico. The first assumption was that it was valid to make a comparison between Goodhousekeeping and Buenhogar based solely on the fact that Buenhogar is the Spanish version of Goodhousekeeping. It was further assumed, after it became apparent that there actually very few same product advertisements between Goodhousekeeping and Buenhogar, that it was valid to add the 1989 issues of Vogue to the analysis because the magazine industry is less segmented in Mexico; i.e., Buenhogar contained ads not only for the household products contained in Goodhousekeeping, but for the make-up and beauty products found in Vogue. Finally, a broad assumption was made by this study that it was valid to make a comparison between the American and Mexican magazine industries.

CHAPTER VI.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of this study seem to mirror, to a large degree, what is being found in much of the current research--that many international advertising strategies seem to be adopting a more regionalized theme. This study indicates that international advertisers are not simply "breaking out" their foreign language dictionaries (Spanish/English in this case) to transfer their advertising and marketing programs to foreign markets, but instead are taking into consideration the local values and customs of their international consumers. It is also hoped that this study adds, in its own limited way, some knowledge about the levels of standardization that existed across different product categories during the analyzed period, and ultimately, combined with other research in this area, can aid in international advertising efforts, aimed at Latin America in particular.

On the issue of the levels of standardization that existed between same product ads in the American and Mexican magazines (Research Question #1), it was clear that, in general, the advertisements were not standardized. Fifty-eight percent of the pairs were "completely" different, as defined by Whitelock and Chung's model (had the characteristic of picture been weighted differently, however, these results would have varied significantly). And, while the remaining 48% contained varying levels of standardization, no cases were discovered

where the ads were completely the same, i.e., cases of total standardization.

With respect to Research Question #2, differing standardization levels across product categories, this study does seem to indicate that advertisements in certain product areas do tend to be more standardized than ads for other product types. For example, English and Spanish ads in the perfume, make-up and beauty categories were much more highly standardized than those in the home appliance, clothing, and other categories. Whether an international perfume manufacturer should lean more toward a standardized advertising approach, while a washing machine company should adopt a more regionalized strategy cannot be extrapolated from these findings, however.

Limitations aside, Whitelock and Chung's model does appear to have some value for testing the levels of standardization between advertisements. By only looking at the explicit elements of the ads themselves, and refusing to deal with the advertisers intentions and interpretations by the viewers, the model avoids the task of making value judgements about the meaning of the ads. Another strength of the model seems to lie in its transferability to different countries and different vehicles. Whether this model can also be transferred to other forms of media, as Whitelock and Chung have suggested, remains to be seen.

Implications for Further Research

The implications for further research in this area are many. As mentioned in the limitations section, it would be interesting to use this same methodology to gauge other types of magazines in other categories, e.g., men's magazines, business magazines, general interest, etc. It is also important to replicate Whitelock and Chung's model in order to assess its continued efficacy over time. Exploring different time periods, and for hopefully longer durations, would also be useful. More research of this type also needs to be conducted using different media, such as television. Different advertising standardization models should also be developed, tested, and compared to Whitelock and Chung's model.

Finally, while not dealing with the advertisers intentions nor the interpretations of the viewers, thus avoiding the difficulty of making value judgements, was cited as an advantage of Whitelock and Chung's model, it is also a major weakness. More research needs to be done in these areas. A survey of international marketing and advertising managers, probing for answers to the questions of why, for example, they adopted a standardized approach for one country and a totally regionalized strategy for another, and what their expressed intentions were, might produce some interesting data. Survey research could also be used in an effort to gauge the levels of comprehension of advertisements by foreign and domestic viewers. Additionally, much more research needs to be conducted about the communications industries in the countries being studied, e.g., number of vehicles available, audience characteristics, etc.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

