

# Chapter 1 Introduction

In the dynamic environment, advertisers need to update new information and to create fresh and appealing advertisements for attracting consumers. There are many methods to do it. One of them is to utilize sex appeal in advertising. This research focuses on reaction of respondents from two different cultural backgrounds (Russian and Taiwanese) on female and male models with different degree of nudity.

The following chapter consists of three parts. They are: Research Background, Research Problems, Research Purpose and Necessity.

## I. Research Background

In our everyday life we are surrounded by advertisements that compete for our attention. Everywhere we look, we find ourselves inevitably drawn to images of attractive men and women that are supposed to inspire us to purchase products and brands they endorse. (Andersson and Petersson, 2004)

Advertising is commonly defined as “any paid form of non personal communication about an organization, product, service, or idea by an identified sponsor” (Belch and Belch, 2001), and, by its very nature, advertising is a form of persuasive communication (Thorson, 1990). Falk (1997) describes modern advertising as an active strategy for marketing.

It is very difficult for ordinary people to pay attention and remember all of advertisements. Due to this marketers stretch the limits more and more in order to break through the advertising clutter and to be noticed among the potential consumers. In some cases they cross the limits of what is considered acceptable and the advertisements are perceived as provocative (Andersson and Petersson, 2004).

There are different types of provocative advertisement. Dahl (2003) mentions 7 types: disgusting images, sexual references (sex appeals), profanity/obscenity, vulgarity, impropriety, moral offensiveness and religious taboos (Dahl, 2003). Among all these types sex appeal advertisement is considering to be the most popular and the most attractive nowadays.

It is evident that the use of sex appeal in advertising is on the increase and it is widely used for all sorts of products in different countries (Gould, 1994). It is even used for social marketing campaigns (Reichert, 2001). Now in the advertising context, there is strong evidence that sexual information attracts attention (Belch, 1981; Chestnut, LaChance, and Lubitz, 1977; Reichert, 2001). Research findings showed that sexual ads are engaging, involving and interesting (Bello, 1983; Dudley, 1999; Judd, 1983; Reichert, 1995).

## II. Research problems

Nowadays sex appeal in advertising includes eye-catching female models (Kuriansky 1995; Miller 1993) as well as attractive male models. Stereotypes of sex appeal models are so strong and have a great influence on people's beliefs and actions, even if we do not realize it (Rader and Silverman, 2003).

In advertising, the use of highly attractive models is believed to be effective in increasing sales. However, support for this view is inconsistent in the marketing literature. For example, Bower and Landreth (2001) noted positive effects of employing attractive ad spokespersons. Patzer (1983) also suggested that it resulted in better advertising effectiveness.

However, Bower (2001) noted that highly attractive models could decrease advertising effectiveness because it deflated the self-image of potential customers when they compared themselves to models. According to Horney and Lasch (1978) attractive models in advertising can lead to unhappiness, anxiety and neuroticism, although, the scholars point out that these images are unrealistic.

Over the last 25 years, researchers investigating the effectiveness of sex appeal ads (most often female models ads viewed by men) have reported mixed findings, in general concluding that such ads attract attention but do not improve either recall of or attitude towards ad and brand (Jones, 1998).

The emergence of male ads prompts the question of whether responses parallel those to female ads. Further, recent literature on differences between the genders in responses to the same stimuli suggests that men and women may respond differently to any ad that makes a gender perspective salient (Jones, 1998).

Another factor that can greatly influence consumers' attitudes towards sex appeal advertising, as well as presence of female or male model in it, is their cultural background.

In our century of globalization the topic of different cultural background of people and culture in general should be taken into consideration. According to Hofstede (1984), culture is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another.

Culture affects everything we do. This applies to all areas of human life from personal relationships to conducting business abroad. When interacting within our native cultures, culture acts as a framework of understanding. However, when interacting with different cultures this framework no longer applies due to cross cultural differences (Payne, 2001).

The degree to which people like or dislike, approve or disapprove advertising in general, without any doubts, is related to their culture. For example, the Dutch and the Scandinavians have a critical position toward advertising, whereas the Americans, the British, and especially the Japanese have made it a part of their daily lives (Hofstede, 1998).

It was proved that cultural background plays an important role in influencing consumers' responses towards men and women models in

sex appeal in advertising. Sex appeal advertising is culture specific (Boddewyn, 1991). It is perceived and judged by different criteria across cultures. When it comes to sex and advertising in different countries there are differences not only on appropriate roles of men and women but also in consumer attitudes towards sex roles in advertising (Holancova and Orth, 2003).

A major difference exists between Western and Eastern cultures in their views on sex appeal in advertising. In Europe sex appeal is widely used and accepted. In France, for example, it is used even more than in the USA (Biswas, 1992). On the other hand, it is well documented that Muslim countries disapprove all kinds of body display and direct and indirect sexual references. There is an obligation to conform to codes of sexual conduct and social interaction, which includes modest dress for both men and women. In addition, all Arab countries oppose to some extent to the use of sexuality in advertising (Boddewyn, 1991), while some companies adjust their advertising slogans and remove nudity (Usunier, 1996).

To summarize all problems that were raised before, it should be mentioned that this study proceeded from two premises. The first is that consumers' responses to gender sex appeal advertisement must be studied. The second premise is that it should be tested how cultural background of respondent influences attitude towards model gender appearance in sex appeal advertising.

### III. Research purpose and necessity

The purposes and necessities of this research are:

Different model gender appearance in sex appeal advertising, without any doubts, influences consumers' attitude towards ad and brand. In spite of the fact that there are plenty of researches about sex appeal advertisement, they did not pay much attention to gender difference of models that appear in this kind of advertisement. So the following research aims to study this topic in a more detailed way. One of the main problems for companies is to make choice between placing a man or woman in their advertisements. Selecting the right person to appear in an advertisement can influence the consumers' perception about the product or the company that is advertised (Sadek-Endravis, 2008).

After the right person was selected for the advertisement, the next question is: what is the appropriate degree of model's nudity in sex appeal advertising. Should model wear a bikini or it will be too offensive? How will respondents react to this kind of advertisement? The following research tries to use advertisements with different degree of nudity and compare consumer's reactions to it.

If respondents are from different countries, understanding cross-national differences is often believed to be a key condition for successful international advertising (Fibrasova, Koenig, and Orth, 2007). So, cross-cultural study can help to understand the advertisement effect on people with different cultural backgrounds

and it can bring more understanding to the question: Should sex appeal advertising be standardized or localized?

Considering all problems and questions which were raised, this study can be used by managers as a part of their considerations they should have when deciding communication strategies.

Moreover, it can bring further understandings for those who are interested in topic: culture and advertising.



## Chapter 2 Literature Review

The following chapter discusses previous researches related to the present study. It consists of six parts which are: Historical Context for the Present Study, Sex appeal in Advertisement, Model Gender Appearance in Sex Appeal advertisement and the History of its Research, Attitude towards Advertisement, Cultural differences and Cross-cultural Researches, Sex Appeal Advertising in Russia and Taiwan.

### I. Historical Context for the Present Study

After the sexual revolution between 1964 and 1984, history witnessed a dramatic increase in the use of sex appeal in advertising. Advertisers have responded to an increased receptiveness to sexual material as sexual conservatism decreased. Studies show an increase in quantity as well as in explicitness (Belch, and Belch, 1990; King and Merenski, 1974; Reed, 1986; Reichert, 1999; Reed and Soley, 1988).

The popularity of sex appeal certainly justifies the study of its effectiveness. More use can be taken as a sign of effectiveness. In fact, some researchers have pointed out that the motto “sex sells” is an implicit assumption among advertisers (Reichert, 1999; Sullivan, 1988;



Thompson, 2000). There remain critics whether sexiness increases effectiveness. Some critics point out that people are less dependent on advertisement for sex since sexual material is more readily available now from a variety of sources, particularly the Internet.

## II. Sex appeal in advertisement

Sex appeal advertising is defined as an emotional appeal that includes sexual or erotic imagery to draw interest to a particular product, for purpose of sale (Belch, 1981).

According to Heller (2000) sex was not as common in Mass Media during the beginning of twentieth century as it is today. But over the past 100 years the human body has been exploited in advertising and it has been provocatively used to sell products (Heller, 2000).

Sexuality is considered to be one of the most powerful tools of marketing and particularly advertising. Gallup and Robinson, an advertising and marketing research firm, has reported that in more than 50 years of testing advertising effectiveness, it has found the use of the erotic to be a significantly above-average technique in communicating with the marketplace, "...although one of the more dangerous for the advertiser. Weighted down with taboos and volatile attitudes, sex is a Code Red advertising technique handle with care ... seller beware; all of which makes it even more intriguing" (Gallup and

Robinson, 2002). The firm research has led to the popular idea that “*sex sells*” (Gallup and Robinson, 2002).

Reichert and Ramirez (2000) contend that despite the prevalence and research into sexual appeals and their effects, there has not been much discussion about what really constitutes a sexually oriented appeal. In advertising research, sexual appeals have typically been defined based on overt message features (nudity, decorative models) rather than on recipients’ responses.

Reichert and Ramirez (2000) organize the definitions of sexual appeals within two categories: nudity and suggestiveness. *Nudity* is referred to as the amount and style of clothing worn by models in ads, and also as progressive stages of undress (suggestive, partially-revealing, or nude). However, the authors argue that nudity is neither necessary nor sufficient for an ad to be perceived as sexual. *Suggestiveness* is a less concrete category compared to nudity, as suggestive references to sex are implied or subtle. The suggestive categorization of sexual appeals in advertising is broad, as it encompasses camera angles, editing, seductive language, couples, double entendre, and sexual behaviors (Reichert and Ramirez, 2000).

Sexual information in ad can be represented by a variety of stimuli, but it usually consists of physical features of people (clothing, attractiveness and physique), provocative behavior and demeanor, intimate interaction between people, and contextual features (Reichert and Ramirez, 2000).

In contemporary mainstream consumer advertising (magazines, network and cable television), sex is present in promotional messages

for a wide range of branded goods. Ads feature provocative images of well-defined women (and men) in revealing outfits and postures selling clothing, alcohol, beauty products, and fragrances. Advertisers such as Calvin Klein, Victoria's Secret, and Pepsi use these images to cultivate a ubiquitous sex-tinged media presence. Also, sexual information is used to promote mainstream products not traditionally associated with sex. For example, a decade ago the Dallas Opera reversal of declining ticket sales has been attributed to the marketing of the more lascivious parts of its performances (Chism, 1999).

