

**STANDARDIZATION, COMPROMISE, OR SPECIALIZATION:
A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF MAGAZINE ADVERTISEMENTS
IN AMERICA AND TAIWAN**

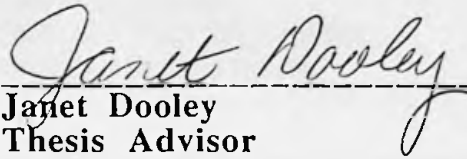
**A Thesis
Presented to the Faculty of the
W. Page Pitt School of Journalism and Mass Communications
Marshall University**

**In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts in Journalism**


by

**Yi-Fan Chen
December, 1997**

This thesis was accepted on Dec. 17, 1997 as meeting the research requirement for the master's degree.



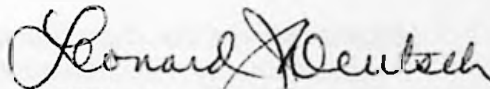
Janet Dooley
Thesis Advisor
Professor, W. Page Pitt School of
Journalism and Mass Communications



Harold C. Shaver, Ph.D.
Thesis Committee Member
Director, W. Page Pitt School of
Journalism and Mass Communications



Carl P. Burrowes, Ph.D.
Thesis Committee Member
Professor, W. Page Pitt School of
Journalism and Mass Communications



Leonard J. Deutsch, Ph.D.
Dean of the Graduate School

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I thank my parents,
Chin-Chih Chen and Hsiu-Chin Chan,
who are always standing by me.

Thank you professors for making my thesis dream come true:
my thesis advisor,
Professor Janet Dooley,
for walking through every step with me from the beginning to the end,
and my thesis committee,
Dr. Harold Shaver and Dr. Carl Burrowes,
who gave me a hand when I needed it the most.

Thanks to Professor Sullivan,
my professor and friend, who helped me with every thing she could,
and to Dr. Ed Scheiner for his support.
Professor Joe Iddings, who helped me with the statistics in this study.
To the J-school professors who opened the door of
Journalism and Mass Communications for me.

My family and friends are my inspiration.
My appreciation goes to my friends,
LizLiz (Liz McMullen), Gary McClain, Debby Willis and her family,
Fen-Chyi Chen, and Miss Chen's family.
My brother, Hsin-Chih Chen, and his sweet wife, Fen-Jane Lee,
for being here with me.
My other brother, Chih-Ming Chen, his lovely wife, Ming-Lan Lu,
and their beautiful daughter, Yu-Chien Chen,
for being with my parents while I was away.
I also have to thank my other family members, my cousins,
my uncle, Chuo-San Lin, my aunt, Yuo-I Lin,
and my grandmother, Yu-Yeh Chung Chan.
Although my dear grandmother passed away last year,
she is still watching me in her own way.

Thanks for every one who shared your life with me.

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INTRODUCTION

Background of Issue

Standardization (globalization, internationalization, common, uniform, or universalization) of international advertising is a highly controversial issue that has attracted a great deal of interest over the last three decades (Wells, Burnett and Moriarity, 1995). An international marketplace with multinational companies selling their products around the world has forced to the forefront the issue regarding how best to advertise in other countries. Debate centers around the main questions of whether advertising needs to be designed to suit each country in which a product is distributed or if the advertising approach that worked effectively in one country can be used in another with little or no revision (Schulberg, 1997).

At the beginning of this controversial international advertising debate, some scholars and researchers (Dunn, 1966; Elinder, 1965; Fatt, 1967; Levitt, 1983; Dong, 1994) suggested advertisers could use standardized advertising internationally because they believed the needs and values of the international consumers have been becoming similar.

A major reason for growing similarity among worldwide consumers is the increasing availability of international media (Salzman, 1996). Marshall McLuhan pointed out in his theory of the global village that the millions of consumers in the world share common needs and common social values because the mass media bring the same information to every consumer in the world (Tansey, Hyman & Zinkhan, 1990). Lynch (1984) and Mueller (1987) said McLuhan's global village is becoming a reality as mass marketers look to the international markets to explore and maintain profit bases. In addition, Salzman (1996) wrote that because media globalization makes similar messages easy to deliver, the global consumers are becoming more of a reality.

When designing an international advertising campaign, the most important decision these international advertisers need to make is whether to standardize (one approach for all countries), to compromise (combine, pattern standardize), or to specialize (localize,

individualize, customize, or adapt) in their multinational advertising campaigns (Caillat & Mueller, 1996). As the results of Elinder's study showed, international advertising can be approached from the standpoints of standardization, compromise, or specialization .

Advertising Standardization

Elinder (1965) said the advertising must be international, that is, standardized with one advertising approach being applied in multiple markets. He also said advertisers, advertising agencies and media need to work together as actively as possible to speed up the internationalization of advertising.

Standardization suggests messages can be used internationally, but international advertisers need to consider the differences among countries when making their cross national advertising plans (Elinder, 1965). In 1984, Lynch said the world is becoming a common marketplace in which, no matter where people live, they desire the same products and lifestyles. According to Levitt's theory, international companies must forget the differences between countries and cultures. These companies need to pay attention to satisfying universal needs.

A number of advertisers and marketers agree with Levitt who said the needs and desires of consumers around the world are growing ever more homogenized. These people believe the world is one large market and regional, national and international differences are at most superficial. In this case, the consumer may well be satisfied with similar products and services. Levitt also believed that not only can multinational consumers be satisfied with similar products, but also they can react to similar advertising messages (Caillat & Mueller, 1996).

Onkvisit and Shaw (1987) noted advertising standardization is not a simple theoretical concept. The important concept of standardized advertising includes far-reaching implications because of its effects on business firms, international trade,

advertising agencies, government, consumers and marketing education. In addition, Caillat and Mueller (1996) provided a definition of standardization. They said "standardized advertising refers to messages which are used internationally with virtually no change in theme, illustration, or copy--except perhaps for translation, where needed." Schulberg (1997) said a successful international advertising approach has four constants: simplicity, clarity, humor and a clear demonstration that reinforces a brand's selling message.

Coca-Cola, among the first companies to use standardization effectively, touts its "one sight, one sound, one sell" strategy for international marketing (Bovee & Arens, 1982). Its trademark uses this same letterforms, color, and style around the world (see Appendix A). Another example was an international advertisement for Toyota Corolla (Bovee & Arens, 1982). Corolla used a well-publicized American prize fighter, Mohammed Ali, to sell Corolla between American and the Arab world. The advertising headline said "The 1981 Corolla, like me, an international star" (see Appendix B).

Advertising Compromise

Moreira (1996) pointed out the industry has learned relationships to consumers must be considered in determining whether a brand should act as a local brand, a regional brand, or a global brand in his article, "*The Idea's The Thing For Good Global Ads*" The author believes the most successful global approaches of international advertisers and international marketers seem to recognize the culture of the category, to reflect the culture of the brand and to respect the cultures they try to reach.

Compromised advertising combines standardized and specialized advertising (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987). In other words, international advertising uses essentially the same theme but adapts it to suit individual market differences (Kanso, 1992). In 1995, Caporimo said some international advertising strategies used standardization well and some strategies did not translate their advertising message well.

As an example of advertising compromise, Northern bathroom tissue created a compromised international advertisement to sell the product in America and the Middle-East. The advertising's main selling point was softness depicted with a little girl on its package in America. On the other hand, the theme used the same softness appeal but with a little boy on it when the tissue advertised to the Middle-Eastern countries.

Advertising Specialization

Specialized advertising is the opposite of standardization with messages being prepared for each individual country (Elinder, 1965). Some international advertising works well in its home market, but fails in other nations. In these cases, the specialized advertising strategy approach will work better. For example, Ajax Cleaner's "white tornado" approach succeeded in America and failed in overseas markets. Procter & Gamble found the fluoride appeal of Crest targeted to the American audiences failed with British consumers, and individual specialized strategies had to be devised for the two markets (Dunn & Barban, 1982).

Background of Taiwan and Related Markets

This study used American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements to examine advertising standardization, compromise, or specialization. Because of Taiwan's increasing economic strength, it is important to understand marketing and advertising in that country as part of the expanding international market.

Taiwan has extremely-wide freedom to do business. Taiwan's economy was one of the eight countries considered a "free" economy in the 1997 *Heritage Foundation/Wall Street Journal Index of Economic Freedom Classification*. This distinction also included Hong Kong, Singapore, Bahrain, New Zealand, Switzerland, the United States and the United Kingdom. The index scores that are based on trade policy, tax policy, government

consumption of economic output, monetary policy, international investment, wage and price controls, property rights, regulations and the size of the black market were investigated based on 150 economies (The Economy, 1997).

Taiwan has one of the fastest-growing economies in Asia (Zandpour, Chang & Catalano, 1992), as well as the second largest international reserves in the world in May, 1994 (Trade and Economy, 1997). In 1996, Taiwan's total international trade was U.S. \$217,260,300 (Foreign Trade by Area, 1997). In this island of over 22 million people, Taiwan has the fourth highest per capita income in East Asia, followed by Japan, Singapore and Hong Kong. The Taiwanese average income is 20 times the amount of the mainland China (William, 1997).

With this economic power, Taiwanese business invests significant sums of money in advertising every year. While Japanese advertising has been compared with American advertising, Taiwanese advertising has been given very little attention (Zandpour, Chang & Catalano, 1992). Following behind Japan (U.S. \$48,108,000) and South Korea (U.S. \$8,054,000), Taiwanese advertising expenditures (U.S. \$4,376,000) had the third place in the Asian area in 1997 (Kilburn, 1997).

The following table compares advertising expenditure in America and Taiwan (see Table 1). It demonstrates advertising is a substantial force in the Taiwanese economy. Compared with America's huge land and population, Taiwan has only 22 million people who live in 32,260 sq km of the total land area, but advertising expenditures per capita are much greater in Taiwan than in American (Taiwan, 1997).

Table 1- Comparison of American and Taiwanese Advertising Expenditures

Compared Countries	Population (Millions) 1996	GNP (Billions of U.S. \$) 1996	Total Advertising Expenditures (Billions of U.S. \$) 1996	Advertising Expenditures (as % of GNP) 1996	Pre-capita Advertising Expenditures (U.S. \$) 1996
American	264,037	7,567.1	173.2	2.3	0.1
Taiwan	22	275.9	4.0	1.4	18.1

Source: *Advertising Age*, 1997; *Adweek*, 1997; *Direct Marketing*, 1996; *Taiwan*, 1997; the *Republic of China Yearbook -1997*, 1997; *U.S. Department Commerce*, 1996 & 1997.

In 1994, the opening of broadcast media gave the viewing and listening public in Taiwan more freedom of choice than ever before (Brand Magazine, 1995). Advertising also benefitted from increased media in Taiwan. Because of the expansion of media and the people's exploration of new things, Taiwan is a good place to sell international products and use international advertising. For instance, according to the Taiwanese *Ministry of Information & Communications*, there were 278 newspapers that had been registered in Taiwan since 1988. In 1988, when cable television had just been authorized in the Taiwanese market, there were only 33 radio stations. At the end of 1996, this island had added 150 radio stations. In addition, cable television had penetrated about 60 percent of Taiwanese households and offered more than 50 channels (Kilburn, 1997).

Of specific importance, Taiwan has strong international ties. Started by the Dutch and Spanish, westernization grew in Taiwanese daily lives. The Japanese occupied Taiwan from 1895 to 1945, then in 1945 China took control of Taiwan. Another major influence for the Taiwanese has been that of other western countries in addition to Holland and Spain, with economic growth opening the way for more influence from other countries, especially America, since 1950. Westernization can be seen most vividly in Taiwan's largest cities, where western cultural tastes are changing the way people live, particularly

the generation born after 1949. Through these special experiences with these international countries, Taiwan developed more international perspectives than other countries (William, 1997).

Problems

There are many different reasons for international advertisers to consider using standardized, compromised, or specialized advertising for multinational campaigns (Taylor, Miracle & Chang, 1994). The subject of advertising standardization, compromise, and specialization is multifaceted and all of its aspects cannot be examined at one time. Because message strategies are central to the creation of advertisements, this study is limited to advertising message strategies used in similar type magazine advertisements in both American and Taiwanese magazines.

As American products enter the Taiwan market and as Taiwan products enter export channels, advertisers are faced with a number of decisions beyond those typically demanded in domestic markets. Should the international advertisements be standardized, compromised, or specialized between American and Taiwanese markets? In what situations would each of these approaches be required? To what extent do different products demand different international strategies? High- medium- and low-involvement products may each demand different strategic solutions.

Wells, Burnett and Moriarity (1995) said for high-involvement products, purchase decision-making requires an involved-purchase process with an information search and product comparison. For low-involvement products, the decisions require limited deliberation. The purchases are even made on impulse. Any other products between these two points are medium-involvement products.

The appeals appropriate for promoting international products will also influence decisions regarding advertising strategy. According to Wells, Burnett and Moriarity's

viewpoints (1995), advertisements using a soft-sell appeal are those that use subtlety, intrigue and ambiguity. Advertising using a hard-sell appeal is an informational message that emphasizes strong arguments and demands action. Advertising using a product-merit appeal is a message that emphasizes the product itself. Advertising using information cues presents a large amount of information about the product with the advertising. On the other hand, advertising using transformation cues offers less informational and is stronger at encouraging buying and using a product (Wells, Burnett & Moriarity, 1995).

Naturally, many factors, such as the product itself, pricing structure and distribution, affect the overall approach to international advertising, but this study will focus on the initial strategic advertising decisions of how to integrate advertising into the international market.

Significance of Study

When researchers studied standardization and specialization of advertising, most of them only focused on comparisons of the cultural influences of the advertisements across the different nations. McCarty (1994) studied the general role in cross-cultural research and international marketing and advertising of several different cultural values, such as individualism versus collectivism; masculinity versus femininity; time orientation, activity orientation and humans' relationship with nature. Kahle, Beatty and Mager (1994) studied implications of social values for European community communications. Astroff (1994) reported the relationship among advertising, anthropology and culture brokers. Stern (1994) studied the language culture use of women in advertising.

Huang (1995) studied the different cultural factors, such as norms and ethics, between American and Taiwan's television commercials. Caillat and Muller studied the cultural influences on American and British beer advertising in 1996. Cheng and Schweitzer (1996) computed cultural values, such as tradition versus modernity, reflected

in American and Chinese television advertising.

Although many of the international studies were carried out comparing the differences among cultures, it will be of more practical value to study advertising messages because the results might be able to provide guidelines for the international marketers and international advertisers to sell their products across countries. Researchers, such as Ramaprasad and Hasegawa (1992 & 1992), who have been focusing on international advertising from the standpoint of creative development rather than cultural influence view advertising standardization, compromise, specialization as creative strategies.

Douglas and Dubois (1977) studied how the cultural environment impacts market and advertising strategies across countries. In 1981, Kaynak and Mitchell analyzed marketing and advertising strategies used in Turkey, Britain and Canada. Kanso (1992) studied the significant differences of the cultures in international advertising. Killough (1978) researched the transfer of international advertising. Colvin, Heeler and Thorpe (1980) researched advertising strategies in three European countries: United Kingdom, France and Sweden.

Dowling (1980) studied American and Australian use of informational cues in different product categories on television. Hornik (1980) compared the evaluations of international and national advertising strategies. In 1988, Hite and Fraser studied international advertising strategies of multinational corporations. Keown, Jacobs, Schmidt and Ghymn (1992) studied different information cues used in American, Japanese, South Korean and Chinese television, radio, magazine, and newspaper advertisements. Duncan and Ramaprasad (1995) studied international advertising strategy, execution and language differences. This study is designed to separate one aspect from other various influences in advertising and to focus on advertising creative strategies in international markets by following these researchers' guidelines.

Based on a report in *Trade*, America received more export products from Taiwan than from any other country, and also was the number one importing country to Taiwan in 1996 (Major Export Markets, 1997; Major Import Markets, 1997). Starting in 1995, Taiwanese exports to America topped U.S. \$111.7 billion. Electronics and electrical appliances, personal computers and peripherals, metal products and garments comprised the bulk of Taiwan's exports to the United States (Trade, 1997).

