



Advertising and the role of gender

A study of Sweden, France and Spain
magazine advertisements

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Abstract

The gender portrayals study aims to understanding how the roles of men and women are portrayed in magazine advertisements. This has been an issue investigated over the past decades as companies try to achieve a higher level of sales of their products and services and the gender issue influences in how this companies plan one advertising program or another. However, there is a debate among authors: some of them believe that advertising reflects what is already on society and others express that advertisers use the most convenient reality to sell their products. Thus, it makes us wonder what is the actual truth behind this debate. This thesis tries to answer the question of how men and women are portrayed in advertising campaigns. There are several studies on gender portrayals across countries but none that compares France, Spain and Sweden. This thesis tries to fill this gap.

The study is conducted following Hofstede framework that classifies countries whether masculine or feminine, and is completed by analyzing the data gathered from four magazines of these three countries. We classified this data following Courtney and Lockeretz classification scheme and analyzed the data obtained with theories of some other authors.

The results of this thesis show that males were dominant among working roles while females were in non-working roles. The findings might not add a huge contribution to this field of study but may be used as guiding tool for further research.

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1. Introduction

In this chapter of the thesis the background, problem, purpose, research questions, definitions and delimitations are presented. It ends with an outline of how this thesis is to be conducted and what it will try to contribute to the field of this study.

1.1. Background

The portrayals of gender in advertising have been an issue investigated over the past decades by studies of communication, marketing or psychology fields. This has been due to the fact that “gender is one of the primary segmentation variables in marketing activities”, according to An and Kim (2007, p.181).

Several reasons justify our interest in this research. As It is said by Royo-Vela, Aldás-Manzano, Küster-Boluda and Vila-Lopez (2007, p.633) “by reflecting certain roles for men and women, advertising is believed to reinforce the belief that those roles are proper, best or natural”, so if what it is said is correct, the portrayal of men and women in advertisement has a huge impact on how the society sees or interprets the image of those and so if for example, women are portrayed as subordinates to men, incapable of taking decisions by themselves, and men, are seen as the businessmen who bring money to the family, then society will belief indeed that this are the proper roles for each of them. Besides, “portrayals construct a specific portrait of reality and as viewers see more images, they tend to adopt attitudes and expectations about the world that coincide the images they see” (Royo-Vela et al. 2007, p.633). But the world has developed into one where both men and women can represent these roles the other way around. If we follow the Cultivation theory, as Fullerton and Kendrick (2000) indicate, people who are exposed to a particular view of the world in the media, begin to accept this world as reality which implies that exists a responsibility for

advertisers as they are the ones in charge of representing this image of the world mentioned before to the society, because “there is a reason to be concerned about the images of males and females in the media, especially in media where children are heavy users” (Busby, 1975, p.126).

Nevertheless, there is a debate as other authors such as Gilly (1998) proclaim that defenders of the portrayal of women and men in advertising are only reflecting what is already in society (Courtney & Whipple, 1983). But, as expressed by Schudson (1984), advertisers use the reality that is believed to sell their products effectively, which makes us wonder what is the actual truth behind this debate, is the portrayal of women and men in advertisement the true reflection of the actual society or do advertisers use the convenient “reality” that will make sell their product in a more efficient way.

The gender roles portrayed in advertising have an extensive literature covering this domain. From Courtney and Lockeretz (1971) who showed how women were portrayed in US magazines as fully dependents on men, incapable of making important decisions, to more recent studies by Furnham and Mak (1999-2000) who showed women in advertisements as passive, subordinates to men or lacking intelligence and credibility. This stereotyping of women continued into the mid-1990s although percentage of women shown as professionals and managers has made modest gains since the late 1950s (An & Kim, 2007). Advertisers have improved in their way of portraying women by developing their portrayal from the traditional way (ex. housekeepers) to a “modern” day-to-day women (e.g. business executives) mainly due to the movements increasing feminist consciousness (Ford and LaTour, 1993).

We approach this thesis by analyzing Hofstede's four dimensions. He suggests that gender roles are distinct in a society classified as "masculine" being men portrayed as assertive, tough and focused on material success and women as modest, tender and concerned by the quality of life. On the contrary, a feminine society, the differentiation between men and women is smaller, both are supposed to be modest and tender and concerned about the quality of life. Therefore, gender role differentiation between women and men is smaller in feminine societies than in masculine societies (An & Kim, 2007). Hofstede's ordering of the nations in masculinity index scores indicates following a scale of ranks that go from 1 to 53 the influence of masculine or feminine values in the society.

The theory of Hofstede's cultural dimensions constituted a framework revolving around cross-cultural communication that contributed a great deal of information in the field of portrayal of men and women in advertising. So far as the international business is concerned, the dimensions of culture form a knowledge of the manner in which different features of a business are viewed in different cultures, and so, can help managers to create a more effective and successful advertising campaign. Hofstede (2001) identifies five dimensions of national culture: individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and long-term orientation. These five dimensions of culture can provide insights into the norms and values of countries (Hur, Kang, & Kim, 2015).

This foregoes the discussion on how gender roles are portrayed in advertising campaigns according to the perception of genders in the society. The differences of these portrayals according to the culture of each country are due to the culture-bound characteristics of advertising as supported by De Mooji (1998) who observes that in feminine cultures with small gender role differentiation between women and men, men do not mind taking female roles and men are easily found wearing aprons in advertising. On the other hand, in masculine cultures, women are hardly portrayed in advertising as taking men's role.

Following Hofstede's (1980) work on cultural differences, an innovative research

on cross- cultural comparison in the areas of management, social psychology, anthropology, sociology, marketing and communication (Albers, 1994; Kale, 1991), advertisers have developed the portrayal of men and women in advertising campaigns according to their gender and so establishing a role of those. The societal roles attached to men and women in advertising differ by culture (Williams & Best, 1990; Wiles & Tjernlund, 1991; Sengupta, 1995; Moon & Chen, 2002), corroborating the cultural historians' contention of culture- reflective or culture-bound nature of advertising that "advertising is an important social institution that mirrors and transmits dominant cultural values in society" (Potter, 1954; Schudson, 1984; Leiss et al., 1986). More specifically, these suggests that whether a country has feminine values influences on the culture, there are less differences between the roles of men and women portrayed in the advertising campaigns while if masculine values are dominant, the difference between the roles is bigger (Wiles et al., 1995; Milner and Collins, 2000).

However, there has been a change in society and so, one could expect that those changes are represented in the media, because "the way men and women are viewed in society has changed" (Bartsch et al., 2000).

To sum up, this paper seeks to analyze the portrayals of men and women in advertising today by the comparison of three countries classified by Hofstede's masculinity dimension as different gender value-oriented, to give light into a problem that society might believe to be solved but which is in reality, a true concern in our everyday lives in this "progressive" world where inequality still prevails.

A deeper analysis of the Hofstede's masculinity dimension might then be needed for the purpose of this paper. "MAS", the Masculinity vs. Femininity index is the fourth dimension analyzed by Hofstede, which can be defined as the degree to which society is characterized by either assertiveness or nurturance. More "masculine" societies place a greater emphasis on wealth, success, ambition, and

achievement, while “feminine” societies place greater value on people, helping others, the environment and quality of life (Hofstede, 1980).

Thereafter, as explained, the advertisements of three selected countries, Spain, France and Sweden are analyzed following the scheme of a previous study conducted by Courtney and Lockeretz (1971), this data is classified and the content of the magazine advertisements are analyzed to determine the number and sex of all adults and their working or non-working role (family, recreational and decorative). Another study which follow this scheme, conducted by Wiles and Tjernlund (1991) prove that Swedish advertisements were more likely to depict women in recreational roles and family roles.

A number of studies which have taken place analyzing the portrayal of men and women in advertising, suggested that a usual role has been portrayed over the past decades, men were generally more likely to be shown in working roles than women (Odekerken- Schröder, de Wulf & Hofstede, 2002).

1.2. Problem

Hofstede classified in his study “Culture’s Consequences: International Differences in Work-related Values”(1980, p.297), countries according to the predominant masculine or feminine values of each which lead to a distinction on how these countries portrayed gender roles. He proposes that gender roles are clearly distinct in a society classified as a masculine society where men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success and women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. As mentioned by Wiles, J.A., Wiles, C.R. and Tjernlund (1995, p.38), “Low Masculinity index scores indicate sex roles in society should be fluid as compared to clearly differentiated sex roles in high Masculinity index scores. Low Masculinity scoring nations tend to depict both men and women as breadwinners, whereas high scorers have a tendency to portray men as breadwinners and women as cakewinners”. Thereafter, we might say that a company might use this classification in order to create a more successful marketing strategy, as gender role differentiation affects how women and men are represented in societies, so for instance, not only education but also job opportunities differ among men and women when being in a feminine or masculine society.

