

This item is the archived peer-reviewed author-version of:

How consumers' values influence responses to male and female gender role stereotyping in advertising

Reference:

De Meulenaer Sarah, Dens Nathalie, De Pelsmacker Patrick, Eisend Martin.- How consumers' values influence responses to male and female gender role stereotyping in advertising
International journal of advertising - ISSN 1759-3948 - (2017), p. 1-21
Full text (Publisher's DOI): <https://doi.org/10.1080/02650487.2017.1354657>
To cite this reference: <https://hdl.handle.net/10067/1451290151162165141>

How Consumers' Values Influence Responses to Male and Female Gender Role Stereotyping in Advertising

Abstract

The present study aims to explore the moderating effect of cultural values on responses to male and female gender role stereotyping in advertising. Based on an experiment in Sweden ($n = 507$) and Germany ($n = 506$), we test the impact of respondents' masculinity, power distance, assertiveness values and feminine role orientation on ad attitudes and brand attitudes. The results show that, in general, perceived stereotyping contributes positively to ad and brand attitude, and this effect is enhanced for more masculine, more power distant, more assertive and less feminine role oriented individuals. In addition, consumers respond more negatively to perceived female stereotyping compared to male stereotyping, and this is especially true for more power distant and more assertive individuals.

Key words: Female and male gender role stereotyping; masculinity; consumer responses; regression

Introduction

Gender role stereotypes refer to beliefs about the psychological traits, behaviors, and occupational status that are regarded as differentially appropriate for men or women (An and Kim 2007; Shaw, Eisend and Tan 2014). In advertising, gender role stereotyping is highly prevalent (Eisend 2010; Verhellen, Dens and de Pelsmacker 2014). For this reason, advertising has been criticized, for instance, for creating or reinforcing unwanted prejudice (Odekerken-Schröder, De Wulf and Hofstee 2002) and negatively affecting men and women's self and body esteem (e.g., Dens, De Pelsmacker and Janssens 2009).

Although the use of gender role stereotypes in advertising has been a prominent topic in advertising literature since the 1970s (Moon and Chan 2006), there is little research that actually studies consumer responses to this phenomenon in terms of outcome variables such as attitude toward the ad and the advertised brand (Verhellen, Dens and de Pelsmacker 2014). Additionally, the few studies that have examined consumer responses report inconsistent results (e.g., Paek, Nelson and Vilela 2011; Zawisza and Cinnirella 2010). A number of researchers argue that cultural related values of the message recipients moderate the processing of stereotypical ads (e.g., Orth and Holancova 2004; Zawisza and Cinnirella 2010).

Content analyses show that the use of gender role stereotyping in advertising differs greatly between countries and attempt to explain these differences by variations in cultural

related values (e.g., Furnham and Faragher 2000; Moon and Chan 2006; Paek, Nelson and Vilela 2011). At the same time, content analyses provide no insight in consumer responses. To our knowledge, there is only one study that explicitly considers consumers' cultural values when investigating responses to gender role stereotypes in advertising, but they do not look into the moderating effect of these cultural values (Theodoridis et al. 2013). The first contribution of the present study is that it examines the influence of four cultural related values (i.e., Hofstede's masculinity, Hofstede's power distance, GLOBE's assertiveness values and feminine role orientation) on consumer responses to gender role stereotyping in advertising. These four cultural variables have all been related to gender role differences in prior literature. Masculinity, which reflects a preference for social gender role distinctions between men and women, is the most frequently cited cultural value in content analyses on gender role stereotyping (e.g., An and Kim 2007; Moon and Chan 2005; Van Hellefont and Van den Bulck 2012). Power distance, among other things, reflects the acceptability of power (in)equality between men and women (Glick 2006; Kim et al. 2013), and can therefore also influence responses to stereotypes as these often involve unequal roles. Assertiveness values reflect shared societal beliefs about the degree to which people should be assertive and tough-minded in their social relationships (House et al. 2004; Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller 2010). In that sense, assertiveness is conceptually related to masculinity and therefore of interest for this study. Finally, feminine role orientation, a term coined by Arnott (1972) to indicate the manifestation of women's autonomy and consciousness of their societal roles, has also been shown to play a central role in the acceptability of stereotypes (Ford, LaTour and Honeycutt 1997).

The second major gap in the literature is the shortage of research that focuses on male gender role stereotyping (Zawisza and Cinnirella 2010). Earlier research has largely limited its focus to female role portrayals (e.g., Ford and LaTour 1996; Moon and Chan 2006), although the stereotyping of men occurs quite frequently and is therefore worthy of investigation (Verhellen, Dens and de Pelsmacker 2014). Based on a comprehensive oversight of three decades of gender-related advertising research, Wolin (2003) concluded that controversy still exists on whether male versus female gender role portrayals differentially affect consumer attitudes toward advertised brands. That is why, in order to contribute to this debate, the present study includes both male and female gender role portrayals. To our knowledge, only a few studies have experimentally investigated responses to both male and female gender role stereotyping in ads (Orth and Holancova 2004; Zawisza and Cinnirella

2010). While two of these studies mention that cultural values should further impact responses to these ads, neither of them has tested this assumption.

In sum, this study contributes to the literature by providing a more complete understanding of consumer responses to both male and female gender role stereotyping in advertising, as influenced by cultural values. For practitioners, the results support brand managers in designing advertisements by highlighting the conditions under which stereotyping evoke positive or negative consumer responses. The results are also relevant for public policy makers who may wish to see a reduction in the use of gender role stereotyping in advertising.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Consumer Responses to Gender Role Stereotyping in Advertising

Social role theory postulates that gender stereotypes stem from the traditional distribution of women and men into social roles, especially men's occupancy of breadwinner and higher status roles and women's occupancy of homemaker and lower status roles (Eagly, Wood and Diekmann 2000). Because women are traditionally concentrated in domestic work and communally demanding employment, people describe communal characteristics (a primary concern with the welfare of others – for example, affectionate, helpful, nurturing and gentle) to women (Eagly and Steffen 1984). In contrast, men are typically ascribed agentic characteristics, which reflect an assertive, controlling and confident tendency, because men are traditionally concentrated in strength-intensive roles and in-high status roles. Gender roles are often normative in the sense that they describe qualities or behavioral tendencies believed to be desirable or appropriate for each sex (Eagly, Wood and Diekmann 2000). As a result, when something diverges from the normative element of the stereotype, it runs the risk of being evaluated negatively (Zawisza and Cinnirella 2010). The knowledge of the content of gender stereotypes is culturally shared, although people will still differ in the extent to which they accept these (Zawisza and Cinnirella 2010). Because the social and cognitive schemata for individuals from different cultures diverge, they should display differences in their preference for gender stereotypical portrayals in advertising based on congruity theory.

Congruity theory proposes that people value information or depictions that are congruous with their existing social and cognitive schemata (Ko, Seo and Jung 2015). Gender role stereotypes are part of these schemata. Therefore, the theory predicts that gender role stereotyping in advertising should lead to positive ad and brand attitudes (Orth and Holancova 2003/2004). For example, Duker and Tucker (1977) found that “traditional housewife” ads

scored higher on attitude toward the ad than nontraditional portrayals (i.e., working mother, modern women, professional). Orth and Holancova (2003/2004) found that consumers tend to approve more “congruous” (stereotypical) role depictions in advertising, and this translates into a more positive ad and brand attitude. Putrevu (2004) concluded that men and women are likely to respond more favorably to messages that are in tune with their respective gender-role expectations.

At the same time, other studies find the opposite result, namely that stereotyping decreases ad and brand attitude and models should be portrayed less stereotypical or even counter-stereotypical (e.g., “superwoman”) (Bellizzi and Milner 1991; Jaffe and Berger 1994). This can be explained by the fact that counter-stereotypical appeals are more surprising and could therefore elicit more positive feelings (Orth and Holancova 2003/2004). In addition, the use of stereotypes has come under increased scrutiny. As gender roles in society are changing, marketers are in danger of alienating people by using traditional gender stereotypes (Hupfer 2002). As we will argue in the next section, gender role stereotypes are not likely held by all individuals to the same extent (Orth and Holancova 2003/2004). Cultural values are one of the factors which will determine consumer responses to stereotypical gender role portrayals in advertising (Zawisza and Cinnirella 2010).

