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A COMPARISON OF INFORMATION IN TV ADVERTISEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND SOUTH KOREA

By

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARISON OF INFORMATION IN TV ADVERTISEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND SOUTH KOREA

By

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The purpose of this study was to analyze and compare the number of information cues in TV advertisements in the United States of America and South Korea. It was hypothesized that: (1) the average number of information cues would be higher in the TV advertisements produced in South Korea than in those produced in the United States; (2) the average number of information cues would be higher in (a) the introductory stage of the product life-cycle of the advertised product category than in the growth stage and (b) the growth stage of the product life-cycle of the advertised product category than in the maturity stage; and (3)the average number of information cues would differ across product categories, such that there would be more information cues in durable product advertisements than in nondurable product advertisements.

The sample consisted of 331 U.S. and 282 Korean advertisements. A coding instrument was developed in the English and Korean languages. It contained 36 information cues and the four stages of the product life-cycle. U.S. and Korean coders were trained to extract the data from

advertisements, working only in their respective native languages.

The data were evaluated by using t-tests and Chi-square methods. It was found that Korean advertisements contained more information cues than did U.S. advertisements. Korean advertisements in the growth stage of the product life-cycle contained more information cues than those in the maturity stage, and for U.S. advertisements the introductory stage than the growth. The number of information cues did not differ significantly according to the nature of product in U.S. advertisements, but in the Korean case, advertisements for nondurable products contained more information cues than those for durable products.

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I would like to dedicate this thesis to the Lord, who will be with me forever.

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. Purpose of the Study

Culture is particularly important in advertising since communication is so closely tied to cultural norms. A consumer exposed to a specific culture is influenced by that culture's way of thinking and feeling. Value systems, attitudes, and even perception processes are culturally influenced (Hallowell 1972). Consequently, promotional communications are developed to coincide with a particular society's cultural norms. The pattern of advertising communication can be different across different countries.

One aspect of advertising communication, information content, has been studied by a number of researchers. Few cross-cultural studies have been done, however, and their methods were not adequate to ascertain and compare the differences in content between or more countries (for example, Dowling 1980).

The purpose of this study is objectively to investigate and compare information cues in TV advertisements in two different countries, the United States of America and South Korea.

2. Statement of the Problem

The objective of all advertisement is to influence thinking and buying (Greyser 1972). One reason consumers attend to advertisements is to gain useful information (Aaker and Myers 1982). Numerous researchers have analyzed the information content in advertisements (Marquez 1977; Resnik and Stern 1977; Stern, Resnik and Grubb 1977; Laczniak 1979; Reid and Rotfeld 1981; Stern, Krugman, and Resnik 1981; Aaker and Norris, 1982; Tom, Calvert, Goolkatsian, and Zumsteg 1984). In these studies information was defined as permitting "a typical consumer to make a more intelligent buying decision after seeing the advertisement than before seeing it" (Resnik and Stern 1977). Indeed, for determining the information value of advertisements, most researchers have used Resnik and Stern's 14 information cues. Their definition implies that an information cue in an advertisement is one which appeals to consumers' cognition rather than affect.

A few investigations of information content in advertisements have been conducted from a cross-cultural perspecive (Dowling 1980; Sepstrup 1985; Madden Caballero, and Matsukubo 1986; Hong, Muderrisoglu, and Zinkhan 1987). Most of these researchers also used Resnik and Stern's 14 cues to evaluate and compare the informativeness of advertisements in two or more countries.

These studies have some problems, however, a major one being that the 14 cues were simply used as a coding scheme without considering its adequacy for analyzing different countries' advertisements.

Therefore, in this thesis several issues are addressed. (1) Develop a methodology to measure and analyze the information content of TV advertisements across countries. (2) Assess whether the information content in TV advertisements in the United States and South Korea are significantly different. (3) If they are different, examine the nature of the differences.

3. Scope of the Study

Advertisements are a major force in providing consumer information (Stern, Resnik, and Grubb, 1977). Many social critics and advertising practitioners differ in their views of what the information in advertisements means.

Underlying the long-standing debate is the question of whether advertisements are informative or persuasive. One problem is semantics, for the terms persuasion and information have never been clearly differentiated (Marquez 1977). One effort to do so states that persuasion is the same as manipulation, while information is "the physical, chemical, engineering, and similar technical

attributes of the product being advertised" (Nicosia 1974). Another variation characterizes persuasion as nonobjective and information as objective. These definitions leave the impression that persuasion in advertisements is empty and says nothing about the product, while information is specific, definite, and tangible.

It has been argued, however, that advertisement information cannot be viewed with complete objectivity because consumer processing of messages is a function of a number of behavioral and psychosocial constructs that result in subjective perceptions. These prevent the clean separation of persuasive and information elements.

Greyser (1972) believes the matter of whether advertisements' role is that of information /education or persuasion/advocacy is a false dichotomy. He argues that advertisements are both information and persuasion. Advertisement is a form of commercial communciation and pursues its goal by information, which is to influence thinking and buying. From his standpoint, information in advertisements is "information with a persuasive purpose." Similarly, Hunt (1976) concludes that the "information-persuasion" dichotomy is manifestly illogical, a phony dichotomy because advertisements that most observers would surely categorize as very informative are often very persuasive. In a slightly different context, Eldridge

(1974) sees advertisements as being made up of two components, the product story or the "what-to-say" and the advertisement technique or the "how-to-say-it." The first component seems to be information, and the second persuasion.

Persuasion is beyond the scope of the present study; here, information in advertisments means only the physical and "what-to-say" component. The main purpose of this research is to analyze objectively the information content of TV advertisements in two different countries by using a strict cross-cultural methodology for content analysis. The focus is on a source-oriented cross-cultural perspective, rather than a consumer's perspective.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Domestic Studies of Information Content in Advertisements

(1) Studies in the United States

Resnik and Stern (1977) suggested 14 information cues as the evaluative criteria of informativeness and analyzed 378 TV advertisements with those cues. An advertisement needed only to contain one of the 14 cues to be considered "informative." They found differences in information content depending on the time placement of the advertisement and the nature of the product. Noninformative advertisements mainly were broadcast during the weekday afternoons and weekend mornings. Advertisements for food, personal care, and laundry and household products tended to be informative in less than 50 percent of the recorded instances.

In an extension of this study, Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977) used the cues and found that the informativeness of advertisements varied significantly by broadcast times, classifications of products, and stage in product and brand life-cycles. In terms of time placement and product categories, results similar to Resnik and Stern (1977) were shown. As for life-cycles, products

and/or brands in the development stage were likely to be advertised in an informational manner, while those in the mature stage were not.

Resnik and Stern's 14 information cues were applied again to another sample of 1,500 advertisements from 100 consumer magazines (Stern, Krugman, and Resnik 1981). The informativeness in magazine advertisements was also shown to differ according to product categories. Consistent with earlier studies, the advertisements for durable or expensive products tended to provide more information.

Another information content analysis of TV advertisements, by Tom, Calvert, Goolkatsian, and Zumsteg (1984), used Resnik and Stern's cues and supported Resnik and Stern's findings.

Utilizing a different technique, Marquez (1977) analyzed the content of 600 newspaper and magazine advertisements to determine whether they were informative or persuasive. Using dictionary definitions of information persuasion, the study concluded that whether the content of advertisements was basic persuasion or basic information depended on the type of product being advertised. Products which are inexpensive and non-technical in nature and operation, such as wine or tobacco, tended to be advertised with basic persuasion. Those which require advocacy of a point of view (institutions), mechanical operations (cars, trucks, and

automotive parts), terms of purchase (books and book clubs), or information on the product itself (catalogs and periodicals) were likely to be advertised with basic information. Therefore, the content of advertisements was a function of the type of product.

In a separate follow-up study, Laczniak (1979) argued that the Marquez definitional approach was too subjective to assess information content accurately. He analyzed 380 advertisements in consumer magazines based on Resnik and Stern's information cues. His research also indicated that advertisements for institutions or household tools and applicances were more informative than for food or cosmetics and toiletries.

With a slightly different perspective on informativeness in advertisements, Aaker and Norris (1982) attempted to determine what characteristics are associated with an informative advertisement. Based on factor analysis, they developed 20 criteria, using a consumer rather than a source perspective. The most frequently mentioned characteristics were "newness of object, product type, hard versus soft sell, product class versus brand, and problem posed."

Stewart and Furse (1986) examined the influence of TV advertisement execution on representative sets of consumers viewing TV advertisements within a fairly typical exposure setting. Among the executional variables

they discovered, information variables, which consisted of 26 criteria, were identified. The single most important advertisement executional factor related to persuasiveness was the presence of a brand-differentiating message.

In summary, information content varied by nature of product, time placement of advertisements, and the life-cycle stage of the product. Advertisements for durable goods tended to be more informative than those for non-durable goods. Generally, advertisements aired in the evening contained more informations than those broadcast in the morning or afternoon. And advertisements for the introductory stage products were more informative than those for the mature stage products.

(2) Studies in South Korea

Few studies have been reported in South Korea. Hong (1983) conducted a content analysis of advertisements in women's magazines. Two kinds of scales were used to determine informativeness or persuasiveness. One was modified from Marquez's categories (1977) and the other from Resnik and Stern's cues. The study indicated that the advertisements in women's magazines tended to be more persuasive than informative. Furthermore, the level of informativeness differed according to the nature of the product advertised.

In a study of the relationship between information and sex-role stereotypic content in TV advertisements, Cho (1986) suggested that the Resnik and Stern cues are not adequate because they dealt only with quantity of information without considering its quality. Cho modified Swagler's five-point scale (1975) based on the advertising regulation of South Korea and used it to analyze 120 TV advertisements. Assessment of the quality of information contained in an advertisement was based on how much misleading or factual content was provided. Informative advertisements constituted only 5 percent of the total sample. Also, advertisements for durable goods tended to be more informative than those for nondurable goods.

In summary, although there has been little research on information content of advertisements in South Korea, the results are very similar to studies done in the United States on nature of the product. Informativeness of advertisements was related to whether the product was a durable or nondurable good. However, the relationships of informativeness to life-cycle stage and to time placement of TV advertisements were not studied.

2. Cross-Cultural Studies of Information Content in Advertisements

Dowling (1980) assessed the information content of

Australian TV advertisements and compared the findings with those of Resnik and Stern (1977) and Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977). To analyze Australian advertisements, Resnik and Stern's 14 information cues were used. The comparison indicated differences in overall informativeness and in the association of informativeness to time placement and to type of product. Overall, Australian advertisements were more informative than those of the United States. In contrast, Australian advertisements shown in the evening were less informative than those aired in the morning. Advertisements for food, institutional, and personal care products were informative in 60 percent of the cases for Australia and 46 percent for U.S., but the relative levels of informativeness for the categories were in the same direction.

The research by Renforth and Raveed (1983) focused on information content in TV advertisements of Ecuador, Australia, and the United States. Differences were found according to broadcast time and type of products. In the United States, evening advertisements were far more informative than those broadcast during the morning or afternoon, while in Ecuador and Australia the patterns were reversed. There was no significant association between information content and the types of products advertised. Overall, advertisements in Ecuador were more informative. The reason may be that providing information

is especially important in a developing country, where people may not always be aware of the possibilities which new products offer.

The study by Sepstrup (1985) of TV advertisements attempted to concentrate on the informative dimensions and to exclude cultural, ideological, and other long-run effects. The information content of TV advertisements on the European transnational satellite network "Sky Channel" and the West German channel ZDF was analyzed by 24 information cues. In contrast to previous research (Resnik and Stern 1977; Stern, Resnik, and Grubb 1977; Stern, Krugman, and Resnik 1981; Tom, Calvert, Goolkatsian, and Zumsteg 1984; Marquez 1977; Laczniak 1979), it was noteworthy that advertisements for cleaning and washing and for personal care carried more information than did advertisements for durables for home and garden. It might be inferred that TV advertisements had limited value since information relevant to most purchasing decisions was not communicated to a degree that would seem to be of practical significance.