Because the Taiwanese official language is Chinese, it makes Taiwan important to study. The Chinese-language total population is estimated at just under 1.2 billion (People, 1997). Almost a quarter of the people in the world speak Chinese (Developing Taiwan to Become the Asian Media Center, 1997). Some international advertisers are already aware of the Chinese-language market. For example, Stephen Barrington (1997) quoted from Ken Koo, the president of Ken Koo Creative Group in Vancouver, Canada, said "One doesn't have to be a rocket scientist to realize this (Chinese-language market) is the market to get into,... It's definitely a sizable market to reckon with." Because of the Taiwanese use of the Chinese-language and with its various international influences, Taiwan is a better place than China itself for international marketers and advertisers to test their products before selling to this huge Chinese-language market.

Barrington also notes (1997) the Chinese-language market is getting bigger and bigger. Some products' packages are offering multilingual packaging in the Chinese language. In Canada and America, some Chinese-language advertising audiences have toll-free numbers where they can get more information in either Chinese or English. More importantly, some international marketers are taking notice because a Chinese advertising campaign can cost about the same as a mainstream approach but yield better results.

Research Questions

The following research questions are posed:

- RQ 1: What similarities or differences, if any, are there in the relative frequency of the types of products (i.e. product categories) advertised in America and in Taiwanese magazines?
- RQ 2: Which advertising approaches--standardized, compromised-, or specialized--are most likely to be used with high-involvement, medium-involvement, and low-involvement products in American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements?
- RQ 3: Did American or Taiwanese advertising use more informational/transformational cues at different product involvement levels?

Hypotheses

To answer the research questions, the following hypotheses were tested to identify specific differences in the American and Taiwanese advertising approaches. Similar approaches indicated the use of standardized or comprised approaches and, conversely, different approaches will suggested comprised or specialized market by market strategies.

- H 1. There is a difference between American and Taiwanese high-involvement products use of hard-sell appeal in magazine advertisements.
- H 2. There is a difference between American and Taiwanese high-involvement products use of product-merit appeal in magazine advertisements.
- H 3. There is a difference between American and Taiwanese high-involvement products use of soft-sell appeal in magazine advertisements.
- H 4. There is a difference between American and Taiwanese medium-involvement products use of hard-sell appeal in magazine advertisements.
- H 5. There is a difference between American and Taiwanese medium-

involvement products use of product merit-appeal in magazine advertisements.

- H 6. There is a difference between American and Taiwanese medium-involvement products use of soft-sell appeal in magazine advertisements.
- H 7. There is a difference between American and Taiwanese low-involvement products use of hard-sell appeal in magazine advertisements.
- H 8. There is a difference between American and Taiwanese low-involvement products use of product-merit appeal in magazine advertisements.
- H 9: There is a difference between American and Taiwanese low-involvement products use of soft-sell appeal in magazine advertisements.
- H 10: High-involvement products use more informational/transformational cues in American than Taiwanese magazine advertisements.
- H 11: Medium-involvement products use more informational/transformational cues in American than Taiwanese magazine advertisements.
- H 12: Low-involvement products use more informational/transformational cues in American than Taiwanese magazine advertisements.

Theories

Theodore Levitt, a professor of business administration and marketing at Harvard Business School, created a globalization theory in 1983 (Nelson, 1994). The following parts were the basis of Levitt's globalization theory (Levitt, 1983).

1. The globalization (i.e., a presence in all major world markets) of markets is at hand. With that, the multinational (i.e., a presence in only selected international markets) commercial world nears its end and so does the multinational corporation.
2. Different cultural preferences, national tastes standards and business

institutions are vestiges of the past.

3. Everywhere everyone gets more and more like everything else as the world's preference structure is relentlessly homogenized.
4. People everywhere want goods of the best quality and reliability at the lowest price.
5. A successful global marketing strategy consists of having a common brand name, packaging and communications to achieve tremendous cost advantages over competitors that just sell and produce in narrow segments.

Lynch (1984) believed that Levitt's globalization of markets had arrived and the multinational companies could get significant benefits by marketing world brands supported by standardized campaigns. The concept in the globalization theory is built on the assumption that "people all over the world have the same taste and desire and that they are remarkably alike regarding love, hate, fear, greed, joy, patriotism, pornography, material comforts, mysticism and the role of food in their lives."

Peebles, Ryans and Vernon (1978) concluded advertising standardization is not a simplistic concept and should be considered in terms of degree of uniformity rather than in absolute terms. Ramaprasad and Hasegawa (1992 & 1992) believed the theory of globalization is far from applicable between Japanese and American markets. Their research found many examples that might not fit this theory of globalization in the international situations.

Researchers, such as Lynch (1984), Ramaprasad and Hasegawa, (1992 & 1992) and Dong (1994), have conducted international comparison studies in advertising to examine the globalization concept. They have found significant differences between America and other international countries in their advertising message strategies and these results argue against the globalization concept. Other researchers, such as Sorenson and Wiechmann (1975), seemed to support the globalization theory by finding similarities

between America and other international advertising.

Researchers and scholars have studied the globalization theory and international advertising for more than thirty years. However, the debate continues regarding Levitt's globalization theory and whether standardized, compromised, or specialized international advertising will be the best approach for creating international advertising campaigns. This study is going to investigate the applications of globalization theory between American and Taiwanese markets, and which types of international advertising strategies are being employed.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Debates for Standardization and Specialization in Advertising

When advertising campaigns enter worldwide markets, international advertisers are faced with the question of whether to deliver their advertising messages through "standardized" or "specialized" approaches (Mueller, 1992). There are many researchers and advertisers who have been studying and examining this debate on international advertising over the last three decades.

Some researchers proposed standardized advertising could be successfully accomplished because consumers anywhere in the world have the same basic needs and desires. Therefore, these consumers could be persuaded by universal appeals (Dichter, 1962; Dunn, 1966 & 1976; Elinder, 1965; Fatt, 1967; Ryans & Donnelly, 1969; Sorenson & Wiechmann, 1975; Buzzell, 1968; Levitt, 1983; Nelson, 1994).

In Taylor, Miracle and Chang's study (1994), the authors found many prior studies and discussions have used the terms standardization and specialization without clearly stating the limits of standardization or specialization. They believe study of this issue must start from advertising objectives, message strategies, media strategies and budgeting. They also offered definitions of these elements (see Table 2).

On the other hand, another group of researchers believe advertising cannot be universal because consumers differ from one nation to another. Therefore, these researchers believe a specialized advertising approach is better when conducting international advertising campaigns (Picks, Arpan & Fu, 1974; Hornik, 1980; Harris, 1984; Boddewyn, Soehl & Picard, 1986; Kotler, 1986; Hite & Fraser, 1988; Mueller, 1987 & 1992; Zandpour, Chang & Catalano, 1992; Ramaprasad & Hasegawa, 1992; Kanso, 1992; Keown, Jacobs, Schmidt & Ghymn, 1992; Lin, 1993; Taylor, Miracle, & Chang, 1994; Wells, Burnett & Moriarity, 1995; Caillat & Mueller, 1996).

Table 2- Advertising Elements

Advertising Objectives	Clear communication tasks (many possibilities, e.g., hierarchy) Defined target audiences (e.g., purchasers, users) Specified periods of time
Advertising Message Strategies	(e.g., themes; appeals; positive versus negative; much or little information; image versus product, company or brand; comparisons or not; a spokesperson or voice over; color mix)
Advertising Media Strategies	(e.g., which media vehicles; size of ads or length of commercials; flighting; pulsing)
Advertising Budgets	(e.g., heavy, light or medium weight; by product; by market area; by selected media; for selected creative or message approaches; match or not match competitor; contracyclical or not)

Source: Taylor, Miracle, & Chang, 1994.

According to studies from Dichter (1962), James and Hill (1991), Ramaprasad and Hasegawa (1992 & 1992), Dong (1994), Taylor, Miracle and Chang (1994), and Duncan and Ramaprasad (1995), the debate over "globalization," which started in the 1960s, initially focused on and largely advocated standardization of advertising (and marketing) in Europe. The first person who raised the standardization issue was Elinder in 1961 (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987; Hite & Fraser, 1988; Jain, 1989; Taylor, Miracle & Chang, 1994; Duncan & Ramaprasad, 1995; Wells, Burnett & Moriarity, 1995). Elinder believed standardization of advertising for the European market was possible (Elinder, 1964). In addition, other early scholars, such as Dunn (1966) and Fatt (1967), agreed with Elinder that companies had successfully transferred advertising and standardized themes which provided consistent corporate and brand images worldwide (Hite & Fraser, 1988).

In late 1962, Ernest Dichter in his article, "*The World Customer*," said most of the human desires are alike. In addition, he mentioned reducing physical distances, international trade and mass communications can bring countries closer together. He suggested the market should have a creative awareness of human desire and strategy throughout the world. In other words, international trade and mass communication must

be prepared to serve new world customers.

Between the 1960s and 1980s, there were many researchers whose cautionary approach suggested taking into consideration cultural and psychological differences among nations (Britt, 1974; Douglas & Dubois, 1977; Ramaprasad & Hasegawa, 1992; Dong, 1994). In addition, Hornik's study (1980) of cross-cultural comparison of consumers and consumer responses to advertising supported the idea.

In 1983, Levitt strongly endorsed standardization (Wells, Burnett & Moriarity; 1995). He brought the debate of standardized advertising back to academic fields (Harris, 1984; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987; Ramaprasad & Hasegawa, 1992; Dong, 1994; Wells, Burnett & Moriarity, 1995). In his articles, Levitt argued companies should operate as if there is only one global market. However, some of the researchers in the 1980s focused on the comparative content of advertising. The conclusions included that themes, techniques and information need to be varied among international markets (Ramaprasad & Hasegawa, 1992).

Although the arguments are continuing, there are some researchers who believe, practically speaking, neither the entire standardization nor the entire specialization approach is necessarily the best (Ryans & Donnelly, 1969; Douglas & Wind, 1987; Boddewyn, Soehl and Picard, 1986; Hite & Fraser, 1988; James & Hills, 1991; Ramaprasad & Hasegawa, 1992; Huang, 1995; Caporimo, 1995; Zandpour & Harich, 1996).

Standardization

The London-based Saatchi & Saatchi Company became the first global advertising agency in 1984. The agency ran a two-page advertisement that applied Levitt's globalization advertising concept in both *The New York Times* and the *Times of London* with the headline "The Opportunity for World Brands." The agency was the first agency to use standardized international advertising strategies (Wells, Burnett & Moriarity, 1995).

In the article "*The Danger of 'Local' International Advertising,*" it was said if an advertiser has an important advertising idea that is only used in one country, it was not only wasteful but also might be "suicidal" to change the idea just for the sake of change because the same advertising strategies could be used across countries. The author also said the advent of international television gave big impetus to the further use of global advertising appeal. In this case, television programs from one country can be viewed in neighboring countries (Fatt, 1967).

Dichter (1962), Fatt (1967), Ryans and Donnelly (1969), found basic human needs are similar everywhere. World consumers, regardless of their apparent differences, will respond to similar appeals. They believe the same products can be sold with similar advertising appeal.

In 1968, Buzzell said standardization allowed realization of economies of scale in the production of advertising materials, reducing advertising production and enhancing profitability. Although he admitted there are some limitations based on local differences, he felt standardization was often possible and desirable. The specific benefits he pointed to are cost savings, consistency of dealing with consumers, exploitation of ideas with international appeal and improved planning and control.

Sorenson and Wiechmann (1975) found high standardization of advertising messages and creative expressions by 71% of 27 United States and European multinational companies doing business in packaged products. On the other hand, only 29% of these multinational companies utilized specialized advertising.

Dunn (1976) studied 90 executives of United States-based multinational corporations and found that eight factors influence the perceived transferability of advertising across global areas. These factors, from the most important to the least important, were: (1) consumers' levels of education; (2) attitudes toward work and monetary gain; (3) competence of personnel in international agencies or branches; (4)

degree of nationalism in countries and attitudes toward the United States; (5) rate of economic growth and acceptance of trademark; (6) eating patterns; (7) attitudes toward authority and transferability of slogans; and (8) independence of media from governmental control.

Another advocate of standardization, Levitt (1983) said the dawn of the global village was upon consumers. Citing technology, communications and transportation, Levitt maintained the globalization of markets would lead marketers and advertisers to use standardized strategies, especially brands and products.

Harris (1984) said researchers and advertisers of standardized content believe advertisers who use only one set of advertisements for their multinational markets will see benefits such as reduced costs, increased control over advertising content, stronger brand images and simplified strategic planning. These benefits could help multinational firms compete more effectively in the international markets. Tse, Belk and Zhou (1989) also discovered these results in their study which showed that the advertising globalization occurred in Hong Kong, Taiwan and China.

In 1987, Onkvisit and Shaw said researchers believe standardized advertising is assumed because with better and faster communications there is a convergence of art, literature, media availability, tastes, thoughts, religious beliefs, culture, living conditions, language and, consequently advertising.

Some researchers and advertisers who examined standardized advertising believed it worked in their international markets. Consumers may be satisfied with similar products or advertising messages. Caporimo (1995) said, "Global advertising is great as long as the message truly plays to worldwide audiences." He also mentioned products with universal benefits and universal appeals work for global advertising.

According to Rutigliano's research (1986), the benefits of standardized advertising are reduced spending in advertising plans and controls, building of the international brands

and company images, simplification of coordination and controls and exploitation of good ideas.

Tse, Belk and Zhou's studies of Hong Kong, China and Taiwan (1989) found parts of the market globalization process were occurring in three Chinese-language markets although these three places differed in consumptive values such as technology, modernism and hedonism. They discovered Hong Kongese advertisements emphasize hedonistic values, make promises easily, show westernized lifestyles and focus on doing. On the other hand, Chinese advertisements emphasize utilitarian appeals, promise a better life and focus on states of being as consumption themes. Taiwanese advertisements are getting closer to western style presentations.

According to one part of Duncan and Ramaprasad's research (1995), a director of a worldwide client service for Saatchi & Saatchi supports the importance of standardization when making a multinational advertising campaign. The director said, "I can't go into a meeting these days without getting right down to the basics of how to develop the kind of brilliant advertising that can run across all the principle markets of the world."

A number of advertisers and marketers agree with Levitt who said the needs and desires of consumers around the world are growing ever more homogenized. These experts argue the world is one large market and regional, national and international differences are at most superficial. In this case, the consumer may be satisfied with similar products and services. Levitt also believes not only are multinational consumers satisfied with similar products, but also they can react to similar advertising messages (Caillat & Mueller, 1996).

A number of the big international advertisers have already made their advertising campaigns fit worldwide themes (Fatt, 1967). Some successful standardized international advertising campaign examples are Marlboro tobacco (Harris, 1984; James & Hill, 1991; Shao & Hill, 1992; Huang, 1995), Coca-Cola (Fatt, 1967; Harris, 1984; Onkvisit &

Shaw, 1987; James & Hill, 1991; Shao & Hill, 1992; Well, 1992; Huang 1995; Duncan & Ramaprasad 1995), Exxon oil (James & Hill, 1991), American Express credit cards (Shao & Hill; 1992), and Fisher-Price toys (Caporimo, 1995). In addition to these products, advertising for Dove soap is working successfully in Australia, France, Germany and Italy (Well, 1992).

Compromise

Wells, Burnett and Moriarity (1995) pointed out that in the Grey Advertising Agency, its international advertising strategy used "Global Vision with a Local Touch" in 1986. This advertising agency used the steps of establishing the international vision, looking for the positive signals that point to international application, warding off the NIH (not invented here) factor and developing respect with local client managers and employing all of the advertising agency's tools, knowledge and considerable resources to achieve international application.

Ryans and Donnelly (1969) studied the effects of standardized advertising. They found the experiences and relative success of other large international companies indicated compromised advertising strategies. Relatively few advertisers have adopted the standardization approach to international advertising. Seventeen percent of international advertisers use standardized copy at least 50% of the time, and 80% of the respondents said they at least partially rewrite the copy when standardized advertising was used.

Peebles, Ryans and Vernon (1978) suggest neither strict standardized nor specialized advertising policies were optimal. These researchers introduced the steps of comprised international advertising. They provided the seven general rules: (1) knowing the market, (2) knowing the international counterparts, (3) traveling in the international market, (4) using the network agencies, (5) knowing international advertising, (6) using long-planning lead times, and (7) maintaining local office budget approval authority.

Colvin, Thorpe and Heeler (1980), and Lin (1993) conclude both standardization and specialization approaches need to be exclusive of each other. They added that the international marketers should take advantage of what each approach can offer in light of the local market situations.

