AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING AND CULTURE IN JAPANESE NATIVES IN THE DALLAS, TEXAS AREA

THESIS

Presented to the Graduate Council of the North Texas State University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

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By

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This study was designed to test whether Japanese natives who retained traditional Japanese value orientations and who resided in the Dallas, Texas area would have unfavorable attitude toward the concept of comparative television advertising. Data were collected from 104 respondents of varying sex, age, education, occupation, length of stay in the United States, intention of settling in the United States, and television viewing hours. All null hypotheses were accepted, indicating that cultural influence among Japanese natives in the Dallas area did not result in unfavorable attitude toward comparative advertising despite the fact that in Japan, the naming of names in advertising is counter to basic Japanese culture and tradition.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The study of advertising as it relates to culture is an area of communication that has been virtually overlooked by researchers. There are reasons that the study has not been conducted in this field. F. T. Marquez described that, first, advertisers, by definition neither sociologists nor anthropologists, find culture an elusive concept; second, many advertisers and advertising researchers believe that since human nature is universal, culture must be universal, too; and third, proponents of standardized global advertising tend to dismiss cultural differences, stating that an advertisement that is effective in one culture (especially that of the United States) will be equally effective in other cultures. ¹

Cultural differences between countries, especially between Eastern and Western countries, still seem to remain, even in today's rapidly shrinking world. Meanwhile, the advertising business is growing throughout the world, and advertising practices and techniques are important marketing

tools. It is a question whether advertising techniques reflect cultural values in each country.

Japan is a prime example of cultural effects on advertising, because "Japan is the example par excellence of the Westernization and modernization of a non-Western society."\(^2\) In other words, Japan has been astoundingly successful throughout its history in borrowing aspects of foreign culture while preserving its own identity.\(^3\) Thus, the advertising business and practices in Japan seem to reflect the cultural characteristics of its people, despite the influence of Western techniques.

Jan D. Wagenaar, who worked as manager of Young & Rubicam Tokyo in Japan for years, explained that in Japan one tries not to upset people, and certainly not with outspoken opinions. The communication business reflects this concern for harmony to the extent that a Westerner is often totally lost trying to understand what a particular advertisement or spot advertisement is supposed to communicate.\(^4\)

Head-on conflicts in advertising with competition are usually avoided. Advertising, in the first place, is created


\(^3\) Charles W. Yost, "Warnings from Japan," The Christian Science Monitor, October 28, 1977, p. 35.

to please the prospect rather than to make a direct sale. The more it pleases, the more likely it is to move the product.5

Mood, used extensively in Japanese advertising, reflects the cultural characteristic of avoiding confrontation. The very idea of explicit naming of names in advertising is counter to basic Japanese culture and tradition.6 Thus, Japanese advertisers have been disinclined to use comparative advertising because of its incompatibility with traditional Japanese value orientations.

Comparative advertising is not totally new to the United States. But it has not long had the wide degree of usage that it has today. An early example was Pepsi-Cola's aggressive efforts to make inroads against market leader Coca-Cola during the 1960's. Pepsi's version of comparative advertising, using a catchy radio jingle, called attention to its comparative advantage in quantity against the unnamed but obvious Coca-Cola. In more recent years, Avis Rent A Car mounted an extensive campaign against "Number 1," Hertz Rent A Car.7

During the 1960's, comparative advertising was rejected

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6 Ibid.
by both the television and the radio codes of the National Association of Broadcasters (NAB). Prior to 1971, only NBC accepted comparative advertising, but following a series of the Federal Trade Commission "informal conversations" with the networks and FTC-network written communications during the 1971-1973 period, ABC and CBS began accepting comparative advertising.\(^8\)

In 1972, the FTC supported comparative advertising for a Schick Flexamatic electric razor that said the Schick razor was superior to rivals Norelco, Ronson and Remington, by name. Gradually, more such advertising was seen and a growing variety of consumer goods marketers made use of the comparative advertising approach during 1973 and 1974.\(^9\)

By early 1974, in the wake of such broadening usage, the American Association of Advertising Agencies (AAAA) reversed its antipathetic posture toward the practice of comparative advertising, but urged that "extreme caution should be exercised" in using comparative advertising.\(^10\)

The NAB issued policy statements officially advocating the use of comparative advertising if comparisons are made on specific product attributes that are "significant and


\(^10\) Ibid., p. 5.
meaningful to the overall performance of the product." This is key provision in the NAB's Code on comparative advertising that became effective April 1, 1975.¹¹

Some factors encouraged and facilitated these changes. First, there was a strong expression of interest in more explicit comparisons in advertising made by some staffs in the FTC. They informally advocated the use of comparative advertising as a means of promoting competition by (a) encouraging product improvements and (b) by dispensing a greater volume of factual product information to consumers.¹²

Second, further stimulus for such comparisons was the development of an official FTC requirement that all factual claims made in advertising be substantiated in advance.¹³

The FTC called on networks and stations to promote "head-to-head" brand comparisons in order to provide customers with more product information. Such FTC encouragement opened the door for comparative advertising in all media, a door some members of the advertising and broadcasting industries believed should have been left firmly closed.¹⁴

Although the concept of comparative advertising is widely accepted in the United States today, some opposition

¹¹ Ginter and Starling, "Issues in Comparative Advertising," p. 23.
¹² Ginter and Starling, p. 23.
¹³ Greyser, p. 4.
¹⁴ Ginter and Starling, p. 23.
exists on the ground that it is counter to the basic concept of a free economy. William H. Tankersley, president of the Council of Better Business Bureau, described comparative advertising as damaging to advertising credibility and as representing a negative value in business conduct. 15

Those who advocate the idea of comparative advertising say that it could and would provide more factual and usable product information for consumers. Tracy Westen, deputy director of the FTC bureau of consumer protection, said the American economic system's traditional use of advertising "has not generated enough information," but comparative advertising has heightened competition and improved the flow of information, if only by alerting consumers to the questions they should be asking. 16 Referring to comparative advertising as perhaps "one of the 20th Century's major cultural, even artistic, achievements," Westen said this achievement nevertheless has not been faithful to the Adam Smith concept of a free economy that benefits from the advertising of price information and marketplace choices. 17

Most consumer activists applaud the trend toward greater use of comparative advertising. Their natural

16 Ibid., p. 6.
17 Ibid., p. 6.
interests lie in more fact-based advertising generally, and in advertising that offers the consumer an easier basis of brand-versus-brand comparison specifically.