Information content in U.S. and Japanese magazine advertisements was analyzed by Madden, Caballero, and Matsukubo (1986). As another partial replication of the Stern, Krugman, and Resnik study (1981), they ananlyzed six categories of magazines in both countries by the 14 cues. The results indicated that Japanese advertisements

were generally more informative than their U.S. counterparts, and those for durable products were more informative than for nondurable products in both countries.

Hong, Muderrisoglu, and Zinkhan (1987) also did a comparative content analysis of Japanese and U.S. magazine advertisements. They focused on degree of emotional appeal, informativeness, and comparativeness. For informativeness, they used Resnik and Stern's cues but excluded two, "taste" and "nutrition," because they were not related to the products studied. The unexpected result was that Japanese advertisements were more informative than U.S. advertisements according to the average number of information cues. However, as expected, advertisements in Japan were more emotionally oriented than in the United States.

Generally, as did the domestic studies, the cross-cultural research showed that differences in information content varied by nature of product and time placement. However, in Sepstrup's study (1985), advertisements for nondurable products were more informative than those for durable goods.

3. Problems of the Cross-Cultural Studies

Methodological problems arise in most of the cross-

cultural studies of information content in advertisements.

First, with the exception of Sepstrup (1985), all studies used only Resnik and Stern's 14 information cues without any modification. These cues might not be adequate cross-culturally, however. For example, information in TV advertisements may be conveyed in various ways, such as voice-over, music, or letters. Furthermore, information in TV advertisements can be implicit or explicit. In previous research, it was not explained how these points were handled.

Second, even though two or more bilingual coders were employed to evaluate the informativeness of advertisements in two or more countries, the process by which the coding instrument was translated from one language to another was never reported.

Third, it was not explained how the coding procedure was carried out. Moreover, no mention was made of any attempt to discern whether there were problems of equivalence. The issue of functional, conceptual, and linguistic equivalence arises in cross-cultural content analysis (Berry 1980). Functional equivalence exists when two or more behaviors are related to functionally similar problems. Frijda and Jahoda (1966) state: "Obviously if similar activities have different functions in different societies, their parameters cannot be used for comparative purposes." Conceptual equivalence relates to the meaning

of concepts. Linguistic equivalence deals with equality of the operationalization of the conceptual equivalence. Linguistic equivalence usually can be established only after the data have been collected and analyzed.

Finally, the informativeness of advertisements can differ according to the life-cycle of the products advertised. The farther along the product is in the life-cycle, the less basic information consumers seek and marketers provide in advertisements (Greyser 1972). For example, products in the development stages are more likely to be advertised informationally, while mature product advertisements are more likely not to contain information (Stern, Resnik, and Grubb 1977). Therefore, it might be meaningful to compare the informativeness of advertisements in different countries in terms of the stages of product life-cycle.

4. Theoretical Background of the Study

(1) Information and Product Life-Cycle

Because of different product-market conditions, some advertising campaigns have much more information than others. A particularly relevant consideration is the product's life-cycle, that is, the stages through from beginning to end (Kotler 1980). There are four major

stages: introduction, growth, maturity, and sales decline (see Appendix E). The introductory stage and to a large extent the rapid growth stage tend to be far more information-intensive than the last two stages. In the early phases there is usually considerable information to communicate to a largely unaware target audience. Generally speaking, as the product matures there is less need for basic information because there are fewer and fewer people who donot know the basic facts about the product that marketers provide in advertisements (Greyser 1972). Indeed, some empirical research (Stern, Resnik, and Grubb 1977; Renforth and Ravee 1983) has shown that advertisements in the introduction stage tend to be more informative, while the opposite is true for mature products.

(2) Information and Nature of the Product

Irrespective of life-cycle stage, some products, by their very nature, are bought primarily for reasons unrelated to high information content. Perfume is an example, purchased mainly for self-image and other emotional reasons. In other prouduct categories, such as automobiles, an advertisement's task in the marketing process is to convey information.

The more a person knows, the lower is the propensity

to search, all things being equal (Katona 1964). Research findings supported the obvious conclusion that search is much less probable when a product has been bought repeatedly over time or when the consumer has had other means of gathering considerable previous information. Similarly, the greater the number of brands of the generic product that have been purchased and used, the lower is the likelihood of search (Woodruff 1972). Thus, as a general rule, both the presence and the extent of search vary inversely with the length and breadth of experience (Green, Halbert, and Minas 1964). This might mean that some products, by their very nature, can be bought without much information.

5. Hypotheses

Based on the literature review, several hypotheses concerning the information content of TV advertisements in the United States and South Korea were tested.

Hypothesis 1. The average number of information cues will be higher in Korean than in U.S. TV advertisements.

Hypothesis 2. The average number of information cues will be higher in a product's life-cycle (a) in the introductory stage than in the growth stage and (b) in the

growth stage than in the maturity stage.

Hypothesis 3. The average number of information cues will differ across product categories, such that in both Korean and U.S. advertisements there will be more information cues for durable products than for non-durable products.

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Cross-Cultural Research Methods

Culture can be defined as the distinctive way of thinking, perceiving, feeling, believing, and behaving of a given human society, which is passed on from one generation to another (Root 1987). Individuals are enculturated as they grow up in their society. The knowledge, values, beliefs, customs, and mores that make up the culture are interrelated to form a more or less integrated whole. Thus, a culture consists of learned behavior traits that are shared by members of a social group and distinguish that group from other groups with different cultures.

Cross-cultural method is often identified with comparative study (Berry 1980). Comparison in its broadest sense is the process of discovering similarities and differences among phenomena (Warwick and Osherson 1975). It has been argued that the comparative method is the core of the scientific method; without comparison, differences, similarities, covariation, and cause cannot be observed or inferred (Berry 1980). Warwick and Osherson view comparison as an essential effort in social scientific analysis. From their perspective, comparative method involves observations in more than one social

system, or in the same social system at more than one point in time. Frey (1970), in contrast, draws a distinction between cross-cultural and cross-national. The former essentially deals with research in social units that share patterns of behavior and orientaion regardless of national identity, while the latter refers to researching social units at a specific political level regardless of the similarity in their cultures. Here, the term cross-cultural refers primarily to comparing units of analysis in each of the two cultures, the United States and South Korea, regardless of the nationality dimension.

2. Content Analysis for Cross-Cultural Studies

(1) Overview of Content Analysis

Content analysis, in its broadest sense, refers to the systematic scrutiny of any set of material (oral, written, pictorial representations, body language, and so forth) that might yield important generalizations about human behavior (Brislin 1980). More specifically, in the communication area, study of content variables is approached apart from the study of the communicator or the audience (Kassarjian 1977). The signs and symbols are the units of analysis rather than the intent of the

communicator or the actions of the interpreter.

Although disagreements can be found in the literature concerning the exact scope of content analysis, there are four basic characteristics on which there is a wide agreement (Kassarjian 1977; Brislin 1980). The first is objectivity, requiring the categories of analysis to be defined so precisely that different analysts may apply them to the same body of content and secure the same results. In other words, objectivity means that content analysis must proceed according to explicit rules, so that a wide range of content will be examined, not simply that which is likely to support the researcher's hypothesis. The second is systematization, meaning that the inclusion and exclusion of communications content or analysis categories is done according to consistently applied rules. The third characteristic is quantification of judgments, which distinguishes content analysis from ordinary critical reading. The fourth is generality, meaning that findings must have theoretical relevance.

(2) Measurement of Information Content in TV Advertisements

Interest in measuring the information content of advertisements has been relatively low among researchers. One plausible reason is that advertisement information

cannot be measured with complete objectivity since the extent and type of consumer information processing are a function of a number of behavioral and psychosocial constructs that result in subjective perceptions. Theoretically, two approaches have been used to measure information content in advertisements. The first assesses changes in consumer behavior resulting from advertisement segments (Gardner 1976). The second is content analysis of the advertising message, which is the approach appropriate for this study.

The measure of information content is based upon the degree of uncertainty possessed before the transmission of the message (Shannon and Weaver 1949). More specifically, analysis of the information content of advertisement seeks to isolate quantifiable information that may potentially assist the typical consumer in making an intelligent choice (Stern, Krugman, and Resnik 1981). Such an analysis was first systematically undertaken for TV advertisement (Resnik and Stern 1977). The study established a classification system for advertisement information based on 14 criteria, or "cues," which might be potentially useful to the consumer. Despite an exceedingly liberal definition which required that a TV advertisement contain only one of the information cues to be considered informative, only 49 percent of the sampled TV advertisement met the requirement. As noted earlier,

almost all cross-cultural studies have used Resnik and Stern's 14 cues for determining informativeness of advertisements.

However, this set of cues is not exhaustive enough to analyze and compare the informativeness in advertisements of different countries, and it does not consider the information conveyed in various ways by TV advertisements, such as voice-over, music, or letters. For this reason, a new coding instrument consisting of 36 information cues was developed for this study using the Sepstrup (1985) and Stewart and Furse (1986) studies. Appendix B presents this instrument. As mentioned earlier, Stewart and Furse (1986) were concerned about using ad hoc measures of effectiveness and tried an alternative. They generated an initial list of TV advertisement executional variables from a literature review and informal discussions with advertising professionals. By checking reliabilites of individual variables, they identified 141, including 26 information items. A total of 1,059 TV advertisements were analyzed using the 141 variables, and the effectiveness of TV advertisements was tested in terms of consumers' recall of the advertisements, product characteristics, persuasiveness, and brand differentiation. Similarly, as was reviewed briefly, Sepstrup (1985) selected 24 information cues and did content analysis. Since the

coding instrument developed by Cho (1986) included the misleading components in advertisements, it was not appropriate for this study. As was mentioned earlier, only phsical and "what-to-say" components (Eldridge 1974) in advertisements were considered information.

Since TV messages are conveyed by both visual and auditory stimuli, all information content, regardless of stimuli, was considered during the coding procedure for this study. More specifically, visual information, such as product presentaion and letters, and auditory information, such as narration and music, were all coded as one information cue. This might be a way to solve one problem of previous cross-cultural studies. Earlier studies did not distinguish between visual and auditory cues.

(3) Conceptual and Linguistic Equivalence Problems in Content Analysis

As indicated earlier, problems of conceptual and linguistic equivalence arise in cross-cultural content analysis (Berry, 1980). As a way to solve the problem, the coding instruments or coding sheets are translated from source to target language and are back-translated from the target to the source language. In this procedure, two bilinguals are employed, one translating

from the source to the target language, the second translating back from the target to the source. If the two versions in the original language are identical, it is suggested that the target version from the middle of the process is equivalent to the source language forms. If the two source language forms are not identical, the researcher can confer with the two bilinguals, clearing up errors (Brislin 1970).

Translation for cross-cultural research is difficult but essential in formulating coding instruments. Werner and Campbell (1970) have suggested back-translation techniques for cross-cultural research: (1) use simple sentences; (2) repeat nouns rather than pronouns; (3) avoid metaphor and colloquialisms; (4) avoid English passive tense; and (5) avoid hypothetical phrasings or subjunctive mood.

Based on Werner and Campbell's techniques, the codinginstrument for this study, consisting of 36 information cues, was first translated into Korean by Kyu Yeol Chang (Appendix C), a native Korean and doctoral student in Mass Media at Michigan State University, and then back-translated into English by Dr. Dong Hoon Sunoo (Appendix D), a native Korean and U.S. resident for about 20 years who has near-native English language competence; moreover he understands advertising and the use of information in advertisement. In the back-translation

procedure, there appeared to be functional, conceptual or linguistic equivalence problems that could not be overcome by adjusting the data coding instrument and by training the coders to understand the exact meaning of the definitions of information cues..