Boddewyn, Soehl and Picard (1986) concluded standardization was more feasible for industrial products than for consumer products. They surveyed some companies of the European Economic Community and found although substantial barriers to standardized advertising existed, it was practiced by many managers. Additionally, they found 20% of 70 executives substantially use standardization of international advertising in western Europe, while 39% used specialized international advertising. These researchers also said "standardization of product, brand and advertising do not necessarily move apart and advertising is more resistant to uniformization than are the other two." Also "industrial-goods respondents who market goods generally considered to be the easiest to standardize actually anticipate moving toward greater product adaption to national markets." Specific variables linked to standardization success were the nature of the products, the extent of national differences, the level of competition and the economic conditions.

In 1987, Douglas and Wind said the reason consumer products were different from industrial products when using international advertisements was consumer goods needed to be concerned with the tastes, hobbies and customs that were unique to each county. These researchers suggested some companies and certain products can use standardization strategies while other companies and products needed to alter their advertising strategies to accommodate local and regional language, culture and taste.

Hite and Fraser (1988) used a sample of successful multinational American companies. These researchers developed a list of factors managers felt were important determinants of the success or failure of standardization programs. They found only nine percent of American companies standardized for all international markets, with the majority

relying on a mix of standardization and specialization.

James and Hills (1991) provide a way to help international advertisers judge whether to use standardization or specialization. They mentioned standardizing subsidiaries usually are to be those with less than \$25 million in sales, have high proportions of American-originated products and are situated mainly in more affluent markets (i.e., less than U.S. \$6,000 per capita). On the other hand, specializing subsidiaries are profiled as high sales, such as more than U.S. \$25 million and are situated in affluent markets. They are less likely to have American products in their lines and are more susceptible to headquarters-initiated product transfers.

In 1991, Sriram and Gopalakrishna studied 40 countries and found multinational advertisers need to be realistic and less ambitious. Through studies looking at these countries' respective economic levels, cultures and media availability, the researchers suggested these advertisers should interpret standardization with caution. It is not just the transferability of an entire campaign across countries, but also a strategy that makes uniform themes, images and even brand names, possible. They also said the advertising campaign needs to be decided at the local subsidiary level.

Nelson (1994) said high-tech products are bought and used in the same manner everywhere. High-tech products are most often standardized and utilitarian. These products also share a common technical language and use of information appeals. In the fourth quarter of 1993, 75 global companies were surveyed by mail. The results were that 13% of these global companies said they used standardized advertising strategy. Forty-one percent of these 13% used localized advertising strategies and 56% used compromised advertising strategies. In other words, they used international advertising strategies of "think global, act local."

In Huang's study (1995), he said advertisers have been very careful in choosing standardized strategies. The creative strategy of an advertisement which includes its plot,

setting, music and other details still has to be examined in the context of each country before the advertising is actually run. The range of creative strategies an advertiser can use is sure to be much more limited for a standardized approach than for a specialized approach.

Specialization

One of the major problems in standardized advertising is language differences (Kaynak & Mitchell, 1981). In Caporimo's article (1995), the author points out that sometimes standardized advertising cannot translate well. The article suggests the same handling of the same advertising could have a totally different meaning if reading from left to right or right to left. In addition, even using a similar language and culture, there are still difficulties in using standardized advertising. For example, American advertising shows more individualism and direct-speech techniques than British advertising (Frith & Wesson, 1991).

In addition, another factor that needs to be considered in specialized advertising is cultural and religious taboos (Fatt, 1967). Caporimo (1995) also points out some of the products are too sensitive to use standardized advertising because of cultural and religious reasons, such as mouthwash, denture cream, sanitary napkins, birth control and other women's personal care products.

In 1974, Ricks, Arpan and Fu analyzed actual blunders in international advertising and suggested most of those blunders occurred because executives failed to understand the international culture and its social norms. These researchers said cultural differences in customs, attitudes and needs must always be taken into account.

According to Unwin (1974), advertisers must consider the differences among countries, such as culture, the stage of economic and industrial development, the stage of product life cycle, media availability and legal restrictions. It is too much of a

simplification to let all advertisers use standardization with all different kinds of products.

Killough (1978) studied the transfer of advertising resources, including the content and form of the advertising message from one country to another, in the survey of senior executives who had been involved in more than 120 multinational campaigns. Those experts felt the "idea content" can be transferred intact, but the "strategic content and executional form" presents barriers, including cultural, communication, legislation, competition and execution problems.

In 1980, Hornik compared American advertising campaigns with locally-tailored Israeli advertisements for the same products. Overall, the researcher found localized themes are preferred except in the small number of instances in which the advertising was geared toward an international appeal, a worldwide corporate image, or common international connotations.

Harries (1984) argued strongly in favor of local adaptations. The researcher studied four arguments, such as the advantage of world brand images, sales performance, the majority of markets in demand characteristics and exploration of marketing skills, in favor of international advertising standardization. He concluded the range of products for which standardization can be applied is very limited.

In 1987, Onkvisit and Shaw said the researchers who did not support the idea of standardized advertising suggested international advertisers must make particular note of the differences among countries. These advertisers must consider barriers, such as culture, media availability, tastes and other economic consideration. Because of these barriers, it is necessary to develop specialized advertising campaigns.

Synodinos, Keown and Jacobs (1989) studied advertising practices across 15 countries. These researchers found striking dissimilarities in the creative approaches. These researchers also attributed these dissimilarities not only to cultural factors but also to production costs and length of time or amount of space of advertisements.

In 1992, Kanso suggested international standardized advertising was on the decline. The researcher also told international advertisers to use a global commitment to local vision when they need to sell their products to other countries.

Advertising study of the United States, Japan, South Korea and the People's Republic of China implied that international advertisers need to consider their advertising strategies in developing advertising themes for different countries' audiences. It found each nation had its own information control where the number of cues and the type of cues in various media were different (Keown, Jacobs, Schmidt & Ghymn, 1992).

Zandpour and Harich (1996) studied television advertising appeals in 23 countries. They found a preference for emotional rather than rational advertising appeals in Denmark, France, Hong Kong, Japan, Spain, Sweden, Taiwan and the United Kingdom. Belgium, the Netherlands and Italy are using strong rational appeals and less emphasis on emotional appeals in their advertisements.

American Advertising and Other Nations' Advertising

There are many cross-cultural advertising studies with emphasis on American and other nations' advertisements. Dunn (1966) found American print advertisements were surprisingly transferable to Europe and the Middle East.

A number of the research studies examined how cultural differences influence advertising in Japan and America. After examining a total of 1,440 advertisements, Madden, Caballero and Matsukubo (1986) found 75% of 832 American magazine advertisements were less informative compared with the 85% of 608 Japanese magazine advertisements.

Hong, Muderrisoglu and Zinkhan (1987) found Japanese advertisements were evaluated as less comparative and more emotional than American advertisements. In their findings, they used a Mood Rating Scale to measure the degree of emotional appeals, in

conjunction with Resnik and Stern's information classification system, to measure the informativeness of advertising. In addition, Japanese advertisements were found to include at least as many information signals as American advertisements.

In another study in 1987, Mueller found that while Japanese advertising used traditional appeals like soft sell and less information, it also used modern and westernized appeals, such as English and European sounding brand names and models. When the researcher compared Japanese advertising with American advertising for similar products, she observed numerous differences between the two types. In addition, the same results happened when comparing advertisements in Chinese magazines and American magazines; Rice and Lu found Chinese magazine advertisements had higher levels of information than American magazine advertisements in 1988.

In 1992, Mueller found Japanese advertising is still far from being westernized. She said there are indicators that it may be becoming increasingly Japanese. Ramaprasad and Hasegawa (1992) found the largest difference appears in the use and format of informational strategies between American television commercials and Japanese television commercials.

Ramaprasad and Hasegawa (1992) found most American television advertisements and Japanese television commercials used information cues that emphasize similar kinds of information. However, these advertisements differed in the average number of cues employed in some products and strategy categories. The researchers suggested international advertisers need to use cues carefully in the same advertising approaches in both American and Japanese advertisements.

Huang (1995) studied American television advertisements and Taiwanese television advertisements. He found in American television advertisements more typically masculine traits, such as growth, adventure, courage and energy, and individualistic characteristics were stressed than in Taiwanese television advertisements. Taiwanese advertising was

more likely to display deference to power symbols (i.e. "power distance") such as age, wisdom, or wealth than American advertising.

In 1996, Caillat and Mueller found a significant difference between British and American advertising. The results showed that although these two countries share a similar language and culture, the standardized advertising approach was not effective for them.

In Keillor, Parker and Schaefer's study (1996), they compared the information sources used to form brand preferences by showing adolescents' Mexican and American advertising selections. They found the environment in Mexico has several favorable characteristics for advertisers. In Mexico adolescents accept outside influences in forming brand preferences for products at various involvement levels. They also suggested American businesses need to be concerned with focusing on specialized advertising for Mexico.

Another study in 1996, by Cheng and Schweitzer, analyzed 1,105 American and Chinese television commercials. They divided several different kinds of cultural values into two groups: utilitarian and symbolic. They found Chinese commercials used symbolic values more often and United States commercials tend to use both symbolic and utilitarian values.

Conclusion

Standardized, compromised and specialized approaches to international advertising have been the focus of a substantial body of research on the issue of global marketing. Most of these studies emphasized studying the differences between cultures, while a few of them focused on understanding international advertising strategies. Even though much cross-cultural research has been done before, there were not many studies about Taiwanese advertising compared with any other country's advertising, especially those emphasizing advertising strategies. This study is designed to examine Taiwanese and American

advertising strategies.

The first step in developing an advertising strategy is to determine the advertising objectives. These objectives should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound (SMART). For example, an objective could be to increase sales by 10% over the next six months. Once the objectives are established, the next step is to identify the target audience. This involves understanding the demographics, psychographics, and behavior of the potential customers. The third step is to select the advertising media. This decision should be based on the reach, frequency, and cost of the various media options. The fourth step is to develop the advertising message. This message should be clear, concise, and compelling, and it should be tailored to the target audience. Finally, the advertising campaign should be implemented and monitored. This involves tracking the progress of the campaign and making adjustments as needed to ensure that the advertising objectives are achieved.

Advertising Strategy

The advertising strategy is a plan of action that outlines the advertising objectives, target audience, advertising media, advertising message, and advertising budget. It is a key component of the overall marketing strategy and it provides a clear and concise roadmap for the advertising campaign. The advertising strategy should be developed in collaboration with the marketing team and it should be reviewed and updated regularly to ensure that it remains relevant and effective.

The advertising strategy is a key component of the overall marketing strategy and it provides a clear and concise roadmap for the advertising campaign. It is developed in collaboration with the marketing team and it is reviewed and updated regularly to ensure that it remains relevant and effective. The advertising strategy should be based on a thorough understanding of the target audience and the advertising objectives. It should also take into account the budget and the competitive environment. The advertising strategy is a dynamic document that evolves over time as the marketing team gains more insight into the target audience and the advertising campaign.

DESIGN OF STUDY

A content analysis of magazine advertisements was conducted from September to November 1997 to examine advertising standardization, compromise, or specialization employed for American and Taiwanese products. The American and Taiwanese product categories, product involvement (high-involvement, medium-involvement and low-involvement), selling appeals (hard-sell appeal, product-merit appeal and soft-sell appeal), and informational/transformational cues in magazines' advertisements were independent variables in this study. Similar use of the independent variables suggests standardized approaches are being used whereas when the independent variables are used differently, the indication is specialized strategies have been used.

Magazine Selection

The study focused on advertising carried in publications representing financial magazines, general interest magazines, news magazines, technical magazines and women's magazines in both American and Taiwanese consumer-paid publications. These magazine categories were chosen because they represented a variety of consumer interests and each category had a corresponding comparable publication in America and Taiwan.

The chosen magazines, in order of American then corresponding Taiwanese publications, were *Money* and *CommonWealth* (financial magazines), *Reader's Digest* and *Reader's Digest* (general interest magazines), *Time* and *Journalist Weekly* (news magazines), *PC Magazine* and *PC Home* (technical magazines) and *Cosmopolitan* and *Bella* (women's magazines)(see Table 3). See Appendix C for more information about the selected publications.

Table 3 - Chosen Magazines

Magazine Categories	American	Taiwan
Financial Magazines	<i>Money</i>	<i>CommonWealth</i>
General Interest Magazines	<i>Reader's Digest</i>	<i>Reader's Digest</i>
News Magazines	<i>Time</i>	<i>Journalist Weekly</i>
Technical Magazines	<i>PC Magazine</i>	<i>PC Home</i>
Women's Magazines	<i>Cosmopolitan</i>	<i>Bella</i>

Taiwanese Magazines

The Taiwanese magazines were chosen from the best-selling consumer magazines listed in their categories in *Brand Magazine* in 1996.

CommonWealth is 15 years old and is highly respected for its attractive design, excellent business image and concern for the well-being of society. It covers macroeconomic trends and modern management concepts and is popular in commercial sectors. Its readers come from not only the Taiwan local area but also overseas, in places such as the United States, Canada, New Zealand, Australia and East-Southern Asia. In 1996, *CommonWealth* maintained a circulation figure of about 68,392 copies per issue, up from 67,645 the previous year (Brand, 1996).

Reader's Digest is the best-selling general-interest magazine in Taiwan. In 1996, the Taiwan edition of *Reader's Digest* had about 207,819 copies per issue, offering a 50% discount on subscriptions and up from 190,000 copies per issue in 1995. These sales figures represent two-thirds of all *Reader's Digest's* Chinese copies. The content of the Taiwanese edition of *Reader's Digest* includes translations from the original English edition, supplemented by the original Chinese-language essays of particular interest to

Taiwanese readers (Brand, 1996).

Journalist Weekly has built an image for itself as a critic of Taiwanese political matters. It is the best-selling Taiwanese news magazine. It meets the needs, such as the new taste, new knowledge and new politics, for its middle class readers (Kuo, 1997.) *Journalist Weekly* lowered its newsstand price to U.S. \$2.20 in 1996. It reached 22,764 copies per issue in 1996. In addition, it is offering a discount campaign to attract more student readers (Magazine, 1997).

PC Home, launched in February, 1996, represents the technical magazine category. It provides new computer knowledge for its readers. It has a circulation of 90,000 copies per issue. Of those 90,000 copies, 50,000 are sold on the newsstand and the remainder by subscription (Magazine, 1997).

For this study, women's magazines will be represented with *Cosmopolitan* from America and *Bella* from Taiwan. Magazines that are generally considered as typical women's publications in America such as *Family Circle*, *Good Housekeeping*, *Better Homes and Gardens* and *Woman's Day*, did not have a comparable counterpart in Taiwan. For instance, *Better Homes and Gardens* would have corresponded more closely to Taiwanese garden magazines or home service magazines. The target audience for *Woman's Day* is older women with children, which had no counterpart in Taiwan. *Bella* and *Cosmopolitan* are both targeted to young female audiences and both feature fashion and personal care products in addition to the home care and decoration articles which are the typical fare of American women's magazines (Magazine, 1997; Ulrich's-- International Periodicals Directory, 1997).

In addition, like *Cosmopolitan*, *Bella* emphasizes fashion more than *Beauty* and *Lady*. With various international women's magazines competing, such as *Harper's Bazaar*, *Cosmopolitan*, *Elle and Vogue*, these Taiwanese owned women's magazines, *Beauty*, *Lady* and *Bella*, held the first three leading places in domestic market sales. *Bella*

has long maintained stable subscriptions and lively retail sales because of the company's aggressive promotional campaigns. These promotions include advertising, discounts given to the readers, VIP membership cards and lotteries. *Bella's* circulation was 21,100 copies in 1996 (Brand, 1996).

American Magazines

The selection of American magazines was started by examining *Advertising Age's Consumer Magazine Paid Circulation List* (1997), Engel's top magazines, Bovee and Arenss' list (1982), Holm and Pruess' list (1996,) and SRDS 1997 data. From the best-selling magazines on the list, the first magazine that represented the chosen categories, such as *Money* (financial magazine) and *Reader's Digest* (general interest magazine), were picked (see Appendix D).

Money is 25 years old and had a circulation of 1,943,688 in 1996 (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996). It offers its readers the coverage of all the details of personal finance. *Money* also provides suggestions relating to retirement, spending money to get the maximum value, travel planning, consumer awareness, tax preparation and education (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996; SRDS, 1997).