The Influence of Cultural Values on Consumer Responses to Gender Role Stereotyping

A number of studies have suggested that cultural values moderate consumer responses to gender role portrayals (Orth and Holancova 2003/2004; Zawisza and Cinnirella 2010). Culture-related marketing research relies on two leading cultural frameworks, as defined by Hofstede (2001) on the one hand, and Project GLOBE (House et al. 2004) on the other.

Hofstede (2001) originally defined four cultural dimensions (masculinity, individualism/collectivism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance) to classify countries. Although Hofstede developed these dimension in a work-related context, they have been used in marketing and advertising studies ever since, which underlines the applicability of these cultural dimensions to cross-cultural research in marketing (Soares, Farhangmehr and Shoham 2007). While the Hofstede framework still receives wide support (Soares, Farhangmehr and Shoham 2007; Williamson 2002), the framework has come under some scrutiny (Javidan et al. 2006; McSweeney 2002). In order to answer to some of the criticisms formulated on Hofstede’s framework, House et al. (2004) developed a new framework, GLOBE, with nine cultural dimensions, based on a data collection in 62 countries.

The current study will examine the moderating influence of Hofstede's masculinity and power distance dimension, GLOBE's assertiveness values, and feminine role orientation. A number of authors have argued that it is important to measure cultural values at the individual level in order to be tied to individual-level outcomes, and to assess how different the respondents score on the cultural dimensions in question (Taylor 2005; Yoo, Donthu and Lenartowicz 2011). Hence, in our study, we will use individual cultural values to explain individual consumer responses. In the following sections, the four values are explained in more detail and hypotheses about the effect of each of them are developed.

Masculinity

The masculinity dimension describes the preference for social gender role distinctions to be made between men and women (Hofstede 2001). Masculinity stands for a preference for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material success (all associated with agentic characteristics), while femininity stands for a preference for relationships, modesty, caring for the weak and the quality of life (more communal characteristics) (Milner, Fodness and Speece 1993). While especially male stereotypical appeals are congruous with the values of more masculine people, the idea of stereotyping in general is congruous with this value, too, because more masculine individuals embrace a sharp distinction between the roles of men and women (Hofstede 2001).

As mentioned, the Hofstede's dimension of masculinity has been extensively emphasized in previous research on gender role stereotyping (Eisend 2010). In line with congruity theory, Van Hellefont and Van den Bulck (2012) hypothesized that feminine cultures would express more concerns about traditional sex roles and gender stereotypes in advertising than masculine cultures. Their results were based on a region-comparison between Flanders and Wallonia and did not support this expectation, but the difference in masculinity between Flanders (MAS = 43) and Wallonia (MAS = 60) is rather small. Kim et al. (2013) found that individual values of masculinity did not significantly affect consumers' attitudes toward advertising with a male counter-stereotypical model. Their sample, however, only consisted of women, thus the variation in masculinity was therefore likely very small, and only a very specific stereotype (pin-up boy to sell make-up) was tested. Based on congruity theory, in a sample that contains more variation in masculinity, we do expect that more masculine individuals will respond more favorably to gender role stereotyping in advertising.

H1: The response to gender role stereotyping on (a) attitude toward the ad and (b) attitude toward the brand is more positive with increasing masculinity values of consumers.

Power Distance

Power distance refers to "the extent to which an individual accepts the unequal distribution of power in institutions and organizations" (Hofstede 2001). Power distance has been associated with conservatism (House et al. 2004) and a difficulty to accept gender equality (Glick 2006; Kim et al. 2013). As explained by social role theory, gender role stereotyping is based on tradition and usually depicts women in an inferior role and men in a superior role (Eisend 2010; Verhellen, Dens and de Pelsmacker 2014). Thus, these stereotypical depictions are more congruous with the values of highly power distant individuals, and they should therefore lead to more positive attitudes toward gender role stereotyping in advertising. The one study to our knowledge that has studied the moderating effect of individual values of power distance on consumers' attitudes toward gender role stereotyping did not find any significant effect (Kim et al. 2013). However, that study only included one very specific male counter-stereotypical appeal (boy pin-up to sell make-up), which is not necessarily related to power and, thus, might not trigger a congruency effect. We therefore hypothesize a relationship that is in line with social role and congruity theory:

H2: The response to gender role stereotyping on (a) attitude toward the ad and (b) attitude toward the brand is more positive with increasing power distance values of consumers.

Assertiveness

Assertiveness is the degree to which individuals are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationships with others (House et al. 2004). The GLOBE dimensions are measured in terms of two manifestations of culture; modal practices and modal values of collectives (House, Quigley and de Luque 2010). Modal practices are measured by "what is" or "what are" questions, assessing the current state of the dimensions (House et al. 2004). They primarily reflect the "as is". On the other hand, modal values are expressed in response to questionnaire items concerning judgments of "what should be", which are intended as a measure of the respondents' values concerning the practices (House et al. 2004). They primarily reflect the "should be". In the current study, we use assertiveness measured as "should be", because that measure best reflects individuals' own values.

The GLOBE framework of cultural values considers assertiveness as a dimension that reflects beliefs about whether people should be assertive and tough-minded, or unassertive and tender in their social relationships (House et al. 2004). According to House et al. (2004), Hofstede's masculinity dimension encompasses both assertiveness, gender inequality and success striving, but the three constructs are not necessarily correlated. In their study, the

correlation between assertiveness and masculinity was quite low. Additionally, assertiveness values are not well covered in other cultural frameworks, and so require further investigation (House et al. 2004; Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller 2010). Assertiveness is a typical agentic characteristic (House et al. 2004). Therefore, (especially male) gender role stereotyping is congruous with the values of more assertive individuals. Based on congruity theory, we expect the following:

H3: The response to gender role stereotyping on (a) attitude toward the ad and (b) attitude toward the brand is more positive with increasing assertiveness values of consumers.

Feminine Role Orientation

Feminine role orientation relates to the manifestation of women's autonomy and consciousness of their societal roles (An 2013). Research consistently points out that the firmer women's sense of self-declared autonomy, importance, and proactive participation in society, the more critical they are of the general nature of female role portrayals in advertising, which negatively reflects on advertisers' corporate image and results in a lower purchase intention (An 2013; Ford et al. 1994; William et al. 1999). Although feminine role orientation is not strictly a cultural variable according to the Hofstede and GLOBE frameworks, studies do show that there are culture-based differences in feminine role orientation (Ford et al. 1994), which is why we include it in this study. Ford, LaTour and Honeycutt (1997), for example, found that women in New Zealand (who in general score high on feminine role orientation) most strongly perceive the way women are generally portrayed in advertising as offensive, followed by women in the US and Japan and ultimately Thailand (who scored the lowest of these three on feminine role orientation). In line with social role theory, gender role stereotyping often entails a dependence of women on men, implicitly or explicitly (Eisend 2010; Verhellen, Dens and de Pelsmacker 2014). The values of individuals with a high feminine role orientation are incongruous with this type of portrayal, because they value female autonomy. Therefore, congruity theory leads us to predict that individuals with a higher feminine role orientation will respond more negatively to stereotypical gender role portrayals in advertising.

H4: The response to gender role stereotyping on (a) attitude toward the ad and (b) attitude toward the brand is more positive with decreasing feminine role orientation values of consumers.

Figure 1 depicts the conceptual framework.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework [near here]

Differential Effects for Male and Female Role Portrayals

Does gender role stereotyping produce the same effect for male and female portrayals in advertising? Only a few studies have investigated responses to both male and female gender role stereotyping (Orth and Holancova 2004; Zawisza and Cinnirella 2010). The results of these studies indicate that there are indeed differences in how people respond to the two. The common conclusion seems to be that consumers prefer higher degrees of stereotyping (e.g., housewife) for female role portrayals, but respond more positively to counter-stereotypical appeals (e.g., househusband, nurse, nursery school teacher) for male role portrayals.

We will investigate to what extent responses to a male or female gender stereotypical advertising appeals differ for individuals varying in cultural values. For example, assertiveness values are more congruous with agentic characteristics (i.e., more masculine characteristics) and male stereotyping. Will higher assertiveness values lead to a more positive attitude for male stereotyping in comparison with female stereotyping? We have predicted that feminine role orientation results in more negative attitudes toward stereotypical appeals, but will this hold to the same extent for male stereotyping as for female stereotyping? Given the lack of previous research on this matter we formulate a research question:

RQ: To what extent do the responses posited in H1 through H4 differ between advertisements with male and female role portrayals?