According to Shimp (2003), sex appeal serves several crucial roles in advertising.

Firstly, sexual material in advertising acts as an initial attention lure to the ad, which is referred to as the stopping power of sex (Yovovich, 1983). Attention is a necessary condition for learning, attitudinal change and behavioral effects.

A second function of sexual stimuli in advertising is to enhance message recall as sex is arousing, easy to relate, emotion inducing, and most of all, memorable.

Finally, the third role of sexual content in advertising is to evoke emotional responses, such as feelings of arousal, excitement, or even lust, which in turn can create stimulation and desire for the product (Bumler, 1999). According to Hoyer and MacInnis (2001), this role may affect the consumer's mood and can result in favorable cognitive processing of the ad and increase the persuasion impact.

One might ask 'why do advertisers promote sex appeal?' The answer in its purest form is that it works well in most cases and

according to Bumler (1999), most advertising executives use sex appeal as the most powerful weapon in their arsenal and therefore they use graphic images to get and hold on to audiences' attention. From a marketing perspective, sexual appeal may be advantageous for the simple reason that they prey on basic biological instincts and thus, an incredible motivational factor, which is a desirable attribute to break through clutter.

Advertisements that attract attention have the increased likelihood to affect persuasion, especially in a saturated media environment typified by passive viewing exposure (Reichert, Heckler, and Jackson, 2001). Numerous research studies have revealed that sexual appeal, when used in advertising are attention grabbing, likeable, arousing, effect inducing, memorable, and somewhat more apt to increase interest in the topic advertised in comparison to non-sexual appeal (Belch, Belch, and Severn, 1990).

While studies have shown that overt sexual portrayals attract attention to an advertisement, other numerous advertising research have also suggested that inappropriate and excessive use of sexual content can actually have a number of negative effects. Researchers investigating the effectiveness of sexy ads have shown that such ads may not improve recall or attitude toward the brand (Alexander and Judd, 1983).

Consistently, studies have demonstrated that sexual appeals attract attention to the ad, typically without a corresponding advantage for brand information processing. Sexual content may be eye-catching

and entertaining, but it may not be communicative and might distract the viewer from the message (Heckler, Jackson, and Reichert, 2001).

Heckler, Jackson, and Reichert (2001) claim that when sexual stimulus is used in advertising, viewers' perceptual and processing resources are directed towards the sexual information in the ad rather than towards brand. Belch, Belch, and Severn (1990) also argue that the use of explicit sexual messages in advertisements may interfere with consumers' processing of message arguments and brand information, which in turn may reduce message comprehension.

Furthermore, according to Furse and Stewart (2000), initial devices such as sexual stimuli overwhelm the message and are negatively correlated to both recall and persuasion. Finally, there has been evidence to suggest that overt sexual appeals may have detrimental effects on attitudes toward the ad and brand, and therefore may reduce purchase intention (Grazer and Keesling, 1995). These findings led Jarowski, MacInnis, and Moorman (1991) to advance the proposition that hedonic appeals, such as sexual stimuli, increase motivation to process the ad execution, but largely at the expense of the brand. All of these threaten to act as potential hazards of using sex appeals.

It appears that numerous ads that are using sex appeal seem to get attention but do little for the advertised product. For instance, Alexander and Judd (1983) found that ads with decorative female models increase memory for the image in the ad with no difference in actually reading the information of the advertisement.

In particular, nudity and erotic content was found to increase attention to the ad, but not necessarily enhance recall or positive attitudes towards brand. As a result, sexual appeals stimulate less argument elaboration and connecting thoughts than will non-sexual appeal. Additional evidence also suggests that, as the level of nudity increases, the intended communication effects either become negative or dissipate (La Tour, Pitts, and Snook-Luther, 1999). Therefore, despite the persuasiveness of sexual appeals when used in advertisements, it is likely to be the result of peripheral processes and as a result may be transient.

In addition to the aforesaid negative effects of advertising, bad uses of sex symbols in advertising may lead to unacceptable perception by audience. According to Courtney (1983), the widespread use of sex as an advertising technique has elicited significant consumer protest. On top of that, as clutter increases in advertising, consumers appear to be more able to physically avoid advertising (Bumler, 1999). For this reason, every advertiser has pragmatic need to stand out. As marketers focus on developing messages that stand out, too many of them forget that their focus should not solely be on the execution devices, but on the core message (Jones, 1998).

Misuse of sex appeal can be costly. Many campaigns deemed offensive have started brand boycotts that affect sales and damage brand reputation. *Abercrombie & Fitch* has been involved in several scandals, the latest from their most recent catalog entitled “XXX Wet, Hot Summer Fun.” On April 18, 2002, only a week after the catalog

hit the stores, the Illinois State Senate passed a resolution condemning A&F's advertising tactics. This resolution, backed by several nonprofit organizations, suggests citizens and shareholders boycott Abercrombie's products and to take a stand against the company's marketing strategies. Although nude images in catalogs are not at all uncommon, "XXX Wet, Hot Summer Fun" featured naked boys and girls. Not quite appropriate for an apparel catalog targeted at teenagers (Jones, 1998).

In 1994, Treise and Weigold made a study with the purpose to explore consumer perceptions of sex appeal advertising. Regarding the use of sex appeals in advertising they consider the focus on women as sex objects to be particularly troublesome. The sexually explicit ads that are employed for a lot of different products negatively portray women solely in terms of one narrow and stereotypically presented aspect of their gender roles: as sex objects (Treise and Weigold, 1994).

Treise and Weigold (1994) contend that although it is often believed that "sex sells", it does not do so without creating some controversy. This statement is supported by the study, as the sample's responses showed that large numbers of consumers are troubled by the use of sex appeals. While most respondents felt that sex appeals for certain products are acceptable if done tastefully, a majority believed that there is too much sex in current advertising, and that nudity is not appropriate for general interest magazines. More than half of the respondents also thought that sex appeal ads play a role in fostering teenage sexuality, a view that the authors find particularly interesting

considering current problems of teenage sexuality, pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases.

Henthorne and La Tour (1994) discuss a spectrum of sexual appeals that may be viewed as a narrow to broad continuum. The narrow range of this continuum covers material that shows explicit nudity or portrayals of the sex act itself. In contrast, the broad range encompasses material that is not overtly sexually explicit, e.g. attractive, “sexy” dressed couples in subtle but sensual poses. The authors state that the use of sexual advertising continues to be a controversial topic, “as evidenced by the strength and variability of reactions to it”.

It is however difficult for advertisers to determine whether viewers will perceive ads containing provocatively posed and attired models as “sexy” or “sexist”, due to the continually changing attitudes in society toward the whole issue of sex and what is considered to be decent and acceptable.

Henthorne and La Tour (1994) formulate two hypotheses: First, an ad that contains a strong overt sexual appeal will result in significantly less favorable response on moral philosophical ethical dimensions than an ad that contains a mild sexual appeal. Second, an ad that contains a strong overt sexual appeal will result in significantly less favorable attitude towards ad, attitude towards brand, and buying intention than an ad that contains a mild sexual appeal. The authors found general support for both stated hypotheses.



La Tour and Henthorne (1994) conclude that both men and women have potential ethical concerns about the use of strong overt sexual appeals in advertising.

Sex in advertising has stirred controversy for many years, an advertiser must be careful when incorporating it in a campaign. Great advertisers consider not only the attention-getting power of an advertisement or commercial, but also what kind of emotional response it provokes in customers. Studies show that the attractiveness of the endorsing model provokes positive responses. Nudity and graphic erotic content, while still increasing consumer's attention, doesn't really generate positive feelings among viewers. In other words, advertisers must be careful to avoid the "cheap shot," which may negatively affect a brand's image (Levitt, 2000). To avoid that, the sexual content in advertising must be appropriate to the product category and have a proper underlying message (Jones, 1998).

### III. Model Gender Appearance in Sex Appeal Advertisement and the History of its Research

Content analyses reveal that the vast majority of sexual content in advertising comprises visual representations of half-naked or nude

men and women (Biswas, Olsen, and Carlet, 1992; Soley and Kurzbard, 1986).

Besides being about appearances, advertising is about gender. Gender is part of its social structure and its psychology. Gender conditions our response to what we see and helps us to decide what to buy (Barthel, 1999).

Gender appearance in advertisement is an aspect that cannot be excluded when planning the advertising strategy because according to the chosen strategy consumers will react positively or negatively. Although one might assume that males and females process information in an equivalent manner, research reveals that substantial gender differences do exist.

For example, females appear to have a superior ability in correctly recalling task sequences (Nicholson and Kimura, 1996), in object recognition from studying visual stimuli (Harshman, Hampson, and Berenbaum, 1983), and have been found to perform better on color naming tasks (Saucier, Elias, and Nylén, 2002).

The idealized image of the models in advertising is pictured different depending on gender. Men are often pictured as trendy, classic and upscale. On the other hand, women tend to be pictured as exotic or cute (Ashmore, Englis, and Solomon, 1994; Gulas, 2000).

Obviously, men often appear superior comparing to women. Women are often pictured as weaker and helpless with dreamy eyes while men are instructing them while having more focused look. Men appear stronger, women appear sensitive etc (Goffman, 1979).

Women are frequently shown in advertisements to promote cosmetics, personal hygiene products or products for cleaning the home. This gives the message that women have to improve their looks and their natural place is the house (Mayne, 2000) .

Women are used over and over again in advertising as sex appeals. But, some do not realize that these advertisements are often targeted at women as well. Victoria's Secret underwear is a good example of this. They want women to think that if they buy Victoria's Secret underwear, they could be like beautiful models on their commercials (Chan, 2007).

For years, many people have believed that women are the primary focus of sex appeals used in advertising. This is not necessarily correct. Women seem to be the target most recognized in sexual appeals, but men have been targeted more recently (Taflinger, 1996). According to Ericsson (2005), the male image is changing and men are more often portrayed as sex object as it was before.

Some recent ads that target men as sex objects and sexual appeals are *Abercrombie & Fitch* and *Calvin Klein*. Abercrombie & Fitch is notorious for using men as sexual objects in their advertising. Many times, it is a large group of men standing around half naked if not completely nude. Although this company is a clothing company, they mainly advertise using naked pictures of their models. This does not make much sense except to assume they are trying to sell sex (Chan, 2007).

