

Targeting the New Generation Woman

Voice-over as a Tool in Gender Repositioning of a Traditionally Male Dominant Product

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Date: May, 1995

*The great question ...
which I have not been able to answer,
despite my thirty years research
into the feminine soul,
is what does a woman want?*

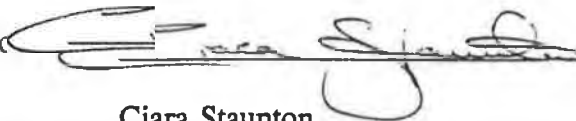
Sigmund Freud

To Mam and Dad

For their often blind but never failing faith.

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of Masters of Business Studies is entirely my own work and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

Signed



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ABSTRACT

This exploratory research study examines the power of the voice-over as a tool in gender re-positioning of a traditionally male dominant product and the response of the female market to such re-positioning. The increasing consumption by females of masculine products has led marketers to question how they can target such products at the female market, without losing the existing male customers. A potentially appropriate method of doing so is through subtle gender re-positioning by altering the voice-over. Three radio ads were developed for a hypothetical lager brand where branding and language were neutral but the gender of the spokesperson varied, one male, one female and the third a combination of both. A sample of 240 respondents, broken into three equally matched sub-samples were exposed to one of the three ads. They each completed a questionnaire providing basic demographic information and their response to the ad, which included perceived gender image of the product, perceived most likely users, appeal and likelihood of trial and perceived speaker appropriateness. A measure of sex role orientation was also included in order to test for it's value as a segmentation base. The results show that the voice-over is a powerful tool in gender re-positioning of a product, there is a same sex relationship between gender of the speaker and perceived most likely users and ad appeal directly correlates with likelihood of trial. Usage intention varied by sex with males being equally likely to try any of the three products while females were significantly more likely to try the female than the combined. Sex role was no better a predictor of response than biological gender. Either a male or female speaker should be used when targeting the female market.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to thank the following for their assistance in the completion of this study:

- * Mr. Michael Shields for his guidance and support
- * Dr. Eunan O'Halpin for his regular encouragement and "words of wisdom"
- * The DCU radio production department for their assistance in recording the ads
- * Jane and Alan for their voices
- * The staff of Dimension for their advice and criticism on ad copy
- * The DCU lecturing staff who gave time from their classes for the running of the experiment and the students who participated
- * Gerry and Ann-Marie for their invaluable assistance with statistics
- * The DCU library staff for their constant help
- * Noreen and Mike for their advice and support, Louise for the endless coffee breaks, my family for their encouragement and Ciara and Elaine for providing distraction whenever it was required, and often when it was not
- * Liam for always listening but never asking

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 INTRODUCTION

It is a truism that effective marketing and advertising must be built on an understanding of the consumer Many marketing practitioners become so immersed in the specifics of their particular product categories or functional specialisations that they do not always relate consumer behaviour in the marketplace to the larger forces of social change. They often accept the conventional wisdom of their peers and predecessors on how to define the consumer groups that are the ultimate targets of their marketing efforts.

Bartos 1989 p.ix

The changing role of women in society over the last number of decades has led to a situation where marketing practitioners no longer truly understand the consumer. The modern consumer is very different than he or she was thirty years ago. This change is well recognised and accepted within marketing circles as being an issue which must be addressed, particularly in the case of the female market and female consumers.

The role of women in society is changing at an increasing rate. This change has manifested itself in the increasing participation of women in the labour force, their increased participation in higher education and their resulting changed expectations. Women are no longer happy to be pigeon holed into a particular role, as may traditionally have been the case. They have become more confident and self sufficient and their consumption patterns have changed dramatically as a result.

One of the main focuses of changed female consumption is the area of traditionally male dominant products. That is, products which have been traditionally associated with men and recognised as being solely or at least mainly a part of the male domain are now being increasingly consumed by women. Some such products include cars, beer, jeans/trousers and even after shave. This change in consumption patterns has led to somewhat of a dilemma for marketers. They recognise that women's role in society has changed dramatically and a "New Generation Woman"

is emerging as a result. They do not however, know how to target these new women. There are tremendous opportunities in the market place as a result of the change which is occurring with the market for many products almost doubling, but in order to maximise these opportunities marketers must learn how these new women think, establish what appeals to them and position products accordingly.

Much research has been conducted into the portrayal of women and sex role stereotyping of women in advertising. Most of this research has concentrated on changes which have occurred over the last number of years highlighting the fact that in many instances women are now portrayed in a much more progressive manner than they were before. However, it is only in recent years that female responsiveness to their role portrayal has really been measured and in most cases it appears that women respond more positively to a more modern role portrayal.

The area of male dominant products is somewhat more specialised and targeting such products at women is more of a problem than is the targeting of more neutral or feminine products. In the case of masculine products, such as beer, the marketer is faced with a double problem in that he or she is aiming to appeal to the female market and thus maximise sales, but not at the cost of the existing male consumers. By positioning the product in a way which overtly appeals to the female market the probability is that the male market will reject it. Therefore, a balance or the most favourable gender position must be found which will appeal to the largest portion of the market as possible. This study aims to identify what this optimum position is and how it can be achieved.

The literature on marketing to women has failed to address in any detail the means of targeting traditionally male dominant products at women and the area of gender re-positioning of such products. Gender positioning in it's own right is an area where there is little information on how a gender position is achieved. A number of variables are believed to contribute to the perceived gender image of a product but precisely what the relationship between these variables is and the power of each to create or alter the gender image is not clearly defined.

The voice-over of the spokesperson in advertising is one of the lesser considered tools for gender positioning and re-positioning. The majority of voice-overs in advertising today are male even for obviously feminine products. Most marketers consider the male voice to be more authoritative and credible than the female, but there is little, if any published evidence that this is the case. How females would respond to a female spokesperson instead of a male is not very clear and whether or not the variation of the spokesperson in advertising can alter the gender image of a product is also unclear. The few studies which have concentrated on targeting traditionally male dominant products at the female market have all included gender repositioning as an appropriate means of doing so and most have included the voice-over as an element in the gender re-positioning. Only one published study to date has attempted to measure the power of the voice-over alone to create or alter a gender image of a product (Debevec and Iyer, 1986). This found that voice-over was a powerful influencer of perceived gender image for a product and succeeded in altering the image of a masculine product to feminine. This altered gendered image did not however result in any significant difference in response to the product. Therefore, the true value of altering the gender image in this way to appeal to the female market is not very clear but it would appear that the male market would not react negatively to an altered position and the female may react more positively.

Because of the lack of information on how to target a male dominant product at the changed female market the author felt there was a need for further research and therefore undertook a study aimed at measuring the power of the voice-over to alter the gendered image of a product and examine male and female response to each of the possible gender positions in order to identify that which would result in greatest sales.

The issue of sex role orientation or psychological gender was raised quite frequently in the literature as a possible alternative to biological gender as a means for segmenting the new and vastly changed market place. With the almost marrying of sex roles and the increase in male consumption of feminine products and female

consumption of masculine products marketers are wondering as to the value of segmenting the market by gender. Psychological gender ignores the biological traits of individuals and concentrates on those which make up their personalities. Not all males are masculine and similarly not all females are feminine and there is some speculation that sex role orientation may be a better means of segmenting the market for gender positioned goods than biological gender. This element was therefore included in the study in an attempt to measure the value of segmenting the market on this basis and whether it would be a better predictor of consumer choice than biological gender.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

From the above it can be seen that there is a need to identify a method of targeting a traditionally male dominant product at the female consumer. This study aims to do that. The original objective of the study was to identify an appropriate method of targeting a traditionally male dominant product at the female market without excessive backlash from the male market. From an extensive review of the literature in the area, a potentially appropriate method of doing so was identified. Gender re-positioning of a traditionally male dominant product is seen to be an appropriate method of targeting such a product at the female market. Precisely how such re-positioning could be achieved in a subtle enough manner not to lead to a negative reaction from the existing male market was not quite clear. Voice-over was thought to perhaps be a useful tool in gender re-positioning but there is little published research into this area so there is no conclusive evidence that this is in fact the case. Therefore, the author chose to investigate this and so the specific objectives of the study are based on this. They are as follows:

- * To test the power of the voice-over, if any, in advertising to alter the gendered image of a product
- * To identify the relationship, if any, between gender of spokesperson and gender of perceived most likely users of a product

- * To test male and female response to alternative gender positions for a traditionally male dominant product and identify the most appropriate gender position, if any, for such a product when attempting to appeal to the female market only and the market as a whole.
- * To identify whether a persons gender and/or sex role orientation mediates his or her response to gender consistent and inconsistent positions in advertising
- * Test perceived appropriateness of male versus female versus a combination of spokespersons in advertising a traditionally male dominant product

1.3 STUDY DESIGN AND LIMITATIONS

The study designed to achieve the above objectives is experimental. It is nevertheless exploratory and does not attempt to provide conclusive results on how best to target the female market. The experiment consisted of exposing a number of respondents to one of three mock-up radio ads each of which had a different voice-over. The effects of each of three independent variables, voice-over, sex and sex role orientation were measured on a number of dependent variables. The study is exploratory in nature largely due to the difficulty of providing conclusive results on such a topic without conducting extensive research in the field across a wide variety of products. It nevertheless does provide some indication of the trends which may exist in the market place.

The main limitations of the study are:

- * The sample population was students and so the results cannot be assumed to represent the market as a whole.
- * The experiment was conducted in a controlled environment and therefore does not reflect what response may have been in a real world situation. This is particularly important with regard to exposure to the ad as respondents were concentrating more than they would if the ad were one of many played on commercial radio.

- * The study is very narrow in focus and only assess the power of one variable in altering the gendered position of a product. This was done mainly due to a gap in the research in this area but does not purport to be the best and/or only method of targeting a male dominant product at the female market.

1.4 OUTLINE

The research undertaken and results of the experiment are reported as follows.

Chapter two, is a literature review undertaken in order to identify relevant work which has been done in the past and assess the precise nature of the issue to be resolved. It is divided into three main sections running from broad to narrow. The first section deals with the market which the study is looking at. It examines the changing role of women in society and provides statistics on female participation rates in the labour force and higher education as support for the change which has occurred over the last number of years. Accepting that the role of women has changed it then goes on to examine the dilemma facing marketers, that is, how to market to these new generation women. It examines the main focuses of research in this area to date and concludes that much research has been conducted into the portrayal of women in advertising and methods of segmenting the female market but little which will specifically solve the problem. It also concludes that the research to date has failed to identify how to market to the new women. The third section looks at literature which may be relevant in overcoming the problem. This focuses mainly on gender positioning and methods of gender positioning and re-positioning products together with the area of sex role orientation as alternative to gender based segmentation. It also provides some support for the product and medium chosen in the experiment.

Chapter three outlines the research hypotheses and a model of voice-over as a gender re-positioning tool developed as a result of the literature reviewed. It then goes on to discuss research methodology in general terms followed by the specific research design and methodology undertaken in this study and the reasons why such

a method was chosen. It also outlines the sample population, the nature of the experiment, the measurement instrument used and the analysis of the results.

Chapter four outlines the detailed data analysis and findings. It is broken into four sections based on the four main hypotheses which were formulated. Analysis of variance was the main method of analysis of the data. Each of the four sections reports response to the relevant ad specific questions on an overall basis, then broken down by sex and finally by sex role orientation. The ANOVA table for each of the dependent variables is reported which shows the main effect, if any, of each of the three independent variables on response together with the two and three way interaction effects of these variables. In some instances the overall table does not indicate significant effects for the independent variables on response but post hoc tests were conducted anyway as in many cases individual variances were revealed which are useful and important. Each section is followed by a summary of the findings for the hypothesis in question. A full summary table of the results of the hypotheses is reported at the end of the chapter.

Chapter five reports the authors conclusions to the findings in chapter four. It outlines what the findings mean for marketing practitioners who are hoping to target the female market and recommends the most appropriate approach to take in order to achieve the most positive response from the female market and from the market as a whole. It also recommends areas for further research.

Chapter Two

The Issue

2.1 THE CHANGING ROLE OF WOMEN

There is a simple demographic fact at the heart of a quiet revolution which has effected almost every man, woman, and child in the United States. The ripple effect of that one demographic fact could eventually touch almost every institution in our society and every aspect of our daily lives.

Bartos, 1982 p. 3

This opening paragraph to Rena Bartos's book, 'The Moving Target' refers to the entry of large numbers of women into the workforce in recent times and the huge effect this is having on society as a whole. O'Neill (1994) speaks of the coming twenty first century as the century of women due to the increase in women's participation in higher education, the growth of a knowledge based economy and the premium attached to the skills of flexibility, teamwork and creativity all putting women at an advantage in the economy of the future.

Maeve Casey (1988) in her monitoring study states that in order to best understand this change in women's role in society it should be viewed from an historical perspective. She argues that the recent breakdown in traditional patterns was spearheaded by the late nineteenth century advances in medicine and public health. This led to a significant increase in life expectancy and an equally dramatic fall off in infant mortality, with large families no longer being viewed as an essential prerequisite to provide for parents in their old age. Today, the traditional contribution of woman as life-bearer and nurturer, which in the past occupied most of her adult years, is no longer a life commitment in a society where her average life expectancy is seventy six years, the average family size is less than three children and the time span during which such a family needs full time parenting is likely to be between only five and ten years (Casey, 1988).

Regardless of what the reasons may be, there is no question but that the role of women in society has changed dramatically over the last number of years. This can be clearly seen by the fact that women have in the last one hundred years become

increasingly involved in public life winning the right to higher education, the right to vote and more recently in Ireland, the right to employment in the work-force regardless of marital status. The participation of women in the work-force both in greater numbers and in more responsible positions has been one of the key contributors to their changing role and increasing independence and individualisation. In 1993, women accounted for almost thirty six percent of the total workforce in Ireland, a figure which has been increasing steadily over the last number of years. This increased participation is due both to the increased numbers taking up jobs when they complete their education and women no longer leaving the workforce when they get married or start families (Fine-Davis, 1983).

Although participation in the workforce is one of the main manifestations of women's changing role, Bartos (1982) warns that it would be too simplistic a view to assume that this unprecedented flood of women into the labour market in recent years is the only real change which has taken place (See table 2.4 for Irish labour force statistics). This increased participation is in fact simply one of the more obvious symptoms of a more fundamental change in women's self-perceptions, needs, wants and expectations. Women are now demanding more from life and expect to be recognised as individuals. Traditionally women have been identified in terms of their derived status, that is, their lives were defined in terms of who's daughter they were and who they married. It is only in recent years that even the happiest of housewives and mothers have also yearned for a sense of self-identity that goes beyond their family role. This is one of the strongest motivators which has drawn so many women into the workforce, others into the pursuit of mid-life education and still others into encouraging their daughters to seek goals which are different and usually higher than the ones they set for themselves in their own formative years (Bartos 1982). In short, women are seeking to be treated as individuals and be offered the opportunities and attention which were previously reserved only for men.

2.1.1 Women in Education

The statistics for participation of women in education in Ireland outlined in tables 2.1 to 2.3 indicate the dramatic change which has occurred over the last number of years. The percentage participation of women in full time education which includes primary, secondary and third level did not change in the twenty year period, 1973 to 1992 with women always accounting for 49% of the total numbers in full time education (Table 2.1). However, when the compulsory primary education and secondary education are removed from the equation it can be seen that there has been a substantial increase in the percentage of the numbers in full time third level education being female (Table 2.2).

Table 2.1 Numbers in Full Time Education in Ireland 1973 - 1992
Breakdown by Gender '000's

YEAR	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	% FEMALE
1973	406,663	391,878	798,541	49%
1980	454,847	445,377	900,224	49%
1987	493,783	480,778	974,561	49%
1992	492,278	479,837	972,115	49%

Source: Adapted from CSO Statistical Abstracts - 1975 - 1994

Table 2.2 Numbers in Third Level Education in Ireland 1973 - 1992
Breakdown by Gender '000's

YEAR	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	% FEMALE
1973	18,180	10,434	28,614	36%
1980	22,085	16,805	38,890	43%
1987	30,545	26,034	56,579	46%
1992	39,626	37,183	76,809	48%

Source: Adapted from CSO Statistical Abstracts - 1975 - 1994

There has in the past been a large discrepancy between the number of males versus females who continue on to third level but this trend is changing. In 1973 only 36% of third level students were female but by 1992 this figure had risen to 48%. However, although in 1992 the numbers of males and females in third level were almost equal this occurred in a situation where there were more females than males in second level education, so although the ratio of male to female in third level education is evening out the numbers above do not truly reflect the proportion of each sex who go on to third level having completed second level. Table 2.3 below indicates the percentage of each sex continuing on from second to third level over the last twenty years.

**Table 2.3 Proportion of Students Continuing from 2nd to 3rd Level
in Ireland 1973 - 1992
Breakdown by Gender '000's**

YEAR	LEVEL	MALE	%	LEVEL	FEMALE	%
1973	2nd	112,857		2nd	118,236	
	3rd	18,180	16.1	3rd	10,434	8.8
1980	2nd	142,242		2nd	153,350	
	3rd	22,085	15.5	3rd	16,805	10.9
1983	2nd	166,930		2nd	174,751	
	3rd	30,545	18.3	3rd	26,034	14.9
1992	2nd	173,136		2nd	179,272	
	3rd	39,626	22.9	3rd	37,183	20.7

Source: Adapted from CSO Statistical Abstracts - 1975 - 1994

As table 2.3 above indicates, overall the total number of students continuing on to third level education has been increasing steadily since 1973 with the total numbers in third level almost three times greater in 1992 than in 1973. This increase in numbers can be attributed to both male and female students, however, the increase in the number of females attending is far greater than that of males. In fact, as the table outlines, 8.8% of second level females went on to third level in 1973 while

20.7% did so in 1992. Although there is quite a substantial increase in the number of males attending third level, from 16.1% in 1973 to 22.9% in 1992, it is certainly not as dramatic as that of females.

Such figures can only help to re-enforce the idea that the role of women is changing. The expectations of teenage girls to-day are vastly different than those of their mothers with far greater numbers of them expecting to attend college and have careers of their own and no longer be economically dependent on their partners (Fine-Davis, 1983). This has now become a social norm and as a result, far greater numbers are attending third level to-day than ever before.

2.1.2 Women in the Labour Force

The increasing educational level of women in Ireland combined with their growing need for independence and economic pressures have led to increasing numbers now participating in workforce.

Table 2.4 below indicates that the total number of women working has been climbing steadily since 1975 with only two occasions where the percentage of the workforce which was female fell marginally but always at times when the numbers in work fell overall. In 1993 women accounted for 35.7% of the total labour force in Ireland, a quite substantial rise from the 27.7% 1975 level.

Table 2.4 Labour Force Participation in Ireland 1975 - 1994**Breakdown by Gender '000's**

Year	Male	Female	Total	% Female
1975	775	298	1073	27.7%
1976	769	295	1064	27.7%
1977	784	299	1083	27.6%
1978	801	309	1110	27.8%
1979	824	321	1145	28.0%
1980	829	327	1156	28.3%
1981	809	337	1146	29.4%
1982	802	344	1146	30.0%
1983	778	346	1124	30.8%
1984	765	338	1103	30.6%
1985	744	332	1076	30.8%
1986	741	340	1081	31.4%
1987	735	352	1087	32.4%
1988	738	353	1091	32.4%
1989	729	358	1089	32.9%
1990	753	381	1134	33.6%
1991	748	386	1134	34.0%
1992	740	399	1139	35.0%
1993	736	410	1146	35.7%
1994 *	748	428	1176	36.4%

Source: CSO - *The Trend of Employment and Unemployment 1979 - 1985 and 1986 - 1988*
CSO Statistical Release - Labour Force Survey, 1994

* 1994 figures are estimated by the Central Statistics Office

The change in women's attitudes and requirements which has manifested itself in their increased participation in the labour force and third level education is supported by the findings of a study into women and work in Ireland by Margaret Fine-Davis (1983). She questioned a sample of 1,862 Irish women on their attitudes

toward work and several other factors relating to the changing role of women. When respondents were questioned on their own attitudes toward work versus that of their mothers some interesting findings emerged. While growing up, 59.6% of respondents felt their parents expected them to become wives and mothers either mainly or exclusively and only 29% reported that their parents expected them to combine the roles of wife/mother and career woman. In contrast to their own experience, only 27.6% of the respondents said they wanted their own daughters to be mainly or exclusively wives and mothers and almost 60% wanted their daughters to combine the wife/mother role with a career. From this it can be clearly seen the change which has occurred in Irish society. Whereas the roles of wife and motherhood were seen to be the desired roles for the sampled cohort of Irish women, the daughters of these women were being given a different message, namely that it is desirable to try to combine a career with being a wife and mother.

Further evidence of changing sex roles which emerged from the Fine-Davis study can be seen from the fact that the male members of the family, husbands and sons were far more likely to help out around the house than was previously the case. Over 50% of respondents said that when they were growing up their fathers rarely or never helped with the housework and child minding whereas only 27.4% said that their own husbands rarely or never help with these tasks. Similarly, 59% said that when they were growing up their brothers never or rarely helped with the housework, whereas only 16.7% believed this to be the case with their own sons. The more marked change in behaviour among sons than among husbands would, according to Fine-Davis indicate that it is apparently easier to socialise the younger generation than to re-socialise the older generation. It also indicates that in the future, as the younger generation becomes the older generation, societal norms will have changed and this merging of sex roles will continue (Fine-Davis, 1983).

Settle and Alreck (1987) in commenting on the widely accepted belief that female sex roles in society are changing refer not so much to a dramatic change only in the role of women in society, but more a merging of the roles of males and females, with female roles taking on some traditionally male aspects and male roles taking

on some traditionally female aspects. This idea is supported by the Fine-Davis findings regarding men's participation in household chores.

Although the change is incomplete, and there are many forces of resistance, there has been a striking disintegration of the barrier that once clearly divided male and female roles... The women's liberation movement therefore, may be more properly called the gender liberation movement. Male and female roles are merging. It is not simply that women are becoming more like men, but that members of both sexes are becoming more alike.

Settle and Alreck, 1987 p. 19

Therefore, as a result of this almost marrying of the sex roles the portrayal and treatment of women in advertising is an area in need of review. If marketers wish to appeal to the new women, they must understand how they think and establish how best to target them. This is a topic which has been widely discussed in the literature but no conclusive 'best way' to target the greatly changed female market has emerged. It is widely accepted by marketing practitioners that they are facing a dilemma as to how to appeal to the female market and some extensive research has been conducted in an attempt to solve this problem. Section 2.2 discusses the main areas of research to date and the main findings which have resulted from this research.

2.2 MARKETING TO WOMEN

Tucker (1976) predicted the impact of changing sex roles on marketing: 'During most of the rest of the century marketers will increasingly miss the centre of their markets because they will not understand them. And the change in relations of the sexes will be the primary cause.' This change was also noted by Stuteville (1971), Hawkins and Coney (1976), and Dickens and Chappell (1977). The predicted change has now proven to be the case and the objective of most marketers who have not previously targeted women is to learn how best to do so.

The result of this profound change in the roles of women and their demand for greater respect and attention has led to important changes in the consumption patterns of women which are vital for any marketer to recognise and understand. Scott (1976) estimated that as long ago as the 1970's between seventy five and ninety five percent of consumer sales in Great Britain and the United States were accounted for by women, either as purchasing agents for a family unit or for their own personal use.

...the phenomenon of female consumption in western society is marked by two overriding principles: first, that it is massive, and second that it is both frequent and extensive.

Scott, 1976 p. ix

Today this phenomenon is still recognised and the importance of attracting and appealing to the female consumer is vital as a recent article in Marketing outlined.

Women today are not emotionally entwined with the sink nor joined at the hip to the cooker, and they do have a life outside the kitchen confines. ... Women are a potent economic force; last year they earned £274 billion and influenced billions of pounds more purchasing decisions including those for traditionally male goods such as beer and cars.

Nicholas, 1994 p. 18

That the marketplace is changing rapidly is in no doubt with women becoming more prominent both as purchasers and consumers overall and particularly of what were once traditionally male/masculine products. The products which are normally marketed to women are those relating to home-making tasks such as cleaning, the preparing and serving of food and the eternal chore of shopping for all these products. The other products normally targeted directly to women are those relating to personal adornment: fashion, fragrance, cosmetics and jewellery (Bartos 1989). Now it is no longer sufficient to market only such products to women as they are now the decision makers in the purchase of many other products such as cars, alcoholic beverages, cigarettes, newspapers and property to mention but a few. Marketers must therefore learn how to target such products at women while also reviewing their strategies for the traditional female products.

Most advertising scholars and practitioners agree that the strategies used to target women through the media have changed importantly during the past generation. With the emergence of the feminist movement in the 1970's researchers have scrambled to be in tune with perceptual, attitudinal and behavioural changes that may have occurred among this new generation of women (Gentry, Doering and O'Brien, 1978; Auchmuty, 1985; Stroud, 1988; Charlier, 1987; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991) They are asking such questions as: Are female products still female? Are younger females using media in the same way as their mothers do? Do females identify more with female models and spokespersons? Do message appeals still have the same import for the new generation woman? (Widgery and McGaugh, 1993)

Advertisers seem to be having trouble speaking to women because of role confusion. They are afraid of stereotyping of any kind and can't keep up with the changes in women's life-styles. Initially, the superwoman image was a positive thing but gradually women have changed and now believe that having it all is not realistic (Liesse-Erickson, 1988; Auchmuty, 1985; Moog, 1985; Jaffe and Berger, 1994). So what are advertisers to do? How can they appeal to these new women? There are many schools of thought on how best to market to the women of the nineties but all are agreed that some changes are required if they are to successfully appeal to these women.

2.2.1 Segmenting the Female Market

Bartos (1982) was one of the first to concentrate heavily on the female market and she concluded that the development of some kind of a segmentation strategy for the female market was required. That most women had changed was not in dispute and she entitled the new independent women which were emerging 'The New Demographics'. However, within this classification women's roles, attitudes and requirements were changing at different rates and hence she saw a need to segment the market in a way that goes beyond their occupations and their situation in the life-cycle. The approach she chose divides housewives into those who don't want to work and those who say they would like to work some day. The "plan to work"

intention is deemed to be a reflection of the aspiration to be something more than just a wife and mother. Working women in turn are divided into those who are career oriented and those who are not. These categories reflect the relative ambition and work involvement of the two segments of working women. Bartos believes marketers should add the new demographic perspective to their analysis of the marketplace. The four categories are entitled:

- * The Stay at Home Housewife
- * The Plan to Work Housewife
- * The Just a Job Working Woman
- * The Career Oriented Working Woman

Although based on attitude towards work the segmentation proposed by Bartos is, she believes, concerned with far more than this and is in fact more of a psychographic segmentation than anything else. The women in each of the four categories view themselves differently to those in the other categories. Career women have stronger self images than any other segment. They are more likely than others to describe themselves as trustworthy, kind, refined, broad-minded, efficient, intelligent and frank. They are the only ones who think of themselves as self-assured. Just a job working women tend to be close to the norm but are a faint echo of their career oriented counterparts describing themselves as trustworthy, kind, refined, stubborn, broad minded and affectionate. Plan to work housewives are more tense and stubborn than other segments of women. They also described themselves as sociable, affectionate and awkward. They echo the career women in feeling that they are creative. Stay at home housewives are not at all likely to think of themselves as brave or stubborn. They are mildly likely to see themselves as kind and sociable. They are the least likely as any of the other segments of women to see themselves as assertive. They are far below the norm in thinking of themselves as brave, stubborn, dominating, intelligent, frank or broad-minded. They have particularly low egos but are mildly likely to think of themselves as trustworthy, kind and sociable (Bartos 1982).

Having identified these segments of women and their self-perceptions Bartos then applied this across to behaviour and life-style in order to better understand each of these groups particularly in relation to their buyer behaviour. However, her analysis is somewhat limited in that it appears to assume that the key way in which the female market can be differentiated and segmented is based on their attitude towards work. Although very useful it falls short in that it fails to examine further differences within the groups. For example, career women are likely to range in age from twenty two to sixty and have widely varying likes and dislikes, life-styles and values. The older career women would have been pioneers in their day being societal norm mould breakers by choosing to pursue a career rather than stay at home. Although this is still somewhat true for younger career women they are more accepted as being the norm and for their generation, working outside the home in more than a just a job capacity is not considered unusual. Of particular note are Bartos's statistics on younger women. Her data reveals that ninety percent of women under thirty five don't anticipate being home-makers for their entire life and they will work due to a desire to do so rather than a necessity and even among the older women only thirty percent regard home-maker as the best life-style choice (Bartos 1989). Thus, it would appear to be the case that the vast majority of women today and for the future will be in the working cohort either as just a job or career orientated. Therefore, any marketing activities should concentrate more on these groups than on the non-working women as they appear to be likely to become such a small proportion of the female market as not to make much difference. The value of Bartos's segmentation strategy is therefore questionable.

Other research into the female market and how best to market to women has also concluded that the market must be segmented if it is to be targeted in the most effective way. One of the most noted of these studies is the Conde Nast (1986) study which segmented the female market for cars based on demographics, income and more importantly on the reasons why women buy the cars they do. Minne and deBoer (1990) proposed a segmentation strategy based on women's attitude toward 'individualisation' which they define as 'the tendency to make more independent choices no longer based upon traditional norms and values'. They segmented the

market into five woman types based on attitude toward individualisation ranging from those with a very positive attitude to individualisation, who they entitled the pioneers, to those with a very negative attitude whom they entitled the traditionalists. However, as in the case of the Bartos segmentation which falls down on the fact that the vast majority of the female market is expected in the future to fall into the working cohort, the Minne and deBoer classification is also lacking as they also predicted that women will become more and more individualistically minded in the future. Thus, again the segmentation strategy is of little value as the majority of women are expected to fall into one or two of the classifications developed.

The most common segmentation basis for the female market is that of either modern or traditional and has been widely used by researchers (Jaffe and Berger, 1988; 1991; 1994; Meyers-Levy, 1991). Many are agreed that the majority of younger women fall into the 'modern' category and so if looking at this market any further general segmentation is not really necessary. Product specific segmentation such as that of the Conde Nast (1986) may be useful when developing specific product campaigns but the more generalist strategies such as those proposed by Bartos (1982) and Minne and deBoer (1990) would need to be supplemented by product specific segmentation when developing a marketing strategy.

Even with the development of such segmentation strategies there is still confusion on what advertising appeals to use when targeting the female market and how to portray women in advertising. There have been a number of research studies conducted in the last two decades into marketing to women and how best to target, portray and appeal to them but as recently as 1994 studies were being commissioned into women's attitudes and how best to understand them (Nicholas, 1994). The questions are still being asked and the feeling is that the advertising field has failed to keep pace with women's evolution from domestic seclusion to full participation in society. The term housewife is seen to be obsolete and according to Good Housekeeping editor in chief, Sally O'Sullivan, 'there simply isn't anyone any more who is wedded to her home and who does nothing outside it.' However, the fear

is, and evidence to date has shown this to be somewhat the case, that although the housewife as we knew her may well be dead, can the advertising industry bear to let her go? (Nicholas, 1994). This area of how to portray women in advertising particularly in light of their changing role and expectations is one which has been extensively researched in an attempt to answer the overall question of how best to market to women. It is seen as one of the key questions which must be answered when attempting to establish how best to market to the new women and section 2.2.2 below outlines some of the main studies and findings to date on sex role stereotyping and the portrayal of women in advertising.

2.2.2 Portrayal of Women in Advertising

One of the first studies regarding sexual stereotyping in print advertising to appear in the marketing literature was that reported by Courtney and Lockeretz (1971). They analysed the roles portrayed by men and women in eight general audience magazines and identified four stereotypes being consistently reflected in the advertising:

- * A woman's place is in the home
- * Women do not make important decisions or do important things
- * Women are dependent and need men's protection
- * Men regard women primarily as sexual objects

They found that while a third of America's full-time workers at that time were female, only an eighth of the workers shown in the 729 advertisements examined were women and more than half of these were entertainers or sports personalities. Altogether, less than one tenth of women in the advertisements were shown in working roles, as opposed to almost half of the men, and none of the women were portrayed in professional or high level business roles.

This study provided the methodological foundations for several subsequent studies and during the past two decades, the portrayal of women in advertising has been an

active area of study (Courtney and Whipple, 1974; Soley and Kurzbard, 1986; Belkaoui and Belkaoui, 1976; Lundstrom and Sciglimpaglia, 1977). Since the Courtney and Lockeretz (1971) study, some researchers have suggested that there has been a general, if slow moving, trend toward a more modern and more realistic depiction of women in advertising and some improvements in its treatment of female roles (Belkaoui and Belkaoui, 1976; Venkatesan and Losco, 1975; Schneider and Schneider, 1979). Courtney and Whipple (1983) examined all the major research studies which had been completed at that time into the portrayal of women in advertising and found that although the research approaches differed, the conclusions of all the major studies were essentially the same, that women are predominantly shown in sub-ordinate roles in advertising. However, in the 1980's further research found that the stereotypical depiction of women continued to persist (LaTour, 1990; Soley and Reid, 1988).

Thus, in summary it can be said that there appears to be no conclusive evidence that the advertising industry has altered its approach to marketing to women but extensive research has been conducted in an attempt to identify how best to target them. Much of this research has concentrated on women's work role and whether they should be portrayed in a traditional 'housewife' type role or in a modern 'professional woman' role (Bartos, 1982; Jaffe and Berger, 1994; Jaffe and Berger, 1991; Barry, Gilly and Doran, 1985;). The conclusion appears to be that the female market cannot be treated as one overall homogenous market for all products and that different strategies must be employed for different product types. Those products which have always been associated with women such as cosmetics, clothes and personal adornment products will most likely require a different strategy than traditionally male products which are now being consumed by women as well. The most effective approach to take can only be assessed by measuring female response to varying portrayals in advertising.

That most of the research conducted into the portrayal of women in advertising reached the same conclusion is not in question with most studies agreeing that women are not portrayed as they should and are still shown in sub-ordinate roles

(Klassen et al, 1993; Belkaoui and Belkaoui, 1976; Whipple and Courtney, 1983). However, much of the research went no further than this and failed to answer the question of how the female market respond to the ads portraying them in these subordinate roles. That is, what does this mean for marketing practitioners? The studies agreed that women were generally not portrayed in progressive, independent roles but how the market responds to the ads was not measured. Other researchers have however addressed this problem and attempts were made to identify any variation in response among different groups of women. This research has taken two separate forms, initially the objective of identifying whether different segments of the female market perceive the portrayal of women differently and secondly whether different segments of women vary in response to different portrayals of women.

2.2.3 Female Perceptions of Sex Role Portrayals

There is little disparity in results of studies measuring female perception of female role portrayals in advertising. Most studies agree that the female market as a whole responds similarly to the perceived role portrayals in advertising with traditional and modern women all perceiving women to be portraying similar sex roles in selected advertisements. That is, regardless of the segment respondents fall into such as modern versus traditional, or working versus non-working no variation has been found in response to perceived role portrayal of women in advertising. Ford and LaTour (1993) were the only exceptions as they found that different female interest groups (National Organisation of Women, League of Women Voters and a general area sample) differed in their general perceptions of the role portrayals in advertising with the general area sample being less critical of and sensitive to the portrayal of women in the ads chosen than the other two groups. They therefore concluded that more modern and feminist women are more sensitive to the portrayal of women in advertising and find women to be portrayed in a more demeaning fashion than do the general population. However, when Bartos (1989) tested response to advertising in the British market she found no significant difference in response between each of the four new demographic groupings. Similarly, Coughlin

and O'Connor (1985) found no support for their hypothesis that one's attitude toward the role of women in society will predispose reactions to varying sex role depictions in advertisements. Duker and Tucker (1977) also found there to be no significant difference in the response of pro-feminist subjects and traditionalists in perceived role portrayal of women in advertising. That is, in many instances, researchers have found that the female response to perceived sex role portrayal does not differ with all women agreeing that traditional role portrayals are just that and that modern portrayals are modern. Therefore, there would again appear to be no value in segmenting the market on this basis. However, although perception of female role portrayal has not been found generally to vary among different groups of women, responsiveness to differing sex role portrayals may reveal important and varied market segments which exist and is a further area which has received attention in the marketing literature.

2.2.4 Effectiveness of Positioning Strategies Based on Sex Role Portrayals

Studies into the effectiveness of differing sex role portrayals have been conducted by a number of different researchers both on an overall basis and using different segmentation bases with varying results.

The United States Equal Opportunities Commission supported an independent study by the Sherman Group (1982) to determine whether print advertisements depicting women in less rigid roles would sell products better than those showing women in well worn stereotypes. The study found that the modern positioning enhanced the advertising effectiveness in all product categories among all segments of women. The researchers concluded that this was mainly due to the fact that the modern positionings portrayed women as attractive, independent, capable people in and out of the home.

Barry, Gilly and Doran (1985) conducted a study aimed at identifying whether women's differing career orientations, defined as differences in their desire to work outside of the home, would result in different responses to experimental

advertisements for a hypothetical magazine. They segmented the market into three groups based on a segmentation basis developed by Richardson (1974):

- * Women with a low desire to work
- * Women with a moderate desire to work
- * Women with a high desire to work

They hypothesised that women would respond most favourably to advertising which captured their interests, attitudes and behaviours and thus women with a low desire to work would respond most favourably to 'homemaker' advertising while those with a high desire to work would respond most favourably to 'career' advertising. Their findings supported this hypothesis and they thus concluded that advertisers must be careful of their positioning strategies if they hope not to alienate large groups of the female population.