Method

Design and Stimuli

We set up a 3 (degree of gender stereotyping: counter-stereotypical, neutral, stereotypical) x 2 (gender role portrayal: male, female) between-subject experiment. We conducted the study in Sweden and Germany because these two countries vary substantially in their cultural background, especially in terms of masculinity (Sweden: 5/100, Germany: 66/100) (Hofstede 2001). On the other cultural dimensions, the theoretical differences are less pronounced: Germany scores 31/100 on power distance and 2.66/7 on assertiveness values, while Sweden scores 35/100 on power distance and 3.61/7 on assertiveness values (Hofstede 2001; House et al. 2004). There is no country data available for the feminine role orientation dimension. By collecting data in two culturally different countries, we aim to introduce a greater level of variance in the individual-level cultural values.

We selected soda as the advertised product, because prior research indicates that this is considered as a gender-neutral product (An and Kim 2007). In order to avoid potential

confounds of prior brand attitude, associations and advertising exposure, we selected a brand (Faygo), which was only sold in parts of the USA and Canada at the time of the experiment. We checked with two native Germans and Swedes that Faygo did not have any meanings or associations within either culture or language.

Based on social role theory, we manipulated the degree of stereotyping through occupancy (Eagly, Wood and Diekmann 2000). This choice is further justified by the fact that the occupation status is also the component with the highest degree of stereotyping in advertising (Eisend 2010). Concretely, the meta-analysis of Eisend (2010) shows that the odds that women are presented in advertising at home/in a domestic environment (vs. at work) is about 3.5 times the odds for men. The meta-analysis included 64 studies from 27 countries across five continents (America, Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia), indicating that the results are relative universal. In order to ensure adequate manipulations of gender role stereotyping, we first conducted a pre-test ($n = 43$, 44% men, M age = 39.07 years, SD age = 11.96) in the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium, a region that scores averagely and in between Sweden's and Germany's scores on Hofstede's masculinity dimension (43/100) (Hofstede 2001). We asked the respondents to score 8 portrayals of women and 9 portrayals of men on perceived degree of stereotyping, based on Ford and LaTour (1993) scale (8 items, Cronbach's alpha: .84).

We selected the portrayals that differed the most in perceived stereotyping (all p 's < .001). For the female role portrayal, the stereotypical role portrayal of a woman cleaning the kitchen ($M = 6.05$, $SD = 1.33$) scored the highest, followed by a neutral portrayal of a woman in the outdoors ($M = 4.63$, $SD = 1.44$) and a counter-stereotypical role portrayal of a woman working on a car in a garage ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.23$, all p 's < .001). Similarly, for the male model, the three versions were significantly different (all p 's < .001), with the stereotypical role portrayal of a man working on a car in a garage scoring the highest on perceived stereotyping ($M = 4.82$, $SD = 0.82$), followed by the neutral portrayal of a man in the outdoors ($M = 3.35$, $SD = 0.92$) and lastly, the counter-stereotypical role portrayal of a man cleaning the kitchen ($M = 2.39$, $SD = 0.82$). The final stimuli were drafted by adding the brand logo, a slogan ('With Faygo, everything goes better' in the local language), and two soda bottles in an identical way to each advertisement to make them look realistic (see Appendix 1).

We did an additional test in Belgium ($n = 123$, M age = 39.76 years, SD age = 15.78 years, 37% men) to see whether the respondents were able to identify that the ads were for a soda. Across the six ads, 76% correctly indicated in a multi choice question that the ad was for a soda (neutral ads: 100%, ads in the garage: 83%, kitchen-cleaning ads: 44%). For the kitchen-cleaning ads, 56% of respondents thought that the ad was for a detergent. However, we argue

that this does not influence our results, since the focus of the paper is on how cultural values moderate the effects perceived stereotyping in ads.

Data Collection and Measures

We collected data in Sweden ($n = 507$) and Germany ($n = 506$) through online panels of a professional market research agency. The sample composition is not significantly different between the two countries in terms of gender (Germany: 49% men, Sweden: 50%, $\chi^2(1) = 0.12$, $p = .73$) or age ($M_{\text{Germany}} = 41.58$ years, $SD_{\text{Germany}} = 12.70$; $M_{\text{Sweden}} = 41.54$ years, $SD_{\text{Sweden}} = 13.65$, $t(1011) = 0.05$, $p = .96$).

The questionnaire was provided in Swedish to Swedish participants and in German to German participants. Both questionnaires were translated and back-translated by two (near) native speakers. Respondents were first asked to report their age and gender. Next, they were randomly exposed to one of the six test advertisements, and completed a number of questions on the advertisement, the advertised brand, and their cultural values (Table 1).

Table 1: Measures [near here]

Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Measurement Invariance Testing

To assess reliability, validity, and measurement invariance across countries, we first perform a confirmatory factor analysis within each country. Separate analyses are run for the four cultural variables and the two dependent variables. All models have a relatively good fit ($CFI > .95$, $TLI > .94$, $RMSEA < .09$) (Appendix 2). The factor loadings are good, except for one item of the feminine role orientation. The item “Gender stereotypes are normal because they are rooted in universal biological differences” loaded very low on the latent variable in the Swedish sample ($\beta = .25$) and negative in the German sample ($\beta = -.02$). As a result, we removed this item from the feminine role orientation scale, resulting in a six-item scale for further analyses.

Next, we assess whether the factor loadings and the latent variable correlations are consistent with expectations for composite reliability, convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al. 2006). In all models, the reliability of the scales is confirmed ($CR > .63$). To establish convergent validity, the AVE should be greater than .50 (Hair et al. 2006). The only scale that is problematic is masculinity (Sweden: $AVE = .48$, Germany: $AVE = .31$). Because excluding items may undermine content validity, the final itemization of a measure is a tradeoff among consistency, reliability, AVE, and content validity (Ping Jr. 2004). Since the masculinity scale is well established and the CR is above .60, we choose to continue with the

original scale. For discriminant validity, the three conditions are met for all scales, namely $MSV < AVE$, $ASV < AVE$, and $AVE^2 > \text{inter-construct correlations}$ (Hair et al. 2006).

Since the models fit, we proceed with the next step and assess the data for measurement invariance using multi-group CFA approach of Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998). We assess configural and metric invariance between the two countries using AMOS. Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998, p. 82) state that: “If the purpose is to explore the basic meaning and structure of the construct cross-nationally, in order to establish whether the construct can be conceptualized in the same way across countries, the minimum requirement is that the same pattern of (zero and nonzero) factor loadings is found in the different countries (Horn, McArdle and Mason 1983). Although one may also require the loadings to be equal across countries, we argue that metric invariance is desirable but not strictly necessary for this purpose.” Therefore, for the purpose of this study, which compares the effects of values at an individual level, configural invariance is required, while metric invariance is desirable. The model presented in Figure 1 is used as the baseline model. Separate analyses were run for the four cultural variables and the two dependent variables.

We first fit a multi-group CFA with no constraints. If the fit is acceptable, we have established configural measurement invariance. Configural invariance implies that items have similar patterns of significant and nonzero loadings on the latent variables across countries. The configural invariance models fit the data well (all CFI's $> .97$, all TLI's $> .96$, all RMSEA $< .05$). For all models, all factor loadings are highly significant, and the majority of the within-country standardized factor loadings exceed $.60$ (except 1 item on masculinity: $\beta_{\text{Sweden}} = .43$, $\beta_{\text{Germany}} = .31$, and 1 item on power distance: $\beta_{\text{Germany}} = .57$), leading us to conclude that the scales exhibit the required configural invariance across the two countries.

We then apply additional equivalency constraints as we assess metric invariance. Metric invariance implies that corresponding items have equal loadings across countries on the underlying latent variable, which can be tested by constraining factor loadings to be the same across countries. For (partial) metric invariance, at least one item (other than the one fixed at unity to define the scale of each latent construct) should be metrically invariant (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). At least partial metric invariance is obtained for most constructs, except for assertiveness values and attitude toward the brand. As mentioned, metric invariance is not strictly required, however, for the purpose of this study (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998, p. 82).