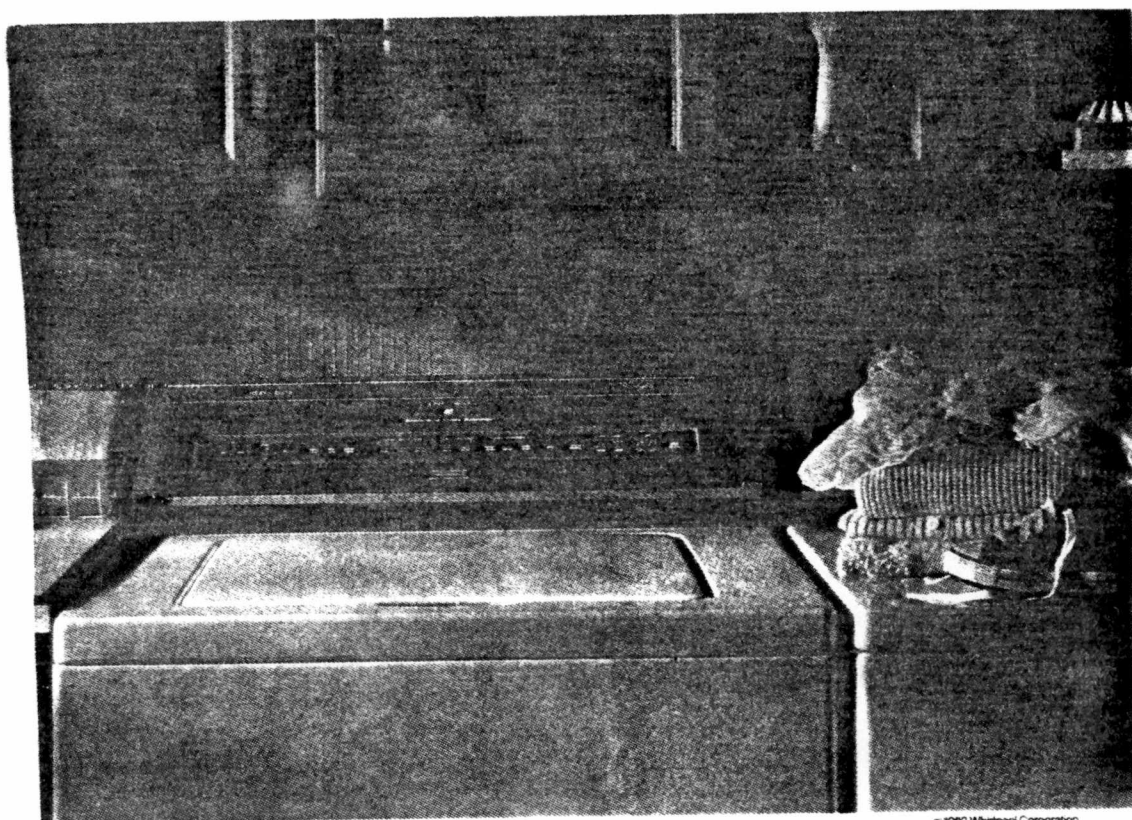
Part I: Product Information

1. Product Name

a. In English Ad: Whirlpoolb. In Spanish Ad: SAME

2. Product Category (Check appropriate)

☐ a. Face Creme/Lotion☐ b. Body Creme/Lotion☐ c. Make-up☐ d. Lipstick☐ e. Hairspray☐ f. Hair Color☐ g. Perfume/Cologne☐ h. Alcohol☐ i. Blender☐ j. Other beverage☐ k. Soup☐ l. Bakery product☐ m. Other food product☐ n. Photographic Film☐ o. Food Processor☒ p. Clothing☒ q. Other (Please Specify) Washing MachinePart II: Coding1. Do both ads contain same picture? ☐ Yes ☒ No (If No then end)2. Are ads different sizes? ☐ Yes ☐ No3. Do ads contain different colors? ☐ Yes ☐ No4. Do the layout of the ads differ? (i.e., any differences between the ads in terms of placement of the pictures, copy or headlines?) ☐ Yes ☐ No5. Do the advertisements contain different headlines? ☐ Yes ☐ No5a. Is the headline translated? ☐ Yes ☐ No (If Yes go to 5b. If no go to 6.)5b. Does the translated headline have the same meaning? ☐ Yes ☐ No6. Do the advertisements contain different copy? ☐ Yes ☐ No6a. Is the copy translated? ☐ Yes ☐ No (If Yes go to 6b. If no go to end.)6b. Does the translated copy have the same meaning? ☐ Yes ☐ No



© 1985 Whirlpool Corporation

Why wait for expert fabric care? Whirlpool has it today.