Reader's Digest is the best-selling general-interest magazine in America with a circulation of 15,000,000 in 1996 (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996). It began in 1922 and has editions in 16 different languages. It is a monthly magazine that offers many different types of general-interest reading, human interest and inspiration topics. It has government, international affairs, sports, travel, science, business, education, humor and other topics (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996; Holm and Pruess, 1997; SRDS, 1997.).

Time, started in 1923, had a 4,335,092 circulation in 1996 (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996). This circulation made it the best-selling news magazine. *Time* reviews the news of the week and provides in-depth analyses of current affairs in the world. It includes the United States and international affairs, news of business, science, society and the arts. It also includes the people who made these news events happen (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996; Holm and Pruess, 1997; SRDS, 1997).

PC Magazine is 15 years old. It had a circulation of 750,000 in 1996 (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996). *PC Magazine* emphasizes IBM personal computers. Its articles are comparative reviews of computer hardware and general business software programs, such as graphics, word processing and spreadsheets (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996; SRDS, 1997)

Although some sources identified *Better Homes and Gardens* and *Woman's Day* in the women's magazine category, this study is using *Cosmopolitan* because it is more comparable with the Taiwanese women's magazine "*Bella*." *Better Homes and Gardens* more likely belongs to the garden magazine category or the home service category. Most of the *Woman's Day's* target audiences are older female readers with children. In addition, these two women's magazines' contents are not as comparable with *Bella* as *Cosmopolitan*.

Cosmopolitan started in 1886. In 1996, it had a circulation of 2,528,280 (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996). *Cosmopolitan* is written and edited for the contemporary woman. Its articles include different information for women on a variety of subjects, such as food/nutrition, health/fitness, beauty/fashion, careers, money management, law and relationships with other people (Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory --1997, 1996; SRDS, 1997).

Advertising Sample Selections

In order to select a representative yet manageable sample of advertisements, magazine issues from four months were studied: December 1996, January 1997, April 1997 and July 1997. December 1996 for American magazines and January 1997 for the Taiwanese magazines represented the most important holiday months in each country. Magazine issues in April 1997 and July 1997 represented non-holiday months in both countries.

The study was limited to only full-page advertisements. Advertisements were randomly selected from the available publications. Because some magazines carried few advertisements and some had more advertisements, a sampling system had to be implemented that took into consideration the different magazines. The goal was to select a maximum of ten advertisements in each magazine.

In the news and general interest categories, which tended to carry fewer advertisements, the first 10 advertisements were selected. The advertisements in financial publications were picked by including each sixth ad in the issue, such as the advertisements' number 1, 7, 13, 19, 25, 31, 37, 43, 49 and 55. Technical and women's magazines carry the most advertisements per issue compared to other categories in this study. For these publications every tenth advertisement was included in the sample. For example, advertisements number 1, 11, 21, 31, 41, 51, 61, 71, 81 and 91 were included. Once a sample was selected, it was labeled and numbered for coders. In the event the system located an advertisement that had already been selected from another magazine, the next advertisement was picked.

Methodology

Content analysis was used in this study because it is valuable for a systematic study of television commercials, print advertising and other printed and video materials.

Researchers can count the incidence of certain words, themes, or even types of people by using content analysis methodology (Fletcher & Bowers, 1991).

Kerlinger (1986) defined content analysis as a method of researching, studying and analyzing communication in a systematic, objective and quantitative manner for the purpose of measuring variables (Wimmer & Dominick, 1994). In addition, Kassarian (1977) noted regarding content analysis:

It is no better than its categories, since they reflect the formulated thinking, the hypotheses and the purpose of the study. The categories are, in essence, the conceptual scheme of the research design.

Categories in content analysis must be mutually exclusive and exhaustive. They also have to derive from a single classification principle. The design of this study draws from Ramaprasad and Hasegawa (1992 & 1992), Taylor, Miracle and Chang (1994), Huang (1995), Cheng and Schweitzer (1996) and Wiles, Wiles and Tjernlund (1996) in their delineations of product categories. There were 15 different product categories included in this study (See Table 4).

Table 4- Product Categories

Institutional Ads
Construction/Real Estate
Consumer Services/Books/Magazines
Motor Vehicles and Accessories
Household Products (Furniture, etc.)
Household Appliance/Electronics
Household Cleaning/Household Supplies
Toys
Food
Medicine/Health
Beverage
Alcohol/Cigarette
Personal Care/Beauty
Retail Outlets
Others

In addition, this study draws on an information/transformational cues classification system to evaluate these advertisements from Bartels (1968), Resnik and Stern (1977), Dowling (1980), Ramaprasad and Hasegawa (1992, & 1992), Lin, (1993), Bradley, Hitchon and Thorson (1994), and Wells, Burnett and Moriarity, 1995. There were 18 information/transformational cues included in this study (see Table 5).

Table 5- Informational/Transformational Cues

Informational Cues	Transformational Cues
Price or Value	New Ideas
Performance	Brand Image
Availability	User Image
Taste	Use Occasion
Guarantee or Warranties	Others
Nutrition	
Company-Sponsored Research	
Quality	
Components or Contents	
Special Offers	
Packaging or Shape	
Safety	
Independent Research	

There are some product categories that are more likely to lend themselves to standardization than others. Taking into account the product characteristics in the analysis, this study classified products into three categories: high-involvement products, medium-involvement products and low-involvement products (Bowen & Chaffee, 1974; Mueller, 1987 & 1992; Huang, 1995; Wells, Burnett, & Moriarity, 1995). The qualitatively different modes of consumer information-processing should be conceived for low-involvement as opposed to high-involvement topics. In other words, the more complex the product is in terms of its uses and other values, the greater the involvement (Bowen & Chaffee, 1974).

Overall, low-involvement products tend to be low-priced items which are bought frequently by consumers, such as household cleaning/household supplies, beverages, food, alcohol/cigarette, personal care/beauty and toys. On the other hand, high-involvement goods tend to be high-priced items that are purchased relatively infrequently,

require some pertinent information-searching by the consumer and which involve higher risk on the part of consumers. Examples are motor vehicles and accessories, jewelry and household products (furniture, etc.).

According to Mueller (1987 & 1992), Gould and Minowa (1994), Huang (1995) and Wells, Burnett and Moriarity (1995), in a more masculine society, people would expect to see more hard-sell appeal, such as frequent mention of brand names and company names in advertising. On the other hand, in a more feminine society, nature and harmony would be emphasized. Children, babies, caring, loving, helping others, patience and forgiveness would be employed more frequently in advertising. Following is the outline from Mueller (1987, & 1992) detailing the definitions of hard-sell appeal, product-merit appeal and soft-sell appeal (see Table 6).

Table 6 - Different Selling Appeals

Hard-Sell Appeal	In examining the headline and visual, the primary emphasis is on distinguishing the product from the competition. Comparisons, either of a particular criterion or the product in general, are common. Explicit comparisons may mention the competition by name. Implicit comparisons, with statements such as "number one" and "leader," also signal a hard-sell approach. The tone is high key and the communication style is aggressive.
Product-Merit Appeal	In examining the headline and the visual, the primary focus is on the product and its characteristics. Some aspect or feature of the product is described or demonstrated but without reference to competing brands. The focus tends to be on facts and information. The benefit to the consumer may be added directly, or merely implied. The overall tone is somewhat higher key and the communication style is more straightforward.
Soft-Sell Appeal	In examining the headline and visual, the primary emphasis is on creating a mood or an atmosphere rather than on highlighting the product and its features. This may be achieved through the use of a beautiful scene or the development of an emotional story or verse. Human emotional sentiments are emphasized over clear-cut, product-related appeals. The tone is low key and the communication style tends to be more suggestive than direct.

Source: Mueller, 1987 & 1992.

Coding

There was a total of 375 advertisements systematically chosen from 40 different magazines from both countries. The data included 192 American magazine advertisements and 195 Taiwanese magazine advertisements. All advertisements were coded for a coder identification, a magazine issue number, the individual advertising numbers, the product categories, represented levels of product involvement, selling appeals and informational/transformational cues.

Coders were given several coding sheets (see Appendix E) and a set of coding instructions (see Appendix F) with operational definitions, and they viewed a selection of advertisements prior to the actual study. A training session was also provided to explain the coding instructions step-by-step for the coders. In addition, coders could ask questions during the training session.

Reliability of Coding

Because it is very important to use coders of similar backgrounds and education, two Taiwanese bilingual graduate students who have both English and Chinese language abilities and two American coders with backgrounds in mass communications coded a sample of five advertisements in one American magazine and five advertisements from one Taiwanese magazine.

Intercoder reliability was determined by the level of agreement for independent coders who coded the same content using the same coding instrument (Wimmer & Dominick, 1994). Intercoder reliability was tested with the sample of 10 advertisements (see Table 7). By using the total number of the data minus the number of disagreements divided by the number of the data (Krippendorff, 1990), an intercoder reliability score of 83% resulted (see Appendix G).

Table 7- Intercoder Reliability Formula

Intercoder Reliability=(Total Data-Disagree Data)/Total Data

Source: Krippendorff, 1980

Treatment of Data

Once all advertisements were coded, the results were entered as variables into SPSS, a computer-statistical-analysis software program. These data were analyzed using Pearson correlation for intercoder reliability tests, cross-tab, frequency and mode to determine differences between American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. In addition, chi-square, was calculated by a spreadsheet to test the hypotheses.

The main reasons for using chi-square in this study were the following:

Chi-Square value (X^2) is a statistical test of significance used to determine whether or not frequency differences have occurred on the basis of chance. It required that the data be in nominal form, or the actual number of cases (frequency of occurrence) fall into two or more discrete categories. It is considered to be a nonparametric test (no population assumptions are required for its use) (Sprinthall, 1994).

For each individual advertisement, codes recorded the identified individual coders, the magazine, and the advertisements being observed and classified the product category and the product involvement level. In addition, three different informational/transformational cues were recorded, as well as the dominant informational/transformational cue used, secondary informational/transformational cues present and if a third informational/transformational cue was used it was coded. If no second or third informational/transformational cues were present, the cells were left blank. Finally, the selling appeal was entered in the last column.

Only advertising selling appeal, informational/transformational cues, product category, and product involvement were considered in the statistical analysis. Three

variables that were coded by the coders, coder identification number, magazine number and advertising number, were included in tests of intercoder reliability along with all other variables, but these three items were not included in any of the statistical analyses of the hypotheses.

The results were reported in terms of percentages, frequencies and X^2 to answer the research questions, hypotheses testing and intercoder reliability.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Measure Reliability

Pearson correlation was used to test intercoder reliability. Pearson correlation results showed the linear relationship between two variables. In the results, intercoder reliability was statistically significant at the 0.01 level in all of the variables of informational/transformational cues, product category and product involvement. The results also showed intercoder reliability statistically significant among most of the selling appeal categories at the 0.01 level. Product category had the highest intercoder reliability score and selling appeal had the lowest intercoder reliability score (see Appendices H- K).

The two Taiwanese coders, coder 1 and coder 2, had stronger intercoder reliability than other combinations of coders. They are Marshall international graduate students who have similar backgrounds and held business degrees from the same university in Taiwan. On the other hand, coder 3 is a undergraduate student in Journalism and Mass Communications at Marshall University. Coder 4 is a professional expert in the mass communications field. Coder 1 and coder 3 did not reach the statistically significant score at the 0.01 level in intercoder reliability of the selling appeal.

As Appendix H shows, the correlation coefficients for intercoder reliability of informational/transformational cues were statistically significant at the 0.01 level.

As Appendix I shows, intercoder reliability in the product category had the highest agreement among all the variables tested. Product category might be the easiest variable in which to establish agreement. At the 0.01 level, intercoder reliability was significant in the product category. The correlation coefficient of product category for two Taiwanese coders who had the most agreement in this category at 0.958. In addition, the correlation coefficient for product category among other coder combinations ranged from a 0.67 to a 0.72.

Appendix J shows the intercoder reliability of product involvement. Intercoder reliability was significant at the 0.01 level with correlation coefficients ranging from 0.58 to 0.82.

In intercoder reliability of the selling appeal category, coder 1 and coder 2, coder 1 and coder 4 were significant at the 0.01 level. The correlation coefficient of product category for coder 1 and coder 3 had only 0.074. It was not statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Coder 2 and coder 4 had statistically significant differences in combinations with all other coders (see Appendix K).

Product Involvement Analysis

Coders classified advertised products into high-involvement, medium-involvement and low-involvement (see Table 8).

Product categories that were most often classified as high-involvement were household products (100%), construction/real estate (86.4%) and motor vehicles and accessories (94.2%). More than half of the household appliance/electronic products were categorized as high-involvement products (65.6%) while 33.1% were identified as medium-involvement products and only 1.37% were low-involvement products.

Consumer services/books/magazine and retail outlets products were likely to be categorized as medium-involvement products (consumer services/books/magazine products, 50.6%; & retail outlets products, 53.4%) or high-involvement products (consumer services/books/magazine products, 31.8%; retail outlets products, 39.3%). In addition, coders placed some of the medicine/health and personal care/beauty products as medium-involvement (medicine/health products, 66.2%; personal care/beauty products, 59.3%) or low-involvement products (medicine/health products, 23.3%; & personal care/beauty products, 36.1%).

Coders coded the toy category as medium-involvement 100% of the time. Food and beverage products were classified as low-involvement (food product, 96.3%; beverage products 86.1%). On the other hand, household cleaning/household supplies and alcohol/cigarette products in magazine advertisements were categorized into low-involvement (household cleaning/household supplies, 60%; alcohol/cigarette products, 51.5%) or medium-involvement products (household cleaning/household supplies, 40%; alcohol/cigarette products, 48.5%).

Coders categorized institutional ads into all three product involvement levels (high-involvement, 28.6; medium-involvement, 38.1%; low- involvement, 33.3%).

Table 8- Product Category and Product Involvement Crosstabulation

	Product Involvement						Total
	High - Involvement Products		Medium- Involvement Products		Low- Involvement Products		
Institutional Ads	18	28.6	24	38.1	21	33.3	63
Construction/Real Estate	19	86.4	1	4.6	2	9.1	22
Consumer Services/Books/Magazines	105	31.8	167	50.6	58	17.6	330
Motor Vehicles and Accessories	210	94.2	10	4.5	3	1.4	223
Household Products (Furniture, etc.)	3	100					3
Household Appliance/Electronics	248	65.6	125	33.1	5	1.3	378
Household Cleaning/Household Supplies			6	40	9	60	15
Toys			4	100			4
Food			1	3.7	26	96.3	27
Medicine/Health	13	14.4	56	62.2	21	23.3	90
Beverage			5	14.0	31	86.1	36
Alcohol/Cigarette			16	48.5	17	51.5	33
Personal Care/Beauty	12	4.7	153	59.3	93	36.1	258
Retail Outlets	11	39.3	15	53.6	2	7.1	28
Others	13	34.2	14	36.8	11	29.0	38
Total	652	42.1	597	38.6	299	19.3	1548

Hypotheses Results

The hypotheses results were discussed in two sections: product involvement with selling appeals and product involvement with the number of informational/transformational cues in American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements.

Selling Appeal Used

Overall, American magazine advertising had more high-involvement products (46.1%) than did Taiwanese advertising (38.2%). For both countries, high-involvement products used more product merit appeal than the other two selling appeals (see Figure 1).