Manipulation Check and Descriptives

We analyzed the data using SPSS 20. In each country, an ANOVA analysis indicated that there were significant differences in the degree of perceived stereotyping between the stereotypical, neutral and counter-stereotypical advertisements (Germany: $M_{\text{stereotypical}} = 4.19$, $SD_{\text{stereotypical}} = 1.37$, $M_{\text{neutral}} = 3.52$, $SD_{\text{neutral}} = 1.34$, $M_{\text{counter-stereotypical}} = 2.87$, $SD_{\text{counter-stereotypical}} = 1.51$, $F(2, 503) = 37.22$, $p < .001$) (Sweden: $M_{\text{stereotypical}} = 4.15$, $SD_{\text{stereotypical}} = 1.48$, $M_{\text{neutral}} = 3.61$, $SD_{\text{neutral}} = 1.38$, $M_{\text{counter-stereotypical}} = 2.75$, $SD_{\text{counter-stereotypical}} = 1.35$, $F(2, 504) = 42.83$, $p < .001$). The post-hoc tests indicate that all three versions differed significantly (all $p < .001$). Hence, we concluded that our manipulations of stereotyping were successful.

All constructs in the conceptual model are measured and used as perceptions at the individual level. The experimental design as explained above was developed to create variation in perceived stereotypical portrayal and the cultural values (O'Keefe 2003). Based on the successful manipulation checks, we can conclude that this goal is reached.

As intended, respondents' familiarity with the test brand, Faygo, was very low and not significantly different between the two countries ($M_{\text{Germany}} = 1.70$, $SD_{\text{Germany}} = 1.41$, $M_{\text{Sweden}} = 1.63$, $SD_{\text{Sweden}} = 1.42$, $t(1011) = 0.70$, $p = .48$).

Hypothesis Testing

We pool the data from Sweden and Germany, and by means of linear regression, we estimate the effects of the measured perceived degree of stereotyping, male/female gender role portrayal (0 = male gender role portrayal, 1 = female), the cultural values (masculinity, power distance, assertiveness values and feminine role orientation), measured at the individual level, and their interactions on attitude toward the ad (Aad) and brand (Ab). Because of the significant correlation between the cultural values (Appendix 3), we entered each of them in four separate analyses. Separate regressions were run for the two dependents, Aad and Ab. Three control variables are included as covariates in all analyses. First, male gender role stereotyping in advertising is frequently associated with humor, while female gender role stereotyping is not, and that humor influences consumer responses to gender role stereotyping in ads (Eisend, Plagemann and Sollwedel 2014). Therefore, we control for the perceived degree of humor in the ad. Second, the use of gender role stereotyping is intrinsically linked to the depiction of models in an ad. Therefore, we control for the perceived attractiveness, trustworthiness and likeability of the model ('model perception'), which can impact ad and brand attitudes (Till and Busler 2000). Third, previous research indicates that men and women exhibit significantly different emotional and attitudinal

reactions to ads containing different degrees of gender role stereotyping (Orth and Holancova 2004; Theodoridis et al. 2013). Therefore, gender was also included in the model as a covariate.

We test hypotheses 1 to 4 by means of analyzing the interaction effects between the cultural values and perceived stereotyping. The findings of the three-way interaction between stereotyping, cultural values, and female vs. male portrayal provide an answer to our research question.

Table 2 shows the results of the eight different regression analyses. The regressions consistently indicate a significant positive effect of perceived stereotyping on Aad and Ab. Model perceptions and humor in the ad are significant control variables (all $p < .001$), while gender of the respondent is not (all $p > .28$).

Table 2: Standardized Regression Coefficients of the Regression Models [near here]

Masculinity

The regression model with masculinity as the moderator shows a positive interaction effect between perceived degree of stereotyping and masculinity for the two dependent variables (Aad: $\beta = .11$, $t(1009) = 3.65$, $p < .001$, Ab: $\beta = .13$, $t(1009) = 3.73$, $p < .001$), confirming H1: More masculine individuals respond more favorably to gender role stereotyping than more feminine consumers. The three-way interaction between perceived degree of stereotyping, masculinity and gender role portrayal is not significant (Aad: $t(1009) = -0.70$, $p = .48$, Ab: $t(1009) = -0.52$, $p = .61$), suggesting that there is no significant difference in how more masculine or feminine consumers respond to male versus female gender role stereotyping (RQ).

Power Distance

The interaction between the perceived degree of stereotyping and power distance is positive and significant for both outcome variables (Aad: $\beta = .16$, $t(1009) = 5.01$, $p < .001$, Ab: $\beta = .16$, $t(1009) = 1.49$, $p < .001$), confirming H2: More power distant individuals respond more favorably to gender role stereotyping than less power distant consumers. The three-way interaction effect between the perceived degree of stereotyping, power distance and gender role portrayal is marginally significant for Aad ($\beta = -.06$, $t(1009) = -1.74$, $p = .08$), but not significant for Ab ($t(1009) = -0.64$, $p = .52$) (RQ). We performed slope difference tests following the procedure proposed by Dawson and Richter (2006) to further understand the

three-way interaction effect on Aad (Figure 2 and Table 3). The results show that, while higher power distant individuals respond positively to both male and female role stereotyping, the effect is significantly stronger for male stereotyping ($t(1009) = -3.38, p = .001$). Individuals lower in power distance do not respond as favorably to gender role stereotyping, and this effect is not significantly different for female or male portrayals ($t(1009) = -1.17, p = .24$).

Figure 2: Attitude toward the Ad: 3-way Interaction between Degree of Stereotyping, Power Distance and Gender Role Portrayal [near here]

Table 3: Slope Difference Tests for Attitude toward the Ad: Degree of Stereotyping, Power Distance, Gender Role Portrayal [near here]

Assertiveness

The results of the analyses with assertiveness values show a marginally significant positive interaction effect between perceived degree of stereotyping and assertiveness for Aad ($\beta = .06, t(1009) = 1.64, p = .10$), while the interaction is not significant for Ab ($t(1009) = -0.11, p = .92$). H3 is thus partly supported: More assertive individuals respond more favorably to gender role stereotyping than less assertive ones, at least in terms of Aad. The three-way interaction effect between the perceived degree of stereotyping, assertiveness and gender role portrayal is significant for Aad ($\beta = -.10, t(1009) = -2.77, p = .01$) and marginally significant for Ab ($\beta = -.06, t(1009) = -1.65, p = .10$) (RQ). Slope difference tests show significant differences between conditions for both Aad (Figure 3 and Table 4) and Ab (Table 4). For more assertive individuals, there is a (marginally) significant difference between female and male role portrayals (Aad: $t(1009) = -4.00, p < .001$; Ab: $t(1009) = -1.92, p = .06$). More assertive individuals respond positively to male stereotyping, but respond negatively to female stereotyping. Less assertive individuals, on the other hand, do not respond significantly differently to male or female stereotyping (Aad: $t(1009) = 0.01, p = .99$; Ab: $t(1009) = 0.25, p = .80$).

Figure 3: Attitude toward the Ad: 3-way Interaction for Degree of Stereotyping, Assertiveness and Gender Role Portrayal [near here]

Table 4: Slope Difference Tests for Degree of Stereotyping, Assertiveness and Gender Role Portrayal [near here]

Feminine Role Orientation

The interaction between the perceived degree of stereotyping and feminine role orientation is significantly negative for the two dependent variables (Aad: $\beta = -.10$, $t(1009) = -3.02$, $p = .003$, Ab: $\beta = -.07$, $t(1009) = -2.00$, $p = .05$), confirming H4 (Table 2): More feminine role oriented individuals respond less favorably to gender role stereotyping than less feminine role oriented ones. There is no significant three-way interaction between degree of stereotyping, feminine role orientation and gender role portrayal (Aad: $t(1009) = 1.16$, $p = .25$, Ab: $t(1009) = 0.88$, $p = .38$) (RQ).

General Discussion and Conclusion

The goal of the present study is to investigate consumer responses to advertisements differing in their degree of gender stereotyping, depending on cultural values, and whether these responses are similar for both male and female gender role portrayals. The results consistently indicate that higher degrees of perceived stereotyping are more positively received by consumers. This is especially true for male role portrayals, and to a lesser extent for female role portrayals. This finding contradicts some earlier research that people would prefer male counter-stereotypical appeals over stereotypical appeals (e.g., Orth and Holancova 2004; Zawisza and Cinnirella 2010). This can be explained by congruity theory and habituation. Since stereotyping is highly prevalent in advertising, people tend to react most positively to what they see most (Eisend 2010). This seems to be less the case for female role portrayals, which could then be explained by the fact that people are becoming more sensitive to the negative effects of stereotyping women.