Whitkowski (1975) also provided some empirical evidence demonstrating that ads that alienate female viewers as a result of the role portrayals may result in fewer sales and/or public criticism.

Jaffe and Berger (1991) tested responsiveness to both a traditional and modern positioning strategy in advertising financial services to women and segmented the market based on sex role orientation. Financial services are seen as a traditionally male dominant product, that is a product previously perceived to be mostly used by males, and as a result Jaffe and Berger hypothesised that averaging across all segments of women a modern positioning strategy would enhance advertising effectiveness significantly more than a traditional position.

From their sample of two hundred women each of whom was exposed to a series of print ads depicting both a traditional and modern position they gained strong support for the hypothesis that the modern position would be favoured. This was due to the fact that a modern woman was perceived to be more likely to be a user of financial services, a product traditionally perceived as being masculine and will

be better able to understand and make good choices when it comes to such a product. This would imply that this may be the case for all similar products which are now being consumed by women such as cars and beer.

With regard to the sex role orientation segmentation they found that women scoring high on masculinity and both the high and low femininity groups responded significantly more favourably to the modern positioning than the traditional positioning. The low masculinity group did not respond significantly differently to either and so the conclusion was that the modern positioning strategy would be most appropriate in attracting female consumers.

In an earlier study, Jaffe and Berger (1988) conducted similar research using two low involvement products, food and cleaners. In this case, different results were found for each of the two product categories. In the case of food, each of the three sex role orientation groups, masculine, feminine and androgynous differed significantly in response from each other with the masculine and androgynous favouring the modern positioning but the masculine significantly more so than the androgynous and the feminine group favouring the traditional positioning. Response in the cleaner category did not vary however, with sex role orientation being found not to cause any significant variance in response. In depth interviews conducted to try and explain the differing response for the two product groups revealed that men participating in the household cleaning was perceived to be unrealistic and thus the positioning strategy used in the study was deemed to be 'too modern to be believable'. Jaffe and Berger thus concluded that research must be conducted into individual product groups to assess female response to differing positioning strategies.

The value of product positioning analysis is best realised when coupled with segmentation analysis, because the effect of positioning on purchase intent often differs by segment. In this study, it is indicated that the impact of positioning on purchase is different for segments of women with different sex role identities. Moreover, these differences by sex role identity are product dependent.

Jaffe and Berger (1988) p.269

Although most women do not vary in their perception of the roles being portrayed by women in advertising (see section 2.2.3) research indicates that responsiveness to differing role portrayals does vary and the above studies (Sherman Group, 1982; Barry et al, 1985; Whitkowski, 1975; Jaffe and Berger, 1991; 1988) all found that the preferred role portrayal for women overall was that of the modern positioning. Jaffe and Berger's investigation of response by sex role orientation has also produced some interesting findings and merits further investigation. Section 2.4 reviews other research conducted into the area of sex role orientation as a segmentation base for response to advertising.

At this point it would appear from the literature reviewed that most researchers are agreed that some change is required when marketing to the new generation woman, that there is a large amount of sex role stereotyping of women in advertising and that a large proportion of women find this a problem. The majority of women will respond most positively to advertising where women are portrayed in a more progressive and modern role and are not shown simply as wives and mothers but the change to this type of positioning has been slow. Segmenting the female market in general terms has not been found to be particularly useful but in product specific situations it can be.

As there has been such extensive research conducted into the area of marketing to women and female response to varying role portrayals in print and television advertising the author feels that another study of this nature would not be appropriate or particularly useful at this time. However, although many studies in consumer research and those outlined above have directly or indirectly dealt with sex role stereotyping, few have explicitly examined the evaluation of products described as having qualities consistent with a particular sex or sex role (Alreck, Settle and Belch, 1982).

The area of product gendering as a means of targeting the female market is one where there appears to be a dearth of research but should be examined closely as an alternative to the traditional role portrayal variation as a method of appealing to

the female market. The literature is not very plentiful but a few studies have been conducted to investigate the effect of altering a products gender image on it's acceptance. It is seen as particularly useful in the case of products which are now being consumed by both sexes but were previously consumed more or less exclusively by either males or females (Jaffe and Berger, 1988; 1991; Alreck et al, 1982; Debevec and Iyer, 1986a; 1986b; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991; Worth et al, 1992).

The role portrayal and sex role stereotyping of women in advertisements contributes greatly to the gender image of the product being advertised and so an alteration in the sex role stereotyping of women may in turn lead to a change in the gender image assigned to a product. A number of researchers believe it is an important area to examine and a useful method of targeting the new generation woman. Section 2.3 below outlines the methods and value of product gendering and gender repositioning when marketing to women.

2.3 PRODUCT GENDERING

In positioning and repositioning products, advertisers often work to create a gender image for a brand by featuring the targeted gender in an advertisement as a typical user of the product. Researchers have speculated that a product's gender image is likely to be related to the gender of the person perceived to be the most likely user of the product (Allison et al, 1979; Debevec and Iyer, 1986a) and some evidence supporting this has been offered (Debevec and Iyer, 1986b; Alreck, Settle and Belch, 1982). This would therefore imply that the portrayal of women in advertising is an important factor in the creation of a gender image for a product.

Gendering of a product or brand simply means imbuing it with a masculine or a feminine image and identity. These are typically goods that may be purchased and used by both sexes. ... With gendered products, the basic characteristics of the goods are acceptable by either sex, but the visible design features, advertising, promotion and perhaps distribution of the product are modified to include symbols which identify it mainly or exclusively with one sex.

Alreck, 1994 p. 6

The quotation above from Alreck (1994) refers to the fact that products which are obviously designed for males, such as shaving cream and after shave, and females, such as make-up and stockings are not necessarily considered gendered as no gender positioning is required by the manufacturer/marketer to ensure they are made appealing specifically to the targeted gender. However, products which can be consumed and purchased as easily by males and females are often gendered by marketers in order to specifically target one sex or the other. While marketers, in trying to appeal to their target audience, attempt to form gender images for brands by featuring men or women in their advertisements, there is little if any published evidence that such a strategy is effective in creating or altering the gender image of a product or brand (Debevec and Iyer, 1986). This effectiveness issue is important since individuals have been found to often select brands because of their gender image (Fry, 1971; Vitz, 1965).

Worth et al (1992) also claim that there is no conclusive evidence in the literature that products described as having masculine qualities are more appealing to men and that products accorded feminine attributes are more appealing to women. However, despite this lack of direct evidence on the issue, advertisers proceed nonetheless to base advertising campaigns on the belief that products with ascribed masculine qualities appeal to males and products with ascribed female qualities appeal to females (Alreck et al, 1982). How effective such campaigns are at actually achieving their purpose remains in question.

As men's and women's roles are changing, marketers are beginning to re-evaluate their advertising strategies. Studies show that men are becoming an important market force for products traditionally targeted toward women (Abstrachan, 1984; Rosen, 1985) while women are also becoming potential customers for products traditionally targeted at men (Jaffe and Berger, 1991). Advertisers are therefore re-examining their strategies in an attempt to appeal to the larger market which may have emerged as users or potential users of their products become dispersed across both sexes. The dilemma which faces them is how to appeal to both male and female without alienating their original market? They may have previously

gendered their products to appeal to one sex but they no longer want to do this. They must establish how best to re-position their products or dual-genderise them in order that they appeal to both sexes (Bellizzi and Milner, 1991). Dortch (1994) speaks of this dilemma with which advertisers are faced and stresses the importance of understanding the requirements of both their male and female consumers before developing a strategy to appeal to them as a single appeal may not always work.

Advertisers understand that both men and women are buying more products traditionally purchased by the opposite sex. But their pitches often miss the mark. Advertisers cannot assume that a single message will be equally effective in reaching both genders. The task for advertisers is to know where the roles, attitudes, and behaviour of men and women truly converge. Advertisers must also know where there continue to be meaningful differences in how men and women shop and perceive advertising for the products they will hopefully purchase.

Dortch, 1994 p. 15-16

It would therefore seem that the dilemma facing marketers as to how to appeal to the new generation woman applies both to traditionally female products and to products which have not been traditionally considered to be 'feminine'. In both cases it is important to look at the perceived gender image of the product. Questions must be answered as to whether the new generation woman prefers products gendered in a feminine way, those imbued with a more masculine image or alternatively those promoted in a more neutral fashion.

2.3.1 Creating a Gendered Image

Although consumers commonly hold gender images of products, the basis of those gender images is not completely understood. Allison et al (1979) speculate that products may be sex-typed based on the gender of the group most likely to use the product but they go on to say that there is much still to be discovered about the variables responsible for gendering a product.

It would be extremely relevant for the marketer to identify the dimensions and characteristics of a product that contribute to masculine and feminine product perceptions. Of great relevance are the variables associated with the product and how these variables will interact with the characteristics of the consumer. One influence is undoubtedly the sex that typically uses a product but a more thorough understanding of product characteristics will aid the marketer in developing advertising and product strategy.

Allison et al, 1979 p.609

Alreck, Settle and Belch (1982) believe it to be virtually accepted without question as 'conventional wisdom' by advertisers that products can be endowed with a sex role image that will position the brand as acceptable to a single target market consisting of consumers of one sex but they too indicate, like Allison et al (1979) that how this gender image is created is not fully understood. Debevec and Iyer (1986b) have speculated that a product's gender image is likely to be related to the gender of the person perceived to be the most likely user of the product. The advertiser's goal is for the audience to identify with that individual and to perceive the brand as appropriate for themselves. (Debevec and Iyer 1986).

Alreck (1994) considers that gendering of a product is accomplished by doing two main things. First, the product or brand is designed or modified to appeal to the stereotypical man or woman. Then, to give it a gender image, it has to be strongly associated with the masculine or feminine sex role stereotype through advertising and promotion. This is achieved usually by the manipulation of a number of variables which combined will create the desired image for the product. These would include the gender of the models used in advertisements, the branding and language used, the voice-over, the usage situation, the main product users and the role portrayal of the models used in advertisements (Alreck, 1994).

Many products have traditionally been heavily gender dependent, such as household cleaning goods being considered women's products while cars were considered men's. However according to Bellizzi and Milner (1991) this gender identification of products is now waning. They comment that with the restriction of roles based on gender decreasing, many products are no longer gender exclusive, but gender is

still a key positioning variable in that efforts are made to show a particular gender as the typical user of that product.

Dual-gender positioning (using both male and female directed positions) is according to Bellizzi and Milner (1991) becoming more and more popular but is a tricky business and must be treated with care as companies do not want to alienate their primary market when they expand to other markets. For instance, in a lot of cases, ad targeting of men's products to women takes place through mediums still traditionally reserved for women such as women's magazines in order not to suffer too strongly from male back lash (Charlier 1987). It is however a strategy which more and more marketers are trying, in an attempt to harness the recognised potential which now exists in the female market (Alreck, 1994; Worth, Smith and Mackie, 1992; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991; Debevec and Iyer, 1986; Alreck, Settle and Belch, 1982).

Attempts to change the gender image of a product is particularly prevalent for products which have reached the mature stage of their life-cycle. Demand will have stagnated and every attempt will be made to increase market share through appealing to segments not previously targeted (Debevec and Iyer, 1986; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991). For example, attempts may be made to ungenderise previously gendered products in order that they may now have universal appeal. This could be considered to be the case for female personal care products such as shampoos, face creams etc. who's product lines have now been expanded in order to appeal to males also. However, in most instances it has been societal changes in sex roles and perceived norms for males and females which have led to many of the changes which have occurred in the last twenty years. It has been demand rather than supply driven and marketers have had to adapt to cater to the new breed of woman which has emerged.

2.3.2 Repositioning of Previously Gendered Brands

Stuteville (1971) suggests that products that have been polarized to the various sexes will require different strategies when attempts are made to enter the new market, that is the opposite sex to that previously targeted. He purports that products originally targeted toward women will require super masculine symbols to be acceptable to men while the reverse is not true for women. This was later found to be the case by Alreck, Settle and Belch (1982) where women were found to be more accepting of perceived masculine brands than men were of perceived feminine brands. Alreck (1994) also comments on this phenomenon of men rejecting feminine brands while women are more accepting of masculine brands.

Giving a brand a feminine gender will automatically and almost completely exclude the masculine market. Men typically reject brands with a feminine gender out of hand. The opposite is not usually true. Women are often quite hospitable toward brands or product variations with a strong masculine image.

Alreck, 1994 p. 14

A number of studies have been conducted into how best to reposition or ungenderise previously gendered products in order that they will appeal to both sexes with varying results (Alreck, Settle and Belch, 1982; Debevec and Iyer, 1986; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991).

Alreck, Settle and Belch (1982) examined the trial and use ratings of a sample of six hundred respondents in an attempt to establish the effect of gendering brands in ads on their acceptance by the same and the opposite sex. In order to control for differences in exposure to ads for existing products and especially variance that would likely be systematically related to the sex of the respondents and the gender of the brands, a pair of ads for fictitious brands of toilet soap were developed. Soap was the product selected because it is used in about equal proportions by both sexes and because the characteristics of a personal care product lend themselves well to symbols and attributes that might effectively identify brands with a particular sex.

In other words, it could be easily gendered (Alreck et al, 1982). The brand names that were created were 'Tiger' for the masculine and 'Rainbow' for the feminine brand. To avoid as much as possible the differences in graphic or presentational representations between the brands, the print ad format was not used. Instead, two pieces of copy, presented to respondents as radio commercials were presented in print format. The language in each varied together with the brand name, thus in this instance the branding and language variables were being tested for their power in creating or altering the gender image assigned to a particular product. The masculine brand was portrayed as 'relatively strong and effective and used an appeal that was both robust and vigorous while the feminine counterpart was said to be mild and gentle and used an appeal that was soft and sentimental' (Alreck et al, 1982 p. 27). They found that the two brands were in fact seen to differ significantly in terms of perceived image with Tiger and Rainbow being perceived to be distinctly masculine and feminine respectively. With regard to appeal of the two brands their findings show that women do prefer feminine brands and are somewhat accepting of masculine brands while men prefer masculine brands but do not readily accept feminine brands. That is, women are more accepting of opposite gendered brands than are men. However, the likelihood of trial and use ratings were higher for the feminine brand than for the masculine brand.

Alreck et al (1982) were the first to veer away from the emphasis on the portrayal of women in advertising and the debate as to whether women should be singled out when advertising to them. They were also among the first and only researchers to specifically test the ability of the variables other than the users and usage situation to create or alter the gendered image of a product. They found that the language and branding variables were effective in altering the gendered image.

Debevec and Iyer (1986) conducted a study similar to the Alreck, Settle and Belch (1982) study, with a slightly different methodology and findings. Their objective was to establish the acceptance of gendered brands by both male and females but they were particularly interested in the spokesperson. By advancing on the Alreck et al (1982) study and actually developing radio ads as opposed to simply the copy

for them they investigated the extent to which a spokesperson's gender can influence the gender image of a product and from this the effectiveness of different spokespersons in appealing to each of the two sexes. In addition, the appropriateness and effectiveness of spokesperson/product gender combinations were assessed relative to the gender image perceptions. They were most interested in how effective a spokesperson's gender is as a promotional cue in altering the gender image of a brand. That is, to what extent can a spokesperson's gender create a gender image for a brand which is opposite to the gender image of the product class. Other pertinent questions asked included how effective in terms of attitudes and purchase intention are ads aimed at altering a product's gender image? Does the sex of the consumer mediate his /her response to gender consistent and inconsistent ad portrayals? Does a consumer's gender orientation effect the way in which he or she perceives and responds to gender consistent and inconsistent advertising portrayals?. They were also interested in measuring the influence, if any, of individual characteristics as they relate to gender perceptions of products and promotions including both biological and psychological gender orientation.

Previous research has found that there was a link between an individuals sex role orientation and his/her cigarette brand choice. Both Vitz (1965) and Fry (1971) found that individuals classified as masculine were significantly more likely to smoke cigarettes with a masculine image while those classified as feminine were more likely to smoke cigarettes with a feminine image. More recent research has also linked an individual's sex role orientation to his/her gender perceptions of products, activities, brands and promotions (Allison et al, 1979; Alreck, Settle and Belch, 1982; Gentry and Doering, 1977; Gentry, Doering and O'Brien, 1977; Gentry and Haley, 1984; Golden, Allison and Clee, 1977). However, in general, while a connection has been found to exist between an individual's sex role orientation and his or her perception of the gender image of a product, an individual's gender orientation has not been found to be a very strong predictor of perceptions of products or attitudes and behaviour. Most researchers have found that an individual's sex was at least as important as the gender orientation measures in affecting perceptions of products and in predicting attitudes and behaviour

(Allison et al, 1979; Gentry and Doering, 1977; Gentry, Doering and O'Brien, 1977; Golden, Allison and Clee, 1977) while Alreck, Settle and Belch (1982) found support for the value of sex role orientation as a predictor in response to gendered ads particularly for males.

Identifying these inconclusive results on the effect of an individual's sex and gender orientation on their perceptions of and attitudes towards gendered products and the lack of research into the power of the gender of the voice-over to influence the perceived gender image of the product being advertised Debevec and Iyer (1986) saw the need for further research.

Debevec and Iyer hypothesised that a spokespersons gender would influence and alter the gender image assigned to a brand. In order to test this three products were chosen, one with a masculine image (beer), one with a feminine image (washing up liquid) and a third with a neutral image (toothpaste). Radio ads of approximately equal length were developed for each of the products entailing testimonials for the products in gender neutral situations. Two versions of each ad were recorded one with a male spokesperson and the other with a female spokesperson. A sample of 104 undergraduate students was used with each student exposed to one ad for each of the three products. They were then questioned on their attitudes towards the message, speaker, brand, possible use, and the appropriateness of combinations of speaker, product and situation. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) was used to measure respondent's sex role orientation (See chapter 3, section 3.3.2 for an explanation of the BSRI).

There was strong support for the hypothesis that voice-over would alter the gender image of a product. In the case of the masculine product it was perceived as significantly more feminine than the product class when promoted by a female spokesperson but also when promoted by a male. However, the female spokesperson created a significantly more feminine image than the male. In the case of the feminine product the male spokesperson created a significantly more masculine image than that for the product class while the female spokesperson did

not alter the gender image. The results in the case of the neutral product were similar to those for the feminine product, with the male spokesperson altering the image but the female resulting in no significant difference. The perceived appropriateness of the product spokesperson combinations was also measured with interesting results. In the case of the masculine and neutral products there was no perceived difference in the appropriateness of the male and female spokespersons but in the case of the feminine product, the male spokesperson was perceived to be significantly more appropriate than the female. These unexpected results were deemed by Debevec and Iyer to be attributable to the fact that the student sample by its nature was not as traditional as the population as a whole and favouring more unusual approaches than might be expected from a more representative sample. The sex and sex role orientation of respondents were found not to be effective predictors of response to the subject's attitudes towards the product, message, spokesperson and usage situation. This would imply that while the spokesperson's sex is an effective variable in altering the gendered image of a product this change in the gender image is not a strong enough tool to lead to differences in response between male and female respondents or each of the sex role orientation groups. Therefore, Debevec and Iyer concluded that if a marketer is trying to target the male or female market for the first time they would not lose either the males or females by choosing one gender of spokesperson over another as there was no significant difference in response between the two.

These findings suggest that the power of the voice-over has still not been assessed accurately. Some interesting and unexpected results were found which Debevec and Iyer could not really explain and they suggest that some further research is required. The results do however suggest that using a spokesperson to alter a product's gender image is a feasible and potentially effective strategy. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the researcher has chosen to further test the hypothesis that the spokesperson is effective in altering the gendered image as other than the Debevec and Iyer (1986) study there is very little research and hence very little evidence that this is in fact the case. It was also felt that almost ten years on and in the Irish context it would be interesting to test whether results similar to those of the Debevec

and Iyer (1986) study would occur. This study is not however a replication of the Debevec and Iyer study for a number of reasons including the work conducted by Alreck, Settle and Belch (1982) and Bellizzi and Milner (1991). In both of these cases there were differences in methodological approaches as each was measuring something different. This study is designed on a combination of these three studies (See chapter three for a full description of the research design and methodology employed).

Bellizzi and Milner (1991) were interested in identifying the most appropriate positioning strategy for a traditionally male dominant product being targeted directly to women for the first time. They examined the effect of dual-positioning in a mass medium where both genders are exposed to products previously directed to one. Their objectives were to identify primarily whether when dealing with a male dominant product women would prefer a female approach or would they prefer inferring from the traditional approach of targeting traditionally male dominant products to men? whether there are individual differences among women in the approach they prefer for marketing male dominant products? and finally whether a traditionally male dominant product promoted to women would create a 'back-lash' from men?(Bellizzi and Milner, 1991). For the chosen product, a car maintenance service, which had been proved to be perceived as having a masculine image, they examined responsiveness to a male, a female and a neutral position. As in the case of the Alreck, Settle and Belch (1982) study, the product was gendered through the use of gendered language and branding and as in the case of Debevec and Iyer (1986) the voice-over was also used as a method of gendering the product. Thus the gendering of the product was stronger than in either of the other two studies with variations in all three elements used in order to create a particular gendered image for the product. They used gendered language, branding and voiceover with a masculine product whereas Alreck, Settle and Belch (1982) used gendered language and branding for a neutral product and Debevec and Iyer (1986) used neutral copy for gendered products.

A mock up radio ad was used as the advertising stimulus as this, as in the case of the Debevec and Iyer (1986) study allowed for the power of the voice-over to be measured. Three versions of the ad were developed. A traditional version designed to explicitly appeal to men utilised a male voice-over, male directed copy and a masculine brand name, a second version with a female voice-over, female directed copy and a female brand name and a third version which was designed to serve as a control condition by appealing to both men and women, combined the voice-overs and the copy from the other two versions and had a neutral brand name. A randomly selected sample of 69 males and 45 females were exposed to the radio ads by the means of telephone interviews. Attitudes and reactions towards the ads were measured using twelve likert type questions which were designed to measure response to the ad itself, the spokesperson, purchase intent, credibility and perceived product quality. Two factors emerged from the analysis which accounted for sixty one per cent of the variance in response, with factor one primarily representing reaction toward the speaker and factor two, reaction to the ad itself.

The results of the Bellizzi and Milner (1991) study differed somewhat from those of the previous two studies (Alreck et al, 1982; Debevec and Iyer, 1986). Reaction toward the speaker resulted in a significant main effect for gender position with the female position out performing both the male and combined with regard to speaker sincerity, friendliness, pleasantness and likability. No significant overall gender positioning differences were found with regard to factor two, the ad itself however, a significant two way interaction for gender position and gender of respondent was found. Response by sex showed that the female positioning was particularly successful and well received by the female population and although not as favoured as the male position by men it was not significantly disliked by men. The male position was reacted to similarly by both male and female respondents. Overall, females gave the most positive reaction to the female position and least positive to the combined or neutral position. Male respondents on the other hand reacted most positively to the male position and least positively to the female position however the strength of feeling toward any of the ads by male respondents was far less strong than that of the females.

Bellizzi and Milner concluded from their findings that a female position would be most successful with a female audience and would not antagonise male audiences while males and females would respond similarly to a male position. Therefore, they propose that when targeting a traditionally male dominant product at women, in order to minimise the male backlash and maximise the appeal to the female market, the most appropriate method would be using both male and female positioning strategies in the mass media (Bellizzi and Milner, 1991).

Bellizzi and Milner (1991) were the only researchers to combine both a male and female spokesperson when attempting to create a neutral image and the success of this has led the researcher to attempt the same in this study. However, their means of genderising the product image were stronger than the use of the voice-over alone and thus the power of a combined voice-over alone to create a neutral image has not been tested before. It is therefore proposed that this will be done in this particular study.

The above three studies appear to be the only relatively recent published work conducted in the area of the effectiveness of gender positioning and re-positioning of gendered products with response measured by sex. As can be seen, all three have differed somewhat in methodology and objectives and even where they have overlapped there are no clear and conclusive findings. There is obviously a need for further research in the area and this study although not extensive can only help to add to the existing work. Table 2.5 provides a summary of the methodologies and findings of the three studies completed.

Table 2:5

Synopsis of Gender Positioning Studies

Alreck, Settle & Belch 1982	Debevec & Iyer 1986	Bellizzi & Milner 1991
<p>Methodology</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Sample Size - 600 * Print copy of radio ads * Gendered language and branding * Gendered positioning of neutral product - masculine and feminine * Sex role specificity <p>Findings</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Gendering of brand name and language is effective in altering the gendered image of a product * There is a same sex bias in response to gendered positioning, males prefer the masculine and females the feminine * Overall, masculine gendering is more effective than feminine for a neutral product * Male sex role specificity influences the degree of opposite gender brand acceptance but female does not 	<p>Methodology</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Sample Size - 104 * Radio Ads * Gendered voice-over only * Neutral copy for gendered products * Male and female voiceover for each of 3 products * Sex role orientation <p>Findings</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Gender of voice-over is effective altering gender image of masculine and feminine products only * No significant difference in response to gendered ads by sex * No significant difference in response to gendered ads by sex role orientation * Male spokesperson perceived as most appropriate for both masculine and feminine products 	<p>Methodology</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Sample Size - 114 * Radio Ads * Gender language, branding and voice-over * Masculine, feminine and neutral position for masculine product * Female career orientation <p>Findings</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Gendering of language, branding and voice-over is effective in altering the gender image of a product * There is a same sex bias in response to gendered positioning. * Males and females respond similarly to masculine positioning with women more accepting of masculine than men are of feminine * No correlation between responsiveness to gendered positions and women's career orientation

As each of the three studies differed somewhat the results can not be directly compared and there is no conclusive evidence as to how best to target a non-feminine product to women. Thus, there is need for further research in the area and this study aims to further investigate the area of gender positioning through the medium of radio.

Although similar in some ways to each of the three previously completed studies, this study will also differ and will be a combination of some of the better elements of each. Debevec and Iyer found that voice-over alone was effective in creating a

gendered image but they were the only researchers to test it's power alone to create or alter a gendered image. This study aims to test whether this is in fact the case. It will also expand on the work of Debevec and Iyer by including the element of combining both male and female spokespersons in order to create a neutral image for a product. Bellizzi and Milner did this but they also used the language and branding to alter the image and so did not test the power of the combined voice-overs alone to create a neutral image. This study, unlike the other three proposes to test the effect of neutral copy and usage situation with gendered spokespersons on the gender image of a traditionally masculine product. Alreck et al and Bellizzi and Milner found a same sex bias in response to gendered ads with women responding most positively to feminine positions and men to masculine but Debevec and Iyer found this not to be the case. This study will again test this as there is no agreement at this point. Sex role orientation was found by Debevec and Iyer not to influence responsiveness to gendered positions and to be at most as good as biological sex as a predictor of response. This study also aims to test whether or not sex role orientation is a useful predictor as there seems to be no conclusive evidence as to whether it is or not.

2.4 SEX ROLE ORIENTATION

Sex role orientation refers to the relative masculinity or femininity of an individual. It has been defined by Constantinople (1973) as referring to 'the relatively enduring traits which are more or less rooted in anatomy, physiology, and early experience and which generally serve to distinguish males from females in attitudes and behaviour'. Thus it refers to psychological rather than biological gender.

The debate as to whether a persons biological gender is an accurate measure of their psychological one is on-going and to date has failed to be resolved. Gender segmentation of the market place is common and frequently used as it is easy to segment a market in this way and often very useful to do so as products are often designed with the sexes in mind. That is, certain products are designed exclusively for one sex such as after shave being a product for males and brassieres being a

product for women. In such cases, the market is naturally segmented by gender but this is not always the case. Other products are easily consumed by both sexes such as food, drink, books, cars, cigarettes etc. In the case of products of this nature, which covers the majority of consumer goods, the market is not naturally segmented by sex and the marketer must choose if the market is to be segmented, if so, how best to segment it and design marketing appeals tailored to the chosen segment or segments. There are a multitude of bases on which any market can be segmented such as lifestyle, age, geographic, career orientation, psychographic and sex role to mention but a few. One of the bases most commonly examined when response by gender to various possible appeals are being measured is that of sex role orientation.

Prior to the 1970's the influences of biological sex dominated sex role research and the assumption was that biological gender was the major determinant of sex related behaviour. "Healthy" individuals were judged to be those who conformed to the sex role appropriate to their gender and manifested only those traits socially approved for that gender. That is, "healthy" males displayed only masculine traits such as strength and aggression while "healthy" females displayed only feminine traits such as sensitivity and gentleness (Constantinople, 1973; Robinson and Green, 1981). However, the dynamic changes which took place in society during the 1960's as a result of the women's liberation movement called these traditional assumptions into question (Bem, 1974; 1975; 1977; Robinson and Green, 1981) and thinking altered due to the observation that sex roles, biological sex and sex related personality traits may not necessarily be fixed or identical (Stern, 1986).

This led to an increased interest in the area and one of the most noted studies of sex role orientation was that of Bem (1974). Traditionally sex role self schema/identity/orientation referred only to the two constructs of masculinity and femininity. That is, a person was deemed to be either masculine or feminine but never both or neither and masculinity and femininity were considered two extremes of one continuum. Bem (1974) however changed this thinking through a new theory she developed based on the sex traits of masculinity and femininity as separate

orthogonal constructs, not biologically based and able to coexist in varying degrees within an individual of either sex. That is, she proposed that masculinity and femininity are separate entities and therefore that individuals could quite conceivably be 'androgynous, that is they might be both masculine and feminine, both assertive and yielding, both instrumental and expressive, depending on the situational appropriateness of these various behaviours' (Bem, 1974, p. 155).

2.4.1 Measuring Sex Role Orientation

In order to test her hypothesis, Bem developed a new sex role inventory to measure sex role orientation which would not automatically build in an inverse relationship between masculinity and femininity. This inventory which she entitled the "Bem Sex Role Inventory" (BSRI) included a list of sixty characteristics or traits of an individual, twenty of which were considered to be masculine, twenty feminine and the remaining neutral. A respondent is asked to score themselves on a scale from one to seven for each of the sixty traits where one is equal to never or almost never true and seven is always or almost always true. Respondents scoring high on masculine traits and low on feminine were deemed to be masculine, those scoring high on feminine and low on masculine were deemed feminine and those scoring equally on both masculine and feminine were deemed androgynous. Thus, an individual's psychological gender could be measured completely independently of biological gender and both masculine and feminine traits could be measured independently.

Spence et al (1975) challenged Bem's concept of androgyny based on balance between feminine and masculine items and instead proposed four categories with high masculine and high feminine being androgynous and low masculine low feminine being undifferentiated. The main difference between the Bem and Spence et al classifications was that androgynous respondents were defined by Spence et al to be high on both masculinity and femininity rather than a balance between the two. Spence et al proposed measurement on an inventory similar to the BSRI called the Personal Attribute Questionnaire (PAQ). Bem (1977) modified her categories and

accepted the four divisions suggested by Spence et al (1975). This modified version of the Bem Sex Role Inventory is still widely in use today and there are few alternatives developed to date for measuring sex role orientation. (See appendix C for a copy of the inventory).

There is no question but that there are some flaws with the BSRI and it must be said to be somewhat out-dated at this point. The most obvious flaw is the categorisation of characteristics into either masculine or feminine. The loving, caring, type qualities are deemed to be feminine traits while the more aggressive type qualities are considered to be masculine. This is not necessarily the case particularly with the merging of sex roles in recent times and so the real value of the BSRI as a measurement instrument is questionable (Barak and Stern, 1985). However, as no adequate alternative has been developed to date and it goes beyond the scope of this study to attempt to develop one, the BSRI will be the measurement instrument used for measuring the sex role orientation of respondents.

2.4.2 Sex Role Orientation as a Predictor of Consumer Choice

Since the introduction of the Bem Sex Role Inventory as an acceptable measurement instrument of sex role orientation there has been quite a lot of activity in the area with a number of studies being undertaken which attempt to measure the effect of sex role orientation on consumer choice and test whether biological or psychological gender is a more accurate predictor of consumer choice. Increasingly, research evidence suggests that consumer's perceptions of themselves might play an important role in consumer behaviour (Stuteville, 1971; Worth, Smith and Mackie, 1992; Alreck, 1994; Jaffe and Berger, 1988; Prakash and Flores, 1985; Jaffe, 1991). For example, subjects classified as masculine on the basis of self ratings have been found to more frequently use products which are perceived as masculine and engage in activities which are perceived to be more masculine while subjects classified as feminine have a distinct preference for more feminine goods and activities regardless of actual gender (Vitz and Johnson, 1965; Fry, 1971; Gentry, Doering and O'Brien, 1978; Worth, Smith and Mackie, 1992).

The research to date into the area of sex role orientation seems to have concentrated on: the value of sex role orientation as a variable in predicting variations in consumer behaviour; whether perceptions of product gender image is a function of sex role orientation and whether variations in consumer behaviour are more a function of biological or psychological gender. There is however some discrepancy in response to these questions with different researchers reaching different conclusions and no definitive answer appears to have been found to date.

Aiken (1963) was one of the first to relate sex role orientation to purchasing behaviour. He found that more feminine women were more likely to belong to the "Decoration", "Interest" and "Conformity" clusters of female dress buyers but that membership of the "Comfort" and "Economy" clusters was not related to sex role orientation. Vitz and Johnson (1965) and Fry (1971) found that there was a positive relationship between males' and females' self-perceived masculinity/femininity and the gender advertising image of the cigarettes they smoked. However, in both of these studies the results concerned respondents within sexes. That is, of the female respondents, the more feminine ones responded more positively to products with a feminine image while the more masculine females responded most positively to products with a masculine image. There was a similar result among the male respondents with the more masculine responding most positively to the masculine product while the more feminine responded most positively to the feminine product. Thus both Vitz and Johnson (1965) and Fry (1971) concluded that sex role orientation was an accurate predictor of variation in response to gendered products and that people will respond most positively to a product which is congruent with their sex role self image. However, neither of these two studies tested the effects of sex role orientation on product choice regardless of sex and thus cannot say whether or not sex role orientation is a better predictor overall of consumer choice than biological gender.

Gentry, Doering and O'Brien (1977) also examined the effects of perceived product gender image on usage rates and explored whether one's sex role orientation within each sex is related to the individual's product perceptions. They hypothesised that

consumers would use products with neutral orientations or orientations opposite from theirs (for example, feminine products for males) as long as they perceived the products to be persistent with their self image. Their results again provided only weak support for this hypothesis but they concluded that the male female dichotomy explains more of the variability in consumer behaviour than does masculinity-femininity. Other studies in the same era came up with similar results but the main emphasis of most of the studies was the effect of sex role orientation on product perceptions. Results would indicate that in most cases the sex of the individual has more important an influence on how the individual sex types a product than does the sex role orientation of the individual (Prakash and Flores, 1985).

One of the most extensive studies into the effects of sex role orientation on perceived product image was that of Allison et al (1979). They examined the effects of both sex and sex role orientation on perceived product image for twenty four separate product stimuli, which represented three overall image categories, one masculine, one feminine and one neutral. The perceived masculine or feminine image of the products were measured on two separate nine point scales, one ranging from very masculine to not at all masculine and the second from very feminine to not at all feminine. Respondents sex role orientation was measured using the BSRI. Overall analysis of variance for sex showed that there was a significant effect for sex in the case of feminine image with sex of respondent having a significant effect on perceived gender image. In the case of sex role orientation however, it was found not to be a significant source of variation for either masculine or feminine image. The authors therefore concluded that products have a priori gender images and sex of respondent is more important than sex role orientation in accounting for variation in perceived gender image. The effects of sex and sex role orientation on product acceptance and usage were not measured.

Worth, Smith and Mackie (1992) conducted a study designed to demonstrate experimentally that products described in gender terms that matched subjects' views of themselves as either masculine or feminine would be preferred to products described in gender schema discrepant terms. They examined male response to a

traditionally masculine product, beer promoted in a masculine and a feminine way and female response to a neutral product, jeans, described in both a masculine and a feminine way. The products were gendered through the variation of language in print ad copy which was found to be an appropriate method of gendering the products. In the case of the male respondents, subjects who scored high on masculinity responded significantly more favourably to the product described in masculine terms while those who scored low on masculinity responded significantly more positively to the product described in feminine terms thus showing that respondents clearly preferred the product described in terms congruent with their own self-ratings of gender. Similar results were found in the case of feminine respondents. Worth et al therefore concluded that regardless of the traditional image of the described product and regardless of the actual gender of the perceiver, subjects preferred a product described in terms that matched the gender attributes that they perceived as both characteristic of and important to themselves.

Coughlin and O'Connor (1985) hypothesised that as a result of contemporary changes in sex related social roles that variations in consumer behaviour would be more a function of personality type than gender and 'that the masculine, androgynous, feminine personality proclivities of advertising viewers will explain more variation in purchase intentions than gender by itself for a product promoted by a traditional versus non-traditional female model' (Coughlin and O'Connor, 1985 p. 238). The Bem Sex Role Inventory was used to measure the sex role orientation of respondents with purchase intent being the dependent variable used to measure reaction to ads. No significant differences were found in response by gender and thus it was useful to test for differences by sex role orientation but on an overall basis this was also found not to account for any significant differences in response. Some differences were found between sex role orientation groups within gender groups but these were limited. Feminine women responded significantly more positively to the non-traditional role than masculine and masculine men responded significantly more negatively to the traditional role than feminine men. Thus in the case of this study there was found to be only weak support for the hypothesis that personality characteristics would be a significant factor in explaining purchase intent

where alternative gender positions for a product exist.