The life-cycle stages (Kotler 1980) of the advertised products that are used hereare introduction, growth, maturity, and decline. Definitions of each are presented in Appendix E. The definitions were translated into Korean by the researcher (Appendix F) and back-translated into English by Jeong Sun Lee, a graduate student in the Department of Linguistics, Michigan State University (Appendix G), and a native Korean who has lived in U.S. for about 13 years and has a high level of competence in English. In this procedure, there appeared to be no functional, conceptual or linguistic equivalence problems, but the low intercoder reliability (reported later) suggests that perhaps some problems of equivalence went unrecognized. Moreover, although each product stage was rated by coders according to their estimates of the length of time the product had been on the market and the number of competing items, it appears in retrospect that coders had more difficulty in doing so accurately than had been anticipated.

(4) The Sample of Advertisements

The sample of materials to be analyzed will determine the extent to which the researcher can make conclusions about the results of the analysis (Brislin 1980). For example, if only TV advertisements in a country are sampled, conclusions cannot be drawn about information content in all types of advertisements.

TV advertisements in the United States and South Korea were sampled for this study. Those broadcast on CBS (Columbian Broadcasting System) in the United States and MBC (Munwha Broadcasting Corporation) in South Korea, from May 24 through 31, 6:00 p.m. to 12:00 p.m., were selected. Excluded were all political, advocacy, local, cooperative, generic demand, public announcement, and government advertisements. Including only product and service advertisements, the totals were 331 for U.S. and 282 for South Korea. The name list of the sampled TV advertisements is presented in Appendix A.

There are two reasons for choosing only advertisements from the major national TV networks. First, the sample should be representative and proportionate (Holsti 1968). Since the national networks account for the bulk of advertising expenditure in the medium (Swagler 1975), the major networks were thought to be most representative of the advertisements of both

cultures. Second, analysis of network advertisements should render the results of the study more generalizble and comparable.

The advertisements was videotaped and previewed to ascertain the audio and video quality. The sampled advertisements are tabulated in Table 1 and 2 according to the nature of advertised products. Service category was not considered for this study.

(5) Coding Procedures

In content analysis, the usually massive set of original material is transformed, according to a careful set of rules, into a limited number of well-defined categories. Ideally, this results in an economical reduction of the data to manageable proportions, and it allows the researcher to draw conclusions about the study's hypotheses. Without good categories and good coding rules, it is impossible to make any sense out of the original content, and it is impossible to link the original data and the researcher's hypotheses. A helpful, operational way of viewing category formulation and coding is to remember that a number of different analysts must be able to place the same parts of the content into the same categories. The rules must be made explicit if more than one person is to do the analysis, and there has to be more

TABLE 1

Product Categories

Product	United States	Korea	Total
Food	61, 21.6%	63, 19.0%	124, 20.2%
Beverage	19, 6.7	28, 8.5	47, 7.7
Health Food	12, 4.3	7, 2.1	19, 3.1
Alcohols	5, 1.8	15, 4.5	20, 3.3
Tobacco	0	1, .3	1, .2
OTC Drug	52, 18.4	33, 10.0	85, 13.9
Car	3, 1.1	23, 6.9	26, 4.2
Car-Related	1, .4	9, 2.7	10, 1.6
Cosmetics	18, 6.4	8, 2.4	26, 4.2
Personal Care	13, 4.6	29, 8.8	42, 6.9
Detergents	6, 2.1	19, 5.7	25, 4.1
Insecticide	0	2, .6	2, .3
Household Goods	3, 1.1	16, 4.8	19, 3.1
Clothes	23, 8.2	2, .6	25, 4.1
Shoes	5, 1.8	1, .3	6, 1.0
Textile	2, .7	0	2, .3
Furniture	5, 1.8	0	5, .8
Ceramics	3, 1.1	0	3, .5
Electronics	16, 5.7	7, 2.1	23, 3.8
Camera	3, 1.1	5, 1.5	8, 1.3
Computer	0	1, .3	1, .2
Clock	5, 1.8	1, .3	6, 1.0
Comm.Equip.	3, 1.1	0	3, .5
Toys/Games	3, 1.1	0	3, .5
Sporting Goods	4, 1.4	0	4, .7
Pet-Related	0	5, 1.5	5, .8
Entertainment	0	2, .6	2, .3
Publication	2, .7	0	2, .3
Record/Tapes	0	0	0
Stationery	1, .4	0	1, .2
Music Instr.	3, 1.1	0	3, .5
Bldg. Mtrl.	1, .4	3, .9	4, .7
Hotel/Motel	0	0	0
Restaurant	0	9, 2.7	9, 1.5
Movies/Theater	0	0	0
Dept. Store	3, 1.1	0	3, .5
Super Mkt.	0	0	0
Other Retailer	0	3, .9	3, .5
Finance Serv.	3, 1.1	14, .6	17, 2.8
Trnasportation	1, .4	5, 1.5	6, 1.0
Telecomm.Serv.	0	10, 3.0	10, 1.6

Other Services	1, .4	2, .6	3, .5
Institution	0	0	0
Medical Center	0	0	0
Else	2, .7	8, 2.4	10, 1.6
Total	282,100.0	331,100.0	613,100.0

TABLE 2

Frequencies of Advertisements in Designated Product Categories

Product	United States	Korea	Total
Durable	84, 25.38%	59, 20.92%	143, 23.33%
Non-durable	188, 56.80	219, 77.66	407, 66.39
Service	59, 17.82	4, 1.42	63, 10.28
Total	331,100.0	282,100.0	613,100.0

than one analyst if the reliability of the procedure is to be determined (Brislin 1980).

1) Coder Training and Pretesting

Six American and six Koreans were employed to evaluate the sampled advertisements. All were students at Michigan State University. The six American coders were graduate students in the Department of Advertising. Of the Korean coders, three were graduate students and two were undergraduates, all in the Department of Advertising, and the sixth was a graduate student in the Department of Telecommunication. To determine reliability, 90 U.S. and 90 Korean TV advertisements were pair-coded. Each pair of coders coded 30 advertisements. In other words, three pairs of Americans and three pairs of Koreans coded the product life-cycle stage and the informativeness of each country's 90 advertisements. The rest of the TV advertisements were coded by single coders, each doing an equal number.

U.S. and Korean coders were trained separately in four sessions of about 150 minutes each, or a total of about ten hours. U.S. coders were trained in English and Korean coders in Korean. At the first training session, information about general guidelines, research background and purpose, and coding procedures was presented. The

coders were trained to code auditory information first, without seeing the advertisements, then to code visual information without hearing the sound, and finally both together to make sure the auditory and visual cues were correctly coded. They were also trained to code life-cycle stage of the advertised product. Two separate coding instruments in English and Korean were developed (see Appendix H). The codebook, which presents the definitions of the 36 information cues and product life-cycle stages, was reviewed and discussed with the coders.

In the remaining three sessions, 15 TV advertisements of each country were done by each coder. The trainer answered questions and discussed with the coders the definitions of the information cues.

2) Coding of Advertisements

From the total of 331 U.S. and 282 South Korean advertisements, 90 of each country were used for reliability checks. The rest, 241 for the United States and 192 for South Korea, were distributed among individual coders. The six coders of each country coded equal numbers of advertisement either at home or in the class-room, whichever was most convenient. They reported any problems they had while coding. A summary of their reports is presented in Appendix I.

(6) Reliability and Validity

Since the researcher's subjectivity must be minimized to obtain a systematic, objective description of the communications content, the issue of reliability becomes paramount (Kassarjian 1977). Reliability assures that the data obtained are independent of the measuring event, instrument, or person (Kaplan and Goldsen 1949).

One concern is category reliability. This is measuredby the analyst's ability to formulate categories and present to competent judges definitions of the categories so they will agree on which items of a certain population belong in a category and which do not. For this study, category characteristics were discussed during the first day of coder training, and a full understanding was achieved during discussions in subsequent sessions.

A second concern is intercoder reliability, or the percentage of agreement among several coders processing the same materials. Here, the ratio of agreement to the total number of coding decisions was used to determine the reliability among coders, based on the coding results of 90 advertisements, 30 of which were coded by three pairs of coders. The intercoder reliabilities for each country's advertisements are presented in Table 3. For information cues of Korean advertisements, the intercoder

TABLE 3

Intercoder Reliability

Items	United States	Korea
Information		
Brand	.95	.94
Product	.86	.69
Company Name	.86	.89
Price	.97	.96
Variety of Product	.84	.88
Value	.93	.97
Quality	.76	.9
Economy/Savings	.92	.98
Dependability	.9	1.00
Sensory Information	.76	.67
Components	.79	.84
Availability	.9	.98
Packaging	.89	.7
Guarantees	.97	.98
Safety	.97	1.00
Nutrition	.96	.89
Ind. Research	.96	1.00
Company Research	.97	1.00
Unidentified Research	.96	1.00
New Uses	.97	.99
Results of Using	.86	.64
Satisfaction	.72	.72
Superiority	.72	.93
Convenience in Use	.74	.96
Special Offer	.91	1.00
New Product	.86	.87
Use Occasion	.77	.77
Image of Users	.76	.87
Comapny Image	.9	.9
Age/Size of Company	.99	1.00
Variety of Business	.99	1.00
Location	.96	.99
Policies Public	1.00	.99
Policies Government	1.00	1.00
Policies Employees	1.00	1.00
Other (explain)	1.00	.86
Product Life-Cycle	.71	.49

reliabilities for 'Product,' 'Sensory Information,' and 'Results of Using' were lower than .7, which might be average, while the lowest intercoder reliability of U.S. advertisements was .72. Overall, the reliabilities of information cues were relatively high, but for product life-cycle the reliability was very different across countries. For U.S. advertisements, the intercoder reliability for product life-cycle was .71, which might be average, whileit was .49 for Korean advertisements, which might be very low.

(7) Statistical Tests

Since 90 advertisements of each country were coded twice by two coders for reliability checking, one of the two codings was randomly selected to be used in the analysis.

Hypotheses were tested by using SPSS PC + . A t-test was used to test Hypothesis 1, the difference between the average number of information cues in U.S. and Korean TV advertisements. The relationship between the number of information cues and countries was tested by Chi-square. Since four cells had less than five in frequency, the information cues were grouped into five categories: lowest, low, average, above average, and highest. The levels have a range from minimum to 5

(lowest), 6 to 7 (low), 8 (average), 9 to 10 (above average), and 11 to maximum (highest) information cues (Table 5).

Two t-tests were used to test Hypothesis 2, the difference between the average number of information cues in the introductory stage of the product life-cycle as compared to the growth stage and the difference between the average number of information cues in the growth stage as compared to maturity. This analysis was conducted separately for each country.

A t-test was used to test Hypothesis 3, the difference between the average number of information cues in advertisements for durable as opposed to nondurable products. This analysis was conducted separately for each country. The relationship between the number of information cues and product categories was tested by Chi-square. Since 7 cells had less than five in frequency, the information cues were also grouped into five categories: lowest, low, average, above average, and highest. Consistent with Hypothesis 1, the levels have a range from minimum to 5 (lowest), 6 to 7 (low), 8 (average), 9 to 10 (above average), and 11 to maximum (highest) information cues.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE DATA

1. The Difference in Average Number of Information Cues between U.S. and South Korean Advertisements

The result of t-test was consistent with Hypothesis 1: The average number of information cues was higher in the Korean than in the U.S. TV advertisements. The result of this test was $t = 5.552$ (d.f.= 611), $p < .000$ (see Table 4).

Chi-square was used to assess if there is a relationship between culture of origin of the advertisements in U.S. and Korea and the level of information cues. The resultant Chi-square value, $X^2 = 40.33289$ (d.f.= 4), $p < .0000$, indicated that this relationship did exist Table 5. Korean advertisements contained the highest percentage (33.3) of information cues at the "low" level, whereas U.S. advertisements contained the highest percentage (29.0) of information cues at the "lowest" level. Of the Korean advertisements, 80.8 percent were distributed in the range of low to above average (from 6 to 10 information cues), whereas 62.5 percent of U.S. advertisements were in that range.