The day may come when every washer will help you take expert care of all your fabrics. But if your laundry can't wait that long, Whirlpool has a washer with all the choices you need today.

Our electronic control panel is the key to this innovative washer. We didn't add electronics just for their high-tech look. We added them because they're so flexible and easy to use.

First, set the water level for your load. Even big loads will get really clean. Use Pre-Wash, Soak, and Super Wash to help with tough stains and heavy fabrics. Care for delicates with Gentle. And let Permanent Press and Regular/Heavy do the rest.

Six temperature combinations for wash and rinse let you match every fabric. You can also lengthen or

shorten the time of wash cycles. Add extra rinse cycles. And dispense bleach and fabric softener automatically.

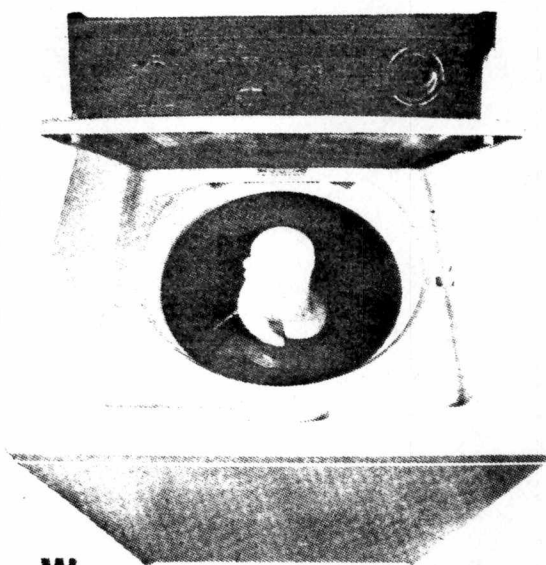
We stand behind every Whirlpool® washer with our toll-free, 24-hour Cool-Line® service to answer your questions. Just call 800-253-1301. And if there's ever a problem, over 5,000 factory-authorized Whirlpool service centers are trained and ready to help.

So why wait for a quality washer that helps you care for your clothes like an expert?

Whirlpool has it today.

Whirlpool
Home Appliances
Quality you
can count on... today.

¡Pero WHIRLPOOL, qué boca más grande tú tienes!



WHIRLPOOL tiene la abertura de carga más amplia entre las lavadoras

Lógico, el cargado de ropa es por eso más cómodo y rápido. ¡Cuánto tiempo ahorrado con una ventaja tan sencilla y a la vez tecnológicamente avanzada!

Claro que ésta es sólo una de las 39 innovaciones importantes que WHIRLPOOL ha desarrollado en sus equipos de lavado y secado; suficiente para darle un lugar número uno en tecnología; lugar que ocupa en la preferencia del público a nivel mundial.

De venta sólo con nuestros Distribuidores Autorizados

Tecnológicamente

Whirlpool

APPENDIX B

Part I: Product Information

1. Product Name

a. In English Ad: Anais Anaisb. In Spanish Ad: Same

2. Product Category (Check appropriate)

- ☐ a. Face Creme/Lotion
- ☐ b. Body Creme/Lotion
- ☐ c. Make-up
- ☐ d. Lipstick
- ☐ e. Hairspray
- ☒ f. Hair Color
- ☐ g. Perfume/Cologne
- ☐ h. Alcohol
- ☐ i. Blender
- ☐ j. Other beverage
- ☐ k. Soup
- ☐ l. Bakery product
- ☐ m. Other food product
- ☐ n. Photographic Film
- ☐ o. Food Processor
- ☐ p. Clothing
- ☐ q. Other (Please Specify) _____