Gender stereotypes are general beliefs about gender-linked traits (collections of psychological characteristics and behaviors characterizing men and women) and gender roles (activities differentially appropriate for men or women) (An and Kim, 2007). Although it has been observed that some improvements have been made in gender role portrayals, particularly with the portrayal of women in less traditional way (e.g. frequent portrayals women as business executives and professionals) perhaps due to the increasing feminine movements along with “raising” of feminist consciousness (Ford and LaTour, 1993). The truth is that a subtle stereotyping is still reflected in advertisements. More specifically, Jones (1991) summarized instances of stereotyping in advertisements as: functional

ranking, the tendency to depict men in executive roles and more functional when collaborating with women; relative size, men depicted as taller and larger than women; ritualization of subordination, an overabundance of images of women lying on floors and beds or as objects of men's mock assaults; the feminine touch, tendency to show women cradling and caressing the surface of objects with their fingers; and, family, fathers depicted as physically distant from their families or as relating primarily to sons, and mothers relating primarily to daughters.

One would expect that the advances in societies would also be reflected in advertising but such stereotyping in the portrayal of women has continued into the mid-1990s although percentage of women shown as professionals and managers has made modest gains since the late 1950s (Cheng, 1997). This shows evidence of how the conflict and confusion about gender roles continues. This study adds contribution to the content analysis that has been used as a major research method for decades on gender roles portrayed in advertising (Cooper-Chen, 1995). Besides, the use of Hofstede's study as major support, will contribute to previous findings that suggest that the cross-cultural differences in gender role portrayals are attributable to masculine/feminine value orientation (An & Kim, 2007), and so this adds to studies where, the truth is that, it has been noticed some similarities in gender-role portrayals in ads across cultures (Das, 2000), but so several differences (Milner and Collins, 1998; Wiles et al. 1995) which is what makes this research in the gender-role portrayals across this three countries interesting.

Besides, this research adds new contribution to an international account of magazine advertising in maintaining a comprehensive understanding of contemporary gender role portrayals. It could benefit international advertisers with both practical and theoretical implications. For example, international advertisers who are planning a global campaign for their gender-related consumer products can benefit by locating the target country's position on Hofstede's masculinity index and using it as a guideline for creating visual images of the

main characters in the ads (An & Kim, 2007).

Finally, although there is record of previous studies done in two out of the three selected countries, Sweden and Spain. There is none recorded of the French part. These previous studies conducted in Sweden and Spain, mainly concluded that higher equality is shown in Sweden though female are more likely to represent family and recreational roles (Wiles et al. 1995), while in the case of Spain, there has been an improvement in the ways women are portrayed, as advertisers have decreased the numbers of women portraying the “traditional” role (Royo -Vela et al. 2007). Thereafter, the comparison of these three countries will add knowledge to the cross-cultural and across countries studies and so, might help advertisers in further research.

1.3. Purpose.

The aim of this research is to investigate how gender portrayals are displayed in advertising. We would like to know if the role represented by men and women in advertising campaigns is different depending on the country, based on Hofstede’s study about the cultural dimensions.

We approach this thesis by analyzing how the gender roles portrayals in advertising differ, depending on the country and according to the gender role norms of men and women. This is done by analyzing Hofstede's (1980) work that explains how in one country may dominate the influence of masculine values and in another may dominate the influence of feminine values, as well as gathering previous theories composed by a great number of authors. And then, the knowledge gathered from this theoretical framework is used to analyze how the role of men and women is portrayed in the advertisement of different countries.

Thereafter, in order to do so, a sample to conduct this study might be needed, and

so we decided to base our research in three different countries: Sweden, France and Spain. According to Hofstede, the first is a feminine country and the other two, masculine countries. It is said that exists a cross-cultural difference in the representation of men and women in advertisement. The analysis of different ads in two kinds of magazines of these three countries will help us to comprehend this.

→ Research question: What role do men and women portray in advertising campaigns today?

1.4. Definitions.

MAS: Masculinity index score or Masculine vs. Femininity, is the fourth cultural dimension proposed by Hofstede. Masculinity implies the preference in a society for assertiveness, heroism, achievement and material reward for attaining success. On the contrary, feminine societies prefer modesty, cooperation, quality of life and caring for the weak.

1.5. Delimitations.

This thesis is focused on the understanding of how men and women are portrayed in magazines advertisements. For this purpose, a study on the advertisements of different magazines, from the three chosen countries, is led. The research aims to study the portrayal of gender roles in advertising but will not touch how this portrayal influences society.

A few established theories concerning the field of this study have been chosen from several authors in order to give a proper answer to the research question of this thesis. Moreover, this will add to the results obtained from all the data gathered from the magazines selected from each country's market. Finally, the analysis includes the data plus its proper analysis, as well as a comparison between each country's results.

2. Theoretical Framework - Literature review

This chapter includes the historical overview of a number of literature studies that have been taken place analyzing the link between culture and advertising but also gather all the knowledge of previous researches done on the portrayal of women and men in advertising in the media, the stereotyping that this reflected as well as studies done across time and countries.

2.1 Hofstede's Theory.

The heart of Hofstede's book (1984) is a survey of a large US multinational company's employees. Around 117 000 surveys were collected from workers and managers in forty countries and twenty languages. Then, Hofstede identified variables that reliably differentiated managers of various nations. He settled on four dimensions of national culture: the power distance, the uncertainty avoidance, the individualism and the masculinity-femininity.

The masculinity-femininity dimension is the one, which interest us the most. Hofstede distributes the societies in masculine or feminine. Indeed, it means the degree to which a considered as "masculine" culture emphasizes ambition and achievement, versus a "feminine" culture which emphasizes caring and nurture. In countries with a high masculinity index (like Japan, Italy or Austria), men tend to feel strong pressures for success, relatively few women hold high-level positions, and job stress is high. The opposite is true in countries with a low masculinity index (like Sweden, Denmark or Norway). This theory implied huge strides in the world of managers and advertising. Some advertisers started to develop their campaigns taking into account the MAS scoring of each country.

2.2 Culture and Advertising.

Culture is the “collective mental programming” that distinguishes one society from another. “Culture, in this sense, is a system of collectively held values” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 76).

Advertising is considered as a marketing tool, a social actor and a cultural artifact (Dyer, 1982; Frith, 1995; Leiss et al., 1990). It is an important tool for marketers to promote their products and services to consumers. As a social actor, advertising transforms cultural symbols and ideas, and bonds together images of individuals and products (Leiss et al., 1990).

Indeed, nowadays, advertising is part of our everyday life. According to Sheree Johnson (2014), people are exposed to an average of 360 ads per day, but they can see more than 5000 “brands exposures” per day. This includes all the logo or brand names we can see, for example, on our clothes, in our mailbox, or even on the highway.

However, even if ads are more and more present, they are currently affected by the culture of each country. According to De Mooij (2013), advertising is a very culture-oriented discipline, because its language and communication aspects are deeply rooted in the culture of a given society. As communication patterns are closely knitted to cultural norms, advertising usually carries and reflects culturally relevant values (Chung & Ahn, 2013). For example, it is showed by a cross-cultural comparison of advertising done in 11 different countries that the use of appeals in advertising varies with Hofstede’s original four cultural dimensions (Albers-Miller and Gelb, 1996). Furthermore, cultural differences among societies suggest that appeals that are effective in one culture, such as individualism and sex, may be ineffective or even offensive in another (Cui, Yang, Wang & Liu, 2012). The general conclusion from existing studies that consider the role of

culture in the use of appeals in advertising and their effectiveness is that culturally congruent appeals are used more often and are more persuasive than non-congruent appeals (Jung, Polyorat and Kellaris, 2009).

There are a lot of cultural factors, which could influence advertising campaigns.

Some previous studies show that, because of the globalization, a lot of the advertising is completely standardized. Indeed, “the world is becoming a common market place in which people, no matter where they live, desire the same products and lifestyle”, as explained by Levitt (1983, p. 37-45). For the last two decades, most multinational companies have been concerned about whether an international brand should create a global image, or tailor the image to relate to local culture (Mai, 2005).

Advertising, fashion systems and a variety of rituals are thought to be responsible for focusing cultural meaning towards consumers (McCracken, 1986). In the process of meaning transfer, the advertiser assigns culturally associated meaning to advertised goods in a way that supports the customers’ preferences and needs (Czarnecka & Evans, 2013).

Despite the development of globalized markets, with its standardized products and marketing activities, marketers must be aware of various environmental differences that have to be addressed when entering a new market. These environmental factors differentiate the domestic market from international markets and so; they must be included when planning a product’s marketing strategy (Cateora, 1990). It means various cultural, social and legal/political factors (Ricks, 1983; Root, 1987; Terpstra, 1987).

According to Boddewyn (1982), concerning the legal factors, marketers have to pay attention to the country’s laws, in particular to regulations on advertising

images, claims, and media, because governments are more focused on advertising practices. On the contrary, for other factors, governments are more preoccupied by the nature of the ads.