TABLE 4

Differences in Average Number of Information Cues across Countries

Dimension	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	t	p <
United States	331	7.0181	2.388	5.552	.000
Korea	282	8.0000	1.9127		

TABLE 5

Levels of Information Cues in U.S. and South Korean Advertisements

Level	United States	Korea	Total
Highest	28, 8.5%	29, 10.3%	57, 9.3%
Above Average	58, 17.5	75, 26.6	133, 21.7
Average	55, 16.6	59, 20.9	114, 18.6
Low	94, 28.4	94, 33.3	188, 30.7
Lowest	96, 29.0	25, 8.9	121, 19.7
Total	331,100.0	282,100.0	613,100.0

X^2 = 40.33289; d.f.= 4; p < .0000.

Note: The number of information cues of each range are

Highest ; 11 to maximum
Above Average; 9 to 10
Average ; 8
Low ; 6 to 7
Lowest ; minimum to 5.

2. The Difference in Average Number of Information Cues by Product Life-Cycle Stage

Four t-tests were conducted for Hypothesis 2. Two of them were used to compare the average number of information cues of two different life-cycle stages of the advertised product in U.S. advertisements, introductory and growth stage, and growth and maturity stage. The other two were used for Korean advertisements to compare the same variables.

The results of the two t-tests for U.S. advertisements were $t = 1.969$ (d.f.= 106), $p < .052$ and $t = .917$ (d.f.= 274), $p < .360$ (Table 8). The first result was very close to significant difference, and almost supported the hypothesis that the average number of information cues would be higher in the introductory than in the growth stage. However, the second result failed to support the hypothesis that the average number of information cues would be higher in the growth stage than in maturity. For Korean advertisements, the results of the two t-tests were $t = .136$ (d.f.= 100), $p < .893$ and $t = 2.234$ (d.f.= 236), $p < .026$. The result of the first t-test failed to support the hypothesis that the average number of information cues would be higher in the introductory than in the growth stage. However, the result of the second t-test indicated that the average number of

information cues in the growth stage was higher than in the maturity stage.

Further analysis showed that the average number of information cues in each different life-cycle stage of the advertised product was significantly different across countries, except for the introductory stage (Table 7). For that stage, the mean for U.S. advertisements was 8.02 and for Korean advertisements 8.32, which was not significantly different ($t = .535$; $d.f. = 72$; $p < .595$). However, for other stages, the significant differences appeared as follows: growth, $t = 3.588$ ($d.f. = 134$; $p < .001$); maturity, $t = 4.314$ ($d.f. = 376$; $p < .000$); and decline, $t = 2.592$ ($d.f. = 23$; $p < .016$). This might confirm the result of Hypothesis 1. Overall, the Korean advertisements have more information cues than U.S. advertisements regardless of life-cycle stage of the advertised products. For U.S. advertisements, the average number of information cues in each different life-cycle increased as the products mature (Greyser 1972).

According to the above results, the hypothesized relationship between the information cue and life-cycle stage of the advertised product was supported in cases of growth and maturity for Korean advertisements, and introduction and growth for U.S. advertisements.

TABLE 6

Frequencies of Advertisements in Designated Product Life-Cycle Stages

PLC	United States	Korea	Total
Introduction	49, 14.8%	25, 8.8%	74, 12.1%
Growth	59, 17.8	77, 27.3	136, 22.2
Maturity	217, 65.6	161, 57.1	378, 61.7
Decline	6, 1.8	19, 6.7	25, 4.1
Total	331,100.0	282,100.0	613,100.0

$X^2 = 21.446$; d.f.= 3; $p < .0012$.

TABLE 7

Means of Information Cues in Designated Product Life-Cycle Stages

PLC	United States	Korea	Total
1.Introduction	8.0204	8.3200	8.1216
2.Growth	7.1186	8.3766	7.8309
3.Maturity	6.8018	7.7888	7.2222
4.Decline	5.6667	7.8421	7.3200

1. t = .535; d.f.= 72; p < .595
2. t = 3.588; d.f.= 134; p < .001
3. t = 4.314; d.f.= 376; p < .000
4. t = 2.592; d.f.= 23; p < .016

TABLE 8

Differences in Average Number of Information Cues across Product Life-Cycle Stages

Dimension	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	t	p <
United States					
Introduction	49	8.0204	2.4108	1.969	.052
Growth	59	7.1186	2.3348		
Growth	59	7.1186	2.3348	.917	.360
Maturity	217	6.8018	2.3595		
Korea					
Introduction	25	8.3200	1.9942	.136	.893
Growth	77	8.3766	1.7550		
Growth	77	8.3766	1.7550	2.234	.026
Maturity	161	7.7888	1.9634		

3. The Difference in Average Number of Information Cues between Durable and Nondurable Product Advertisements

The relationship of information cue for durable and nondurable product advertisements was investigated by t-test. The result for U.S. advertisements, $t = .495$ ($d.f. = 276$), $p < .621$, indicated that the average number of information cues did not differ between the two. The result is shown in Table 9. For Korean advertisements, the result of t-test was $t = 5.518$ ($d.f. = 270$), $p < .000$, which supports the hypothesis that the average number of information cues differed across durable and nondurable product advertisements in South Korea. The latter had more information cues than the former.

Table 10 shows the differences in the average number of information cues in advertisements for durable and nondurable products across countries. For nondurable products in the United States and Korea the figure was significantly different ($t = 6.907$; $d.f. = 405$; $p < .000$), while it was not for durable products ($t = .568$; $d.f. = 141$; $p < .571$). Thus, compared to the United States, nondurable product advertisements in Korea have more information cues. This might influence the result of Hypothesis 1. One reason Korean advertisements have more information cues might be because nondurable product advertisements in Korea have more information cues than in

U.S.

Examination of the frequency distribution (Table 11) shows the amount of information cues across durable and nondurable product categories. As the result of t-test, the Chi-square analysis, X^2 = 3.70428 (d.f.= 4), p < .4475, of U.S. advertisements indicated that the amount of information cues was not related to durable and nondurable product category. However, the Chi-square result, X^2 = 34.20196; d.f.= 4;, p < .0000, for Korean advertisements supported that the amount of information cues is related to product category. Of the nondurable product advertisements in Korea, 33.5 percent were rated "above average," which is in the range of 9 to 10 information cues; only 3.7 percent were rated as being the "lowest" (least informative). For durable products, 40.5 percent of advertisements were in the "low" level of information content; 20.2 percent were rated as being the "lowest" level.

TABLE 9

Differences in Average Number of Information Cues across Durable and Nondurable Product Advertisements

Dimension	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	t	p <
United States					
Durable	59	2.3729	1.2717	.495	.621
Nondurable	219	2.4658	1.2824		
Korea					
Durable	84	2.4167	1.1108	5.518	.000
Nondurable	188	3.2234	1.1153		

TABLE 10

Means of Information Cues in Designated Product Categories

Product	United States	Korea	Total
1.Durable	6.9153	7.1190	7.0350
2.Nondurable	6.9772	8.4309	7.6486

1. t = .568; d.f.= 141; p < .571
2. t = 6.907; d.f.= 405; p < .000

TABLE 11

Levels of Information Cues in Durable and Nondurable Product Advertisements

Level	Durable	Nondurable	Total
United States			
Highest	4	17	21
Above Average	8	39	47
Average	14	35	49
Low	13	66	79
Lowest	20	62	82
Total	59	219	278
X^2 = 3.70428; d.f.= 4; p < .4475			
Korea			
Highest	5	24	29
Above Average	9	63	72
Average	19	39	58
Low	34	55	89
Lowest	17	7	24
Total	84	188	272
X^2 = 34.20196; d.f.= 4; p < .0000			

Note: The number of information cues of each range are

Highest ; 11 to maximum
Above Average; 9 to 10
Average ; 8
Low ; 6 to 7
Lowest ; minimum to 5.

4. Summary

The average number of information cues provided by Korean TV advertisements was higher than that of U.S. TV advertisements. Except for the introduction stage, the average numbers of information cues in the growth, maturity, and decline stages of the advertised products in Korea are greater than those in the United States. Nondurable product advertisements in Korea have more information cues than those in the United States. This result was expected from the studies of Madden, Caballero, and Matsukubo (1986) and Hong, Muderrisoglu, and Zinkhan (1987). In their research it appeared that Japanese magazine advertisements had more information cues than U.S. advertisements. Since Japan and Korea might have similar cultures, it was inferred that Korean TV advertisements would have more information cues than American ones.

In terms of the relationship between the information content and the life-cycle stage of the advertised product, the results of this study were consistent with those of previous research. According to Greyser (1972), the farther along the product moves in the life-cycle, fewer and fewer people donot know the basic facts about the product that marketers provide in advertisements. Empirical work by Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977) and

Renforth and Raveed (1983) showed that advertisements for products in the introduction stage tend to have more information cues, while the opposite is true for products in the maturity stage. In this study, Korean advertisements for products in the growth stage seemed to have more information cues than those for the mature products, and U.S. advertisements for introductory products than those for the growth products. This might influence the result of Hypothesis 1, as mentioned earlier.

The relationship between information cues and the nature of the advertised product appears different in the United States and South Korea. There was no significant difference for U.S. advertisements but a fairly significant difference for Korean advertisements. The latter result is consistent with that of Sepstrup (1985): Nondurable product advertisements had more information cues than did durable product advertisements. However, in the studies by Stern, Krugman, and Resnik (1981), Laczniak (1979), Hong (1983), Cho (1986), and Madden, Caballero, and Matsukubo (1986), durable product advertisements had more information cues than did nondurable product advertisements.

V. CONCLUSIONS

1. Limitations of the Study

One limitation was the coders' competency in understanding the definitions of the coding instrument. Overall, the reliabilities (Table 3) of this study were relatively high, except for product life-cycle in Korean advertisements (.49). The reason might be that coders did not understand well enough the definitions of and criteria for determining each stage; all but one coder had no experience as advertising professionals. The other possible reason is that the definitions were not clear enough to judge the life-cycle stages of the advertised products. However, the researcher could find no way operationally to define product life-cycle stages beyond the present definitions. Therefore, the need for further reliability and validity checks for product life-cycle stages is a recognized limitation of this study.

Another limitation might be that the choice of coding instrument, consisting of 36 information cues, could have been influenced somewhat by researcher bias. Since no known coding instrument appropriate for analyzing physical information cues in advertisements has been developed to study Korean advertisements, the researcher based the coding instrument for this study on

Sepstrup (1985) and Stewart and Furse (1986).

2. Implications

The results of this study have three implications for international marketing theory and practice. First, some insight is provided into the international transferability of marketing programs. This study examines one aspect of promotion strategy, the information of TV advertisements in U. S. and South Korea. Results indicate that TV advertisements in South Korea contain substantially more information cues than those in U.S. The reason might be that the average numbers of information cues in the growth, maturity, and decline stages of the advertised products in Korea are greater than those in the United States and that the average number of information cues in nondurable product advertisements in Korea are greater than those in the United States. A possible explanation is that the level of involvement of consumers watching TV may be higher in Korea than in the United States. Consumers who need certain products may be more likely to watch TV closely since they can gain information about the products they need. Therefore, advertisers in Korea might be more likely to provide information to consumers than is the case in the United States. International marketing

managers may wish to consider this factor in designing or adopting promotional programs for their countries.

Second, this study implies that Korean TV advertisements for products in the growth stage may have essentially a large amount of information cues in order to compete with other products of the same category in the markets.

Third, this study shows that the information cues of Korean TV advertisements are related to the nature of the advertised products; advertisements for nondurable products have more information cues than do those for durable products. This might provide some insight into promotion strategy.

3. Directions for Future Research

It would seem useful to replicate this study with different samples of coders and advertisements would test the generalizability of the results.

It is possible that there are other related information components that were not targeted in this research. Further studies of this type might establish other information components appropriate for cross-cultural content analysis of advertisements. The differences in information cues due to visual and auditory information also could be studied.

And the fruitful line of inquiry might be to ascertain if information cues in advertisements might be associated with time segments. The relationship between information cues and the viewing time may differ across countries. Viewing segments such as morning, prime time, latenight, news, sports, or children's programming could be incorporated into future research efforts to determine any information cues differences in advertisements associated with viewing time.