The history of research in the field of sex appeal model gender advertising has followed advertising practice. Beginning more than 50

years ago, an advertiser might occasionally or routinely place a scantily clad female model in an ad offering a utilitarian product to men, assuming that attention to ad would thereby increase. Once researchers began testing the efficacy of including such a model as an attention-getter, they simply followed advertising practice: they conducted their researches using a highly attractive female model and an audience of men. They measured the effects on not only attention, but also other variables, such as brand name and copy point recall (Jones, 1998).

As sophistication increased, researchers added women to their pool of respondents and included measures of attitude towards ad, realizing that for women the attitudes could well be negative (Baker and Churchill, 1977).

Then psychological researchers prompted further complexity by showing the interrelationships of attitudes and cognitive variables. At roughly the same time, other researchers perceived that men as well as women might respond negatively to sexual images unrelated to the advertised product. More complex relationships were tested. As the next step, research with male models as well as female models appeared, with male and female respondents, primarily focusing on attitudes and finding differences depending on sex of respondent (Jones, 1998).

Among researchers who have used attracted male models are Simpson, Horton, and Brown (1996). They found an opposite-sex effect: female viewers liked male models better than male viewers did.

Some earlier studies (Belch and Belch, 1981; Sciglimpaglia, Belch, and Cain, 1978) had used nude male models and female models and found that respondents reacted more negatively to models of their own sex than to those of the opposite sex. However, later studies using models that were attractive but not sexy produced different results.

Patzer (1983) tested for differences between male and female viewers in liking for an ad with attractive (but not nude) models of each gender and found no difference by sex of viewer. Likewise, Caballero, Lumpkin, and Madden (1989) and Caballero and Solomon (1984) did not find an effect on purchase response for the viewer's sex in the presence of attractive model. The apparent lack of an opposite-sex effect for model attractiveness without sexiness suggests that the sexiness of the model may drive the effect.

More positive effective responses towards models of the opposite sex were found in studies by Baker and Churchill (1977), particularly for a nude male model or female model. Most prior work on gender differences supports an opposite-sex effect: sex appeal ads showing the opposite sex are viewed more favorably than are ads depicting a model of the viewer's own sex.

A broader conclusion, however, is that sex appeal ads evoke gender differences in measures of advertising effectiveness whether a study examines ads with same-sex illustrations, opposite-sex illustrations, or both. Explanations have alluded to a possible role of social and cultural factors in those differences. Scott (1994) and Stern (1993) make the case for gender specific interpretations of sex appeal

advertising, and Thompson and Hirschman (1995) note that widespread social constructions might give rise to the meanings people bring to attractive model and other gendered stimuli. Stern and Holbrook (1994) explain that gender must be considered when attempting to understand a consumer's "meaning-making process," as gender will interact with cultural context to influence consumer responses to communication.

Elliott (1995) using discourse analysis analyzed the conversations of separate male and female focus groups about four sex appeal ads. Four male and four female focus groups were conducted, each moderated by someone of the same gender as its participants. The researcher concluded that both male and female participants responded positively to equality in sexual images or to perceived artistic sexuality, and responded negatively to sex-role stereotyping and the objectification of women. Interestingly, it was found that little comment on the objectification of men for the one ad that contained a sexy male image rather than a female image.

One could hypothesize that men reaction to male models parallels female reactions to female. However, we might not expect that to be true in view of the political loading imposed on sex appeal ads with female models. Elliott observed that the focus group reactions appeared to take social and political themes into account. The same political/social themes were voiced by both male and female participants, and not generalized to the ads containing male models by either gender.

Hence, though there seem to be gender-specific interpretations of advertising (Scott, 1994) and cultural context seems to play a role (Stern and Holbrook 1994), so, a parallel reaction effect can't be inferred.

#### IV. Attitude towards Advertisement

Public attitudes towards advertising in general have long been a focus of research (Mittal, 1994; O'Donohoe, 1995; Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Zanot, 1981, 1984). According to Zanot (1981, 1984), first large scale, national surveys of public opinion about advertising date back to the 1950s and 1960s (Bauer and Greyser, 1968; Gallup, 1959). Many recent studies have also been conducted (Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1994; Andrews, 1989; Mittal, 1994; Muehling, 1987; O'Donohoe, 1995; Reid and Soley, 1982; Leckenby and Sandage, 1980; Haefner, Lowrey, and Shavitt, 1998) but most of these have been more focused upon investigating the structure of advertising attitudes rather than the generalization of overall attitude favorability. Although the studies on advertising attitudes have varied widely in the types of samples used and the data collection methods employed, they have focused upon many of the same dimensions of judgment. Respondents typically have been asked not only about their overall attitudes towards advertisement but also their perceptions of advertising's trustworthiness, offensiveness, informativeness, entertainment value, and effect on product prices and value, as well as attitudes toward regulatory issues.

Early surveys of advertising attitudes yielded somewhat favorable, albeit mixed, results. Gallup (1959) found that a majority of their respondents generally liked advertising and that most of those respondents liked it because they felt it was informative. They also found that a majority of respondents preferred advertised products over unadvertised products, although most also felt that advertising increased the cost of things they buy.

Bauer and Greyser (1968) found that more people held favorable attitudes toward advertising than unfavorable attitudes and that a majority of respondents felt advertising was essential. Still, a majority of their respondents felt that advertisements were misleading and that they resulted in higher prices. Zanut (1981, 1984) argued that, beginning in the 1970s, attitudes towards advertising became increasingly negative. For example, Harris and Associates (1976) found that a majority of respondents felt that most or all of television advertising was seriously misleading and favored a new federal government agency for consumer advocacy.

More recent studies have generally focused on attitude structure and, thus, have used smaller and less nationally representative sampling frames to investigate specific hypotheses. These results have typically provided a rather unfavorable assessment of public attitudes towards advertising (Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1992; Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1994; Andrews, 1989; Mittal, 1994).



## V. Cultural differences and cross-cultural researches

Advertising perceptual differences make communication challenging enough between members of the same culture, but when communicators come from different backgrounds, the potential for misunderstandings is even greater (Adler and Rodman 1994).

Lederach (1995) defines culture as the shared knowledge and schemes created by a set of people for perceiving, interpreting, expressing, and responding to the social realities around them.

Since the 1960s when advertising standardization was first being discussed (Elinder, 1961; Fatt, 1964), the question of whether companies would or would not be able to promote products in other lands using the same advertising message strategy has not been fully answered. Many scholars tend to forward the opinion that standardization can work to a certain extent. These individuals suggest that some aspects of the advertising campaign can be standardized yet other aspects should be adapted to meet the given market conditions (Light, 1990; Peebles, 1977; Quelch and Hoff, 1986). Opponents to standardization state that advertising strategies should be adapted to other markets because the cultural differences are too large to conquer with a single advertising campaign (Kotler, 1986).

Anyway, nowadays more and more advertisers and marketers believe that consumers around the world have similar needs as well as desires and that the global market is growing increasingly

homogeneous. Levitt (1983) proposed that the global consumer market can be tapped by standardized advertising messages. The rapid emergence and expansion of global media have helped speed up the development of international advertising campaigns. Because of the speed of technology, many advertisers rely on global campaigns in order to grasp the market a step before the competitors (Kaplan, 1994).

Advertisers are becoming more sensitive to how consumers from different cultural and social backgrounds perceive these “standardized” messages (Frith and Mueller, 2003). Most empirical studies have implications that advertising messages should tie in with the local cultural tastes in order to be acceptable to the consumers (Cheng, 1997; Ramaprasad and Hasegawa, 1992).

Although there is an arguably increasing desire among marketers to utilize similar advertising campaigns for all markets (due to the many benefits), it is argued that there are still enormous cultural barriers that make its use impractical (Biswas, 1992). Some suggested that companies should pay attention to cultural similarities and differences (Gregory and Munch 1997), since there are significant dissimilarities in the way advertisements are perceived in various countries (Ramaseshan, 1996).

Studying a certain culture can be a key to lead the marketers or the managers select the right communication strategy that will be followed there. Ignoring the cultural aspect may bring undesirable results to the companies (Bonnedaahl, 2008).

Advertising is shaped by social norms, values and trends. Understanding a composition of national identity is believed to be

critical in market research (Cheung, 2007). The findings from the studies which were found share common themes: consumers who perceive informational and entertainment value from advertising as an institution is more likely to hold a positive general attitude towards advertising strategies (Petrovici, 2007).

Wills (1982) surveyed 500 managers, advertising executives, academics, consumers and business students in six countries on their attitudes to advertising. This was one of the earliest studies to examine attitudes towards ads outside the US. Since then a number of studies have been conducted to examine cross – cultural attitudes towards ads.

Ashill and Yavas (2005) studied the congruence between Turkish and New Zealand consumers. In summary they found that attitudes towards advertising were consistent in both countries. Turkish consumers, like their New Zealand counterparts, are increasingly market - aware consumers who are discouraged by false claims and advertising hype.

Petrovici and Paliwoda (2007) surveyed students, consumers and advertising executives in Romania to establish public opinion on advertising in a post - Soviet economy. The study supported Pollay and Mittel's work on consumers' use of advertising and found that consumers in Romania needed both product information and entertainment value to rate advertising as useful. The Romanian respondents were more critical on lifestyle image demonstrated through brand ownership than other samples in market economies

suggest. The researchers suggest that this may be due to low identification with the people portrayed in advertising in general.

Waller (2005) surveyed a sample of university students from four countries: Malaysia, New Zealand, Turkey and Great Britain. Their responses to the advertising of controversial products were ranked and analyzed. The results suggest that the major determinants of attitudes are religion and historical factors.

Cross-cultural researches on consumer perceptions towards advertising are increasing. Culture plays an important role in shaping advertising campaigns and strategies. Market research can inform practitioners of how consumers perceive the benefits, value and importance advertising to ensure that campaigns are well-executed to gain and sustain consumer attention in diverse local and international markets (Cheung, 2007).

The following table 2-1 summarizes the most frequently cited studies that have been conducted in cross-cultural and intercultural advertising (not only sex appeal but advertising in general) researches over the last few years. The table demonstrates the extent to which differences in aspects of advertising have been found across countries, as well as the variety of different aspects that have been examined by the various researches.