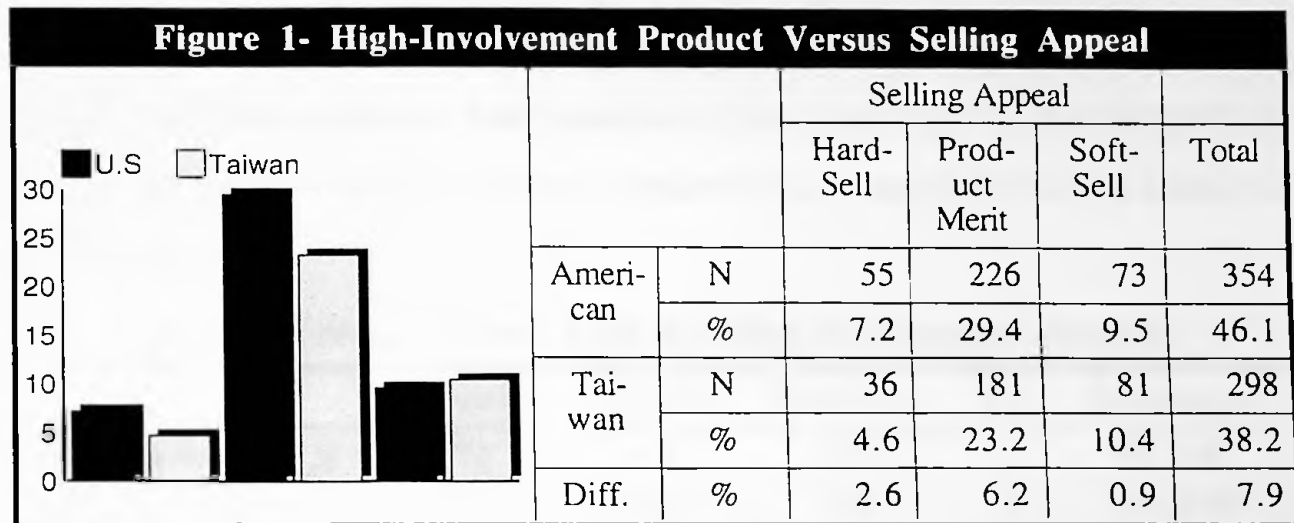


Table 9 shows the results of the X^2 test for differences in the relative frequency of high-involvement products that used hard-sell, product-merit and soft-sell appeals in both American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements.

Hypothesis 1, that there is a difference between American and Taiwanese high-involvement products use of hard-sell appeal in magazine advertisements, was accepted. The result of the X^2 was 4.0 at a statistically significant level of 0.05. In other words, there was a significant difference between American and Taiwanese use of hard-sell appeals of high-involvement products to distinguish their products from competitors' products.

Hypothesis 2, that there is a difference between American and Taiwanese high-involvement products use of product-merit appeal in magazine advertisements, was accepted, too. The X^2 of 5.0 was statistically significant at the 0.05 level. Comparing the use of product-merit to the use of high-involvement products, there was a significant difference in the selling strategy that emphasizes one's own product and product

characteristics.

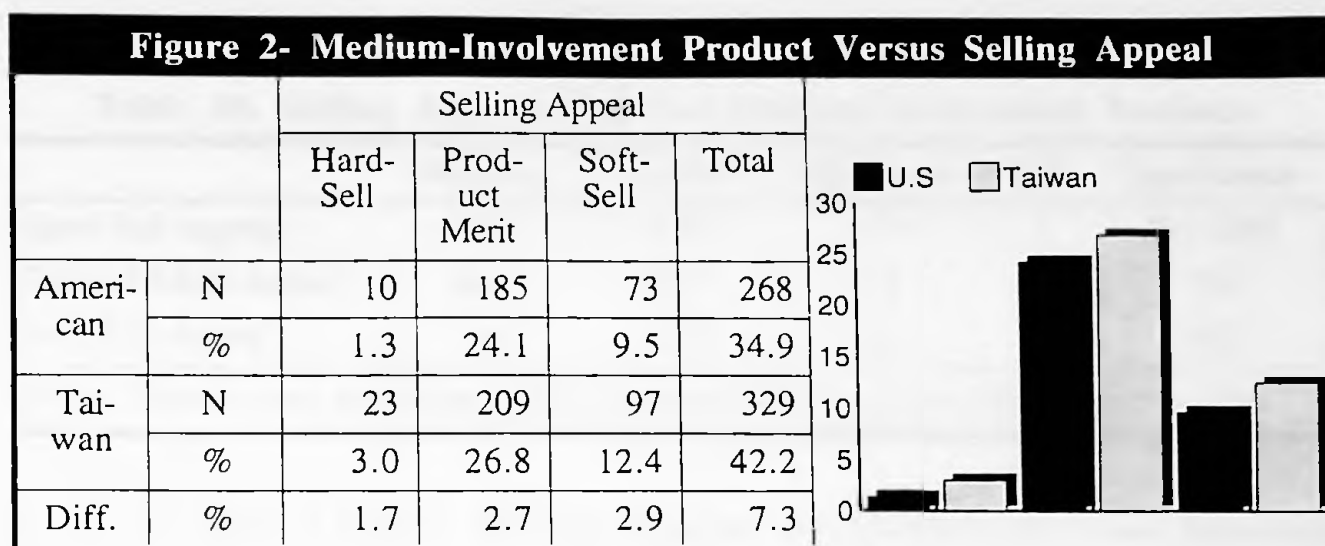
For hypothesis 3, that there is a difference between American and Taiwanese high-involvement products use of soft-sell appeal in magazine advertisements, was rejected. The X^2 was 0.4. It was rejected at the 0.05 level. The hypothesis did not have a statistically significant difference between American and Taiwanese use of soft-sell appeals for high-involvement products. Both American and Taiwanese high-involvement products in the magazine advertisements used very similar selling strategies for creating a mood or an atmosphere.

Table 9- Selling Appeals Used for High-Involvement Products

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
Hard-Sell Appeal	7.2	4.6	4.0	1	P< 0.05
Product-Merit Appeal	29.4	23.2	5.0	1	P< 0.05
Soft-Sell Appeal	9.5	10.4	0.4	1	NS

Note. Sample size: American= 354, Taiwan= 298 $X^2_{0.05}(1)= 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1)= 2.71$

As shown in figure 2, American magazine advertisements had 7.3% fewer medium-involvement products (34.9%) than medium-involvement products (42.2%) in Taiwanese magazine advertisements. In other words, Taiwanese advertisements had more advertisements made for medium-involvement products than American advertisements made for medium-involvement products. Overall, medium-involvement products used product-merit appeal more than hard-sell and soft-sell appeals in both American and Taiwanese advertisements.



As Table 10 shows, hypothesis 4, that there is a difference between American and Taiwanese medium-involvement products use of hard-sell appeal in magazine advertisements, was accepted. The X^2 of 5.1 was a statistically significant difference at the 0.05 level. Both of the countries, for medium-involvement products, used advertising selling strategies that compared their own products to other competitors' products in the magazine advertisements.

Hypothesis 5, that there is a difference between American and Taiwanese medium-involvement products use of product merit-appeal in magazine advertisements, was rejected. The X^2 was 1.5, and was rejected at the 0.05 level. There was no statistically significant difference. In other words, Taiwanese and American magazine advertisements medium-involvement products used similar selling appeals in emphasizing the products themselves.

Hypothesis 6, that there is a difference between American and Taiwanese medium-involvement products use of soft-sell appeal in magazine advertisements, was rejected at the 0.05 level. Its X^2 was 3.4. It was not a statistically significant in the 0.05 level. This hypothesis is suggesting that advertisements for American medium-involvement products used creating a mood or an atmosphere in a manner similar to Taiwanese magazine

advertisements for medium-involvement products.

Table 10- Selling Appeals Used for Medium-Involvement Products

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
Hard-Sell Appeal	1.3	3.0	5.1	1	P < 0.05
Product-Merit Appeal	24.1	26.8	1.5	1	NS
Soft-Sell Appeal	9.5	12.4	3.4	1	NS

Note. Sample size: American= 268, Taiwan= 329 $X^2_{0.05}(1)= 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1)= 2.71$

As shown in figure 3, American magazine advertisements had a lower percentage of low-involvement products (19%) than low-involvement products in Taiwanese magazine advertisements (19.6%). In addition, in both countries, low-involvement products in the magazine advertisements used more product-merit appeal than soft-sell and hard-sell appeals.

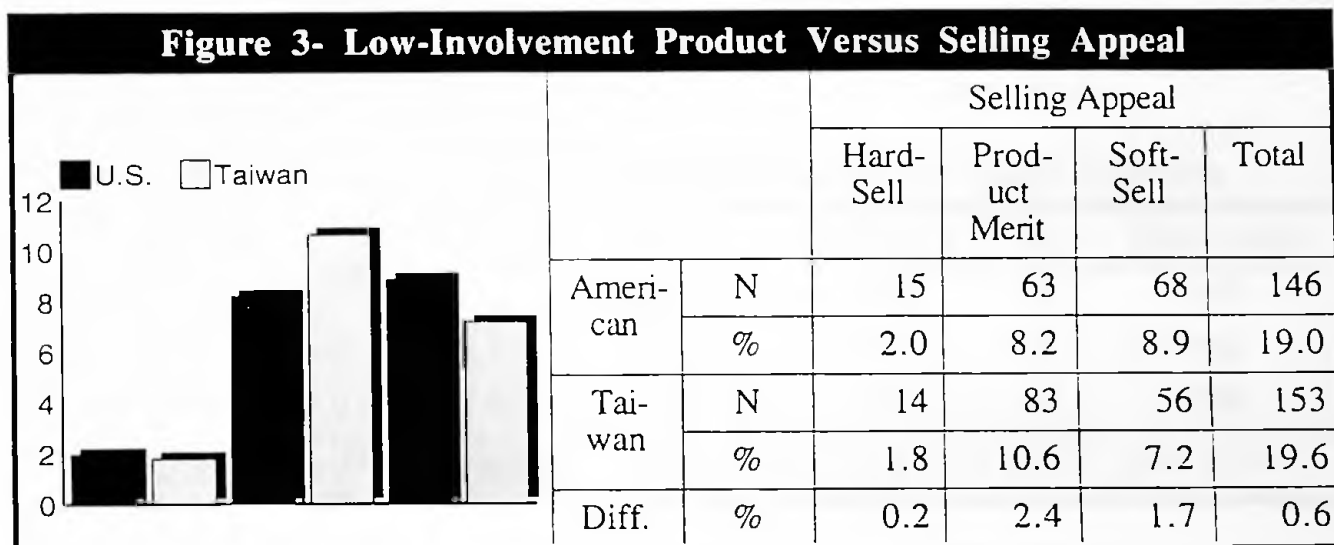


Table 11 shows the results of the X^2 test for the differences in the relative frequency of low-involvement products that used hard-sell, product-merit and soft-sell appeals in both American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements.

Hypothesis 7, that there is a difference between American and Taiwanese low-involvement products use of product-merit appeal in magazine advertisements, was

rejected. The X^2 of 0.00 was rejected at the 0.05 level. It was not a statistically significant difference. In other words, both American and Taiwanese low-involvement products used similar hard-sell strategies to compare their products to other companies' products.

Hypothesis 8, that there is a difference between American and Taiwanese low-involvement products use of product-merit appeal in magazine advertisements, was rejected. Its X^2 was 2.7. It was rejected at the 0.05 level. In another words, American and Taiwanese low-involvement products used similar strategies to sell their products by emphasizing products themselves.

Hypothesis 9, that there is a difference between American and Taiwanese low-involvement products use of soft-sell appeal in magazine advertisements, was rejected at the 0.05 level. Its X^2 was 1.2. In other words, both countries used about the same soft-sell appeal in their low-involvement products. Their low-involvement products used emotional appeal and created a mood to sell their low-involvement products.

Table 11- Selling Appeals Used for Low-Involvement Products

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
Hard-Sell Appeal	2.0	1.8	0.00	1	NS
Product-Merit Appeal	8.2	10.6	2.7	1	NS
Soft-Sell Appeal	8.9	7.2	1.2	1	NS

Note. Sample size: American= 146, Taiwan= 153 $X^2_{0.05}(1)= 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1)= 2.71$

Number of Informational/Transformational Cues Used

Hypothesis 10, high-involvement products used more informational/transformational cues in American than Taiwanese magazine advertisements, was rejected. Compared with the American advertisements' frequencies of high-involvement products that used three or more informational/transformational cues in the magazines advertisements (41.0%), Taiwanese high-involvement products used three or

more informational/transformational cues in fewer instances (35.1%), but the difference was not statistically significant (see Figure 4). Its X^2 was 2.9, and rejected at the 0.05 level (see Table 12).

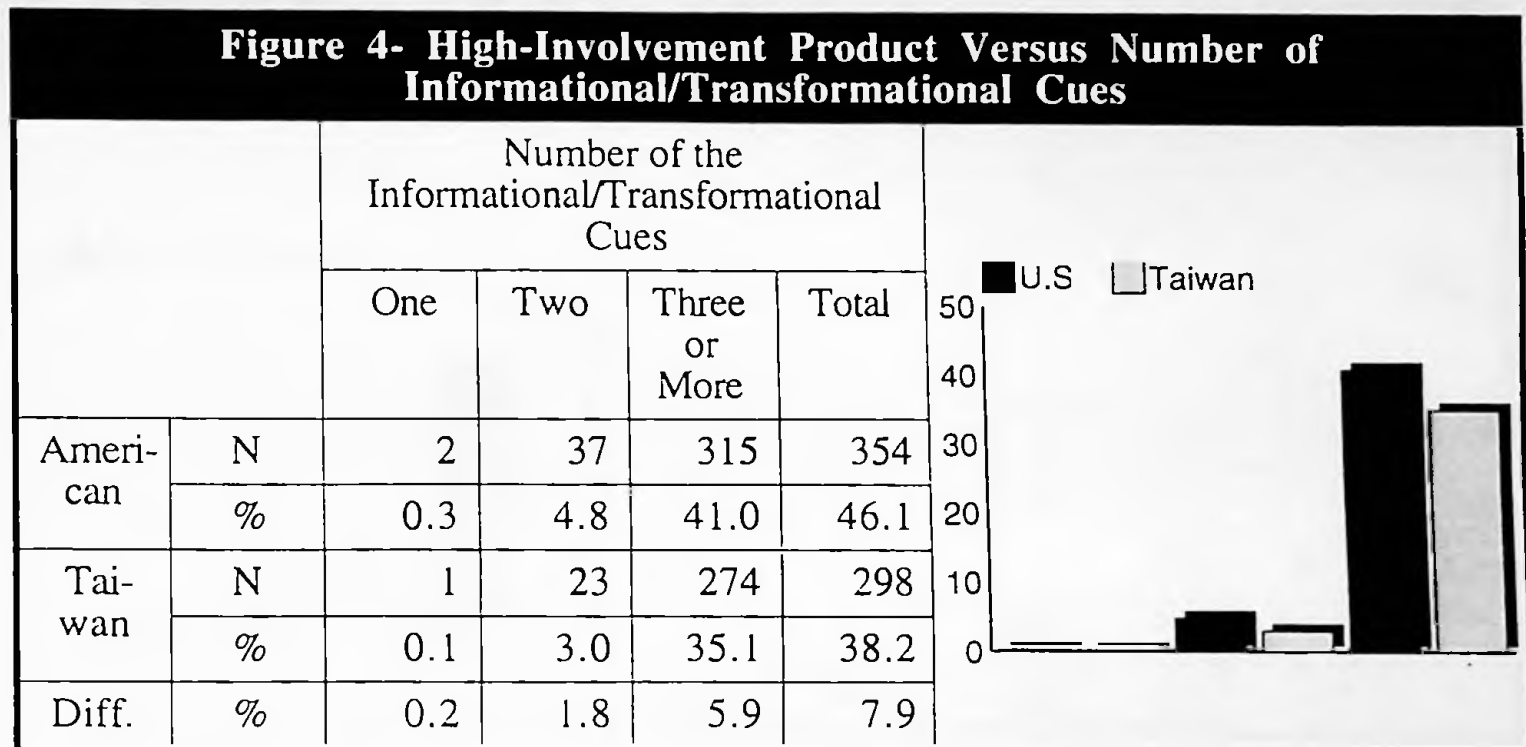


Table 12- Number of Informational/Transformational Cues Used for High-Involvement Products

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
One	0.3	0.1	0.0	1	NS
Two	4.8	3.0	3.3	1	NS
Three or More	41.0	35.1	2.9	1	NS

Note. Sample size: American= 298, Taiwan= 354 $X^2_{0.05}(1)= 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1)= 2.71$

As Table 13 shows, hypothesis 11, that medium-involvement products used more informational/transformational cues in American than Taiwanese magazine advertisements, was accepted. The X^2 of 5.7 was a statistically significant difference at the 0.05 level. There was a significant difference between American and Taiwanese medium-involvement products that used three or more informational/transformational cues in the magazine advertisements. As Figure 5 shows, Taiwanese used three or more

informational/transformational cues in 33.6% of their medium-involvement products in magazine advertisements. It was greater than the American use of three or more informational/transformational cues for medium-involvement products (27.3%).