Another area for work is to determine if the definitions of product life-cycle stages are appropriate for analysis of TV advertisement. The results of the relationship between information cues and life-cycle stage of the advertised product were only partly consistent with those of previous studies, but the interdependence of these dimensions certainly cannot be ignored. If the inconsistency arises from the fact that the operational definitions of life-cycle stages were not clear enough to judge each stage, more attempts need to be made to refine definitions.

Future research also should be undertaken to study the importance of information from the standpoint of the consumer indifferent cultures. The findings of this study indicate that information requirements of consumers might be different, but the inference depends on the assumption that current advertiser practice reflects consumer needs

for information.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

1. Listing of U.S. Advertisements in the Sample

1. Ponderosa
2. Homemade Brand Icecream (A)
3. Northwest Air Line
4. Ex-Lax (A)
5. A-1 Sauce
6. Hartford Insurance
7. FTD Florist (A)
8. Nutri-Grain Nuggests
9. Hartz Blockade Insecticide
10. Remington Microscreen Shaver
11. Riopan-Plus 2 Antacid
12. Subaru (A)
13. Suddenly Salad
14. Polishade Minwax
15. Bayer
16. AT&T (A)
17. Firestone Mastercare (A)
18. UPS
19. BMW
20. Polaroid Spectra
21. Dodge Shadow
22. Anacin
23. Dove
24. Promise Margarine (A)
25. Tyson Chicken Recipe
26. Discover Credit Card
27. Salad Bar Pasta
28. McDonald Three Salads
29. AT&T (B)
30. Whirlpool Refrigerator
31. AMEX Travelers'Checks (A)
32. Kentucky Fried Chicken
33. Stainmaster Carpet
34. Glass Plus Cleaner
35. Hellmann Mayonnaise
36. Burger King
37. Burger King Chipmonks
38. Promise Margarine (B)
39. Seiko
40. Playtex Bra (A)
41. Seagram's Cooler (A)
42. Honda
43. McDonald Salad
44. Cherry Coke

45. Homemade Brand Icecream (B)
46. Delta Airlines
47. Carnation Instant Breakfast
48. Friskies Catfood
49. Nuprin
50. Dewey Stevens Wine Cooler
51. Summer's Eve Douche
52. Burger King Late Night
53. Diet Pepsi (A)
54. Labatt's Blue Beers
55. Minute Maid Juices
56. Coppertone Lotion
57. Maybelline Mascara
58. Dentyne Gum
59. Firestone Mastercare (B)
60. Ziploc Bags (A)
61. Olympus Infinity Camera
62. Gallo Wine
63. Nuvision
64. Tender Chops Dogfood
65. Eckrich Sausages
66. French's Mustard
67. Die Hard Battery
68. Kellogg's Raisin Bran
69. SOS Cleaner
70. Alka-Seltzer (A)
71. Angel Soft Tissue
72. Pepsi Taste Test
73. Shell Credit Card
74. John Deere
75. Amoco (A)
76. Homemade Icecream
77. JohnDeere Lawnmower(A)
78. Domino's Pizza
79. Disney World
80. Anderson Windows
81. Kool-Aid (A)
82. McDonald Salads
83. Riverrock
84. Land-O-Lakes Margarine
85. Rid-X Toilet Cleaner
86. Anacin Caplet
87. Whirlpool Range
88. Ex-Lax (B)
89. Mazda RX-7 SE
90. Maalox Plus
91. Micatin
92. Correctol Laxatives
93. Legatrin
94. IBM Learning Program
95. Tums
96. Gulf Lite Starter

97. Ragu Spaghetti Sauce
98. Ford Truck
99. Jong Deere Lawnmower
100. Nabisco Shredded Cereal
101. Crunch-n-Munch
102. Jello Pudding Pops
103. Coke
104. Hires Rootbeer
105. Wisk Detergent (A)
106. Mountain Dew
107. Krona Butter
108. Clorox 2 Detergent
109. Ziploc Bags (B)
110. Chico-San Rice Cakes
111. Heaven Ice Cream Bar
112. Band Aid Clear
113. Kellogg's Froasted Flakes
114. Crystal Light
115. Jello Fruit Bars
116. RC Cola
117. Kraft Real Mayonnaise
118. Pantene Shampoo (A)
119. Bartles and James Cooler
120. Kraft Cheese Whiz Spread
121. Close-Up Toothpaste
122. Kellogg's Pro Grain
123. Century 21
124. 7-Up (A)
125. Reach Toothbrush
126. Johnson Baby Oil
127. Chiquita Fruit Bars
128. Heinz Ketchup (A)
129. ALL Detergent
130. Cannon Camera
131. Puppy Chow Dogfood
132. Cat Chow Catfood
133. Star Kist Tuna Can
134. Hefty Cinch Sak
135. Sanka Coffee (A)
136. Sticklets Gum
137. Kodak Colorwatch
138. Kinney Shoes
139. Kellogg's Special K
140. Sylvania ElectricBulbs(A)
141. Lipton Iced Tea
142. Clarion Cosmetics
143. Slice
144. Erb Lumber
145. McDonald Breakfast
146. Amoco (B)
147. Cherry 7-Up
148. Toro Lawnmower

149. McDonald Chicken Salad
150. Volkswagen
151. Snickers Bar
152. Mylanta 2 Antacid
153. Benjamin Moore Paints
154. Dole Fruit Juices
155. Mazda 626 Coupe
156. John Deere Lawnmower(B)
157. Diet Pepsi (B)
158. Reynold's Plastic Wrap
159. Soft Swirl Ice Cream
160. Klondike Ice Cream Nuggets
161. Pentax Camera
162. Playtex Bra (B)
163. Miller Genuine Beer (A)
164. Max Factor Manicure
165. Clear Eyes Eyedrops
166. Kellogg's Cornflakes
167. Miller Genuine Beer (B)
168. McDonald Chef Salad
169. FTD Florist (B)
170. Sure Antiperspirant
171. Downy Softener
172. Anacin-3
173. Pantene Shampoo (B)
174. Coast Soap
175. Ford
176. Bayer
177. Preparation H
178. Pringles Cheez Umz
179. Neosporin Ointment
180. Always Napkins
181. Always Plus Maxi Pads
182. Black Flag Roach Ender
183. Vidal Sassoon Shampoo
184. Zest Soap
185. Oil of Olay Skin Lotion
186. Haltran Anticramping Aid
187. RC Cola (A)
188. Benadryl
189. Cadillac Allante
190. Tylenol
191. Shower to Shower
192. Drop-Ins Toilet Cleaner
193. Sominex-2
194. GTE (A)
195. Sprite
196. Wisk Detergent (B)
197. Suave Antiperspirant
198. VISA Card
199. Midol 200
200. Love-My-Carpet

201. Pepto-Bismol (A)
202. Bounce
203. Ivory Soap
204. Q-tips Swap
205. Chi-Chi's Restaurant
206. Pepto-Bismol (B)
207. Coors Light Beer
208. Klondike Bar
209. Primatene Mist
210. Volkswagen Fox
211. Culligan Water System
212. Lender's Bagels
213. Cherry 7-Up (B)
214. Red Lobster
215. Medipren Pain Reliever
216. Subaru (B)
217. Norelco Shaver
218. Cannon Copier
219. Phillip's MOM
220. Fiber Guard
221. Whirlpool Dishwasher
222. Kool-Aid (A)
223. Uncle Ben's Rice
224. Beatrice Butter Hams
225. Certs
226. Planters Peanuts
227. Miller Lite (A)
228. Aim Toothpaste
229. Discover Credit Card
230. AT&T (C)
231. Dodge Guarantee
232. Dodge Financing
233. Atra Plus Shaver
234. Alpo Dogfood
235. AT&T (D)
236. Miller Lite (B)
237. Nissan 4*4
238. Garcia Vega Cigar
239. US Sprint Long Distance(A)
240. Prudential Financial (A)
241. Car Quest Autoparts
242. Afta Aftershave Lotion
243. California Cooler
244. AMEX Credit Card (A)
245. Prudential Financial (B)
246. Jeep Cherokee
247. Honda Bike
248. Miller Beer
249. Top-Flite Golf Balls
250. Atra Shaver
251. IBM PS/2
252. Renault Medallion

253. McDonald Garden Salad
254. RC Cola (B)
255. Glad Garbage Bags
256. Fram Oil Filters
257. Dodge Dakota Truck
258. Honda Generator
259. AMEX Travelers'Checks (B)
260. Metamucil Fiber
261. 7-Up (B)
262. Spray-n-Wash Cleaner
263. RC Cola (C)
264. Ultress Gel Colorant
265. Weight Watcher's Mexican
266. Equal Sweetener
267. Bon Bons Ice Cream
268. Tampax Tampons
269. Ziploc Bags (C)
270. Snuggle Softener
271. Kraft Barbeque Sauce
272. Keeblers Chips Deluxe
273. Dole Pineapple Juice
274. Gillette Razor
275. Liberty Mutual Insurance
276. Nissan Cars
277. Kendall Motor Oil
278. Sylvania Electric Bulbs(B)
279. State Farm Insurance (A)
280. Auto Lite Battery
281. AMEX Credit Card (B)
282. Schick Shaver
283. United Airlines (A)
284. Double Mint Gum
285. Acura Cars
286. American Airlines
287. Mercedez Benz
288. Dannon Yogurt (A)
289. Dannon Yogurt (B)
290. Roommate Air-Freshener
291. Drano Draining Aid
292. Stouffer's Entrees
293. Gatorade
294. United Airlines (B)
295. Taco Bell's Salad
296. Lipton Potatoes Sauce
297. Ford Aerostar Van
298. Cadillac Seville
299. Keopectate
300. US Sprint Long Distance(B)
301. Alka Seltzer (B)
302. BMW 325
303. Kellogg's All-Bran
304. Samsonite Luggage Bass (A)

305. State Farm Insurance (B)
306. Lava Hand Cleaner
307. Allante Hair Spray
308. Miller Lite (C)
309. Orville RedenbacherPop-Corn
310. Hefty Cinch Sak
311. Sure & Natural Pads
312. Whirlpool Appliances
313. Sun Light Detergent
314. Nabisco Fruit Cookies
315. Seagram's Cooler (B)
316. Messengel Douche
317. Kodak Cameras
318. Baby Ruth Snacks
319. Ritz Cracker
320. Covergirl Mascara
321. Palmolive Degergent
322. Samsonite Luggage Bags (B)
323. Wendy's
324. Pepsi Taste Test (C)
325. GTE (B)
326. FTD Florist (C)
327. Heinz Ketchup (B)
328. Weight Watcher's Popsicle
329. Wishbone Itlian Dressing
330. Loreal Cosmetics
331. Sanka Coffee (B)

2. Listing of Korean Advertisements in the Sample

1. 무스탕
2. 티푼표 마요네즈
3. 퓨파스
4. 삼성골드 스윙 에어컨
5. 키친아트 압력솥
6. 프로 월드컵 메가톤 슈즈
7. 맥콜
8. 파파로니
9. 제놀
10. 드카프 순풍화
11. 피어리스 바이오 프레쉬
12. 포카리 스웨트
13. 월드폰 전화기
14. 삼성 액설런트 V2 TV
15. 탐스 도로피카 드링크
16. 현대 아트폰 전화기
17. 크라운 밀크 카라멜
18. 써니텐
19. 행남 솔트파인
20. 핀파이 파장
21. 고려 페인트
22. 삼성 카파 시계
23. 구심
24. 대우 멀티 에어컨
25. 태평양 아론빔
26. 미니막스
27. 인텔 스테레오
28. 썬듀
29. 드봉 미네르바 화장품
30. 삼성 특선 냉장고
31. 골드 스트롱/ 골드롱
32. 파파게티
33. 도비콜 눈약
34. 진주 곱게 맛살
35. 키미테 멀미약
36. 피푼 디터전트
37. 맘마 분유
38. 동서증권
39. 금성 룸 에어컨
40. 팬잘
41. 롯데 파이오니아 분할판매
42. 제일모직 캠릭시
43. 솔표 우황청심원
44. 베지밀 (1)
45. 칠성사이다
46. 청보 스파게티
47. 바이캡 크림 연고
48. 웨미티 슈스
49. 인사돌
50. 지지 레이디 화장품
51. 훼모바 빈혈약
52. 팬드모바
53. 드봉비누
54. 아그파 필름
55. 서울우유
56. 게보린 두통약
57. 소고기 다시다
58. 한성 젓갈
59. 비너스 룸 스팀
60. 월드컵 콘
61. 라도마니
62. 요요패션
63. 피크닉 슈스
64. 자가포카스 시계