Clearly there is some support for the hypothesis that sex role orientation is a useful variable in predicting response to products gendered through advertising images. All the studies outlined above found some support, even if weak for the idea that sex role orientation was a useful variable in predicting perceptions of a products gender image. There would also appear to be some congruency between an individual's sex role orientation and his or her response to gendered products with individual's tending to respond more positively to products with a gender image congruent with their own self image (Aiken, 1963; Vitz and Johnson, 1965; Fry, 1971; Gentry et al, 1977; Worth et al, 1992). However, in some cases, no such relationship was found (Allison et al, 1979; Debevec and Iyer, 1986). With regard to biological and psychological gender, most researchers seem to be agreed that while sex role orientation may be a useful variable in predicting response, there is little support for the hypothesis that it is more useful than biological gender (Gentry, Doering and O'Brien, 1987; Allison et al, 1979). However, there is not complete agreement on this point (Worth et al, 1992; Coughlin and O'Connor, 1985).

The need for further research is obvious from the lack of agreement to date. As many of the studies conducted to date were measuring the effect of segmenting by sex role orientation within gender groups their results cannot be assumed to relate to the population overall. Few studies have measured the power of sex role orientation in predicting consumer choice for a traditionally male dominated product or one which is being targeted at women for the first time. Debevec and Iyer (1986) included sex role orientation as an independent variable in their study of response to varied voice-overs but found it not to account for any significant variation in response to ads gendered through the variation of voice-overs. Jaffe (1991) did on the other hand find it to account for a significant amount of variance when a traditionally male dominant product was marketed to the female market using a traditional and a modern positioning. Respondents sex role orientation was found to be a strong indicator of preference for the alternative positionings offered.

The usefulness of sex role orientation as a segmentation base is not clear but were it to be found to account for any variation in response it could be a very valuable tool for marketers when designing campaigns for the market as a whole. It will therefore be included in this study as an independent variable as will sex in an attempt to assess whether sex role is a useful variable in predicting response, if there is congruency between an individual's sex role orientation and his or her perception of and preference for gendered products and whether sex role orientation accounts for more variation in response than biological gender.

2.5 THE MEDIUM

As one of the objectives of this study is to test the power of the voice-over to create or alter the gender image of a product, radio is the obvious advertising medium to use as it relies solely on the spokesperson to deliver the advertising message. The three studies conducted to date on the subject all used radio as the experimental medium (Alreck et al, 1982; Debevec and Iyer, 1986; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991).

Some research has been conducted recently into the power of radio as an advertising medium together with assessing the ways in which radio differs from the other forms of media (Aubury, 1994; Cox, 1994). The key perceived difference between radio and the other media to emerge was that of the more personal relationship which consumers have with radio than either television or print media.

Listening to radio is very often about having somebody to keep you company. Radio is there, like a friend in the background, easy to have around and usually not demanding mental effort.

Aubury, 1994

Cox (1994, p. 36) also speaks of this personal relationship which the consumer has with the radio and believes that it, being 'a medium that is invited into listeners' personal spaces, accompanies them throughout the day, and is regarded as a friend on their own level', offers tremendous opportunities for effective communication.

While acknowledging the obvious limitations of radio to present certain messages and make a brand glamorous or aspirational he believes that the ad-literate consumers of today are rebelling against such images and so if media targeting increasingly focuses on how best to interest and influence advertising literate consumers over loaded with commercial messages, the area of radio could provide the medium with the best hope of succeeding.

Thus, not only is radio suitable for testing the power of the voice-over but it is seen to be a growing medium and so is worth researching in it's own right.

2.5.1 Women in Radio Advertising

Over the past number of years there has been extensive research completed in the area of women in advertising and the portrayal of women in ads as outlined in section 2.2. The vast majority of this research has dealt with television because it is the most pervasive medium. This concentrated research effort on the television medium would seem logical because the average individual spends more than three hours a day with this medium (Melton and Fowler, 1987). However recent research in the Irish market indicates that eighty nine per cent of adults listen to some radio every day with the average adult listening to almost five hours radio a day (IMJ March 1994) and commercial radio in the UK was the fastest growing advertising medium in 1993 with a growth rate of twenty four percent (Admap, October 1994). There have been few studies conducted on the role and portrayal of women in radio advertising, but one research study conducted by Melton and Fowler (1987) found that males greatly outnumber females in radio advertising and that women were not used significantly in any way in radio advertising. They found that there were a significantly greater number of single subject male advertisements than female and that in the case of multi-sex advertisements a significantly larger number had males playing the dominant role, rather than females. Their examination of over two thousand radio ads over a period of one hundred and fifty six hours of radio programming indicates that 'the female presence on radio is similar to that found in earlier studies of television. It was virtually non-existent, comprising only seven per

cent of commercial slots' (Melton and Fowler, 1987 p 149).

Furnham and Schofield (1986) realising the dearth of research into the role of women in radio advertising conducted a study in the British market. Their objective was to compare the extent of sex role stereotyping in British commercial radio content with that previously analysed in British commercial television by Manstead and McCulloch (1981). They found that in their sample of ninety eight advertisements recorded from a popular commercial radio station of the one hundred and thirty four central figures recorded, eighty three percent were male and seventeen percent were female. Of these central figures males were much more likely to be shown as product authorities than product users with eighty three percent portrayed as authorities and seventeen percent as users, whereas females were equally likely to be either. They also found that females were significantly more likely than males to be portrayed in a dependent role with twenty six percent of females and only two percent of males portrayed in such roles.

In comparing these findings to those of similar studies on television Furnham and Schofield found that there were fewer significant differences in the portrayal of male and female characters in radio than in television, however there was still a severe imbalance of the portrayal of the two sexes in radio advertising. The reason for this phenomenon is not clear but Furnham and Schofield speculate that perhaps it is due to the fact that radio as a medium prevents the portrayal of sex role stereotypes as effectively as television, although the intentional stereotyping of the advertisers is as explicit. That is, much television advertisement sex role stereotyping is based on visual cues and particularly subtle non-verbal cues of dominance and submissiveness and the difference may be due to the lack of facility in radio for the use of visual and other non-verbal cues. (Furnham et al., 1981).

An alternative explanation for this variation is put forward by Lull et al (1983) who purport that radio advertisements are simply less sex-stereotypic because of market demands, advertiser preferences etc. They found that individuals who differ in their attitudes toward traditional sex role expectations differ quantitatively and

qualitatively in their uses of the media, with feminists for example having different radio and television preferences than non feminists. Whatever the reason for the imbalance, the fact remains that this is the case with females being severely under represented in radio advertising. Why this should be so is not clear and as section 2.5.2 below outlines, there is no conclusive evidence that males are more effective than females in radio advertising.

2.5.2 Gender of Spokesperson in Radio Advertising

When positioning and repositioning products, advertisers often work to create a gender image for a brand by featuring the targeted gender in an advertisement as a typical user of the product. This can be done through a number of different methods with the most obvious being the physical portrayal of a user of a particular gender in either print or television advertising. The user can be shown actually using the product being promoted or providing a testimonial for the product. In either case, it is usually quite obvious who the advertiser is targeting and who they see as the main users of the product. Other subtle visual cues can also be used very effectively to create a gendered image for a product.

The voice-over and the gender of the speaker is one element of gender positioning which has been largely ignored in the literature. The visual cues have been extensively researched and the portrayal of both men and women in print and television advertising has been investigated in numerous studies the majority of which have resulted in the same conclusion; that women are rarely shown as figures of authority or in the dominant role in advertising regardless of the nature of the product being advertised (LaTour, 1990; Loudon and Della Bitta, 1988; Soley and Reid, 1988; Courtney and Lockeretz, 1971; Belkaoui and Belkaoui, 1976; Bartos, 1983 among others). The gender of the spokesperson and his or her role have only been investigated in a limited number of studies.

The role of women in society has clearly changed quite dramatically over the last number of years (see section 2.1) but this change has not been accurately mirrored

in the use of female voice-overs in commercial radio and television. Courtney and Whipple (1983) report that although females are now being used more frequently as product representatives than in the past there is continued male dominance of commercial voice-overs and announcers with approximately ninety percent of all voice-overs being male regardless of the gender of the users and target audience. Courtney and Whipple (1974) were among the first to show that voice-overs, which they defined as 'advertising narrations carrying the connotation of authority' were overwhelmingly male. These findings tended to be confirmed with few variations by subsequent research in the 1970's and 1980's and while a few studies noted an increased use of the female voice, all agreed that female voice-overs were mainly confined to food, household, and feminine care products while male voices were associated with a wide range of products (Knill et al, 1981; Maracek et al, 1978; Meyers, 1980; O'Donnell and O'Donnell, 1978).

This dominance of the male voice-over has remained due to the belief by advertisers that the male voice is more authoritative and is therefore more effective. They believe that while the sex of the spokesperson often depends on the message the advertiser hopes to convey, the effectiveness of the spokesperson really relates directly to his or her believability and as the belief among most advertisers is that a man has automatic credibility this has further enhanced the perceived suitability of male voice-overs (Courtney and Whipple 1983). However, the belief that the authority figure in advertisements should be male due to the perceived greater believability and greater authority of the male voice-over has not been supported in the literature although research into the effectiveness of male versus female voice-overs is extremely limited.

In an attempt to test the validity of the view that male voice-overs were more credible and therefore more effective than female voice-overs, Miller and McReynolds (1973) conducted a study to establish whether receivers did consider a male communicator to be more competent than a female and if they responded more favourably to a male than a female announcer where all other factors, including source and message, were held constant. The findings of this study show

that the perceived competence and effectiveness of male and female announcers do not vary significantly for male receivers but that female receivers perceive the male communicator to be more effective than the female. Gitter and Coburn (1981) on the other hand, when measuring the perceived trustworthiness of the announcer found that female respondents were more trusting of both male and female announcers than were males but that overall female announcers were significantly more trusted than males. Stone (1973) examined the perceived believability of male versus female news readers and found that only twenty percent of respondents felt they would be more likely to believe a news item because it was reported by a male rather than a female but when questioned further, this twenty percent agreed that the reason they found the male more credible was probably due more to habit than any inherent differences between male and female announcers. Stone predicted that as female news readers became more prevalent, preferences for males would become less common thus implying that any preference for male announcers over female is more as a result of learned behaviour and a reluctance to change from the norm than any fundamental difference between the two.

It would appear that there is now a need to examine the perceived appropriateness of a male versus a female spokesperson as there is no conclusive evidence to support the belief that a male is more appropriate than a female. This study, will as one of its objectives set out to establish whether a male or female voice-over is deemed more appropriate in promoting a jointly consumed product such as beer and whether the sex of respondents correlates with their response to perceived most appropriate spokesperson.

2.6 THE PRODUCT

The objective that the study would attempt to establish how best to target a traditionally male dominant product at the female market implies that a 'traditionally male dominant product' must be chosen for the purposes of the research. A traditionally male dominant product has been defined by Bellizzi and Milner (1991, p.72) as one which is 'heavily male gender dependent' and one for which 'efforts

are made to show a particular gender [males in this case] as the typical user of the product'. Beer has been proved to be such a product in several studies where the gender image of products was assessed (Allison et al, 1979; Iyer and Debevec, 1986; Worth, Smith and Mackie, 1992). This, combined with the increasing numbers of females consuming beer, the lack of beer products targeted at women and the fashion statement characteristics of the product ensure that the product was ideally suited to the requirements of the study.

2.6.1 The Beer Market

Beer in it's various forms is by far the most popular alcoholic drink in Ireland today. Of the £1.8 billion spent in Ireland on alcohol in 1992 roughly two thirds was spent on beer. This represented an increase in the sector in value terms for the fourth consecutive year and a 2% increase in 1992 over 1991 (Checkout, June 1993).

The beer market can be divided into three broad categories: Stout, Lager and Ale which have market shares of 50%, 36% and 14% respectively. The market is dominated by the three large stout producing breweries, Guinness, Murphy/Heineken and Beamish and Crawford who have market shares of 78%, 12% and 7% respectively, with all the other players combined having only a minor share of the market (Drinks Industry Statistical Handbook, 1993).

The lager market in Ireland in 1992 was valued at approximately £531 million at retail level. There are over 35 advertised beer brands at the moment and at least 19 of these are lagers (Checkout, June 1993). The growth which lager has experienced over the last number of years is as a result of it's appeal to young people with two thirds of lager being consumed by 18-34 year olds. It is therefore considered to represent the future as drinkers tend to carry preferences established when young through the rest of their lives (Field and Morgan 1985).

Although the stout market is the largest of the three beer sectors, there are only three products in it and very little scope for manoeuvre. The lager market on the other hand is far more competitive and interesting from a marketing perspective. There has been considerable activity in the lager market over the last few years particularly with the introduction of premium bottled beers or "yuppie beers" and the ever growing multitude of products available. As a result, it provides a much greater challenge for marketers than the bigger but less competitive stout market.

A report in the Irish Times in September 1993 characterises the typical lager consumer. He or she is considered to be very selective in his or her choice of drink as it often represents a fashion statement. Lager drinkers are very brand conscious in everything they buy. Their choice of lager signals something about them to their friends and other people in the vicinity. They are out and about a lot, lively and outgoing but can in fact be quite shy and unsure of themselves. They are highly media aware and fluent in the language of cinema and film. Their brand loyalty is very fickle. They select lager based on it's image and what they perceive it to represent (The Irish Times 18/9/93).

2.6.2 Positioning of Lager Products

The positioning of a lager brand is obviously very important because people drinking lager are often making a statement about themselves. Mainstream lagers are much of a muchness on taste and the low temperatures they are served at usually mask any differences which may exist and research has shown that in blind product tests most drinkers can't consistently discriminate between brands (Field and Morgan, 1985; Murphy, 1992). They differentiate on image, so brand images are crucial in determining choice. In a market where products are so simple and similar, advertising created images provide consumers with the only means of differentiating them and thus advertising and brand positioning is particularly important in such a market (Field and Morgan 1985).

The lager market is an exciting one where competition is fierce and consumers are fickle. It is a market where people buy products more because of what they represent than how they taste. People believe the products they chose make a statement about themselves even though this image is completely manipulated by the distributor. However, even with the changing role of women and their increased consumption of the product, no advertising has gendered the product in a feminine way in an attempt to appeal to a larger proportion of the female market. Female role portrayal in lager advertising in Ireland is still decorative with no authority figures or spokespersons being female. Recent research in the United States has found this to be the case there also with the majority of beer advertising portraying it as very much a masculine product designed exclusively for men. Strate (1992) from his study of beer advertising concluded that

Clearly the beer industry relies on stereotypes of the man's man to appeal to a mainstream, predominantly male target audience...the manifest function of beer advertising is to promote a particular brand, but collectively the commercials provide a clear and consistent image of the masculine role; in a sense, they constitute a guide for becoming a man, a rule book for appropriate male behaviour, in short, a manual on masculinity...no other industry's commercials focus so exclusively and so exhaustively on images of the man's man.

Strate, 1992 p. 78

From the argument above it can be clearly seen that beer is undoubtedly a "masculine" or "male dominant" product, the advertising of which is gendered in male way.

2.6.3 The Female Market/Consumer

Traditionally, drinking in Ireland has been considered very much a male privilege and until quite recently it was not socially acceptable for women to be seen drinking in public or to be seen in public drinking establishments (Vintners World, July 1992). Attitudes towards women drinkers at the beginning of the century were harsh. In 1906 WC Sullivan in "Alcoholism - A Chapter in Social Pathology"

talked of the evils of female drinking because it meant that women neglected their duties as wives and mothers (Vintners World, July 1992).

However, since the end of the second world war a gradual acceptance of women in public drinking houses has been occurring (Walsh and Walsh, 1981). The public mood is somewhat more tolerant today with female social drinking not only accepted but encouraged. This change has resulted largely from the changing role of women in society and the more egalitarian attitude which now exists (Vintners World, July 1992). Women are now more independent than ever before. They have their own jobs, their own cars, their own disposable incomes and their own ideas on how they like to spend their leisure time. The wider availability of alcohol in shops and other outlets has also led to an increase in female consumption. Seventy two percent of Irish women were regular consumers of alcohol in 1990, a substantial increase on previous years with only 32% of the female population consuming alcohol on a regular basis in 1968, 48% in 1974 and 69% in 1980 (Vintners World, July 1992).

Now the female consumer is becoming an ever more important market for the drinks companies who must remember that women and men are not necessarily the same. 'Women are more adventurous than men in their drinking habits. They are more willing to try new products, are less loyal to existing products and have a much larger repertoire of drinks than men' (O'Conneide, 1986 p. 2). They are however a relatively new or only recently tapped market and so little has been done to date by the industry in an attempt to target them.

There are only a handful of products on the Irish market today which are designed for women. Ritz is the most obvious and is definitely the market leader. It is a perry produced by Showerings and 99% of it's sales are to women. Other Showerings products include Stag which is a cider, and Verino which is a new wine spritzer. The only other product specifically targeted at this sector is Satzenbrau which is produced by Harp Ireland.

There are no lager products on the Irish market which are targeted either exclusively at women or obviously at both men and women. More and more women are drinking lager and there is now a 50/50 split between male and female lager drinkers but men still account for over two thirds of total lager consumption (Drinks Industry Statistical Handbook, 1993). Although greater numbers of women are now drinking beer, most of today's beer products and beer advertising are still aimed almost exclusively at men. Women are generally portrayed in beer ads as men would see them and not as they themselves would wish to be portrayed. That is, females tend to be portrayed only in decorative and non-user roles while males are portrayed as the main users and authority figures (Vintners World, March 1993).

Mintel have conducted research on the lager market in the UK with the objective of identifying who the users of the product are. They have found that increasingly lager is being purchased by women who assume an important role in the market both as buyers and consumers of the product. They believe an opportunity exists to target women but to date it has not been tapped.

Mintel believes that an opportunity exists to target women as buyers of premium lager. Female purchasers play a key role in the sector, both as buyers and as consumers of the product. Initial creative advertising strategies for premium brands have concentrated on male central figures. If the market's buoyancy is to be maintained there is a need to address the apparent problem of women's low propensity to drink lager brands.

Mintel, Market Intelligence,
January 1993 p. 17

However, although females are recognised as becoming more frequent buyers of the product, penetration of the female market in the UK did not increase between 1990 and 1992. In both years, 63% of women were found never to drink lager. Therefore, although existing female consumers are tending to consume more, new customers are not being encouraged enough and the product is still male dominant. The best way to redress this imbalance which still exists is to include female central figures in advertising and gender the product more to suit the female market (Mintel Market Intelligence, January 1993).

Thus, lager beer is considered a particularly appropriate product for use in this study as not only does it meet the criteria of being a 'traditionally male dominant product' but is also a market where there is a recognised need to identify how to target the modern female consumer.

2.7 SUMMARY

The literature and research discussed above outlines the work done to date in the area of marketing to women and particularly the area of marketing to women through the use of gendered positioning of products in advertising. There is still confusion in the market place, as to how best to target the female market both with existing feminine products and more importantly traditionally male dominant products which are now being consumed by the new generation woman. The objective of this study is to identify a means of targeting such a product at the female market without losing the existing male consumers. Most research to date into marketing to women has concentrated on the area of the portrayal of women in advertising and sex role stereotyping of women in the media.

Further research of the literature has however revealed a dearth of research into gender positioning and repositioning of products with the intention of targeting a new segment of the market. As this is precisely the dilemma faced by many marketers it was felt that some further research was required. The few studies conducted to date into re-positioning of traditionally male dominant products have all used similar methodologies and the author has chosen to follow their lead combining some of the better aspects of the studies which best suit the objectives of the study as outlined in chapter one. A series of hypotheses have been formulated based on the objectives of the studies and the literature reviewed. These are outlined in chapter three and followed by a discussion of the methodology employed to test them.

Chapter Three

Hypothesis Formulation and Research Methodology

3.1 HYPOTHESIS FORMULATION AND MODEL BUILDING

From the review of the literature a number of issues were raised and gaps revealed. A series of research hypotheses were formulated and a model constructed as a result of this. A research methodology was then designed to establish the truth or otherwise of the hypotheses.

3.1.1 Formulating the Hypotheses

The main objective of the study was to identify how best to target a traditionally male dominant product at the female market. The literature revealed that one of the most suitable ways to do this was through gender repositioning of the product (Jaffe and Berger, 1991, 1994; Debevec and Iyer, 1986; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991). It was decided that one product in particular should be chosen as the literature identified the need to develop individual strategies on product by product basis as response to all products is not homogenous. Beer has been identified as a traditionally male dominant product which is increasingly being consumed by females but is not targeted directly at them. It was therefore chosen for the study as the identification of a method of targeting beer at women would be of value to the industry.

The literature on gender positioning identified a number of variables used to create a gendered image for a product but revealed a gap in the research on the power of the voice-over alone to create or alter the gender image of a product. It was therefore decided to test this. Research to date has shown that the voice-over may be a powerful tool in altering the gender image and that there would be a same sex bias with the perceived gender image being the same as the gender of the speaker (Debevec and Iyer, 1986). The first hypothesis was based on this. That is, it was hypothesised that the voice-over had the power to alter the gender image of a traditionally male dominant product.

Again, from the research conducted previously it appeared as though there was a same sex bias between the voice-over and the gender image and most likely users

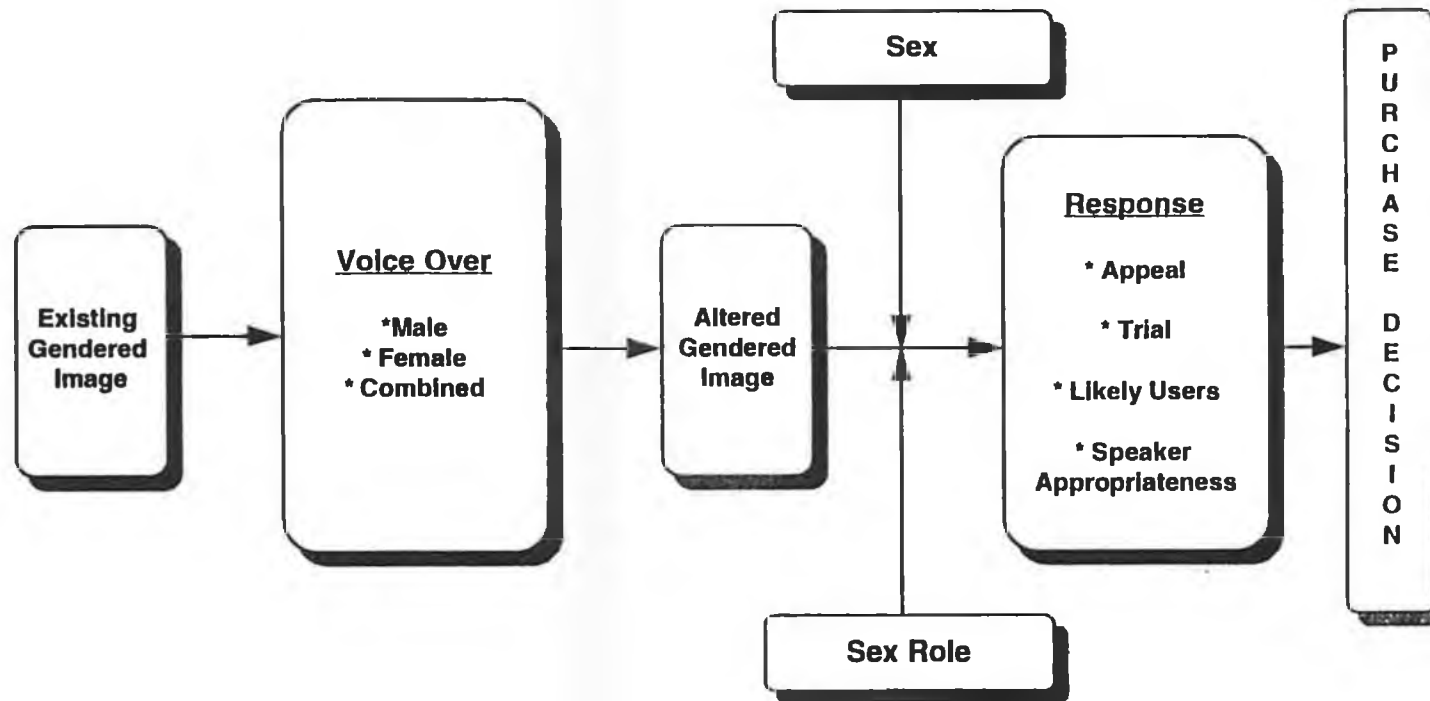
of the product (Debevec and Iyer, 1986; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991). That is, a female voice-over would imbue the product with a feminine image and females would be perceived to be the most likely users of the product. It was thus hypothesised that the perceived most likely users of the product would be the same gender as the spokesperson used in promoting it.

The researcher was particularly interested in identifying the effects of gender repositioning of the product on acceptance and appeal of the product by both the male and female market. From the literature it appeared that male respondents may prefer a masculine image and females a feminine one (Alreck, Settle and Belch, 1982; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991). The effect of imbuing the product with a neutral image was unclear but it was felt that both sexes would be somewhat more responsive to this than opposite sex gendering. The area of sex role orientation was also revealed as one which may have an effect on response but what this effect may be was unclear. It was thus hypothesised that the gender of the spokesperson, the gender of respondents and the sex role orientation of respondents would have a significant effect on the likelihood of trial and appeal of the advertised product.

Due to the predominance of male voice-overs in radio advertising it was felt that the perceived appropriateness of the speaker would be an issue to be examined as learned behaviour may lead respondents to reject a non-male spokesperson. It was also of interest to identify whether perceived appropriateness of the speaker was related to gender and/or sex role orientation of the respondents. From the Debevec and Iyer, 1986 study it appeared as though this may in fact be the case and so it was hypothesised that the gender of the spokesperson, gender of respondents and sex role orientation of respondents would have a significant influence on the perceived appropriateness of the speaker.

These were the main four hypotheses formulated and a model (Figure 3.1) was built based on these hypotheses. There were a number of sub-hypotheses formulated for each of the four main hypotheses as it may have been the case that some of the independent variables influenced response while others did not. Section 3.1.3 outlines the complete listing of research hypotheses.

Figure 3.1: A Model of Voice - Over as a Gender Repositioning Tool In Advertising



3.1.2 The Model

A model was built of the expected relationship between the variables as outline in the four main hypotheses and is outlined in figure 3.1. A product with a traditionally masculine image was chosen and hence the existing gender image was masculine. Through the variation of the voice-over it was hypothesised that this gender image could be altered. The alteration in gender image, together with the sex and/or sex role orientation of respondents would significantly effect response to the advertisement and product which in turn would effect the purchase decision. Through the analysis of the response the objective was to identify the most appropriate gender positioning to use when trying to appeal to the female market and the market as a whole.

3.1.3 Hypotheses

- H1:** That the gender of the spokesperson will alter the gender image of a product and create a same sex gender image for the product being advertised.
- H1a:** That a male spokesperson will create a significantly more masculine image for a product than either a female or combination of spokespersons.
- H1b:** That a female spokesperson will create a significantly more feminine image for a product than either a male or combination of spokespersons.
- H1c:** That a combination of male and female spokespersons will create a significantly more neutral image for a product than either a male or female spokesperson alone.
- H1d:** That a male spokesperson will create a significantly more masculine than either feminine or neutral image for a product.
- H1e:** That a female spokesperson will create a significantly more feminine than either masculine or neutral image for a product.
- H1f:** That a combination of spokespersons will create a significantly more neutral than either masculine or feminine image for a product.

- H1g:** That perceived gender image of a product will not vary significantly as a function of gender of respondents.
- H1h:** That perceived gender image of a product will not vary significantly as a function of sex role orientation of respondents.
- H2:** That the gender of the perceived most likely users of a product will be the same as that of the spokesperson used in promoting the product.
- H2a:** That males will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product promoted by a male spokesperson than either females or a combination of both.
- H2b:** That females will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of product promoted by a female spokesperson than either males or a combination of both.
- H2c:** That a combination of males and females will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product promoted by a combination of spokespersons than either males or females alone.
- H2d:** That males will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product when promoted by a male spokesperson than either a female or combination of spokespersons.
- H2e:** That females will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product when promoted by a female spokesperson than either a male or combination of spokespersons.
- H2f:** That a combination of both males and females will be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product when promoted by a combination of spokespersons than either a male or a female spokesperson.
- H2g:** That the perceived most likely users of a product will vary significantly as a function of gender of respondents.
- H2h:** That the perceived most likely users of a product will vary significantly as a function of sex role orientation of respondents.

- H3:** That gender of spokesperson, gender of respondents and sex role orientation of respondents will have a significant effect on response, in the form of likelihood of product trial and ad appeal, to an ad.
- H3a:** That overall, a product promoted by a male spokesperson will receive most positive response.
- H3b:** That males will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a male spokesperson than either a female or combination of spokespersons.
- H3c:** That females will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a female spokesperson than either a male or combination of spokespersons.
- H3d:** That males will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a male spokesperson than will females.
- H3e:** That females will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a female spokesperson than will males.
- H3f:** That males and females will not respond significantly differently to a product when promoted by a combination of spokespersons.
- H3g:** That females will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a male spokesperson than will males to a product promoted by a female spokesperson.
- H3h:** That masculine respondents will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a male spokesperson than either a female or combination of spokespersons.
- H3i:** That feminine respondents will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a female spokesperson than either a male or combination of spokespersons.
- H3j:** That androgynous and undifferentiated respondents will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a combination of spokespersons than either a male or female spokesperson.

- H4:** That the gender of the spokesperson, gender of the respondents and sex role orientation of respondents will have a significant influence on the perceived appropriateness of the speaker used in promoting a product.
- H4a:** Overall a male spokesperson will be perceived as most appropriate and significantly more so than either a female or combination of both.
- H4b:** That males will consider a male spokesperson significantly more appropriate than either a female or combination of both.
- H4c:** That females will consider a female spokesperson significantly more appropriate than either a male or a combination of both.
- H4d:** That males will consider the male spokesperson significantly more appropriate than will females.
- H4e:** That females will consider the female spokesperson significantly more appropriate than will males.
- H4f:** That males and females will not differ significantly in response to the perceived appropriateness of the combined speakers.
- H4g:** That females will consider a male spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than will males consider a female spokesperson.
- H4h:** That response to perceived appropriateness will vary as a function of sex role orientation.

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

There is no consensus about the best way to understand and describe the social world. The researcher must select from competing and conflicting views that in turn give direction to all aspects of the inquiry. Most social scientists experience at least some tension and conflict between a view that highlights the supremacy of inquiry modelled on physical science, on the one hand, and the necessity to contextualise and individualise the investigation on the other. These two pulls are usually expressed as choices between two paradigms of what are referred to as positivism and naturalism (Gill and Johnson, 1991).

The selection by the researcher of the method(s) to be employed in the particular study is therefore the starting point. Often referred as paradigmatic choice, the individual can choose positivism (quantitative methods) or naturalism (qualitative methods), or a combination of both.

The means of identifying such requirements and preferences can be very wide ranging with a multitude of research techniques being usable to produce reliable and accurate results. From all these possibilities the researcher must identify those which he or she believes to be the most appropriate for the particular study in question and those which will provide the most valuable information possible considering the constraints such as financial and time which exist.

After extensive research and investigation positivism was the chosen method for the study in question as it was deemed to be the most effective method of generating the information required to meet the study objectives.

3.2.1 Scientific Research

The scientific method of research refers to the more quantitative techniques available to the researcher such as surveys and experimentation. It is characterised by two key traits: Validity and Reliability. Researchers agree that the achievement of both validity and reliability are of paramount importance if any research is to be taken seriously. (Boyd, Westfall and Stasch, 1977; Alreck and Settle, 1985; Tull and Hawkins, 1984; Weiers, 1988).

Validity refers to the accuracy of the measurement process while the reliability of measurement refers to it's consistency; that is, the extent to which a measuring device will produce the same results when applied more than once to the same sample under similar conditions (Gill and Johnson 1991). There are three features of the scientific method which allow the achievement of both reliability and validity:

- i) The objectivity of the researcher
- ii) The accuracy of the measurement
- iii) The degree to which the investigation is continuing and exhaustive

However, although Boyd, Westfall and Stasch highlight the importance of adhering to the scientific method they do point out that there are several inherent limitations in applying the concept to marketing research. These limitations include:

- i) The investigator being involved in the use of the results
- ii) Non-precise measuring devices
- iii) Influence of the measurement process on the resulting data
- iv) The great complexity of the subject

Due to these inherent problems in applying the scientific research method to the area of marketing it would appear that no research in this field can meet exactly the requirements of reliability and validity. It seems (although it is not clear) that adhering as closely as possible to the requirements of the scientific method would suffice (Boyd, Westfall and Stasch 1977). This researcher has attempted to conduct as scientific a study as possible and has tried to ensure as high a level of reliability and validity bearing in mind the constraints which exist.

3.2.2 Classification of Research

Boyd, Westfall and Stasch (1977) identify the difficulty of establishing an entirely satisfactory classification for research but state that it is helpful to classify market research on the basis of the fundamental objective of the research. They use two basic classifications, exploratory and conclusive research. An exploratory research study is mainly concerned with discovering the general nature of the problem and the variables that relate to it.

Exploratory research tends to rely on secondary data, convenience or judgement samples, small scale surveys or simple experiments, case analyses and subjective evaluation of the results.

Tull and Hawkins, 1984 p. 32

Conclusive research on the other hand is concerned with identifying conclusively causal relationships between two or more variables. (Boyd, Westfall and Stasch 1977).

Other practitioners have included a third classification which is that of descriptive research. (Churchill, 1989; Tull and Hawkins, 1984). Such research has been defined by Churchill (1989 p:159) as: 'A research design in which the major emphasis is on determining the frequency with which something occurs, or the extent to which two variables co-vary.'

The author believes that these three classifications can not be considered to be mutually exclusive however, as descriptive research can be conducted in either an exploratory or conclusive fashion, depending on the objectives of the particularly study and the sampling and research instruments used.

3.2.3 Choosing a Research Strategy

There is no one best method, but rather the approach most effective for the resolution of a given problem depends on a large number of variables not least, the nature of the problem itself.

Gill and Johnson, 1991 p. 2

Yin (1984) states that different research strategies are appropriate for different research purposes. In fact, each style of social research has a purpose for which it is particularly well suited. Fieldwork's purpose is to observe behaviour in natural settings in order to construct realistic ideas that 'work and fit' when applied and tested in the field (Galser and Strauss, 1967). Survey methods have been developed to chiefly study population distributions of attitudes, opinions and reported behaviour and to form and test hypotheses about relationships between those kinds of variables. The experimental method by contrast is intended specifically to test causal hypotheses. Research design refers to the framework specified by the researcher to collect the required data accurately and economically.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is the specification of procedures for collecting and analysing the data necessary to help identify a problem or to help solve the problem at hand, such that the difference between the cost of obtaining various levels of accuracy and the expected value of the information associated with each level of accuracy is maximised.

Tull and Hawkins, 1984 p.25)

For this particular study, as with most others, the research design was a step by step procedure with each step providing the basis for choosing the following one. The initial phase in the research process involved detailed secondary research in order that the researcher could establish the current level of knowledge in the area and become familiar with other research which has been undertaken in the area in recent years. This phase of the research was also required in order that the research question could be refined and narrowed into a useful and manageable study. The research and measurement techniques commonly used in studies of this nature were also identified and examined in order that the best possible design could be achieved.

Following this detailed secondary research and literature search an experimental design was chosen as it was deemed to be the most appropriate for the problem at hand. Experimentation has been defined by Boyd, Westfall and Stasch (1977 p.74) as being: 'That research process in which one or more variables are manipulated under conditions which permit the collection of data which shows the effects, if any, of such variables in an unconfused fashion.'

Tull and Hawkins (1984 p. 163) define experimentation as: 'Experimentation involves the manipulation of one or more variables by the experimenter in such a way that it's effect on one or more other variables can be measured.'

Churchill (1987) has defined experimental design in a similar fashion stating that 'An experimental design is a research investigation in which the investigator has direct control over at least one independent variable and manipulates at least one dependent variable.'

As one of the key objectives of the research study was to identify the power of a voice-over (if any) to create or change the gendered image of a product the manipulation of an independent variable (the voice-over) was a pre-requisite. Therefore, an experimental design was chosen in order that such information could be obtained through the use of a test of some nature on a chosen population. The results of such a test in their own right are very valuable to marketing practitioners but because voice-over is only one element of advertising strategy the knowledge gleaned from the research about the power of the voice-over to create a gendered image could not result in a change in overall marketing strategy by any of the breweries. The author did not set out to provide such complete and conclusive results and experimentation on a student population was deemed to be both appropriate and adequate to satisfy the stated objectives. Much of the other research completed in the area used a similar methodology. (See Debevec and Iyer, 1986; Alreck, Settle and Belch, 1982; Bellizzi and Milner, 1991 and Worth and Mackie, 1992). Although the research design was that of experimentation it was of an exploratory and descriptive nature.

The experimental design was that of after only without control. Neither a before test or a control group was deemed to be necessary as it would not have added in any significant way to the data obtained through the use of the simpler method.

As the researcher was primarily aiming to identify how best to market to women, through the use of voice-over, particularly with regard to products not traditionally targeted directly at them but ones where female purchase potential is known to exist, a requirement was included whereby the product used in the experiment would be one with a traditionally male dominant image. That is, a product which is perceived by the majority of the population to be targeted at men and consumed by men. As beer is proven to have such an image it was chosen. Beer was also particularly relevant as it is increasingly being consumed by the female market but is not

directly targeted at them. By using such a product, the secondary objective of identifying whether positioning such a product differently to the way it is currently done, through the alteration of voice-over, could increase it's appeal to the female market could be met. Whether such a re-positioning strategy could lead to an overall increase in market share for a beer product or whether existing consumers would respond negatively to the new positioning strategy could also be measured.