The practice of comparative advertising is and seemingly will continue to be a subject of controversy.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine whether Japanese natives who reside in Dallas and surrounding areas retain their cultural rejection of comparative advertising practices.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of sex, age, education, occupation, length of stay in the United States, the intention to settle in the United States, and television viewing hours in the attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising practices by Japanese natives residing in Dallas and surrounding areas.

Hypotheses

These hypotheses were formulated:

1. Japanese natives living in the Dallas area who retain traditional Japanese value orientations would show no lessening of having unfavorable attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

2. No significant difference concerning the concept
of comparative advertising would exist among such Japanese, regardless of sex.

3. No significant difference concerning the concept of comparative advertising would exist among such Japanese, regardless of age.

4. No significant difference concerning the concept of comparative advertising would exist among such Japanese, regardless of education.

5. No significant difference concerning the concept of comparative advertising would exist among such Japanese, regardless of occupation.

6. No significant difference concerning the concept of comparative advertising would exist among such Japanese, regardless of length of stay in the United States.

7. No significant difference concerning the concept of comparative advertising would exist among such Japanese, regardless of the intention to settle in the United States.

8. No significant difference concerning the concept of comparative advertising would exist among such Japanese, regardless of the television viewing hours.

Methodology

This study entailed the conduct of a questionnaire survey of Japanese natives in Dallas, Texas. Dallas was chosen because of its proximity and because a substantial number of Japanese live there.
Sampling lists were obtained from the Japan America Association, Lakeside Baptist Church English Class for Japanese, the University of Texas at Arlington, the University of Dallas, and North Texas State University. A sample of 183, or 50 per cent, was randomly drawn from 366 persons in these lists.

A total of 104 questionnaires, or 57 per cent, was returned by the end of August, 1978.

Subjects were asked to complete a four-page questionnaire which was translated into Japanese (see Appendix C and D) from English (see Appendix A and B). The researcher assumed that, first, most subjects would prefer their native language Japanese; second, some of the respondents would have difficulty with English. As a result, it was decided to use the questionnaire written in Japanese language with the expectation of obtaining more accurate responses.

The questionnaire was divided into three parts: (a) six seven-point scales (questions one, three, four, five, seven, and thirteen) designed to measure attitude and six seven-point scales (questions two, six, nine, ten, eleven, and fourteen) designed to measure behavior on cultural orientation of the Japanese, and eventually to determine the subjects' tendencies toward Japanese value orientations; (b) four seven-point scales (questions eighteen, twenty-one, twenty-four, and twenty-seven) designed to measure reaction toward the concept of comparative advertising and six seven-point scales
(questions sixteen, seventeen, nineteen, twenty, twenty-two, twenty-three, twenty-five, and twenty-six) designed to measure reaction toward the concept of Japanese advertising; and (c) thirteen questions (twenty through forty) on demographic backgrounds. Questions eight, twelve, and fifteen were excluded from these measurings because they were not appropriate to include in any category above.

Limitations of the Study
This study was limited to examining the attitudes of Japanese natives who reside in the Dallas area with regard to comparative advertising and Japanese advertising on television.

Related Studies
There is no study in the same area of this study, but there are number of studies in related fields.

Godwin C. Chu suggested that, in cross-cultural communication research, topics will be guided by three concepts: the self, others, and the situation. Communication responses that involve exposure, acceptance and change of behavior or attitudes reflect a unit of behavior. This unit is analyzed in terms of the self, which is the audience. Other include parents, associates and friends. The situation consists of cultural values, goals and norms.18

Harold H. Kassarjian found that inner-directed individuals tend to prefer inner-directed advertising appeal and that other-directed persons prefer other-directed appeals. His study implied that advertising messages need to be adapted to either inner- or other-directed cultures.19

In the study of advertising in relation to culture are two major schools: (a) the group that focuses upon effects of cultural differences on advertising, and (b) the group that focuses upon the common nature of human beings and seeks the possibility of universal advertising appeals.

Starting with the first group, E. S. Lorimor and S. W. Dun examined effects on attitudes of nationals of other countries by varying certain elements in United States-originated advertising. These researchers found that advertising effectiveness correlated with cultural difference.20

P. N. Singh and S. C. Huang conducted a comparative analysis of American and Indian magazine advertising. They concluded that there is significant difference in the type of appeals between Indian and American advertising. Appeals such as sex, prestige, social approval, luxury, dependability and reliance, common in American advertising, were found


counter to cultural values in India.\textsuperscript{21}

Frank N. Pierce examined the effect of culture on advertising response to international students in America. He found that the stage of economic development of students' home countries affected their overall attitude toward advertising in America.\textsuperscript{22}

S. J. F. Unwin studied the responses to magazine advertising by American and foreign students. He indicated that cultural influence was greater than differences of age and sex in the response to advertising among American and foreign students.\textsuperscript{23}

F. T. Marquez investigated whether Philippine advertising reflected Philippine culture. He found that print advertising in the Philippines reflected Western rather than indigenous culture.\textsuperscript{24}

In the second group, Ilmar Roostal said that research is needed to determine how rapidly standardization of advertising can be applied in product areas where the economic


\textsuperscript{24} Marquez, "The Relationship of Advertising and Culture in the Philippines," pp. 436-442.
and cultural lag between different nations and regions still plays an important role.\textsuperscript{25}

Norton B. Leo emphasized that human nature is basically the same everywhere. Therefore, an universal advertising appeal can be effective anywhere.\textsuperscript{26} Arthur C. Fatt agreed with Leo.\textsuperscript{27} Harold Burson and Richard C. Christian adhere to this point of view.\textsuperscript{28}

Schwerin Research Corporation examined the effects of television commercials upon English- and French-speaking Canadians. The implications of this study were that, because of similarities of human nature across language barriers, the same appeals can be effective simultaneously and that it is important to adapt advertising to the culture in countries or areas where a different language is spoken.\textsuperscript{29}