65. 다이알 비누
66. 육개장 사발면
67. 삼포만두
68. 우정 술
69. 한국 도자기 본 차이나
70. 맨담 바이오 게스비
71. 캘럭시 시계
72. 데입 시프
73. 아모레 탐스린
74. 다이레놀
75. 피어리스 프로테인 E 샴푸
76. 데창 에센스 섬유
77. 아남 서라운드 대잔치
78. 탐시드 위장약
79. 유단악 비엠파 화장품
80. 에스파이어 할인 판매
81. BYC 남자 내복
82. 상방솔 비치 그레이프 내복
83. 스완 카페드
84. 프리미 아동복
85. 게토레이드
86. 크라운 맥주
87. 농심 콩사미 팥사미
88. 프랑소와 크랙카
89. 삼강 사각바
90. 롯데 하비스트 비스켓
91. 해태 봉봉
92. 허리케인 아이스 크림
93. 아차차 아이스 케익
94. 고래밥 스낵
95. 팝락봉 바
96. 빙산바
97. 삼립 잡아라 바
98. 백설햄 비엔나 소세지
99. 환타
100. 레이다 스낵
101. 현대 백화점 바겐세일
102. 7-Up
103. 신세계 바겐 세일
104. 롯데 바겐세일
105. 암바사 드링크
106. 에이스 크래커
107. 차밍 샴푸
108. 200 낭 라면
109. 해표 김
110. 그레이스 밴
111. 비오비타
112. 탤론드 오렌지 쥬스
113. 과일분유 잼잼
114. 럭스비누
115. 한국가스공사
116. 에모이카 스테레오
117. 대한항공
118. 캡시콜라
119. 스캠 햄
120. 뉴룽
121. 피카바 간장약
122. 미원
123. 하노박 비타민
124. 엄색악 훼미닌
125. 캄푼 캄슴악
126. 우루사 간장약
127. 훼스탈 포르테
128. 남양 점프 A 우유
129. 프린스 1500 자동차
130. 디세탈 장약
131. 백양 모시메리
132. 목입형 삼익 피아노

133.패션시티
134.영비천
135.스파크 디터전트
136.가그린 가글약
137.와이핑 드링크
138.에바스 바이오 화장품
139.경주 법주
140.오양맛살
141.도시락 라면
142.롤체 시계
143.백설표 식용유
144.피오 모발샴푸
145.소설 손자 병법
146.신도리코 복사기
147.도암 와이샤쓰
148.모대 양복
149.자키 팬티
150.에이스 투기 침대
151.에스파이어 라켓
152.세기 에어컨
153.정력손단
154.금성 싱싱 냉장고
155.영창 피아노
156.바비 인형
157.켈로그 콘 프레이크
158.혼롤카
159.새우깡
160.삼익피아노
161.제멘 비타민
162.롯데 메드시 크래커
163.브라운 카우 쵸코우유
164.네오랑 어묵
165.쥬단학 세시봉 화장품 (2)
166.에피제 롤 화장품
167.비놀리아 비누
168.솔기담 간장약
169.코카콜라
170.바이오 텍스 디터전트
171.피어리스 마띠에르 화장품
172.크록스 냄새제거제
173.쌍용 투자 증권
174.금호 래디알 타이어
175.투투 냉장고
176.소고기 맛나
177.주원 오리털 이불
178.삼도우만 모스필
179.스타콘 기미약
180.쥬피아 모제르비 롤 화장품
182.3 분 카레
181.미란다
183.헤모콘틴 빈혈약
184.삼성 센서 크리스탈 세탁기
185.스피콜 가글약
186.베지밀 (2)
187.카스 활명수
188.프라이드 자동차
189.골덴텍스 Vip 2000복지
190.프로스펙스 운도화
191.골드 마요네즈
192.안성탕면
193.삼양 간장
194.AMEX 카드
195.케시딘 눈약
196.노루표 페인트
197.양반김
198.피마진 알레르기 치료제
199.아놀도 바시니 와이샤쓰
200.헤모진

201.맥스웰 커피
202.휘닉스 보청기
203.한성 오징어 구이
204.삼강 땅따레
205.피어리스 바이오 후레쉬 (2)
206.오양 멍게포
207.펀치 타임 비스킷
208.해태 요구르트 새모미
209.후지 필름
210.오란씨
211.쾌남
212.삼호어묵
213.모암복지
214.레모나 비타민 C
215.2.5 액산 조미료
216.엣센살 포르테 간장약
217.코오롱 맨스타 양복
218.드리맥스 신경통약
219.라라미슈
220.아락실 변비약
221.라자가구
222.해표 식용유
223.아모레 하이 프로틴 샴푸
224.맥스웰 커피
225.OB 맥주
226.미왕파이포
227.베스티딘 위장약
228.영 플레이 모빌
229.롯데 우유
230.그랑패롤
231.스카티 휴지
232.무좀약 카네스텐
233.쥬피아 타게트
234.제스탄 소화제
235.간엄 해파박신
236.업림 양산/ 우산
237.에리자베스 아덴 화장품
238.반도 패션
239.맛동산
240.드리오 디터전트
241.프랑소와 크레커
242.팡방 남성 패션
243.썬 실크 샴푸
244.프로해파롤 골드
245.논노 패션
246.태평양 아른빔
247.아모나민 골드
248.아그파 필름
249.신라면
250.론진 시계
251.동원 참치
252.이브컴
253.존. 헨리 남성복
254.에스에스 패션
255.모나미 세나 볼펜
256.피어리스 맥스 팩터 화장품
257.도제론 모암제티
258.시대사쓰
259.고호완 신경통약
260.금성 자동펌프
261.리바트 가구
262.청보 스파게티
263.월간 각석
264.현대 아트론
265.영에이지 슈즈
266.스포츠 진
267.맘마 분유
268.생육수

269. 펜드모바
270. 론스낵
271. 육시크린
272. 한성 게맛살
273. 비바 화장지
274. 크라운 맥주
275. 3 S 브라
276. 아기피부 페나팬
277. 세신 남비
278. 세화양산
279. 헤림도라 민물악
280. 남양 바모바모 분유
281. 롯데 스루루바
282. 광진 녹즙기

APPENDIX B

Definitions of the Information Cues

1. Brand Name: Refers to the brand name(s) of the product(s) or service(s) advertised.
2. Product: Refers to describing or showing of the product(s) advertised.
3. Company Name: Refers to the name of the manufacturer or the service entity.
4. Price: Refers to the amount the consumer must pay for the product or service; this may be in absolute terms, like a suggested retail price, or relative terms, like a 10 percent off sale.
5. Varieties of the Product: Refers to claiming for or featuring more than one product.
6. Value: Refers to some combination of price and quality or quantity, as in more X for the money, better quality at a low price, the best value for the dollar.
7. Quality: Refers to how good the product or service is; may refer to craftsmanship and /or attention during manufacture, use of quality (better, best) ingredients or components, length of time to produce or create the product.
8. Economy/Savings: Refers to saving money or time either

in the original purchase or in the use of the product relative to other products in the category.

9. Dependability/ Reliability/ Durability: Information concerning how long the product will last without repair, service records, and so on.

10. Sensory Information (taste, fragrance, touch, comfort, styling, color, smell, feeling, etc.): Information concerning a sensory experience; "smells April fresh," "tastes homemade," "feels silky smooth," "smooth taste," "luxurious comfort," "classic beauty," and so on.

11. Components, Contents, or Ingredients: What went into the making or manufacture of the product-for example, "contains lanolin," "made with pudding." These contents should be in the product purchased, not ingredients added to the product by the consumer in preparation for use.

12. Availability: Any information concerning the place(s) the consumer may purchase or otherwise obtain the product-for example, "available in supermarkets," "look for it in the dairy section." May also refer to places where the product is not available-for example, "not available in all areas."

13. Packaging: Information about the packaging of the

product-for example, "look for the package with the red spoon," "look for our special two in one package," "the package is reusable," "in the convenient one serving package."

14. Guarantees or Warranty: Refers to any information concerning the presence of a guarantee or warranty, including but not restricted to money back offers, offers to repair or service the product in the event of problems, or offers to replace the product if the consumer is dissatisfied or has a problem.

15. Safety: Information concerning the safety of the product-for example, "has a built-in cut-off switch," "nontoxic," "won't harm delicate hair."

16. Nutrition/Health: Information concerning the nutritional or health-related characteristics of the product-for example, "fortified with vitamin D," "the formula doctors recommend," "relieves iron-poor blood."

17. Independent Research Results: Information offered about tests of the product or of product users that were carried bout by an identified individual or organization other than the company manyfactruing or distributing the product, such as Underwrtiter's Laboratory, a leading university, or the U.S. government. Such tests

may concern objective product characteristics ("lasts twice as long") or may be related to user preferences ("preferred by two thirds of the people surveyed").

18. Company-Sponsored Research Results: Information about tests of the product or useers of the product that were carried our by the company manufactruing or distribution the product-for example, the Pepsi challenge.
19. Tesearch Results form Unidentified Source: Information about tests of the product or users of the product when the source of the test results is not identified.
20. New Uses: Refers to any information about a new way to use an established product-for example, "use X brand paper cups for sorting and storing nuts and bolts." "new recipes," "use Y baking soda to deodorize refrigerator."
21. Results of Using (either tangible or intangible): Any information concerning the outcomes associated with the use of the product. These outcomes may be in a positive form-"foves hair bounce," "makes you feel healthier,"-or a negative form-"won't yellow floors."
22. User's Satisfaction/ Dedication/ Loyalty: Refers to any information concerning users' satisfaction,

preference for the brand, or length of time consumer has used the advertised product-for example, "I'd never give up my Tide," "I've always used..."

23. Superiority Claim: Information that claims the advertised product is better than competitive products or an older version of the advertised product in some particular way(s).

24. Convenience in Use: Information concerning the ease with which the product may be obtained, prepared, used, or disposed of.

25. Special offers or event: Information concerning special events such as sales, contests, two-for-one deals, premiums, or rebates to occur for a specified limited time.

26. New Product or New/Improved Product Features: Refers to any information concerning a new product introduction, new components, ingredients, features, or characteristics of an existing product or an improvement (qualitative or quantitative) in any feature, component, ingredient, or characteristic of an existing product-for example, "new and improved," "now with 50 percent less sugar," "new, milder ...," "new, stronger ...," "now with built-in flash."

27. Use Occasion: Information that clearly suggests an

appropriate use Occation or situation for the product-for example, "buy film for the Christmas season," "enjoy Jello at a birthday party," "the beer for special occasions."

28. Characteristics or Image of Users: Refers to any information concerning the type(s) of individual(s) who might use the advertised product-for example, "for the young at heart," "for the busy career woman."

29. Company Image or Reputation: Refers to any information about the image or reputation of the company that manufactures or distributes the product-for example, "we've been in business longer than anyone else," "we try harder," "the other guys," "babies are our business."

30. Company Age or Size: Refers to claiming for accumulated business experience of the company throughout its history, or for the bigness in terms of the size.

31. Variety of Business: Refers to claiming for geographical advantages of the company's business, or of its raw material.

32. Location of Business: Refers to claiming for geographical advantages of the company's business, or of its raw material.

33. Policies toward Public: Refers to any information

concerning the conpany's policy for public in general.

34. Policies toward Government: Refers to any information concerning the company's policy toward government at any level.

35. Policies toward Employees: Refers to any information concerning the company's policy toward its current or future employees.