A hypothetical brand was used as it was felt that different exposure levels to an existing product would bias the results greatly and would not serve to reflect accurately the ability of the spokesperson's gender to change the gendered image.

3.3.1 The Experiment

The experimental design, as stated above was that of after only without control. As the key variable to be measured was that of voice-over, the medium of radio was chosen as it is the most appropriate for voice-over and the danger of unwittingly including gendered type images in either a print or television ad was eliminated. A mock-up radio ad was developed for a hypothetical lager product and was recorded in the Dublin City University radio production department. Three versions of the ad were recorded with the only difference between the three being the voice-over. One male, one female and the third combining both male and female. Very careful consideration was given to the branding, ad copy and speaker intonation to ensure that neutrality was achieved. The ad copy and final recorded version were pre-tested to ensure that no bias was in place through erroneous use of gendered language or speaker variation.

The three versions of the ad were tested on three matched samples of university undergraduate students. Each of the three groups consisted of eighty respondents, forty of whom were male and forty female. Each group was exposed to only one of the three ads and were asked to respond to a questionnaire which measured their perceptions as to who the product would be purchased by, the perceived image of the product, their likelihood of trial and the overall ad appeal. By ensuring the three groups were matched only one version of the ad needed to be played to each

group and therefore the problems of learning and primacy and recency were avoided. Respondents were not informed as to the purpose of the study as by making them aware of what was being measured would have biased the results due to respondents concentrating more on the voice-over than they would normally do.

The research was conducted in a classroom situation with respondents being exposed to the advertisements in groups. Respondents were asked to complete section one of the questionnaire (demographic details) immediately. They were then required to listen to the radio ad which was played twice in succession and completed sections two and three of the questionnaire (ad specific questions and the Bem sex role inventory) following this. Respondents were asked not to communicate with each other while the experiment was taking place and the researcher was present throughout. The whole experiment took approximately fifteen minutes to complete and was conducted over a two week period with nine separate groups used to make up the total sample.

3.3.2 The Measurement Instrument

The instrument used to measure the reaction of respondents to the radio ads was a questionnaire. The format of the questionnaire was that of structured direct where a pre-specified set of easily understood and obvious questions were asked.

The purpose of the questionnaire was disguised in order to reduce the possibility of respondents answering in the way they thought they should rather than honestly. It was self administered thereby reducing the possibility of interviewer effects. The questionnaire was divided into three distinct sections each measuring different types of data (See Appendix A for a copy of the questionnaire).

Section One - Demographics

Part one consisted of a series of five basic demographic questions which would allow for correlation between response to the ads and age, sex, course, social class, and urban or rural background. This was followed by four questions on respondents drinking behaviour including most often consumed alcoholic beverage and average alcoholic consumption per week.

Section Two - Ad Response

This section consisted of a series of eight questions on the ad itself. These questions were in the form of statements relating to the ad and respondents were requested to answer on five point likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. A likert scale requires a respondent to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement with each of a series of statements related to the attitude object. It is an interval measurement instrument. Likert scales were deemed particularly appropriate due to the number of advantages they offer particularly the ease with which they can be administered and understood by respondents.

The eight questions in the second section were designed to measure trial ratings, perceived product image, expected most likely users of the product, appropriateness of the speaker and overall ad appeal.

Question 1 - Purchase Intent/Trial Ratings

As one of the most effective ways of measuring acceptance of a brand is through trial ratings (Alreck, Settle and Belch, 1982) the objective of determining the effect of brand gendering on acceptance by respondents can best be gauged by examining the ratings of likelihood of purchase for trial. Question one asks respondents to rate their likelihood of trial of the product.

Through the use of statistical analysis the aim was to ascertain if purchase intent differs for each of the three ads, and if so, for which of the three ads is female purchase intent highest and for which is it lowest and for which is male intent highest and lowest. This will show which of the three voice-overs is most acceptable to each sex and how best to target the female market, but only before consideration is made for the potential male backlash which may or may not exist. It also allows the researcher to identify for which of the three ads is combined purchase intent highest and for which is it lowest. From this it can be assessed which of the three ads would lead to the highest overall acceptance in terms of sales by measuring the intensity of both male and female acceptance and backlash for each of the three ads.

Questions 2 & 3 - Perceived Product Image

These two questions aimed to identify which gender image (if any), each of the three ads had. Masculine and feminine image were included in separate questions rather than as two poles in order that respondents would be forced to answer for each. By including each separately, the level of perceived masculine and feminine image could be measured. For example, respondents may not believe that the ad had either a masculine or feminine image but may disagree that it had a feminine image while strongly disagreeing that it had a masculine image thus showing that the image, although neither masculine or feminine is perceived to be slightly more feminine than masculine.

Questions 4 5 & 6 - Most Likely Users

The objective of identifying the perceived target market of each of the three advertisements is measured by these three questions. They also allowed for the establishing of whether a same sex bias exists between perceived gender image and gender of perceived most likely users. Each of the three possible target markets were addressed in separate questions so as to allow for response to each and not force respondents to choose only one of the three possible target markets. For instance, the male voice-over may be considered to appeal mostly to men and that they will be the main purchasers but it may also appeal to women but perhaps to a lesser extent. Therefore each of the three questions is required so the level to which respondents believe each ad will appeal to each market can be measured.

Question 7 - Speaker Appropriateness

Question seven is designed to measure respondent's reaction to and perceived appropriateness of the speaker in promoting a product of this nature. By including this question the researcher aimed to control for those respondents who indicate a low likelihood of trial but say they found the speaker appropriate. For example, a respondent may just not like the sound of the product and therefore will be unlikely to try it but by questioning respondents on their reaction to the speaker the researcher can identify whether the population tested believe that males are more appropriate in promoting a traditionally male dominant product.

Question 8 - Ad Appeal

Question eight asks respondents whether or not they found the ad appealing overall. This will also help to control for any respondents who perhaps don't particularly like the ad but may find it appropriate and will still indicate to whom they believe it is targeted. It will also allow for respondents who may believe a particular version of the ad to be aimed at the opposite sex to themselves and therefore may indicate that they would not try the product but they may still find it appealing. This question, together with question one is particularly important when measuring the likelihood of use of the product and is important when trying to identify which of the three ads is most appealing to and preferred by each of the two sexes and four sex role orientation groups.

This question is also particularly important in measuring response to the ad overall. If respondents do not like the particular ad copy used they may not be likely to try the product for this reason rather than because of the image they perceive it to have.

Section Three - The Bem Sex Role Inventory

Finally, in order to establish the sex role orientation of each of the respondents, a copy of the short version Bem Sex Role Inventory was included as section three. This inventory which was first created in 1974 is considered even today as one of the best measures of sex role orientation and has been used extensively in research studies since it was developed. (Debevec and Iyer, 1986; Golden, Allison and Clee, 1978; Barak and Stern, 1985) The purpose of using this is to identify whether a persons sex role orientation will influence their responsiveness to the gendered ads and whether their preference for the male, female or combined voice-over is related to their sex role orientation even if their biological sex is not.

The BSRI takes the form of a self assessment sheet consisting of a series of words and phrases relating to the personality of the respondent. Respondents are requested to use those characteristics to describe themselves by indicating on a scale from one to seven how true of them each of the characteristics is with one being equal to never or almost never true and seven equal to always or almost always true.

The short version, which is the one used in this study consists of a total of thirty characteristics which must be rated. One third of these are considered masculine characteristics, one third feminine and the final third neutral which serve as filter items. The neutral items are not used in the calculation of sex role orientation. Each respondent is scored based on the answers he/or she supplies and depending on the score are classified as either, masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated.

The main feature of the BSRI which distinguishes it from most masculinity-femininity scales is that it treats femininity and masculinity as two independent dimensions rather than as two ends of a single dimension, therefore enabling a person to indicate whether he or she is high on both dimensions (androgynous), low on both dimensions (undifferentiated), or high on one dimension but low on the other (either masculine or feminine).

Respondents were not told the objective of the BSRI and that it is an attempt to measure sex role orientation as if this were known respondents could relatively easily identify which of the characteristics are considered masculine and which are feminine and would possibly respond more strongly to those which relate to their sex and not to those which relate to the opposite sex if they believe this is what is required of them (See Appendix C for a copy of the BSRI).

3.4 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method consisted of conducting the experiment outlined above on a chosen sample population in a controlled environment. The ad copy was developed and tested before conducting the experiment. The experiment was conducted over a two week period in October/November 1994 on the Dublin City University Campus.

3.4.1 The Sample

Sample Size

The sample consisted of two hundred and forty undergraduate students in three matched groups of eighty. As the study was exploratory and does not attempt to be conclusive a larger sample was not deemed to be necessary as the objective is to identify any possible trends which may exist. In fact, the few other similar studies have been done have mostly used samples of approximately one hundred. (See Debevec and Iyer, 1986; Jaffe and Berger, 1988; Bellizzi and Milner 1991)

Sample Population

The sample population consisted of male and female Dublin City University undergraduate students between the ages of eighteen and twenty five. Although not a completely representative sample it was deemed suitable as the study was exploratory. Also, although restricted by age, occupation, expectations and possible sex role attitudes it was considered particularly relevant as the young population is very attractive to the drinks companies which believe that once they win them over, young people will remain loyal for the rest of their lives. Students are also being used for reasons of convenience. For the purposes of this study they are certainly appropriate as they are key consumers of the product group in question and are targeted very intensely by each of the breweries. This is clearly in evidence by the number of product promotions and cut price offers which are almost a permanent fixture in any college bar in Ireland. Students are also appropriate as they are a thinking, yet relatively fresh and open population. They are receptive to new ideas and are a generation where sex role orientation which goes against the existing strict norms is acceptable. For this reason students not only are a relevant and representative population but are more likely to reveal any errors which exist in popular thinking concerning the effectiveness of voice-overs as they are not as conditioned as an older population to almost total male spokespersons. A further reason for choosing a young population is that they are more open to change and as ninety percent of all voice-overs/spokespersons are male, the older population will be so used to hearing the male voice that they may not be as willing or as open to something new. The market is a captive one and will hold the main purchasing power of the future. There are less likely to be traditional females in this age group

and with equality between women and men being the norm for this generation it is expected that both males and females would be more open to change in the form of a different spokesperson, particularly one which appeals directly to them by sex or the combined where the feeling of equality is stressed.

The use of university students in experimental research is widely accepted as being the norm and they are deemed to be entirely appropriate for experimental research of this nature providing the limitations such a population may impose are recognised (Kidder, 1981; Soley and Reid, 1983; Yavas, 1994).

Although the researcher was particularly interested in the responsiveness of females to the alternative gender positions, the response of males also needed to be measured in order to assess the backlash from men, if any, to the changed positioning of a product which has traditionally been targeted at them. For example, the female population may prefer the female position but the additional sales generated from the increased appeal to the female market may be more than offset by the fall off in sales to the male market if the male population responds particularly negatively to the female positioning. Therefore, the responsiveness of each sex must be measured and rating questions were used in order that the intensity of response could be measured. By doing this, it was hoped that the position which would generate most sales and which is most favourable overall could be established.

3.4.2 The Ad Copy - *KIBIER*

"Distinctive, Intriguing, Attractive, Appealing

You want it, you feel like it, and most of all you know you deserve it.

Brewed with you in mind; KIBIER

From the best of nature's ingredients

KIBIER THE BEER"

The ad copy was designed to be totally neutral and equally appealing to both male and female. The descriptors used in the first line are deliberately neutral and are recognised in the advertising industry as words which both male and female use to

describe the opposite sex. The copy is also completely neutral with regard to usage situation so that no bias can be created by the use of perhaps a sports situation which is considered more masculine or a shopping situation which would be deemed to be more feminine. The speaker is also not obviously placed in a pub as this would also create a pro male bias as some women are still reluctant to go into pubs particularly alone (Vintner's World, March 1993, p. 21). The sexual undertones are deliberate in order to catch the attention of the respondents and to position the product as a young persons drink and one which would be approved of by their peers together with being one which would not be consumed by their parents and be seen as an old, boring type of drink.

The descriptors in the first line also serve to create a brand personality for the product. The spokesperson is speaking of the product and describing it at all times but is initially assumed to speaking of a person. The audience's interest is aroused and the description being given is similar to that they would like to give to themselves or certainly to a member of the opposite sex who interests them. The effect is to create the type of personality for the product which most of the audience consider to be attractive and desirable.

The emphasis on the product being 'brewed for you' enforces a sense of speciality and individualism for the product. The product is designed for people with perceived personalities similar to that of the product. The individual appeal should help to encourage a favourable response as the audience perceives the ad to be targeting them directly and the advertiser is speaking directly to them.

The increasing trend toward healthy living, particularly among young people is catered for by the use of natural appeals and a sense that the product is pure and healthy, being produced from all natural resources. Legally an alcoholic product can not be advertised as one which has health benefits but in a subtle way in this copy such benefits are alluded to and serve as another product appeal. Such appeals are relatively neutral particularly with the younger generation where both male and female consider healthy living to be important.

The final catch phrase of "KIBIER...THE BEER" creates a distinct identity for the product while also positioning it as the only beer to be drinking. The earlier appeal to the individual is now added to by instilling the idea in the audiences mind that drinking this beer is the thing to do and it will get peer approval while drinking any other beer product does not create as positive an image for the drinker.

Beer is considered to be a particularly relevant product to use as it has been traditionally associated with men and has a particularly masculine gender image (Allison et al, 1979; Iyer and Debevec, 1986; Worth, Smith and Mackie, 1992) and even to day, a survey of most beer advertising would reveal a strong masculine emphasis particularly in relation to usage situation and product representatives (Strate, 1992). It is also particularly relevant as it is now being consumed by more and more women but is still not targeted at them therefore the issue of how best to market to women is of great interest to the drinks industry. They are currently continuing with their masculine gendering but not in quite as forceful a manner as before, but is this necessarily the best way to optimise the market size? This study aims to answer this question.

3.4.3 Pilot Testing

The ad copy, the recorded ad and the questionnaire were all pre-tested in order to ensure they succeeded in serving the purpose for which they were intended.

The Ad

The emphasis in the testing of the ad copy and the recorded ads was to ensure that the language was considered to be completely neutral and that the two speakers used were not altering the message and perceived gender image through any means other than their gender. The ad copy and brand name were initially tested through discussions with four advertising professionals who, after recommending some minor changes be made, all agreed that it was completely neutral and did not create any gendered image for the product. Following this the copy was tested on ten students who all agreed that the ad appeared totally neutral and would be equally appropriate for both a male and female audience. Finally, the three recorded

versions were tested on a sample of twelve students all of whom agreed that the voice alone was the only factor which could be creating a gendered image.

The Questionnaire

The purpose of this pilot test was to identify any problems which may have arisen with the questionnaire. It was intended that through the use of a pre-test of the questionnaire, any problems regarding comprehensibility, ease of completion and incorrectly phrased or unnecessary questions would be identified. Also, any obvious gaps and areas which had not been addressed should also come to light.

Kinnear and Taylor (1991) recommend that pilot tests of the survey instrument, which in this case was a questionnaire, should employ the same research medium as that which will be used in the final survey. Therefore, the pilot test was conducted in a class room situation with each respondent completing the questionnaire individually with no direct individual contact with the researcher until after the questionnaire had been completed. Tull and Hawkins (1984) suggest that the pilot test should be conducted by the researcher personally as he or she will be more sensitive to any problems which may arise. As the researcher was going to be personally conducting the final survey anyway this was an obvious requirement for the pilot test of the research instrument.

The pilot test population ($N = 18$) after having completed the questionnaire were asked for their comments on the instrument. No major difficulties were reported in completing the questionnaire and all questions were considered to be clear and easy to respond to. There were no open ended questions on the questionnaire which helped in making it quick and easy to respond to. The average completion time, including exposure to the ad was approximately fifteen minutes.

The completed questionnaires were then analysed by the researcher and some changes were made. The original question two was removed as it appeared to be serving no real purpose. It read: "I would definitely use this product on a regular basis", but as the product was not available for trial respondents felt unable to answer this question and all replied don't know saying they would have to try the product before they could respond accurately.

Question six was also changed from: "I found the speaker very likable" to "I found the speaker appropriate in promoting this product" as respondents who didn't particularly like the voice of the speaker still found him/her effective and appropriate and reported that they would certainly try the product based on the ad. No other areas requiring change were identified from the pilot test.

3.4.4 The Medium

Radio was used as the advertising medium for financial and convenience reasons but more importantly because radio relies completely on the power of the spokesperson to relay the message. There are no visuals with radio and therefore a product cannot be gender positioned this way which is a very commonly used means of doing so. By using radio there can be no mistaken gendered image portrayed in the way it can in both print and television advertising. The advertiser normally uses visuals to create a certain image without having to overtly state what is intended but there can also be mistakes made in the same way with the target audience misinterpreting the message the visuals are trying to relay.

Other studies which have been done in the area of gender positioning have also used radio or radio copy. Bellizzi and Milner (1991) used radio commercials played on the telephone to respondents to test the ability of brand name and voice-over to create a gendered image for a product which was opposite to that which was accepted as the norm. Debevec and Iyer (1986) also used radio ads which were played to a group of 104 college students with the objective of identifying the ability of the spokesperson to create a gendered image for the product and the extent to which an individual's sex and gender orientation affect his or her responses to gendered advertising portrayals. Alreck, Settle and Belch (1982) used ad copy which was presented to respondents in print form as the copy for radio ads. The ads were not recorded as the brand name and language was being measured for ability to genderise a product therefore a vocal recording was not required.

The ever increasing popularity of radio and growing listenership numbers is a further reason for using radio as it will be particularly relevant for the growing

number of radio advertisers. Average radio listening time per day in Ireland is now almost five hours with 89% of all adults listening to some radio every week day (IMJ March 1994). Radio is listened to by a very large percentage of women every day with most women listening for at least three hours. As the female market is at the centre of this study radio is a particularly appropriate medium. The money being spent on radio advertising in Ireland is also growing significantly with a ten fold growth in expenditure on beer and cider radio advertising in Ireland being recorded between 1990 and 1991 (Drinks Industry Group Statistical Handbook 1993).

3.5 The ANALYSIS

The completed questionnaires were all numerically coded by the researcher in order that they could be easily analysed by computer. The statistical package used was SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for windows. A number of statistical tests were run on the raw data so that the objectives of the study could be met. Those most often used included the generation of simple frequency tables, independent sample t-tests, cross-tabulations, correlations, chi-squared tests and analyses of variance. The majority of the statistical analysis was completed through the use of Analysis of Variance. Separate ANOVA's were run for each of the eight dependent variables (the ad specific questions) with the three independent variables of ad, sex and sex role orientation as the grouping variables. One way, two way and three way ANOVA's were run in each case in order to identify both the main effects and interaction effects between the three independent variables. Post hoc tests were also conducted on each of the relevant groupings using the Tukey Honestly Significant Test for variance. Chapter four outlines the findings from these statistical analyses.

Chapter Four

Detailed Data Analysis and Findings

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The objectives of this study, as outlined in chapter one, required that there be at least three independent variables. The first independent variable was the ad or voice-over, as one of the key objectives of the study was to identify the power of the voice-over, if any, to create or alter the gender image of a product. Sex of respondents was the second independent variable as the response of each sex to each of the three possible voice-overs was necessary in order to identify which received the most positive response from both males and females. From this, the most appropriate positioning strategies could be ascertained. Finally, the sex role orientation of respondents was measured in order to ascertain how accurate a predictor of response to the ads it would be. The three independent variables of the ad itself, which related directly to the gender of the voice-over as this was the only difference between the three ads, the sex of respondents and the sex role orientation of respondents were all to be measured in order to assess their influence, if any, on response to the eight ad specific dependent variables. The most appropriate method of measuring the effect of these three variables on the eight dependent variables was through an analysis of variance and so eight three way ANOVAS were conducted analysing the effects of each of the three independent variables and their interaction effects on each of the eight dependent variables.

Prior to conducting this detailed data analysis however, some more general exploratory analysis was completed. The main objectives of this initial analysis were:

- * To ensure each of the three samples were equally matched
- * Identify any relationships which may exist between the demographic details of respondents and response to the ad specific questions
- * Report the main descriptive statistics such as frequencies of response and mean response scores

Appendix B reports these results which indicate that each of the three sub-samples were equally matched and the demographic profiles of respondents did not significantly effect response to the ad specific statements.

The main data analysis consisted of analysis of variance, chi-square analysis and selected t-tests where necessary. The ANOVA tables for each of the eight dependent variables are reported which indicate which of the three independent variables, ad, sex and sex role, if any, accounted for variance in response between the three ads. The ANOVA tables also outline the interaction effects between the three independent variables as one-way, two-way and three-way ANOVA's were conducted.

The findings are reported in four sections based on the four main hypotheses as outlined in chapter three, section 3.1.3. In each case, the ANOVA is examined to identify the F scores and the significance of them both for the main effects and two way and three way interaction effects. Post hoc tests which statistically tested for individual variances in the means between selected variables were conducted to identify precisely what the relationships were between the variables. In cases where the ANOVA's were not reporting significant F scores post hocs were conducted anyway in order to identify any significant differences which may have existed but were not powerful enough to result in an overall significant figure.

Each of the four hypotheses is examined individually with overall response to the relevant dependent variables examined initially, followed by a breakdown in response by gender and finally by sex role orientation. A summary of the findings for each main hypotheses which identifies whether or not each of the sub-hypotheses has been accepted or rejected precedes the detailed data analysis for each of the main hypotheses.

Ad One refers to the male voice-over, ad two the female voice-over and ad three the combined voice-over. Mean scores range from one to five with one being strongly agree and five strongly disagree.

4.2 HYPOTHESIS ONE

That the gender of the spokesperson in an advertisement can alter the gender image of a product and create a same gender image for the product being advertised.

Part One - Summary of Findings

In summary, it can be said that hypothesis one has been largely but not completely proven to be correct.

- * Product advertised by a male spokesperson has a significantly more masculine image than a product promoted by either a female or combination therefore accept H1a.
- * Product advertised by the male spokesperson was also found to have a significantly more masculine than feminine image and so H1d can be accepted.

However, as beer is a traditionally male dominant product this does not prove anything with regard to the power of the voice-over to create or alter a gendered image. The product would be expected to have a masculine image anyway. However, when promoted by the female spokesperson the perceived gender image of the product changed.

- * When promoted by a female the product was perceived to have a significantly more feminine image than either of the other two products and so H1b can be accepted.
- * Product promoted by a female spokesperson was also found to have a significantly more feminine than masculine image, therefore H1e can be accepted.

The combination of a male and female voice-over was expected to create a more neutral image for the product and this was also found to be the case.

- * The product promoted by the combined voice-overs was not found to have a significantly more masculine than feminine image or a significantly more feminine than masculine image and thus can be deemed to have had a significantly more neutral than either masculine or feminine image. Therefore, accept H1c.
- * The product promoted by a combination of spokespersons was not perceived to have a significantly more masculine or feminine image than either of the other two products thus can be assumed to have a neutral image. Therefore accept H1f.

When response by sex was examined there was very little difference between male and female response. Both sexes perceived:

- * Ad one to have a significantly more masculine than feminine image.
- * Ad two to have a significantly more feminine than masculine image.
- * Ad three to have an equally masculine and feminine image.
- * The product in ad one to have a significantly more masculine image than either of the other two products.

In the case of feminine image there was however some discrepancy between male and female response.

- * Males perceived the products in ads two and three to have a significantly more feminine image than that in ad one but perceived no significant difference in the feminine image of ads two and three.
- * Females perceived the product in ad two to have a significantly more feminine image than either of the other two with no significant difference in level of perceived feminine image between ads one and three.

Therefore, it would appear that males perceived the power of the voice-over to alter the gendered image to be slightly different than did females. There is agreement

that each voice-over creates a same sex gender image for the product overall but males, rather than perceiving the female voice-over to create a significantly more feminine image than either of the other two, perceived the male spokesperson to create a significantly less feminine image than either of the other two.

H1g must be rejected as gender of respondents did have some effect on perceived gender image of the product but it should be remembered that this was only marginal and did not effect the overall perceived gender image.

There was some discrepancy in response to perceived gender image by sex role orientation.

- * All groups perceived the product in ad one to have a significantly more masculine image than either of the other two.
- * Feminine and Undifferentiated respondents, as was the case with female respondents perceived the product in ad two to have a significantly more feminine image than either of the other two.
- * Masculine and Androgynous respondents, like male respondents perceived the product in ad one to have a significantly less feminine image than either of the other two.
- * All groups perceived the product in ad one to have a significantly more masculine than feminine image.
- * All groups perceived the product in ad two to have a more feminine than masculine image but only undifferentiated respondents perceived this difference to be significant.
- * None perceived there to be any significant difference in the perceived masculinity and femininity of the product in ad three, thus all perceived it to have a neutral image.

Therefore, some variance in response occurred as a result of respondent's sex role orientation and so H1h cannot be accepted.

The voice-over has most definitely altered the gender image of the product advertised and so is a useful tool which should be considered by marketers when aiming to influence in a more subtle way than normal, a products gendered image.

Part Two - Detailed Data Analysis

The hypothesis that the gender of the voice-over would create a same gender image for the advertised product was strongly supported. The main effects F ratio for ad which can be read from the ANOVA table 4.2.1 gives a value of 25.638, $p < .000$. A chi-square test resulted in a chi square value of 55.1709, $p < .000$ when the three ads were compared on response to the statement that the product had a masculine image. There was also strong support when response to the statement that the product had a feminine image was tested with an main effects F ratio for ad of 8.327, $p < .000$ (Table 4.2.2) and a chi-square value of 33.0859 $p < .006$, thus showing that there was a highly significant difference in response to each of the three ads. However, this does not reveal precisely where the difference was and what it was, that is, which voice-over created which image for the ads. By examining the mean scores for response for each of the perceived gender statements and the results of the post hoc tests it can be ascertained exactly what differences existed.

It was also hypothesised that the other two independent variables, sex and sex role would have no significant influence on perceived gender image. From the main effects ANOVA it would appear as though this were the case with sex resulting in a main effects F value of .368, $p < .545$ and sex role an F value of .604, $p < .613$ in the case of masculine image. However, the interaction effects of ad by sex and ad by sex role resulted in somewhat more significant F values (Table 4.2.1) and so individual post hoc tests were conducted to identify any significant variances which may have occurred. In the case of feminine image, similar results occurred with the main effects F score for sex being .199, $p < .656$ and 1.296, $p < .277$ for sex role. It would thus seem on first appearances as though the hypothesis was correct but in order to be sure individual post hocs were conducted.

Table 4.2.1

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

MASCULINE IMAGE

by AD Ad Exposed To
SEX Sex
SEXROLE Sex Role Orientation

UNIQUE sums of squares
All effects entered simultaneously

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	51.214	6	8.536	8.946	.000
AD	48.927	2	24.463	25.638	.000
SEX	.351	1	.351	.368	.545
SEXROLE	1.728	3	.576	.604	.613
2 - Way Interactions	17.042	11	1.549	1.624	.094
AD x SEX	3.056	2	1.528	1.601	.204
AD x SEXROLE	9.687	6	1.615	1.692	.124
SEX x SEXROLE	2.921	3	.974	1.021	.384
3 - Way Interactions	3.943	6	.657	.689	.659
AD x SEX x SEXROLE	3.943	6	.657	.689	.659
Explained	89.062	23	3.872	4.058	.000
Residual	206.100	216	.954		
Total	295.163	239	1.235		

240 cases processed.
0 cases (0%) missing.

Table 4.2.2

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

FEMININE IMAGE

by AD Ad Exposed To
 SEX Sex
 SEXROLE Sex Role Orientation

UNIQUE sums of squares
 All effects entered simultaneously

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	22.376	6	3.729	3.780	.001
AD	16.431	2	8.215	8.327	.000
SEX	.196	1	.196	.199	.656
SEXROLE	3.836	3	1.279	1.296	.277
2 - Way Interactions	13.399	11	1.218	1.235	.265
AD x SEX	.307	2	.153	.155	.856
AD x SEXROLE	8.650	6	1.442	1.461	.193
SEX x SEXROLE	4.217	3	1.406	1.425	.236
3 - Way Interactions	2.585	6	.431	.437	.854
AD x SEX x SEXROLE	2.585	6	.431	.437	.854
Explained	45.636	23	1.984	2.001	.005
Residual	213.097	216	.987		
Total	258.733	239	1.083		

240 cases processed.
 0 cases (0%) missing.

Table 4.2.3 Mean Response to Perceived Gender Statements
Overall and by Sex

	Masculine Image			Feminine Image		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Both</i>
AD ONE	2.52	2.18	2.35	3.73	3.65	3.69
AD TWO	3.52	3.47	3.50	2.93	2.80	2.86
AD THREE	3.23	3.60	3.41	3.18	3.43	3.30

4.2.1 Response Overall

Masculine Image

Between Ads

Table 4.2.4 Variance in Perceived Masculine Image Between Ads
Overall and by Sex

Masculine Image			
	<i>Respondents Overall</i>	<i>Male Respondents</i>	<i>Female Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	*** F = 55.450	*** F = 20.964	*** F = 34.886
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 47.111	*** F = 10.568	*** F = 42.270
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = .339	ns F = 1.763	ns F = .354

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Table 4.2.4 goes further along than the overall ANOVA or Chi Square scores in identifying where the differences in perceived gender image lay by showing which ads differed significantly from which and by examining the mean scores in table 4.2.3 for each of the ads it can be seen in which direction this difference went. Ad one differed significantly from both ads two (F .01, 2, 237, = 55.45) and three (F .01, 2, 237 = 47.111) with respect to perceived masculine image and the means in table 4.2.3 show that the product in ad one was perceived as having a significantly more masculine image than those in ads two and three with the greatest difference being noted between ads one and two although in both cases the difference was highly significant.

Feminine Image

Between Ads

**Table 4.2.5 Variance in Perceived Feminine Image Between Ads
Overall and by Sex**

	Feminine Image		
	<i>Respondents Overall</i>	<i>Male Respondents</i>	<i>Female Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	*** F = 28.004	*** F = 12.980	*** F = 17.241
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 6.183	*** F = 6.136	ns F = .981
Ad Two v Ad Three	*** F = 7.869	ns F = 1.267	*** F = 8.050

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

With regard to perceived feminine image, table 4.2.5 shows that overall ad two was perceived to differ significantly from both ads one ($F .01, 2, 237 = 28.004$) and three ($F .01, 2, 237 = 7.869$) and ad one was also perceived to differ significantly from ad three ($F .01, 2, 237 = 6.183$). The F ratios show the strength of the perceived differences with ad one being perceived to differ from ad two far more than did ad three and both one and three differing more from ad two than did ad one from ad three. The mean scores for the three ads show the direction of the differences with lower scores indicating stronger agreement with the statement (Table 4.2.3). Ad two was perceived to have a significantly more feminine image than either ad one or ad three and ad three was also seen to have a significantly more feminine image than did ad one.

Perceived Gender Image of Each Ad - Overall

Although ad one was perceived to have a significantly more masculine image than ad two or three, and ad two was perceived to be significantly more feminine than ad one or three, this does not prove that the perceived overall gender image of each was masculine and feminine respectively. In order to test the perceived gender image of each ad overall three t-tests were conducted comparing the perceived level of masculinity and femininity of the products in each of the three ads, the results of which are outlined in table 4.2.6. These showed the product in ad one to be

perceived as having an image which was significantly more masculine than feminine, t -value 7.64, $p < .000$, the product in ad two to have a significantly more feminine than masculine image, t -value -2.92, $p < .005$, and the product in ad three to have an image which did not differ significantly on masculinity or femininity, t -value -.66, $p < .509$. It can therefore be said that the product in ad three was perceived as being neutral while that in ad one was masculine and ad two feminine.

Table 4.2.6 Perceived Gender Image of Each Ad - Overall

AD ONE

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.6875
Masculine Image	2.3500

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
1.3375	80	1.567	.175	7.64	79	.000

AD TWO

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	2.8625
Masculine Image	3.5000

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.6375	80	1.950	.218	-2.92	79	.005

AD THREE

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.3000
Masculine Image	3.4125

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.1125	80	1.518	.170	-.66	79	.509

4.2.2 Response by Sex

In order to check for the effect of gender on response, the data was analysed by sex. This would reveal any variation which may have occurred between male and female response to the perceived gender image statements.

Masculine Image

Between Ads

Both male and female respondents perceived there to be a significant difference in the masculine image of the three ads (Table 4.2.4). For both of the two sexes ad one was perceived as being significantly different than either ad two (Male - $F_{.01, 2, 237} = 20.964$) (Female - $F_{.01, 2, 237} = 34.886$) or ad three (Male - $F_{.01, 2, 237} = 10.568$) (Female - $F_{.01, 2, 237} = 42.270$) and again, the mean scores in table 4.2.3, show that both males and females perceived the product in ad one to have a significantly more masculine image than those in either ad two or three. Of particular interest here is the fact that female respondents perceived the difference between ad one and the other two to be far greater than did the males and in fact, females perceived that the product in ad two had a marginally more masculine image than that in ad three. However, both sexes did perceive the differences between the product in ad one and the other two to be highly statistically significant and so in this instance sex was not found to account for any significant variance in response.

Within Ads

**Table 4.2.7 Male versus Female Response Within Ads to
Perceived Masculine Image**

Masculine Image	
Ad	Difference Between Male and Female Response
Ad One	ns $F = 2.423$
Ad Two	ns $F = .052$
Ad Three	* $F = 2.87$

* $p < .1$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$; ns - not significant

Table 4.2.7 outlines the differences between male and female response on perceived masculine image within each of the three ads. Male and female respondents did not differ significantly in their perception of the masculine image of the products advertised in either ad one or ad two. Within ad three however, males perceived the product advertised to have a significantly more masculine image than did females ($F .1, 2, 237 = 2.87$). This may be as a result of each sex perceiving a neutral position to veer toward their own sex. That is, males may perceive a neutral position to be more masculine while females may perceive it to be more feminine.

Feminine Image

Between Ads

Male and female respondents differed somewhat in their perception of the feminine image of each of the three products. Males perceived ad one to differ significantly from both ads two ($F .01, 2, 237 = 12.98$) and three ($F .01, 2, 237 = 6.136$) but perceived no significant difference between ads two and three (Table 4.2.5). Again, by looking at the mean scores in table 4.2.3, where the lower the score the more positive the response, it can be seen that males perceived the product in ad two to have a significantly more feminine image than that in ad one, but although ad two was also considered to have a more feminine image than ad three this difference was not found to be significant at a p value of 0.1 or less ($F = 1.267$). In other words, male respondents felt the female voice-over did not create a significantly greater feminine image for the product than did the combined voice-over but that it did create a significantly more feminine image for the product than did the male voice-over.

Female respondents on the other hand while also perceiving there to be a difference between the feminine image of the product in ad one versus that in ad two ($F .01, 2, 237 = 17.241$) did not perceive there to be any significant difference between ads one and three ($F = .981$). They did however perceive there to be a significant difference between ads two and three ($F .01, 2, 237 = 8.05$) (Table 4.2.5). The mean scores indicate the direction of the differences (Table 4.2.3). Ad two, the female voice-over, was perceived as having a significantly more feminine image

than either ad one, the male voice-over, or ad three, the combined voice-overs. There was no significant difference perceived by female respondents with regard to the feminine image or not of ad one versus ad three.

Within Ads

Table 4.2.8 Male versus Female Response Within Ads to Perceived Feminine Image

Feminine Image	
Ad	Difference Between Male and Female Response
Ad One	ns F = .1298
Ad Two	ns F = .3427
Ad Three	ns F = 1.267

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

With regard to the perceived feminine image of the products advertised, table 4.2.8 shows the F scores for male versus female response within each of the three ads with no significant differences being noted within any of the three ads.

However, although the response of the two sexes did not differ significantly, in the case of ad three, it had been thought that perhaps females may perceive it to be more feminine than males, in the same way that males perceived this product to have a significantly more masculine image than did females. This was not found to be the case with the male respondents perceiving the product in ad three to have a somewhat more feminine image than did the female respondents.

Overall Perceived Gender Image of Each Ad by Sex

In order to identify the overall perceived gender image of each of the three ads by each of the two sexes a series of t-tests were conducted to identify whether each of the two sexes perceived a significant difference in the gender image of the three ads. Three tests were conducted for each of the two sexes comparing the perceived masculinity versus femininity of each of the three ads. Tables 4.2.9 - 4.2.11 outline

the results which show that in the case of ad one, both male and female respondents perceived the product to have a significantly more masculine than feminine image with t values of 4.39, $p < .000$ and t 6.68, $p < .000$ respectively. In the case of ad two both male and female respondents perceived the product to have a significantly more feminine than masculine image but although both perceived the difference to be statistically significant, females perceived a somewhat greater difference than did males (Table 4.2.10). Neither males or females perceived there to be a significant difference in the perceived masculine or feminine image of the product in ad three thus implying they perceived it to have a neutral image (4.2.11).

