Title
A Cross-cultural Study on Consumers’ Attitudes toward Web Advertising
A Case of Swedish and Japanese Consumers

Examiner
Setayesh Sattari

Tutor
Åsa Devine

Authors
Sachi Komatsu, Reg. Nr. 19910328, sk222jb@student.lnu.se
Takuma Tsuji, Reg. Nr. 19910314, tt222cb@student.lnu.se

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Abstract

This research intended to clarify differences in attitudes toward Web advertising between consumers from culturally different countries. On that account, this research is conducted within the context of Japan and Sweden, which are countries that can be considered as highly different culturally.

Through online questionnaires, data were collected from 275 respondents, 160 Japanese and 115 Swedish consumers. Their attitudes toward Web advertising were measured and then compared based on Pollay and Mittal’s (1993) seven-belief factors – product information, hedonic, social role and image, good for the economy, materialism, falsity, and value corruption – as these factors have been argued to highly relate to consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. Consequently, questionnaire results were analyzed in relation to the existing cultural studies.

Finally, the study concludes that there was no evidence that prove differences between Japanese and Swedish consumers neither in their overall attitudes toward Web advertising nor in four of the belief factors: product information, hedonic, good for the economy, and materialism. However, distinctive differences were found in social role and image factor and value corruption factor between them. Hence, the research indicates that Japanese and Swedish consumers’ overall attitudes toward Web advertising do not greatly differ, but they prone to place their priorities on Web advertising in somewhat different manners.

Keywords: Web Advertising, Belief, Attitude, Seven Belief Factors, Dimensions of Culture, Sweden, Japan
Table of Contents

Abstract ......................................................................................................................... a

1 Introduction .............................................................................................................. 4
  1.1 Background ........................................................................................................... 4
  1.2 Problem Discussion ............................................................................................... 5
  1.3 Purpose of Research .............................................................................................. 8
  1.4 Research Question ................................................................................................. 8
  1.5 Outline of Thesis .................................................................................................... 8

2 Literature Review ..................................................................................................... 10
  2.1 The Linkage between Beliefs and Attitudes ......................................................... 10
  2.2 Model for Measuring Consumers' Beliefs ............................................................. 11
  2.2.1 Seven Belief Factors Modified for Web Advertising ......................................... 12
  2.3 Dimensions of Culture .......................................................................................... 18
  2.3.1 Hofstede's Dimensions of Culture ................................................................. 20
  2.4 Culture and Consumers' Attitudes ......................................................................... 23
  2.5 Chapter Summary ................................................................................................ 25
  2.6 Proposed Research Model .................................................................................... 26
  2.7 Hypotheses ........................................................................................................... 27

3 Methodology ............................................................................................................ 29
  3.1 Research Approach ............................................................................................... 29
  3.1.1 Inductive vs. Deductive Research ................................................................... 29
  3.1.2 Qualitative vs. Quantitative ............................................................................ 29
  3.2 Research Design .................................................................................................. 30
  3.3 Data Sources ........................................................................................................ 31
3.4 Research Strategy .................................................................................................................. 32

3.5 Data Collection Method - Online Questionnaire ................................................................... 33

3.6 Data Collection Instrument Design ......................................................................................... 34

3.6.1 Operationalization and Measurement of Variables .............................................................. 34

3.6.2 Questionnaire Design ........................................................................................................... 37

3.6.3 Pretesting .............................................................................................................................. 38

3.7 Sampling .................................................................................................................................. 39

3.7.1 Sampling Frame .................................................................................................................... 40

3.7.2 Sample Selection and Data Collection Procedure ................................................................. 40

3.8 Data Analysis Method .............................................................................................................. 42

3.9 Quality Criteria ....................................................................................................................... 46

3.9.1 Validity ................................................................................................................................ 46

3.9.2 Reliability ............................................................................................................................. 47

3.10 Chapter Summary .................................................................................................................... 47

4 Survey Results ........................................................................................................................... 49

4.1 Descriptive Statistics ................................................................................................................. 49

4.2 Reliability Test .......................................................................................................................... 49

4.3 Correlation Analysis .................................................................................................................. 52

4.4 Hypothesis Testing .................................................................................................................... 54

4.5 Chapter Summary ...................................................................................................................... 55

5 Discussion and Interpretation ..................................................................................................... 56

5.1 Differences between Sweden and Japan in the Seven Belief Factors ..................................... 56

5.1.1 Cultural Difference behind Social Role Factor ................................................................. 57

5.1.2 Cultural Difference behind Value Corruption Factor ......................................................... 57
What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?
1. Introduction

In this chapter, importance and brief history of the culture-related studies in the field of business research is presented. It also discusses how the development of Web technology has influenced businesses as a new mean for advertising. In addition, the problem and question caused by the background information is presented, guiding to the purpose of the research and research question.