Table 2-1 Comparison of previous cross-cultural studies

Year	Authors	Countries/Fra -mework	Aspects	Outcome
1985	Belk	US, Japan Sociological	Status Appeals in print advertising	Higher frequency of status appeals in Japan
1985	Woods	US, Korea, Quebec <i>Ethnology</i>	Consumer motivation	Significant differences
1989	Wiles and Spouts	US, UK <i>Ethnology</i>	Humour in advertising	Type of humour used similar to use in respective country
1990	Gilly	Australia, Mexico and US <i>Sociological</i>	Sex Roles in Advertising	Australian ads show lowest gender differences, largest differences observed in Mexico.
Year	Authors	Countries/Fra -mework	Aspects	Outcome
1990	Tansey, Hyman, and Zinkhan	Brazil, US <i>Sociological</i>	Themes in car adverts	Urban themes more in Brazil Leisure themes more in US Work themes equal in both
1992	Alden, Hower, and Lee	Korea, Germany, Thailand and US <i>Ethnology</i>	Humour in advertising	Some similarities, but content is different

Table 2-1 (continued)

Year	Authors	Countries/Fra- mework	Aspects	Outcome
1992	Biswass, Olsen, and Carlet	US, France <i>Ethnology</i>	Information content Emotional appeals Humour Sex	US higher in information content France higher for everything else
1992	Cutler and Javalgi	US, France, UK <i>Ethnology</i>	Visual components of print advertising	Seven out of ten components were different
1992	Katz and Lee	UK, US <i>Ethnology</i>	Information content and Advertising format	Significant differences
1992	Mueller	US, Germany, Japan <i>Ethnology</i>	Information content and standardisation	Standardised ads less informative Need for adapted ads
1992	Ramaprasa d, Hasegawa	Japan, US <i>Ethnology</i>	format of creative strategies	Few similarities, very different information strategies. "This study should give pause to practitioners who advocate complete standardization in global advertising"
1992	Zandpour, Changhui	US, Taiwan, France <i>Ethnology</i>	creative strategy, information content, and execution	"Distinct national communication patterns"

Table 2-1 (continued)

Year	Authors	Countries/Fra- mework	Aspects	Outcome
1993	Lin	US, Japan <i>Ethnology</i>	Message strategies Information content	Japanese commercials less information cues Very different message strategies
1994	Zandpour	Taiwan, Korea, Germany, UK, France, Spain, US, Mexico (+ predictions for 15 more countries, but not tested) <i>Cross- Cultural</i>	Creative strategies Information content Advertising style hypothetically predicted based on Hofstede	Broad support for hypothesised relationships in all three categories
1996	Albers- Miller and Gelb	Chile, Brazil, Taiwan, Japan, India, Israel, Mexico, US, France, Finland, South Africa <i>Cross- Cultural</i>	30 appeals based on Pollay and linked to Hofstede	18 of 30 hypothesised relationships confirmed

Table 2-1 (continued)

Year	Authors	Countries/Fra- mework	Aspects	Outcome
1996	Caillat and Mueller	UK, US <i>Ethnology</i>	Five values Rhetorical style Occasion for product usage	Differences found in all aspects
1996	Cheng and Schweitzer	US, China <i>Ethnology</i>	Western and Chinese values	Chinese commercials use more symbolism and traditional values.
1996	Wiles, Wiles, and Tjernlund	US, Sweden <i>Ethnology</i>	Youthfulness racial distribution body shape level of undress leisure/houshold/wo rk activities relationships of characters Changes over 20 years in US ads	Little difference No difference over 20 years in the US.
1996	Zhang and Gelb	US, China <i>Cross -Cultural</i>	Response to two different product ads: camera and toothbrush Two versions of ads: Individual benefit and collectivistic benefit	Chinese consumers responded more favourably to the collectivistic ads. However more so for the camera than the toothbrush



Table 2-1 (continued)

Year	Authors	Countries/Fra- mework	Aspects	Outcome
1997	Tansey	UK, US <i>Sociological</i>	Work ethics and work related advertising themes	Inconclusive: No shift in the UK, some shifts in the US.
1998	Whitelock and Rey	UK, France <i>Ethnology</i>	Standardised advertising	French advertising less standardised than UK.
1999	Cho	US, Korea <i>Cross- Cultural</i>	Themes	Korea: more youth and collectivist content, highercontext US: more shortterm enjoyment, individualistic content and lowcontext
1999	Maynard and Taylor	Japan, US <i>Sociological</i>	Girlish images in print advertising	More 'girlish' images in Japanese adverts
2000	Al-Olayan and Karande	US, Arab world <i>Cross- Cultural</i>	Information cues Price appeals depiction of men/women	US more information cues US more price information Arab fewer people
2000	Millner and Collins	Japan, Russia, Sweden, US <i>Cross -Cultural</i>	Gender roles in TV commercials	Commercials in feminine cultures depicts more relationships. However, no support for fewer gender differences or emphasis on productivity

Table 2-1 (continued)

Year	Authors	Countries/Fra- mework	Aspects	Outcome
2001	Ji and McNeal	US, China <i>Ethnology</i>	Selected appeals Activity shown Information content Number of people Gender Ethnicity of people shown	Chinese commercials reflect traditional Chinese values
2003	Koudelova and Whitelock	UK, Czech Rep. <i>Ethnology</i>	Advertising style Product usage Presenter Visual impression Music Humour Sexual appeals selected creative strategies	“Creative Strategies” similar for six out of 14 product categories. Executional format very different
2004	Lin	US, China <i>Cross-Cultural</i>	Soft-sell/Hard-sell Youth/Modernity Tradition Individualism/Collectivism Status Time orientation	Chinese commercials more traditional and collectivistic
2006	Frazer, Sheehan, and Patti	US, Australia <i>Ethnology</i>	Selected appeals Creative strategies Humour styles	Major differences found in all categories
2008	Dahl	Germany, Netherlands and UK	Appeals (Pollay 1983)	Major differences found

Table 2-1 (continued)

Year	Authors	Countries/Fra- mework	Aspects	Outcome
2009	Tai	US, Hong Kong <i>Cross- Cultural</i>	Message strategies (transformational or informational)	Significant differences found

## VI. Sex Appeal Advertising in Russia and Taiwan

In the former Soviet Union sexuality was a taboo topic, as though it were non-existent. The popular motto of those times was: There is no sex in Soviet Union. After 1987 the taboo was broken, and sex became a fashionable subject for both private and public discourse (Kon, 1995, 1997, 1999).

The explosion of sex in advertising in the last decade has spawned a sexual revolution in Russia. Nowadays sex appeal images ranks second place after children ads. Though old generation was raised in Soviet Union and it is still very conservative about sex advertising. But new generation, which was born in 1980s and after, is very open to this kind of advertising and has nothing against it.

The law of Russian Federation "On Advertising" fails to give any clear recommendations concerning ethical norms in Advertising, and its concepts are vague. This fact gives advertising market participants

a possibility to interpret this law in their own way and leads to conflict situation between advertising experts and controlling institutions. Not so long ago the Parliament of Russia has rejected the amendment to the law «On advertising», forbidding naked human body display. The similar situation happened last year in some European countries.

The Russian Orthodox Church and other prominent confessions in Russia do not pay proper attention to the problem of ethical advertising, its influence on the social consciousness and control of this influence.

Pretty girls with the thrown back heads, eating chocolate bars with their chubby lips, cubes of ice with female images in glasses of soda; body builders in underwear, ambiguous slogans on publicity boards in city centre, that's how sex appeal advertising is represented in Russia nowadays. The great amount of sex appeal advertising has already become ordinary for the present time. Sexual advertising is everywhere in Russia.

Russian psychologists - innovators suppose that boom of such advertising is the answer to the demographic crisis which has burst out in Russia and Europe. It is similar to boom of birth rate after war - at catastrophic decrease of the population, life preservation, human strongest instinct, becomes more active.

Some psychologists think that the mankind subconsciously does everything to raise birth rate, including the usage of sexual images – natural stimulators of natural instincts. Erotic advertising, thus, in their opinion, resists to demographic accident (<http://www.reklama-mama.ru/articles/17662/>, translated from Russian).

In Asia, Taiwan (as well as mainland China) is a traditional masculine society (Lih and Yeh, 2007). The history of using sex appeal in Taiwanese mass advertising is not so long. But nowadays, “Taiwanese people are becoming more open minded towards sexual issues and “sex, a [traditionally] sensitive issue, is being talked about more frequently and more openly” (Cheng, Frith, and Shaw 2005).

Many people, especially young, have become quite liberal about sex. In recent years, sex appeal advertising has been increasingly adopted in every major medium in Taiwan such as TV, magazines and the internet (Yang, 2003). It is difficult to define what is being “attractive” in the Taiwanese context but it is generally believed that men and women have different interpretations of it unlike their western counterparts. For example, to a Taiwanese man, if a woman has good appearance and anatomy, she is “attractive”; to a Taiwanese woman, if a man has good social status and personality, he is “attractive”.

Partial nudity and sexual suggestiveness are two commonly adopted strategies of sex appeal advertising in Taiwan and mainland China due to the strict regulations on what visuals can be exposed (Liu, 2005).