According to the study of Waller and Shyan Fam (2000), such advertising restrictions can influence the degree of standardization allowed for a company's marketing program. This is especially the case of South East Asian countries: they have their own distinct languages, cultures, norms, regulations and business environment, which are very different from the West. For example, some products could be seen as controversial or some members of the community may perceive the public promotion of them as offensive. Studies on the advertising of these products have discussed them in terms of: "unmentionables", "socially sensitive products", and "decent products" (Wilson & West 1981; Shao & Hill 1994a; Shao & Hill 1994b; Fahy, Smart, Pride & Ferrell 1995). Moreover, even if many products are not perceived as controversial in nature and have no restrictions on how they are sold, it is possible that restrictions appeared on the type of images used in the advertising campaign: some images in advertising, including nudity, anti-social behavior, racist and sexist images, are often restricted in some cultures to reduce the degree of offense in the Community (Waller & Fam, 2000). Then, "such restrictions would reduce the ability to standardize a campaign around the world" (Waller & Fam, 2000, p.4).

Various media can be used as a vehicle to communicate a company's promotional message, such as television, radio, newspapers, and magazines. Indeed, "choosing the right medium can be very important for a marketing program: in some markets, certain new media, like cable television and the internet, may not be sufficiently developed and so the advertising campaign could be a disaster" (Waller & Fam, 2000, p.3). Moreover, as the government keeps order and manages the community, it protects the local interests, and then is able to implement legal restrictions on how companies market their goods, if necessary.

Religion is another factor, which impacts advertising. Indeed, it affects people in many ways because it prescribes proper behavior, including work habits.

According to the study of Waller and Shyan Fam (2000), there are several religions used by the Malaysian population and so, they don't have the same "goals" in life and especially in the working habits: the Protestant work ethic encourages Christians to glorify God by working hard and being thrifty, while Islam exalts work, and laziness is seen as a lack of faith in the religion. In Hinduism and Buddhism, the emphasis is on the elimination of desires because desires cause worries. Then, most of the cultural values are actually "controlled" by various religious practices. So, one of the first task of the Malaysian Government is to ensure that none of these differences appear in advertising campaigns. For instance, the Advertising Code for Television and Radio (1990) was heavily influenced by the government's effort to promote Islamic values throughout the country. This includes the imposition of stricter regulations on the mass media content based on Islamic principles and values. For example, the women in Malaysian advertising must be portrayed as having "good behavior acceptable to local culture and society" (Ministry of Information, 1990, p.7). Furthermore, female models must adhere to the Advertising Code's decent dress code, which stipulates that a female model must be "covered until the neckline, the length of the skirt worn should be below the knees, the arms may be exposed up to the edge of the shoulder but armpits cannot be exposed". This ruling has restricted the advertising of female and male underwear on mass media. In addition, because of religious and cultural sensitivity, the sale of female contraceptives and female hygiene products were strictly limited on the mass media. Advertising of female hygiene products on national television, in particular, was allowed only after 10 o'clock in the evening (Waller & Fam, 2000).

One other thing that could influence the advertising campaigns is that women are underrepresented in the media. This lack of women in the media is paralleled to the scarcity of women in charge of media. Only about of 5% of television writers, executives and producers are women (Lichter, Lichter and Rothman, 1986). Nevertheless, while two-thirds of journalism graduates are women, they make up less than 2% of those in corporate management of newspapers and only about 5% of newspaper publishers (Women in Media, 1988).

2.3 Gender Portrayals in Advertising: the stereotyping, the media and the reality plus studies across time and countries.

A number of literature studies have been taken place analyzing the portrayal of women and men in advertising. These references mostly suggest that those over the past decades have portrayed a usual role; men were generally more likely to be shown in working roles (Odekerken-Schröder, De Wulf & Hofstee, 2002). Brief reviews of previous research findings and analytical methods are necessary for this project.

All forms of media communicate images of the sexes, many of which perpetuate unrealistic, stereotypical, and limiting perceptions (Wood, 1994). As mentioned by Wood (1994, p.231), “three themes describe how media represent gender: women are underrepresented, men and women are portrayed in stereotypical ways, and finally, depictions of relationships between men and women emphasize traditional roles and normalize violence against women”.

Under-representing women is the primary way in which media distorts reality. There are three times as many white men as women in television (Basow, 1992) or according to the data gathered by Study Reports Sex Bias in 1989, “in children’s programming, males outnumber females by two to one, or newscast, in which women make up 16% of newscasters and in which stories about men are

included 10 times more often than one about women”, in these cases, media misrepresent actual proportions of men and women in the population. Thereafter, these distortions tempt us to believe that there are more men than women and so, men is the cultural standard.

This lack of women in the media is paralleled to the scarcity of women in charge of media. Only about of 5% of television writers, executives and producers are women (Lichter, Lichter & Rothman, 1986) . Nevertheless, while two-thirds of journalism graduates are women, they make up less than 2% of those in corporate management of newspapers and only about 5% of newspaper publishers (Wood, 1988).

This distortion of reality in general is based on stereotypes of men and women in ways that limit our perceptions of human possibilities. According to J.A. Doyle (1989, p.111), whose research is mainly based on children’s television, males are shown as “aggressive, dominant, and engaged in exciting activities from which they receive rewards from others for their masculine accomplishments”. Ironically, it is interesting how in the contrary, they are not represented doing any housework as reported by J.D.Brown and K.Campbell (1986). B.Horovitz (1989) pointed out that they are usually represented as uninterested in and incompetent at homemaking, cooking, and child care. As for women, they are portrayed as younger and thinner than women in the population as a whole, and most depicted as passive, dependent on men, and enmeshed in relationships or housework (Davis, 1990).

Gender role stereotyping in a common strategy used by advertisers. Advertisers believe that they can establish a shared experience of identification with the customers. However, their portrayal of women is as decorative objects, younger than men and associated with some special employment status (Hovland et al. 2005). These images ignore the diverse nature of modern women’s lives. “Nevertheless, the defenders of gender role stereotyping argue that advertising

does not live in the vacuum and that it is an integrated part of societal and cultural systems in which they exist” (Zhang, Srisupandit & Cartwright, 2009, p.684). Changes in society will eventually be reflected in advertising (Linder, 2004).

“Frame analysis and content analysis are two widely used research methods in gender role portrayal research” (Zhang, Srisupandit & Cartwright, 2009, p.686). First introduced by Goffman (1976), frame analysis suggest that viewers are mostly focusing on an advertisement’s images and exploring on implications beneath the visual information to avoid word interpretation. However, as stated by Lerman & Callow (2004), the accurate meaning of advertising can only be found in the text. As for content analysis, firstly introduced by Courtney and Lockeretz in 1971, improved the research methods focusing not only on images, but also the meaning behind the verbal messages. This kind of analysis was therefore used in their study of gender role portrayals in American advertising, one of the earliest studies on the field. It was based on the advertisements from general interest magazines published in the 1970’s. Their research revealed that gender roles stereotyping were widely used by advertisers.

Various numbers of studies have shown that portrayals of gender role in advertising, as an agent of socialization have a significant influence on patterns of a society (Dyer, 1982; Bardhan, 1955). Gender role has become such dominant feature of modern advertising that it is “used most” by advertisers for transmitting cultural norms in a ritualized format (Jhally, 1987). Besides, the depiction of gender role is an important basis for market segmentation, thereafter, portrayals of gender role in advertisements in both print and television act as one of the ways of gauging society’s attitudes towards gender as well (Milner & Higgs, 2004).

Thus, a number of studies have studied the portrayals of gender role in advertisements across time and countries and some cross-culturally. As explained by Khairullah, D. H. Z. and Khairullah, Z. Y (2009, p.59), “Portrayals of gender role in advertising is seen by researches as a form of transmitting cultural norms

of a given society and as an important segmentation variable”.

Other recent studies show how countries such as Thailand, China and the USA have a unique socio-political, cultural and economic background, thereafter, it is expected that the way gender roles are stereotyped in the advertising from these three countries reflects the differences in their societal backgrounds. Since America is a well-developed capitalist society, American females have seen how consistent improvements in their social status have been made. Nowadays, “they enjoy more equality and less discrimination than their counterparts in China and Thailand which is why is reasonable to expect less stereotyping in the American ads” (Zhang, Srisupandit & Cartwright; 2009, p.687). Moreover, as found by Cheng (1997), women were under-represented in the advertisements from both, America and China. In both countries, more men in occupational roles and more women in non- occupational roles were portrayed. For example, Chinese advertisements portrayed males more often in relaxing roles than their American counterparts. These finding reveal that gender role portrayals in advertisements reflect the actual cultural values in each country.

By contrast, it is proven that the emergence of capitalism harms improvements in gender equality in socialist societies as China (Tang & Parish, 2000). There, the government has made great efforts to eradicate gender inequality yet the emergence of capitalism in the last 30 years has cancelled much of the previous progress. As a result, contrary to what is mentioned before, more gender stereotyping is expected in Chinese ads than in American ads.

Kim and Lowry’s (2005) study on Korean television advertising showed males under- represented. Women were more often portrayed as young, unmarried and dependent in home setting as well as caring for children. Men were more frequently used in voice-overs and as authority figures. This guided the authors to conclude their research stating that television advertising did not reflect the great strides made by Korean women.

A study of television advertising was undertaken by Gilly (1988) in which she compared USA, Australia and Mexico. This study found consistency in the traditional notion of women being portrayed as wife, mother, bride, waitress, actress and dancer. Men, on the contrary, are portrayed in independent roles and women are portrayed in relational roles across these countries. Robbins and Paksoy (1989) found that German advertisements were more prone to show women in either personal or business roles, while US advertisements differ as they portray them in a social role. Biswas, Olsen and Carlet (1992) found that sex appeal was used more in French than in US advertisements.