36. Other (explain).

Note:

1. The following cues and their definitions came from Stewart and Furse's study (1986): Price, Value, Quality, Economy/ Savings, Dependability/ Reliability/ Durability, Sensory Information*, Components/ Contents/ Ingredients, Availability, Packaging, Guarantees or Warranty, Safety, Nutrition/ Health, Independent Research Results, Company-Sponsored Research Results, Research Results form Unidentifed Source, New Uses, Results of Using, User's Satisfaction/ Dedication Loyalty, Superiority Claim, Convenience in Use, Special Offer/ Event, New Product or New/ Improved Product Features, Use Occasion, Characteristics or Image of Users, and Company Image or Reputation.

* Sensory Information was modifed and includes aesthetic claims.

2. The following cues came form Sepstrup's study (1985): Brand name, Product, Company Name, Varieties of the Product, Company Age or Size, Variety of Business, Location of Business, Policies toward Public, Policies toward Government, Policies toward Employees, and Other.

APPENDIX C

Translation of the Definitions in Korean
모 드 부 호

1. 상표명 : 광고되는 상품이나 서비스의 상표명.
2. 상품 : 광고되는 상품을 보여주거나 묘사함.
3. 회사명 : 상품/서비스를 생산 또는 제공하는 업체명.
4. 가격 : 소비자가 상품 또는 서비스를 구입함에 있어 지불해야 하는 금전적 가치. 절대적인 가치로 표현될 수도 있고 (예, 200,000 원), 상대적인 표현도 가능함 (예, 10% 할인 세일).
5. 상품의 다양성 : 하나 이상의 상품 또는 서비스들을 보여주며 선전, 광고하는 것. 이들 다수의 상품, 서비스들은 모두 광고주 회사 에서 생산, 제조 되는 것이어야 함.
6. 가 치 : 가격과 품질, 가격과 수량을 서로 대비 비교하면서 상품, 서비스의 구매시 얻게 되는 가치에 관해 광고함. (예, 이 가격으로 살 수 있는 최고의 품질, 적은 돈으로 더 많이).
7. 품 질 : 상품이나 서비스의 질이 얼마나 좋은가에 대해 말하는 것.
8. 경제성/절약 : 상품이나 서비스의 구매시 또는 사용시 절약되는 시간 또는 금전적 가치.
   숙련된 기술, 제조과정에서 쓰는 주의, 원료의 엄선, 제조에 드는 긴 시간 등이 포함될 수 있다.
9. 내구성 : 수리나 수선없이 얼마나 오래 상품이 쓰여질 수 있는 지에 관한 언급.
10. 감각적 정보 (맛, 향기, 감촉, 안락함, 스타일, 색깔, 소리) : 감각적 경험에 관련된 언급. 외양, 고전적 아름다움 등에 관한 정보.
    이는 소비자가 상품의 구매시 느낄 수도 있고 구매 후 사용할 때 느낄 수도 있음. (예, 4 월의 향기, 비단처럼 부드러운 가정의 맛, 훌륭한 안락감).
11. 내용물/내포물 : 상품을 만드는 데 쓰인 내용물에 관한 정보. 이 상품 구매시 이미 상품 속에 함유되어 있는 내용물에 관한 것을 말한다 (예, 라놀린을 함유한, 푸딩으로 만들어진).
12. 구매장소 : 소비자가 상품을 구매, 습득할 수 있는 상점, 그 밖의 구매 방법에 관한 정보 (예, 백화점에 있읍니다, 나능제품 중에서

찾으세요). 흑은 상품이 어느 곳에서나 쉽게 구매할 수는 없다고도 말할 수 있음 (예, 어디에나 있지는 않습니다).

13. 포장 : 상품의 포장에 관한 정보 (예, 빨간 스푼을 찾으세요, 한 포장에 두 개가 들어있는 것을 찾으세요, 포장은 다른 용도로도 사용하실 수 있읍니다).

14. 보증/ 보장 : 상품의 구매시 약속되는 보증/ 보장에 관한 정보. 예를 들어, 고장시 수리, 수선을 보장하거나 불만족시 환불을 보장하거나, 바꾸어 준다는 등의 내용을 말함.

15. 안전성 : 상품의 안전성에 관한 정보 (예, 독성이 없는 로션을 해치지 않습니다).

16. 영양/ 건강 : 상품의 영양, 건강에 관련된 특징에 관한 정보 (예, 비타민 A 가 강화된, 의사들이 많이 사용하는).

17. 회사 外 조사 : 상품의 제조업체, 판매업체가 아닌 개인, 또는 단체가 상품이나 상품의 소비자에 대해 행한 연구조사에 관한 정보. 이 개인이나 단체는 그 이름이나 단체명이 밝혀져 있어야 한다 (예, 한국 과학원, 미국 정부). 이런 조사는 객관적인 상품의 성질에 대한 것 (예, 두배나 오래가는) 일 수도 있고, 소비자의 기호에 관한 것 (예, 소비자의 2/3가 사용하는) 일 수도 있다.

18. 사내 연구조사 : 상품의 제조업체 또는 판매업체가 행한 상품이나 소비자에 관한 연구조사 정보. ●

19. 출처가 밝혀지지 않은 조사 : 조사의 출처가 밝혀지지 않은 외의 17, 18 등과 같은 성격의 연구조사 정보.

20. 새로운 사용용도 : 기존 상품의 새로운 용도에 관한 정보 (예, X 표의 컵을 나사나 단추의 분류 보관에 사용해 보세요).

21. 사용의 결과 : 상품의 사용결과에 관련된 정보로서 만져서 알 수 있는 실체적인 것이나 사용 후 가져올 수 있는 느낌과 같은 것도 포함(예, 산뜻한 기분을 드립니다, 다시는 바닥을 얼룩지게 하지 않을 것입니다).

22. 소비자의 만족 : 소비자의 만족, 선호도, 재 구매 등에 관련된 정보 (예, 나는 언제나 X 를 사용합니다, X 를 써 보았더니 참 좋더군요).

23. 우월성 소구 : 광고되는 상품이 경쟁제품이나 같은 회사의 이전의 상품에 비하여 몇몇 특별한 부분에서 우월하다는 주장을 담은

내용.

24. 사용상의 편이 : 상품의 구입, 상용, 폐기 등에 있어서의 편리함에 관련된 내용.

25. 특별제공 또는 행사 : 세일, 경품, 할인 특매 등이 일정한 기간동안 있다는 내용의 정보.

26. 새로운 상품/ 새로운 또는 개조된 성능 : 기존의 상품과는 다른 새로운 상품, 새로운 내용물, 새로운 특질, 성능, 또는 이런 것들의 질적, 양적인 개선 등에 관련된 정보 (예, 새로이 개조된, 이제는 50% 줄어든 설탕).

27. 사용용도/ 사용시기 : 상품의 적절한 사용용도 또는 사용시기에 관한 정보 (예, 어린이 날을 대비해서 인형을 사 두세요, 즐거운 날에 X표 해주를).

28. 사용자의 성격 또는 이미지 : 광고되는 상품을 사용할 소비자의 성격에 관한 정보 (예, 바른 샐러리맨을 위한, 마음은 젊은 사람을 위하여).

29. 회사의 이미지 또는 평판 : 제조업체, 또는 판매업체에 관하여 일반이 가지고 있는 이미지 평판에 관한 정보 (예, 우리는 더 엄심히 합니다, 색다른 기업).

30. 회사의 경륜 또는 크기 : 제조업체의 역사를 통해서 쌓인 경륜 또는 기업의 크기에 관한 정보.

31. 사업의 다양성 : 업체가 관련하고 있는 사업의 다양성에 관한 정보.

32. 회사의 입지 : 회사 또는 공장의 입지적 유리한 점, 또는 원료 조달지의 입지에

33. 공중을 위한 정책 : 일반 대중을 위한 회사의 정책에 관한 정보.

34. 정부를 위한 정책 (또는 정부에 대한 정책) : 어떤 형태이든 정부를 위한 또는 정부에 대한 정책에 관한 정보.

35. 종업원을 위한 정책 : 현재의 또는 미래의 종업원을 위한 정책에 관한 정보.

36. 기 타 (설명할 것).

APPENDIX D

Back-Translation of the Definitions of Information Cues

1. Brand Name: Brand name of product or services advertised.
2. Product: Showing or dexcription of advertised product.
3. Name of Company: Name of manufacturer of product/name of company providing services.
4. Price: Monetary value to be paid by consumers for product or services. It can be expressed by absolute value such as retail price, or by a relative limit 910% discount sales).
5. Varieties of the Product: Advertising by showing more than one product or service. Those multiple products/services should be manufactured or produced by the advertiser.
6. Value: Advertising on price by comparing price with quality, price with quantity when pruchased (e.g., the best possible quality at this price; more (quality) with less (money).
7. Quality: Stressing good quality of productc or service. Expertise techniques; attention given during production process; tough selection procedure of new materials; long periods required for

production.

8. Economic Value/Savings: Time or monetary value to be saved when buying or using the product/service.
9. Durability: Comments on durability of product-how long the product can be used without repair or remodeled.
10. Sensory Information (taste, aroma, touch, comfort, style, color, smell, feeling, etc): Comments on sensory experience (e.g., April fragrance; nostalgic flavor; soft as silk; soft taste; fancy comfort; classic beauty).
11. Contents/Ingredients: Information about ingredients being used to make the product. This is about ingredients being already contained (when you buy the product).
12. Location of Purchasing: Information about stores where consumers may buy or obtain the product, or about other means of buying obtaining the product (e.g., available at department store; find the product in a NAKNONG product category), and indicates the product is not easily available (e.g., it can be found only in a certain place).
13. Packaging: Information about packaging of productc (e.g., please search for a new red picture; package can be recycled).

14. Guaranty/Warranty: Information about guaranty/ warranty given when product was purchased (e.g., warranty or repair or remodel when needeed; guaranty on money refund when not satisfied; or exchange, etc.).

15. Safety: Product information on safety (e.g., not poisonous; not harming hair).

16. Nutrition/Health: Information about product features relative to nutrition and health (e.g., vitamin A enriched; most doctors using).

17. Research form Outside Comapny: Information about research on product and its users conducted by independent individuals or organization, other than a manufacturer or a marketing company. The independent individuals or organization should be identified (e.g., the Korean Science Institute; the U.S. government). These researches can be objective evaluation of product benefits ("lasting twice long"), or about the users' preference ("being used by 2/3 of the consumers).

18. Research done by Company: Research information about the product or users; research conducted by manufacturer (of the product) or marketing company.

19. Research from unknown Sources: Research information of

unidentified sources, about the types of data similar to item #18 and #19 of above.

20. New users or application of Productc: Informationo about new application of existing product (e.g., please try a cup with an X mark for classification of nut/bolt and button).

21. Results of Using: Information about the results of product use (e.g., refreshing feeling; no more stain on floor).

22. Consumer Satisfaction: Information about consumer satisfaction, preference, long lasting (e.g., I always use ...; I used it ...; I like it very much).

23. Productg Superiority Appeals: Claiming that an advertised product is superior against a competing product or an existing product of the same company (product extension) on certain elements.

24. Usage Convenience: Information about convenience on product purchase, use, discard, etc.

25. Special Event or Special Offer: Information about sales offer, discounts, or the like for a given time period.

26. New Productc or Improved Features: Information about new product, new ingredients, new features, new performances.

27. Usage Occasion: Information about proper use occasion or for timing (e.g., buy a doll for the children's day; have a beer on a joyful day).
28. Users' Characteristics: Information about the characteristics of users (e.g., for busy salespeople; for your heart).
29. Image or Reputaion of Company: Information about general image/reputation of (a) manufacturer or marketing company (e.g., we try harder; unique corporate).
30. Company's Experience and Size: Information about company's experience through its history or its size.
31. Varieties of Business: Information about varieties of business involved.
32. Location of Company: Advantageous location of company or factory, or information about logistics of location for raw materials.
33. Policies toward Public: Information about company's policies toward the general public.
34. Policies toward Government: Information about any forms of policies toward government.
35. Policies toward Employees: Information about current or future policies toward employees.
36. Others (to be explained).