1.1 Background

There are various ways in which cultural factors in an environment can affect a business, and there have been a number of studies exploring the effects a culture has. For example, one of the earliest studies that show the importance of cultural effects on a business was conducted in 1967, arguing that there were various cultural factors such as values and customs that have impacts on ethical decision making process (Vitell et al., 1993). National culture also has strong impacts on international business. Research regarding cultural effects on international business is becoming more active as today’s business world follows a path to be more global (Leung et al., 2005).

The importance of knowing target consumers’ cultural background has also been highlighted. Due to the increasing competitiveness of the international markets today, it is more and more important to understand and know different consumers in various markets all over the world. Attitudes and values of a consumer, for instance, are strongly influenced by culture among the other environmental influences such as economic influence (Hsu and Burns, 2012). In addition, values, which are shared among members of a culture, are also said to have strong influence to consumers’ motivations of consumption (Henry, 1976). Thus, understanding how culture affects its business may be a key factor for success to an enterprise.

In addition, the spread of the Internet and development of Web technology have been influencing the way today’s businesses are. The way companies approach consumers with advertising is highly affected by this emergence of the new technology. As the consumers engage
more into the use of the Internet, like using social media and blogging, firms have been trying to seek opportunities to utilize this new technology for their businesses (Andzulis et al., 2012). The use of social media as a mean to spread their message is an example of the way the firms have reacted to the emergence of this new technology (Ibid.). Today, there are various kinds of Web advertising which one encounters while he is using the Internet in his daily life (Ibid.). Some researcher argues that flooding of high-tech products in today’s market also helped creating the overall positive perceptions toward Web advertising (Yoon and Kim, 2001). For instance, as consumer products have become more and more complicated in terms of functions, consumers tend to spend more time on searching and comparing possible choices to find the most suitable product for their needs. In this regard, Web advertising can be the most suitable mean in comparison to other forms of advertising (Ibid.).

1.2 Problem Discussion

As it has been mentioned, cultural impacts have been a major area of study for business research, and firms around the world have been shown to possess implications to affect consumers in a range of ways. Not only for traditional means of advertisements such as TV commercials and printed ones, but also have Web advertising come to play an important role as both opportunities and challenges to advertisers (An and Kim, 2008). Web advertising has appeared to play an important role in firms’ international marketing efforts as the number of applications of Web advertising has increased (Ibid.). The popularity of the Web advertising is rapidly increasing as commercial activities move into the Internet more (Schlosser et al., 1999), and there is an increasing attention to investigate in system and impact of Web advertising over recent years (Wang and Sun, 2010). In this way, as the popularity of Web advertising has increased, it has become increasingly necessary to comprehend the differences in consumers’ reactions toward this new medium for advertising (An and Kim, 2008).

Some studies show that how consumers perceive and react to the Web advertising is usually
dependent on what they believe and attitudes already formed toward advertisements in general (An and Kim, 2008). However, traditional means of advertising and Web advertising differ in some ways. The Internet requires the marketers to manage its unique features as a mean of advertising (Schlosser et al., 1999). The diversity of the audience is one of the uniqueness of the Web advertising (Chau et al., 2002). One of the basic distinctiveness of the Web advertising is that consumers have a great degree of control over exposures to advertisements, unlike the traditional advertisements to which consumers have somewhat passive role in exposure. Thus, it is critical for Internet advertisers to grasp in-depth understanding of consumers’ attitudes as it may differ due to many factors including culture (Schlosser et al., 1999). Web advertisers need to make decisions to obtain an optimal mixture of international standardization and local adaptations reflecting cultural differences (Chau et al., 2002).