Erving Goffman, the author of *Gender advertisement* (1979), analyses that women are pictured in magazine advertisement in the following subordinate fashion to men: women appear shorter; men instruct women; women appear to be drifting in deep thought while men's eyes are focused properly; and women appear helpless. According to Fishburn (1982), these pictures are not perceived as unnatural by people, which can create a serious problem in how society perceives women. As the same Goffman suggests, by studying the presentation of gender in advertisement, one can be helped to see oneself. This situation caused criticism to rise from feminist leaders against advertising. The National Advertising Review Board established a panel to address charges in the 1970s complaining of the sexist advertising. *Advertising Age* published a full report in 1975 where "they found that women were often portrayed as housewives and too infrequently as professionals; women were featured as sex objects to the exclusion of their individuality; and women were portrayed often as stupid, requiring to men to solve their problem" (Wiles et al. 1995, p.38-39).

The image of women and minorities in US advertising was examined five times in the *Journal of Communication* in 1976. Cully and Bennett reported that in 1975 women were still portrayed as housewives. Poe studied in 1928, 1956 and 1972 issues of *Saturday Evening Post*, *Cosmopolitan* and the *Ladies' Home Journal* and found that there were more advertisements that pictured women engaged in

physical activity or sports in 1928 than either 1956 or 1972. Thus concluding, that little progress was being made in portraying women in roles other than family or decorative roles.

Wiles and Tjernlund made a cross-cultural analysis of men's and women's roles depicted in magazine advertising in the US and Sweden. They found that US magazine advertisers were far more likely than Swedish advertisers to place women in decorative roles within the non-working role category. On the contrary, Swedish magazine advertisers were more likely to depict women in recreational roles and family roles.

Sweden has been interested since the 1970s in gender role portrayal in advertising as shows the study of Nowak, a longitudinal study of magazine of magazine advertising in Sweden and The United States during the period of 1935 to 1980. He concluded that magazine advertising in Sweden did not reflect the changing life situation as the increased of the percentage of women in labor force, for example. He concluded that the differential role portrayal became less pronounced during the 1970s, mainly due to the criticism mentioned before. Overall, he found that it was three times as likely that men rather than women were associated with employment in advertisements. As for household work, he found that an increase in men was being shown in this activity. He also noticed, that "US magazine advertising seemed to follow a similar pattern for these variables whereby traditional roles of men and women dominated advertising, but non-traditional roles increased" as mentioned by Wiles and Tjernlund (1995, p.40). They also found that female models were under-represented in Dutch advertisements, while male models were less often presented in American and Swedish advertisements. "The researchers found that men and women in Swedish advertisements were shown in a more equitable manner than their counterparts in the other two countries and they also suggested that this difference is due to subtle differences in cultural background" (Zhang, Srisupandit and Cartwright, 2009, p.689).

Between 1980 and 1988, Holmqvist (1989) studied the differences in the portrayal of masculinity and femininity by Swedish women's magazine advertising. She found that in 1988 in comparison to 1980, it was twice as common for males to be depicted in a working role as compared to women. As for the 1980, women were portrayed as more active in 1988 and males more passive, she also found that there was an increase in the number of both males and females portrayed in decorative roles.

Although little changes have been noticed ever since the 1970s in both Sweden and the USA, Lazier and Kendrick (1993) noted that recent studies have added the evidence that stereotypical and limiting images prevail in advertising. Moreover, they concluded that the advertisements do reflect our current culture, including its stereotypes, dominant values and tendencies to maintain the traditional *status quo*.

Finally, a comparison between Eastern and Western gender roles portrayals was undertaken by Griffin, Viswanath and Schwartz (1994) which indicated that Indian magazine advertisements portrayed women in the traditional roles of housewives, for example, nevertheless this changed due to the western influence in India which lead to portray women as career-oriented individuals. The major difference they found was that US advertisements contained higher frequency of occupational roles and sexual displays than the Indian advertisements. According to Ford, LaTour, Honeycutt, and Joseph (1994), adult women from New Zealand were very critical of their role portrayed in advertising, women from USA were also critical but in a lesser degree and women from Thailand were the least critical. Thus, he concluded that women in different cultures with higher levels of self- declared female autonomy were more critical of company image and were less inclined to purchase a company's products which appeared "offensive" advertisements.

Moreover, Al-Olayan and Karande (2000) analyzed magazine advertisements from USA and the Arab World (e.g. Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates). They found that people were depicted less frequently in Arabic magazine advertisements. When those advertisements had pictures of men and/or women, they were portrayed to the same degree in USA and Arab World. A study taken by Milner and Collins (2000) of sex-role portrayals in Japan, Russia, Sweden and USA that used Hofstede's framework, found that television commercial from feminine countries (Russia and Sweden) showed more depictions of relationships between both male and female characters than did masculine countries (Japan and USA).

3. Methodology

In this chapter, the methodology conducted in this study is presented. It includes the kind of method used, the type of research done, population and sample chosen, and the instrument to collect the empirical data for the consecutive analysis.

This thesis has adopted content-analysis as the research method to examine how women and men were portrayed in Swedish, French and Spanish magazine ads. Print magazine advertisements have been used extensively in previous research because of their high quality and impressive images (Ferguson et al., 1990; Ford et al., 1998).

The Courtney and Lockeretz (1971) classification scheme is used in analyzing the content of the magazine advertisements. Each advertisement, which included one or more adults, was selected to determine the number and sex of all adults and their working role or non- working role. The non-working role would be classified as family, recreational and decorative. Family, depicted models with children or other family members in a familiar environment (e.g. Home). Recreational portrayals were models in leisure activities (reading, watching television) or sports (hiking, swimming). In the case decorative roles, the models were passive and their main function was to adorn the product/service as a sexual or attractive stimulus.

3.1. Method

A qualitative research is used to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations. It provides insights into the problem or helps to develop ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative research. A qualitative research is also used to uncover trends in thought and opinions, and dive deeper into the problem. Qualitative data collection methods vary, using unstructured or

semi-structured techniques. Some common methods include focus groups (group discussions), individual interviews, and observations. The sample size is typically small, and respondents are selected to fulfill a given quota (Wyse, 2011).

A quantitative research is used to quantify the problem by generating numerical data or data that can be transformed into useable statistics. It is used to quantify attitudes, opinions, behaviors, and other defined variables – and generalize results from a larger sample population. Measurable data is used to formulate facts and uncover patterns in research. Quantitative data collection methods are much more structured than qualitative data collection methods. It includes various forms of surveys (online surveys, paper surveys, mobile surveys and kiosk surveys), face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, longitudinal studies, website interceptors, online polls, and systematic observations (Wyse, 2011).

Our study is a both a qualitative and quantitative research, as content-analysis is to be used. Content analysis is a method of changing qualitative data into quantitative data (e.g. television programs), so that it can be statistically analyzed or used descriptively (Han & Shavitt 1994). Observations are done by the analysis of the advertisements that appear in the magazines of the three selected countries and consecutively, the Courtney and Lockeretz (1971) classification scheme is utilized after numerical data is gathered and converted into useable statistics to reinforce the consecutive analysis of the empirical data

3.2. Type of research

Exploratory research studies (or formulated research studies) are defined as the initial research into a hypothetical or theoretical idea. The main purpose of such studies is to formulate a problem for more precise investigation or to develop the working hypotheses from an operational point of view. The major emphasis in

such studies is on the discovery of ideas and insights. This is where a researcher has an idea or has observed something and seeks to understand more about it. An exploratory research project is an attempt to lay the groundwork that will lead to future studies, or to determine if what is being observed might be explained by a currently existing theory (Kothari, 2009).

The Exploratory research is used when you need to simplify and better understand the problem and get a better insight of the topic. It is flexible and adaptable to change which implies that researchers need to be open to the idea of changing the direction of the study (Collins & Hussey, 2009).

Descriptive research studies are defined as attempting to explore and explain by providing additional information about a topic. The aim is to obtain complete and accurate information about the topic. This is where research is trying to describe what is happening in more detail, filling in the missing parts and expanding our understanding. This is also where as much possible information is collected instead of making guesses or elaborate models to predict the future - the “what” and “how”, rather than the “why” (Kowalczyk, 2014). This kind of research is used to gain an accurate profile on people, situations or events. It can also be linked as an extended version of exploratory research or an explanatory research (Saunders, 2012).

Explanatory studies are attempting to connect ideas in order to understand cause and effects. Researchers want to explain what is going on, how things come together and interact. So they focus on “why” questions and look for explanations of the nature of certain relationships. Hypothesis testing provides an understanding of the relationships that exist between variables (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2006). This sort of research will often end with statistical tests such as correlation to get a better overview of the relationship (Sanders et al., 2012).