Part II: Coding1. Do both ads contain same picture? ☒ Yes ☐ No (If No then end)2. Are ads different sizes? ☐ Yes ☒ No3. Do ads contain different colors? ☐ Yes ☒ No4. Do the layout of the ads differ? (i.e., any differences between the ads in terms of placement of the pictures, copy or headlines?) ☐ Yes ☒ No5. Do the advertisements contain different headlines? ☐ Yes ☒ No5a. Is the headline translated? ☐ Yes ☐ No (If Yes go to 5b. If no go to 6.)5b. Does the translated headline have the same meaning? ☐ Yes ☐ No6. Do the advertisements contain different copy? ☒ Yes ☐ No6a. Is the copy translated? ☒ Yes ☐ No (If Yes go to 6b. If no go to end.)6b. Does the translated copy have the same meaning? ☒ Yes ☐ No

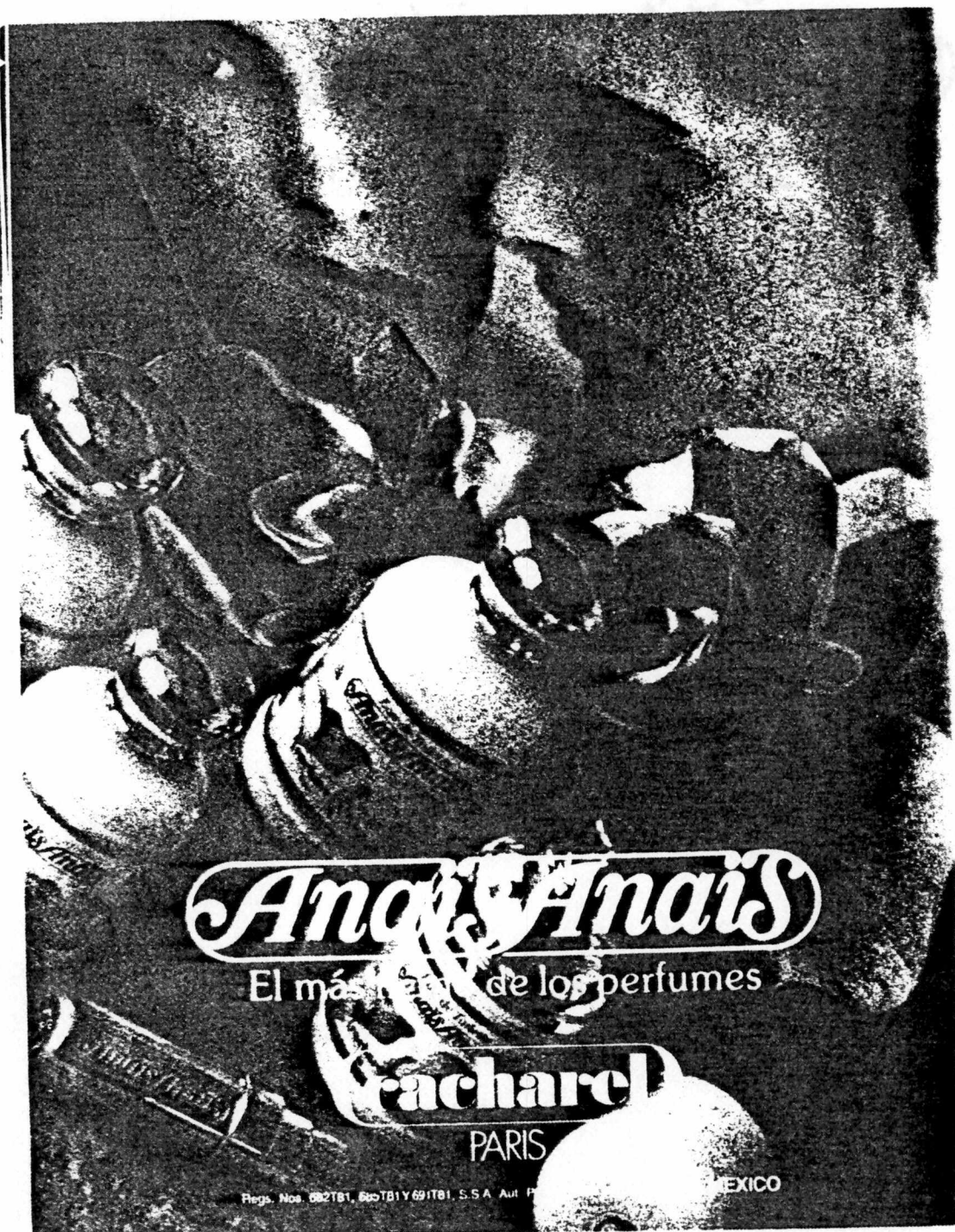
Anais Anais

L'essence des parfums

Richard

Dillard's

© 1991 Coty Inc. NYC



Anaïs Anaïs

El más bello de los perfumes

Jaccharel

PARIS

Regs. Nos. 082TB1, 600TB1Y 691TB1, S.S.A. Aut. P. MEXICO

APPENDIX C

Part I: Product Information

1. Product Name

a. In English Ad: Overlain Aguasérumb. In Spanish Ad: Overlain Eyesérum2. ☒ Product Category (Check appropriate)

- ☐ a. Face Creme/Lotion
- ☐ b. Body Creme/Lotion
- ☐ c. Make-up
- ☐ d. Lipstick
- ☐ e. Hairspray
- ☐ f. Hair Color
- ☐ g. Perfume/Cologne
- ☐ h. Alcohol
- ☐ i. Blender
- ☐ j. Other beverage
- ☐ k. Soup
- ☐ l. Bakery product
- ☐ m. Other food product
- ☐ n. Photographic Film
- ☐ o. Food Processor
- ☐ p. Clothing
- ☐ q. Other (Please Specify) _____

Part II: Coding1. Do both ads contain same picture? ☐ Yes ☒ No (If No then end)2. Are ads different sizes? ☐ Yes ☒ No3. Do ads contain different colors? ☐ Yes ☒ No4. Do the layout of the ads differ? (i.e., any differences between the ads in terms of placement of the pictures, copy or headlines?) ☐ Yes ☒ No5. Do the advertisements contain different headlines? ☒ Yes ☐ No5a. Is the headline translated? ☒ Yes ☐ No (If Yes go to 5b. If no go to 6.)5b. Does the translated headline have the same meaning? ☒ Yes ☐ No6. Do the advertisements contain different copy? ☒ Yes ☐ No6a. Is the copy translated? ☒ Yes ☐ No (If Yes go to 6b. If no go to end.)6b. Does the translated copy have the same meaning? ☒ Yes ☐ No