When advertisers need to make decisions upon the degree to which they are to adapt Web advertising locally, they may want to know how the attitudes of consumers toward Web advertising differ country to country. Some of the existing studies show that the relationship between culture and advertising is natural (Wang and Sun, 2010), and it is a key to succeed for Web advertisers to have deep understanding about consumers’ beliefs and attitudes towards Web advertising (Wolin et al., 2002). Thus, the question regarding how attitudes toward Web advertising differs depending on the cultures of countries (An and Kim, 2008). For example, even if they see the same advertisement in one country, consumers’ different backgrounds of nationality may lead to different reactions and results.

The field of study also has practical significance to the firms in today’s business world because of the relationship among consumers’ beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. The beliefs about Web advertising of a consumer are linked to his or her attitudes, and it is likely the case that the formed attitudes affect the behavior he or she takes (Wolin et al., 2002). The fact that attitudes towards Web advertising tend to have impacts on consumers’ actual purchasing behavior is important for
companies because the actual purchase is the source of profit to them. In this way, it is critical to gain as much knowledge as they can about consumers’ attitudes and to have a deeper insight for the issue regarding cultural effect on attitudes toward Web advertising. Therefore, this paper is to explain how culture is related to the consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising.

Despite the importance of understanding cultural influence on consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising, most of the existing studies have focused on the United States (Wang and Sun, 2010). Moreover, there have not been many cross-cultural studies conducted to make actual comparison of attitudes toward Web advertising of consumers from different cultures. The first cross-cultural study on consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising was conducted in 2008 by An and Kim, comparing Korean and American consumers’ attitudes (An and Kim, 2008). Wang and Sun (2010) made contribution to this area of study by comparing two developing countries, China and Romania (Wang and Sun, 2010). This research attempts to make more contribution by comparing two developed countries, Sweden and Japan.

In a cross-cultural study, it is important to have major differences in cultural orientations because it would make it possible to conduct a comparative analysis to highlight where the differences are and to find out explanations for the differences (An and Kim, 2008). The result of Hofstede’s study (1983) shows different characteristics of Sweden and Japan (See the table 1 in appendix for detailed data of the two countries). Sweden and Japan have a difference in Masculinity dimension to the greatest degree. Japan scores extremely high in Masculinity index, while Sweden is the lowest in the index among the countries examined in the study. This indicates that Japan is characterized as a highly masculine culture, and Sweden is on the other extreme as a feminine culture. The Uncertainty Avoidance index in the same Hofstede’s study (1983) also shows a difference between the two countries. Sweden scores lower in the Uncertainty Avoidance index than the other countries, while Japan is characterized as a highly uncertainty-avoiding country with a
higher score. In addition, Sweden scores low in Power Distance index and somewhat high in Individualism, and Japan scores moderate on these two dimensions.

### 1.3 Purpose of Research

The purpose of this paper is to explain differences in attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers.

### 1.4 Research Question

To fulfill the proposed purpose, this study is to answer the following research question:

*What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?*

### 1.5 Outline of Thesis

This research is composed of six chapters, and the general contents of each chapter are as follows:

1. Chapter one, introduction, starts the discussion regarding cultural effects on businesses, gradually putting focus on discussing how cultures have impacts on consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. This chapter also introduces the reason behind the authors’ choice to conduct a study on Swedish and Japanese consumers.

2. In chapter two, a literature review on the existing studies in the field of culture and consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertisement is presented. The chapter, in the end, introduces and discusses the research gap to cover in this study.

3. Chapter three discusses the chosen methodologies for the research and the justifications for the choices the authors have made.

4. In chapter four, the survey result collected through online questionnaires, which is in line
with the data collection method presented in chapter three, is presented.

5. In chapter five, the data presented in chapter five is interpreted and discussed in alignment with the theories presented in the previous chapter.

6. The conclusion of the research is drawn in chapter six with the answer for the research question.
2. Literature Review

This chapter reviews previous studies, which already exist in the field of consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising and cultures. It presents the definitions for the key terms which are going to be used in this research, and it briefly summarizes what previous research have done so far. Finally, the specific model for this research is presented.