**Table 4.2.9 Male and Female Perceived Gender Image
of Ad One Overall**

Male Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.7250
Masculine Image	2.5250

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
1.2000	40	1.728	.273	4.39	39	.000

Female Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.6500
Masculine Image	2.1750

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
1.4750	40	1.396	.221	6.68	39	.000

**Table 4.2.10 Male and Female Perceived Gender Image
of Ad Two Overall**

Male Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	2.9250
Masculine Image	3.5250

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.6000	40	2.061	.326	-1.84	39	.073

Female Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	2.8000
Masculine Image	3.4750

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.6750	40	1.859	.294	-2.30	39	.027

**Table 4.2.11 Male and Female Perceived Gender Image
of Ad Three Overall**

Male Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.1750
Masculine Image	3.2250

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.0500	40	1.552	.245	-0.20	39	.840

Female Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.4250
Masculine Image	3.6000

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.1750	40	1.500	.237	-0.74	39	.465

4.2.3 Response by Sex Role Orientation

Although it appears from the ANOVA tables that sex role orientation did not account for any significant variance in response to the perceived gender of each product, individual post hocs were conducted in order to identify any significant individual variation which may have occurred in response between the groups.

**Table 4.2.12 Mean Response to Perceived Gender Statements
by Sex Role Orientation Grouping**

	Masculine Image				Feminine Image			
	<i>Masc</i>	<i>Fem</i>	<i>And</i>	<i>Und</i>	<i>Masc</i>	<i>Fem</i>	<i>And</i>	<i>Und</i>
Ad One	2.44	2.22	2.65	2.18	3.50	3.78	3.59	3.82
Ad Two	3.39	3.59	3.11	3.90	2.87	2.88	3.11	2.62
Ad Three	3.13	3.56	3.40	3.59	3.04	3.48	2.93	3.71

Masculine Image

Between Ads

The overall main effects ANOVA for sex role indicates that we fail to reject the null hypothesis thus implying that there is not enough evidence to show that sex role orientation had a significant effect on perceived masculine image of the products. The main effects ANOVA for sex role resulted in an F value of .604, $p < .613$ while a two way ANOVA for ad by sex role resulted in an F value of 1.692, $p < .124$ (Table 4.2.1). It would therefore appear that sex role orientation alone had no significant effect on perceived masculine image of the product but the interaction of ad by sex role had far more of an effect. This however is mainly due to the fact that the main effects ANOVA for ad resulted in a p value significant at $p < .000$. The table below, table 4.2.13 outlines that ad one was perceived by each of the four sex role orientation groups to have a significantly different masculine image than either of the other two ads and the mean scores in table 4.2.12 indicate that this is due to ad one being perceived as having a significantly more masculine image than either of the other two ads.

**Table 4.2.13 Variance in Perceived Masculine Image Between Ads
By Sex Role Orientation**

	<i>Masculine Respondents</i>	<i>Feminine Respondents</i>	<i>Androgynous Respondents</i>	<i>Undifferentiated Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	*** F = 9.560	*** F = 19.230	* F = 1.99	*** F = 33.352
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 5.043	*** F = 22.557	*** F = 4.699	*** F = 19.980
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = .810	ns F = .009	ns F = .739	ns F = 1.277

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

All respondents felt that the product in ad one had a significantly more masculine image than those in either ad two or ad three thus proving that ad and not sex role was the key influencer of response.

Within Ads

There were some significant differences noted in response between the four sex role orientation groups within each of the three ads. In the case of ad one, androgynous respondents perceived the product to have a significantly less masculine image than did the undifferentiated ($F .05, 6, 233 = 2.222$) or feminine respondents ($F .10, 6, 233 = 1.894$). Within ad two, androgynous perceived the product to have a significantly more masculine image than did either masculine ($F .01, 6, 233 = 6.716$) or feminine respondents ($F .05, 6, 233 = 2.167$). Although the androgynous group found ad one to have a significantly less masculine image and ad two to have a significantly more feminine image than the other groups, they still perceived ad one to have a significantly more masculine image than either ad two or ad three. Within ad three, masculine respondents perceived the product to have a significantly more masculine image than did either the feminine ($F .05, 6, 233 = 2.322$) or undifferentiated ($F .05, 6, 233 = 2.168$) respondents.

Although these variances in response occurred between the groups within the ads the implications of such variances are small. The marketer when designing a positioning strategy is unlikely to alter it based on these findings as they are somewhat erratic and did not effect the overall perceived gender image.

Feminine Image

Between Ads

In the case of feminine image the main effects ANOVA for sex role also indicates that the null hypothesis has failed to be rejected with an F value of 1.296, $p < .277$. Here again a two way ANOVA of ad by sex role orientation resulted in a stronger connection but still not strong enough to reject the null hypothesis $F = 1.461$, $p < .193$. This increased F value was again due to the fact that the main effects ANOVA for ad resulted in an F value significant at $p < .000$ (Table 4.2.2). Therefore here again, as in the case of masculine image the ad and hence the voice-over was a much stronger predictor of perceived image than was sex role orientation.

**Table 4.2.14 Variance in Perceived Feminine Image Between Ads
By Sex Role Orientation**

	<i>Masculine Respondents</i>	<i>Feminine Respondents</i>	<i>Androgynous Respondents</i>	<i>Undifferentiated Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	*** F = 4.062	*** F = 8.028	*** F = 2.094	*** F = 15.686
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 2.166	ns F = 1.092	*** F = 3.518	ns F = .117
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = .337	*** F = 3.692	ns F = .275	*** F = 11.315

* $p < .1$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$; ns - not significant

Unlike the perceived masculine image of the three ads there was some discrepancy between the four sex role orientation groups when questioned on the perceived feminine image of each of the three ads. Masculine and androgynous respondents perceived ad one to differ significantly from both ads two and three while feminine and undifferentiated respondents perceived ad two to differ significantly from both ads one and three (Table 4.2.14). The mean scores in table 4.2.12 indicate the reason for these differences with the masculine and androgynous respondents perceiving the product in ad one to have a significantly less feminine image than those in ads two and three while the feminine and undifferentiated respondents perceived the product in ad two to have a significantly more feminine image than either of the other two.

Therefore, the masculine and androgynous groups perceived that the female voice-over did not create a necessarily feminine image for the product as they saw no significant difference between ad two and ad three but that the male voice-over created an image which they perceived to be significantly less feminine than either the female or combined. The feminine and undifferentiated groups on the other hand perceived the female voice-over to create a significantly more feminine image for the product than either the male or combined voice-overs.

Within Ads

There were also some differences noted between the four groups within the ads. Within ad one there were no significant differences in the mean scores with each of the four groups perceiving the product to have a relatively equal feminine image. Within ad two the only significant difference noted was between the androgynous and undifferentiated groups with the undifferentiated perceiving the product to have a significantly more feminine image than the androgynous ($F .05, 6, 233 = 2.428$). Within ad three there were more marked differences with the masculine and androgynous groups perceiving the product to have a significantly more feminine image than did either the feminine or undifferentiated groups. The post hoc tests resulted in F values for variance between the groups in response to ad three as follows:

Masculine v Feminine	- $F .05, 6, 233 = 2.349$
Masculine v Undifferentiated	- $F .01, 6, 233 = 4.449$
Androgynous v Feminine	- $F .01, 6, 233 = 2.873$
Androgynous v Undifferentiated	- $F .01, 6, 233 = 4.914$

The fact that there was such discrepancy in response only to ad three would indicate confusion as to the gender image of the product in this ad with half the sample perceiving it to be significantly more feminine than the other half thus implying that the product did indeed have a neutral image.

In short, it appears as though overall, sex role orientation had very little effect on the perceived masculine or feminine image of the products other than the fact that

there appears to be two groupings emerging, that of masculine and androgynous with the feminine and undifferentiated groups combining to form an alternative group. These two groups differed significantly from each other both in response between ads and within ad three. Between the ads, the masculine and androgynous respondents perceived ads two and three not to differ significantly with regard to feminine image and as would be expected, within ad three they considered the product to have a significantly more feminine image than did the other two groups. Therefore, it would appear that the feminine and undifferentiated respondents found the female voice-over to create a significantly more feminine image than either the male or combined while the masculine and androgynous groups found no significant difference in the feminine image created by the female or the combined voice-overs. Of interest here is the fact that male respondents answered similarly to the masculine and androgynous groups while the feminine and undifferentiated response was similar to that of the female group.

Perceived Gender Image of Each Ad by Sex Role Orientation Group

With regard to the overall perceived gender image of each of the three products, each of the four groups perceived the product in ad one to have a significantly more masculine than feminine image. Within ad two however, the androgynous group perceived the product to have an equally masculine and feminine image and in fact perceived the product in ad three to have a marginally more feminine image and a marginally less masculine image than the product in ad two (See means in table 4.2.12). While all other groups perceived the product to have a more feminine than masculine image the difference was only found to be significant in the case of the undifferentiated group ($t = -3.39$, $p < .003$). None of the four sex role orientation groups perceived the product in ad three to differ significantly in the case of gender image and thus the product can be deemed to have been considered neutral by all groups. Tables 4.2.15 to 4.2.17 outline the results of t tests conducted to ascertain the overall perceived image of each of the three products. Response to the perceived gender image of the product did vary somewhat due to sex role orientation and this should be considered when developing a gender positioning strategy. Although not hugely significant the variation should not be ignored.

**Table 4.2.15 Overall Perceived Gender Image of Ad One
by Sex Role Orientation**

Masculine Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.5000
Masculine Image	2.4444

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
1.0556	18	1.731	.408	2.59	17	.019

Feminine Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.7826
Masculine Image	2.2174

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
1.5652	23	1.562	.326	4.81	22	.000

Androgynous Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.5882
Masculine Image	2.6471

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
.9412	17	1.676	.406	2.32	16	.034

Undifferentiated Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.8182
Masculine Image	2.1818

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
1.6364	22	1.329	.283	5.78	21	.000

**Table 4.2.16 Overall Perceived Gender Image of Ad Two
by Sex Role Orientation**

Masculine Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	2.8696
Masculine Image	3.3913

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
-.5217	23	2.391	.498	-1.05	22	.307

Feminine Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	2.8824
Masculine Image	3.5882

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
-.7059	17	1.724	.418	-1.69	16	.111

Androgynous Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.1053
Masculine Image	3.1053

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
.0000	19	1.667	.382	.00	18	1.000

Undifferentiated Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	2.6190
Masculine Image	3.9048

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
-1.2857	21	1.736	.379	-3.39	20	.003

**Table 4.2.17 Overall Perceived Gender Image of Ad Three
by Sex Role Orientation**

Masculine Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.0435
Masculine Image	3.1304

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
-.0870	23	1.474	.307	-.28	22	.780

Feminine Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.4800
Masculine Image	3.5600

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
-.0800	25	1.579	.316	-.25	24	.802

Androgynous Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	2.9333
Masculine Image	3.4000

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
-.4667	15	1.727	.446	-1.05	14	.313

Undifferentiated Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Feminine Image	3.7059
Masculine Image	3.5882

<u>Mean Diff</u>	<u>No. of Cases</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE of Mean</u>	<u>t-value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2 tail sig</u>
.1176	17	1.364	.331	.36	16	.727

5.2 HYPOTHESIS TWO

That the Gender of the Perceived Most Likely Users of a Product
Will Equal that of the Spokesperson Used in Promoting It

Section One - Summary of Findings

In summary it can be said that Hypothesis 2 has been partly found to be correct. On an overall basis each of the three products were perceived to be purchased mostly by the same gender group as that of the speaker but these differences were not always significant.

- * Males were perceived to be significantly more likely than either females or a combination of both to be the main purchasers of the product in ad one thus H2a can be accepted.
- * Males were also found to be significantly more likely to be the main purchasers of the product in ad one than those in either ad two or ad three, therefore H2d can be accepted.

These findings correlate directly with those for the perceived gender image of the product. The product in ad one was perceived to have a significantly more masculine than feminine or neutral image and a significantly more masculine image than either of the other two products. Similarly the product in to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by males than either females instance perceived gender image and perceived most likely users are directly linked and there is a same sex bias.

- * Females were perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main purchasers of the product in ad two than males but while being perceived to be more likely to be the main purchasers than the combined group this difference was not significant and so H2b must be rejected.

- * Females were also perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main purchasers of the product in ads two and three than that in ad one. They were not however seen to be significantly more likely to be the main purchasers of the product in ad two than that in ad three therefore H2e must be rejected.

These findings do not totally correlate with those for perceived gender image. The product in ad two was seen to have a significantly more feminine image than either masculine or neutral or than either of the other two products. However, this greater feminine image, while correlating with a perception that the product was more likely to be purchased by females than males and more likely to be purchased mostly by females than the product in ad one, did not lead to a perception that the product was significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than equally by both or than the product in ad three.

- * The combined group were perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main purchasers of the product in ad three than males but while more likely than females to be the main purchasers, the difference was not significant therefore H2c must be rejected.
- * The combined group were not perceived to be more likely to be the main purchasers of any of the products above another and therefore H2f must be rejected.

These findings were somewhat surprising and do not correlate at all with the perceived gender image. The product in ad three was perceived to have a significantly more neutral image than either masculine or feminine or than either of the other two products. This gender image did not however correlate with the perceived most likely users as the combined group were perceived to be equally likely to be the main users of each of the three products.

Response to the perceived most likely users had been expected to vary somewhat as a function of the gender of respondents but this was not in fact found to be the case with male and female response not differing significantly from each other. Therefore, H2g must be rejected. Males and females both perceived that:

- * Product in ad one was significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by males than those in ads two and three or than either females or both males and females.
- * Product in ad one was significantly less likely to be purchased mostly by females than either the product in ad two or ad three or than by males.
- * Product three was no more likely to be purchased mostly by both males and females equally than either of the other two products, but was significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by the combined group than by males.

Unlike the case with sex, response did vary somewhat by sex role orientation but only in the case of the female voice-over. Therefore accept H2h as some variation in response between the groups did occur.

- * All groups thought the product in ad one would be purchased mostly by males, which correlates directly with their response to perceived gender image.
- * All groups perceived that each of the three products were equally likely to be purchased equally by both males and females.
- * Masculine and androgynous respondents perceived that the products in ads two and three were significantly more likely than that in ad one to be purchased mostly by females while feminine and undifferentiated perceived that the product in ad two was significantly more likely than either of the other two to be purchased mostly by females.

This response correlates directly with the response to perceived gender image by each of the sex role orientation groups. The fact that there is discrepancy in response to the female voice-over is important. The sex role orientation groups are

bunching in a manner which correlated with response by sex in the case of gender image but does not in this instance. This is due to the fact that response to most likely users did not vary as a function of sex.

There definitely appears to be a relationship between perceived gender image and perceived most likely users. Sex of respondents did not account for any significant variation in response but sex role did. However, the variation which occurred due to sex role is not of great importance and in this instance the author feels that sex role is not much better a predictor of response than sex.

Section Two - Detailed Data Analysis

The hypothesis that the gender of the spokesperson would equal that of the perceived most likely users of the product was strongly supported in the case of the male voice-over and the female voice-over but in the case of ad three, the combined voice-over, there was no significant difference in the likelihood of this product being purchased equally by both male and female than the product in either ad one or ad two.

The overall main effects ANOVA for each of the three dependent variables by ad show that in the case of the male and female voice-overs the ad had a significant effect on response to who the most likely purchasers would be. In the case of the dependent variable, 'Purchased mostly by males' the main effects ANOVA produced an F value of 15.019 with $p < .000$ (Table 4.3.1) and a chi-squared test resulted in a value of 41.818, $p < .00000$. The variable 'Purchased mostly by females' by ad resulted in an F value of 13.197, $p < .000$ (Table 4.3.2) and a chi-square value of 37.818, $p < .00001$.

Therefore, in both these cases, the ad had a significant influence on whether the products were perceived as being purchased mostly by males or females however, which of the ads had which effect, and whether there was a same gender relationship or not is unknown at this point. In the case of 'Purchased equally by

both,' however, the ad, and hence the spokesperson was found to have no significant influence on response with an F value of .250, $p < .779$ (Table 4.3.3) and a chi-square value of 11.331, $p < .184$.

The other two independent variables, sex and sex role orientation were not found to account for any significant variation in the perception of the most likely users. The main effects ANOVA for sex and sex role resulted in F values of .000, $p < .983$ and .628, $p < .598$ respectively, in the case of 'purchased mostly by males', (Table 4.3.1) .154, $p < .695$ and .200, $p < .897$ in the case of 'purchased mostly by females' (Table 4.3.2) and 1.005, $p < .317$ and .775, $p < .509$ in the case of 'purchased equally by both' (Table 4.3.3).

By comparing response to each of the ads for each of the three dependent variables it will be possible to see what relationships exist between the gender of the voice-over and perceived most likely users of the product as the ANOVA's indicate that ad, and hence voice-over had a significant influence on who the perceived most likely users of each product would be.

Post hoc tests were run to establish precisely what this relationship between voice-over and perceived most likely users was. They were also conducted on response between the sexes and sex role orientation in order to identify any variation in response which may have occurred but was not strong enough to lead to a significant overall F value.

Table 4.3.1

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

PURCHASED MOSTLY BY MALES

by AD Ad Exposed To
SEX Sex
SEXROLE Sex Role Orientation

UNIQUE sums of squares
All effects entered simultaneously

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	31.276	6	5.213	5.302	.000
AD	29.533	2	14.767	15.019	.000
SEX	.000	1	.000	.000	.983
SEXROLE	1.853	3	.618	.628	.598
2 - Way Interactions	9.004	11	.819	.833	.608
AD x SEX	1.463	2	.732	.744	.476
AD x SEXROLE	4.371	6	.728	.741	.617
SEX x SEXROLE	2.382	3	.794	.808	.491
3 - Way Interactions	8.590	6	1.432	1.456	.195
AD x SEX x SEXROLE	8.590	6	1.432	1.456	.195
Explained	58.631	23	2.549	2.593	.000
Residual	212.365	216	.983		
Total	270.996	239	1.134		

240 cases processed.
0 cases (0%) missing.

Table 4.3.2

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

PURCHASED MOSTLY BY FEMALES

by AD Ad Exposed To
SEX Sex
SEXROLE Sex Role Orientation

UNIQUE sums of squares
All effects entered simultaneously

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	23.745	6	3.958	4.769	.000
AD	21.903	2	10.951	13.197	.000
SEX	.128	1	.128	.154	.695
SEXROLE	.497	3	.166	.200	.897
2 - Way Interactions	11.628	11	1.057	1.274	.241
AD x SEX	.535	2	.267	.322	.725
AD x SEXROLE	6.930	6	1.155	1.392	.219
SEX x SEXROLE	4.759	3	1.586	1.912	.129
3 - Way Interactions	1.089	6	.182	.219	.971
AD x SEX x SEXROLE	1.089	6	.182	.219	.971
Explained	41.360	23	1.798	2.167	.002
Residual	179.240	216	.830		
Total	220.600	239	.923		

240 cases processed.
0 cases (0%) missing.

Table 4.3.3

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

PURCHASED EQUALLY BY BOTH MALE AND FEMALE

by AD Ad Exposed To
 SEX Sex
 SEXROLE Sex Role Orientation

UNIQUE sums of squares
 All effects entered simultaneously

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	4.965	6	.828	.788	.580
AD	.524	2	.262	.250	.779
SEX	1.056	1	1.056	1.005	.317
SEXROLE	2.443	3	.814	.775	.509
2 - Way Interactions	4.159	11	.378	.360	.970
AD x SEX	1.854	2	.927	.883	.415
AD x SEXROLE	1.730	6	.288	.274	.948
SEX x SEXROLE	.950	3	.317	.302	.824
3 - Way Interactions	4.386	6	.731	.696	.653
AD x SEX x SEXROLE	4.386	6	.731	.696	.653
Explained	15.016	23	.653	.622	.911
Residual	226.880	216	1.050		
Total	241.896	239	1.012		

240 cases processed.
 0 cases (0%) missing.

Table 4.3.4 Mean Response to Perceived Most Likely Users
Overall and by Sex

	Purchased Mostly by Males			Purchased Mostly by Females			Purchased Equally by Both		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Both</i>
AD ONE	2.48	2.80	2.64	3.85	3.75	3.80	3.25	2.85	3.05
AD TWO	3.52	3.53	3.53	2.90	3.08	2.99	3.38	3.18	3.28
AD THREE	3.50	3.40	3.45	3.20	3.33	3.26	3.10	3.13	3.11

4.3.1 Response Overall

Purchased Mostly by Males

Between Ads

Table 4.3.5 Variance in Perception of Products Being Purchased
Mostly by Males - Overall and by Sex

	Mostly Males		
	<i>Respondents Overall</i>	<i>Male Respondents</i>	<i>Female Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	*** F = 32.330	*** F = 22.000	*** F = 10.840
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 26.779	*** F = 21.167	*** F = 7.324
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 0.261	ns F = 0.008	ns F = 0.344

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Table 4.3.5 outlines overall response to the three possible most likely purchasers of the product for each of the three ads compared to each other. Response to ad one differed significantly to that for either ad two ($F_{.01, 2, 237} = 32.33$) or three ($F_{.01, 2, 237} = 26.779$) and by examining the mean scores in table 4.3.4, where the lower the score the more positive the response, it can be seen that the product in ad one was perceived as being significantly more likely to be purchased by males than either of the other two. There was no significant difference in response between ad two and ad three ($F_{2, 237} = 0.261$).

Purchased Mostly by Females

Between Ads

**Table 4.3.6 Variance in Perception of Product Being Purchased
Mostly by Females - Overall and by Sex**

	Mostly Females		
	<i>Respondents Overall</i>	<i>Male Respondents</i>	<i>Female Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	*** F = 31.619	*** F = 22.180	*** F = 10.816
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 14.053	*** F = 10.181	*** F = 4.250
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 1.034	ns F = 2.168	ns F = 1.506

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Response to whether the products in each of the three ads were likely to be purchased mostly by females differed in the same way as did response to whether they would be purchased mostly by males. That is, response to ad one differed significantly from that to ads two ($F .01, 2, 237 = 31.619$) and three ($F .01, 2, 237 = 14.053$). However, surprisingly, response to ad two did not differ significantly from that to ad three (Table 4.3.6). By examining the mean scores, it can be seen that the products in ads two and three were seen to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than that in ad one (Table 4.3.4). It would therefore appear that the male voice-over created a stronger masculine image for the product than did the female voice-over create a feminine image. However, while there was no significant difference perceived in the likelihood of the products in ad two and three being likely to be purchased mostly by females the size of the F values indicate that although the product in ad three was perceived as significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than that in ad one, the difference between ads one and two was greater than that between ads one and three.

This response correlates somewhat with the perceived gender image of the products but not completely. Ad two was perceived as having a significantly more feminine image than ad one and similarly the product in ad two was perceived to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than that in ad one.

However, the product in ad two was also seen to have a significantly more feminine image than that in ad three, but was not perceived to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than the product in ad three. The product in ad three was however perceived to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than that in ad one. Therefore, it would appear that the female voice-over rather than necessarily prompting perceived female purchase seems to discourage perceived male purchase.

Purchased Equally by Both

Between Ads

Table 4.3.7 Variance in Perception of Products Being Purchased Equally by Both Males and Females - Overall and by Sex

	Equally by Both		
	<i>Respondents Overall</i>	<i>Male Respondents</i>	<i>Female Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	ns F = 2.015	ns F = 0.322	ns F = 2.074
Ad One v Ad Three	ns F = 0.137	ns F = 0.428	ns F = 1.493
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 1.100	ns F = 1.493	ns F = 0.047

ns - not significant

There were no significant differences in response overall between the three ads, with the products advertised in each of the three ads being seen to be equally likely to be purchased equally by both male and female. The F values in table 4.3.7 were found to not be significant at 90% confidence or greater therefore it can be said that all three were perceived to be equally likely to be purchased by both males and females.

However, the perceived gender image of the three ads differed with ad one perceived to have a masculine image, ad two a feminine image and ad three a neutral image (See section 4.2). As ad three was found to have a neutral gender image it was expected that the product in this ad would be found to be significantly

more likely to be purchased equally by both males and females than either of the other two products. This however was not the case and section 4.3.4 will outline the overall perceived most likely users for each of the three ads.

4.3.2 Response by Sex

Purchased Mostly by Males

Between Ads

Both male and female respondents perceived there to be significant differences in the likelihood of the products in each of the three ads being purchased mostly by males. In each case, response to ad one differed significantly from that to either ad two (Male - $F .01, 2, 237 = 22.00$; Female - $F .01, 2, 237 = 10.84$) or ad three (Male - $F .01, 2, 237 = 21.167$; Female - $F .01, 2, 237 = 7.324$) with males perceiving there to be greater differences than did the females but in both cases the F value was significant at the 99% level (Table 4.3.5). The means show the direction of the differences in response with both male and female respondents perceiving the product in ad one to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by males than those in either ad two or three (Table 4.3.4).

Within Ads

Table 4.3.8 Male versus Female Response to Males Being the Perceived Most Likely Users

Mostly Males	
Ad	Difference Between Male and Female Response
Ad One	ns $F = 2.083$
Ad Two	ns $F = .002$
Ad Three	ns $F = .203$

ns - not significant

Table 4.3.8 shows there were no significant differences in male and female response within any of the three ads to whether males would be the most likely users of the product. Thus, the two sexes did not differ in response. The main effects ANOVA for sex indicates that overall, sex of respondents was not a significant factor in determining response to the likelihood of the product being purchased mostly by males (Table 4.3.1) and the post hoc tests did not reveal any variation at all. This response by both males and females correlates directly with their perception of the gender image of the product.

Purchased Mostly by Females

Between Ads

Both male and female respondents perceived there to be a significant difference between ad one and both ads two (Male - $F .01, 2, 237 = 22.180$; Female - $F .01, 2, 237 = 10.816$) and three (Male - $F .01, 2, 237 = 10.181$; Female - $F .05, 2, 237 = 4.250$). Both sexes perceived the products in ads two and three to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than that in ad one. Male respondents felt this more strongly than did female as can be seen by the F values and while female respondents did feel the product in ad three was significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than that in ad one this difference was significant at a value of $p < .05$ while for the male respondents it was significant at $p < .01$ (Table 4.3.6).

Within Ads

Table 4.3.9 Male versus Female Response to Females Being the Perceived Most Likely Users

Mostly Females	
Ad	Difference Between Male and Female Response
Ad One	ns $F = .241$
Ad Two	ns $F = .781$
Ad Three	ns $F = .407$

ns - not significant

Male and female response did not differ significantly within any of the three ads. Here again, therefore, ad and thus voice-over rather than sex accounted for any variation in response as both sexes responded in a similar manner.

The response while similar to that for the perceived gender image did not correlate directly. Male respondents perceived the product in ad one to have a significantly less feminine image than those in ads two and three and similarly thought the product in ad one was significantly less likely to be purchased mostly by females than either of the other two. Female respondents on the other hand, perceived the product in ad two to have a significantly more feminine image than either of the other two but did not perceive that females were significantly more likely to be the main users of the product in ad two than either of the others but instead responded in the same way as the males.

Purchased Equally by Both

Between Ads

Both male and female respondents perceived there to be no significant difference in the likelihood of the three products being purchased equally by both males and females (Table 4.3.7).

Within Ads

**Table 4.3.10 Male versus Female Response to the Product
Being Purchased Equally by Both Males and Females**

Equally by Both	
Ad	Difference Between Male and Female Response
Ad One	** F = 3.048
Ad Two	ns F = .761
Ad Three	ns F = .017

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Table 4.3.10 shows that response within ad one differed significantly by sex and by examining the means in table 4.3.4 it can be seen that this difference resulted from female respondents perceiving the product to be significantly more likely to be purchased equally by both males and females than did males ($F .05, 1, 79 = 3.0476$). There were no significant differences by sex within ads two and three.

This is the only case where response varied as a result of sex and as both males and females thought that the product in ad one was as likely to be purchased equally by both males and females as the other two this variation in response within ad one is not of great importance. It can be taken therefore that sex of respondents was not a significant influencer of response to the perceived most likely users of the product and so hypothesis 2g cannot be accepted.

4.3.3 Response by Sex Role Orientation

The ANOVA tables indicate that, as was the case with sex, sex role orientation had no significant influence on response to any of the three most likely user categories. With regard to purchased mostly by males the ANOVA table 4.3.1 indicates that sexrole alone resulted in an F value of .628, $p < .598$. Table 4.3.2 shows that sexrole had even less of an influence on response to whether the product would be purchased mostly by females with an F value of .200, $p < .897$. Response was similar in the case of purchased equally by both with an F value of .775, $p < .509$ (Table 4.3.3). Sex was found not to be a significant influencer of response to any of the three dependent variables in question either and so it can be said that neither sex or sexrole orientation alone were useful indicators of response to the perceived most likely users of the product. Two way and three way ANOVAS were also conducted in order to identify how through interaction effects ad sex and sex role might have influenced response but again no significant F values resulted thus implying that the only real determinant of response for perceived most likely users was the ad itself and hence the voice-over (See ANOVA tables 4.3.1 - 4.3.3). Post hoc tests were nevertheless conducted in order to identify any individual variances which may have occurred.

**Table 4.3.11 Mean Response to Perceived Most Likely Users
by Sex Role Orientation**

AD	Purchased Mostly by Males				Purchased Mostly by Females				Purchased Equally by Both			
	Mas	Fem	And	Und	Mas	Fem	And	Und	Mas	Fem	And	Und
One	2.50	2.83	2.59	2.59	3.94	3.61	3.82	3.86	3.22	2.87	3.18	3.00
Two	3.35	3.71	3.21	3.86	3.00	3.00	3.21	2.76	3.35	3.29	3.21	3.24
Three	3.48	3.48	3.53	3.29	3.22	3.44	2.87	3.41	3.26	3.12	3.20	2.82

Purchased Mostly by Males

Between Ads

By examining the means and F scores for response of each of the sex role orientation groups it can be seen that there was little variance between them as the overall ANOVA had predicted. All four groups perceived ad one to differ significantly from each of the other two in the case of males being the perceived most likely users and the mean scores in table 4.3.11 indicate that this variance is due to the fact that the product in ad one was perceived by all sex role orientation groups to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by males than either of the other two products. The only difference between the groups was that undifferentiated respondents also perceived the product in ad three to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by males than that in ad two (Table 4.3.12).

**Table 4.3.12 Variance in Perception of Products Being Purchased
Mostly by Males - By Sex Role Orientation**

	Mostly Males			
	<i>Masculine Respondents</i>	<i>Feminine Respondents</i>	<i>Androgynous Respondents</i>	<i>Undifferentiated Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	*** F = 7.425	*** F = 7.705	*** F = 3.510	*** F = 17.627
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 9.871	*** F = 5.152	*** F = 7.166	*** F = 4.780
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 0.198	ns F = 0.545	ns F = 0.874	*** F = 3.106

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Response to males being the most likely purchasers broken down by sex resulted in the same general trend with the product in ad one being seen by both males and females to be significantly more likely than either of the other two to be purchased mostly by males. Therefore it would appear as though sex role orientation was no better a predictor of response than sex and neither were responsible for any significant variation in response.

Within Ads

There was no significant variation in response between the four sex role orientation groups within either ad one or ad three. Within ad two there was however some variance with the undifferentiated respondents perceiving the product to be significantly less likely to be purchased mostly by males than did either the androgynous ($F .01, 6, 233 = 4.289$) or masculine respondents ($F .01, 6, 233 = 2.906$).

Purchased Mostly by Females

Between Ads

There was somewhat more variance in response to this variable between the sex role orientation groups than was the case for the 'purchased mostly by males' variable but again, neither sex or sex role orientation were found to be significant predictors of any overall variation in response as ANOVA table 4.3.2 indicates. However, some variation did occur and as was the case with perceived gender image, there was grouping in response with the masculine and androgynous groups perceiving there to be no significant difference in the likelihood of the products in ads two and three being purchased mostly by females but perceiving the product in ad one to be significantly less likely to be purchased mostly by females than either of the other two. The feminine and undifferentiated groups on the other hand perceived the product in ad two to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than either of the other two. Undifferentiated respondents also perceived the product in ad three to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than that in ad one (Table 4.3.13).

**Table 4.3.13 Variance in Perception of Products Being Purchased
Mostly by Females - By Sex Role Orientation**

	Mostly Females			
	<i>Masculine Respondents</i>	<i>Feminine Respondents</i>	<i>Androgynous Respondents</i>	<i>Undifferentiated Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	*** F = 10.749	*** F = 4.383	*** F = 4.023	*** F = 15.673
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 6.306	ns F = 0.069	*** F = 8.669	** F = 2.341
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 0.671	** F = 2.361	ns F = 1.168	*** F = 4.785

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

While the sex role orientation groups bunched in the same manner as previously, response did not directly follow that of the two gender groups. Both male and female respondents found the products in ads two and three to be equally likely to be purchased mostly by females but not all the sex role orientation groups did. Feminine and undifferentiated respondents differed from the two gender groups and perceived the product in ad two to be significantly more likely to be purchased mostly by females than either of the other two.

Within Ads

There was no significant difference in response between the four sex role orientation groups within any of the three ads.

In summary it appears that in this case sex role orientation was found to be a somewhat better predictor of response than sex as the two way ANOVAS in table 4.3.3 indicate, with the F value for the ad by sex role interaction (F 1.392, p < .219) being far more significant than that for the ad by sex interaction effect (F .322, p < .725). However, in neither case was the F value statistically significant at a probability of 90% or greater.

It should nevertheless be noted that some variation did occur among the sex role orientation groups. The fact that the feminine and undifferentiated groups perceived

a significant difference in the likelihood of products two and three being purchased equally by females is of interest and should be noted as they obviously found the female voice-over to have a stronger perceived effect than did the other two groups.

The response by the sex role orientation groups correlates directly with their perceptions of the gender image of the products. That is, the masculine and androgynous groups did not perceive any significant difference in level of feminine image of the products in ads two and three and similarly saw no difference in the likelihood of females being the most likely users of these products.

Purchased Equally by Both

Between Ads

The ANOVA table for the dependent variable 'purchased equally by both' (Table 4.3.3) indicates that none of the three independent variables were effective predictors of response nor were any of the two way interaction effects between the three independent variables or indeed the three way interaction. This can be seen from the fact that overall, respondents did not perceive there to be any significant differences between the three ads (See table 4.3.7) thus implying that ad was not an accurate predictor of response. The two gender groups did not differ significantly from each other in response and nor did the four sex role orientation groups with again, no significant differences perceived between the three ads by any of the groups of respondents. All products were seen to be equally likely to be purchased equally by both males and females.

**Table 4.3.14 Variance in Perception of Products Being Purchased
Equally by Both - By Sex Role Orientation**

	Equally by Both			
	<i>Masculine Respondents</i>	<i>Feminine Respondents</i>	<i>Androgynous Respondents</i>	<i>Undifferentiated Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	ns F = 0.163	ns F = 1.642	ns F = 0.007	ns F = 0.589
Ad One v Ad Three	ns F = 0.015	ns F = 0.714	ns F = 0.003	ns F = 0.296
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 0.089	ns F = 0.279	ns F = 0.001	ns F = 1.576

ns - not significant

Therefore, while the combined voice-over did succeed in creating a neutral gender image for the product, the perceived most likely users of this product were not found to be significantly more likely to be the combined group and sex role orientation of respondents did not have any significant influence on response.

Within Ads

There were no significant differences in the response of the four sex role orientation groups within each of the three ads.

Overall Perceived Most Likely Users for Each Ad

T-tests were conducted to identify which of the three groups were perceived to be the most likely users of the product in each of the three ads.

Table 4.3.15 outlines who the perceived most likely users of the product advertised in ad one would be with males being perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main purchasers than either females (t 8.27, $p < .000$) or both males and females equally (t -2.31, $p < .023$). Females were also perceived to be significantly less likely to be the main purchasers of the product than both males and females equally (t 6.39, $p < .000$). Therefore, males were perceived to be the group who would be most likely to purchase the product, followed by both males and females equally and finally females.

Table 4.3.15 Perceived Most Likely Users Within Ads
Male Voice-over

AD ONE

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Mostly Females	3.8000
Mostly Males	2.6375

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
1.1625	80	1.257	.141	8.27	79	.000

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Mostly Females	3.8000
Equally by Both	3.0500

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
.7500	80	1.049	.117	6.39	79	.000

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Mostly Males	2.6375
Equally by Both	3.0500

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.4125	80	1.597	.179	-2.31	79	.023

Within ad two, females were perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main purchasers of the product than males ($t -2.64, p < .010$). Both sexes equally were perceived to be the next most likely main purchasers of the product with males being the least likely, however the combined group did not differ significantly from females only ($t -1.41, p < .164$) or males only ($t 1.54, p < .128$) (Table 4.3.16).

Table 4.3.16 Perceived Most Likely Users Within Ads
Female Voice-over

AD TWO

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Mostly Females	2.9875
Mostly Males	3.5250

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.5375	80	1.821	.204	-2.64	79	.010

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Mostly Females	2.9875
Equally by Both	3.2750

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.2875	80	1.829	.205	-1.41	79	.164

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Mostly Males	3.5250
Equally by Both	3.2750

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
.2500	80	1.454	.163	1.54	79	.128

Table 4.3.17 outlines any differences which existed within ad three. In this case, the combined group were perceived to be the group most likely to purchase the product and were significantly more likely than males to be the main purchasers ($t = 1.91, p < .060$). There were no significant differences between the female group and either the combined ($t = 0.84, p < .404$) or male groups ($t = -1.00, p < .318$).