J. M. Lenormand opposed the use of standardized


advertising, saying that cultural barriers to international advertising are insurmountable.\textsuperscript{30}

J. H. Donnelly and J. K. Ryans studied international advertising managers in United States firms, how extensively these firms utilized standardized advertising and the views of their managers on the common advertising approach, including how important they believed cultural considerations to be in international advertising. The findings showed mixed response. Most advertisers believed that their international advertising must be adapted to each market of the world, and very little use was made of the standardized advertising approach.\textsuperscript{31}

In the sociological field are two studies regarding Japanese culture. T. S. Lebra studied the generation gap, with a special focus on moral values between the "prewar generation" and the "postwar generation" divided by World War II in Japan. She found that the generation gap appeared more between male adults and male youth than between female counterparts. Another major finding of this study was that the two generations did not diverge widely, but shared the

\textsuperscript{30} J. M. Lenormand, "Is Europe Ripe for the Integration of Advertising?" The \textit{International Advertiser}, V (March, 1964), 14.

same moral orientation.\textsuperscript{32}

W. Caudill and H. A. Scarr analyzed Japanese value orientations and culture changes led by the American occupation after World War II. They concluded that children moved away from the value orientations of their parents relatively little, indicating that Japanese parents were successful in transmitting their value orientations to their children.\textsuperscript{33}


CHAPTER II

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG CONCEPTS

The analysis in this study involved four fields: (a) the analysis on attitude of all subjects on the concepts of Japanese value orientations, of comparative advertising and of Japanese advertising, and relationships among these concepts; (b) the analysis of cultural influence along seven demographic lines of Japanese natives who retain Japanese value orientations (and who do not retain) over their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising (and the concept of Japanese advertising); (c) the study of the differences among seven demographic lines) in subjects who retain Japanese value orientations or those who do not and their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising and the concept of Japanese advertising, (d) the study of the differences between the subjects' attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising and the concept of Japanese advertising along their seven demographic lines.

The first analysis involved the testing of Hypothesis One; the second analysis, the testing of the remaining hypotheses; the third analysis, the further study for demographic lines of subjects in the attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising and the concept of Japanese
advertising in relation to their perception of Japanese value orientations; and the fourth analysis, the study of the relationship between the subjects' perception of the concept of comparative advertising and the concept of Japanese advertising along each segment of seven demographic lines.

In this chapter, an analysis of the attitude of all subjects on the concepts of Japanese value orientations, of comparative advertising, and of Japanese advertising; and relationships among these concepts is presented.

After data were collected, the scale ratings of each subject (check marks of scales) were scored by attributing the integer values 1 to 7 to the seven positions. The integer "4" denoted neutrality of judgment on the scale. The integers larger than "4" denoted positive judgments, and the integers smaller than "4" represented negative judgments. Then all subjects were categorized into two groups on the following three concepts: (a) conservative and non-conservative, according to their perception of Japanese value orientations, (b) attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising, and (c) attitude toward the concept of Japanese advertising. Fifty-three subjects were categorized into the conservative group that retained Japanese value orientations; fifty-one subjects were categorized into the non-conservative group that did not retain Japanese value orientations. Fifty subjects rejected the concept of comparative advertising and
fifty-four subjects accepted the concept. Fifty-seven subjects rejected the concept of Japanese advertising and forty-seven subjects accepted the concept. Table I shows the distribution of the subjects with their categories in three concepts.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY PERCEPTION GROUPS IN THREE CONCEPTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Perception of the Concept of Japanese Value Orientations (both on Attitude and Behavior)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>Non-Conservative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Perception of the Concept of Comparative Advertising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE I--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Perception of the Concept of Japanese Advertising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Chi square test was mainly used to test the hypotheses. It involved the test of significant difference between those who retained Japanese culture and those who did not; in respondents who retained Japanese culture, between male and female, among different ages, among different education levels, among occupation groups, among the groups of different lengths of stay in the United States, between those who intended to settle in the United States and those who did not, and among the groups with different television viewing hours. A Chi square test was employed to conduct further analyses along seven demographic lines between the two groups of conservative and non-conservative subjects, and between the two groups of subjects who rejected or accepted comparative advertising and Japanese advertising.

First, an analysis was made of the relationship between the subjects' attitude and behavior relative to Japanese
value orientations in order to determine the degree of conservative or non-conservative tendencies toward Japanese values.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test was used to formulate results. Dean J. Champion's suggestion was utilized to test the significance of $r$.\footnote{Dean J. Champion, Basic Statistics for Social Research, (Scranton, Pennsylvania: Chandler Publishing Co., 1970), pp. 130-155.}

The $r$ value of .36, as shown in Table II, was above the .05 level of probability, indicating a relationship or association between attitude and behavior toward Japanese value orientations in all subjects. It was assumed, therefore, that the subjects' scores of attitude and behavior toward Japanese value orientations were identifiable to the scores of determining conservative or non-conservative in terms of Japanese values.

TABLE II

FIGURES FOR ATTITUDE AND BEHAVIOR TOWARD JAPANESE VALUE ORIENTATIONS IN THE TOTAL SUBJECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$z$</th>
<th>$P$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test was used to examine Hypothesis One, the relationship between the conservative attitude toward traditional Japanese value orientations and the unfavorable attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising. As the \( r \) value of .14 was far below the .05 level of probability, Hypothesis One was rejected. Therefore, it was concluded that no relationship between subjects' tendency of retaining Japanese value orientations and unfavorable attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

**TABLE III**

**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE CONSERVATIVE PERCEPTION TOWARD JAPANESE VALUES AND REJECTION OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING IN THE TOTAL SUBJECTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>( r )</th>
<th>( z )</th>
<th>( P )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conservative toward Japanese Values</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>+0.14</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reject Comparative Advertising</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A 2 X 2 Chi square was employed to examine the difference between the conservative and the non-conservative tendencies toward Japanese value orientations with respect to the attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising. The value of 1.41 was far below the .05 level of
Probability, indicating no significant difference between the conservative and the non-conservative groups toward Japanese values in the attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising. Further study of these groups along seven demographic lines will be seen in Chapter IV.