2.1 The Linkage between Beliefs and Attitudes

In one of earlier studies of advertising, Lavidge and Steiner (1961) suggest that consumers typically follow a certain process when they are engaged in purchasing behavior under an influence of advertising. The process can be categorized into six steps: Awareness → Knowledge → Liking → Preference → Conviction → Purchase (Lavidge and Steiner, 1961). Then, in their later research, they note that these steps can be summarized into three steps: Cognition → Affect → Conation (Wolin et al., 2002). Consequently, this model was labeled as ‘hierarchy of effect’, since each step was considered to be a necessary but an insufficient condition for the following step (Palda, 1966). This model was examined by several empirical studies in the later years and some research found actual causal linkages to support this model (Assael and Day, 1968; O’Brien, 1971).

The hierarchy model was originally designed to assess the effect of traditional advertising. However, as the use of the Internet has gained popularity as a marketing tool, researchers have attempted to use it in the context of Web advertising. Wolin et al., (2002) apply this model to Web advertising and argue that the model suggests that cognitions, or beliefs, are referent of affective development by the process of implicit evaluation (Wolin et al., 2002). On that account, a process of developing one’s affect towards a product/service can be illustrated as follows: product/service’s attributes are evaluated by a consumer through his/her beliefs toward Web advertising → evaluative responses become conditioned to the product → affect towards the product is created → affect induces purchase intention (Ibid.). Hence, in short, one’s beliefs about Web advertising will likely
lead to his/her attitudes toward Web advertising (Wolin et al., 2002).

2.2 Model for Measuring Consumers’ Beliefs

Keeping the relationship between consumers’ beliefs and attitudes in mind, it is necessary to correctly measure one’s beliefs in order to measure his/her attitudes toward Web advertising. To provide measures for consumers’ beliefs, researchers have been proposing number of models on this topic. Bauer and Greyser (1968) were the first to define beliefs and attitudes toward advertising systematically (Wolin et al., 2002). In their research, they argue that beliefs that effect consumers’ attitudes toward advertising can be categorized into two clusters: economic and social effects (Bauer and Greyser, 1968).

Subsequently, several researchers extended the model. Based on their study conducted in 1992, Alwittt and Prabhaker (1994) extended the model and argue six dimensions such as information benefits or availability that underlie consumers’ evaluation of advertising (Alwittt and Prabhaker, 1994). In addition, Lutz (1985) in Wolin et al. (2002) also adds domestic five-construct model, which was later extended by Durvasula et al. (1993) to lead another finding; consumers’ attitudes toward advertisement were influenced by four constructs (Durvasula, 1993).

Finally, Pollay and Mittal (1993) completed a seven-factor model based on previous studies. Seven-factor model represents seven factors that influence consumers’ beliefs about advertising, which will likely relate to their attitudes toward advertising. The model includes three personal use factors of advertising: product information, hedonic/pleasure, and social role and image, along with four social effect factors of advertising: good for the economy, materialism, falsity/no sense, and value corruption (Pollay and Mittal, 1993).

Though this model was also initially designed to assess consumers’ beliefs and attitudes toward traditional means of advertising, researchers argue that this can be applied to Web advertising as well, since consumers responses to Web advertising are quite similar to their responses to
conventional means (Pavlou and Stewart, 2000). Wolin et al. (2002) used seven-belief factor model to examine consumers’ attitudes and behavior toward Web advertising by measuring respondents’ beliefs about Web advertising. In their research, they measured consumers’ beliefs by modifying Pollay and Mittal’s original wording and phrasing through operationalizing three or four-scale items (Wolin et al., 2002).

### 2.2.1 Seven Belief Factors Modified for Web Advertising

**Personal use:** Three factors in this category reflect Web advertising’s influence on consumers’ beliefs that are specific, personal, and self-reflective (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Bauer and Greyser, 1968).

1. **Product information**

This factor indicates that consumers consider advertising as an important source of information about a marketplace that eventually improves market place efficiencies; since it better matches consumers’ needs and wants somewhat quickly and effectively (Wang et al., 2009). Among others, previous research showed that information related reasons seem to be ones that positively related to consumers’ overall attitudes toward advertising (Pollay and Mittal, 1993). In fact, Ducoffe (1996) supports this idea in his research and concluded that he found a significant correlation between product information of advertisement and advertising value for consumers, indicating that consumers place quite high importance on this factor (Ducoffe, 1996). In previous studies, the first personal use factor, ‘Product Information’ was measured with the following statements: ‘Web advertising is a very valuable source of information about sales’; ‘Web advertising helps me keep up to date about products available in the market place’; ‘Advertising supplies relevant product information’; ‘Web
advertising provides timely information’; ‘Web advertising makes product information immediately accessible’; ‘Web advertising is a convenient source of product information’; and ‘Internet advertising supplies complete product information’ (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Ducoffe, 1996; Wolin et al., 2002; An and Kim, 2008).