This study is to be based on two kind of researches as the purpose is to link previous theories with the results obtained from the actual research conducted in this thesis. Therefore, first it would be an exploratory research, as an initial research is done into previous studies done in the field to formulate the problem and lay the groundwork to the further analysis of the empirical data. There has been previous studies into the theoretical idea of this research and so, our study will add knowledge to the current existing theories that come from this. Thereafter, it also is a descriptive research as we seek to provide additional information about the topic: we describe what kind of roles is portrayed in ads from different magazines of different countries.

3.3. Population and sample

From a statistical point of view, the term “Universe” refers to the total of the items or units in any field of inquiry, whereas the term “population” refers to the total of items about which information is desired. The population or universe can be finite or infinite. The population is said to be finite if it consists of a fixed number of elements so that it is possible to enumerate it in its totality while it is infinite when the number of items is infinite i.e., we cannot have any idea about the total number of items (Kothari, 2009).

Thereafter, in order to create a more accurate research, we must divide the population. According to Thyer (2010), the sampling process divides the population into different segments. Or in other words, it is the process of obtaining information about an entire population by examining only a part of it. In most of the research work and surveys, the usual approach happens to be to make generalizations or to draw inferences based on samples about the parameters of population from which the samples are taken (Kothari, 2009).

This process is the use of several methods that allows marketers to identify a

group of persons, objects or phenomena that will be used to represent the total population (Thyer, 2010). Samples are sub groups of the population and by studying samples the researcher should be able to draw conclusions that are generalizable to the population of interest (Sekaran & Bougie, 2011).

There are two types of sampling techniques, probability and non-probability (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005).

3.3.1 Probability sampling

The probability sampling indicates that the chance of a member of the population to be chosen is known and is usually equal for all cases (Sekaran & Bougie, 2011). The probability sample must provide the most valid or credible results because they reflect characteristics of the population from which they are selected (Hays & Imbert, 2013).

3.3.2 Non-probability sampling.

The non-probability sample is less desirable than a probability sample. This kind of sample indicates that the chance of a number from the population to be selected is not known (Sekaran & Bougie, 2011). However, due to the fact that it might be difficult for a researcher to obtain a probability sample or stratified sample as it might be too expensive (Sommer & Sommer, 2006), non-probability samples are more commonly used. Non-probability samples rely on personal judgment during the process and though, these judgments may provide good estimates of the population, they do not permit an objective evaluation (Sommer & Sommer, 2006). Three different methods allow us to obtain non-probability samples: the convenience sampling, the judgment sampling, and the quota sampling (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005).

3.3.2.1 Convenience sampling.

Subjects are chosen because of the convenient accessibility and proximity to the market (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005). This is the least costly and time-consuming of all the sampling techniques (Malhotra, 2010).

3.3.2.2 Judgment sampling.

This kind of sampling method is based on the knowledge of a population and the purpose of the study (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005). Judgment sampling is a kind of convenience sampling where the population selected for the study is based on the own judgments of the researcher (Malhotra, 2010).

3.3.2.3. Quota sampling.

Attempts to ensure that the sample is representative by selecting samples in a way that the proportion possessing a certain characteristic is approximately the same as the proportion in the population (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005). In quota sampling “researchers use non-random sampling methods to gather data from one stratum until the required quota fixed by the researcher is fulfilled” (Bajpai, N. 2007, p.105).

3. 3. 3. Choice of sampling method.

In this research, a non-probability sample is used as the data for the study comes from selected magazines with different target markets. This kind of source makes unknown the chance from a number of the population to get chosen, which as

mentioned before is the characteristic of a non-probability sample (Sekaran & Bougie, 2011). The selection of magazines was based on those of greater circulation, according to available data media sources (convenience sampling). Therefore, the sample of this research consists of the advertisements displayed in the two magazines of each country (Spain, France and Sweden) selected. One magazine directed to a female target (fashion magazine) and another to a male target (sports magazine). Of these magazines, most of them were of monthly publications except for the French fashion magazine, which was weekly, and the Swedish sports magazine, bimonthly. Anyways, the sampling months were selected randomly, April and May for the fashion magazines, and March and April for the sports magazines. The magazines directed to the fashion market segment were chosen of a brand that publishes in the markets of the three selected countries, while the magazines directed to the sports market segment, were chosen randomly among the magazines of this segment of the market of the three countries.

Thus, sampling methods were convenience sampling as the chosen magazines were those of easiest access, but also judgment sampling as the population selected were those readers of the magazines chosen which in our opinion, might be representatives of a huge part of today's society.

3.4. Instrument to collect the data.

When it comes to the collection of the data, there are two different kinds of data to collect, primary and secondary data. Primary data is data can be explained as new information, information that will be gathered specifically for one purpose (Saunders et al., 2012). These two data collection methods can serve as complementary sources of data providing conformation increase the credibility of the findings (Cowton, 1998), or making up for the others inadequacy. The primary data will be collected through conversations and interviews where the researcher asks the questions and listens as the respondent's answers, while the secondary data will be collected through sources such as Internet and pamphlets (Warren.

2001).

In other words, as expressed by Hays and Imbert (2013, p.25-26) “primary data can be obtained by different methods such as, survey research, experiments and observations. Secondary data is information that has already been collected by someone else for another purpose”.

The task of collection of primary data is done by experiments in experimental research but in case of a research of the descriptive type, surveys are performed, whether sample surveys or census surveys, then we can obtain primary data either through observation or direct communication with respondents in one form or another or through personal interviews. This, in other words means that several methods of primary data collection are to be used, particularly in surveys and descriptive researches, such as: observation method, interview method, questionnaires or schedules, as well as, content analysis (Kothari, 2009).

Secondary data, on the contrary, means data that are already available, data that has already been collected and analyzed by someone else. When a researcher wants to use secondary data, then he must look into various sources from where he can obtain them. In this case, he is certainly not confronted with the problems that are usually associated with the collection of original data. Secondary data may be published or unpublished data. Sources of published data might be: books, reports prepared by research scholars, universities, economists, etc. in different fields; and public records and statistics, historical documents, and other sources of published information. The sources of unpublished data are many; they may be found in diaries, letters, unpublished biographies and autobiographies and also may be available with scholars and research workers, trade associations, labor bureaus and other public/ private individuals and organizations (Kothari, 2009).

When gathering secondary data, the researcher must be very careful, as mentioned

by Kothari (2009, p. 111) “A.L.Bowley, very aptly observes that it is never safe to take published statistics at their face value without knowing their meaning and limitations and it is always necessary to criticize arguments that can be based on them”.

Primary data is to be used in this thesis as the data gathered is based on advertisements of the magazines chosen of each country. More specifically, the data is collected through content-analysis, the analysis of documentary materials such as books, newspapers or magazines, being the last one the chosen media. Indeed, magazines are the easiest way for us to get the data, as we are not watching TV in Sweden for example.

Since the 1950's, content-analysis is mostly qualitative and concerns the general import or message of the existing documents (Kothari, 2009). As Bernard Berelson (1952) mentions “Content-analysis is measurement through proportion...Content analysis measures pervasiveness and that is sometimes an index of the intensity of the force”. However, another author suggests that content-analysis is a method of changing qualitative data into quantitative data, so it can be statistically analyzed or used descriptively (Han & Shavitt, 1994). Then, we might conclude that content-analysis is a method that combines qualitative and quantitative method.

This kind of analysis may also imply a relatively simple level or a subtle one. It is simple when certain characteristics of the document are pursued or verbal materials can be identified and counted. It is subtle when the researcher makes a study of the attitude, which might have the press towards the education by feature writers (Kothari, 2009). Thereafter, in this case a subtle level is pursued as only the characteristics of the gender role portrayed in the magazines are identified and analyzed.

The sample elements come from the advertisements of the magazines chosen. The selected magazines to be analyzed (two issues of each magazine) are the following:

1. Directed to a female target:
ELLE, fashion magazine that publishes in the three selected countries with its own edition for each.
2. Directed to a male target:
 - SportTraining, a Spanish sports magazine. Covers all different kinds of sports but mostly focuses on general training for athletes.
 - Sportmag, a French sports magazine. Gives an insight into the latest sports news in France.
 - Offside. A Swedish football magazine that covers news from football of an international level to the second division of Sweden, for example.

Nevertheless, although primary data is the main source of this research we complement the findings together with the academic journals and books to be able to ensure the validity. This implies that secondary data is also used because the data that comes from secondary sources might serve as an answer to the newly formulated question, smooth the pilot stage of the project or provide with a wider sample base the researcher for testing interpretations (Hox & Boeijs, 2005). For this study, a great number of studies in the field have been gathered from different books and scientific articles in order to help answering the purpose of this thesis as well as to complement the findings of the primary data.

3.4.1. Operationalization.

In order to collect the primary data, the operationalization conducted followed a content-analysis in which data gathered from advertisements from magazines of the selected countries was converted into statistical data. Afterwards this statistical data is used descriptively when analyzing how the role of men and women are portrayed in advertising campaigns in Sweden, France and Spain, comparing these countries as well as counteract the findings with previous theories stated at the theoretical framework of this thesis.