**TABLE IV**

**COMPARISON OF CLASSIFIED SUBJECTS ON JAPANESE VALUES AND THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING IN THE TOTAL SUBJECTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of Japanese Values</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Conservative</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test was used to investigate the relationship between the conservative tendency toward Japanese values and acceptance of Japanese advertising. The r test value of .08 was far below the .05 level of probability.

A 2 X 2 Chi square test was used to examine the difference between the conservative and the non-conservative groups in the attitude toward Japanese advertising. A Chi square value of .03 was far below the .05 level of probability.
TABLE V

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE CONSERVATIVE PERCEPTION TOWARD JAPANESE VALUES AND ACCEPTANCE OF JAPANESE ADVERTISING IN THE TOTAL SUBJECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conservative toward Japanese Values</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>+.08</td>
<td>+.8</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept Japanese Advertising</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results indicated no relationship between the conservative and the non-conservative tendencies toward Japanese values in the attitude toward Japanese advertising in the subjects. Chapter IV deals with the further study of subjects with regard to their seven demographic lines.

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF CLASSIFIED SUBJECTS ON JAPANESE VALUES AND THE ATTITUDE TOWARD JAPANESE ADVERTISING IN THE TOTAL SUBJECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of Japanese Values</th>
<th>Attitude toward Japanese Advertising</th>
<th>Reject</th>
<th>Accept</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Conservative</td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=104
Finally, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test was carried out to test the relationship between rejection of comparative advertising and acceptance of Japanese advertising in the total subjects. The r value of .48 was above the .05 level of probability, indicating a relationship between rejection of comparative advertising and acceptance of Japanese advertising.

**TABLE VII**

**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN REJECTION OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING AND ACCEPTANCE OF JAPANESE ADVERTISING IN THE TOTAL SUBJECTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reject Comparative Advertising</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>+.48</td>
<td>+4.87</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept Japanese Advertising</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A 2 X 2 Chi square was employed to test the significance of difference between the attitude toward comparative advertising and the attitude toward Japanese advertising. The obtained Chi square value of 4.62 was well above the .05 level of probability, indicating a relationship between the attitude toward comparative advertising and the attitude toward Japanese advertising in the total subjects. Chapter V will extensively present the study on subjects' seven demographic lines to determine a relationship between the
attitude toward comparative advertising and the attitude toward Japanese advertising.

**TABLE VIII**

**COMPARISON OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING AND THE ATTITUDE TOWARD JAPANESE ADVERTISING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
<th>Attitude toward Japanese Advertising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Reject | 22 | 29 |
| Accept | 35 | 18 |

N=104
CHAPTER III

COMPARISONS WITHIN GROUP ALONG DEMOGRAPHIC LINES

The analysis in this part was to examine Hypotheses Two, Three, Four, Five, Six, Seven, and Eight. It was hypothesized that among conservative subjects who retain Japanese value orientations, there would be an association between seven demographic lines and their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

The frequency distributions of each score for the subjects were compared over the seven demographic lines, sex, age, education, occupation, length of stay in the United States, the intention to settle in the United States, and television viewing hour.

A Chi square test was employed to determine whether groups of each demographic line of conservative subjects differ in the attitude toward comparative advertising.

Sidney Siegel's methods were applied to test null hypotheses for two independent samples.1

Table IX shows the distributions of sex of conservative subjects to Japanese values in the attitude toward comparative advertising. A 2 X 2 Chi square yielded a value of .27 for Hypothesis Two, no significant difference

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concerning the concept of comparative advertising would exist among subjects who retain Japanese value orientations, regardless of sex. This value was far below the .05 level of probability, indicating no difference in the attitude toward comparative advertising in the sex of the conservative subjects.

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF SEX OF THE CONSERVATIVE GROUP IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex of Conservative Subjects</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=53

For Hypothesis Three, stated that no significant difference concerning the concept of comparative advertising would exist among such Japanese, regardless of age, a 2 X 2 Chi square test yielded a value of .04. That was far below the .05 level of probability. Therefore, there was no relationship between the different age groups of the conservative subjects in the attitude toward comparative advertising.
### TABLE X

**COMPARISON OF AGE OF THE CONSERVATIVE GROUP IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of Conservative Subjects</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative advertising</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-34</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 &amp; over</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=53

For Hypothesis Four, a 2 x 3 Chi square was employed to test the significance of the difference among the different education groups of the conservative subjects in

### TABLE XI

**COMPARISON OF EDUCATION OF THE CONSERVATIVE GROUP IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education of Conservative Subjects</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior college</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University &amp; Graduate</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=53
the attitude toward comparative advertising. The Chi square value of 1.90 obtained was not enough to reach the .05 level of significance. This meant that the educational differences of the conservative subjects did not differ in their attitude toward comparative advertising.

For Hypothesis Five, the significance of the difference among the different occupation groups of the conservative subjects in the attitude toward comparative advertising, a $2 \times 3$ Chi square was used. A Chi square value was 3.58 which did not reach the level of significance at .05, indicating no significant difference among the different occupations of the conservative subjects in the attitude toward comparative advertising.

**TABLE XII**

**COMPARISON OF OCCUPATION OF THE CONSERVATIVE GROUP IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation of Conservative Subjects</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Businessman</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant Employee &amp; Other</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=53
A 2 X 3 Chi square was used to examine Hypothesis Six, the relationship among the different lengths of stay in the United States of the conservative subjects in the attitude toward comparative advertising. The obtained Chi square value of 1.14 was not significant at the .05 level. It indicated no relationship among the different lengths of stay in the United States in the attitude toward comparative advertising.

TABLE XIII
COMPARISON OF LENGTH OF STAY IN THE UNITED STATES OF THE CONSERVATIVE GROUP IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Stay in the United States of Conservative Subjects</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
<th>Reject</th>
<th>Accept</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 3 Years</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-7 Years</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Years &amp; Over</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=53

A 2 X 2 Chi square for Hypothesis Seven was tested to determine the difference among the groups of the intention to settle in the United States in the conservative subjects in the attitude toward comparative advertising. The Chi
square value of .07 was too below to be significant at the .05 level, indicating that the intention to settle in the United States in the conservative subjects had no relationship in the attitude toward comparative advertising.