APPENDIX E

Definitions of the Product Life-Cycle Stages

Stage on PLC (Product Life-Cycle): Criteria to decide a stage on product life-cycle are time amount that the product category has been on the market, and the number of competitors in the market.

1. Introduction: A period of slow sales growth as the product is introduced in the market. Profits are nonexistent in this stage because of the heavy expense of product introduction.
2. Growth: A period of rapid market acceptance and substantial profit improvement.
3. Maturity: A period of a slowdown in sales growth since the product has achieved acceptance by most of the potential buyers. Profits stabilize or decline because of increased marketing outlays to defend the product against competition.
4. Decline: A period when sales show a strong downward drift and profits erode.

Source: Kotler, Philip, Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, and Control (4 ed.), N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, 1980, p.290.

APPENDIX F

Translation of

the Product Life-Cycle Stages in Korean

상 품 수 명 주 기

상품 수명 주기상의 위치: 상품 유목이 그 시장에서 있어온 시간과 그 상품과 경쟁이 되는 다른 상품들의 數로서 결정된다.

1. 도입기 : 상품이 시장에 처음으로 소개되는 시기. 판매는 적으며 도입에 필요한 여러가지 비용투자로 이윤은 거의 없다.
2. 성장기 : 시장에서의 수요가 증가하며 이윤도 증가하는 시기.
3. 완숙기 : 최대한의 잠재적 소비자들의 수요를 얻어서 판매는 느려진다 이윤은 고정적이거나 경쟁상품들을 경계해서 투자하는 것으로 인해 이윤은 오히려 줄어들 수 있다.
4. 쇠퇴기 : 판매와 이윤이 쇠퇴하는 시기.

APPENDIX G

Back-Translation
of the Product Life-Cycle Stages

Stage on the Product Life-Cycle: The life-cycle stage of product is determined by two criteria; the length of the product in the market and the number of competitive items in the market.

1. Introduction: The time when a product is introduced. The sales of the product is small and the profit is little because of the large amount of expense for product introduction.
2. Growth: The time when the market demand increases and the substantial profit increases.
3. Maturity: The time when the sales growth of the product is getting slow since the product has been accepted by the maximum number of potential buyers. The profit is stable, or declines since the amount of expense against competitive items can be increasing.
4. Decline: The time when the sales of the product and the substantial profit decline.

APPENDIX H

1. Coding Sheet for U.S. Advertisements

Item		Column No.
Office Use	_ _ _ _	1-5
Ad. No.	_ _ _	6-8
Coder No.	_ _	9-10
Country No.	_	11

1) U.S.A. 2) Korea

Type of Product	_ _	12-13

01) Food

02) Beverage

03) Health Food/Drinks

04) Alcoholic Beverage

05) Tobacco Product

06) Over-the-Counter Drug

07) Automobile/Bicycle

08) Automobile-Related (Gasoline, Oil ...)

09) Cosmetics

10) Personal Care

11) Detergent/Cleaner/Air-Freshener

12) Insecticide/Pesticide

13) Household Goods (Gardening, Painting ...)

14) Clothing/Fashion

15) Shoes

16) Textile/Fabric

17) Furniture/Carpeting

18) Ceramics/Glassware

19) Electronic Appliance

20) Camera/Photographic Supplies

21) Computer/Computer-Related (Hardware/Software)

22) Clock/Watch

23) Comm./Telecommunication Equipment & Supplies

24) Toys/Games

25) Sporting Goods

26) Pet Food/Pet Supplies & Equipment

27) Entertainment/Recreational

28) Publication

29) Record/Cassette Tape/Video Tape

30) Stationery

31) Musical Instrument

32) Industrial/Building Material

33) Hotel/Motel

34) Restaurant

35) Movies/Theater

36) Department Store

37) Supermarket

38) Other Retailer (Specify: _____)

39) Finance/Insurance Service

40) Transportation Service

41) Telecommunication Service

42) Other Service (Specify: _____)

43) School/Eduational Institution

44) Hospital/Medical Care

45) Institutional/Corporate Advertising

46) Other (Specify: _____)

Information Content

	Yes		No		Column No.
	sound/picture/both				
	1	2	3	4	
01) Brand Name	____	____	____	____	14
02) Product	____	____	____	____	15
03) Company Name	____	____	____	____	16
04) Price	____	____	____	____	17
05) Variety of Product	____	____	____	____	18
06) Value	____	____	____	____	19
07) Quality	____	____	____	____	20
08) Economy/Savings	____	____	____	____	21
09) Dependability/					

Reliability/ Durability	____	____	____	____	22
10) Sensory Inform.	____	____	____	____	23
11) Components/ Contents	____	____	____	____	24
12) Availability	____	____	____	____	25
13) Packaging	____	____	____	____	26
14) Guarantees/ Warranty	____	____	____	____	27
15) Safety	____	____	____	____	28
16) Nutrition/Health	____	____	____	____	29
17) Independent Research	____	____	____	____	30
18) Company Research	____	____	____	____	31
19) Unidentified Research Source	____	____	____	____	32
20) New Uses	____	____	____	____	33
21) Results of Using	____	____	____	____	34
22) User's Satisfaction	____	____	____	____	35
23) Superiority	____	____	____	____	36
24) Convenience in Use	____	____	____	____	37
25) Special Offer or Event	____	____	____	____	38
26) New Product/Im-					

proved Features	____	____	____	____	39
27) Use Occasion	____	____	____	____	40
28) Characteristics or Image of Users	____	____	____	____	41
29) Company Image or Reputation	____	____	____	____	42
30) Company Age or Size	____	____	____	____	43
31) Variety of Company Business	____	____	____	____	44
32) Location of Business	____	____	____	____	45
33) Policies toward Public	____	____	____	____	46
34) Policies toward Government	____	____	____	____	47
35) Policies toward Employees	____	____	____	____	48
36) Other (explain)	____	____	____	____	49

2. Coding Sheet for Korean Advertisements

코 딩 용 지

명목		칼럼번호
연구자 사용	_ _ _ _ _	1-5
광고 번호	_ _ _ _	6-8
코더 번호	_ _	9-10
나라 번호	_	11

1) 미 국 2) 한 국

상품과 서비스의 종류 ..... _ _ 12-13

01) 식품
02) 음료
03) 건강식품/ 음료
04) 주류
05) 담배 제품
06) 의약품 (약국에서 살수 있는)
07) 자동차/ 자전거/ 오토바이
08) 자동차 관련용품 (예, 가솔린, 엔진오일 등)
09) 화장품
10) 개인 신변용품 (비누, 면도용품 등)
11) 세제류
12) 살충제 (예, 파리약, 모기약 등)
13) 가정용품 (예, 정원용품, 페인트 등)
14) 의류, 패션
15) 신발/ 구두
16) 섬유/ 직물
17) 가구/ 카페트
18) 그릇, 유리제품
19) 전기기구
20) 카메라/ 사진용품
21) 컴퓨터/ 컴퓨터 관련용품

22) 시계
23) 전화기/ 통신장비
24) 장난감/ 게임류
25) 운동용품
26) 동물용 식품/ 동물용품
27) 여행/ 오락
28) 출판물
29) 테이프/ 카세트 테입/ 비디오 테입
30) 문구류
31) 악기
32) 산업용 설비/ 건축자재
33) 호텔/ 여관
34) 음식점
35) 영화관/ 연극장
36) 백화점
37) 수퍼마켓
38) 기타 소매점 (설명할 것 : _____)
39) 금융/ 보험
40) 교통 서비스
41) 통신 서비스
42) 기타 서비스 (설명할 것 :_____)
43) 학교/ 교육기관
44) 병원/ 의료기관
45) 기업홍보/ 기업광고
46) 기타 (설명할 것 : _____ 오 _____)

광고에 담긴 정보

	있다			없다	답변번호
	소리	그림	둘다		
	1	2	3	4	
01) 상표명	___	___	___	___	14
02) 상품	___	___	___	___	15
03) 회사명	___	___	___	___	16
04) 가격	___	___	___	___	17

05) 상품의 다양성 ____ ____ ____ ____ 18
06) 가치 ____ ____ ____ ____ 19
07) 품질 ____ ____ ____ ____ 20
08) 경제성/ 절약 ____ ____ ____ ____ 21
09) 내구성 ____ ____ ____ ____ 22
10) 감각적 정보 ____ ____ ____ ____ 23
11) 내용물/ 내포물 ____ ____ ____ ____ 24
12) 입수방법 ____ ____ ____ ____ 25
13) 포장 ____ ____ ____ ____ 26
14) 보증/ 보장 ____ ____ ____ ____ 27
15) 안전성 ____ ____ ____ ____ 28
16) 영양/ 건강 ____ ____ ____ ____ 29
17) 회사 外 조사 ____ ____ ____ ____ 30
18) 사내 연구조사 ____ ____ ____ ____ 31
19) 출처가 밝혀지지
않은 조사 ____ ____ ____ ____ 32
20) 새로운 사용용도 ____ ____ ____ ____ 33
21) 사용의 결과 ____ ____ ____ ____ 34
22) 소비자의 만족 ____ ____ ____ ____ 35
23) 유일성 소구 ____ ____ ____ ____ 36
24) 사용상의 편이 ____ ____ ____ ____ 37
25) 특별제공 또는 행사 ____ ____ ____ ____ 38
26) 새로운 상품/
개조된 성능 ____ ____ ____ ____ 39
27) 사용용도/ 사용시기 ____ ____ ____ ____ 40
28) 사용자의 성격
또는 이미지 ____ ____ ____ ____ 41
29) 회사의 이미지
또는 평판 ____ ____ ____ ____ 42
30) 회사의 경륜
또는 크기 ____ ____ ____ ____ 43
31) 사업의 다양성 ____ ____ ____ ____ 44
32) 회사의 입지 ____ ____ ____ ____ 45
33) 공중을 위한 정책 ____ ____ ____ ____ 46

34) 정부를 위한 (정부에 대한 정책) ____ ____ ____ ____ 47
35) 종업원을 위한 정책 ____ ____ ____ ____ 48
36) 기 타 (설명할 것 : _____) 99

상품 수명 주기상의 위치 49

01) 도입기
02) 성장기
03) 완숙기
04) 쇠퇴기

APPENDIX I

1. Summary of the Reports from U.S. Coders about Their Coding

The training session was very helpful since the coders were able to ask questions and make comments about what they should be looking for as coders, and to iron-out any problems with the coding instrument.

However, there was a frequently occuring problem in being able to distinguish between brand names and product names, or between brand names and company names. For example, some coders believed that Stouffer's Entrees is a brand name, but it is the product name as well. If the coders were not very knowledgeable about the product, they would have a difficult time deciding whether the company was mentioned (visual or audio), just the brand name, or both. Another frequently occuring problem was determining the product life-cycle stages. It was especially hard to differentiate when a product was crossing over from an intorductioon to a growth stage or when a product went from a growth to a mature stage.

Generally, the problems that the coders encountered during the advertisements coding were resolved with consultations. It was suggested that the informational cue that related to ingredients should be expanded to

include those ingredients that are purposely excluded from the product by the manufacturer. Such appeals boast of the "lead-free, sodium-free, cholesterol-free" attributes of the product. If nothing else, the definitions of ingredient items should include such appeals.

2. Summary of the Reports from Korean Coders about Their Coding

The most difficult coding part was determining the product life-cycle stages. It was especially to define the stages of medicine, car, clothing and cosmetics advertisements. Even the training session was not really helpful to code the product life-cycle stages. Another problem was coding the price information which was shown in a very small number on the screen.

Generally, the problems that Korean coders encountered during their coding were not as specific as American coders did. Almost of the coders suggested that the information content of TV advertisement should be analyzed by means of different coding scale in stead of nominal scale. For example, the information content should be measured by using likert scale with the question of at which level the TV advertisements convey a certain information cue.

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