Table 4.3.17 Perceived Most Likely Users Within Ads
Combined Voice-over

AD THREE

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Mostly Females	3.2625
Mostly Males	3.4500

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
-.1875	80	1.669	.187	-1.00	79	.318

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Mostly Females	3.2625
Equally by Both	3.1125

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
.1500	80	1.600	.179	.84	79	.404

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Mostly Males	3.4500
Equally by Both	3.1125

Mean Diff	No. of Cases	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail sig
.3375	80	1.583	.177	1.91	79	.060

5.4 HYPOTHESIS THREE

That gender of spokesperson, gender of respondent and sex role orientation of respondents will have a significant influence on response to an ad.

Section One - Summary of Findings

The two variables used to measure general response to the ads and products are trial and appeal. The trial variable received a more positive response than did the appeal variable but there was a very strong correlation between the two. That is, the more negative the appeal of the ad the less likely respondents were to try the product.

- * Overall, the product in ad one was significantly more likely to be tried than that in ad three. It was marginally more likely to be tried than that in ad two but not significantly so. Appeal correlated directly with trial overall with the product in ad one being significantly more appealing than that in ad three and marginally more so than the product in ad two. Therefore H3a can be accepted.

Although the most positive response was to the product and ad with the male voice-over, it should be noted that the difference in response to the products in ads one and two was not significant thus implying that either would be appropriate to use.

Response varied somewhat by sex with males and females responding slightly differently.

- * Males did not differ in their likelihood of trial or appeal ratings for any of the three products but responded marginally most favourably to ad one, followed by ad three with the least positive response to ad two. Therefore, H3b must be rejected as the differences were not significant.
- * Males responded more positively than females to the product promoted by a male spokesperson but not significantly so therefore H3d must be rejected.

- * Females responded significantly more positively on both trial and appeal to both the male voice-over and the female voice-over than the combined voice-over. Therefore H3c must be rejected as although response to the female voice-over was more positive than response to either of the other two, the variance was only significant between ads two and three.
- * Females, although responding more positively to the product promoted by the female spokesperson than males, did not do so significantly and so H3e must be rejected.
- * Female response to the product promoted by a male was marginally more positive than male response to the product promoted by a female but not significantly so therefore H3f must be rejected.
- * Females responded significantly less positively, both on trial and appeal to the product promoted by the combined spokespersons than did males therefore H3g must be rejected.

Response by sex did vary somewhat from overall response and therefore sex of respondents must be considered when devising a marketing strategy. Males did not respond significantly differently to any of the three ads but females responded significantly less positively to the combined voice-over than either of the other two. Therefore, either a male or female voice-over should be used.

Although response by sex did not vary greatly with most of the hypotheses of differences in response by sex being rejected the trends which have emerged should be noted and considered. The differences are not statistically significant but indicate that male and female response may vary in a more realistic environment.

The total correlation between trial and appeal should also be noted.

Response to both trial and appeal again correlated directly when the sample was broken down by sex role orientation. Some variation in response was noted between the sex role orientation groups.

- * Masculine respondents did not differ significantly in response to the three ads and so H3h must be rejected. They did respond marginally most positively to ad one, followed by ad two with ad three receiving the least positive response.
- * Feminine respondents responded significantly more positively to the product and ad promoted by the female spokesperson than either of the other two and so H3i can be accepted.
- * The response of androgynous respondents did not vary significantly between the three ads. Undifferentiated respondents responded significantly more positively to ad one than either of the other two. Reject H3j.

Both sex and sex role orientation accounted for some significant variance in response to the ads and products. Both need to be considered when devising a marketing strategy but the author believes that biological rather than psychological gender should be used as the segmentation base. Most of the variance in response was among the female respondents and the feminine respondents. As the majority of feminine respondents are female the biological gender is probably a more appropriate base on which to segment the market.

The trends which were noted in the response of the sexes should be considered when developing a strategy as they indicate a tendency to favour one or other of the possible voice-overs and imply that although not creating many statistically significant differences in response in this study, such differences may exist in the market place and ought to be considered.

Section Two - Detailed Data Analysis

4.4.1 Trial

In order to test this hypothesis and its sub-hypotheses (see chapter three, section 3.1.3) response to the trial and appeal variables were examined as they are intended as measures of general response to an ad and product.

The main effects ANOVA for trial by ad (Table 4.4.1) resulted in an F value of .669, $p < .513$ while a Chi Square test resulted in a value of 5.6019, $p < .6917$ thus implying that the ad exposed to did not have a significant effect on the likelihood of trial ratings for the three products. However, the main effects ANOVA for sex resulted in an F value of 3.174, $p < .076$ thus implying that the sex of respondents did have a significant effect on the trial ratings and that sex rather than ad was a more powerful indicator of likelihood of trial. A two way ANOVA of ad by sex also resulted in a non-significant F value ($F_{2, 237} = 1.194$, $p < .305$) but post hoc tests resulted in some significant differences being revealed. The sex role orientation variable resulted in an F value of 1.387, $p < .248$ thus implying that sex role orientation was not an accurate predictor of likelihood of trial. A two way ANOVA of ad by sex role did however result in a somewhat more significant F value, $F_{1, 558} = 1.558$, $p < .161$ which while not significant overall would indicate that the interaction effect of ad and sex role explained more of the variance in response than either ad or sex role alone (Table 4.4.1).

Table 4.4.1

*** * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * ***

			TRIAL	Try Product Once			
by			AD SEX SEXROLE	Ad Exposed To Sex Sex Role Orientation			
UNIQUE sums of squares All effects entered simultaneously							
			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Source of Variation							
Main Effects			7.196	6	1.199	1.111	.357
AD			1.445	2	.723	.669	.513
SEX			3.427	1	3.427	3.174	.076
SEXROLE			4.493	3	1.498	1.387	.248
2 - Way Interactions			16.119	11	1.465	1.357	.195
AD x SEX			2.579	2	1.289	1.194	.305
AD x SEXROLE			10.097	6	1.683	1.558	.161
SEX x SEXROLE			.471	3	.157	.145	.932
3 - Way Interactions			9.949	6	1.658	1.536	.168
AD x SEX x SEXROLE			9.949	6	1.658	1.536	.168
Explained			32.061	23	1.394	1.291	.176
Residual			233.235	216	1.080		
Total			265.296	239	1.110		

240 cases processed.
0 cases (0%) missing.

Table 4.4.2 **Mean Response to Likelihood of Trial**
Overall and by Sex

	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
AD ONE	3.25	3.40	3.32
AD TWO	3.55	3.33	3.44
AD THREE	3.33	3.83	3.58

4.4.1.1 Response Overall
Between Ads

Table 4.4.3 **Variance in Response to Trial -**
Overall and by Sex

	<i>Respondents Overall</i>	<i>Male Respondents</i>	<i>Female Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	ns F = 0.533	ns F = 1.666	ns F = 0.090
Ad One v Ad Three	* F = 2.504	ns F = 0.118	*** F = 4.629
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 0.726	ns F = 0.896	** F = 3.424

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Overall there was only one significant difference between the ads, with the trial rating for ad one differing significantly from that for ad three ($F_{1, 2, 237} = 2.504$). By examining the mean scores in table 4.4.2 it can be seen that this difference resulted from the fact that the product in ad one was found to be significantly more likely to be tried than the product in ad three by respondents overall. There were no significant differences in the likelihood of trial for the product in ad two versus those in ads one and three. The most positive rating overall was given to the product in ad one as can be seen from the mean scores.

It would therefore appear that on an overall basis, although voice-over has been found to be a very effective tool in altering the gender image of a product, this variation does not have a particularly significant effect on the likelihood of trial of the product. The product promoted by the male voice-over and with a masculine

image, while receiving a slightly more positive response was not found to be significantly more likely to be tried than that promoted by the female spokesperson. The neutral product received the least positive trial rating of the three overall.

4.4.1.2 Response by Sex

The ANOVA table 4.4.1 indicated that sex of the respondent accounted for a significant amount of the variation in response to the trial variable, $F 3.174, p < .076$, and so individual post hoc tests were required to identify precisely what the variance was and where it occurred.

Between Ads

Male respondents perceived there to be no significant differences between the products in the three ads and did not differ significantly in their likelihood of trial between any of the three products (Table 4.4.3). The mean scores for males show however that although the differences were not significant the most favourable response was to the product in ad one, followed by that in ad three with the least favourable response given to the product in ad two (Table 4.4.2).

Female respondents differed somewhat in their likelihood of trial for the three products. The mean scores show that they were most likely to try the product in ad two, followed by that in ad one with the product in ad three being the least likely to be tried. However, although the product in ad two was favoured by females their mean score equalled that of the males for product three. In other words, females were as likely to try the product in ad two as males were to try the product in ad three. The most positive overall score by sex was the male response to the product in ad one.

Table 4.4.3 outlines female response to the three ads. They were significantly less likely to try the product in ad three than those in either ad one ($F .01, 2, 237 = 4.629$) or ad two ($F .05, 2, 237 = 3.424$). These were the only significant variances in likelihood of trial.

Within Ads

Table 4.4.4 Male versus Female Response to Likelihood of Trial
- Within Ads

Trial	
Ad	Difference Between Male and Female Response
Ad One	ns F = 0.416
Ad Two	ns F = 0.896
Ad Three	*** F = 4.629

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Within ads, the only significant difference between male and female response was in the case of likelihood of trial for the product advertised in ad three (F .01, 2, 237 = 4.629) and by examining the means in table 4.4.2 it can be seen that males were significantly more likely to try the product than females. There were no significant differences in likelihood of trial between male and female respondents within ads one and two with both sexes being equally likely/unlikely to try the products.

Therefore, it appears as though the variation of the voice-over would not lead to any significant difference in trial among males while females would be significantly less likely to try a product promoted by a combination of spokespersons. Therefore, the best approach to take when trying to target the market as a whole would be to use either a male or a female spokesperson in order to achieve maximum trial.

4.4.1.3 Response by Sex Role Orientation

Between Ads

**Table 4.4.5 Mean Response to Likelihood of Trial
by Sex Role Orientation**

	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Androgynous</i>	<i>Undifferentiated</i>
AD ONE	3.44	3.39	3.35	3.14
AD TWO	3.61	2.76	3.74	3.52
AD THREE	3.61	3.68	3.27	3.65

The mean scores in table 4.4.5 above indicate the mean response of each of the four sex role orientation groups to likelihood of trial for each of the three products. The ANOVA table 4.4.1 indicated that sex role by ad did not have a significant effect on response which can be seen by examining the mean scores which did not vary greatly. There were however a few significant differences in response between groups and ads as outlined in table 4.4.6 below.

**Table 4.4.6 Variance in Response to Trial
by Sex Role Orientation**

	Trial			
	<i>Masculine Respondents</i>	<i>Feminine Respondents</i>	<i>Androgynous Respondents</i>	<i>Undifferentiated Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	ns F = 0.270	*** F = 3.591	ns F = 1.264	ns F = 1.437
Ad One v Ad Three	ns F = 0.270	ns F = 0.933	ns F = 0.047	** F = 2.310
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 0.000	*** F = 7.932	ns F = 1.715	ns F = 0.147

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Feminine response differed somewhat between the three ads with their likelihood of trial of the product in ad two differing significantly from that for the other two. By examining the mean scores it can be seen that this resulted from the fact that feminine respondents were significantly more likely to try the product in ad two than either of the other two products. The only other difference in response between the

three ads was in the case of undifferentiated respondents who were significantly more likely to try the product in ad one than that in ad three.

Within Ads

There were no significant differences in response between the four groups within either ad one or ad three. Within ad two however feminine respondents were found to be significantly more likely to try the product than any of the other sex role orientation groups as the following F values indicate: Feminine v Masculine - $F_{.01, 6, 233} = 6.538$; Feminine v Androgynous - $F_{.01, 6, 233} = 7.983$; Feminine v Undifferentiated - $F_{.01, 6, 233} = 5.027$.

It would appear that feminine respondents tend to favour a feminine gender image. By far the largest proportion of feminine respondents are female (52 of 65) and similarly a large proportion of females are feminine. This positive response to the female spokesperson by the feminine group, which can almost be equated with females should be considered when choosing a gender position.

4.4.2 Appeal

The appeal variable was the second dependent variable used to measure overall acceptance and responsiveness to each of the ads. A chi-square test on response to appeal, overall by ad, resulted in a value of 6.9103, $p < .5463$ thus implying that ad alone had no significant influence on any variance in response. The ANOVA table 4.4.7 for appeal indicates that none of the three independent variable were found to account significantly for any variance in response to the appeal variable but while not significant, ad and sex were more significant than sex role with F values of 1.783, $p < .171$; 1.883, $p < .171$; and .833, $p < .477$ respectively. However, all two way interactions resulted in significant F values with the ad by sex role interaction being the strongest resulting in an F value of 2.449, $p < .026$. The ad by sex interaction resulted in an F value of 3.509, $p < .032$ and the sex by sex role interaction produced an F value of 2.471, $p < .063$. The three way interaction between ad, sex and sex role was not found to be significant, $F_{.459, p < .838}$.

Table 4.4.7

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

APPEAL			Found the appealing				
by			AD SEX SEXROLE	Ad Exposed To Sex Sex Role Orientation			
UNIQUE sums of squares All effects entered simultaneously							
			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Source of Variation							
Main Effects			4.005	6	.667	1.094	.367
AD			2.176	2	1.088	1.783	.171
SEX			1.149	1	1.149	1.883	.171
SEXROLE			1.525	3	.508	.833	.477
2 - Way Interactions			18.621	11	1.693	2.774	.002
AD x SEX			4.283	2	2.141	3.509	.032
AD x SEXROLE			8.966	6	1.494	2.449	.026
SEX x SEXROLE			4.524	3	1.508	2.471	.063
3 - Way Interactions			1.681	6	.280	.459	.838
AD x SEX x SEXROLE			1.681	6	.280	.459	.838
Explained			24.846	23	1.080	1.770	.019
Residual			131.804	216	.610		
Total			156.650	239	.655		

240 cases processed.
0 cases (0%) missing.

Table 4.4.8 **Mean Response to Appeal**
Overall and by Sex

	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
AD ONE	4.03	4.10	4.06
AD TWO	4.28	4.00	4.14
AD THREE	4.15	4.50	4.32

Table 4.4.8 above outlines the mean response to the appeal variable overall and by sex. The scores indicate that none of the three ads were found to be particularly appealing by respondents with a score of four corresponding to disagree and five being strongly disagree. Nevertheless post-hoc tests were conducted to identify any significant differences in the appeal between ads and within ads.

4.4.2.1 Response Overall

Between Ads

Table 4.3.9 **Variance in Response to Appeal Between Ads**
Overall and by Sex

	<i>Respondents Overall</i>	<i>Male Respondents</i>	<i>Female Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	ns F = 0.419	ns F = 2.049	ns F = 0.328
Ad One v Ad Three	** F = 4.432	ns F = 0.472	*** F = 5.246
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 2.124	ns F = 0.554	*** F = 8.1967

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

There appears to have been a strong correlation between appeal and trial with the products which were most likely to be tried being those promoted in the ads which were found to be most appealing. Overall, there was a significant difference in the level of appeal between ads one and three ($F_{.05, 2, 237} = 4.432$) and as in the case of the trial ratings, the mean scores in table 4.4.8 indicate that this difference was due to ad one being perceived as significantly more appealing than ad three. There were no significant differences between the appeal of ad two versus either ad one or ad three.

Therefore, overall while none of the ads were found to be particularly appealing ad one was found to be the least unappealing, followed by ad two with ad three the least appealing of all. As the difference was only statistically significant between ad one and ad three, it can be concluded that either the male or female voice-over should be used to best appeal to the market as a whole, with the male being perhaps marginally more favoured.

4.4.2.2 Response by Sex

Between Ads

Male respondents did not differ in their response to the three ads with no significant differences being noted in the appeal ratings of each of the three ads (Table 4.4.9). Although the differences were not significant, the mean scores in table 4.4.8 show that ad one was found to be the most appealing followed by ad three with ad two being the least appealing. These results correlate directly with male response to likelihood of trial and indicate that the appeal of the three ads did not differ significantly but that the male voice-over is marginally the most appealing to male respondents and the female marginally the least.

Female response did differ somewhat between the three ads, with ad three being perceived as significantly less appealing than either ad one ($F .01, 2, 237 = 5.246$) or ad two ($F .01, 2, 237 = 8.197$) with the greatest difference being between ad two and ad three (Table 4.4.9). The mean scores again indicate that although the variation was not always significant ad two was found to be the most appealing to women, followed by ad one with ad three being significantly the least appealing of the three. Therefore, in attempting to appeal to the female market the combined voice-over should not be used and either the male or female could be used with the female being marginally more appealing than the male.

Within Ads

**Table 4.4.10 Male versus Female Response to Appeal -
Within Ads**

Appeal	
Ad	Difference Between Male and Female Response
Ad One	ns F = 0.416
Ad Two	ns F = 0.896
Ad Three	** F = 4.016

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Table 4.4.10 above indicates any variation in response between male and female respondents within each of the three ads. There were no significant differences in response between males and females within either ad one or ad two but within ad three response between the sexes differed significantly. The means in table 4.4.8 indicate that this difference resulted from females finding the ad significantly less appealing than did males.

4.4.2.3 Response by Sex Role Orientation

**Table 4.4.11 Mean Response to Appeal by
Sex Role Orientation**

	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Androgynous</i>	<i>Undifferentiated</i>
AD ONE	4.17	4.26	4.06	3.77
AD TWO	4.22	3.71	4.11	4.43
AD THREE	4.43	4.20	4.20	4.47

The mean scores in table 4.4.11 above show that in all cases except the feminine group ad one was found to be the most appealing followed by ad two with ad three being the least appealing. The feminine group however found ad two to be the most appealing followed by ad three with ad one being the least appealing. Post hoc tests

revealed any significant differences which occurred in response between and within the ads.

Between Ads

**Table 4.4.12 Variance in Response to Appeal Between Ads
by Sex Role Orientation**

	Appeal			
	<i>Masculine Respondents</i>	<i>Feminine Respondents</i>	<i>Androgynous Respondents</i>	<i>Undifferentiated Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	ns F = 0.041	*** F = 4.848	ns F = 0.037	*** F = 7.682
Ad One v Ad Three	ns F = 1.119	ns F = 0.071	ns F = 0.256	*** F = 7.704
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 0.832	*** F = 3.982	ns F = 0.111	ns F = 0.025

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Masculine and androgynous respondents perceived there to be no significant difference between the ads and found each to be equally appealing or unappealing. The feminine and undifferentiated groups did however perceive there to be significant differences with the feminine group perceiving ad two to be significantly more appealing than either of the other two and the undifferentiated group perceiving ad one to be significantly more appealing than either of the other two (Table 4.4.12).

Within Ads

Within the ads the variance was similar to that between the ads. The response of undifferentiated respondents to ad one differed significantly from that of all other respondents with the undifferentiated group finding ad one significantly more appealing than either the masculine (F .05, 6, 233 = 2.5974) or feminine (F .01, 6, 233 = 4.4298) groups. Within ad two the feminine respondents found the ad significantly more appealing than either the masculine (F .01, 6, 233 = 4.1682), androgynous (F .05, 6, 233 = 2.3560) or undifferentiated (F .01, 6, 233 = 7.9322) groups. There were no significant differences in response between the sex role orientation groups within ad three.

Therefore, it would appear that sex role orientation was a somewhat significant variable in creating variance in response to appeal and that again, either a male or female voice-over should be used in order to make the product as appealing as possible to all groups.

The female and feminine response is the most interesting to emerge. Females found the product in ad three significantly less appealing than that in ad two and were similarly significantly more likely to try the product in ad two than that in ad three. Therefore, it can be concluded that in order to appeal to the female market either a female or male spokesperson should be used as the difference in response to these two was not significant. However, response of the feminine group varied significantly to the product in ad two with this group finding it significantly more appealing and being significantly more likely to try this product than either of the other two. This should be considered when targeting the female market as it would imply that although the difference in female response to the products in ads one and two did not vary significantly the tendency towards the female voice-over is quite strong and perhaps the most effective way of appealing to this market would be through the use of a female voice-over.

4.5 HYPOTHESIS FOUR

That the perceived appropriateness of a speaker used in promoting a product will vary significantly as a function of the spokespersons gender and gender and sex role orientation of respondents.

Section One - Summary of Findings

The speaker variable was included in order to identify any learned behaviour which may exist as most people are used to being exposed to male spokespersons and may feel others are not as appropriate, particularly in the case of a traditionally male dominant product. Any correlation between perceived speaker appropriateness and trial and appeal would also be of interest.

- * Overall, the male speaker was perceived to be significantly more appropriate than either the female or combination. Thus H4a can be accepted.
- * There was no significant difference overall in the perceived appropriateness of the female and combined speakers but the female was perceived to be marginally more appropriate.

Response varied between the sexes with response being somewhat surprising.

- * Males perceived no significant differences in the appropriateness of the three speakers but they marginally favoured the male voice-over, followed by the female with the combined perceived to be the least appropriate. As these difference were not statistically significant H4b must be rejected.
- * Males did not perceive the male spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than did females therefore H4d is rejected.
- * Females perceived the male spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than the other two therefore H4c must be rejected.

- * Females did not perceive female spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than did males therefore H4e is rejected. In fact, males perceived the female spokesperson to be marginally more appropriate than did females.
- * Males and females did not differ significantly in response to the combined spokesperson therefore accept H4f. However, males did perceive them to be marginally more appropriate than did females
- * Females considered a male spokesperson more appropriate than males considered a female but not to a significant degree therefore H4g is rejected. However, of interest here, and quite unexpected is that males considered the male spokesperson significantly more appropriate than did females consider the female.

The female response is particularly interesting as it may imply that females would prefer a male position even when they are the target audience. However, female response to trial and appeal indicate that the responded equally to ads one and two and significantly less positively to ad three. They were marginally more positive in response to ad two than ad one therefore the perceived female appropriateness of the speaker in ad one must be as a result of learned behaviour and the masculine nature of the product. It was also a surprise that males did not perceive the male speaker to be significantly more appropriate than the other two but this may be a result of the difference in male and female processing strategies as males do not encode as much of advertising as females (Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran, 1991) or alternatively the experimental environment may not reflect the real world situation.

Response varied quite a bit as a function of sex role orientation therefore H4h is accepted, but no particularly useful trends are evidenced.

- * Masculine and Undifferentiated respondents perceived the male speaker to be significantly more appropriate than the combined and the undifferentiated also perceived the male to be significantly more appropriate than the female.

- * Feminine respondents perceived the female spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than the combined and marginally more than the male.
- * Androgynous respondents did not perceive any significant difference in the appropriateness of the three speakers.

The feminine response to the female speaker is quite important as it reflects a trend where the feminine respondents have consistently considered the female ad/product/spokesperson significantly the most appropriate or appealing.

Section Two - Detailed Data Analysis

There was quite strong support for the hypothesis that the appropriateness of the speaker would be a function of the gender of the spokesperson and the gender of the respondents. An overall ANOVA with speaker as the independent variable resulted in overall main effects F ratios of 2.713, $p < .069$ for ad and a ratio of 3.101, $p < .080$ for sex (Table 4.5.1). A chi square analysis also resulted in a significant difference being noted in response to the three ads with a value of 16.7471, $p < .0328$. Thus it would appear that the three possible speakers were not all perceived to be equally appropriate in promoting the product on an overall basis and that the gender of the respondents also had some influence on the perceived appropriateness of each of the three speakers. The sex role variable, unlike the ad and sex variables was not found to be highly significant overall with an F value of 1.900, $p < .131$ however this is still worth examining as it implies that sex role orientation did have quite a strong effect on response. The two way interaction of ad by sex role was found to be highly significant resulting in an F value of 4.067, $p < .001$. The mean scores in table 4.5.2 for each of the sex role orientation groups exposed to each of the three ads indicate that there was some quite large variation among them thus explaining the high F value for the two way ANOVA.

Table 4.5.1

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

			SPEAKER	Found the speaker appropriate in promoting the product			
by			AD SEX SEXROLE	Ad Exposed To Sex Sex Role Orientation			
UNIQUE sums of squares All effects entered simultaneously							
Source of Variation			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects			12.169	6	2.028	2.027	.063
AD			5.428	2	2.714	2.713	.069
SEX			3.102	1	3.102	3.101	.080
SEXROLE			5.701	3	1.900	1.900	.131
2 - Way Interactions			27.244	11	2.477	2.476	.006
AD x SEX			3.125	2	1.563	1.562	.212
AD x SEXROLE			24.412	6	4.069	4.067	.001
SEX x SEXROLE			2.686	3	.895	.895	.445
3 - Way Interactions			10.255	6	1.709	1.708	.120
AD x SEX x SEXROLE			10.255	6	1.709	1.708	.120
Explained			48.158	23	2.094	2.093	.003
Residual			216.092	216	1.000		
Total			264.250	239	1.106		

240 cases processed.
0 cases (0%) missing.

Table 4.5.2 Mean Response to Perceived Speaker Appropriateness
Overall and by Sex

	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
AD ONE	3.38	3.40	3.39
AD TWO	3.55	3.78	3.66
AD THREE	3.70	3.95	3.83

Table 4.5.2 above indicates the mean response to each of the three ads on an overall basis and broken down by sex. As the means indicate, the speaker in ad one, the male spokesperson was considered by both male and female respondents to be the most appropriate in promoting the product but individual post hoc tests were conducted to reveal any significant variances which may exist in response between and within the three ads.

4.5.1 Response Overall

Between Ads

Table 4.5.3 Variance in Response to Perceived Speaker Appropriateness - Overall and by Sex

	<i>Respondents Overall</i>	<i>Male Respondents</i>	<i>Female Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	* F = 2.916	ns F = 0.578	* F = 2.880
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 7.744	ns F = 2.048	*** F = 6.050
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 1.156	ns F = 0.450	ns F = 0.578

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Overall, the perceived appropriateness of the speaker in ad one differed significantly from that in either ad two ($F_{.10, 2, 237} = 2.916$) or ad three ($F_{.01, 2, 237} = 7.744$). The mean scores in table 4.5.2 indicate that the differences resulted from the speaker in ad one, the male voice-over, being seen to be significantly more appropriate than those in either ad two or ad three. There was no significant difference in the perceived appropriateness of the female or the combined voice-

overs, however, the mean scores indicate that the female voice-over was perceived to be marginally more appropriate than the combined (Table 4.5.3).

It can only be assumed that the male speaker is seen as most appropriate because the product is accepted as being a traditionally male dominant product and due to the pre-dominance of male voice-overs in all advertising, respondents would be more used to male voice-overs than either female or both.

4.5.2 Response by Sex

Between Ads

Male respondents perceived there to be no significant differences in the appropriateness of the three speakers (Table 4.5.3). They responded most positively to the speaker in ad one followed by ad two with the combination of speakers being perceived to be the least appropriate for promoting the product but these differences however were not significant at 90% or greater and so were only marginal.

Female respondents on the other hand did perceive there to be some significant differences in the appropriateness of the speakers with the speaker in ad one being seen to differ significantly from those in ads two ($F_{.10, 2, 237} = 2.880$) and three ($F_{.01, 2, 237} = 6.050$). The mean scores in table 4.5.2 indicate that these significant F scores resulted from the fact that female respondents perceived the male speaker to be significantly more appropriate than either the female or a combination in promoting a product of this nature. This was somewhat surprising as it was expected that females would find the female speaker most appropriate. Of particular interest here is that although female respondents found the male spokesperson to be significantly the most appropriate of the three, they responded most favourably to the product promoted by the female spokesperson on both the trial and appeal variables and felt that the product in ad two was likely to be purchased mostly by females. This would imply that due perhaps to learned behaviour, although females find a male spokesperson most appropriate in promoting a product such as beer, they will respond more positively to a female spokesperson.

This may therefore lead to somewhat of a dilemma for marketers in attempting to target the female market but as the trial ratings are directly linked to purchase intent it would probably be most effective to use the female voice-over to gain greatest response from females.

Within Ads

Table 4.5.4 **Male versus Female Response to
Perceived Speaker Appropriateness - Within Ads**

Speaker Appropriateness	
Ad One	ns F = 0.008
Ad Two	ns F = 1.058
Ad Three	ns F = 1.250

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Within the three ads there were no significant differences in male and female response to the perceived appropriateness of each of the voice-overs as table 4.5.4 indicates.

4.5.3 Response by Sex Role Orientation

Table 4.5.5 **Mean Response to Perceived Speaker
Appropriateness - by Sex Role Orientation**

	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Androgynous</i>	<i>Undifferentiated</i>
AD ONE	3.22	3.52	4.00	2.91
AD TWO	3.48	3.18	3.68	4.24
AD THREE	3.83	3.80	3.80	3.88

The mean scores indicate that there was some wide variation both between and within sex role orientation groups as the two way interaction of ad by sex role indicated with a F value of 4.067, p < .001 (Table 4.5.1). The results of the post

hoc ANOVA tests in table 4.5.6 indicate where this variation occurs and the significance of individual variations.

Between Ads

Table 4.5.6 **Variance in Response to Perceived Speaker Appropriateness - by Sex Role Orientation**

	Speaker Appropriateness			
	<i>Masculine Respondents</i>	<i>Feminine Respondents</i>	<i>Androgynous Respondents</i>	<i>Undifferentiated Respondents</i>
Ad One v Ad Two	ns F = 0.683	ns F = 1.130	ns F = 0.092	*** F = 19.000
Ad One v Ad Three	*** F = 3.758	ns F = 0.940	ns F = 0.319	*** F = 9.030
Ad Two v Ad Three	ns F = 1.410	*** F = 3.891	ns F = 0.121	ns F = 1.218

* p < .1; ** p < .05; *** p < .01; ns - not significant

Masculine respondents differed in response to ad one versus ad three, perceiving the speaker in ad one to be significantly more appropriate than the speakers in ad three. Feminine respondents on the other hand found the speaker in ad two to be significantly more appropriate than the speakers in ad three. Therefore, in both these cases either the male or female speaker was found to be more appropriate than the combination of speakers with a same sex to sex role bias emerging. Androgynous respondents did not perceive there to be any significant difference in the appropriateness of the three speakers while the undifferentiated group found the speaker in ad one to be significantly more appropriate than either of the other two. Therefore, between all groups the speakers in ad three were found to be least appropriate and while the feminine and androgynous respondents found the speaker in ad two to be most appropriate, the masculine and undifferentiated considered the speaker in ad one to be most appropriate.

Within Ads

Within ads one and two however, there was some strong variation in the perceived appropriateness of the speakers between the sex role orientation groups. Androgynous respondents perceived the speaker in ad one to be significantly less appropriate than did either the masculine ($F .01, 6, 233 = 5.318$), feminine ($F .05, 6, 233 = 2.252$) or undifferentiated ($F .01, 6, 233 = 11.402$) groups while the undifferentiated group also perceived the speaker to be significantly more appropriate than did the feminine respondents ($F .01, 6, 233 = 4.186$).

Within ad two there was strong variation between the undifferentiated response and all other groups with the undifferentiated group perceiving the speaker to be significantly less appropriate than did the masculine ($F .01, 6, 233 = 6.340$), feminine ($F .01, 6, 233 = 10.560$) or androgynous ($F .01, 6, 233 = 3.129$) groups. Feminine respondents also found the speaker to be significantly more appropriate than did androgynous ($F .05, 6, 233 = 2.244$). There were no significant differences in response between the four sex role orientation groups within ad three.

4.6 SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

Table 4.6.1 Summary of Findings to Research Hypotheses

<i>HYPOTHESES</i>		<i>RESULT</i>
H1: That the gender of the spokesperson in an advertisement can alter the gender image of a product and create a same gender image for the product being advertised		
H1a:	That a male spokesperson will create a significantly more masculine image for a product than either a female or combination of spokespersons	Accept
H1b:	That a female spokesperson will create a significantly more feminine image for a product than either a male or combination of spokespersons	Accept
H1c:	That a combination of spokespersons will create a significantly more neutral image for a product than either a male or female alone	Accept
H1d:	That a male spokesperson will create a significantly more masculine than either feminine or neutral image for a product	Accept
H1e:	That a female spokesperson will create a significantly more feminine than either masculine or neutral image for a product	Accept
H1f:	That a combination of spokespersons will create a significantly more neutral than either masculine or feminine image for a product	Accept
H1g:	That perceived gender image of a product due to gender of spokesperson will not vary significantly as a function of gender	Reject
H1h:	That perceived gender image of a product due to gender of spokesperson will not vary significantly as a function of sex role orientation	Reject
H2: That the gender of the perceived most likely users of a product will be the same as that of the spokesperson used in promoting the product		
H2a:	That males will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product promoted by a male spokesperson than either females or both	Accept
H2b:	That females will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product promoted by a female spokesperson than either males or a combination of both	Reject
H2c:	That males and females will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product promoted by a combination of spokespersons than either males or females alone	Reject
H2d:	That males will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product when promoted by a male spokesperson than either a female or combination of spokespersons	Accept
H2e:	That females will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product when promoted by a female spokesperson than either a male or combination of spokespersons	Reject
H2f:	That both males and females equally will be perceived to be significantly more likely to be the main users of a product when promoted by a combination of spokesperson than either a male or a female spokesperson	Reject
H2g:	That perceived most likely users of a product will vary significantly as a function of gender of respondents	Reject
H2h:	That perceived most likely users of a product will vary significantly as a function of sex role orientation of respondents	Accept

H3:	That gender of spokesperson, gender of respondents and sex role orientation of respondents will have a significant effect on response to an ad	
H3a:	That overall, a product promoted by a male spokesperson will receive most positive response.	Accept
H3b:	That males will respond significantly more favourably to a product when promoted by a male spokesperson than either a female or combination of both	Reject
H3c:	That females will respond significantly more favourably to a product when promoted by a female spokesperson than either a male or combination of both	Reject
H3d:	That males will respond significantly more positively than females to a product promoted by a male spokesperson	Reject
H3e:	That females will respond significantly more positively than males to a product promoted by a female spokesperson	Reject
H3f:	That females will respond significantly more positively to a product promoted by a male spokesperson than will males to a product promoted by a female spokesperson	Reject
H3g:	That males and females will not differ significantly in response to a product promoted by a combination of spokespersons	Reject
H3h:	That masculine respondents will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a male spokesperson than either a female or combination	Reject
H3i:	That feminine respondents will respond significantly more favourably to a product promoted by a female spokesperson than either a male or a combination	Accept
H3j:	That androgynous and undifferentiated respondents will respond most favourably to a product promoted by a combination of spokespersons	Reject
H4:	That perceived appropriateness of a speaker will vary as a function of the spokespersons gender, gender of respondents and sex role orientation	
H4a:	That overall a male spokesperson will be perceived as most appropriate and significantly more so than either a female or combined male and female spokesperson	Accept
H4b:	That males will consider a male spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than either a female or combination of both	Reject
H4c:	That females will consider a female spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than either a male or combination of both	Reject
H4d:	That males will consider the male spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than will females	Reject
H4e:	That females will consider the female spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than will males	Reject
H4f:	That males and females will not differ significantly in response to perceived appropriateness of combined spokespersons	Accept
H4g:	That females will consider a male spokesperson to be significantly more appropriate than will males consider a female spokesperson	Reject
H4h:	That response to perceived appropriateness of the spokesperson will vary as a function of sex role orientation	Accept

Chapter Five

Conclusion

5.1 ALTERING THE GENDER IMAGE

The voice-over was found to be a very powerful means of altering the gendered image of a product. The product promoted by a male spokesperson was perceived to have a significantly more masculine image than either of the other two and a significantly more masculine than feminine image. This was not particularly surprising as the product was seen to be traditionally male dominant and it was expected that it would be perceived as having a masculine image. However, when promoted by a female spokesperson the perceived gender image changed and the product was perceived to have a significantly more feminine image than either of the other two products and a significantly more feminine than masculine image. When promoted by the combination of spokespersons the product was perceived to be equally masculine and feminine and significantly less masculine than the masculine and significantly less feminine than the feminine products and was thus deemed to have a neutral image.

When broken down by sex, it was found that both males and females perceived each of the products to have a gender image equal to that of the spokesperson. There was however some slight variation in the level of perceived masculinity and femininity of the products. Females perceived the product in ad two to have a significantly more feminine image than either of the other two while males perceived the products in both ads two and three to have a significantly more feminine image than that in ad one. This variance occurred due to the fact that males perceived the product in ad two to have a marginally less feminine image than did females and the product in ad three to have a marginally more feminine image than did females. Therefore, it would appear that females may be more open to a change in gender image to one which matches their own gender than would males. This may imply that it could be possible to genderise a product in a feminine way in such a way that it would be perceived as feminine by females but not obviously so by males and hence the market could be best catered to.

These results match those of the Debevec and Iyer (1986) study which also found that a female spokesperson altered the perceived gender image of a beer product from masculine to feminine. Unlike the Debevec and Iyer (1986) study this study also aimed to identify whether a combination of male and female spokespersons could alter the gender image to neutral. Bellizzi and Milner (1991) had tried this but also varied the branding and language of the advertisement when trying to alter the gender image to neutral. They found that combining the voice-overs together with making the branding and ad copy more neutral did successfully alter the gendered image of the traditionally masculine product to neutral, however whether the voice-over alone could achieve this was not previously tested. This study found that it could.

Therefore, in conclusion it can be said that the voice-over in advertising has the power to create or alter the gender position of a product and there is a same sex bias between the gender of the speaker and the perceived gender image of the product.

5.2 RESPONSE TO ALTERNATIVE GENDER POSITIONS

Having established that the voice-over has the power to alter the gender image of a product, the effects, if any, of this must be examined.