issima aqua sérum

the best weapon to combat wrinkles



Day One:

The Pleasure:

From the very first application
the skin absorbs aqua sérum like

a welcome rainfall on

parched earth.

Some days later:

The Effect:

The skin feels smoother, softer,

better toned. With regular

application, a permanent micro

climate is created.

After one month:

The Results:

The face is firmer and looks

younger. Some wrinkles have

disappeared, others are

less noticeable.

issima aqua sérum




GUERLAIN
PARIS

issima eyesérum

ANTIRIDES
CONTOUR DES YEUX

SUAVIZANTE DE LAS LINEAS
DE EXPRESION
CONTORNO DE OJOS.

FRESCO DESCANSO

Al momento de ser aplicado
Eyesérum produce una sensación
de frescura y bienestar.

Ojeras y líneas se desvanecen, la
mirada aparece fresca y
descansada. La piel vuelve al
encuentro de su propia tensura y
brillo.

RECUPERAR

Gracias a la hydrolastine LDE,
especialmente formulada para el
delicado contorno de los ojos.
Eyesérum suaviza las líneas de
expresión por su acción
descongestionante y tonificante.
Día tras día su mirada desafía al
tiempo.

SER
GUERLAIN



DESAFIAR AL TIEMPO
CON LA MIRADA.



GUERLAIN
PARIS

VITA

Timothy E. Dumont was born in New Orleans, Louisiana on March 6, 1965. He attended elementary and high schools in Yellow Springs, Ohio and graduated from Yellow Springs High School in 1983. The following September he entered Ohio University, Athens, and in June of 1987 received a Bachelor of Science degree in Journalism (Advertising Management). After two years of working in the advertising/public relations field, he accepted a graduate assistantship at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville and began study toward a Master's degree in Communications. After graduation he intends to continue his career in the advertising/entertainment field.