The results further show that consumers' responses to gender stereotypical appeals are moderated by a number of cultural values. The few prior studies that had included cultural values as potential moderators for responses to gender role stereotypes (Kim et al. 2013; Van Hellefont and Van den Bulck 2012) did not find any significant effect, whereas we do. This could be explained by the fact that we introduced a greater variation in cultural values by studying two countries that differ substantially in these values.

Hofstede's power distance and GLOBE's assertiveness values are the two cultural variables that best explain differences in responses to male and female (counter)stereotypical ads. The results indicate that more power distant and more assertive individuals respond

especially favorably to male gender role stereotyping. More assertive individuals even respond negatively to female gender role stereotyping (which is indeed incongruous with their values). Assertive people clearly value assertiveness (i.e., an agentic characteristic) for both men and women, which is why they will prefer a counter-stereotypical portrayal of women. The effect of masculinity, on the other hand, is not further moderated by male/female gender role portrayals. Since masculine individuals prefer a clear distinction between gender roles (Hofstede 2001), this entails a preference for stereotyping of both genders. A similar reasoning holds for feminine role orientation: While it could be argued that feminine role oriented individuals would especially react against female stereotyping, they do so for male stereotyping as well. Since the results largely confirm our hypotheses, the study provides support for the social role theory and congruity theory.

Implications

The theoretical contribution of this study is that it contributes to a better understanding of how cultural factors moderate the relationship between gender role stereotyping and ad and brand attitudes, for both male and female gender role portrayals, across individuals with different cultural values. The results provide support for the assumption of Orth and Holancova (2004) and Zawisza and Cinnirella (2010) that these values influence the processing of ads featuring male and female portrayals. Masculinity, power distance, feminine role orientation, and to a lesser extent assertiveness, explain the response to stereotypical ads in general, while assertiveness and power distance help to explain differential responses to male and female stereotyping. The results support the fact that, next to Hofstede's masculinity dimension, including other cultural variables is recommended to more fully gauge the effects of these values on consumers' responses to (counter) stereotypical ads with male and female models.

Our study also offers a number of practical implications. First, consumers generally seem to respond positively to the use of gender role stereotypes in advertising, although this is more true for male stereotyping than for female stereotyping. Importantly, the responses to stereotyping are influenced by the cultural values of consumers. Stereotyping works better for more masculine, high power distant and low feminine role oriented individuals. Brand managers have understood this, as content analyses indicate that both male and female models are more frequently stereotyped (women in non-working roles and men in working roles) in masculine countries (An and Kim 2007; Moon and Chan 2006). This indeed corresponds to the best practice according to our results. Practitioners should be careful with the use of male

counter-stereotypical portrayals. This is especially true for more assertive and more power distant individuals.

It is important to note that, although this study indicates that ad and brand attitudes are not negatively affected by stereotyping, stereotyping holds some dangers. These patterns of representation frame perceptions of social opportunities for women, promote prejudiced attitude, and set cognitive limits on the potential for social change (Coltrane and Messineo 2000). An important implication of the social role theory is that change in stereotypes about particular groups will follow from observing their members in new roles that create different demands (Eagly, Wood and Diekmann 2000). In that sense, advertisements portraying counter-stereotypical roles could help break existing stereotypes through socialization (Odekerken-Schröder, De Wulf and Hofstee 2002).

Limitations and Further Research

There are several limitations to this study that could inspire future research. First, examining other cultural constructs could be interesting. For instance, on the basis of the Schwartz-framework, differences in processing gender stereotypes appeals could be expected between individuals who find achievement and power (e.g., more masculine traits) important in comparison with individuals who value benevolence (e.g., a more feminine trait) more (Schwartz 1992). Additionally, the effect of the gender of the message recipient could be examined. As mentioned, previous research found that men and women react differently to ads containing stereotyping. In the current study, we also tested models in which the gender of the respondent was added as a moderator instead of the values. We found that the interaction between the gender of the respondent and the perceived degree of stereotyping was significant. Women respond more negative to stereotyping in comparison with men, which is consistent with previous research (Theodoridis et al. 2013). There was no three-way interaction between degree of stereotyping, gender of the model and gender of the respondent. Nevertheless, further research could examine the influence of the characteristics of message recipients (e.g., male or female) in more depth.

It should also be noted that the type of stereotyping we used, based on occupational setting, is highly common, which might lead to habituation. It is possible that other, perhaps more “extreme” stereotypes would engender more negative consumer responses. In addition, since there is a growing number of educated women and a larger inclusion of women in the job market, gender roles should steadily disappear. Hence, examining different types of gender stereotypes (i.e., based on physical characteristics, trait descriptors or role behavior) and the

influence cultural constructs have on these different stereotypes is a promising avenue for further research.

The subject of the advertisement was a soda, thus a low involvement product. Based on the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty and Cacioppo 1986), it could be argued that product type could matter. Ads for high involvement products will be elaborated more deeply. Future research should explore to what extent responses to stereotypicality in ads differ for different types of products (low and high involvement, hedonic or utilitarian, etc.).

Finally, the perceived realism of the ads (three items from Williams and Drolet (2005), Cronbach's alpha: 0.88) used in the current study is only moderate when we tested it in an additional test. On average, the six ads scored 3.16 on a seven-point scale ($M_{\text{a-stereotypical ads}} = 2.80$, $SD = 1.27$, $M_{\text{neutral ads}} = 3.58$, $SD = 1.23$, $M_{\text{stereotypical ads}} = 3.12$, $SD = 1.27$). The means of the a-stereotypical condition are the lowest, which is normal since it is the less common type of advertisement. Importantly, we used the perceived degree of stereotyping as the independent variable in our analyses, and not the conditions. This makes potential confounds between conditions less problematic. The moderate to low degree of realism may limit the external validity of the research, but not the internal validity. Future studies should try to develop and test stimuli that are as realistic as possible to further enhance validity. Additionally, not all respondents may have noticed that the ad was for a soda. For example, for the ads in the kitchen, some thought that the ad was for a detergent. Because of this confusion, it is possible that men would be less interested in the product than women, and therefore report lower Aad/Ab than women. However, respondent gender is included in our analyses as a covariate, which controls for that potential bias. Our independent variable is the perceived degree of stereotyping in the ads. We are testing the relationship between perceived stereotyping and Aad/Ab, and not explicitly comparing ads. Incorrectly categorizing the "kitchen cleaning" ad as an ad for a detergent (rather than a soda) would perhaps lead to people perceiving the ad as more stereotypical (in the case of the female model) or less (in the case of the male model), but it should not affect the relationship between perceived stereotypicality and Aad/Ab. Importantly, we are interested in how the relationship between perceived stereotyping and Aad/Ab is moderated by individual (cultural) values. The fact that some people may have ascribed the ad to a different product category, should not affect that relationship, as the confusion with respect to the product category is likely independent of people's cultural value. Therefore, we argue that the potential confusion about the product is not likely to have confounded our results. Further research should corroborate these effects in other product categories.

References

- An, D. 2013. Effects of feminine role orientation on perceived gender role offensiveness in advertising: A Korean perspective. *Universal Journal of Marketing and Business Research* 2: 23-34.
- An, D. and S. Kim. 2007. Relating Hofstede's masculinity dimension to gender role portrayals in advertising: A cross-cultural comparison of web advertisement. *International Marketing Review* 24: 181-207.
- Arnott, C.C. 1972. Husbands' attitude and wives' commitment to employment. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 34: 673-684.
- Bellizzi, J.A. and L. Milner. 1991. Gender positioning of a traditionally male-dominant product. *Journal of Advertising Research* 31: 72-80.
- Coltrane, S. and M. Messineo. 2000. The perpetuation of subtle prejudice: Race and gender imagery in 1990s television advertising. *Sex Roles* 42: 363-389.
- Dens, N., P. De Pelsmacker and W. Janssens. 2009. Effects of scarcely dressed models in advertising on body esteem for Belgian men and women. *Sex Roles* 60: 366-378.
- Duker, J.M. and L.R.J. Tucker. 1977. "Womens lib-ers" versus independent women: A study of preferences for women's roles in advertisements *Journal of Marketing Research* 14: 469-475.
- Eagly, A.H. and V.J. Steffen. 1984. Gender stereotypes stem from the distribution of women and men into social roles. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 46: 735-754.
- Eagly, A.H., W. Wood and A.B. Diekmann. 2000. *Social role theory of sex differences and similarities: A current appraisal*. in *The developmental social psychology of gender*, (Ed.) Eckes, T. & Trautner, H.M.: 123-174. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Eisend, M. 2010. A meta-analysis of gender roles in advertising. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science* 38: 418-440.
- Eisend, M., J. Plagemann and J. Sollwedel. 2014. Gender roles and humor in advertising: The occurrence of stereotyping in humorous and nonhumorous advertising and its consequences for advertising effectiveness. *Journal of Advertising* 43: 256-273.
- Ford, J.B. and M.S. LaTour. 1993. Differing reactions to female role portrayals in advertising. *Journal of Advertising Research* 33: 43-52.
- Ford, J.B. and M.S. LaTour. 1996. Contemporary female perspectives of female role portrayals in advertising. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising* 18: 81-94.