TABLE XIV

COMPARISON OF INTENTION TO SETTLE IN THE UNITED STATES OF THE CONSERVATIVE GROUP IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention to Settle in the United States of Conservative Subjects</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=49

For Hypothesis Eight, a 2 X 3 Chi square was carried out to test whether there was any relationship among the different television viewing hour groups in the conservative subjects in the attitude toward comparative advertising. A Chi square value of 5.04 was just below the .05 level of significance, indicating some relationship among television viewing hours in the conservative subjects in the attitude toward comparative advertising, but this difference was not statistically significant.
TABLE XV

COMPARISON OF TELEVISION VIEWING HOUR OF THE CONSERVATIVE GROUP IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Television Viewing Hour a Day of Conservative Subjects</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
<th>N=53</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 Hour</td>
<td>Reject: 8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accept: 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 Hours</td>
<td>Reject: 11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accept: 13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Hours &amp; Over</td>
<td>Reject: 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accept: 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For those subjects who did not retain Japanese value orientations, a Chi square test was utilized to test a relationship between seven demographic lines and their attitude toward comparative advertising. All Chi squares were not significant at the .05 level. Obviously, these data suggested no relationship between the non-conservative subjects' attitude toward comparative advertising and their seven demographic lines.

A Chi square test was applied to test difference in the attitude toward Japanese advertising in seven demographic lines of those subjects who retained Japanese value orientations.
As in the study of comparative advertising, all Chi squares were not significant at the .05 level. A 2 X 3 Chi square on television viewing hour yielded a value of 3.68, just below the .05 level of probability, indicating some difference in the attitude toward Japanese advertising in the television viewing hour of the conservative subjects, but not statistically significant.

Thus, these data suggested no relationships between the conservative subjects' attitude toward Japanese advertising and their demographic lines.

For those subjects who did not retain Japanese value orientations, another set of Chi square tests was applied to test a relationship between seven demographic lines and their attitude toward Japanese advertising.

A 2 X 2 Chi square on age showed a value of 5.19, above

| TABLE XVI |
| COMPARISON OF AGE OF THE NON-CONSERVATIVE GROUP IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD JAPANESE ADVERTISING |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of Non-Conservative Subjects</th>
<th>Attitude toward Japanese advertising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-34</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 &amp; Over</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=51
the .05 level of probability, indicating significant difference in the attitude toward Japanese advertising in age of the non-conservative subjects. A 2 X 2 Chi square on television viewing hour yielded a value of 3.35, just below the .05 level of probability, indicating some difference in the attitude toward Japanese advertising in television viewing hour of the non-conservative subjects, but not statistically significant.

Other data suggested no relationships between the non-conservative subjects' attitude toward Japanese advertising and their demographic lines.
CHAPTER IV

COMPARISONS BETWEEN GROUPS ALONG DEMOGRAPHIC SEGMENTS

Since all hypotheses, One through Eight, were accepted by statistical data as presented in Chapters II and III, it was necessary to investigate further whether there would be any significant difference or relationship among segments of seven demographic lines of the subjects who retained Japanese value orientations and who did not in the attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

Each segment of seven demographic lines divided into two groups, conservative and non-conservative toward Japanese values, were cross-tabulated with their attitude toward comparative advertising, and the frequency distributions of each score were compared over these groups. Twenty Chi square tests were conducted. Siegel's procedures were applied to use Chi square tests.¹

All Chi square tests did not show significant differences between subjects perception of Japanese value orientations and their attitude toward comparative advertising, along each segment of seven demographic lines. A 2 X 2 Chi square test on ages 20 through 34 yielded a value of 2.85, just below the .05 level, indicating some relationship

¹ Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics, pp. 94-104.
between subjects' perception of Japanese values and their attitude toward comparative advertising in age group 20 through 34, but not statistically significant.

Hence, the data indicated no relationships between subjects' perception of Japanese value orientations and their attitude toward comparative advertising, along each segment of seven demographic lines.

For the concept of Japanese advertising, a set of Chi square tests was carried out to test relationships between the perception of Japanese values and the attitude toward Japanese advertising along each segment of seven demographic lines. All Chi square tests did not show significance at .05 level. A 2 X 2 Chi square test on ages 30 through 39 obtained a value of 3.42, just below the .05 significance level, indicating some relationship between subjects' perception of Japanese values in this age group and their attitude toward Japanese advertising, but not statistically significant.

Thus, there is no apparent relationship between subjects' perception of Japanese values and their attitude toward Japanese advertising, along each segment of seven demographic lines.
CHAPTER V

COMPARISONS WITH THE ATTITUDE TOWARD JAPANESE ADVERTISING ALONG DEMOGRAPHIC SEGMENTS

In this chapter, relationships between the attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising and the attitude toward the concept of Japanese advertising in the total subjects are extensively studied.

As the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test (see Table VII, p.24) and the Chi square test (see Table VIII, p.25) in Chapter II indicated, there was a relationship between subjects' attitude toward comparative advertising and their attitude toward Japanese advertising. To conduct further study of this part, eighteen Chi square tests were employed, the same statistical procedures were applied as in Chapter IV. Each segment of seven demographic lines was divided and compared with the attitude toward comparative advertising and the attitude toward Japanese advertising. Three Chi square tests showed significant differences.

The Chi square value of 7.06, on higher education group (junior college, university and graduate school), reached the .05 level of significance, indicating a relationship between the attitude toward comparative advertising and the attitude toward Japanese advertising in this education group.
### TABLE XVII

COMPARISON FOR HIGHER EDUCATION GROUP (JUNIOR COLLEGE, UNIVERSITY, AND GRADUATE SCHOOL) IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING AND THE ATTITUDE TOWARD JAPANESE ADVERTISING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude toward Japanese Advertising</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>Reject 27</td>
<td>Accept 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>Reject 14</td>
<td>Accept 23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*N=75*

A 2 X 2 Chi square value of 5.82, for the group of no intention to settle in the United States, was significant at the .05 level, indicating a relationship between the attitude

### TABLE XVIII

COMPARISON FOR THE GROUP OF NO INTENTION TO SETTLE IN THE UNITED STATES IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING AND THE ATTITUDE TOWARD JAPANESE ADVERTISING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude toward Japanese Advertising</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>Reject 20</td>
<td>Accept 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>Reject 12</td>
<td>Accept 22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*N=63*
toward comparative advertising and the attitude toward Japanese advertising in the group that had no intention to settle in the United States.