Tables are used to exhibit and explain the collected data. These tables follow the classification previously used by Wiles and Tjernlund in 1995 in their study, “A comparison of gender role portrayals in magazine advertising” which at the same time follows the Courtney and Lockeretz (1971) classification scheme. This scheme classified the one or more sex adults displayed in the advertisement to determine the number and sex of all adults and their working or non-working roles. These roles were also depicted into different kinds of categories. After explaining this, in the next page is the table of contents of the information to be collected:

	Male			Female		
Collected informations/ Country	France	Spain	Sweden	France	Spain	Sweden
Working roles	High-level executive					
	Professionals: doctors, engineers, models, lawyers...					
	Professional Sports/entertainer: athletes, actors/actresses, singers...					
	Semi-professional: Sales or mid-level business person.					
	White-collar: Person who performs managerial or administrative work.					
	Blue-collar: Working class person who performs manual labor.					
Non-Working roles	Family roles: The models are with children or other family members in a family environment.					
	Recreational role: Models are depicted in an activity of leisure, as reading or watching television, or in an activity of sports, as jogging or swimming, for example.					
	Decorative roles: Models are passive and their primary activity is to adorn the product or the service as a sexual or attractive stimulus.					

3.4.2 Credibility.

3.4.2.1. Reliability.

Reliability is defined, as the ability to reduce mistakes and errors and make sure that the research is yield by consistent findings. As pointed by Saunders (2012), three different questions ensure the test of the reliability of the study:

- Will the measures yield the same results in other occasions?
- Would similar observations be obtained by different observers?
- Is there transparency in the way in which the data was collected?

If we were to answers these three questions, for this thesis, in the case of the first question, will the measures yield the same results in other occasions? Not really. In a different occasion, although the same scheme/measures were to be followed, if the magazines analyzed were not the same, the results obtained would differ as time passes and so does the society who might transform and therefore, advertising will reflect eventually changes in society (Linder, 2004).

Would different observers obtain similar observations? Yes, they would. Following the Courtney and Lockeretz scheme, similar results are to be obtained even by different authors as the magazines analyzed would be the same and so, the operationalization to collect the data.

Finally, is there transparency in the way in which the data was collected? Yes, there is. To make sure the data is correctly analyzed, both authors of the thesis have analyzed and collected it.

3.4.2.2. Validity.

“Validity defines whether the research truly measures what it was intended to, or how trustworthy the research results are” (Gylling & Schlosza, 2013, p. 30).

To collect trustworthy results from the magazines, statistical data has been gathered as properly as possible by the two researchers, both following a previously chosen and prepared scheme. Excel files have been compiled and stored, so in case of a discussion about the interpretation of the results or the way that they have been collected; they would serve as evidence of the validity of this thesis. Also, all the secondary data comes from the databases from the library of the University of Halmstad, which validates its source and authors.

4. Empirical Study.

To collect the data, we decided to analyze the advertisements found in two issues of two kinds of magazines: a fashion one and a sport one.

4.1 Empirical Data Sources.

- The fashion magazine:

Elle

An International fashion magazine, available in its Spanish, Swedish and French versions. Indeed, Elle is a really famous magazine worldwide and one of the world's best-selling fashion magazines. The magazine focuses on fashion, beauty, health and entertainment.

Elle reaches over 69 millions of readers, and 82% of them are women between 18 and 49 years old.

The first edition of Elle was published in France on the 21th of November 1945. At the beginning, there were only about 20 pages. Elle was quite different from the other magazines, which look like mode catalogues, as the magazine focused more on high fashion personalities than on the fashion collections.

By the early 1950s, it imposed its own style by being a pioneer in the fields of American-inspired sportswear, which lives its infancy or ready-to-wear that will know its golden age the next decade.

In 1969, Elle started its internationalization with an edition of the magazine in Japan. It continued with the US and the UK editions in 1985. Year after year, the magazine was more and more famous. Nowadays, there are 43 international editions in over 60 countries.

- The sports magazines:

Sport Training magazine (Spain)

Born in July of 2005, this magazine aims to occupy certain existing gap between sports magazines in Spain. Until its emergence, this sector used to divide its publications into two major groups: trade magazines or "fitness " and purely technical magazines.

Sport Training magazine intends to merge the strengths of both groups with the idea of getting a good technical magazine in a more striking and commercial presentation, embellishing it with sections of "technical download " such as interviews, news, reports, etc. Therefore, it might consider Sport Training Magazine as the first commercial - technical magazine of the sport sector.

It is aimed at the sports competition sector in all levels, where coaches and athletes might obtain resources that lead directly to practice. Understanding as competitive athlete as anyone who trains to improve, whatever his or her level might be.

Sportmag (France)

Sportmag is a young French magazine. Its aim is to fill the lack of the other sports magazines: it is not only focusing on one sport but on all the different sports readers could be interested in. Even if football, rugby and basketball take the bigger part of the magazine, the editorial direction decided to put in light other sports, less famous, like tennis, horse riding or bowling.

Then, every month, readers can find all the news regarding sports today in France, the results of competitions, but also interviews of top athletes and well-detailed articles on worldwide present sport, like for the Olympic Games.

Offside (Sweden)

Offside is a Swedish bimonthly football magazine. Its name, Offside, comes from the football law of the same name.

Offside started in March 2000. Offside Press AB publishes issues six times a year although an extra issue is published when larger events approach, such as FIFA World Cup. The headquarters of the magazine are located in Gothenburg.

Each edition consists of 130 pages, more or less, with three to five long articles of 10-30 pages and several shorter interviews and reports. Their articles cover news from football around the whole world (e.g. from Bolivia to Spain) while also covering the news from all the divisions of Swedish football. Some people that have written for Offside include journalists such as Simon Kuper, Sid Lowe, to writers as Phil Bali or former Prime Minister Thomas Bodström, among others.

The two editors of Offside, Mattias Göransson and Tobias Regnell won the Swedish journalist prize “Stora Journalistpriset” in 2002.

Thereafter, the journey of this magazine follows a constant rise, as it was a small independent newspaper with no budget, which has taken higher leagues, won prizes and its respect among the market. Now being the biggest football magazine in Scandinavia, as a survey was undertaken among 40.000 Swedish to select the best sport magazine and Offside took the first place.

4.2 Empirical Data Collection.

We decided to use the classification of Courtney and Lockeretz to analyse the content of magazine advertisements. We analysed each advertisement in which there was an adult to determine the sex and the working role or nonworking role of each adult. The advertisements in which there were children, teenagers or crowd scenes and so, in which it was difficult to determine individual roles were excluded from the analysis

Here are the tables in which we have put our results.

Table I: Total working and nonworking roles portrayed by gender and country (percentage).

	Male			Female		
Category/Country	France	Spain	Sweden	France	Spain	Sweden
Working roles	65	44.7	31.25	14.7	13.9	17.9
Non Working roles	35	55.3	68.7	85.3	86.1	82.1

Table II: Working roles portrayed by gender and country (percentage).

	Male			Female		
Category/Country	France	Spain	Sweden	France	Spain	Sweden
High-level executive	0.0	17.7	4	0.0	4.2	5.9
Professionals	17.4	5.9	12	25	33.3	14.7
Professional sports	78.8	70.5	76	68.7	33.3	67.6
Semi-professional	3.8	5.9	8	6.2	0.0	8.9
White collar	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.4	0.0
Blue collar	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	20.8	2.9

Table III: Non-working roles portrayed by gender and country (percentage).

Category/Country	Male			Female		
	France	Spain	Sweden	France	Spain	Sweden
Decorative role	14.3	33.3	32.7	54.8	71.1	81.4
Family role	0.0	23.8	5.5	0.0	7.4	0.7
Recreational role	85.7	42.9	61.8	45.2	21.5	17.9

Genders portrayed.

The classification scheme produced 189 adult roles for the French magazine advertisements, 270 adult roles for the Swedish magazine advertisements and 211 adult roles portrayed in Spanish magazine advertisements.

The numbers and percentages of male versus female roles portrayed are the followings: in French magazines, 109 (57.7 per cent) females and 80 (42.3 per cent) males were portrayed; in Swedish magazines, 190 (70.4 per cent) females and 80 (29.6 per cent) males were portrayed; in Spanish magazines, 173 (82 per cent) females and 38 (18 per cent) males were portrayed.

Within each country's set of advertisements, females are more frequently portrayed than males; in the Spanish and Swedish advertisements, the percentage of females portrayed overwhelms the one of males. However, in the French advertisements, the distribution of males versus females portrayed was approximately equal.

Working roles versus non-working roles portrayed.

Table I exhibits the percentage of working roles and non-working roles by gender within each country's sample of total roles portrayed.

From the total French male sample of 80 roles, 65 per cent were portrayed in working roles and 35 per cent were portrayed in non-working roles, when from

the total female sample of 109 roles, 14.7 per cent were portrayed in working roles and 85.3 per cent in non-working roles.

Non-working roles were depicted in greater numbers as compared to working roles of both genders within each country's sample, except in the French male sample. It is noteworthy that non-working roles were indicated for males in over 55 per cent of each country's sample (except for the French sample) and for females in over 80 per cent of each sample. Another interesting finding is that Swedish magazine advertisers portrayed men in greater numbers (68.75 per cent) in non-working roles than those in Spain (55.26) per cent) or France (35 per cent).

Working roles.

Table II exhibits the percentages of working roles by gender and country.