Though recent surveys taken in 2008 and 2009 in Taiwan have revealed that a huge majority of men and women (even including young people) still disapprove ads featuring big-breasted teenage girls and body builder handsome guys, who appear to have limited intelligence as they think. Last survey showed that 86 per cent of men and women dislike the increasing amount of sex appeal

advertisements on their screens and in magazines (from “Most Taiwanese Disapprove of TV Ads Featuring Busty Teen Girls”, Lifestyle news, 2009)



## Chapter 3 Research Methodology

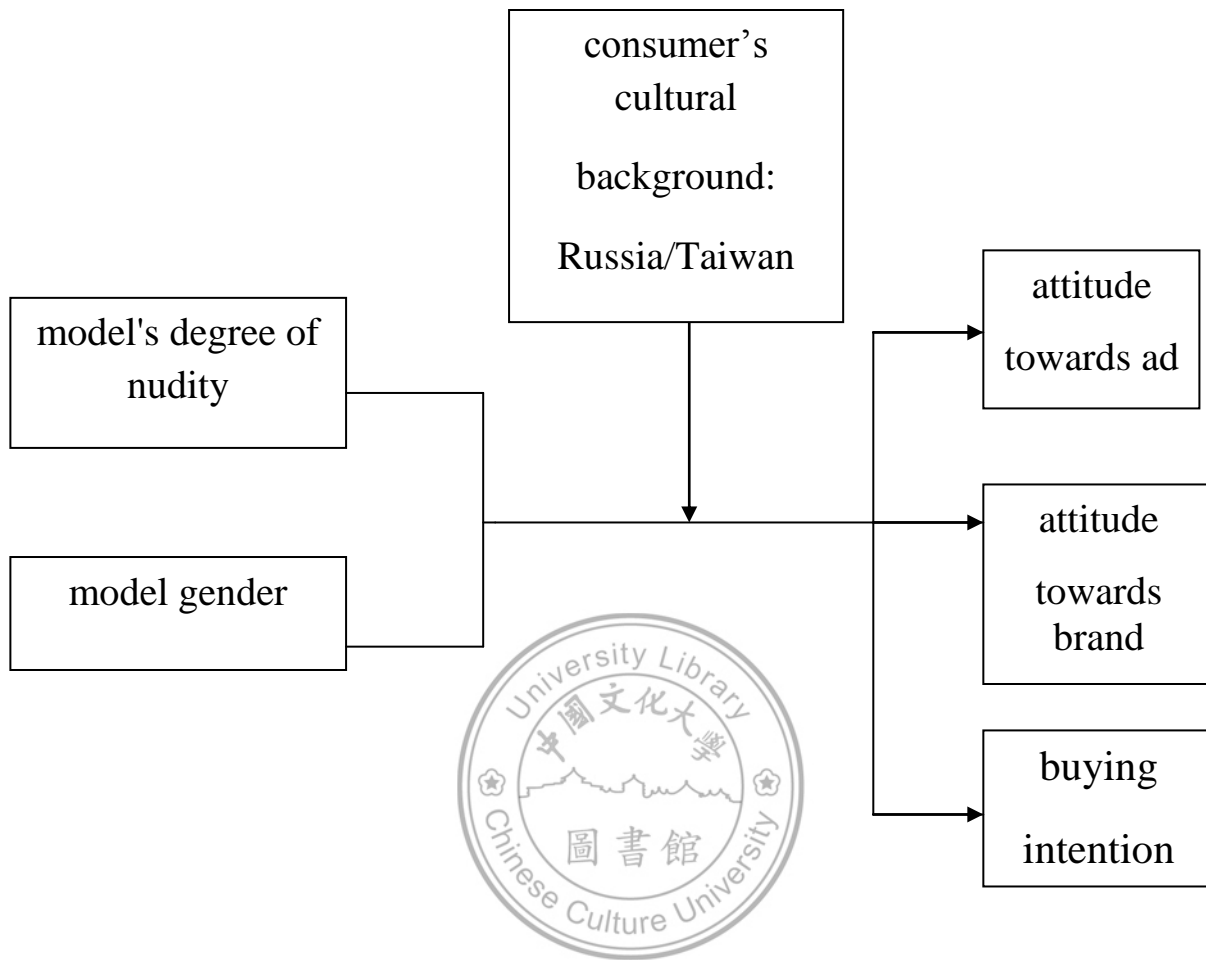
The following chapter provides research methodology and consists of eight parts which are: Conceptual Framework, Research Hypotheses, Research Design, Operational Definition of Variables, Questionnaire Design, Sample Selection, Data Collection and Data Analysis.

### I. Conceptual Framework

Three DVs - attitude towards advertisement, attitude towards brand and buying intention are used for testing the effectiveness of sex appeal ads in the present study. These three measures were adopted by most cross-cultural advertising studies and considered to be the most appropriate by many scholars who did researchers on international advertising and responses of consumers from different cultures (Choi and Miracle, 2004; Pornpitakpan, 2004; Liu, Cheng, and Lee, 2008). Model's degree of nudity and model gender (female/male) are IVs. Cultural Background (Russia/ Taiwan) acts as moderator and alter relationships between IVs and DVs.

The following figure 3-1 presents conceptual framework and shows the structure for the study:

Figure 3-1 Conceptual Framework



## I. Research hypothesizes

The present study states 3 hypothesizes which are:

H1 is as follows:

- a) The higher model's degree of nudity is the higher consumer's attitude towards advertisement will be.
- b) The higher model's degree of nudity is the higher the consumer's attitude towards brand will be.



- c) The higher model's degree of nudity is the higher consumer's buying intention will be.

This hypothesis was tested several times on Western respondents who always reacted more or less, but still quite positively on this kind of advertisement (Johnson, 1988; Lesly, 1991; Birken, 2000). Americans and Europeans buying intention and attitudes towards ad and brand all the time remained favorable in average to high degree of nudity in advertisement, except for absolutely nude and very provocative advertisement.

As for Eastern countries, it was proved that Chinese consumers still have negative attitude towards high degree of nudity and it influences badly their buying intention, as well as brand attitude and advertisement attitude (Olsen, 2006).

According to Olsen, Chinese are still conservative and sensitive to high degree of nudity unlike Western countries (Olsen, 2003).

The same point view can be found in the study of Johns, who considers Asian countries (he tested Korea and Hong Kong) to be old-fashioned about high nudity and concludes, after testing this hypothesis, that Asians still prefer low degree of nudity in advertisement. While conducting the study using high nudity degree he received negative responses about attitude towards ad and brand and buying intention.

But some researchers have opposite views about Asian consumers' reactions.

While questioning Chinese respondents, it was found out that they are not as negative as it used to be some years ago and young people are much more open than old generation who is still very negative about high degree of nudity (Liu, Cheng, Li, 2006)

Two years later the same researchers conducted cross-cultural study. They questioned American, Australian and Chinese respondents and surprisingly found out that Chinese consumers react even more positively than Australians when they saw model with high degree of nudity, they also found out that attitude of Asian consumers is more favorable recently and that Asian countries are changing their points of view and becoming more open-minded (Liu, Cheng, Li, 2008).

In this study it is believed that in general high degree of nudity will produce positive attitude toward ad and brand and buying intention of respondents from both Taiwan and Russia.

Next hypothesis is the following:

H2 is as follows:

- a) In sex appeal advertisement female model will have better impact on consumers' attitude towards advertisement than male model.
- b) In sex appeal advertisement female model will have better impact on consumers' attitude towards brand than male model.
- c) In sex appeal advertisement female model will have better impact on consumers buying intention than male model.

Since the very beginning female models were more used than male models. It was proved by several researches that female model produces more favorable effect on consumers than male model and is more suitable for many products (Johns, 1998).

Baker, while testing the above hypothesis, found out that most male and female consumers prefer female models in advertisement (Baker, 1996). Though, not all researchers share his point of view.

Some of them suppose that attitude and intentions don't depend on model gender, but on gender of respondent. So, when they tested this hypothesis, it was not supported (Lubitz, 1997; Stern, 1993).

Still, in this study Baker's and John's point of view and hypothesis were tested once more.

The last hypothesis is as follows:

H3 is as follows:

- a) Cultural background will be a moderator in relationships between degree of nudity, model gender advertisement and attitude toward advertisement regarding sex appeal advertisement. If Russian consumers (representing Western culture) see female model with high degree of nudity, their attitude towards advertisement will be higher than of Taiwanese consumers (representing Asian culture).
- b) Cultural background will be a moderator in relationships between degree of nudity, model gender advertisement and attitude toward brand regarding sex appeal advertisement. If Russian consumers (representing Western culture) see female model with high degree

of nudity, their attitude towards brand will be higher than of Taiwanese consumers (representing Asian culture).

- c) Cultural background will be a moderator in relationships between degree of nudity, model gender advertisement and buying intention regarding sex appeal advertisement. If Russian consumers (representing Western culture) see female model with high degree of nudity, their buying intention will be higher than of Taiwanese consumers (representing Asian culture).

The opinion about influence of culture was supported in all studies. These results support the argument that in international advertising, localization or standardization should be carefully considered (Shimp, 2008). Though the results were not the same regarding Eastern and Western countries.

Liu, Cheng, and Li (2004) while testing the same hypothesis about Western and Asian countries, found out that country had a significant effect on buying intention, consumers' attitudes towards ad and the brand regarding several types of sex appeal ads, but they also proved that Chinese consumers, surprisingly, have more positive opinion towards sex appeal advertisement and better buying intention as well than Western respondents (Liu, Cheng, and Li, 2008).

But some researchers came to the conclusions that nowadays Asian consumers can still react more negatively on sex appeal advertisement than Western.

In Horae and Pares's (1988) and Kim's (1996) studies the above hypotheses were tested among consumers from Korea, Singapore, China and America. They all came to the conclusions that social and culture norms are still greatly influenced by Confucian ethics in Asia.

Though in the present study the traditional point of view is tested and it is believed that Russian consumers will have more positive responses than Taiwanese consumers.

### III. Research design

A two (low/high degree of sex appeal) x two (male/female model) x two (Russia, Taiwan) between group factorial design for this cross-cultural study was adopted. The previous literature showed that consumers may respond differently to sex appeal ads featured by different gender (Taflinger, 1996) or different degrees of sex appeal (Richmond and Hartman, 1982). Therefore, research design incorporated both gender and degree of sex appeal.

Sex appeal has different dimensions such as nudity, sexual attractiveness, sexual suggestiveness (Bello, 1983). For exploratory purposes, this study uses *NUDITY* to represent the different degrees of sex appeal. In other words, the models featuring a low level of sex appeal in the ads were dressed more conservatively than those featuring a high level of sex appeal in the ads.

Table 3-1 shows 2x2x2 between group factorial design for the present study.

Table 3-1 2x2x2 between group factorial design

<b>Country</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>High degree Of sex appeal</b>	<b>Low degree of sex appeal</b>
Russia	Male	MH	ML
	Female	FH	FL
Taiwan	Male	MH	ML
	Female	FH	FL

PEPSI was selected as an advertised product for this study because this beverage is widely seen and familiar to consumers both in Russia and Taiwan. Since a consumer's response to sex appeal ad may be influenced by the gender of consumer (LaTour, 1990), choosing a gender-free type of product category such as non alcoholic beverage PEPSI was appropriate for this exploratory study. Four colorful print ads of Pepsi were found in internet. In cross-cultural studies, it is important that equivalent materials are used (Miracle and Bang, 2002). To ensure equivalence in the testing materials used in Taiwan and Russia, the ads include only a model that is drinking

beverage in similar pose, symbols of beverage and the brand name “PEPSI”.