For the group watching television for less than three hours a day, a Chi square value of 6.88 obtained the .05 significant level, indicating a relationship between the attitude toward comparative advertising and the attitude toward Japanese advertising in subjects who watched television programs for less than three hours a day.

**TABLE XIX**

**COMPARISON FOR THE GROUP OF TELEVISION VIEWING HOUR LESS THAN 3 HOURS A DAY IN THE ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING AND THE ATTITUDE TOWARD JAPANESE ADVERTISING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude toward Japanese Advertising</th>
<th>Attitude toward Comparative Advertising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=85

For female group, a Chi square value of 3.04, just below the .05 level, indicating that female subjects had some difference in their attitude toward comparative advertising and Japanese advertising, but this was not statistically significant. For the group that stayed for three
to seven years in the United States, the value of 3.76, just below the .05 level, indicating that this group had some relationship between the attitude toward comparative advertising and the attitude toward Japanese advertising, but this was not statistically significant.
CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study was designed to investigate the meanings and images of the concept of comparative advertising perceived by Japanese natives in Dallas and surrounding areas who retain Japanese value orientations.

The study tested eight null hypotheses and accepted them with statistical data. Hypothesis One was that Japanese natives who retain traditional Japanese value orientations in Dallas area would indicate no lessening of an unfavorable attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising. Hypothesis Two through Eight were as the following order: there would be no significant difference in the attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising perceived by such Japanese, between sexes (Two), among ages (Three), among educations (Four), among occupations (Five), among lengths of stay in the United States (Six), among intentions to settle in the United States (Seven), and among television viewing hours (Eight).

The first part of the analysis involved relationships and investigations of the subjects' perception and attitude on the concepts of Japanese value orientations, of comparative advertising, and of Japanese advertising.
In this analysis, Hypothesis One was tested by the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test. No relationship was found between the tendency of retaining Japanese value orientations and rejection of the concept of comparative advertising. The 2 X 2 Chi square test found no relationship between the attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising and the perception of Japanese value orientations.

Thus, Hypothesis One was completely rejected by data, and it was concluded that the subjects who retained traditional Japanese value orientations had no significance or association in their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

As an additional study, the relationship between the tendency of retaining Japanese values and acceptance of Japanese advertising in the total subjects was tested by the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Chi square tests. The result showed no relationship between the tendency of retaining Japanese values and acceptance of Japanese advertising in all subjects.

The relationship between rejection of comparative advertising and acceptance of Japanese advertising in the total subjects was tested by the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Chi square tests. The r value suggested a relationship between rejection of comparative advertising and acceptance of Japanese advertising in the total subjects.
A Chi square test showed a relationship between the all subjects' attitude toward comparative advertising and their attitude toward Japanese advertising. It indicated that the subjects who rejected the concept of comparative advertising tended to accept the concept of Japanese advertising. Otherwise, the subjects who accepted the concept of comparative advertising tended to reject the concept of Japanese advertising. This part of the study was tested further in the fifth part of analysis.

In the second part of analysis, Hypotheses Two, Three, Four, Five, Six, Seven, and Eight were tested by the Chi square test. This involved investigations of the differences among twenty-four segments of seven demographic lines to determine whether the subjects who retained traditional Japanese value orientations were significantly different in their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

A Chi square test was carried out for each hypothesis. The data did not support any of these hypotheses. Hypotheses Two through Eight were rejected.

In Hypothesis Two, the male and female subjects who retained traditional Japanese value orientations showed no significant difference in their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

In Hypothesis Three, two different age groups of the subjects who retained traditional Japanese values did not show significant difference in their attitude toward the
concept of comparative advertising.

In Hypothesis Four, three different education groups of the subjects who retained traditional Japanese values showed no significant difference in their attitude toward the comparative advertising.

In Hypothesis Five, there was no significant difference between three different occupation groups of the subjects who retained traditional Japanese values and their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

In Hypothesis Six, three different lengths of stay in the United States in the subjects who retained traditional Japanese values did not show significant difference in their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

In Hypothesis Seven, two groups of the intention to settle in the United States in the subjects who retained traditional Japanese values showed no significant difference in their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

In Hypothesis Eight, three different television viewing hour groups in the subjects who retained traditional Japanese values showed no significant difference of their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising.

In general, therefore, subjects who retained traditional Japanese value orientations showed no significant difference in their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising, according to sex, age, education, occupation, length
of stay in the United States, the intention to settle in the United States, and television viewing hours.

The same study was applied to test whether there was any relationship between the seven demographic lines of the subjects, (a) who did not retain traditional Japanese value orientations and their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising, (b) who retained traditional Japanese value orientations and their attitude toward the concept of Japanese advertising, and (c) who did not retain traditional Japanese value orientations and their attitude toward the concept of Japanese advertising.

A Chi square test on age in the subjects who did not retain Japanese values showed significant difference, indicating that nobody ages 35 and over in the subjects accepted the concept of Japanese advertising. All other Chi square tests in three categories showed that the seven demographic lines of the subjects who retained and who did not retain traditional value orientations showed no significant difference in their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising or the concept of Japanese advertising.

The third part of analysis involved further study of relationships between subjects' perception of Japanese value orientations and their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising, along each segment of seven demographic lines. All Chi square tests indicated no significant differences in the attitude toward comparative
advertising among subjects who retained or who did not retain Japanese value orientations, along each segment of seven demographic lines.

Twenty Chi square tests for each segment of seven demographic lines were conducted to examine differences among subjects who retained or who did not retain Japanese value orientations in their attitude toward Japanese advertising. Statistical results showed no significant differences in the attitude toward Japanese advertising among subjects who retained or who did not retain Japanese value orientations, along each segment of seven demographic lines.