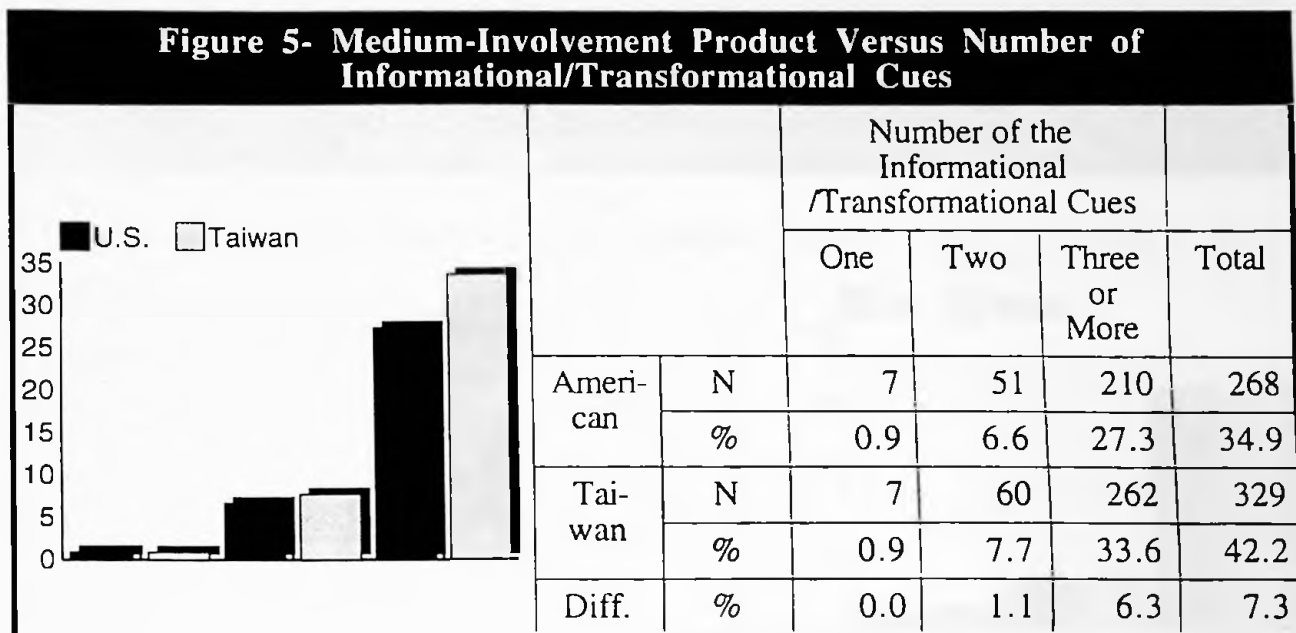


Table 13- Number of Informational/Transformational Cues Used for Medium-Involvement Products

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
One	0.9	0.9	0.0	1	NS
Two	6.6	7.7	0.7	1	NS
Three or More	27.3	33.6	5.7	1	P < 0.05

Note. Sample size: American= 268, Taiwan= 329 $X^2_{0.05}(1)= 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1)= 2.71$

For hypothesis 12, that low-involvement products used more informational/transformational cues in American than Taiwanese magazine advertisements, was rejected. It was rejected at the 0.05 level with $X^2= 0.0$. (see Table 14). In these magazine advertisements, the percent of the American low-involvement products that used three or more informational/transformational cues was 15.9%. On the other hand, the percent of the Taiwanese low-involvement products that used three or more

informational/transformational cues was 15.8%. American low-involvement products that used three or more informational/transformational cues was only 0.1% greater than Taiwanese low-involvement products. They used a similar number of advertising appeals in low-involvement products' advertisements (see Figure 6).

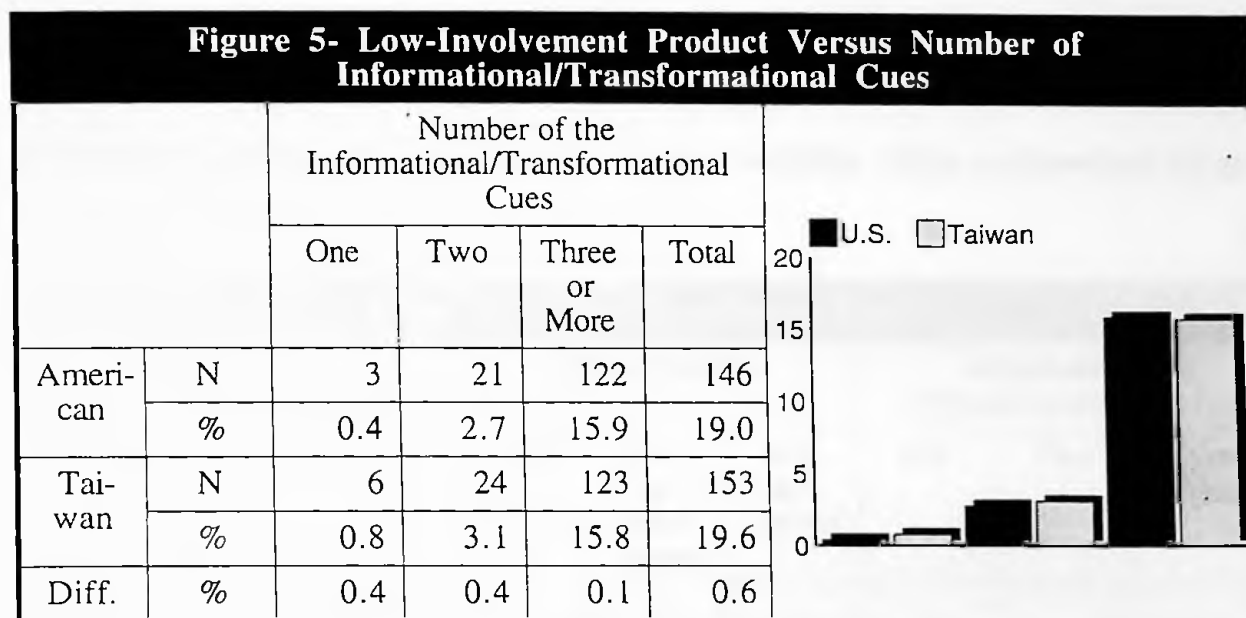


Table 14- Number of Informational/Transformational Cues Used for Low-Involvement Products

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
One	0.4	0.8	1.0	1	NS
Two	2.7	3.1	0.2	1	NS
Three or More	15.9	15.8	0.0	1	NS

Note. Sample size: American= 146, Taiwan= 153 $X^2_{0.05}(1) = 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1) = 2.71$

Hypothesis Summary

All of the hypothesis results were tested at the 0.05 level. Medium-involvement products that used soft-sell appeal and low-involvement products that used product-merit appeal did not have a statistically significant difference at the 0.05 level. However, they could have been accepted at the 0.1 level. It is possible that medium-involvement products

are being standardized or compromised through soft-sell appeals, and low-involvement products in American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements are standardized or compromised with the use of product-merit appeals.

The hypothesis results can be summarized in the following table (see Table 15). Check marks indicate there was a statistically significant difference between American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements' use of these variables. Other combinations did not show statistically significant differences.

	Selling Appeals			Informational /Transformational Cues		
	Hard-Sell Appeal	Product-Merit Appeal	Soft-Sell Appeal	One	Two	Three or More
High-Involvement Products	√	√				
Medium-Involvement Products	√					√
Low-Involvement Products						

Other Findings

As Appendix L shows, there were other similarities and differences between American magazine advertisements and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. For instance, the most-often used selling appeal was product-merit; the most-often used secondary informational/transformational cue was performance; the most-often used third informational/transformational cue was availability and the most-often used product category was household appliance/electronics in both countries.

For American magazine advertisements, performance was the most-often used dominant informational/transformational cue compared with Taiwanese magazine advertisements use of brand image. Also, product involvement levels were different

between the two countries. The most frequent type of product involvement in America was high-involvement while the most frequent type of product involvement in Taiwan was medium-involvement (see Appendix L).

Using the chi-square test to examine the statistically significant differences in the use of informational/transformation cues between American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements, six informational/transformational cues had statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level. They were price or value ($X^2= 4.5$), performance ($X^2= 28.6$), taste ($X^2= 6.7$), guarantee or warranties ($X^2= 4.2$), special offers ($X^2= 31.7$) and user image ($X^2= 4.8$). On the other hand, America and Taiwan both used performance, brand image and availability the most, but the Taiwanese use of these three was more evenly distributed among the three most used informational/transformational cues. Also, brand image did not show statistically significant differences, distinguishing it as a more universally applied appeal between American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements (see Table 16).

Table 16- Use of Informational/Transformational Cues in America and Taiwan

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
Price or Value	4.9	6.3	4.5	1	P< 0.05
Performance	21.1	14.2	28.7	1	P<0.05
Availability	9.3	11.6	6.7	1	P< 0.05
Taste	1.1	0.7	1.9	1	NS
Guarantee or Warranties	2.3	1.5	4.2	1	P< 0.05
Nutrition	1.1	0.7	1.5	1	NS
Company-Sponsored Research	0.8	1.1	1.5	1	NS
Quality	6.6	6.8	0.2	1	NS
Components or Contents	8.6	8.2	0.1	1	NS
Special Offers	2.3	5.5	31.7	1	P< 0.05
Packaging or Shape	5.0	5.6	0.8	1	NS
Safety	1.9	1.7	0.1	1	NS
Independent Research	1.2	1.4	0.4	1	NS
New Ideas	2.4	2.5	0.1	1	NS
Brand Image	16.8	15.9	0.3	1	NS
User Image	5.0	6.5	4.8	1	P< 0.05
Use Occasion	0.6	0.6	0.0	1	NS
Others	3.2	3.4	0.3	1	NS
One Appeal	14.2	13.7	0.3	1	NS
Two Appeal	1.6	1.8	0.0	1	NS

Note. Sample size: American= 2304, Taiwan= 2340 $X^2_{0.05}(1)= 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1)= 2.71$

As Appendix M shows, there are some differences and similarities in the total informational/transformational cues between American and Taiwanese magazine advertising. Performance had the biggest difference (6.9%) between American and Taiwanese use of total informational/transformational cues. The greatest differences between the two countries were, in descending order, special offers (3.2% difference),

availability (2.3% difference) and user image (1.46% difference). Besides these four cues, all others had less than a 1.00% difference.

Comparing the frequency of use of dominant informational/transformational cues in America and Taiwan revealed a few interesting patterns. The dominant informational/transformational cue in advertisements ran from the greatest difference, "performance," at a 16.7% difference in frequency to the least difference, "use occasion," with a 0.0% difference in frequency of use in both American and Taiwanese magazine (see Appendix N).

As Appendix O shows, the least difference in frequency of the second informational/transformational cues used in an advertisement ranged from 4.1% for "performance" to 0.0% for "use occasion." With the third informational/transformational cue used in an advertisement "price or value" demonstrated the greatest difference in frequency at 2.3% and "nutrition," "new ideas," and "user occasion" all showed no differences in frequencies of use (see Appendix P).

As shown in Appendix Q, there were fewer differences in selling appeal between American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. American magazine advertisements used hard-sell appeals only one percent greater than did Taiwanese. Product-merit appeal had almost the same result as hard-sell appeal. Taiwanese magazine advertisements used product-merit appeal 1.4% less than did American magazine advertisements. Soft-sell appeal, the biggest selling appeal difference between two countries showed 2.1% greater usage in Taiwan than in America. In addition, as Table 17 shows, there were no statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level in all three selling appeals between American and Taiwanese magazine advertising.

Table 17- Selling Appeals Used in America and Taiwan

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
Hard-Sell Appeal	10.4	9.4	0.3	1	NS
Product-Merit Appeal	61.7	60.6	0.0	1	NS
Soft-Sell Appeal	27.9	30	0.9	1	NS

Note. Sample size: American= 768, Taiwan=780 $X^2_{0.05}(1)= 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1)= 2.71$

As Appendix R shows, several product categories were evenly represented in both American and Taiwanese publications. For example, the toy category had the least percentage difference between America and Taiwan; in both countries, toys represented 0.3% of the products in the sample. On the other hand, the biggest frequency difference was the medicine/health category with a 6.3% difference. American magazine selections had no advertisements for construction/real estate advertisements. Taiwanese advertisements had no advertising for household products, such as furniture, etc.

Household appliance/electronics products accounted for more than 20% of the products in the sample selections. American magazine advertisements found the category was 23.2% and Taiwanese magazine advertising for household appliance/electronics was 25.6%. The percent difference in product category frequency ranged from the greatest differences of 6.3% (medicine/health), 5.1% (personal care), and 3.8% (consumer/service/books/magazines) to no difference -- 0% (toys).

This study also used the chi-square test to examine the statistically significant differences in product categories between American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. There were several statistically significant differences between the two countries, such as institutional ads, construction/real estate, household cleaning/household supplies, food, medicine/health and personal care/beauty categories, accepted at the 0.05 level in these categories. Additionally, although consumer services/books/magazines and household products, such as furniture, etc. were rejected at the 0.05 level, they were

accepted at the 0.1 level (see Table 18), suggesting there may be some differences in the placement of these product categories in America and Taiwan under study.

Table 18- Product Categories Used in America and Taiwan

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
Institutional Ads	5.3	2.8	5.7	1	P < 0.05
Construction/Real Estate	0.0	2.8	22.0	1	P < 0.05
Consumer Services/Books /Magazines	19.4	23.2	3.1	1	NS
Motor Vehicles and Accessories	15.6	13.2	1.3	1	NS
Household Products (Furniture, etc.)	0.4	0.0	3.0	1	NS
Household Appliance/Electronics	23.2	25.6	1.3	1	NS
Household Cleaning/Household Supplies	1.7	0.3	8.1	1	P < 0.05
Toys	0.3	0.3	0.0	1	NS
Food	2.7	0.8	8.3	1	P < 0.05
Medicine/Health	9.0	2.7	25.6	1	P < 0.05
Beverage	2.2	2.4	0.1	1	NS
Alcohol/Cigarette	2.1	2.2	0.0	1	NS
Personal Care/Beauty	14.1	19.2	6.8	1	P < 0.05
Retail Outlets	2.1	1.5	0.6	1	NS
Others	2.0	3.0	1.7	1	NS

Note. Sample size: American= 768, Taiwan= 780 $X^2_{0.05}(1) = 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1) = 2.7$

American and Taiwanese magazines used similar product involvement levels overall. Magazines from both countries had the same percentages of low-involvement products (0.6%) (see Appendix S). Chi-square tests revealed statistically significant differences in high- and medium- involvement products at the 0.05 level (see Table 19).

Table 19- Product Involvements' Used in America and Taiwan

	American	Taiwan	Chi-Square	d.f.	Significance
High-involvement Products	46.1	38.2	4.8	1	P< 0.05
Medium-Involvement Products	34.9	42.2	6.2	1	P< 0.05
Low-Involvement Products	19.0	19.6	0.2	1	NS

Note. Sample size: American= 768, Taiwan=780 $X^2_{0.05}(1)= 3.84$ $X^2_{0.1}(1)= 2.71$

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the relationship between product involvement, advertising selling appeals and informational/transformational cues with advertising standardization, compromise or specialization as strategic approaches to international advertising.

Product Categories

Table 18 shows several important considerations about product categories in American and Taiwanese advertisements. Several product categories, such as institutional ads, construction/real estate, consumer services/books/magazines, household products (furniture, etc.), household cleaning/household supplies, food, medicine/health and personal care/beauty, were placed in both American and Taiwanese magazines with less frequency than other products. The chi-square results show there were statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level in these product categories. These results suggest these products were sold with different approaches in American and Taiwan.

On the other hand, motor vehicles and accessories, household appliance/electronics, toys, beverage, alcohol/cigarette and retail outlets appeared in both markets with greater frequency than other product categories. The chi-square results showed there were no statistically significant differences in these product categories. These six product categories used the magazine medium in similar fashion in American and Taiwanese markets.

The household appliance/electronics product category represented over 20% of total product categories in both countries. It had the highest frequency among product categories in both American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. Heavy representation of household appliance/electronics products in magazines from both countries indicate the category dominated advertising in the two markets.

There were no construction/real estate product advertisements in American samples and no advertisements for household products in Taiwan. In this study, these two product categories did not cross international lines; standardized strategies may not have been appropriate for these products, the magazine medium may not have reached targeted audiences or the absence of the product category may simply have been an atypical circumstance.

Product Involvement and Selling Appeals Used

Hypothesis testing revealed some important considerations about the use of selling appeals in American and Taiwanese markets. Study findings suggest several conclusions about standardization, compromise or specialization of strategic approaches.