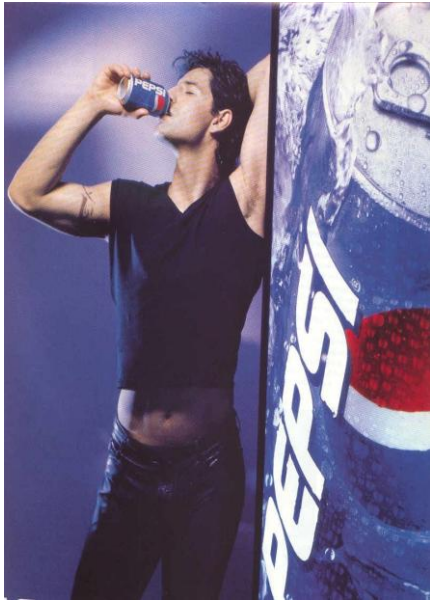
Among the four ads, the first ad (FL, female low) contains pretty female model in shorts, featuring a low level of sex appeal; the second ad (FH, female high) contains a female model in bikini, featuring a high level of sex appeal; the third ad (ML, male low) contains a male model wearing clothes with open belly and muscles, featuring a low level of sex appeal; the last ad (MH, man high) contains a semi naked male model, featuring a high level of sex appeal. All four male and female models are of a similar age (under 30) and look physically attractive. Here are these four pictures for the study (1FL, 2FH, 3ML, 4MH):



1FL



2FH



3 ML



4MH



## IV. Operational definition of variables

### I. Model gender in sex appeal advertisement

Since the very beginning of the history of advertising women and men models were the main endorsers for different products and brands. We got used to see beautiful girls and handsome boys, so called “idealized models” in ads. They smile to us from billboards and persuade us to buy stuff they endorse (De Lamater, 1987).

Historically, marketing campaigns used women in erotic roles more often than men, so people got used to see women. However, in recent years young men have increasingly been used in a similar



manner, though women continue to be depicted in sexualized roles disproportionately (Hill, 2002). It is considered, that sexy male and female models can influence greatly consumers attitude towards the ad and towards the brand. Present study aims to investigate this influence of gender appearance in sex appeal ad in a detailed and unique way.

## II. Degree of Nudity

Nudity is referred to the amount and style of clothing worn by models in ads, and also as progressive stages of undress (suggestive, partially-revealing, or nude). In other words, the models featuring a low level of sex appeal wear more clothes than those featuring a high degree.

## III. Cultural background

Cultural background of a person is defined as collective expression for all behavior patterns acquired and socially transmitted through symbols. It describes what people develop to enable them to adapt to their world, such as language, gestures, tools to enable them to survive and prosper, customs and traditions that define values and organize social interactions, religious beliefs and rituals, and dress, art, and music to make symbolic and aesthetic expressions (Hofstede, 1983). In the present study cultural background will act as moderator variable which is a third variable that, when introduced into an analysis, alters or has a contingent effect on a relationship between IV and DV (Zikmund, 2002).

#### IV. Attitude towards Advertisement

Attitude towards ad has been defined as a "predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure situation" (MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch, 1986). It may contain both affective reactions, e.g., ad-created feelings of happiness, and evaluations, e.g., of an ad's credibility or informativeness (Baker and Lutz, 1988).

This definition does not specify the components of the ad stimulus upon which attitude toward the ad is based. The contents of the ad copy (brand attribute information), the headline, the creative platform (use of humor and other appeals to support delivery of the message), and ad images or pictures presumably all contribute to forming the attitude (Edell and Staelin 1983; Baker and Lutz, 1988) but anyway, pictures may communicate much information about the advertised brand (Dickson, 1986).

#### V. Attitude towards Brand

Attitude towards the brand is defined as the feelings and evaluations consumers hold about a specific brand. Brand attitude, which includes beliefs formed from ad brand attribute information and inferences based on ad picture content (Gardner 1985; Mitchell and Olson, 1981), mediates the impact of attitude towards ad on intentions, i.e., there is no direct attitude towards ad - intention link. This seems

to be the most popular view (Mitchell, 1986; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989; Machleit, 1988; Mitchell and Olson, 1981; Shimp, 1981).

## VI. Buying Intention

Whitlark, Geurts, and Swenson (1993) define buying intention as a purchase probability associated with an intention category at the percentage of individuals that will actually buy product.

Buying intentions refer to the degree of perceptual conviction of a customer to repurchase a particular product (or service) or to repurchase any product (or service) at a particular organization. The implicit assumption made by those who gather and analyze consumer intentions data is that they will reflect future sales behaviors. Research in social psychology suggests that intentions are the best predictor of an individual's behavior because they allow each individual to independently incorporate all relevant factors that may influence the actual behavior. Armstrong, Morwitz, and Kumar (2000) compared buying intentions with other sales forecasting tools. They found that buying intentions represent an accurate measure of future sales and that it provides better forecasts than an extrapolation of past sales trends.

The benefits of maintaining a base of long-term customers are widely recognized by marketers. Given that the cost of retaining an existing customer is less expensive than prospecting for a new customer (Spreng, Harrell, and Mackoy, 1995), buying intention is a very important consideration for financial institutions.

## V. Questionnaire design

The first part is the picture of model. Respondent should look on it and after that he can answer the questions.

The scales of attitude towards ad and attitude towards brand were both adopted from Lee (2000).

There are five attitudinal statements for attitude towards ad:

1. This ad is appealing to me.
2. This ad is attractive to me.
3. This ad is interesting to me.
4. I think the ad is bad.
5. I dislike the ad.

and three attitudinal statements for attitude towards brand:

1. My attitude toward this brand is favorable.
2. I like the brand.
3. My overall evaluation of this brand is good.

The measure for buying intention was adopted from the two-item scale developed by MacKenzie (1986):

1. It is likely I would buy this product.
2. It is possible that I would recommend this product to my friend.

All statements are of a seven-point scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree).

Last part of questionnaire includes questions about respondent's cultural background, gender, age, education, income and marriage status.

## VI. Sample selection

Average students from Russia and Taiwan were chosen, because students are widely used for various kinds of academic research (Smith, 1995). Most subjects participating in this study were within the age group of 18-25 year olds.

Using student participants was appropriate for this study. First, student samples are considered more homogenous than non-student samples, so using a student sample for a cross-cultural study may actually improve the internal validity of the results (Ozsomer, 1991). This is why university students are often recruited in cross-cultural advertising studies (Garcia and Yang, 2006). Second, sex appeal is one of the major advertising techniques used to target young consumers. College students represent the population that this study purports to represent. Finally, college students, usually among the most receptive of new ideas in any nation, are already an important market in these two countries under study, not to mention their growing potential for bigger buying power upon their graduation. So, their attitudes toward sex appeal advertising should have significant implications for advertisers, especially international advertisers.

## VII. Data collection

As culture and sex appeal advertising is a broad subject, plenty of information was found about it. However this information is too broad when it comes to the gender dimension, cultural background and its influence on consumers.

The search of sources began by searching in Chinese Culture University database. Some books and articles, discussing theories and past empirical studies about this topic, that were useful for this study, were found. Some articles turned out to be very helpful to conduct this study. They were taken from a great variety of research journals such as: Journal of Marketing, Journal of International Management, Journal of Advertising, Journal of Marketing Research, International Journal of Advertising, Journal of Advertising Research, Journal of Marketing Practice, Journal of consumer research and others. To find these articles key words such as “sex appeal advertising”, “cultural dimension”, “model gender”, “cross-cultural researches”, “degree of nudity”, “culture components”, “cultural background” etc were used. In each search many articles were found. To make this selection the articles with the most interesting titles were chosen.

Even though internet sources are not considered to be reliable enough when conducting a research, some information from websites were used in the present research as well. However, the usage of these resources is limited and taken only from reliable websites of big well known organizations.

Primary data for the research was collected through the usage of questionnaire.

## VIII. Data analysis

In order to test the hypotheses, this study uses SPSS 13.0 software as major tool to help analyze the collected data.

The following data analysis techniques will be used:

### *1. Descriptive statistic analysis*

In better understanding the characteristics of each variable, descriptive statistic analysis will be used. Firstly, respondents' profile will be illustrated using the descriptive statistic techniques in terms of frequency distribution. Secondly, the means and standard deviation of both independent and dependent variables will be shown.

### *2. Reliability test (Cronbach's alpha) and Validity test*

Due to the questionnaire scales validity and reliability tests should be taken. It is of great importance for further analyses of results to have good reliability and validity.

### 3. 2-way ANOVA

To explore the within-group differences and connections among variables and moderator a series of analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests will be conducted.

### 4. T-test

Independent T- tests will be conducted to find out whether country was a main effect on the measurement of attitude towards advertisement, attitude towards brand and buying intention as well as whether gender was significant moderator in this measurement.





## Chapter 4 Research results

This chapter consists of six parts: Description of Data, Reliability, Validity, Degree of Nudity and its Influence, Gender and its Influence and Country as Significant Moderator. Using SPSS program, it analyses the statistical results of the experiment that was conducted using a questionnaire.

### I. Description of Data

This research is conducted as 2x2x2 experimental design with four types of questionnaires. The experiment took place from January to March 2010.

400 questionnaires were given to respondents, 375 of them were returned, 11 of them were removed because of incomplete answers. In total, 364 questionnaires were usable. While the possibility of non-response bias cannot be ruled out with the data that are available, it was thought that with a respectable 91 percent response rate non-response bias would have minimal effect on interpretation (Guinn, 1980).

Among 364 participants, 157 (73 male, 84 female) were people from Taiwan; 207 (77 male, 130 female) were from Russia. None of the universities, where research was conducted, had any particular affiliation (e.g. religious or military).

Most subjects participating in this study were within the age group of 18-25 year olds. Using mostly student participants was appropriate for this study. Samples from Taiwan were obtained during formal lectures of marketing or economy courses. Samples from Russia were obtained both during lectures and by sending questionnaires via email.

Table 4-1 provides basic information and background of Taiwanese and Russian respondents.

Table 4-1 Comparative table of Taiwanese and Russian respondents' backgrounds

		Russia		Taiwan	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
gender	Male	77	37.2	73	46.49
	Female	130	62.8	84	53.51
Total		207	100	157	100
age	under 20	74	35.74	76	48.4
	20-25	116	56.04	74	47.14
	25-30	17	8.22	7	4.46
	more than 30	0	0	0	0
	Total	207	100	157	100
educa- tion	Elemen- tary	0	0	0	0

Table 4-1 (continued)

		Russia		Taiwan	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
	Junior High	0	0	0	0
	bachelor	167	80.77	133	84.71
	Master/ PHD	40	19.33	24	15.29
	Total	207	100	157	100
income per month	less than 3000	13	6.28	20	12.74
	3.001-6000	48	23.18	27	17.20
	6.001-10.000	78	37.69	92	58.60
	10.001-15.000	33	15.94	13	8.28
	More than 15.001	35	16.91	5	3.18
	total	207	100	157	100
marriage status	single	171	82.60	156	99.36
	married	34	16.42	1	0.64
	another	2	0.98	0	0
	total	207	100	157	100

## II. Reliability

Due to the questionnaire, scales must further test with reliability and validity. According to the literature-constructed scales, this should have good validities (Li, 2002).