The fifth part of analysis in Chapter V was the extensive study of the relationship between subjects' attitude toward comparative advertising and Japanese advertising, along each segment of seven demographic lines. As indicated in the first part of analysis, subjects who did not favor the concept of comparative advertising seemed to have favorable attitudes toward Japanese advertising. Otherwise, subjects who favored the concept of comparative advertising seemed to have an unfavorable tendency toward Japanese advertising. This indicated that, for the subjects in this study, the concept of comparative advertising (attacking competitors, comparisons by name, and creating head-on conflicts) was seen as a counter idea to Japanese advertising (depending heavily on mood and avoiding conflict by
naming of names).

Further study was conducted with subjects' seven demographic lines. Statistical data revealed that, in the following segments, (a) received higher education (junior college, university and graduate school), (b) had no intention to settle in the United States, and (c) watched television programs less than three hours a day, subjects who had unfavorable attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising tended to favor Japanese advertising and vice versa.

This study has been for the most part concerned with the relationship between the demographic lines of subjects who retained or did not retain traditional Japanese value orientations and their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising or the concept of Japanese advertising. With such a small sample of subjects in this study, it was not possible to examine a relationship among the variables of demographic groups with regard to the subjects' attitudes toward the concept comparative advertising or Japanese advertising. Such study would require a larger number of samples with the different statistical technique such as, the complex Chi square test, which compares the effects of two variables and tests the hypothesis of no relationship between the variables.

Another recommendation lies in questionnaire method. The researcher feels that interview might be better for this
kind of study. Because some subjects may not be familiar with what comparative advertising is, a researcher may fail to collect proper responses with a questionnaire. Therefore, interview technique might be more effective in obtaining more accurate responses from subjects.

In conclusion, with the acceptance of Hypotheses One through Eight and with the results of additional studies, it could not be stated that there is cultural influence along seven demographic lines of subjects over their attitude toward the concept of comparative advertising. But according to the one of the first and the fifth analysis, there is the relationship between subjects' attitude toward comparative advertising and their attitude toward Japanese advertising, along some segments of seven demographic lines. As far as Japanese advertising practices are concerned as the reflection of Japanese culture, this result indicated that there might be some relationship between subjects' attitude toward comparative advertising and their cultural influence. This study could not find a clear relationship between these variables.
Dear Sir:

My name is Kazuhisa Fukawa. I study journalism for master's degree at North Texas State University. I am writing my thesis to be graduated in December. This thesis is about how Japanese natives react to American television commercials and how their reactions relate to Japanese cultural influence.

For this research, I need to conduct a questionnaire survey among Japanese natives in the Dallas area. I would like to ask you to answer my questionnaire. About ten minutes is required to fill in forty questions. Please return this questionnaire by enclosed envelope. I really appreciate your cooperation and for taking your time. Thank you very much.

Sincerely yours,

Kazuhisa Fukawa
APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions:

Please follow the statements and mark the number on the scales that best describes your opinion about it.

You will be asked about television comparative advertising in America on the following pages. Comparative advertising is defined as "commercials which compare the advertised brand to one or more recognizably presented and/or specifically named competing brands." For example, Pepsi attacks Coca-Cola: "People prefer Pepsi over Coca-Cola," and "Pepsi tastes better than Coca-Cola," in its television commercial. Mazda's TV advertising shows competitors' car, such as Volkswagen, Chevrolet, Toyota, Datsun, Honda, and others, and compares its advantages with them: "These (cars) are good, but Mazda is a great." There are many cases for other products especially such as detergent and remedies.
1. It is an unfriendly act if you openly disagree with your friend in front of others.

   Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  Strongly Disagree

2. In your family, important decisions are made by all family members after thorough discussion.

   Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  Strongly Disagree

3. It is more important to depend on group or organization rather than to stay in independent position.

   Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  Strongly Disagree

4. You believe the Japanese proverb that says silence is a virtue.

   Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  Strongly Disagree

5. Women should take part in social and political activities.

   Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  Strongly Disagree

6. You usually have more difficulty disagreeing with people of higher economic or social status.

   Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  Strongly Disagree

7. You think that it is wise or safe to keep silent instead of expressing opinion.

   Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  Strongly Disagree

8. If you had a different opinion in your group, it would be more important for you to compromise with the other members.

   Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  Strongly Disagree

9. You are careful not to offend others when you express your opinion.

   Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  Strongly Disagree
10. You make important decisions without counseling with your parents or family.

Strongly Agree _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Strongly Disagree

11. You prefer to act as a member of group rather than as an individual.

Strongly Agree _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Strongly Disagree

12. It is important to disagree with others on an issue if you feel strongly about it.

Strongly Agree _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Strongly Disagree

13. An ideal woman follows the man without arguing.

Strongly Agree _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Strongly Disagree

14. You prefer to compromise without conflict instead of committing conflict, even if you are right.

Strongly Agree _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Strongly Disagree

15. You are influenced by television advertising when you choose a product.

Strongly Agree _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Strongly Disagree


Strongly Agree _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Strongly Disagree

17. You prefer television commercials that appeal to mood (with music, beautiful scene and nice people).

Strongly Agree _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Strongly Disagree

18. You are embarrassed or feel strange to comparative advertising in the United States.

Strongly Agree _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. You prefer the advertising on television that tells mainly the quality and benefits of a product.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. Comparative advertising gives more information about the product than other types of advertising.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. Television commercials that greatly depend on mood are effective in giving good impressions of the product.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. The advertising on television that describes mainly the quality and benefits of a product is effective in persuading consumers buy the product.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. Comparative advertising confuses you about the reliability of comparison data with a rival brand.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. American television commercials give almost too much explanation about a product.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. Effective television commercials are the ones that appeal strongly to moods and with less explanation of product.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. Comparative advertising is crude or unrefined.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28. Your sex: Male___ Female___

29. Year born: ____________

30. How long have you been in the United States?
   ____ years and ____ months

31. The country where you were born: ______________________

32. The country where you had your primary education: _____

33. The country where you had your secondary education: ____

34. The country where you had your college education: _____

35. Major field of study (current or past): __________________

36. The degree you have (or plan to have):
   Bachelor____ Master____ Ph.D.____ Other____

37. Do you plan to return to Japan after you finish your study or business?
   Yes____ No____ Other (reason)__________________________