Both Swedish and Spanish advertisers portrayed men and women in greater numbers at the high-level executive position than French advertisers. The country, which portrayed women in higher frequencies for the entertainer/professional sports category, is France. However, males were equally portrayed in this category in all countries. Both the Swedish and Spanish portrayed women in higher numbers in the blue-collar working role as compared to France. The dominant working role portrayed by each country's sample can also be ascertained by viewing Table II. The more prominent roles for men appeared to be entertainer/professional sports for the three countries. Dominant working roles for women appeared to be entertainer/professional sports for France and Sweden, and to be split between the entertainer/professional sports and professionals categories for the Spanish advertisements.

Non-working roles.

Table III exhibits the percentage of non-working roles by gender and country. Dominant non-working roles portrayed by the three countries appeared to be recreational for men and decorative for women. Swedish and Spanish advertisers more often depicted women in decorative roles as compared to family or recreational roles, whereas in France, women are quite equally portrayed in decorative and recreational nonworking roles. For the men portrayals, they are more often portrayed in recreational nonworking roles compared to family and decorative roles in France and Sweden, whereas in Spain, it is split between the three categories.

A comparison of family, recreational and decorative roles between countries provides some interesting insights. Spain leads in utilizing family roles for both genders. The French advertisers lead in the application of the recreational role for both men and women.

5. Analysis of Empirical Data.

In this fifth chapter, the analysis of the results will be presented. All the results conveniently extracted from all the data gathered are analyzed in consequence of the theoretical framework and thereafter, an answer to the purpose of this thesis is provided.

According to Hofstede, “the sex role distribution common in a particular society is transferred by socialization in families, schools, and peer groups, and through the media”(5, p.176). Therefore, his Masculinity index (MAS) might be expected to have some sort of relation to the distribution of gender roles in advertising. His theory is based on whether a nation would have a low Masculinity index scores, the consequences would be a belief in the equality of sexes. And on the contrary, a nation with a high Masculinity index scores, one would expect a clear differentiation among sex roles (Wiles et al.1995). Hence, this study compares three countries, one low MAS scoring nation, Sweden (MAS = 5), and two high MAS scoring nations, Spain (MAS = 42) and France (MAS = 43). Thus, in return of these scores, the expected results would exhibit lower gender role portrayal differentiation in Sweden advertisements, while in the higher scoring nations, France and Spain, might reflect a higher gender role differentiation.

A comparison was made across the three nations to determine which percentage of working and non-working roles were portrayed by gender and country. Table I depicts this comparative information. The French magazine advertisements depict the highest level of working roles portrayed by men, a 65 per cent, followed by Spain with a 44.7 per cent, and Sweden, 31.25 per cent. On the contrary, in the case of female portraying working roles, Sweden takes the lead with a 17.9 per cent, followed by France, 14.7 per cent, and Spain, 13.9 per cent. Although the percentages of female representing working roles might be way lower than those of men, Hofstede’s Masculinity index score is tested, as Sweden, the nation with

the lowest masculinity index presents the most approximate equality among sex roles, not only it has the highest percentage of women portraying working role, but also the number of men portraying this same role it is not more than the double of those of women, which suggest a higher equality. Thereafter, there is a lower role portrayal differentiation by gender in Swedish advertisements. This adds to the researches undertaken by Wiles and Tjernlund (1995) which found that men and women in Swedish advertisements were shown in a more equitable manner than their counterparts in the US, and also suggested that this difference is due to subtle differences in cultural background (Zhang, Srisupandit, & Cartwright, 2009). However, the differences between the females' percentage portrayed by each country's sample in working roles are not significant.

Most of the roles portrayed by each country's advertisements were mostly non-working roles: decorative, recreational or family. Table I depicts, as it is noteworthy that non-working roles were indicated for males in lower than a 70 per cent for each country's sample, and as for female in over a 80 per cent of each sample. Another interesting finding is that Swedish advertisers portrayed men in greater number (68.75 per cent) in non-working roles than those in Spain (55.3 per cent) and France (35 per cent). These result confirm what was shown in a comparison of advertising done in 11 different countries where the use of appeals in advertising varies with Hofstede's original four cultural dimensions (Albers-Miller and Gelb, 1996). This applies so, to why the results of French magazine advertisements and Spanish magazine advertisements represent a higher number of female portraying non-working roles in comparison to those of male, being a 85.3 per cent and 86.1 per cent of females representing non-working roles respectively, and only a 35 per cent and 55.3 per cent of males portraying these very same roles.

Although, from this point of view, it might seem that these results reflect that those known as masculine countries (higher MAS index), show a bigger inequality among sex roles portrayed. The truth is, as for the case of Spain, for

example, previous studies showed that Spain has changed over the last decades and magazine advertisements have changed with it. It has experienced a substantial increase in the number of working women and these have become a more important target market, which advertisers have realized and so, they have tried to reflect their everyday lifestyle in the advertising today to be more effective (Royo-Vela et al. 2007). As mentioned by Pollay and Lysonski (1993, p. 39), “a lack of identification with the roles portrayed may reduce the attention, credibility, retention and subsequent recall on any advertisement”, accordingly, the percentage of women represented in traditional roles (non-working activities such as housekeeping, cooking or shopping) has decreased (Royo-Vela et al. 2007). But as it is shown by our results, the number of females depicted as non-working is three times the number of males, which means men were more likely to be shown in working roles as that is the usual role that has been portrayed over the past decades as suggested by previous researches (Odekerken-Schröder et al. 2002). Julia T.Wood (1994, p.231), once mentioned “three themes describe how media represent gender: women are underrepresented, men and women are portrayed in stereotypical ways, and finally, depictions of relationships between men and women emphasize traditional roles and normalize violence against women”.

As for France, Biswas (1992) found that sex appeal was used more in French than US advertisements. Although our study does not take the US as a sample, this might help us understand one of the reasons that cause the high number of non-working women in French advertisements, as they are represented more likely as an object of affection. Or as Erving Goffman (1979) analyses, women are pictured in magazine advertisement in the following subordinate fashion to men: women appear shorter; men instruct women; women appear to be drifting in deep thought while men’s eyes are focused properly; and women appear helpless.

In consequence to the results obtained, this study tries to prove that the role portrayals presented in magazine advertising in this three countries depict cultural

biases and stereotypes. More specifically, following Hofstede's framework and as a study taken by Milner and Collins (2000) suggests, it tries to show that countries may be described as feminine or masculine and so, more depictions of relationships between male and female characters prevail in masculine countries (France and Spain), than in feminine countries (Sweden).

Table II exhibits the total percentage of working roles portrayed by gender and country. Following a coding scheme in which individuals are classified according to their working roles as: high-level executive; professionals; professional sports and entertainer; semi-professional (sales or mid-level business person); white collar; and blue collar.

As it is shown in our results, both Swedish and Spanish advertisements portray men (4 per cent in Sweden, and 17.7 per cent in Spain) and women (5.9 in Sweden, and 4.2 in Spain) in greater numbers at the high level-executive position than the French advertisements (0.0 per cent for both, men and females). The high-level executive corresponds to the alleged highest position in the working roles coding scheme, thereafter, these differences among the results comprehend a great deal as for example, in the case of the feminine country, Sweden, a higher equality is perceived, while in the masculine country, Spain, the difference between the results obtained show a high degree of inequality. Nevertheless, the second position of Spain plus the fact, that the country has the higher degree of females portraying the working role defined as professional, and more or less decent results in the consecutive roles known as professional sports or entertainer and semi-professional, imply that although it might not be really significant, there has been an increase in the number of working women. And so, as mentioned before by Marcelo Royo-Vela, Joaquin Aldás-Manzano, Ines Küster-Boluda and Natalia Vila-Lopez (2007), advertisers are trying to reflect this. Nevertheless, these results show that there is still a long way to go to approach the level of nations like Sweden, as it is proved by the high difference between the percentages of the total working and non-working roles portrayed by gender in Spain (Table I).

The French advertisements depict males five points above the Spanish magazine advertisements in portraying male in the professional category (Table II). Nevertheless, the numbers of females portrayed in this category are eight points above of those of male, 25 per cent and 17.4 per cent respectively. This might be due to the fact stated by French advertisements where most women were depicted as models, corresponding to the professional category. The general conclusion from existing studies consider the role of culture in the use of appeals in advertising and their effectiveness is that culturally congruent appeals are used more often than non-congruent appeals (Jung J.M., Polyorat K. & Kellaris J.J., 2009). Therefore, these findings might suggest that gender role portrayals in advertisements reflect the cultural values in each country.