The reliability test is tested through Cronbach's alpha coefficient measures. This is measurement of accuracy, representative, stability and internal consistency for the items within the questionnaire. High reliability is when alpha's coefficient is above 0.7, and low is when alpha's coefficient is below 0.3. As result, the reliability coefficient of this questionnaire scales is specified in Table 4-2. The standardized reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) for each ad was above 0.8, which indicated a high level of reliability (Hair, 1998).

Table 4-2 Reliability Test

Variable	Cronbach's alpha
attitude towards advertisement	0.891
attitude towards brand	0.812
buying intention	0.973

### III. Validity

Cook and Campbell (1979) define validity as the "best available approximation to the truth or falsity of a given inference, proposition or conclusion". The following table 4-3 represents Validity Test and shows that all measures were reliable and reached an average of 0.8.

Table 4-3 Validity Test

Question	Validity
<b>attitude towards advertisement</b>	
1. This ad is appealing to me	0.877
2. This ad is attractive to me	
3. This ad is interesting to me	
4. I think the ad is bad	
5. I dislike the ad	
<b>attitude towards brand</b>	
6. My attitude toward this brand is favorable	0.851
7. I like the brand	
8. My overall evaluation of this brand is good	
<b>buying intention</b>	
9. It is likely I would buy this product	0.882
10. It is possible that I would recommend this product to my friend.	

## IV. Degree of nudity and its influence

For the following study it is supposed that model's high degree of nudity is more effective for advertisement than low degree.

H1 is as follows:

- a) The higher model's degree of nudity is, the higher consumer's attitude towards advertisement will be.
- b) The higher model's degree of nudity is, the higher the consumer's attitude towards brand will be.
- c) The higher model's degree of nudity is, the higher consumer's buying intention will be.

Independent T-test was conducted to find out whether high model's degree of nudity had more positive influence on respondents' attitudes towards advertisement, brand, and buying intention than low degree. Tests with low degree showed relatively low results in comparison with high degree of nudity for both samples. People seemed to be not so interested in ML and FL.

Table 4-4 confirms that in both samples high degree of nudity leads to better attitude towards advertisement, brand and higher buying intention. Thus, H1 is fully supported concerning all DVs. All three aspects for p-value were significant ( $p=0.001$ ,  $0.002$ ,

0.004<0.01). This result shows that consumers in both countries have positive attitudes towards high degree of model nudity in advertisement.

Table 4-4 Independent T-test for Low and High Degree of Nudity

Variable	Degree	Mean	Std.	F-value	Sig.	t	p-value
attitude towards ad	Low	3.786	1.276	0.457	0.695	-4.465	0.001**
	High	4.334	2.454				
attitude towards brand	Low	3.457	1.236	0.428	0.159	-3.289	0.002**
	High	4.879	1.328				
buying intention	Low	2.21	0.589	0.349	0.374	-3.132	0.004**
	High	2.98	0.632				

Note: \*\*: p<0.01.

## I. Gender of model and its influence

It is supposed that gender of model in advertisement will influence responses to ads.

T-test was conducted to examine H2 (a,b,c) which are the following:

- a) In sex appeal advertisement female model will have better impact on consumers' attitude towards advertisement than male model.
- b) In sex appeal advertisement female model will have better impact on consumers' attitude towards brand than male model.
- c) In sex appeal advertisement female model will have better impact on consumers buying intention than male model.

Unlike Degree of Nudity, Gender was not found to be a significant IV, it was significant just in case of one DV – attitude towards advertisement.

It should be mentioned, that respondents of both countries showed better attitude especially towards advertisement in the case of FH. What is more interesting, while examining the questionnaires and answers, irrespective of the country, female consumers seemed to have significantly less favorable attitudes towards ad FH as compared to male consumers.

In the following table 4-5 results of T-test for H2 are provided. There is just one significant aspect for p-value in case of attitude towards advertisement ( $p=0.001 < 0.01$ ).



Table 4-5 Independent T-test for Male and Female Model's Gender

Variable	Gender	Mean	Std.	F-value	Sig.	t	p-value
attitude towards ad	Male	4.568	0.978	0.757	0.149	-7.463	0.001**
	Female	5.491	1.217				
attitude towards brand	Male	4.237	0.864	0.525	0.327	-6.282	0.059
	Female	5.879	1.192				
Variable	Gender	Mean	Std.	F-value	Sig.	t	p-value
buying intention	Male	4.125	0.989	0.349	0.854	-7.123	0.693
	Female	4.027	0.769				

Note: \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ .

To conclude, in the present experiment female model leads to better attitude towards advertisement, but not to better attitude towards brand or higher buying intention. Thus, H2a is fully supported while H2b and H2c are unsupported. The important result here is that male models are becoming more and more popular nowadays and they can now conquer with female ones while considering the advertisement strategy and endorser.

## VI. Country as a significant moderator

In most cross cultural researches it is believed that respondent's cultural background influences his opinion and it is supposed that

consumers with Western background are more tolerant so sex appeal ad, so here comes the last hypothesis which is:

- a) Cultural background will be a moderator in relationships between degree of nudity, model gender advertisement and attitude towards advertisement regarding sex appeal advertisement. If Russian consumers (representing Western culture) see female model with high degree of nudity, their attitude towards advertisement will be higher than of Taiwanese consumers (representing Asian culture).
- b) Cultural background will be a moderator in relationships between degree of nudity, model gender advertisement and attitude towards brand regarding sex appeal advertisement. If Russian consumers (representing Western culture) see female model with high degree of nudity, their attitude towards brand will be higher than of Taiwanese consumers (representing Asian culture).
- c) Cultural background will be a moderator in relationships between degree of nudity, model gender advertisement and buying intention regarding sex appeal advertisement. If Russian consumers (representing Western culture) see female model with high degree of nudity, their buying intention will be higher than of Taiwanese consumers (representing Asian culture).

Two-way ANOVA tests were conducted (model's gender and degree of nudity as two factors of test and country as moderator) to test hypothesizes for each of three DVs and then compare results.

Table 4-6 and 4-7 give descriptive statistics information about attitude towards advertisement.

Table 4-6 Descriptive statistics

Gender	Degree	Country	Mean	Std	N
Female	Low	Russia	6.58	1.57	51
		Taiwan	4.48	2.34	39
		Total	5.48	2.25	90
	High	Russia	7.11	1.88	52
		Taiwan	5.41	2.50	39
		Total	6.17	2.37	91
	Total	Russia	6.84	1.72	103
		Taiwan	4.95	2.44	78
		Total	5.83	2.33	181
Male	Low	Russia	4.05	2.13	52
		Taiwan	3.16	1.98	39
		Total	3.63	2.08	91
	High	Russia	4.18	2.94	52
		Taiwan	5.43	2.90	40
		Total	4.90	2.95	92
	Total	Russia	4.11	2.49	104
		Taiwan	4.40	2.75	79
		Total	4.26	2.62	183
Total	Low	Russia	5.25	2.26	103
		Taiwan	3.85	2.25	78
		Total	4.55	2.35	181
	High	Russia	5.69	2.84	104
		Taiwan	5.42	2.68	79
		Total	5.54	2.74	183

Note:DV-attitude towards advertisement

Table 4-7 shows test of between-subjects effects for attitude towards ad

Table 4-7 Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	df.	F-value	p-value
Gender	31.572	31.572	43	5.369	0.009**
Degree	37.104	37.104	26	6.790	0.000***
Country	16.496	16.496	1	3.592	0.004**
G*D	20.591	20.591	1	5.211	0.036*
G*C	4.206	4.206	80	1.251	0.003**
D*C	7.376	7.376	48	2.392	0.004**
G*D*C	43.793	43.793	1	8.326	0.006**
Error	830.394		152		
Corrected Total	5137.000		159		

Note: \*:p<0.05      \*\*:p<0.01      \*\*\* :p<0.001.

It can be said that H3a is fully supported, Russian respondents perceive FH model better than Taiwanese (there were significant main effects on every aspects,  $p=0.009, 0.008, 0.004, 0.036, 0.015, 0.044, 0.006<0.05$ ). The strong connection exists between all variables. But it should be mentioned that Taiwanese respondents have positive attitude towards this kind of advertisement as well, just slightly low

that Russian, but it's important that it is not negative as it expected to be. That is an interesting and unexpected result. The next two tables 4-8 and 4-9 are for second DV-attitude towards brand.

Table 4-8 Descriptive statistics DV: attitude towards brand

Gender	Degree	Country	Mean	Std	N
Male	Low	Russia	3.52	2.84	51
		Taiwan	3.92	2.68	39
		Total	3.76	2.74	90
	High	Russia	4.29	2.94	52
		Taiwan	3.52	2.91	39
		Total	3.89	2.95	91
	Total	Russia	3.86	1.72	103
		Taiwan	3.72	2.44	78
		Total	3.81	2.33	181
Female	Low	Russia	4.18	3.15	52
		Taiwan	5.43	3.49	39
		Total	4.90	3.31	91
	High	Russia	4.06	3.89	52
		Taiwan	3.14	2.83	40
		Total	3.62	3.41	92
	Total	Russia	5.25	3.52	104
		Taiwan	3.98	3.16	79
		Total	4.67	3.36	183
Total	Low	Russia	5.69	2.84	103
		Taiwan	5.42	2.68	78
		Total	5.54	2.74	181
	High	Russia	5.70	3.89	104
		Taiwan	5.45	2.83	79
		Total	5.52	3.41	183
	Total	Russia	5.46	2.55	207
		Taiwan	4.69	2.60	157
		Total	5.05	2.58	364

Table 4-9 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Brand

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	df.	F-value	p-value
Gender	10.238	10.238	43	2.128	0.034*
Degree	30.112	30.112	26	5.975	0.013*
Country	19.496	19.496	1	4.563	0.021*
G*D	20.591	20.591	1	5.211	0.429
G*C	5.647	5.647	80	1.251	0.943
D*C	7.376	7.376	48	2.392	0.996
G*D*C	33.743	33.743	1	7.824	0.312
Error	48.835		152		
Corrected Total	5271.000		159		

Note: \*:p<0.05

IVs and MV were significant by themselves ( $p=0.034, 0.013, 0.021<0.05$ ). But they were statistically insignificant in their connections with other IVs or with moderator, verifying that H3b is insufficient to support; so, there is no significant difference between Russian and Taiwanese respondents' attitude towards brand. Both of samples perceive it equally. Thought it was expected that Russian sample would have more positive reaction. So, in this case country effect is not necessary a significant moderator between model gender, degree of nudity and attitude towards brand.