- Ford, J.B., M.S. LaTour, E.D. Honeycutt and M. Joseph. 1994. Female sex role portrayals in international advertising: Should advertisers standardize in the Pacific Rim. *American Business Review* 12: 1-10.
- Ford, J.B., M.S. LaTour and E.D.J. Honeycutt. 1997. An examination of the cross-cultural female response to offensive sex role portrayals in advertising. *International Marketing Review* 14: 409-423.
- Furnham, A. and E. Faragher. 2000. A cross-cultural content analysis of sex-role stereotyping in television advertisements: A comparison between Great Britain and New Zealand. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media* 44: 415-436.
- Glick, P. 2006. *Ambivalent sexism, power distance, and gender inequality across cultures*. in Social comparison and social psychology: Understanding cognition, intergroup relations, and culture, (Ed.) Guimond, S.: 283-302. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hair, J., W. Black, B. Babin, R. Anderson and R. Tatham. 2006. *Multivariate data analysis*. New Jersey: Pearson International Edition.
- Hofstede, G. 2001. *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Horn, J.L., J. McArdle and R. Mason. 1983. When is invariance not invariant: A practical scientist's look at the ethereal concept of factor invariance *The Southern Psychologist* 1: 179-188.
- House, R.J., P.J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P.W. Dorfman and V. Gupta. 2004. *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. United States of America: Sage Publications, Inc.
- House, R.J., N.R. Quigley and M.S. de Luque. 2010. Insights from project GLOBE: Extending global advertising research through a contemporary framework. *International Journal of Advertising* 29: 111-139.
- Hupfer, M. 2002. Communicating with the agentic woman and the communal man: Are stereotypic advertising appeals still relevant? *Academy of Marketing Science Review* 3: 1-15.
- Jaffe, L.J. and P.D. Berger. 1994. The effect of modern female sex role portrayals on advertising effectiveness. *Journal of Advertising Research* 34: 32-42.
- Javidan, M., R.J. House, P.W. Dorfman, P.J. Hanges and M.S. De Luque. 2006. Conceptualizing and measuring cultures and their consequences: A comparative review of GLOBE's and Hofstede's approaches. *Journal of International Business Studies* 37: 897-914.

Kim, J., W. Han, D. Kim and W. Paramita. 2013. Is beauty in the eye of the beholder? Gender and beauty in the cosmetics sector: A comparative study of Indonesia and Korea. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning* 31: 127-140.

Ko, D., Y. Seo and S.-U. Jung. 2015. Examining the effect of cultural congruence, processing fluency, and uncertainty avoidance in online purchase decisions in the U.S. And Korea. *Marketing Letters* 26: 377-390.

McSweeney, B. 2002. Hofstede's model of national cultural differences and their consequences: A triumph of faith-a failure of analysis. *Human Relations* 55: 89-118.

Milner, L.M., D. Fodness and M.W. Speece. 1993. Hofstede's research on cross-cultural work-related values: Implications for consumer behavior. *European Advances in Consumer Research* 1: 70-76.

Moon, Y.S. and K. Chan. 2005. Advertising appeals and cultural values in television commercials: A comparison of Hong Kong and Korea. *International Marketing Review* 22: 48-66.

Moon, Y.S. and K. Chan. 2006. *Gender portrayals and the gender of nations: An extended study in Asian cultures*. in International advertising and communication: Current insights and empirical findings, (Ed.) Diehl, S. & Terlutter, R.: 343-357. Germany: Deutscher Universitätsverlag.

O'Keefe, D.J. 2003. Message properties, mediating states, and manipulation checks: Claims, evidence, and data analysis in experimental persuasive message effects research. *Communication Theory* 13: 251-274.

Odekerken-Schröder, G., K. De Wulf and N. Hofstee. 2002. Is gender stereotyping in advertising more prevalent in masculine countries? A cross-national analysis. *International Marketing Review* 19: 408-419.

Orth, U.R. and D. Holancova. 2003/2004. Consumer response to sex role portrayals in advertisements: Effects of incongruity and prejudices on emotions and attitudes. *Journal of Advertising* 32: 77-89.

Orth, U.R. and D. Holancova. 2004. Men's and women's responses to sex role portrayals in advertisements. *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 21: 77-88.

Paek, H.-J., M.R. Nelson and A.M. Vilela. 2011. Examination of gender-role portrayals in television advertising across seven countries. *Sex Roles* 64: 192-207.

Petty, R.E. and J.T. Cacioppo. 1986. *The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion*. in Advances in experimental social psychology, Vol. 19, (Ed.) Berkowitz, L.: 123-205. New York: Academix Press.

- Ping Jr., R.A. 2004. On assuring valid measures for theoretical models using survey data. *Journal of Business Research* 57: 125-141.
- Putrevu, S. 2004. Communicating with the sexes: Male and female responses to print advertisements. *Journal of Advertising* 33: 51-62.
- Schwartz, S.H. 1992. Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* 25: 1-65.
- Shaw, P., M. Eisend and Y. Tan. 2014. *Gender-role portrayals in international advertising*. in The handbook of international advertising research (Ed.) Cheng, H.: UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Soares, A.M., M. Farhangmehr and A. Shoham. 2007. Hofstede's dimensions of culture in international marketing studies. *Journal of Business Research* 60: 277-284.
- Steenkamp, J.-B.E.M. and H. Baumgartner. 1998. Assessing measurement invariance in cross-national consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research* 25: 78-90.
- Taylor, C.R. 2005. Moving international advertising research forward: A new research agenda. *Journal of Advertising* 34: 7-16.
- Terlutter, R., S. Diehl and B. Mueller. 2010. The cultural dimension of assertiveness in cross-cultural advertising: The perception and evaluation of assertive advertising appeals. *International Journal of Advertising* 29: 2-21.
- Theodoridis, P.K., A.G. Kyrousi, A.Y. Zotou and G.G. Panigyrakis. 2013. Male and female attitudes towards stereotypical advertisements: A paired country investigation. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal* 18: 135-160
- Till, B.D. and M. Busler. 2000. The match-up hypothesis: Physical attractiveness, expertise, and the role of fit on brand attitude, purchase intent and brand beliefs. *Journal of Advertising* 29: 1-13.
- Van Hellefont, C. and H. Van den Bulck. 2012. Impacts of advertisements that are unfriendly to women and men. *International Journal of Advertising* 31: 623-656.
- Verhellen, Y., N. Dens and P. de Pelsmacker. 2014. A longitudinal content analysis of gender role portrayal in Belgian television advertising. *Journal of Marketing Communications* 22: 170-188.
- William, J., D. Lundstrom, S. White and J.A. Chopoorian. 1999. Attitudes of contemporary European women toward sex role portrayal, company image and purchase intention: The French versus U.S. Experience. *Journal of Marketing Management* 15: 485-493.
- Williams, P. and A. Drolet. 2005. Age-related differences in response to emotional advertisements. *Journal of Consumer Research* 32: 343-354.

- Williamson, D. 2002. Forward from a critique of Hofstede's model of national culture. *Human Relations* 55: 1373-1395.
- Wolin, L.D. 2003. Gender issues in advertising - an oversight synthesis of research: 1970-2002. *Journal of Advertising Research* 43: 111-129.
- Yoo, B., N. Donthu and T. Lenartowicz. 2011. Measuring Hofstede's five dimensions of cultural values at the individual level: Development and validation of CVSCALE. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing* 23: 193-210.
- Zawisza, M. and M. Cinnirella. 2010. What matters more—breaking tradition or stereotype content? Envious and paternalistic gender stereotypes and advertising effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 40: 1767-1797.