Overall, American magazine advertisements advertised more high-involvement products compared with more medium-involvement products that dominated Taiwanese magazine advertisements. The dominant selling appeal was product-merit appeal in American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. This would indicate in general that product-merit appeal was used to standardize approaches in these two markets. On the other hand, appeals used for international advertisements varied depending on the product being advertised, as an examination of the appeals used with high-, medium-, and low-involvement products indicates.

High-involvement products had no statistically significant differences when soft-sell appeals were used indicating that soft-sell with high-involvement products was a standardized approach. Hard-sell and product-merit appeals in high-involvement product were used too differently to suggest a standardized international advertising strategy.

Medium-involvement products, such as toys and medicine/health products, used product-merit without statistically significant differences between the two markets reflecting a standardized strategy. Medium-involvement products used hard-sell or soft-sell

approaches in specialized strategies.

Low-involvement products, such as beverage and alcohol/cigarette products, used hard-sell and soft-sell appeals similarly, a standardized approach. For product-merit appeal, the results showed specialized approaches were employed. Differences between American and Taiwanese magazine advertising were statistically significant.

Product Involvement and Informational/Transformational Cues Used

Hypothesis testing revealed several important considerations about advertising's use of informational/transformational cues in American and Taiwanese markets. The findings demonstrate advertising cues are used differently in standardized, compromised and specialized strategies.

Results reflected that high-involvement products were standardized or compromised with the use of three or more cues or the use of only one informational/transformational cue. Advertisements using two informational/transformational cues had a statistically significant difference between American and Taiwan indicated a specialized strategy.

Medium-involvement products used one or two informational/transformational cues similarly in the two countries indicating a standardized or compromised approach in magazine advertisements. On the other hand, medium-involvement products using three or more informational/transformational cues had a statistically significant difference between American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. In this case, medium-involvement products used three or more informational/transformation cues in compromised or specialized approaches.

With low-involvement products, standardized or compromised advertising used one, two, three or more informational/transformational cues in American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements.

For standardized advertising strategies, the informational/transformational cues of performance and availability were the approaches used in American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. On the other hand, the informational/transformational cues of the brand image were used in both countries' specialized magazine advertising. Taiwanese magazine advertisements used brand image appeal often as informational/transformational cues. Performance cues were the most used cue in American magazine advertisements.

Implications

The following matrix summarizes how standardized and specialized strategies were applied in the sample advertisement (see Table 20).

The following text is extremely faint and illegible, appearing to be a continuation of the text or a detailed description of the matrix above.

		Table 20- Implications Table					
		Standardized Approach			Specialized Approach		
		Selling Appeals			Selling Appeals		
		Hard-Sell	Product-Merit	Soft-Sell	Hard-Sell	Product-Merit	Soft-Sell
Product Involvements	High-Involvement			1 cue or 3 or more cues	2 cues	2 cues	
	Medium-Involvement		1 cue or 2 cues		3 cues or more		3 cues or more
	Low-Involvement	1 cue, 2 cues, or 3 or more cues		1 cue, 2 cues, or 3 or more cues		1 cue, 2 cues, or 3 or more cues	
		Taste Nutrition Company-Sponsored Research Quality Components or Contents Packaging or Shape Safety Independent Research New Ideas Brand Image Use Occasion Others			Price or Value Performance Availability Guarantee or Warranties Special Offers User Image		

Specific informational/transformational cues, such as price or value, performance, availability, guarantee or warranties, special offer and user image, had statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level. For these informational/transformational cues, international advertisers used specialized approaches in American and Taiwan markets. On the other hand, informational/transformational cues of taste, nutrition, company-sponsored research, packaging or shape, safety, independent research, new ideas, brand image and use occasion, showed no statistically significant differences between American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. These informational/transformational cues were used

involvement product. Half of the coders identified 2 informational/transformational cues while another half of them identified 1 to 3 or more informational/transformational cues with brand image as the dominant appeal used. Most of the coders also classified the advertising as a soft-sell appeal. Applying this data to the matrix, this advertisement was classified as using a standardized strategy.

**Table 22- Taiwanese Advertising Sample-
Number 31**



Source: *Journalist Weekly*, July, 1997.
Inside Back Cover Page.

CONCLUSION

Summary

This study was designed to examine American and Taiwanese standardization, compromise, or specialization in American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. Three hundred eighty-seven advertising samples, 192 American advertisements and 195 Taiwanese advertisements, were randomly chosen from 20 different magazine issues in each country in four different months' issues. Two magazine issues representing the holiday issues were December 1996 and January, 1997. April 1997 and July 1997 represented regular non-holiday magazine issues. These 20 magazine issues were selected from five different magazine categories: financial magazines, general interest magazines, news magazines, technical magazines and woman's magazines.

Content analysis was used as a data-gathering tool. A coding instrument with several coding sheets was given to four trained coders: two American coders with journalism and mass communications backgrounds and two Taiwanese coders with bilingual (English/Chinese) language abilities. The total of 1548 useful row data was entered to an SPSS computer software program for analysis. Additionally, a spreadsheet was used to calculate the chi-square values.

This study drew a number of useful conclusions regarding strategic approaches to international advertising. Overall, both countries were similar in their use of product-merit appeal, performance cues, availability cues and household appliance/electronics product.

All product categories were classified into three different levels of product involvement to test the hypothesis. Coders coded household products, construction/real estate and motor vehicles and accessories products into the high-involvement product category. Toys, consumer services/books/magazines and retail outlets products were categorized as medium-involvement products. Household cleaning/household supplies and alcohol/cigarette products in magazine advertisements were categorized as low-involvement

High-involvement products used a soft-sell appeal and one or three or more informational/transformational cues in standardized advertising in both American and Taiwanese magazines. On the other hand, high-involvement products used hard-sell or product-merit appeals and two informational/transformational cues in specialized American and Taiwanese magazine advertising.

Medium-involvement products used product-merit appeal and one or two informational/transformational cues for standardized or compromised magazine advertising appeals in America and Taiwan. Medium-involvement products used hard-sell or soft-sell appeals or used three or more informational/transformational cues reflecting specialized or compromised advertising strategies.

Finally, low-involvement products used hard-sell or soft-sell appeals and any number of informational/transformational cues applied to standardized or compromised advertising in American and Taiwanese chosen magazine categories. Low-involvement products used product-merit appeals and used specialized or compromised advertising approaches in magazines.

Assumptions and Limitations

This study used content analysis. Therefore, many limitations are due to the characteristics of the research method.

1. One major limitation was the use of only two countries in this study: America and Taiwan. Other studies can examine closely other English-language and Chinese-language countries to see if a similar conclusion can be made.
2. This study only investigated the advertisements in five different magazine categories. It did not include the other traditional media, such as newspaper, television, radio, outdoor, direct mail and the nontraditional

- media, such as Internet, promotional items, and cinema advertising. Different media might have differently represented strategies for advertising.
3. In both American and Taiwanese magazines, the size of the magazine population, the choices of data to be examined and the use of only forty magazines could limit the study.
 4. There might be other ways to define the different categories of the products and different levels of product involvement. Other classifications might have introduced different product categories into the study.
 5. There might be other ways to define the informational/transformational cues of the products. For instance, price and value might be two different informational/transformational cues. Institutional ads could be subdivided into image, advocacy, reactive, etc. Household categories could be collapsed into a single unit.
 6. This study only includes the relationship between products and advertising message/products and informational/transformational cues. As a part of the study on standardized advertising between nations, this study only focused on the advertising message and informational/transformational cues. This study leaves out the advertising objectives, advertising tactics, media tactics, specific advertising elements-size of advertising graphics, selections, models, length of copy, and advertising budgeting.
 7. This study did not include special-interest publications that might have represented more of the specialized advertising approaches.
 8. Intercoder reliability among some combinations of coders and in selected categories was insufficiently strong. A few of the cell frequencies were less than five making the reliability of those particular results questionable.
 9. There were only four coders to code the sample of 387 advertisements.

This combined with the methodology and chi-square analysis limits generalizability of results.

Suggestions for Future Study

This content analysis has offered some understanding about the strategic approaches employed in American and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. Further investigation is warranted, and it is clear experiments are needed in which other factors can be controlled and tested. There is a general need for more research on international advertising. Both qualitative and quantitative studies are needed so that hypotheses with sound theoretical basis can be tested. Although some insight has been given on a few "American versus Taiwanese" advertising dimensions, many more countries and strategies need to be analyzed. Moreover, many of the other possible dimensions of standardization of international advertising, such as culture, need to be researched.

With the data in this study, several other analyses might be conducted. For example, other studies could analyze different levels of product involvement with individual selling appeals or specific informational/transformational cues. It might be interesting to understand which type of magazine categories attracted what type of product categories, what level of product involvement and what kind of informational/transformational cues. Other analyses might be able to determine what types of selling appeals should be used with what types of the specific product categories.

In addition, to strengthen content analysis attempts to determine international advertising message strategies, one could conduct surveys in conjunction with the coding of advertisements. The respondent population/sample could be the advertisers and marketers who are employed by the different media that are doing bilingual advertising in English and Chinese language markets. This type of survey may yield more data that could explain insights into opinions of doing English/Chinese language advertising and treatment

that this content analysis could not. In addition, surveys could offer the opportunity to ask qualitative questions of those persons who create and manage the English/Chinese advertisements.

Another study would be to include other bilingual advertisements in other traditional and non-traditional media between English and Chinese languages, along with the magazine advertisements. Researchers could then obtain a more complete picture of the “bilingual advertising message strategy.”

Other research could be done to determine the appropriate applications of standardization, compromise, or specialization in other language markets.

APPENDICES

Appendix A- Sample 1 of International Standardized Advertising

Sample 1



Source: Bovee & Arens, 1982.

Appendix B- Sample 2 of International Standardized Advertising

Sample 2



HEADLINE

"THE 1981 COROLLA, LIKE ME, AN INTERNATIONAL STAR."

BODY COPY

"Corolla's the best selling car in the world. And I knew why... It's got what it takes to be a superstar. Look at the 1981 Corolla! With stylish good looks- and a great performance you can count on. No wonder the Corolla's so popular. It's so much like me."

SLOGAN

TOYOTA
TOYOTAS GOT WHAT YOU WANT!



Appendix C- Magazine Information

American	Taiwan
<p><i>Time</i></p> <p>Time Inc. Time & Life Building Rockefeller Center 1271 Ave. of the American New York, NY 10021 TEL: 1-212-522-1212 U.S.A.</p>	<p><i>Journalist Weekly</i></p> <p>The Journalist Inc. 4F-6, No. 79, Hsin-Tai-Wi Road Hsi-Chih, Taipei Hsien TEL: 886-2-698-1090 Taiwan</p>
<p><i>Reader's Digest</i></p> <p>Reader's Digest Association, Inc. Pleasantville, NY 10570 TEL: 1-914-244-5595 U.S.A.</p>	<p><i>Reader's Digest</i></p> <p>Reader's Digest Association Far East (Taiwan) Limit P.O. Box 56-85 Taipei TEL: 886-2-760-7262 Taiwan</p>
<p><i>Money</i></p> <p>Time Inc. Time & Life Building Rockefeller Center 1271 Avenue of the American New York, NY 10021 TEL: 1-212-522-3263 U.S.A.</p>	<p><i>CommonWealth</i></p> <p>CommonWealth Inc. P.O. Box 228 Mu-Cha, Taipei TEL: 886-2-662-0332 Taiwan</p>
<p><i>Cosmopolitan</i></p> <p>Hearst Corporation Cosmopolitan 224 W. 57th Street New York, NY 10019 TEL: 1-212-649-2000 U.S.A.</p>	<p><i>Bella</i></p> <p>Bella Inc. 7th Floor, No. 531-1, Chung-Cheng Road Hsin-Tien, Taipei Hsien TEL: 886-2-218-1828 extensions 205,210 and 211 Taiwan</p>
<p><i>PC Magazine</i></p> <p>Ziff-Davis Publishing Co. One Park Ave. New York, NY 10016 TEL: 1-212-503-5100 U.S.A.</p>	<p><i>PC Home</i></p> <p>PC Home Inc. 3rd Floor, No. 64, N. Tun-Hua, Apt.1 Taipei TEL: 886-2-733-9858 Taiwan</p>

Appendix D- American Magazine Analysis

Advertising Age's List		Bovee and Arens's Categories	Holm and Pruess' Categories	Engel's Categories	SRDS
2	Reader's Digest	General Editorial	Consumer/General Interest	General	General Editorial
12	Time	Newsweeklies	Consumer/General Interest	News	News-Weeklies
23	Cosmo-politan	Fashion Beauty	Consumer/Women's	General	Women's
34	Money	Business	Consumer /Business and Finance		General Editorial
66	PC Magazine		Consumer/Personal Computer		Computer
Source: Ad Age, 1997; Contemporary Advertising, 1982; Advertising - The Process and Practice, 1980 ; and Writer's Market, 1997.					

Appendix F- Coding Instrument**Coding Instrument**

Thanks for helping me to do this research. This research is studying the differences or the similarities between American magazine advertisements and Taiwanese magazine advertisements. Please review the coding structure on these code sheets carefully. When you review an advertisement, please code the magazine, the advertising, product category, product involvement, the dominant informational/transformational cue, the secondary informational/transformational cue, the third informational/transformational cue and selling appeal according to the coder. For example, if the first magazine you review is America edition of Reader's Digest for December 1996, please enter 12. If the product is toys, please enter 68 under the product category, on so on. In addition, please record your personal code number at the top of each code sheet you had completed.

I. Please record yourself (Pick One).

Coders	
Coder	1
Coder	2
Coder	3
Coder	4

II. Please record the code that correspond to the magazine you are reviewing

Magazines			
American Magazine		Taiwanese Magazine	
<i>Time</i> -- December, 1996	7	<i>Journalist Weekly</i> -- Dec, 1996	32
<i>Time</i> -- January, 1997	8	<i>Journalist Weekly</i> -- January, 1997	33
<i>Time</i> -- April, 1997	9	<i>Journalist Weekly</i> -- April, 1997	34
<i>Time</i> -- July, 1997	10	<i>Journalist Weekly</i> -- July, 1997	35
<i>Reader's Digest</i> -- December, 1996	12	<i>Reader's Digest</i> -- December, 1996	37
<i>Reader's Digest</i> -- January, 1997	13	<i>Reader's Digest</i> -- January, 1997	38
<i>Reader's Digest</i> -- April, 1997	14	<i>Reader's Digest</i> -- April, 1997	39
<i>Reader's Digest</i> -- July, 1997	15	<i>Reader's Digest</i> -- July, 1997	40
<i>Money</i> -- December, 1996	17	<i>CommonWealth</i> -- December, 1996	42
<i>Money</i> -- January, 1997	18	<i>CommonWealth</i> -- January, 1997	43
<i>Money</i> -- April, 1997	19	<i>CommonWealth</i> -- April, 1997	44
<i>Money</i> -- July, 1997	20	<i>CommonWealth</i> -- July, 1997	45
<i>Cosmopolitan</i> -- December, 1996	22	<i>Bella</i> -- December, 1996	47
<i>Cosmopolitan</i> -- January, 1997	23	<i>Bella</i> -- January, 1997	48
<i>Cosmopolitan</i> -- April, 1997	24	<i>Bella</i> -- April, 1997	49
<i>Cosmopolitan</i> -- July, 1997	25	<i>Bella</i> -- July, 1997	50
<i>PC Magazine</i> -- December, 1996	27	<i>PC Home</i> --- December, 1996	52
<i>PC Magazine</i> -- January, 1997	28	<i>PC Home</i> --- January, 1997	53
<i>PC Magazine</i> -- April, 1997	29	<i>PC Home</i> --- April, 1997	54
<i>PC Magazine</i> -- July, 1997	30	<i>PC Home</i> --- July, 1997	55

III. Please write down the advertising number (on the top right or top left corner of the advertising).

IV. Please record the code that identifies the product category represented in this advertising. If there is more than one product in the advertising, choose the product that you think dominates the advertising. (Please pick only one).

Institutional advertising:

Institutional advertising focuses on these messages on establishing a corporate identity or on winning the public over to the organization's point of view.

Medical Advertising:

Use the specialized language of the medical profession.

Retail Outlet Advertising:

Emphasizes shopping at a specific retail store in a local area.