Consequently, as Table II depicts, no greater differences among male portraying the professional sports/entertainer-working role are noticed between each country's sample results. It is noteworthy that this category shows the more prominent results so far among the working roles scoring scheme, in both male and female. By taking the lead the French advertisements (78.8 per cent), the professional sports/entertainer category indicates for males in over a 70 per cent of each country's sample (76 per cent for Sweden, and 70.5 per cent for Spain) and for females, in over a 60 per cent of each country's sample (68.75 per cent for France, and 67.6 per cent for Sweden), except for Spain (33.3 per cent). Although the result of Spain might be lower than its counterparts, it is highest result so far in working roles portrayed by women (the categories of professional and professional sports/entertainer have both a 33.3 per cent). Although these numbers do not help us to break the general approach done by previous studies where the differences among portrayals are due to the culture-bond characteristics of advertising as supported by De Mooji (1998) who observed that in feminine cultures with small gender role differentiation between women and men (e.g. Sweden), men do not mind taking female roles while on the other hand, in masculine cultures (e.g. France and Spain), women are hardly portrayed in

advertising taking men's role; these results outline that among the working role portrayed by gender, advertisers approach equality in this three countries when portraying men and women in the professional sports/entertainer category which proves that advertisers have improved their way of portraying women by developing from their traditional way, (e.g. housekeepers), to a "modern" day-to-day women, which in this case would be a successful sportswoman or entertainer, mainly due to the movements increasing feminist consciousness (Ford & LaTour, 1993). As for men, it also proves that they continue to be shown as "aggressive, dominant, and engaged in exciting activities from which they receive rewards from others for the masculine accomplishments" as mentioned by J.A. Doyle (1989, p.111).

Dominant working roles for women against men appear to be in both, the white collar and the blue-collar categories, mainly in Spain with a 8.4 per cent in the white collar category and 20.8 per cent in the blue-collar one. As for Sweden, only a 2.9 per cent of women are shown portraying a working role in the blue-collar category. The male gender, as well as France's sample result for both female and male, show non-results for this two categories. As it is explained in the methodology, white collar implies a worker who performs administrative work, while blue-collar is a working-class person who performs manual work. If the traditional roles are taken into consideration, where women are portrayed as younger and thinner than women in the population as a whole, and most depicted as passive, dependent on men, and enmeshed in relationships or housework (Davis, 1990) or as decorative objects, younger than men and associated with some special employment status (Hovland, 2005), one would expect that manual work would fall upon the "strong, aggressive and dominant" pillar of the population, men, while all paperwork would fall upon the "tender, analytical and concerned about the quality of life instead of material success", women (Hofstede, 1980). This being said, our results counteract these theories in the blue-collar category as non men is portrayed among each country's magazine advertisements in contrast to those of women. Nonetheless, women performing administrative

work are indeed proved by the results (8.4 per cent in Spain).

On the other hand, as mentioned before, most of the roles portrayed by each country's magazine advertisements were that of non-working roles: decorative, family or recreational. Table III portrays the total percentage of non-working roles portrayed by gender and country. The results obtained of non-working roles portrayed by gender in France, Spain and Sweden were significantly different.

From a general point of view, dominant non-working roles portrayed by males appeared to be recreational and decorative for women. Spain leads in utilizing decorative and family roles for men (33.3 per cent and 23.8 per cent respectively), while France takes the lead in utilizing recreational roles for men (85.7 per cent). In females, the results vary for each role, Sweden leads utilizing decorative roles for women (81.4 per cent), Spain leads in the family roles (7.4 per cent), and France in recreational roles (45.2 per cent).

In the case of Sweden, a theory counteracts and another agrees with our results. Holmqvist (1989) found that in 1988, there was an increase in the number of both males and females portrayed in decorative roles, which might not add up to the males result but it certainly does with the females result. Notwithstanding, the study undertaken by Wiles and Tjernlund (1995) counteracts with our results as they found that Swedish magazine advertisements were more likely to depict women in recreational and family roles.

In regards of Spain which leads in utilizing family roles for both sexes, its results would agree if they are to be interpreted according to Chao (2005), who observed that men are as competent as women to do womanly jobs or activities, and took womanly responsibilities as their own, such as cooking, housecleaning and taking care of children. This is tested by the higher percentage of men portraying family roles than the one of females, 23.8 per cent and 7.4, respectively.

Finally, France shows consistency as it takes the lead portraying the recreational role by both genders (85.7 per cent for males, and 45.2 per cent for women) in comparison to its counterparts, but still having the higher degree of female portraying a decorative role which agrees with Biswas (1992) theory mentioned before, who found that sex appeal was used in France to captivate the eyes of the consumer and women were portrayed as sex objects. However, men are portrayed engaged in physical sports or performing leisure activities (J.A. Doyle, 1989). This also tests how a masculine country such as France (Hofstede,1980) shows a higher inequality between the roles portrayed by gender due to its high Masculinity index score (MAS=46) as in this case, men are showed performing activities that enhance its physical traits while women are seen more as a decorative object that makes the product more appealing.

6. Conclusion.

This final chapter of the thesis includes a conclusion of all the findings, practical implications, critical reflections and some ideas for future research.

6.1 Conclusion

From previous findings done in this field of study and a methodological approach based on the analysis of magazines of three different countries, this thesis contributes to what has previously been found within other theories and academic journals. Its aim is to add knowledge to the several studies done on gender portrayals across countries.

The research question for this thesis states; how the role of men and women are portrayed in advertising campaigns? After collecting the data, this study concludes that although most of the roles portrayed by gender were non-working roles, the results show how males were depicted in higher degrees in working roles than females. This suggests that even if there has been an increase in women in the working force and strides have been made at the workplace in these three countries, women still appear to be portrayed in advertising as the most passive character among the sexes. This is shown in our results as over an 80 per cent of women portray non-working roles (86,1 per cent for Spain, 85.3 per cent for France, and 82.1 per cent for Sweden).

As we are following Hofstede's framework, we can say that due to this general assumption mentioned before, we agree with Hofstede's theory that suggest that whether a country is masculine, higher inequality is shown among sexes, while in a feminine country equality is supposed to prevail. This is tested by the results obtained as Sweden considered a feminine country, shows the smallest difference between the total percentages of working and non-working roles portrayed by gender (31.25 per cent for male, and 17.9 for female in working roles; and 68.75

per cent for male, and 81.1 per cent for female in non-working roles). This shows higher equality than its counterparts, the considered masculine countries, France and Spain, which the differences vary significantly among sexes.

Concerning the working roles, the most portrayed for both genders and countries is the entertainer/professional sports category. France takes the lead in portraying this category, by both genders (78.8 per cent for males and 68.75 per cent for females).

As most of the roles portrayed by each country's sample were non-working roles, this study confirms what Andren (1978, p.120) said "advertising would hardly ever refer to working life ... Its main results is that we identify life with leisure ... Work is not a real part of life". According to our results, dominant non-working roles portrayed by males appear to be recreational and decorative for women. The country portraying the highest degree of men representing recreational roles is France (85.7 per cent), while the country portraying the highest degree of females representing a decorative role is Sweden (81.4 per cent).

Our thesis agrees with the general assumption that recreational roles could be acceptable for men in these three countries. On the other hand, our results counteract with previous researches done that suggests that family roles could be more culturally congruent with Sweden's visual images of men and women (Wiles & Tjernlund, 1995).

Due to the subtle differences between the uses of gender roles in advertising in these three countries, we believe that advertisers who are planning global campaigns for the products can benefit by locating the target country according to Hofstede's masculinity index. As we agree with Hofstede's theory, because it is shown by our results, the country with the low masculinity index score shows higher equality among gender roles portrayals than the countries with higher masculinity index score. This could benefit companies, as their campaigns will be more efficient and effective.

6.2 Practical implications

There are lot previous studies done in the field of gender portrayals in advertising. Most of these studies have been done across countries and cross culturally. Although previous studies may have been done in Sweden and in Spain, those were done separately. None study had been done in France. So the comparison between these three countries fills this gap.

This thesis tries to fill the gap in the research of how roles of men and women are portrayed in advertising campaigns. So it could be useful for companies that want to start an advertising campaign in these three countries. Also the use of Hofstede's theory may help to make further studies on how Hofstede's masculinity index reflects equality or inequality among sexes in the targeted countries, and so established a more effective campaign.

6.3 Limitations

The aim of this study was to determine how men and women are portrayed in advertising campaigns in these three countries. The media chosen in the methodology was magazines, as it was the easiest one to get and available.

But we have had to face several limitations, as the results from the data gathered from the magazines may give a general view of how men and women are portrayed in the advertising of the three countries. But we cannot generalize the findings for all the advertising displayed in each country's market, as the other medias might have subtle differences in the way they portray men and women.

The research was limited in time and resources, as we have done it while we were

in Sweden, it made even difficult sometimes to find French and Spanish magazines. Moreover, in the case of the Swedish sports magazine, we had some difficulties to find a relevant one; and as in Sweden, the sports magazines are mostly published bimonthly while in France and in Spain, you can find them monthly.

Another limit is that the study was done according to advertisements of fashion and sports magazines only. Maybe the sample of magazines was not enough diversified to have really general conclusions.

With this being said, our study has tried to give the most accurate answer to the research question.

6.3 Further studies

For future studies about the gender role portrayal in advertising, the research should include other media such as the TV, Internet or newspapers.

Moreover, additional classifications can be added to the working role/non-working role-coding scheme to provide greater description and understanding of these roles.

Concerning future researchers, this thesis could be used as guideline for the future study in the field of gender role portrayals in advertising. As well as for companies, trying to accomplish a better approach to the society when planning their future advertising campaigns.

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