Table 1: Measures

Construct	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha	Sample item	Scale origin
Degree of stereotyping	3 items	.87	This ad is a traditional image	(Ford & LaTour 1993)
Attitude toward the ad (AAD)	4 items	.94	Bad – Good	(Williams & Drolet 2005)
Attitude toward the brand (AB)	4 items	.96	Negative – Positive	(Chattopadhyay & Basu 1990)
Masculinity	4 items	.72	There are some jobs that a man can do better than a woman	(Yoo et al. 2011)
Power distance	4 items	.85	People in higher positions should avoid interaction with people in lower positions	(Yoo et al. 2011)
Feminine role orientation	7 items	.84	Women should have more equal job and education opportunities	(An 2013)
Assertiveness values	3 items	.84	In this society, people should be encouraged to be: Assertive – non-assertive (reversed)	(House et al. 2004)
Humor in the ad	4 items	.70	Humorous	(Cline et al. 2003)
Perceptions of the model	3 items	.86	Very unattractive – very attractive	(Ohanian 1990; Till 1998; Till & Busler 2000)
Brand familiarity	1 item	/	Very unfamiliar – very familiar	(Pae et al. 2002)

Table 2: Standardized Regression Coefficients of the Regression Models

<i>Cultural variable</i>	<i>Masculinity</i>		<i>Power Distance</i>		<i>Feminine Role Orientation</i>		<i>Assertiveness</i>	
	<i>AAD</i>	<i>AB</i>	<i>AAD</i>	<i>AB</i>	<i>AAD</i>	<i>AB</i>	<i>AAD</i>	<i>AB</i>
<i>Dependent variables</i>								
Degree of stereotyping	.25*	.23*	.26*	.23*	.28*	.24*	.26*	.22*
Cultural variable	.12*	.04	.10*	.04	-.13*	-.06°	-.02	-.12*
Model gender	.05*	-.01	.05*	-.01	.04°	-.01	.04°	-.01
Degree of stereotyping * cultural variable	.11*	.13*	.16*	.16*	-.11*	-.10*	.06*	-.01
Degree of stereotyping * Model gender	-.09*	-.06°	-.10*	-.06°	-.08*	-.05	-.08*	-.04
Cultural variable * Model gender	-.04	.01	.01	.01	.02	.02	-.01	.02
Degree of stereotyping * Cultural variable * Model Gender	-.02	-.02	-.06°	-.02	.03	.03	-.10*	-.06°
Respondent gender	.01	.04	.01	.03	.01	.03	-.01	.03
Model perception	.16*	.24*	.17*	.24*	.19*	.26*	.17*	.25*
Humor in the ad	.53*	.36*	.53*	.36*	.53*	.36*	.56*	.38*
<i>Adjusted R square</i>	.52	.36	.53	.37	.52	.35	.50	.36

Note:

* means $p < .005$, ° means $p < .010$

Aad: attitude toward the ad, Ab: attitude toward the brand

Table 3: Slope Difference Tests for Attitude toward the Ad: Degree of Stereotyping, Power Distance, Model Gender

Pair of slopes	t-value	p-value
<i>Power distance</i> <i>High</i> , <i>model</i> <i>Female</i> / <i>Power distance</i> <i>High</i> , <i>model</i> <i>Male</i>	-3.38	.001
<i>Power distance</i> <i>High</i> , <i>model</i> <i>Female</i> / <i>Power distance</i> <i>Low</i> , <i>model</i> <i>Female</i>	1.71	.088
<i>Power distance</i> <i>High</i> , <i>model</i> <i>Male</i> / <i>Power distance</i> <i>Low</i> , <i>model</i> <i>Male</i>	13153.49	<.001
<i>Power distance</i> <i>Low</i> , <i>model</i> <i>Female</i> / <i>Power distance</i> <i>Low</i> , <i>model</i> <i>Male</i>	-1.17	.242

Table 4: Slope Difference Tests for Degree of Stereotyping, Assertiveness and Model Gender

	Attitude toward the ad		Attitude toward the brand	
	t	p	t	p
Pair of slopes				
<i>Assertiveness</i> High, <i>model</i> Female / <i>Assertiveness</i> High, <i>model</i> Male	-4.00	<.001	-1.92	.056
<i>Assertiveness</i> High, <i>model</i> Female / <i>Assertiveness</i> Low, <i>model</i> Female	-4.60	<.001	-2236.29	<.001
<i>Assertiveness</i> High, <i>model</i> Male / <i>Assertiveness</i> Low, <i>model</i> Male	-167.41	<.001	-0.06	.949
<i>Assertiveness</i> Low, <i>model</i> Female / <i>Assertiveness</i> Low, <i>model</i> Male	0.01	.994	0.25	.800

Figure 1: Conceptual framework

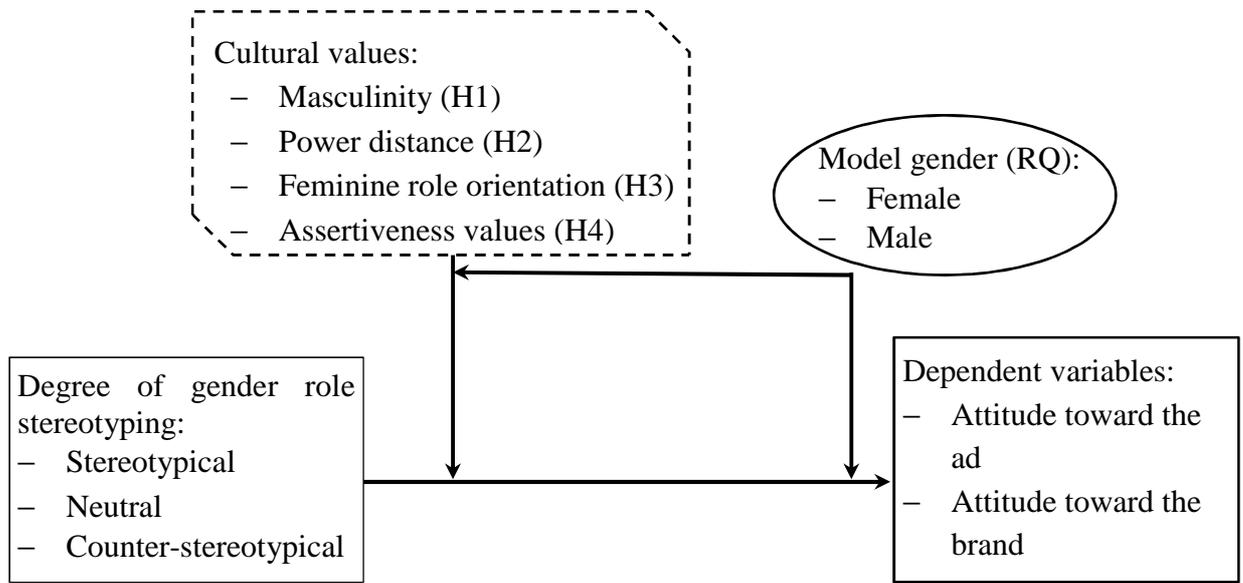


Figure 2: Attitude toward the Ad: 3-way Interaction between Degree of Stereotyping, Power Distance and Model Gender