Product Categories	
Institutional Ads	61
Construction/Real Estate	62
Consumer Services/Books/Magazines	63
Motor Vehicles and Accessories	64
Household Products (Furniture, etc.)	65
Household Appliance/Electronics	66
Household Cleaning/Household Supplies	67
Toys	68
Food	69
Medicine/Health	70
Beverage	71
Alcohol/Cigarette	72
Personal Care/Beauty	73
Retail Outlets	74
Others	75

- V. What level of involvement do you think is reflected in this advertising (please see definitions and pick one)?

High-involvement Products:

They tend to be high-priced items which are purchased relatively infrequently, which required some pertinent information-searching by the consumer and which involve higher risk on the part of consumers.

Medium-involvement Products:

They define those product types which fall in the center of the involvement continual. Medium-involvement goods are medium-priced ranges which are purchased occasionally by consumers and require moderate search activity and information processing on the part of consumers.

Low-involvement Products:

They tend to be low-priced items which are brought frequently by consumers.

Product Involvements	
High-involvement Products	81
Medium-involvement Products	82
Low-involvement Products	83

- VI. Record up to three informational/transformational cues that you think are used in the advertising. If there are only one or two informational/transformational cues included in the advertising, please record only the appropriate codes and leave other choices blank. Record the most important informational/transformational cues first, the second most important informational/transformational cues second and the third most important informational/transformational cues in the third place.

Informational Cues:

Advertising appeal that shows a large amount of information about the product.

Price:

Advertising has focused on price-- more specifically on sale or discounted prices.

Value:

Links product- price to benefits received.

Performance:

Stress something the product can do that competitors cannot or that the advertised product can do in a superior manner.

Taste:

Offers consumers a flavor benefit of produce use.

Company-Sponsored Research:

Researches studied by the company itself.

Independent Research:

The research studied by the other researching companies.

Special Offer:

A consumer does not have to buy anything in order to receive the specialty item. These items normally have some kind of advertising message printed on them somewhere.

Package:

Advertising emphasizes some outstanding or interesting aspect of the product package.

Transformation Cues:

Image cues that change the experience of buying and using a product.

Brand Image:

The mental image that reflects the way a brand is perceived, including all the identification elements, the product personality and the emotions and associations evoked in the mind of the consumer.

User Image:

Associating advertising with a particular user or group of users.

Use Occasion:

Focuses on events or tones that a product is most appropriately using or suggesting a use that consumers might not think of themselves.

Informational/Transformational Cues	
Price or Value	86
Performance	87
Availability	88
Taste	89
Guarantee or Warranties	90
Nutrition	91
Company-Sponsored Research	92
Quality	93
Components or Contents	94
Special Offers	95
Packaging or Shape	96
Safety	97
Independent Research	98
New Ideas	99
Brand Image	100
User Image	101
Use Occasion	102

VII. Selling Appeals: Please record the code for the appeal that best represents the selling appeal used in the advertising.

Hard-Sell Appeal :

In examining the headline and visual, the primary emphasis is on distinguishing the product from the competition. Comparisons, either of a particular criterion or the product in general, are common. Explicit comparisons may mention the competition by name. Implicit comparisons, with statements such as "number one" and "leader," also signal a hard-sell approach. The tone is high key and the communication style is aggressive.

Product-Merit Appeal:

In examining the headline and the visual, the primary focus is on the product and its characteristics. Some aspect or feature of the product is described or demonstrated but without reference to competing brands. The focus tends to be on facts and information. The benefit to the consumer may be added directly, or merely implied. The overall tone is somewhat higher key and the communication style is more straightforward.

Soft-Sell Appeal:

In examining the headline and visual, the primary emphasis is on creating a mood or an atmosphere rather than on highlighting the product and its features. This may be achieved through the use of a beautiful scene or the development of an emotional story or verse. Human emotional sentiments are emphasized over clear-cut, product-related appeals. The tone is low key and the communication style tends to be more suggestive than direct.

Selling Appeals	
Hard-Sell Appeal	106
Product-Merit Appeal	107
Soft-Sell Appeal	108

Thanks for your time

Appendix G- Reliability Test

Advertising	Agree	Disagree	Total	Reliability Score
1	21	3	24	88%
2	20	4	24	83%
3	19	5	24	79%
4	20	4	24	83%
5	18	6	24	75%
6	20	4	24	83%
7	22	2	24	92%
8	22	2	24	92%
9	19	5	24	79%
10	17	7	24	71%
Total	198	42	240	198/240=83

Append H- Intercoder Reliability of Informational/Transformational Cues

		Dominant Informational/Transformational Cue	Secondary Strongest Informational/Transformational Cue	Third Strongest Informational/Transformational Cue
Pearson Correlation	Dominant Informational/Transformational Cue	1	.114**	.097**
	Secondary Strongest Informational/Transformational Cue	.114**	1	.305**
	Third Strongest Informational/Transformational Cue	.097**	.305**	1
	Total	1548	1548	1548

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Appendix I- Intercoder Reliability of Product Category

		Coder 1	Coder 2	Coder 3	Coder 4
Pearson Correlation	Coder 1	1	.958**	.716**	.695**
	Coder 2	.958**	1	.713**	.693**
	Coder 3	.716**	.713**	1	.666**
	Coder 4	.695**	.693**	.666**	1
	Total	387	387	387	387

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Appendix J- Intercoder Reliability of Product Involvement

		Coder 1	Coder 2	Coder 3	Coder 4
Pearson Correlation	Coder 1	1	.820**	.579**	.617**
	Coder 2	.820**	1	.572**	.609**
	Coder 3	.579**	.572**	1	.686**
	Coder 4	.617**	.609**	.686**	1
	Total	387	387	387	387
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)					

Appendix K- Intercoder Reliability of Selling Appeal

		Coder 1	Coder 2	Coder 3	Coder 4
Pearson Correlation	Coder 1	1	.470**	0.074	.200**
	Coder 2	.470**	1	.244**	.334**
	Coder 3	0.074	.244**	1	.230**
	Coder 4	.200**	.334**	.230**	1
	Total	387	387	387	387
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)					

Appendix L- Mode Analysis

	American	Taiwan
Selling Appeal	Product Merit Appeal	Product Merit Appeal
Dominant Informational/ Transformational Cue	Performance	Brand Image
Secondary Strongest Informational/ Transformational Cue	Performance	Performance
Third Strongest Informational/ Transformational Cue	Availability	Availability
Product Involvement	High-Involvement Products	Medium-Involvement Products
Product Category	Household Appliance/Electronics	Household Appliance/Electronics

Appendix M- Total Informational/Transformational Cue Frequency

	American		Taiwan		Diff
	N	%	N	%	%
Price or Value	113	4.9	147	6.3	1.4
Performance	485	21.1	332	14.2	6.9
Availability	215	9.3	272	11.6	2.3
Taste	26	1.1	17	0.7	0.4
Guarantee or Warranties	53	2.3	34	1.5	0.8
Nutrition	25	1.1	17	0.7	0.4
Company-Sponsored Research	18	0.8	26	1.1	0.3
Quality	152	6.6	160	6.8	0.2
Components or Contents	199	8.6	192	8.2	0.4
Special Offers	53	2.3	129	5.5	3.2
Packaging or Shape	116	5.0	130	5.6	0.6
Safety	43	1.9	40	1.7	0.2
Independent Research	27	1.2	32	1.4	0.2
New Ideas	56	2.4	59	2.5	0.1
Brand Image	387	16.8	372	15.9	0.9
User Image	116	5.0	152	6.5	1.5
Use Occasion	14	0.6	14	0.6	0.0
Others	73	3.2	80	3.4	0.2
One Appeal	24	1.0	28	1.2	0.2
Two Appeal	109	4.7	107	4.6	0.1
Total	2304	100.0	2340	100.0	0.0

Appendix N- Dominant Informational/Transformational Cue Frequency

	American		Taiwan		Diff
	N	%	N	%	%
Price or Value	44	5.7	48	6.2	0.5
Performance	253	32.9	126	16.2	16.7
Availability	19	2.5	49	6.3	3.8
Taste	11	1.4	6	0.8	0.6
Guarantee or Warranties	8	1.0	13	1.7	0.7
Nutrition	12	1.6	10	1.3	0.3
Company-Sponsored Research	6	0.8	4	0.5	0.3
Quality	31	4.0	47	6.0	2.0
Components or Contents	67	8.7	67	8.6	0.1
Special Offers	22	2.9	63	8.1	5.2
Packaging or Shape	51	6.6	46	5.9	0.7
Safety	13	1.7	21	2.7	1.0
Independent Research	5	0.7	8	1.0	0.3
New Ideas	24	3.1	31	4.0	0.9
Brand Image	157	20.4	181	23.2	2.8
User Image	34	4.4	46	5.9	1.5
Use Occasion	5	0.7	4	0.5	0.0
Others	6	0.8	10	1.3	0.1
Total	768	100.0	780	100.0	0.0

Appendix O- Secondary Informational/Transformational Cue Frequency

	American		Taiwan		Diff
	N	%	N	%	%
Price or Value	35	4.6	47	6.0	1.4
Performance	158	20.8	130	16.7	4.1
Availability	62	8.1	88	11.3	3.2
Taste	7	0.9	5	0.6	0.3
Guarantee or Warranties	18	2.3	8	1.0	1.3
Nutrition	12	1.6	6	0.8	0.8
Company-Sponsored Research	8	1.0	11	1.4	0.4
Quality	68	8.9	65	8.3	0.6
Components or Contents	97	12.6	79	10.1	2.5
Special Offers	12	1.6	39	5.0	3.4
Packaging or Shape	38	5.0	56	7.2	2.2
Safety	14	1.8	13	1.7	0.1
Independent Research	14	1.8	12	1.5	0.3
New Ideas	19	2.5	15	1.9	0.6
Brand Image	127	16.5	103	13.2	3.3
User Image	47	6.1	70	9.0	2.9
Use Occasion	4	0.5	4	0.5	0.0
Others	16	2.1	15	1.9	0.2
One Appeal	12	1.6	14	1.8	0.2
Total	768	100.0	780	100.0	0.0

Appendix P - Third Informational/Transformational Cue Frequency

	American		Taiwan		Diff
	N	%	N	%	%
Price or Value	34	4.4	52	6.7	2.3
Performance	74	9.6	76	9.7	0.1
Availability	134	17.5	135	17.3	0.2
Taste	8	1.0	6	0.8	0.2
Guarantee or Warranties	27	3.5	13	1.7	1.8
Nutrition	1	0.1	1	0.1	0.0
Company-Sponsored Research	4	0.5	11	1.4	0.9
Quality	53	6.9	48	6.2	0.7
Components or Contents	35	4.6	46	5.9	1.3
Special Offers	19	2.5	27	3.5	1.0
Packaging or Shape	27	3.5	28	3.6	0.1
Safety	16	2.1	6	0.8	1.3
Independent Research	8	1.0	12	1.5	0.5
New Ideas	13	1.7	13	1.7	0.0
Brand Image	103	13.4	88	11.3	2.1
User Image	35	4.6	36	4.6	0.0
Use Occasion	5	0.7	6	0.8	0.1
Others	51	6.6	55	7.1	0.5
One Appeal	109	14.2	107	13.7	0.5
Two Appeal	12	1.6	14	1.8	0.2
Total	768	100.0	780	100.0	0.0

Appendix Q- Selling Appeal Frequency

	American		Taiwan		Diff.
	N	%	N	%	%
Hard-Sell Appeal	80	10.4	73	9.4	1.0
Product-Merit Appeal	474	61.7	473	60.6	1.1
Soft-Sell Appeal	214	27.9	234	30	2.1

Appendix R- Product Categories Frequency

	American		Taiwan		Diff.
	N	%	N	%	%
Institutional Ads	41	5.3	22	2.8	2.5
Construction/Real Estate	0	0.0	22	2.8	2.8
Consumer Services/Books/Magazines	149	19.4	181	23.2	3.8
Motor Vehicles and Accessories	120	15.6	103	13.2	2.4
Household Products (Furniture, etc.)	3	0.4	0	0.0	0.4
Household Appliance/Electronics	178	23.2	200	25.6	2.4
Household Cleaning/Household Supplies	13	1.7	2	0.3	1.4
Toys	2	0.3	2	0.3	0.0
Food	21	2.7	6	0.8	1.9
Medicine/Health	69	9.0	21	2.7	6.3
Beverage	17	2.2	19	2.4	0.2
Alcohol/Cigarette	16	2.1	17	2.2	0.1
Personal Care/Beauty	108	14.1	150	19.2	5.1
Retail Outlets	16	2.1	12	1.5	0.6
Others	15	2.0	23	3.0	1.0
Total	768	100.0	780	100.0	0.0

Appendix S- Product Involvement Frequency

	American		Taiwan		Diff.
	N	%	N	%	%
High-Involvement Products	354	46.1	298	38.2	7.9
Medium-Involvement Products	268	34.9	329	42.2	7.3
Low-Involvement Products	146	19.0	153	19.6	0.6

DISCOVER BREAKTHROUGH MIGRAINE RELIEF THAT LETS YOU STAY ALERT AND ACTIVE



IMITREX[®] (sumatriptan succinate) TABLETS
RELIEVE MIGRAINE PAIN, NAUSEA, EVEN SENSITIVITY TO LIGHT... WITHOUT DROWSY SIDE EFFECTS.

UNIQUE MIGRAINE RELIEF AVAILABLE ONLY FROM IMITREX

IMITREX tablets were specifically designed for the unique relief of migraine pain. They not only relieve the pain but also the nausea and sensitivity to light that often accompany migraine. That's because the unique process of selective serotonin reuptake inhibition effectively blocks each of the pain and migraine pathways.

LET'S YOU GET BACK TO YOUR LIFE

Because IMITREX is not a narcotic or habit-forming, it won't interact with your alcohol or tobacco. IMITREX is a real migraine relief on your terms.

MOST PRESCRIBED MIGRAINE MEDICINE IN THE U.S.

IMITREX Tablets have been prescribed for millions of migraine patients in the U.S. and worldwide.

IS IMITREX RIGHT FOR YOU?

IMITREX is appropriate for many migraine sufferers, but only your doctor or other healthcare provider can decide if IMITREX is right for you. You should

not take IMITREX if you have certain types of heart disease, blood pressure that is uncontrolled, or are taking certain drugs. If you have risk factors for heart disease, such as high blood pressure, high cholesterol, diabetes, or are a smoker, you need to be evaluated by your doctor before taking IMITREX. Many people with uncontrolled heart disease had to stop taking IMITREX because of the risk of heart attack.

If you are pregnant, trying to get pregnant, or taking other medications, talk to your doctor. If you have had a stroke or heart attack, IMITREX is not for you. The use of IMITREX may make other medications and blood thinners less effective.

Learn more about IMITREX and how it can help you get back to your life. Call 1-800-291-5517 for full information.

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Visit our website for a highly educational brochure to help you better understand migraine, available at www.imitrex.com. Preparation material and information for a complete literature kit are available. Specialty literature for migraine sufferers is also available.



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GlaxoSmithKline

Appendix U- American Advertising Sample Coding

Advertising Number 90					
	Coder 1	Coder 2	Coder 3	Coder 4	
Product Category	70	70	70	70	70= Medicine /Health
Product Involvement	82	82	81	82	83= Medium- Involvement Products 83= Low- Involvement Products
Dominant Informational /Transformational Cue	87	87	87	95	87= Performance 88= Availability 90= Guarantee or Warranties
Secondary Informational /Transformational Cue	97	97	88	90	95= Special Offers
Third Informational /Transformational Cue	95	88	97	98	97= Safety 98= Independent Research
Selling Appeal	106	106	107	106	106= Hard- Sell Appeal 107= Product- Merit Appeal
Source: <i>Time</i> , July, 1997. pp 22-23.					

Appendix V- Taiwanese Advertising Sample Coding

Advertising Number 31					
	Coder 1	Coder 2	Coder 3	Coder 4	
Product Category	73	73	73	73	73= Personal Care/Beauty
Product Involvement	82	82	83	82	82= Medium-Involvement Products
Dominant Informational /Transformational Cue	100	100	100	93	93= Quality 96= Packaging or Shape
Secondary Informational /Transformational Cue	96	96	101	100	100= Brand Image 101= User Image 103= Other
Third Informational /Transformational Cue			103	101	
Selling Appeal	108	108	107	108	107= Product-Merit Appeal 108= Soft-Sell Appeal
Source: <i>Journalist Weekly</i> , July, 1997. Inside Back Cover Page.					

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