5.2.1 Most Likely Users

The perceived most likely users of each of the three products directly followed the perceived gender image thus implying that there is an expected same sex relationship between gender image and users. That is, masculine products are perceived to be used mostly by males, feminine mostly by females and neutral equally by both. Therefore, the importance of the gender image of a product is self evident. If a marketer is attempting to attract a particular segment of the market, either male or female it would appear that the product should be imbued with a gender image equal to the gender of the target market. However, if trying to appeal to the market as a whole, a neutral image would appear to be most appropriate as such a product is perceived to be purchased equally by both males and females.

5.2.2 Trial and Appeal

The above relates only to the perceived users of the products but actual usage intention did not directly follow. The likelihood of trial for the products correlated directly with the appeal of the ad. Therefore, the ad copy would appear to be vital when trying to encourage purchase. In this study the ad was not found to be particularly appealing and so this may have effected the trial ratings. This is an area which should be given great care and attention and attempts should be made to develop ad copy which does appeal to the target market. Precisely what appeals ought to be used is unclear and the author believes this is an area where further research should be conducted.

Overall, the ad with the male voice-over was found to be the most appealing of the three and significantly more so than that with the combined voice-over. Although marginally more appealing than the feminine ad it was not significantly so, therefore both can be assumed to have been equal. Because there was a significant difference in the appeal of the ads it appears as though voice-over is a contributing factor to the appeal of an ad, but not a very strong one as the appeal ratings for the three ads were all negative.

The likelihood of trial for the three products directly correlated with the appeal of the ads with the masculine product being found to be significantly more likely to be tried than the neutral but only marginally more likely to be tried than the feminine. This result differs from that of Debevec and Iyer (1986) who found that a masculine product promoted by a female spokesperson was significantly more likely to be tried than one promoted by a male spokesperson. They did not however include the neutral position in their study and so direct comparison between the results cannot be made.

It would appear from these findings that altering the gender image of a product, while leading to a perception that the most likely users will be the same sex as the voice-over, does not lead to such usage in reality. Nevertheless, the voice-over and

related gender image have had some effect on the likelihood of trial of the product. It was quite surprising that the combined voice-over received the most negative response. It had been thought that the neutral image created by the combined voice-overs would be appealing to both males and females and that trial would be quite likely for this happy medium.

When broken down by sex response was somewhat varied. Male respondents perceived no significant differences in the appeal of the three ads, and similarly were not found significantly more likely to try one product over another. Bellizzi and Milner (1991) found similar results in the case of male respondents. There were however some trends emerging and although the differences were not significant, males were marginally more likely to try the masculine product than the neutral product, and marginally more likely to try the neutral than the feminine. Females on the other hand found the feminine product significantly more appealing than the combined and were significantly more likely to try it than the combined. They were marginally, but not significantly more likely to try the feminine product than the masculine. These results do not correlate directly with Bellizzi and Milner who found that females were significantly more likely to try the product promoted by a female than either of the other two. This is presumably due to the fact that the gender re-positioning was achieved through branding, language and voice-over therefore would have been stronger than that of voice-over alone.

It would appear from the findings of this study that in order to appeal to the market as a whole either the male or female voice-over should be used, to appeal to males any of the three are equally appropriate and to appeal to females, either the male or female could be used. However, if the marginal differences which appear to indicate a possible trend are considered the conclusion would be that the female market would respond most positively to a female voice-over and males to a male voice-over but to appeal to the market as a whole a male voice-over should be used as females will respond marginally more positively to a male spokesperson than will males to a female.

5.2.3 Speaker Appropriateness

With regard to the perceived appropriateness of the speakers in promoting the product the male speaker was found to be significantly more appropriate than either of the other two. This is probably due to the fact that the product is perceived as having a masculine image and so would be expected to be promoted by a male spokesperson. The fact that the majority of voice-overs in advertising are male, even for feminine and neutral goods would presumably influence response as due to conditioning respondents may consider a male spokesperson more appropriate.

The perceived appropriateness of the speaker does not however seem to have influenced response to a great extent particularly in the case of female respondents who perceived the male speaker to be significantly more appropriate than either of the other two but were most likely to try the feminine product and found it most appealing. Males found the male marginally more appropriate but did not perceive there to be any significant differences between the three.

5.2.4 Biological versus Psychological Gender

Sex role orientation was not a particularly important influencer of response however some important differences in response between the groups were revealed. Feminine respondents found the ad with the female voice-over significantly more appealing than either of the other two and similarly were significantly more likely to try the product in this ad than either of the other two or than any of the other sex role orientation groups. As this group makes up 27% of the sample and the majority of feminine respondents are female this should be considered when targeting the female market as clearly quite a large portion of females would respond significantly more positively to a feminine position than a masculine or neutral.

There was quite a lot of bunching in response by sex role orientation with the masculine and androgynous groups often responding in the same way as the male respondents and the feminine and undifferentiated in a similar manner as the female respondents. Therefore it was concluded that biological gender was as much if not more of an influencer of response as psychological gender and segmenting the market by sex role rather than sex would be of no great value. However, the significantly more favourable response of the feminine group to the ad and product promoted by a female spokesperson ought to be considered when targeting the female market. As approximately 44% of female respondents are feminine this response must be considered when deciding how to position a product to appeal to the female market. The author believes that because of this response by the feminine group the non-significant difference in female response to the male and female products should be re-considered and a position taken that a female spokesperson would be the most appropriate method of appealing to the female market.

5.3 SUMMARY

- * Voice-over can alter the gender image of a product
- * Gender image will match the gender of the spokesperson
- * Gender of perceived most likely users will equal that of the speaker
- * Appeal of an ad directly influences likelihood of trial
- * Overall a product promoted by a male will be most likely to be tried and significantly more so than one promoted by a combination of a male and female
- * Males will not be significantly more likely to try a product promoted by one spokesperson over another but will marginally favour a male, followed by a combination and finally a female
- * Females will be significantly more likely to try a product promoted by a female than one promoted by a combination of both
- * Perceived appropriateness of the speaker does not directly influence response.

- * Overall a male speaker is perceived to be significantly more appropriate in promoting beer than either a female or both
- * Both biological and psychological gender mediate response to alternative gender positions for a product to some extent, but sex role orientation is no better a

5.4 IMPLICATIONS

In summary the results suggest that using a spokesperson to alter a product's gender image is a feasible and potentially effective strategy. The results while not conclusive are a step towards understanding the extent to which advertisers can alter the gender image of a masculine product through voice-over and its subsequent effect on both male and female perceptions of and response to the product. Such gender re-positioning is a useful tool for marketers and should be considered as a means of targeting the female market. In this instance, the conclusion would be not to use a combined voice-over and neutral image for the product as this would have a negative impact on the female market. Either a male or a female spokesperson could be used as there was no significant difference in response to either of these. However, when considering the marginal differences in response and the significantly more positive response to the female voice-over by the feminine group which accounts for a large proportion of the female respondents perhaps the most appropriate strategy would be to run two campaigns simultaneously, one with a female spokesperson which would appeal to the female market and the second with a male. Otherwise, it is felt that a male voice-over would be most appropriate as females responded marginally more positively to the male than did males to the female.

Regardless of the most appropriate method to use in appealing to the selected market segment the implications of this study are quite useful. The voice-over in advertising is a very strong tool in altering the gendered image of a product and should be considered by marketers either for this purpose or alternatively in order to ensure the gender image is not altered by mistake through the variance of the

gender of the voice-over. It is a variable which has received little attention to date but the findings of this study imply that it is more important than may previously have been thought and should be considered more when designing marketing campaigns.

All the findings from this study must be taken in the limited context in which they were arrived at. The results are tied to the particular ad copy which was used and the fact that only one product was tested and the convenience sample of students which was used. It is possible that another group of individuals may respond differently to another product and different ad copy. The likelihood of different response to different ad copy is particularly likely in view of the strong correlation between appeal of the ad and likelihood of trial. Nevertheless it provides some understanding of the effects of varying voice-over on gender position and response to such gender re-positioning.

5.5 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The author believes that some further research should be conducted particularly in light of the trends which seemed to be emerging from the findings. There were many instances in this study where although differences in mean response were not statistically significant the trend which they hint at would imply a female preference for a feminine position and a male preference for a masculine position.

It is felt that had a more appealing ad been developed response may have varied more strongly and these marginal differences may have been significant. This area needs further research. An investigation of precisely what factors are considered necessary to make an ad appealing is required and then an ad developed. A double study using two groups, one exposed to the appealing ad and the other to the unappealing may be useful in order to establish precisely the effect of ad appeal on usage intention for various gender positions may be.

The area of how to target the female market without detracting from the male also needs further research. This study was a start but did not reach any conclusive results between a male and female gendered position. A neutral position is not an effective means of attracting female consumers but no significant difference has been found between male and female. Perhaps if the other variables which make up the gendered image were tested more definite results may be reached. This is another area which needs further research.

Finally, the whole area of voice-over in advertising definitely needs further research. Response to different voice-overs for existing feminine or neutral products needs to be examined in order to truly understand the power of the voice-over in altering the gender image. Also, the power of the voice-over to create, as opposed to alter the gender image of a product should also be examined.

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Appendices

Appendix A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please complete page one immediately on receipt of the questionnaire.

Please do not respond to any other sections of the questionnaire until instructed to do so.

Thank-you for your co-operation.

DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS

1) SEX Male _____ Female _____

2) AGE _____

3) COURSE AND YEAR _____

4) PARENT OR GUARDIAN'S OCCUPATION

5) DO YOUR PARENTS LIVE IN A RURAL (Country) OR URBAN (City) ENVIRONMENT?

6) DO YOU EVER DRINK ALCOHOL? Yes _____ No _____

7) IF YES TO QUESTION 6, DO YOU EVER DRINK:

BEER Yes _____ No _____

WINE Yes _____ No _____

SPIRITS Yes _____ No _____

8) WHICH OF THESE (BEER, WINE, SPIRITS) DO YOU DRINK MOST OFTEN?

9) HOW MUCH ALCOHOL DO YOU DRINK ON AVERAGE PER WEEK?

1 Unit = 1/2 Pint of beer or 1 Glass of wine or 1 Glass of spirits

1 - 7 Units _____ 15 - 21 Units _____

8 - 14 Units _____ More than 21 Units _____

ADVERTISEMENT

Please respond to the following statements by circling the appropriate number in each case.

- 1) I would definitely try this product at least once

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

- 2) This product has a masculine image

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

- 3) This product has a feminine image

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

- 4) This product would be purchased equally by both males and females

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

- 5) This product would be purchased mostly by males

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

- 6) This product would be purchased mostly by females

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

- 7) I found the speaker appropriate in promoting this product

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

- 8) Overall, I found the ad very appealing

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

BSRI

For each of the traits listed below please indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 how these characteristics best describe yourself. Please do not leave any characteristics unmarked.

SCALE

- 1** *Never or almost never true*
- 2** *Usually not true*
- 3** *Sometimes but infrequently true*
- 4** *Occasionally True*
- 5** *Often true*
- 6** *Usually true*
- 7** *Always or almost always true*

1			16	HAVE LEADERSHIP ABILITIES	
2	AFFECTIONATE		17	SOOTHE HURT FEELINGS	
3	CONSCIENTIOUS		18	SECRETIVE	
4	INDEPENDENT		19	WILLING TO TAKE RISKS	
5	SYMPATHETIC		20	WARM	
6	MOODY		21	ADAPTABLE	
7	ASSERTIVE		22	DOMINANT	
8	SENSITIVE TO NEEDS OF OTHERS		23	TENDER	
9	RELIABLE		24	CONCEITED	
10	STRONG PERSONALITY		25	WILLING TO TAKE A STAND	
11	UNDERSTANDING		26	LOVE CHILDREN	
12	JEALOUS		27	TACTFUL	
13	FORCEFUL		28	AGGRESSIVE	
14	COMPASSIONATE		29	GENTLE	
15	TRUTHFUL		30	CONVENTIONAL	

Appendix B

EXPLORATORY DATA ANALYSIS

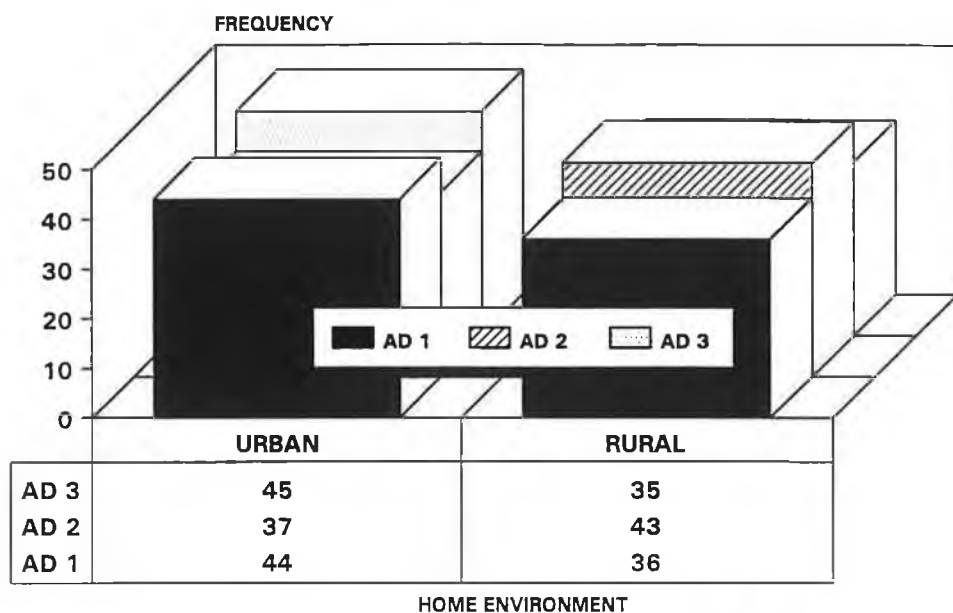
Matched Samples

The sample population consisted of a total of two hundred and forty respondents aged between eighteen and twenty five. The sample was chosen randomly from the Dublin City University undergraduate population but some efforts were made to ensure as diverse a group as possible was chosen, drawn from as many courses and years as possible. Sex of respondents was controlled however, in order to ensure equal numbers of males and females were selected. The total number of respondents was divided randomly into three with each respondent being exposed to only one version of the ad. Sex was again controlled for as equal numbers were required for exposure to each of the three ads.

As all respondents were selected randomly from the same sample universe it was expected that each of the three sub-samples were equally matched. In order to ensure this was the case frequencies of response to each of the demographic questions were measured for each of the three sub-samples. Chi-square tests were also conducted on the demographics of the groups exposed to each of the three ads. Figures B1 to B6 outline the results of these tests which show that there were no significant demographic differences between the respondents exposed to each of the three ads and that therefore each of the three sub samples were equally matched.

Figure B1

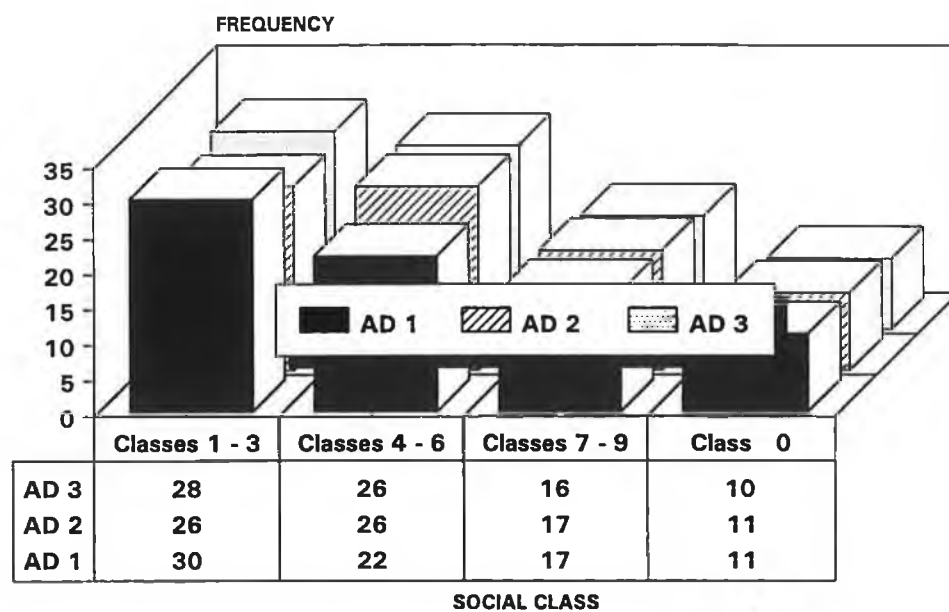
DEMOGRAPHIC BREAKDOWN BY AD
HOME ENVIRONMENT



$$\chi^2 = 1.90476 \quad p < .38582$$

Figure B2

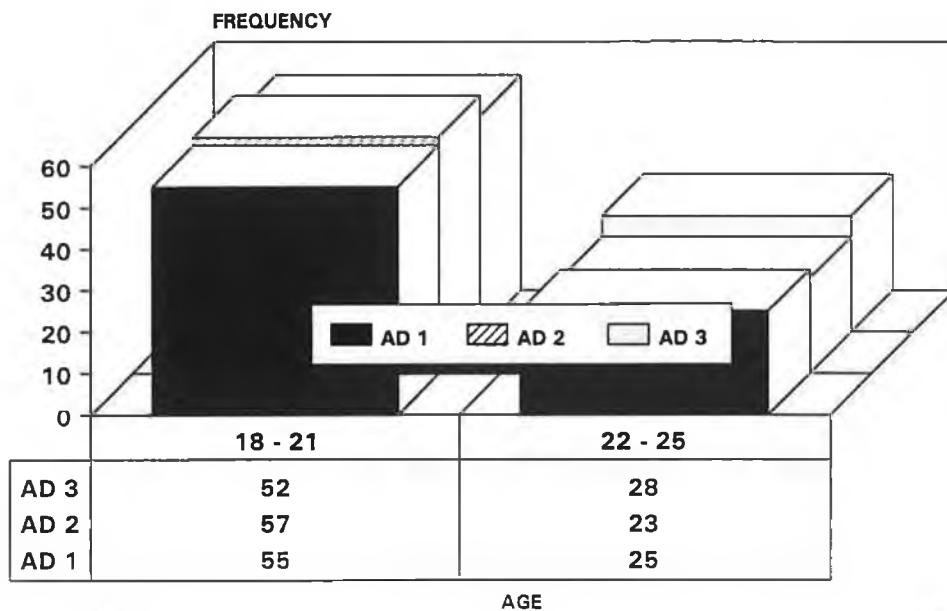
DEMOGRAPHIC BREAKDOWN BY AD
SOCIAL CLASS



$$\chi^2 = 17.87960 \quad P < .46361$$

Figure B3

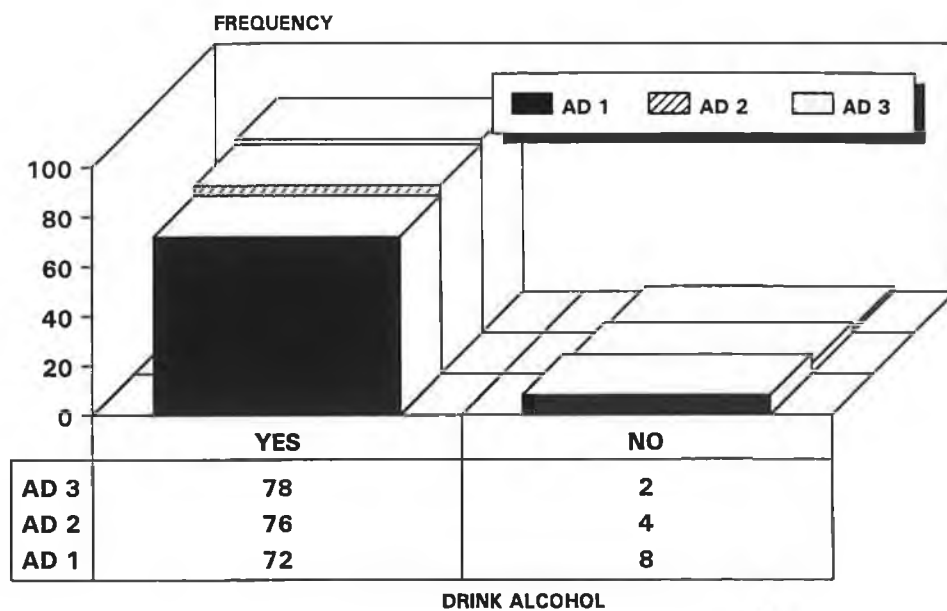
DEMOGRAPHIC BREAKDOWN BY AD
AGE



$$\chi^2 = n/a$$

Figure B4

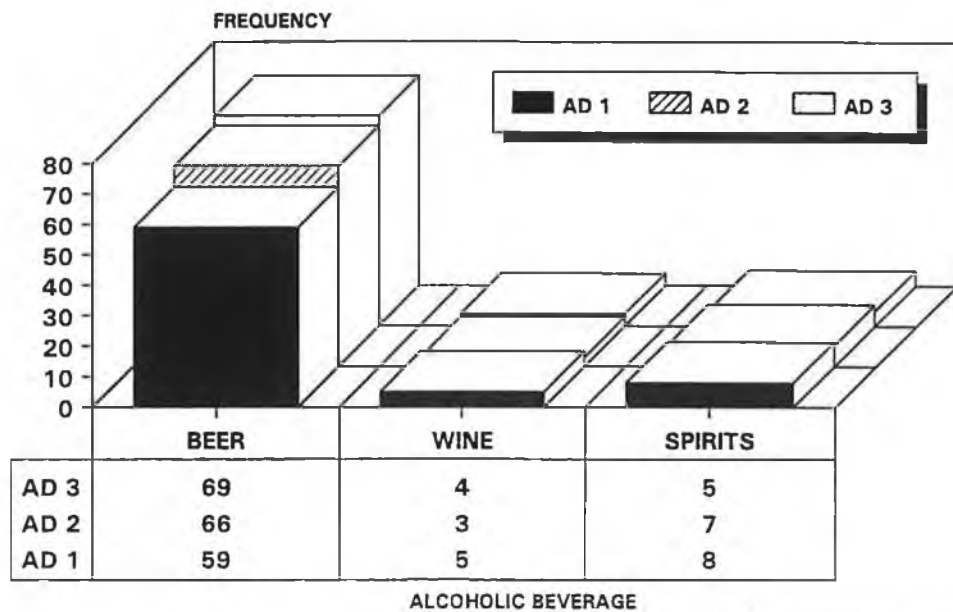
ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION PATTERNS BY AD
DRINK?



$$\chi^2 = 4.24779 \quad P < .11957$$

Figure B5

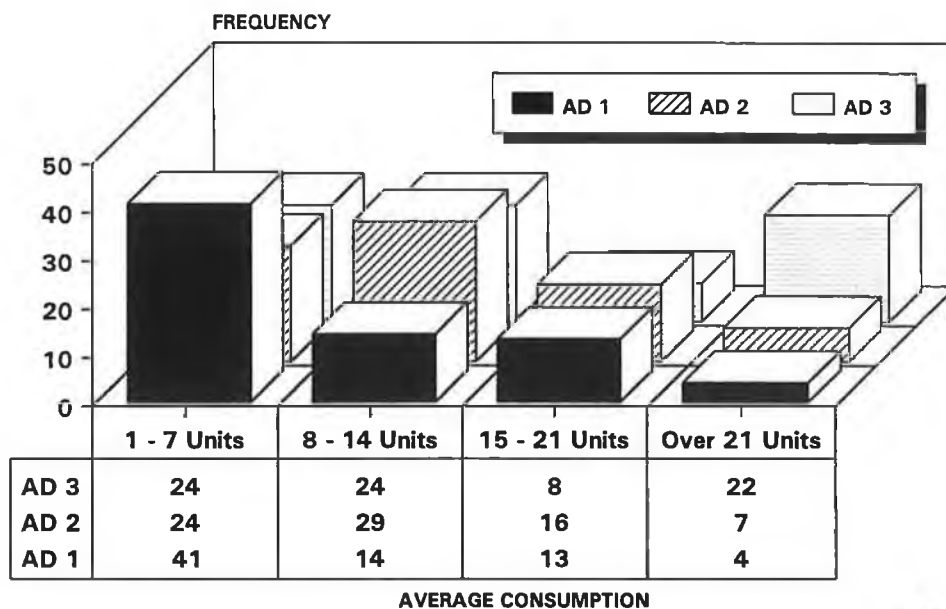
**ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION PATTERNS BY AD
BEVERAGE MOST OFTEN CONSUMED**



$$\chi^2 = 1.78325 \quad P < .77555$$

Figure B6

**ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION PATTERNS BY AD
AVERAGE WEEKLY CONSUMPTION**



$$\chi^2 - n/a$$

Influence of Demographics on Response

After having established the three sub-samples were equally matched, tests were then run to identify any variance which may have occurred in response to the ads due to demographic details. That is, the effect of varying demographics, if any, on response to the eight ad specific dependent variables was measured. For example, did respondents from a rural environment find one ad more appealing than those from an urban environment?. If this were found to be the case such factors would need to be controlled for when the overall MANOVAS were being conducted.

**Table B1 Effect of Demographic Variables on Ad Specific Variables
Chi Square Values**

<i>VARIABLE</i>	<i>Home Environment</i>	<i>Social Class</i>	<i>Which Drink</i>	<i>How Much</i>
<i>Try Once</i>	ChiSq 2.244 p < .691	ChiSq 32.405 p < .640	ChiSq 7.554 p < .478	ChiSq 13.848 p < .310
<i>Masculine Image</i>	ChiSq 6.522 p < .163	ChiSq 35.905 p < .473	ChiSq 3.185 p < .922	ChiSq 11.605 p < .478
<i>Feminine Image</i>	ChiSq 4.504 p < .342	ChiSq 39.097 p < .332	ChiSq 8.147 p < .419	ChiSq 6.985 p < .859
<i>Mostly Males</i>	ChiSq 1.392 p < .846	ChiSq 25.356 p < .907	ChiSq 6.495 p < .592	ChiSq 11.006 p < .528
<i>Mostly Females</i>	ChiSq 6.416 p < .170	ChiSq 42.563 p < .209	ChiSq 2.482 p < .962	ChiSq 12.586 p < .396
<i>Equally Both</i>	ChiSq 0.992 p < .911	ChiSq 31.674 p < .674	ChiSq 4.264 p < .832	ChiSq 9.775 p < .636
<i>Speaker Appropriate</i>	ChiSq 7.569 p < .109	ChiSq 43.421 p < .184	ChiSq 8.141 p < .419	ChiSq 7.328 p < .835
<i>Ad Appealing</i>	ChiSq 3.346 p < .502	ChiSq 30.528 p < .584	ChiSq 9.433 p < .307	ChiSq 5.254 p < .949

Table B1 outlines the results of the cross tabulations for each of the demographic variables by each of the ad specific variables. The key demographic variables measured were found to have had no significant influence on response to the ads and so did not need to be considered in any further analysis. That is, for the population under consideration social class, home environment, type of alcohol most often consumed and average weekly alcohol consumption were found not to have a significant effect on perceived gender image and most likely users of an advertised product, perceived appropriateness of the spokesperson used in promoting such a product and responsiveness to such advertising. The age variable was not included as only respondents between eighteen and twenty five were used and any further breakdown by age was not considered necessary or useful. The drink variable was also excluded as only four respondents from the total sample were non-drinkers. None of the demographic variables were found to cause any significant variation in response to the ad specific statements and so could be discounted from further analysis. The analysis of the data therefore proceeded with an analysis of the response to the ad specific questions.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The questionnaire was designed in such a way as to include eight ad specific questions which were the dependent variables. Response to these eight questions was expected to reveal the perceived gender image of each of the three ads and response to those ads. General descriptive statistics relating to these ad specific questions are included below.

Frequencies of Response

The ad specific questions were phrased as statements to which respondents answered from one to five which ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. For the purposes of reporting the frequencies of response in each of the questions the five points on the scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree were collapsed into three by combining strongly agree and agree and strongly disagree and disagree.

Table B2 Frequency of Response to Ad Specific Statements
% of Respondents Overall and by Sex

		Ad One Male V O			Ad Two Female V O			Ad Three Combined V O		
Statement	Response	M	F	Both	M	F	Both	M	F	Both
<i>I would definitely try this product at least once</i>	Agree	27.5	25.0	26.3	20.0	35.0	27.5	30.0	10.0	20.0
	Don't Know	30.0	22.5	26.3	25.0	17.5	21.3	20.0	25.0	2.5
	Disagree	42.5	52.5	47.5	55.0	47.5	51.3	50.0	65.0	57.5
<i>This product has a masculine image</i>	Agree	60.0	77.5	68.8	22.5	25.0	23.8	27.5	17.5	22.5
	Don't Know	20.0	10.0	15.0	12.5	10.0	11.3	22.5	15.0	18.8
	Disagree	20.0	12.5	16.3	65.0	65.0	65.1	50.0	67.5	58.8
<i>This product has a feminine image</i>	Agree	10.0	10.0	10.0	47.5	52.5	50.0	30.0	25.0	27.5
	Don't Know	22.5	30.0	21.3	12.5	7.5	10.0	22.5	15.0	18.8
	Disagree	67.5	70.0	68.8	40.0	40.0	40.0	47.5	60.0	53.8
<i>This product would be purchased mostly by males</i>	Agree	65.0	50.0	57.5	25.0	22.5	23.8	22.5	30.0	26.3
	Don't Know	20.0	20.0	20.0	7.5	12.5	10.0	10.0	7.5	8.8
	Disagree	15.0	30.0	22.5	67.5	65.0	66.3	67.5	62.5	65.0
<i>This product would be purchased mostly by females</i>	Agree	0.0	7.5	3.8	47.5	37.5	42.5	35.0	27.5	31.3
	Don't Know	25.0	17.5	21.3	7.5	20.0	13.8	12.5	12.5	12.5
	Disagree	75.0	75.0	75.1	45.0	42.5	43.7	52.5	60.0	56.3
<i>This product would be purchased equally by both males and females</i>	Agree	25.0	45.0	35.0	27.5	37.5	32.5	42.5	37.5	40.0
	Don't Know	35.0	25.0	30.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	12.5	15.0	13.8
	Disagree	40.0	30.0	35.0	57.5	47.5	52.5	45.0	47.5	46.3
<i>I found the speaker appropriate in promoting this product</i>	Agree	32.5	27.5	30.0	17.5	15.0	16.3	15.0	12.5	13.8
	Don't Know	17.5	25.0	21.3	22.5	10.0	16.3	17.5	10.0	13.8
	Disagree	50.0	47.5	48.8	60.0	75.0	67.5	67.5	77.5	72.5
<i>Overall I found the ad very appealing</i>	Agree	5.0	10.0	7.5	5.0	10.0	7.5	5.0	2.5	3.8
	Don't Know	15.0	0.0	7.5	5.0	7.5	6.3	2.5	2.5	2.5
	Disagree	80.0	90.0	85.0	90.0	82.5	86.3	92.5	95.0	93.8

M = Male Response
F = Female Response
Both = Overall Response

Table B3 **Frequency of Response to Ad Specific Statements**
% of Respondents by Sex Role Orientation

		Ad One Male V O				Ad Two Female V O				Ad Three Combined V O			
Sex Role	N =	Mas 18	Fem 23	And 17	Und 22	Mas 23	Fem 17	And 19	Und 21	Mas 23	Fem 25	And 15	Und 17
Statement	Response												
<i>I would definitely try this product at least once</i>	Agree	27.8	17.4	23.5	36.3	26.1	52.9	15.8	19.0	21.7	16.0	20.0	23.5
	Don't Know	16.7	34.8	29.4	22.7	17.4	17.6	26.3	23.8	21.7	16.0	40.0	17.6
	Disagree	55.5	47.8	47.1	41.0	56.5	29.4	57.9	57.2	56.6	68.0	40.0	58.9
<i>This product has a masculine image</i>	Agree	61.1	78.3	58.8	72.7	30.4	17.6	31.6	14.3	26.1	20.0	26.7	17.6
	Don't Know	22.2	4.3	17.6	18.2	8.7	11.8	26.3	66.7	34.8	8.0	13.3	17.6
	Disagree	16.7	17.4	23.6	9.1	60.9	70.6	42.1	19.0	39.1	72.0	60.0	64.8
<i>This product has a feminine image</i>	Agree	22.2	8.7	5.9	4.5	52.2	47.0	36.8	61.9	34.8	28.0	40.0	5.9
	Don't Know	16.7	17.4	29.4	22.7	8.7	11.8	15.8	4.8	30.4	4.0	20.0	23.5
	Disagree	61.1	73.9	54.7	72.8	39.1	41.2	47.4	33.3	34.8	68.0	40.0	70.6
<i>This product would be purchased mostly by males</i>	Agree	66.6	47.8	58.8	4.5	26.0	17.6	31.6	19.0	21.7	32.0	20.0	29.4
	Don't Know	16.7	21.7	23.5	54.5	17.4	5.9	15.8	57.1	13.0	0.0	13.3	11.8
	Disagree	16.7	30.4	17.7	41.0	56.6	76.5	52.6	23.8	65.3	68.0	66.7	58.8
<i>This product would be purchased mostly by females</i>	Agree	5.6	8.7	0.0	0.0	39.1	41.2	31.6	57.1	30.4	28.0	46.7	23.5
	Don't Know	16.7	21.7	29.4	18.2	21.8	17.6	15.8	38.1	17.4	4.0	20.0	11.8
	Disagree	77.7	69.6	70.6	81.8	39.1	41.2	52.6	4.8	52.2	68.0	33.3	64.7
<i>This product would be purchased equally by males and females</i>	Agree	27.8	47.8	17.6	40.9	26.1	35.3	31.6	38.1	39.1	40.0	33.3	47.1
	Don't Know	27.8	21.7	52.9	22.7	26.1	5.9	21.1	4.8	8.7	12.0	13.3	23.5
	Disagree	44.4	30.5	29.5	36.4	47.8	58.8	47.3	57.1	52.2	48.0	53.3	29.4
<i>I found the speaker appropriate in promoting this product</i>	Agree	33.3	17.4	11.8	54.5	30.4	29.5	5.3	0.0	17.4	12.0	6.7	17.6
	Don't Know	22.3	34.8	11.8	13.6	8.7	17.6	31.6	9.5	13.0	20.0	13.3	5.9
	Disagree	44.4	47.8	76.4	31.9	60.9	52.9	63.1	90.5	69.6	68.0	80.0	76.5
<i>Overall I found the ad very appealing</i>	Agree	5.6	4.3	0.0	18.1	8.7	17.6	5.3	0.0	0.0	8.0	6.7	0.0
	Don't Know	11.1	60.9	11.8	9.1	4.3	11.8	5.3	4.8	0.0	4.0	0.0	5.9
	Disagree	83.3	34.8	88.2	72.8	87.0	70.6	89.4	95.2	100	88.0	93.3	94.1

Mas = Masculine Fem = Feminine And = Androgynous Und = Undifferentiated

Tables B2 and B3 outline the frequency of response to each of the ad specific questions for each ad on an overall basis, broken down by sex and then by sex role orientation. From this, it can be seen at a glance the direction of response. For example, 68.8% of respondents agreed the product in ad one had a masculine image while only 23.8% agreed that the product in ad two had a masculine image. This would imply that the voice-over did in fact influence the perceived gender image of the product advertised. Similarly, 35% of female respondents agreed they would try the product in ad two while only 20% of male respondents agreed that they would. Thus it would appear that sex had some influence on likelihood of trial. The detailed data analysis in chapter four reveals more accurately the differences in response and the significance of such variation but the figures in tables B2 and B3 give the general overall picture.

Figures B7 to B14 provide a graphic representation of the frequency of response to each of the ad specific questions. These again allow for easy assessment of response on an overall basis. For example, it can be seen that a large portion of respondents agreed that the product in ad one would be purchased mostly by males and a correspondingly large proportion disagreed that the products in ads two and three would be purchased mostly by males.