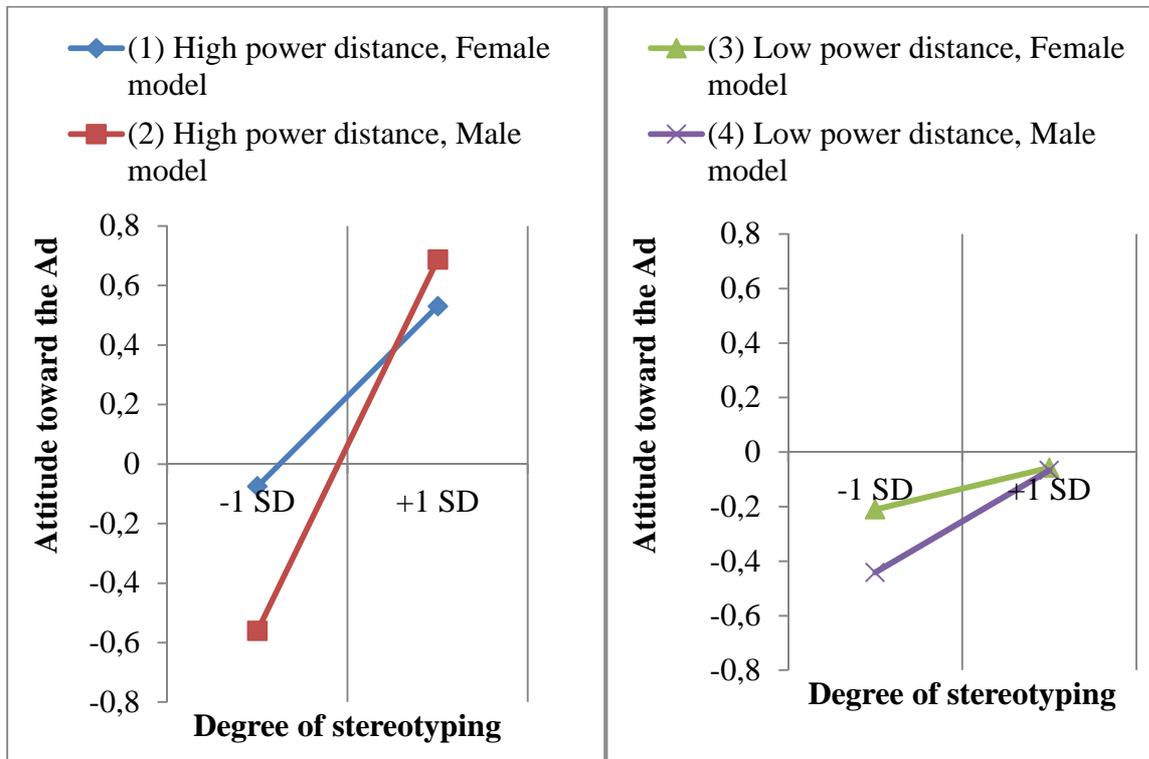
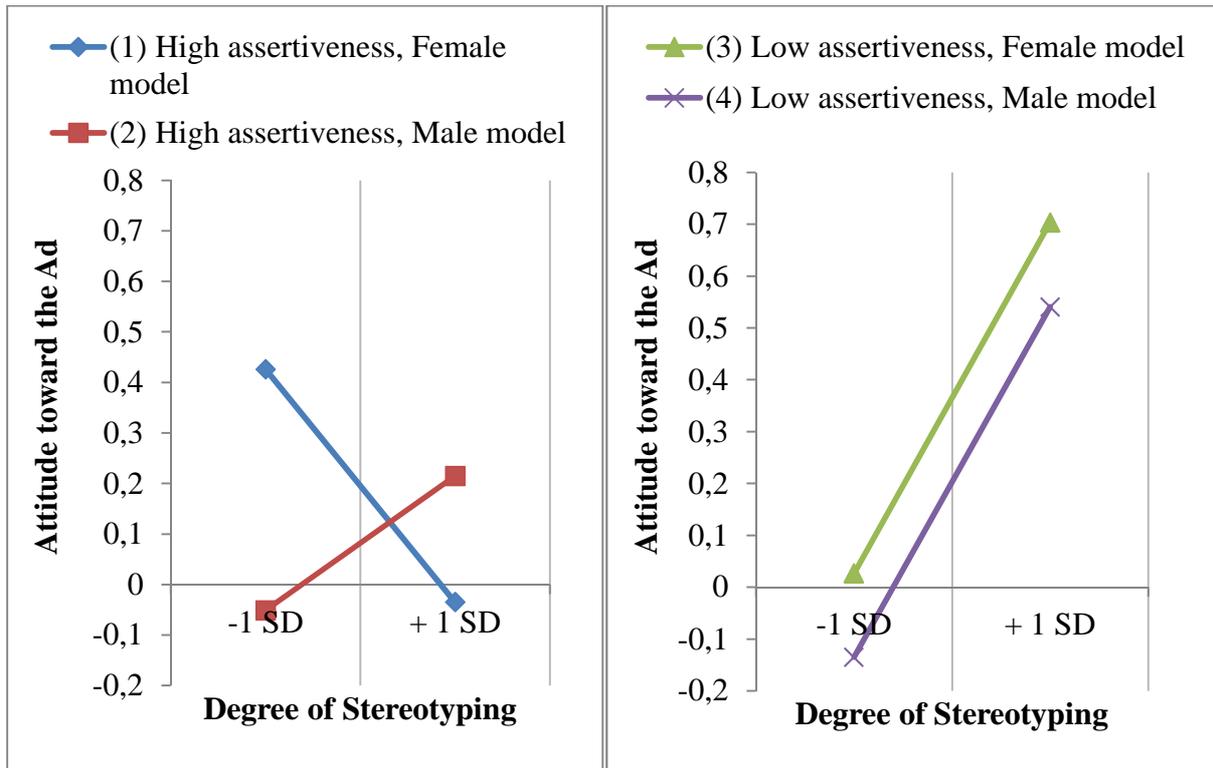


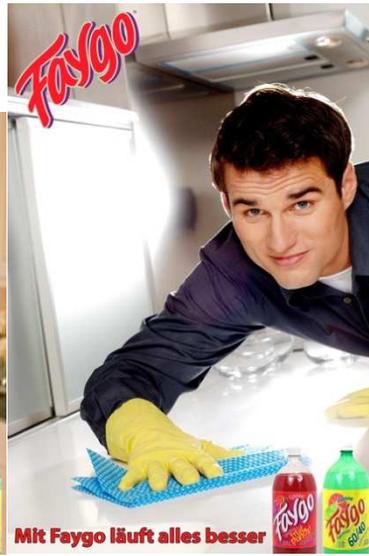
Figure 3: Attitude toward the Ad: 3-way Interaction for Degree of Stereotyping, Assertiveness and Model Gender



Appendix 1: Stimuli (in German, translation: “Everything goes better with Faygo”)



a: Stereotypical female role portrayal



b: Counter-stereotypical male role portrayal



c: Neutral female role portrayal



d: Neutral male role portrayal



e: Counter-stereotypical female role portrayal



f: Stereotypical male role portrayal

Appendix 2: Reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity

Model	Dependent variable	Construct	Sweden				Germany			
			CR	AVE	MSV	AVS	CR	AVE	MSV	AVS
Masculinity (MAS)	Attitude toward the ad	MAS	.78	.48	.09	.06	.63	.31	.09	.08
		Stereo.	.86	.68	.07	.05	.88	.70	.18	.12
		Aad	.94	.80	.09	.08	.95	.83	.18	.13
	Attitude toward the brand	MAS.	.78	.48	.06	.05	.63	.31	.07	.06
		Stereo.	.86	.68	.06	.04	.88	.70	.13	.10
		Ab	.96	.87	.06	.06	.96	.84	.13	.09
Power distance (PD)	Attitude toward the ad	PD	.82	.60	.08	.05	.81	.53	.09	.08
		Stereo.	.86	.68	.02	.01	.88	.71	.18	.13
		Aad	.94	.80	.08	.04	.95	.83	.18	.13
	Attitude toward the brand	PD	.87	.63	.04	.03	.81	.53	.09	.07
		Stereo.	.86	.68	.06	.04	.88	.71	.13	.11
		Ab	.96	.87	.06	.05	.96	.84	.13	.09
Assertiveness values (ASSER)	Attitude toward the ad	ASSER	.84	.64	.001	.001	.84	.63	.04	.02
		Stereo.	.86	.68	.07	.04	.88	.71	.18	.11
		Aad	.94	.80	.07	.04	.95	.82	.18	.09
	Attitude toward the brand	ASSER	.84	.64	.011	.01	.84	.64	.04	.02
		Stereo.	.86	.68	.06	.03	.88	.70	.13	.08
		Ab	.96	.87	.06	.04	.96	.84	.13	.06
Adjusted Feminine role orientation (FRO) (6 items)	Attitude toward the ad	FRO	.89	.61	.004	.004	.86	.55	.01	.004
		Stereo.	.86	.68	.07	.04	.88	.70	.01	.003
		Aad	.94	.80	.07	.04	.95	.82	.000	.000
	Attitude toward the brand	FRO	.89	.61	.004	.004	.86	.55	.01	.004
		Stereo.	.86	.68	.004	.002	.88	.71	.01	.004
		Ab	.96	.87	.004	.002	.96	.84	.001	.001

Appendix 3: Correlation Matrix

	Masculinity	Power distance	Assertiveness values
Power distance	$r(1011) = 0.62$ $p < .001$	1	
Assertiveness values	$r(1011) = 0.09$ $p = .004$	$r(1011) = 0.07$ $p = .03$	1
Feminine role orientation	$r(1011) = -0.27$ $p < .001$	$r(1011) = -0.26$ $p < .001$	$r(1011) = -0.10$ $p = .005$