38. Do you intend to settle down permanently in the United States?
   Yes____ No____

39. How long do you plan to stay in the United States?
   ____ years

40. You watch television programs __ within 1 hour a day
    __ within 3 hours a day
    __ within 5 hours a day
    __ over 5 hours a day
    __ never
敬具

私はNorth Texas State Universityの修士課程でジャーナリズムを専攻している府川和久と申します。この秋の卒業を目指し、現在卒論を書いております。内容は、日本人がアメリカのテレビ・コマーシャルについてどう感じているか、それと文化的な影響との関係は何かというものです。この度、その資料作成のために日本の方を対象にアンケートを行うことが必要になりました。

つきましては、勝手ながら、同封のアンケートにお答えいただければ幸いです。質問数は40問ありますから10分程度で全て答えていただけると幸いです。お忙しいことと思いまして、どうぞよろしくお願いいたします。尚、アンケートは同封の封筒で返送していただければ幸いです。暑さ厳しい中、皆さん健勝お祈りいたします。
APPENDIX D
(Translation into Japanese of Appendix B)

アンケート

お願い：以下の各質問について、あなたの答えにもっとも近いと思うものに印をつけしてください。
アメリカのテレビの比較広告についての質問がありますので、これについて説明します。比較広告とは「2つあるいはそれ以上の競合製品の名前と属性を具体的に比較する広告」と定義されています。たとえば、ペプシコーラはそのテレビ・コーマーシャルの中で「コカ・コーラと味を比べて、より多くの人がコカ・コーラよりもペプシを好んでいる」とコカ・コーラを攻撃しています。マツダ自動車は競争相手の車、フォード・GM・フォルクスワーゲン・トヨタ・ダットサン・ホンダ等と比較し「これらの車も良いが、マツダの方がもっと優れていて」と宣伝しています。このほかには、洗剤、頭痛薬などの製品に比較広告が多く用いられています。

1. 他の人の前で友人の意見に賛成しないと不評価を示すのは、友としてのべき行為ではない。
   強く賛成 賛成 やや賛成 議論も やや反対 反対 強く反対

2. あなたの家庭では大事なことは家族みんなが充分に話し合って決める。
   強く賛成 賛成 やや賛成 議論も やや反対 反対 強く反対
3. 単独で行動するよりは、グループまたは組織に属している方がよい。

4. “沈黙は金”ということは正しいと思う。

5. 女性はもっと社会的・政治的な役割を担うべきだ。

6. 自分より社会的・経済的に地位の高い人に対して反対の意見を示すのは、相手が自分と対等あるいは低い場合はより難しい。

7. 自分の意見を述べるよりも黙っている方が賢明である。

8. もしあたたかいグループの中で他の人達と違った意見をもっている場合、皆の意見に妥協することは大事でないよう。

9. あなたは自分の意見を述べる時に、他の人の感情を寄せないうように気をつけて。

10. あなたは家族と相談してみて、大事なことを決めよう。

11. あなたは個人としてよりも集団の一員として行動することを好む。

12. ある問題についてあなたが他の人達と反対の意見をもっている場合、その主張することは大事なことである。
13. 女性は口答えしないで男性に従うのが理想である。

14. たとえ自分が正しい場合でも相手に対してはより柔軟な方がよい。

15. あなたは商品を選ぶ時、テレビのコマーシャルに影響される。

16. あなたはアメリカのテレビ・コマーシャルよりも日本のものの方が好き。

17. あなたはムード（きれいな音楽・色・モデルなど）によって誘わされるテレビ・コマーシャルも好き。

18. あなたはアメリカの比較広告に対してとましいあるいは畏和感をもっている。

19. あなたは日本のテレビ・コマーシャルよりもアメリカのものの方が好き。

20. あなたは主に製品の質・利点を説明してくれるテレビ・コマーシャルを望む。

21. 比較広告は普通の広告よりも製品の情報をより多く分かりやすく与えてくれる。

22. ムードに影響されるテレビ・コマーシャルは、製品について良い印象を与える上で効果的である。

23. 主に製品の質・利点を説明するテレビ・コマーシャルは消費者にその製品を買いたくなるように支えるのに効果的である。
25. 比較広告は競争相手の製品と比較する場合のデータの信頼性について消費者を混乱させる。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>強く賛成</th>
<th>賛成</th>
<th>やや賛成</th>
<th>不定</th>
<th>やや反対</th>
<th>反対</th>
<th>強く反対</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

26. アメリカのテレビ・コマーシャルは、製品についてあまりにも多くの説明を言葉でとえすぎる。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>強く賛成</th>
<th>賛成</th>
<th>やや賛成</th>
<th>不定</th>
<th>やや反対</th>
<th>反対</th>
<th>強く反対</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

27. テレビ・コマーシャルは、主にムードに訴え、製品の説明は短い方が効果的である。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>強く賛成</th>
<th>賛成</th>
<th>やや賛成</th>
<th>不定</th>
<th>やや反対</th>
<th>反対</th>
<th>強く反対</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

28. 比較広告は品物名をわからせない。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>強く賛成</th>
<th>賛成</th>
<th>やや賛成</th>
<th>不定</th>
<th>やや反対</th>
<th>反対</th>
<th>強く反対</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

29. あなたの性別　男　女

30. あなたの年齢　_______

31. 在来年数　_______

32. あなたが生まれた国　________________

33. 小学校教育を受けた国　________________

34. 中学あるいは高等学校教育を受けた国　(中学)　(高校)

35. 大学教育を受けた国　________________

36. 大学での専攻　________________

(あなたが持っている学位)　学士　修士　博士

37. あなたは将来日本に帰るつもりですか。　はい　いいえ　分からない　

38. あなたはアメリカに永遠住するつもりですか。　はい　いいえ　

39. あなたはあと何年くらいアメリカに滞在するつもりですか。　____________

40. あなたは一日何時間アメリカのテレビ番組を観ますか。

- 一時間以内　__________
- 三時間以内　__________
- 五時間以内　__________

御協力大変ありがとうございました。
BIBLIOGRAPHY