Figure B7

**FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE BY AD
TRY PRODUCT ONCE**

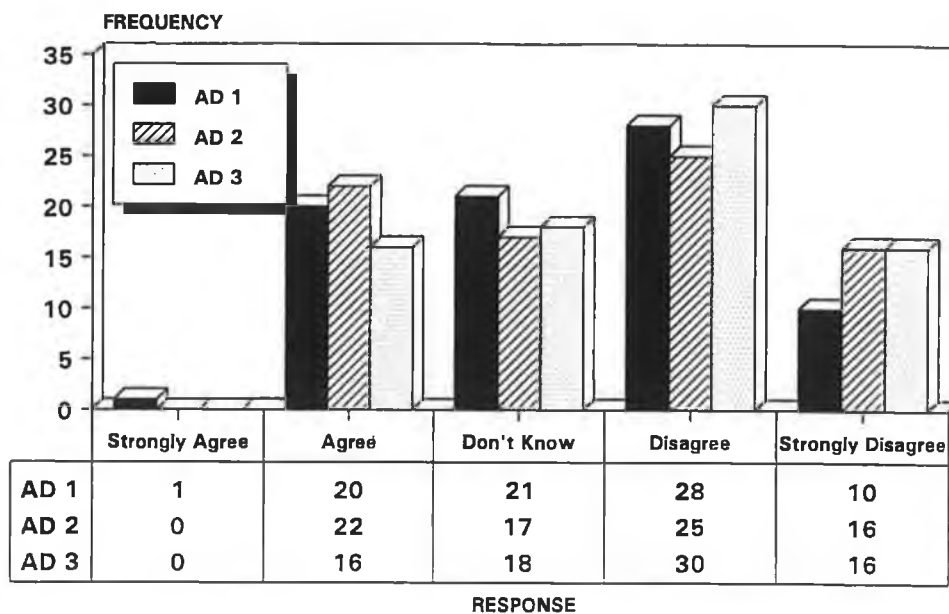


Figure B8

**FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE BY AD
FOUND THE AD APPEALING**

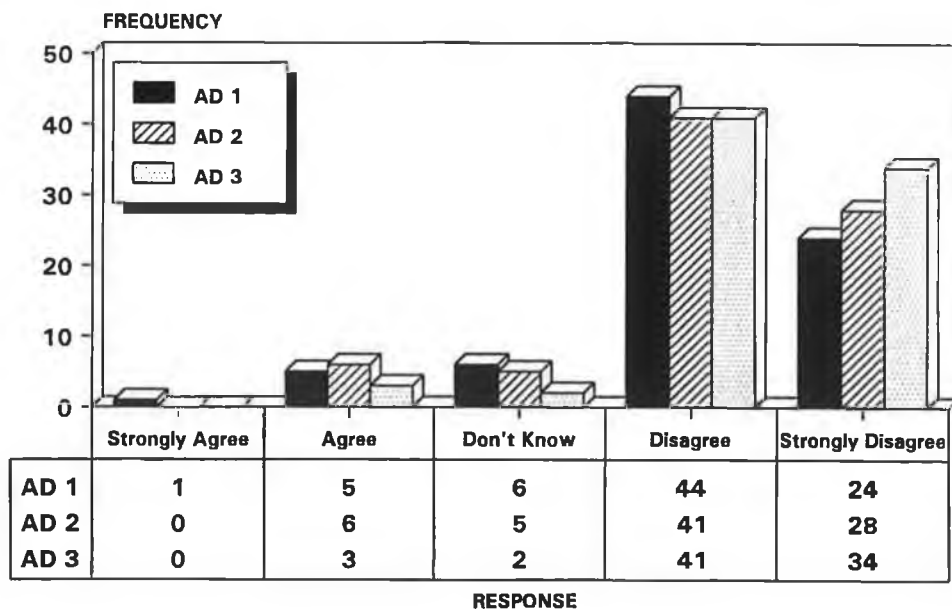


Figure B9

**FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE BY AD
PRODUCT HAS A MASCULINE IMAGE**

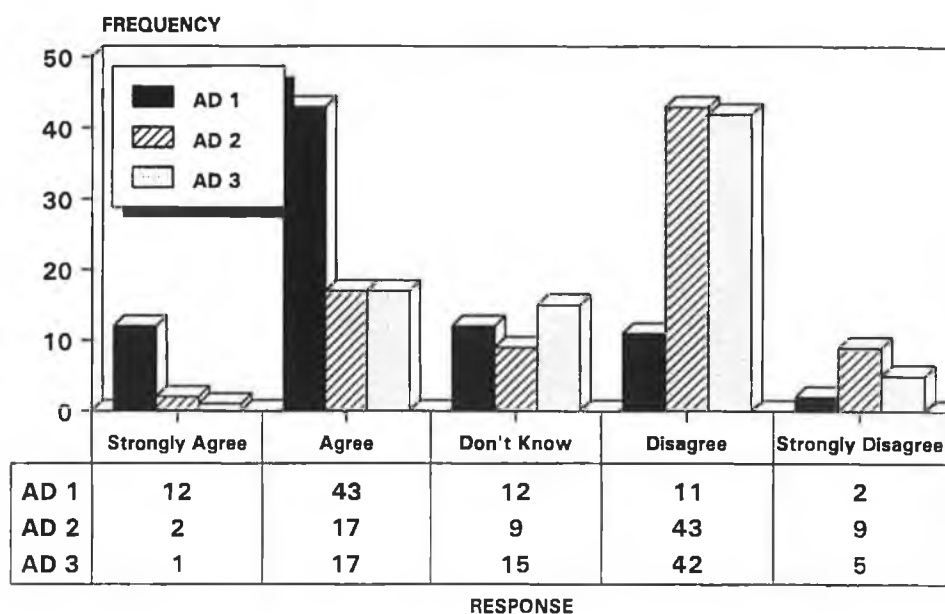


Figure B10

**FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE BY AD
PRODUCT HAS A FEMININE IMAGE**

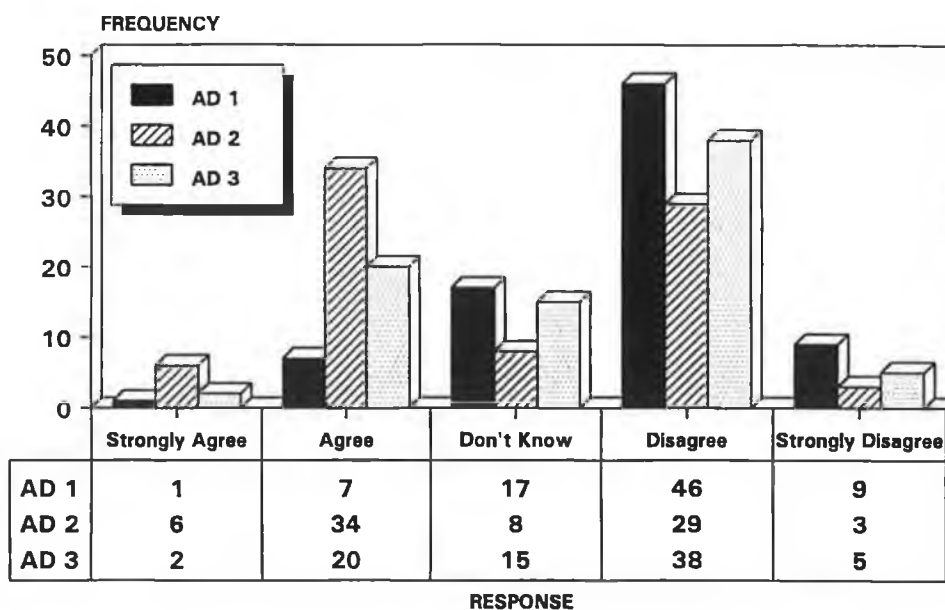


Figure B11

**FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE BY AD
PURCHASED MOSTLY BY MALES**

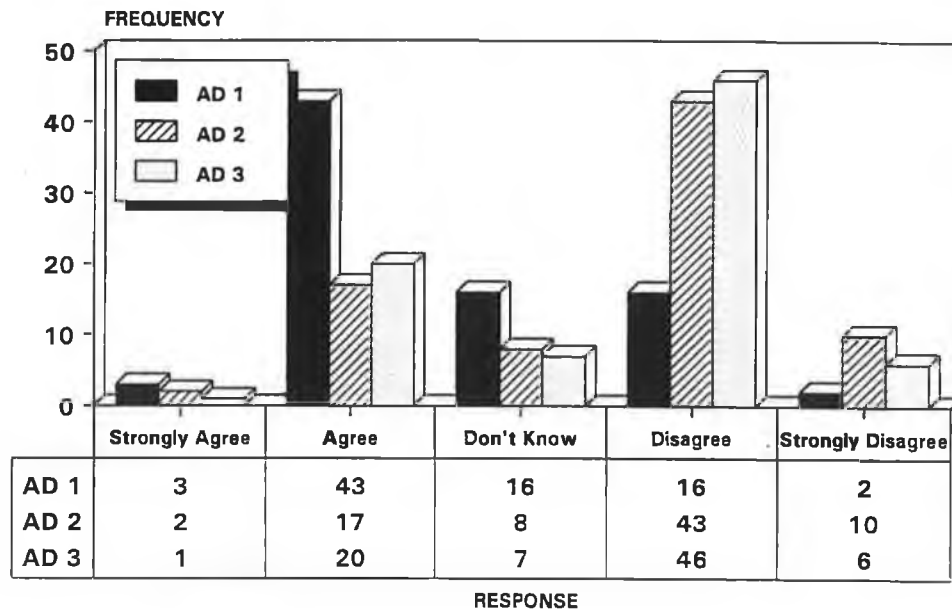


Figure B12

**FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE BY AD
PURCHASED MOSTLY BY FEMALES**

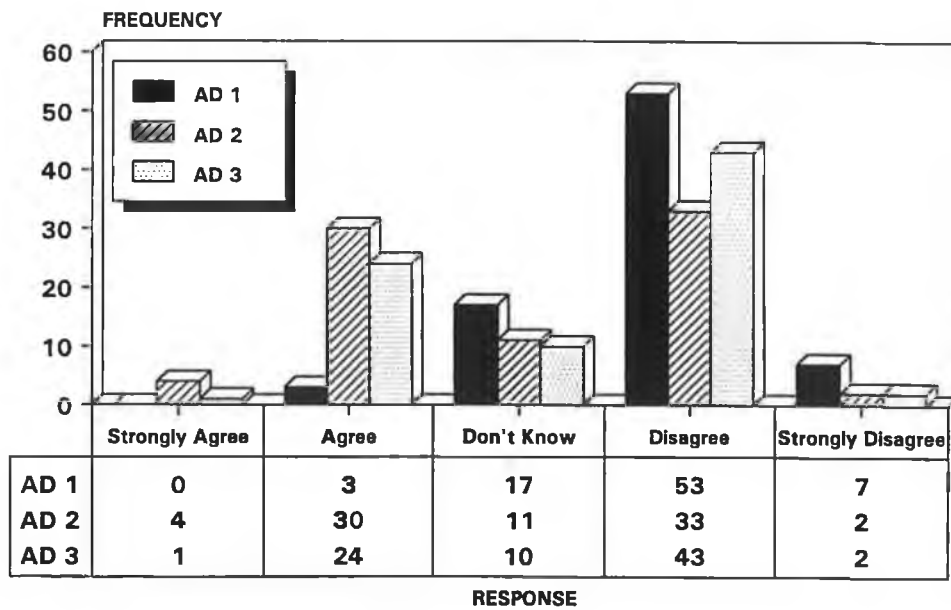


Figure B13

**FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE BY AD
PURCHASED EQUALLY BY MALE AND FEMALE**

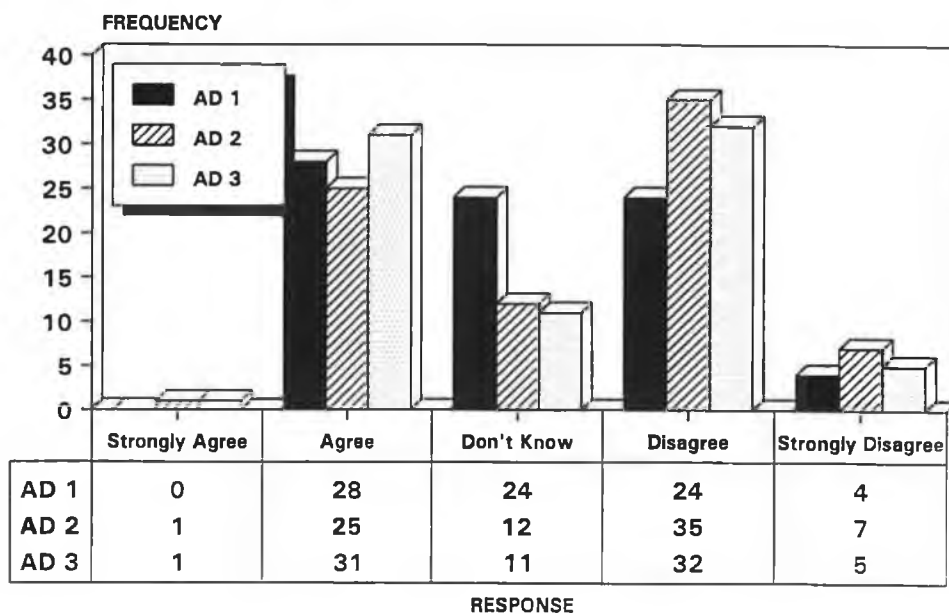
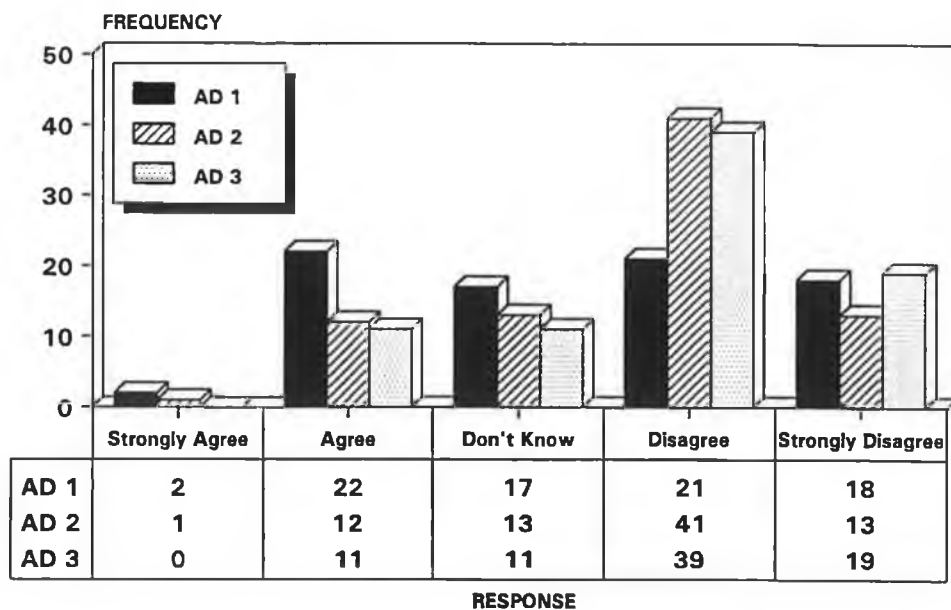


Figure B14

**FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE BY AD
FOUND THE SPEAKER APPROPRIATE**



Mean Response Scores

The detailed data analysis consisted mainly of eight three way ANOVA's. From this, any variance in response to the dependent variables due to the independent variables could be assessed. By it's nature, analysis of variance analyses variation in the mean response for each of the groups to each of the ad specific questions. Therefore, most of the analysis was conducted on the mean responses. Tables B4 to B7 below outline the mean response overall, for each gender group and each sex role orientation group to each of the ad specific questions.

Table B4 **Mean Response to Ad Specific Questions**
Overall and by Gender

Variables	AD 1			AD 2			AD 3		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
TRIAL	3.25	3.40	3.32	3.55	3.33	3.44	3.33	3.83	3.58
MASIMAGE	2.52	2.18	2.35	3.52	3.47	3.50	3.23	3.60	3.41
FEMIMAGE	3.73	3.65	3.69	2.93	2.80	2.86	3.18	3.43	3.30
MALEPUR	2.48	2.80	2.64	3.52	3.53	3.53	3.50	3.40	3.45
FEMALPUR	3.85	3.75	3.80	2.90	3.08	2.99	3.20	3.33	3.26
BOTHPUR	3.25	2.85	3.05	3.38	3.18	3.28	3.10	3.13	3.11
SPEAKER	3.38	3.40	3.39	3.55	3.78	3.66	3.70	3.95	3.83
APPEAL	4.03	4.10	4.06	4.28	4.00	4.14	4.15	4.50	4.32

Trial = Likelihood of Trial
Masimage = Perceived masculine image
Femimage = Perceived feminine image
Malepur = Likelihood of being purchased mostly by males
Femalpur = Likelihood of being purchased mostly by females
Bothpur = Likelihood of being purchased equally by both males and females
Speaker = Perceived appropriateness of the speaker
Appeal = Appeal of the ad

Table B5

Mean Response to Ad Specific Questions

By Sex Role Orientation

Variables	AD 1					AD 2					AD 3				
	M	F	A	U	Tot	M	F	A	U	Tot	M	F	A	U	Tot
TRIAL	3.44	3.39	3.35	3.14	3.32	3.61	2.76	3.74	3.52	3.44	3.61	3.68	3.27	3.65	3.58
MASIMAGE	2.44	2.22	2.65	2.18	2.35	3.39	3.59	3.11	3.90	3.50	3.13	3.56	3.40	3.59	3.41
FEMIMAGE	3.50	3.78	3.59	3.82	3.69	2.87	2.88	3.11	2.62	2.86	3.04	3.48	2.93	3.71	3.30
MALEPUR	2.50	2.83	2.59	2.59	2.64	3.35	3.71	3.21	3.86	3.53	3.48	3.48	3.53	3.29	3.45
FEMALPUR	3.94	3.61	3.82	3.86	3.80	3.00	3.00	3.21	2.76	2.99	3.22	3.44	2.87	3.41	3.26
BOTHPUR	3.22	2.87	3.18	3.00	3.05	3.35	3.29	3.21	3.24	3.28	3.26	3.12	3.20	2.82	3.11
SPEAKER	3.22	3.52	4.00	2.91	3.39	3.48	3.18	3.68	4.24	3.66	3.83	3.80	3.80	3.88	3.83
APPEAL	4.17	4.26	4.06	3.77	4.06	4.22	3.71	4.11	4.43	4.14	4.43	4.20	4.20	4.47	4.32

M = Masculine F = Feminine A = Androgynous U = Undifferentiated Tot = Overall

Trial = Likelihood of Trial
Masimage = Perceived masculine image
Femimage = Perceived feminine image
Malepur = Likelihood of being purchased mostly by males
Femalpur = Likelihood of being purchased mostly by females
Bothpur = Likelihood of being purchased equally by both males and females
Speaker = Perceived appropriateness of the speaker
Appeal = Appeal of the ad

Table B6

Mean Response to Ad Specific Questions

by Ad x Sex x Sexrole Orientation

	Trial	Masim	Femim	Purm	Purf	Purmf	Speak	Appeal
AD 1								
SR1M N = 12	3.58	2.42	3.75	2.50	4.00	3.17	3.00	4.25
SR1F N = 6	3.17	2.50	3.00	2.50	3.83	3.33	3.67	4.00
SR2M N = 6	3.50	2.50	3.83	2.67	4.00	3.50	3.83	4.50
SR2F N = 17	3.35	2.12	3.76	2.88	3.47	2.65	3.41	4.18
SR3M N = 9	3.11	3.11	3.44	2.56	3.56	3.22	4.44	3.78
SR3F N = 8	3.63	2.13	3.75	2.63	4.13	3.13	3.50	4.38
SR4M N = 13	2.92	2.23	3.85	2.31	3.85	3.23	2.77	3.77
SR4F N = 9	3.44	2.11	3.78	3.00	3.89	2.67	3.11	3.78
AD 2								
SR1M N = 15	3.67	3.33	3.00	3.27	2.87	3.47	3.53	4.47
SR1F N = 8	3.50	3.50	2.63	3.50	3.25	3.13	3.38	3.75
SR2M N = 3	2.67	3.33	3.33	3.33	3.33	3.33	2.00	3.67
SR2F N = 14	2.79	3.64	2.79	3.79	2.93	3.29	3.43	3.71
SR3M N = 13	3.54	3.23	2.85	3.23	3.00	3.46	3.54	3.92
SR3F N = 6	4.17	2.83	3.67	3.17	3.67	2.67	4.00	4.50
SR4M N = 9	3.67	4.33	2.78	4.44	2.67	3.11	4.11	4.67
SR4F N = 12	3.42	3.58	2.50	3.42	2.83	3.33	4.33	4.25
AD 3								
SR1M N = 19	3.42	3.11	3.05	3.58	3.26	3.21	3.68	4.37
SR1F N = 4	4.50	3.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.50	4.50	4.75
SR2M N = 4	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.00	3.75	3.00	3.50	3.75
SR2F N = 21	3.81	3.62	3.48	3.57	3.38	3.14	3.86	4.29
SR3M N = 9	3.44	3.44	2.89	3.78	2.78	3.22	3.78	3.89
SR3F N = 6	3.00	3.33	3.00	3.17	3.00	3.17	3.83	4.67
SR4M N = 8	3.13	3.25	3.63	3.25	3.25	2.75	3.75	4.13
SR4F N = 9	4.11	3.89	3.78	3.33	3.56	2.89	4.00	4.78

SR1 = Masculine SR2 = Feminine SR3 = Androgynous SR4 = Undifferentiated
M = Male F = Female

Appendix C

Bem Sex-Role Inventory

Sampler Set

**Manual, Test Booklet (Short and Original)
Scoring Key (Short and Original)**

by Sandra Lipsitz Bem

Distributed by MIND GARDEN

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I.d. Classifying Subjects with the BSRI

When the BSRI was first designed, subjects were classified into sex-role groups for purposes of research. The classification was based on Student's *t*-ratio for the difference between the total points assigned to the feminine and masculine attributes. Thus, if a person's Femininity score was significantly higher than her or his Masculinity score, that person was said to have a feminine sex role; and if a person's Masculinity score was significantly higher than her or his Femininity score, that person was said to have a masculine sex role. In contrast, if a person's Femininity and Masculinity scores were approximately equal, that person was said to have an androgynous sex role. An androgynous sex role thus represented the equal endorsement of feminine and masculine personality characteristics; it showed a balance between femininity and masculinity.

As Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) and Strahan (1975) have pointed out, however, this definition of androgyny served to obscure a potentially important distinction between those individuals who score high on both femininity and masculinity, and those individuals who score low on both. Accordingly, Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp recommend dividing subjects at the median on both the Femininity and Masculinity scales and then deriving a fourfold classification of subjects: feminine (high feminine-low masculine), masculine (high masculine-low feminine), androgynous (high masculine high feminine), and undifferentiated (low masculine-low feminine). See above.

In order to determine whether one or the other of these two definitions of psychological androgyny was likely to have greater utility for future research, the BSRI was administered to a large group of undergraduate subjects who also completed a variety of other paper-and pencil questionnaires; the results of earlier laboratory studies were also reanalyzed with the low-low scorers grouped separately (Bem, 1977). The results indicated that a distinction between high-high and low-low scorers did seem to be warranted and that the BSRI should be scored to yield four distinct groups of feminine, masculine, androgynous, and undifferentiated subjects.

Accordingly, it is now recommended that subjects be classified into sex-role groups on the basis of a median split, a standard research technique for creating a typology from subjects' scores on any questionnaire or personality inventory. In this particular case, of course, a sample of subjects is divided at the median on both the Femininity and the Masculinity scales, and a fourfold classification is derived with subjects designated as feminine, masculine, androgynous, or undifferentiated. In order for these various designations to be comparable across the two sexes, a single Femininity median and a single Masculinity median are calculated on the basis of a single *combined* sample including both female and male subjects, and the combined sample is weighted, if necessary, in order to equalize the number of females and males.

Using this method for the normative sample, 39 percent of the females are classified as feminine, 12 percent as masculine, 30 percent as androgynous, and 18 percent as undifferentiated. For males, the corresponding percents are 12, 42, 20, and 27. Comparable data for the Short Form and for another method of classifying subjects is presented in Table D-1, Appendix D.

Table D-1 shows that on the Short Form fewer subjects are classified as traditionally sex-typed, and more subjects are classified as androgynous and sex-reversed. This decrease in sex-typing on the Short BSRI probably reflects the same two factors mentioned earlier: (a) the higher social desirability of the particular feminine items retained on the Short BSRI and (b) the elimination of particular feminine and masculine items that correlated more in factor analyses with subjects' biological sex than with the other items on their respective scales.

The median split method, which classifies a subject only with reference to the norms of a particular sample, gives no consideration to the difference between her or his Femininity and Masculinity scores. Accordingly, some individuals are inevitably classified as feminine or masculine despite the fact that their own Femininity and Masculinity scores are approximately equal, and, additional individuals are inevitably classified as androgynous or undifferentiated although their Femininity and Masculinity scores are quite different from one another. These problematic cases all represent individuals who score near the cutoff point for femininity or masculinity or both. Such cases are an inevitable part of any classification scheme, and they constitute an additional source of "noise" or error in any research design.

Appendix D discusses a hybrid method for classifying individuals that utilizes both the Femininity-minus Masculinity score and the median split as bases of classification. The median split method is recommended for most purposes, however, because it is much simpler to execute.

II. Construction of the Inventory

II.a. Theoretical Rationale

For years, personality theory has been dominated by the "trait" assumption that there are pervasive cross situational consistencies in an individual's behavior. After reviewing the evidence, Mischel (1968) concluded that the empirical search for such consistencies or traits rarely generates correlations above $+0.30$, and so a theory of general personality traits does not seem to be warranted. Instead, he argues that behavior is remarkably situation specific, that individuals are quite sensitive to small changes in situational demands and vary their behavior accordingly.

Not surprisingly, Mischel's conclusion provoked a good deal of debate within the field of personality, primarily because of his contention that the $+0.30$ ceiling on cross-situational correlation coefficients reflected true behavioral variability rather than imperfect methodology, a contention constituting a fundamental challenge for the field of personality. Accordingly, Mischel's controversial conclusion has renewed interest in the notion that interaction between the person and the situation accounts for much of the psychologically interesting variance in behavior (Endler & Magnusson, 1976; Magnusson & Endler, 1977).

What follows from Mischel's position, however, is not that individual differences do not exist nor even that there is no utility in studying them. Rather, Mischel's position implies that we should reverse our usual assumption of consistency as given and inconsistency as problematic and instead adopt the view that it is the phenomenon of consistency (when it appears) that must be explained. Such an approach shifts the burden of proof and leads us to ask why a person's behavior might display consistency rather than why it does not; it also suggests that behavioral consistency might itself be an important individual difference variable (e.g., Bem & Allen, 1974; Campus, 1974).

In the special case of sex roles, this shift of emphasis brings two idealized groups of individuals into focus: those sex-typed individuals who restrict their behavior to conform to cultural definitions of sex-appropriate behavior and those androgynous individuals who do not. Thus, we can view the situational adaptability ("inconsistency") of the androgynous group as the unmarked norm (the given, the baseline), and regard the sex-stereotyped consistency of the sex-typed group as marked or problematic and as the phenomenon to be explained.

Because the BSRI was developed in order to identify these particular groups of individuals, its construction was based on two specific theoretical assumptions. First, largely as a result of historical accident, contemporary American culture has clustered heterogeneous attributes into two mutually exclusive categories, each category considered both more characteristic of and more desirable for females or males; these cultural expectations and prescriptions are well known by virtually all members of the

culture. Secondly, individuals vary in the extent to which they use these cultural definitions as idealized standards of femininity and masculinity for evaluating their own personality and behavior. In particular, the sex typed individual is highly attuned to these definitions and is motivated to keep her or his behavior consistent with them, a goal she or he presumably accomplishes both by selecting behaviors and attributes that enhance the image and by avoiding behavior and attributes that violate the image. In contrast, the androgynous individual is less attuned to these cultural definitions of femininity and masculinity and is less likely to regulate her or his behavior in accordance with them. The BSRI is thus based on a theory about both the cognitive processing and the motivational dynamics of sex-typed and androgynous individuals (Bem, 1972; Bem, 1979; Bem, 1981).

II.b. The Original Form (60 Items)

Feminine and Masculine Items. Both historically and cross-culturally, femininity and masculinity have each represented complementary domains of *positive* traits and behaviors. According to Parsons and Bales (1955), femininity has been associated with an expressive orientation, an affective concern for the welfare of others and the harmony of the group, whereas masculinity has been associated with an instrumental orientation, a cognitive focus on getting the job done or the problem solved. Similarly, Bakan (1966) has suggested that femininity is associated with a "communal" orientation, a concern for the relationship between oneself and others, whereas masculinity is associated with an "agentic" orientation, a concern for oneself as an individual. Finally, Erikson's (1964) anatomical distinction between "inner" (female) and "outer" (male) space represents an analogue to a quite similar psychological distinction between a more "ethical" feminine commitment to "resourcefulness in peacekeeping and devotion in healing" and a masculine "fondness for what works and for what man can make, whether it helps to build or to destroy."

Accordingly, as a preliminary to item selection for the Femininity and Masculinity scales, a list was compiled of approximately 200 personality characteristics that seemed to the author and several students to be positive in value and either feminine or masculine in tone. This list served as the pool from which the feminine and masculine characteristics were ultimately chosen. A personality characteristic was defined as feminine or masculine if it was judged to be significantly more desirable in American society for one sex than for the other.

Judges used a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 ("Not at all desirable") to 7 ("Extremely desirable"), in order to rate the desirability of the characteristics. (E.g., "In American society, how desirable is it for a woman to be athletic?" "In American society, how desirable is it for a man to be dominant?") Judges rated the desirability of all the personality characteristics either "for a woman" or "for a man;" no judge was asked to rate both. The judges consisted of 100 undergraduates at Stanford University in 1972, half female and half male.

In order to ensure that each judge would rate the various characteristics from the perspective of the culture at large and not from the perspective of her or his own personal value system, the instructions emphasized that we were not interested in their own personal opinion of how desirable the various characteristics were, but in their judgment of how American society would evaluate the various characteristics. A copy of the instructions can be found in Appendix A, along with the total item pool.

A personality characteristic qualified as feminine if it was independently judged by both females and males to be significantly more desirable for a woman than for a man ($p < .05$, two-tailed). Similarly, a personality characteristic qualified as masculine if it was independently judged by both females and males to be significantly more desirable for a man than for a woman ($p < .05$, two-tailed). Of the seventy-six characteristics that satisfied these various criteria, twenty were selected for the Femininity scale and twenty were selected for the Masculinity scale. These feminine and masculine personality characteristics are displayed in Appendix A-3 and A-4 respectively, along with their social desirability ratings.

As the social desirability ratings indicate, the feminine attributes were rated as higher in social desirability than the masculine attributes⁷. Consider the social desirability ratings for the "appropriate" sex first. When feminine attributes were being evaluated "for a woman" and masculine attributes "for a man," ten of the feminine attributes received an overall desirability rating (female and male judges combined) of 6.2 or higher on a 7-point scale, as compared with only two of the masculine attributes. The same pattern emerged in the ratings for the "inappropriate" sex: when feminine attributes were being evaluated "for a man" and masculine attributes "for a woman," eleven of the feminine attributes received an overall rating of 4.0 or higher, as compared with only two of the masculine attributes. This discrepancy was not restricted to the attributes selected for the two scales, but was observed among the unselected attributes as well. In an attempt to balance the overall social desirability of the scales, a number of feminine attributes somewhat lower in social desirability (e.g., gullible, childlike, shy) were included, thereby increasing the variance of the social desirability ratings within the set of feminine items as well.

Table 6 displays the mean social desirability ratings for the items on the Femininity and Masculinity scales considered as a group. For both females and males, the mean desirability of the feminine and masculine items was significantly higher for the "appropriate" sex than for the "inappropriate" sex. These results are, of course, a direct consequence of the criteria used for item selection.

The social desirability ratings were gathered in 1972, and the definition of "appropriate" female and male behavior has been the subject of intense debate in American society during the intervening years. Nevertheless, a recent replication at the University of Washington indicates that the social desirability judgments upon which the BSRI was based are relatively stable across both time and geographical locale (Walkup & Abbott,

1978). In 1977, undergraduates at the University of Washington were asked to rate the desirability of the items on the BSRI, following exactly the same procedure and instructions that we had used in 1972. Of the forty feminine and masculine items, thirty-seven were judged by both female and male judges to be significantly more desirable in American society for the appropriate sex. The results for the three exceptions (loyal, willing to take risks, and individualistic) were in the predicted direction, but reached significance only for female judges. Accordingly, the BSRI appears to tap relatively enduring definitions of femininity and masculinity, culturally defined standards of sex-appropriate behavior that have not given way even in the face of a strong feminist critique in the society at large⁸.

Table 6
Mean Social Desirability Ratings of the 20 Feminine and 20 Masculine items
Considered as a Group

	Female Judges		Male Judges	
	Fem. Items	Masc. Items	Fem. Items	Masc. Items
For a Woman	5.55	3.46	5.61	2.90
For a Man	3.74	5.83	3.63	5.59
Difference	1.81	2.37	1.98	2.69
<i>t</i>	8.28*	10.22*	12.13*	14.41*

* $p < .001$.

Table 7
Loadings of the 20 Feminine Items
in a Two-Factor Varimax Orthogonal Solution*

Factors:	Females		Males	
	I	II	I	II
Affectionate	.178	.552	.180	.568
Cheerful	.131	.525	.213	.382
Childlike	-.112	.014	-.242	.061
Compassionate	.044	.742	.059	.785
Does not use harsh language	-.202	.214	-.127	.276
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	-.023	.600	-.026	.630
Feminine	-.028	.308	-.265	-.041
Flatterable	.033	.130	.012	.185
Gentle	.005	.739	-.153	.734
Gullible	-.097	.027	-.309	.046
Loves Children	.019	.383	.070	.426
Loyal	.117	.285	.224	.394
Sensitive to the needs of others	.111	.729	.099	.660
Shy	-.464	-.002	-.447	-.022
Soft-spoken	-.476	.210	-.459	.159
Sympathetic	-.052	.666	-.051	.655
Tender	.125	.737	.008	.719
Understanding	.092	.635	.083	.624
Warm	.117	.715	.045	.740
Yielding	-.323	.133	-.399	.189

*Loadings >.35 are bolded

Table 8
Loadings of the 20 Masculine Items
in a Two-Factor Varimax Orthogonal Solution*

Factors:	Females		Males	
	I	II	I	II
Acts as a leader	.716	.093	.685	.155
Aggressive	.712	-.003	.578	-.043
Ambitious	.386	.156	.441	.135
Analytical	.194	.097	.142	.055
Assertive	.759	.079	.712	-.034
Athletic	.280	.085	.238	.196
Competitive	.301	-.088	.410	.014
Defends own beliefs	.528	.200	.500	.147
Dominant	.664	-.190	.700	-.096
Forceful	.646	-.001	.635	-.056
Has leadership abilities	.672	.132	.697	.227
Independent	.458	.100	.516	.047
Individualistic	.469	.142	.425	.063
Makes decisions easily	.345	.099	.451	.061
Masculine	.132	-.131	.315	.217
Self-reliant	.371	.156	.427	.114
Self-sufficient	.344	.147	.470	.035
Strong personality	.675	.247	.691	.129
Willing to take a stand	.541	.146	.599	.093
Willing to take risks	.421	.117	.408	.135

*Loadings >.35 are **bolded**

Filler Items. In addition to the forty items constituting the Femininity and Masculinity scales, the BSRI includes 20 items initially selected to serve (a) as filler items and (b) as a measure of social desirability response set in a domain that is neutral with respect to sex stereotypes. These items and their 1972 social desirability ratings are presented in Appendix A-5. Although the filler items were originally selected from the item pool in Appendix A because they were judged to be no more desirable for one sex than for the other (see Bem, 1974, for details), more recent ratings (Walkup & Abbott, 1978) indicate that the so-called neutrality of about half of these items cannot be considered a reliable finding. Accordingly, these items are no longer scored and they serve only as filler.

II.c. The Short Form (30 Items)

The Short BSRI includes exactly half of the items on the Original BSRI. It constitutes a refinement of the Original BSRI, and it will also serve as a convenience in scoring. As of this writing, all analyses of the thirty-item form are based on a rescoring of the Original BSRI. Feminine and masculine items were selected for the Short BSRI in order to maximize both the internal consistency of the Femininity and Masculinity scales and the orthogonality between them. Specifically, factor analyses were performed for females and males separately on the forty feminine and masculine items from the Original BSRI with the number of extracted factors restricted to two⁹. Squared multiple correlations were used as the initial estimates of the communalities, and the extracted factors were subjected to a varimax orthogonal rotation. Tables 7 and 8 display the loadings of the feminine and masculine items, respectively, on each of the two extracted factors for females and males separately. Loadings greater than .35 are bolded. Eleven of the original feminine items and fourteen of the original masculine items had loadings of this magnitude for both sexes. These twenty-five characteristics constituted the item pool for the short form.

Directions for Scoring the Short Form

For the **Masculinity Scale (b)**, add up the respondents *values* of these 10 item numbers:

1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 19, 22, 25, 28.

___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = ___ ÷ 10 _____ = raw score

For the **Femininity Scale (a)**, add up the respondents *values* of these 20 item numbers:

2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17, 20, 23, 26, 29.

___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = ___ ÷ 10 _____ = raw score

The **raw scores** are obtained by *dividing* by 10 to find the average scores.

There are 10 items for the Short Form, *less any omissions*. The other items are fillers and aren't included in scoring.

On the information page in the test booklet, place these raw scores in the boxes marked "R.S." and "b" for the Masculinity scale and "R.S." and "a" for the Femininity scale.

To convert these raw scores into Standard Scores go to Table 1 in the manual under the section **I.b. Administration and Scoring**.

For the box "S.S." and "a" put the Standard Score from the column marked **Femininity (a) Standard Score (Short)** in Table 1. For the box "S.S." and "b" put the Standard Score from the column marked **Masculinity (b) Standard Score (Short)**.

Then find the difference between these two standard scores by *subtracting* the **Masculinity score** from the **Femininity score (a - b)**. Go to Table 2 to convert the difference S.S. score to a **Short Form T-Score**.

EXAMPLE: If for example, when using the **Short Form** of 30 items, the addition of all the **Femininity Scale (a)** responses is 34, then the **raw score** would be **3.40** (34 divided by 10). Then, in Table 1, the 3.40 would have a **Femininity (a) Standard Score - Short** of 25. Do the same for the **Masculinity Scale (b)** responses using the **Masculinity (b) Standard Score - Short** column. Then take the difference between the two standard scores, like 25 - 47 (from a raw score of 4.60 from the "b" total) and obtain a value of -18. Then look at Table 2 and find -18 under the column **Difference SS** and the **Short Form T-Score** is 36.