Next DV which is going to be checked is buying intention. Here are tables 4-10 and 4-11 for it.

Table 4-10 Descriptive statistics

Gender	Degree	Country	Mean	Std	N
Male	Low	Russia	6.60	1.58	51
		Taiwan	4.50	2.35	39
		Total	5.51	2.27	90
	High	Russia	7.12	1.88	52
		Taiwan	5.40	2.52	39
		Total	6.18	2.38	91
	Total	Russia	6.87	1.76	103
		Taiwan	4.79	2.45	78
		Total	5.83	2.32	181
Female	Low	Russia	4.68	2.94	52
		Taiwan	3.17	2.90	39
		Total	3.19	2.93	91
	High	Russia	6.88	2.36	52
		Taiwan	4.81	3.54	40
		Total	5.84	3.23	92
	Total	Russia	5.67	2.56	104
		Taiwan	4.11	3.11	79
		Total	4.67	2.65	183
Total	Low	Russia	5.35	2.34	103
		Taiwan	3.87	2.45	78
		Total	4.65	2.67	181
	High	Russia	5.78	2.45	104
		Taiwan	5.98	2.78	79
		Total	5.76	2.65	183
	Total	Russia	5.45	2.47	207
		Taiwan	5.35	2.38	157
		Total	5.67	2.57	364

Note: DV-buying intention

Table 4-11 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	df.	F-value	p-value
Gender	9.522	9.522	43	3.374	0.086
Degree	29.142	29.142	26	6.795	0.011*
Country	16.496	16.496	1	3.218	0.138
GxD	19.789	19.789	1	5.974	0.052
GxC	8.321	8.321	80	2.357	0.896
DxC	5.375	5.375	48	2.932	0.983
GxDxC	33.793	33.793	1	8.378	0.485
Error	830.695		152		
Corrected Total	5321.000		159		

Note: \*:p<0.05.

There are no significant aspects except Degree ( $p=0.011<0.05$ ), which means that country is not a significant moderator between model gender, degree of nudity and buying intention. People just reacted more positive on model (female and male as well) with high degree of nudity (no matter Russians or Taiwanese). So, it was not about the country, but about overall perception. Respondents in both countries seemed to like high degree of nudity more than low degree. Thus, H3c was not supported.



# Chapter 5 Conclusions

## I. Discussion

This study has extended the previous cross-cultural researches on sex appeal advertising by looking at consumers' responses from Russia and Taiwan.

It was found that country had significant effect on consumers' attitude towards advertisement regarding nearly all of the four types of sex appeal ads. In international advertising, localization or standardization of course should be carefully considered (Shimp, 2007). Sometimes it is too dangerous to take risk and use offensive elements in advertising, but in the present research it was proved that nowadays marketers can use sex appeal advertising not only in Western Countries but in Asia as well because consumers in this region are becoming more and more open-minded.

However, no significant differences were detected regarding attitude towards brand and buying intentions among Taiwan and Russia. It proves that it is questionable whether attitude towards advertisement can predict attitude towards brand or buying intentions (Blackwell, 2001).

Despite the general assumption that Taiwanese consumers may react less favorably to sex appeal advertising than their Russian counterparts, this study found that Taiwanese consumers reacted almost as favorably as Russian consumers regarding most of the sex

appeal ads. This finding challenges the results of some prior studies that consumers in Eastern and Western cultures would respond differently and in a significant way to the same advertisement due to cultural differences (Choi and Miracle, 2004). The similarity between the Taiwanese and Russian samples may imply that Taiwanese youth today is becoming more and more “pro-Western” - culturally.

The similarities between Taiwanese and Russian consumers imply that cultural dimensions based on national values cannot always serve as a measurement to predict advertising response in a cross-cultural context.

The empirical evidence of this study suggests that in some contexts of international advertising (e.g. the use of sex appeal), factors other than cultural dimensions (such as group values of a specific segment, personal values and personality traits) may be more useful for predicting consumer response. For example, Fisher (1986) suggested that besides socialization, personality could be another important variable that gives rise to differences in reaction to sexual information.

Hatfield and Rapson (1993) also claimed that cultural or gender differences might often be less powerful than individual personality differences in shaping sex-related attitudes and behavior. Prior research (Hafstrom, 1992) indicated that personality traits had important effects on young consumers in particular. Therefore, future studies should examine the effect of sex-related personality factors such as sex guilt (Alden and Crowley, 1995) and sexual self-schema (Reichert and Fosu, 2005) in a cross-cultural context.

Although empirical evidence is lacking to conclude that, in an advertising context, personality traits will affect consumer response to sex appeal ads to a larger degree than cultural values, future studies should certainly pay attention to the effects of other factors on consumer evaluation of sex appeal ads, or any other type of ads, rather than merely focusing on cultural dimensions.

This study found that gender was not a significant moderator in all the analyses except when the sample was exposed to the high-level sex appeal featured by the female model. It showed that irrespective of country, female subjects always had a less favorable attitude than their male counterparts towards the high-level sex appeal ad featuring the female model. This finding confirms that men and women are attracted to the opposite gender in response to sex appeal ads (Garrett, 1993); it also suggests that a sex appeal advertisement liked by one gender may be disliked by another (Reichert, 2001).

As Taflinger (1996) pointed out, using a partially nude female model may attract the attention of a male audience but offend a female audience. Therefore, advertisers should pay attention to the gender of the target audience when designing a sex appeal advertisement.

Degree of model was found to be a significant factor in consumers' perceptions. Young consumers seemed to be attracted by female and male models with high degree of nudity rather than with low degree. Here comes one more suggestion for marketers not to be afraid to add sex appeal to their advertisements while creating them.

The following table 5-1 summarizes which hypotheses were supported and which were not.

Table 5-1 Hypothesizes Results

Hypothesis	Description	Result
H1	a) The higher model's degree of nudity is, the higher consumer's attitude towards ad will be.	supported
	b) The higher model's degree of nudity is, the higher the consumer's attitude towards brand will be.	supported
	c) The higher model's degree of nudity is, the higher the consumer's buying intention will be.	supported
Table 5-1 (continued)		
H2	a) In sex appeal advertisement female model will have better impact on consumers' attitude towards ad than male model.	supported
	b) In sex appeal advertisement female model will have better impact on consumers' attitude	unsupported

Table 5-1(continued)

Hypothesis	Description	Result
	<p>toward brand than male model.</p> <p>c) In sex appeal advertisement female model will have better impact on consumers' buying intention than male model.</p>	<p>unsupported</p>
<p>H3</p>	<p>a) Cultural background will be a covariate in relationships between degree of nudity, model gender advertisement and buying intention regarding sex appeal advertisement. If Russian consumers (representing Western culture) see female model with high degree of nudity, their attitude towards ad will be high than of Taiwanese consumers (representing Asian culture).</p>	<p>supported</p>
	<p>b) Cultural background will be a covariate in relationships between degree of nudity, model gender advertisement and attitude toward</p>	<p>unsupported</p>

Table 5-1(continued)

	<p>advertisement regarding sex appeal advertisement. If Russian consumers (representing Western culture) see female model with high degree of nudity, their attitude towards brand will be high than of Taiwanese consumers (representing Asian culture).</p>	
	<p>c) Cultural background will be a covariate in relationships between degree of nudity, model gender advertisement and attitude toward brand regarding sex appeal advertisement. If Russian consumers (representing Western culture) see female model with high degree of nudity, their buying intention will be higher than of Taiwanese consumers (representing Asian culture).</p>	<p>unsupported</p>

## II. Limitations and Further Research Aspects

This study has a number of limitations.

First, it used a convenience sample, which may not represent the entire population. For example, Duan (2003) noted that young people are usually more tolerant to sex appeal advertising than older generations. Future studies should employ a more representative sample to obtain a more thorough picture of the cross-cultural differences in consumers' responses to sex appeal advertising.

Second limitation comes from the product. Although it is difficult to differentiate what products are suitable for using sex appeal and what are not (Reichert, 2001), beverage may have less sexual relevance as compared to other products such as perfume or lingerie. Therefore, in future studies products with stronger sexual relevance or gender-preferred (rather than gender-free) products should be considered.

Third, although not supported by any empirical data, the use of sex appeal may be more common in Russia where sex appeal may be used for almost every product category. However, in Taiwan, although sex appeal is increasingly adopted, its coverage may be less extensive than in Russia. Taiwanese consumers may see more sex appeal ads for products like shampoo. Therefore, there may be a novelty effect among the Taiwanese consumers when they were exposed to ads for drink; this type of novelty effect should be less in the case of Russian consumers.

Fourth, this study did not control for the ethnicity of the sample. Some studies (Martin, 2004) suggested that there might be interactions between the ethnicity of the model in the ads and that of the audience.

Fifth, this study used print advertising as a medium to examine the cross-cultural differences on sex appeal advertising. Future studies may look at other types of media such as TV or the internet. Buchholz and Smith (1991) found that the subjects' elaboration and recognition could be significantly different under a different medium due to the significant differences in media involvement. Therefore, the cross-cultural differences shown from TV commercials may be different from those shown from print advertisements.

Another need for future studies is to examine other types of measurements such as memory. Since one of the main purposes of using sex appeals is to attract and retain attention (Reid and Soley, 1983), it would be interesting to know whether there is any cross-cultural difference regarding memory.

Furthermore, future studies can also look at different dimensions of sex appeal such as sexual suggestiveness rather than nudity and examine whether there will be any cross-cultural difference based on different dimensions.

Last but not least, future studies can include specific measurements of the cultural dimensions to empirically test their effects on responses to sex appeals. Understanding how consumers in different cultures respond to different types of advertising appeals is important for international advertisers.