2. Hedonic/pleasure

It has been argued that the experience of advertising can be a pleasure to people, because advertising can be beautiful to look at, touching in sentiment, funny and exiting in music (Pollay and Mittal, 1993). In addition to these facts, Web advertising has a potential to be perceived as even more entertaining and pleasant mean because of its unique characteristics, when comparing to traditional means of advertising. For example, some of the given characteristics of Web advertising such as interactivity and multimedia capabilities make Web advertising to be more beautiful, sentimental, motivating, humorous, and entertaining (Watson et al., 1998). Therefore, Web advertising should potentially have a higher value to consumers than conventional means of advertisement. This factor has also been reported to have a positive impact on consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising (Ducoffe, 1996; Schlosser et al., 1999; Wolin et al., 2002; An and Kim 2008). In previous studies, Hedonic/pleasure, the second personal factor was measured with: ‘Sometimes I take pleasure in thinking about what I saw or heard in Web advertising’; ‘Sometimes Web advertising is even more enjoyable than websites’; ‘Some Web advertising makes me feel good’; ‘Internet advertising is entertaining’; ‘Internet advertising is enjoyable’; ‘Internet advertising is pleasing’; and ‘Internet advertising is fun to use’ (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Ducoffe, 1996; Wolin et al., 2002; An and Kim, 2008).
3. Social role and image

As other means of advertising possess a high influence on formation of social role and image, Web advertising has a large influence on these factors as well. Advertisers often use this power by exhibiting “better” life style and social image by specifying their desired product or brand personality which is often associated with certain status, prestige, or social reaction to purchase, ownership, and use (Pollay as Mittal, 1993). For that reason, many consumers pay higher prices for branded products that often feature brand logos, slogans and other types of corporate designs (Ibid.), indicating that this positively affects consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Wolin et al., 2002; An and Kim, 2008). Furthermore, in the context of Web advertising, some of the uniqueness of Web advertising, such as vivid or interactive messages often enhances its ability to influence social role and image (Wolin et al., 2002). In previous studies, the last personal use factor, ‘Social Role and Image’ was measured with: ‘From Web advertising, I learn what is in fashion and what I should buy for keeping a good social image’; ‘Web advertising tells me what people like myself are buying and using’; and ‘Web advertising helps me know which products will or will not reflect the sort of person I am’ (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Wolin et al., 2002).

Social effects: Social effects represent Web advertising’s impacts on consumers’ beliefs about economical and social concerns that are more abstract, generalized, and projective to others (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Bauer and Greyser, 1968).

1. Good for the Economy

Web advertising is necessary for everybody. Web advertising can save consumers time of searching products and allow them to scan wide variety of products even from their homes (Wolin et al., 2002).
Furthermore, it has been also argued that advertising can potentially raise the average standard of living in the long run, as it allows companies to lower production cost and generates healthy competitions among companies as consumers can adopt new goods and technologies relatively quickly through Web advertising (Belch and Belch, 2008 in Wang et al., 2009). Even though this factor has been claimed to have a positive influence on consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising, previous studies did not find a strong correlation as a predictor of consumers’ attitudes (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Wolin et al., 2002). However, in Pollay and Mittal’s study (1993), this factor was only single-measured, which is less reliable than three-item measure. Thus, there still is a need for including this factor as one of possible measures for consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. In previous studies, good for the economy, the first social effect, was measured with the following statements: ‘Web advertising improves people’s standard of living’; ‘We need Web advertising improves people’s standard of living’; ‘There have been times when I have bought something because of a Web advertising’ and ‘Internet advertising is essential’ (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Wolin et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2009).

2. Materialism

Materialism can be defined as a set of belief structures that sees consumption as the route to most, if not all, satisfactions (Pollay and Mittal, 1993). Nowadays, Web users are faced with attractive array of material goods through Web advertising and it may promote excessive commercial concerns resulting in materialism (Wolin et al., 2002). Nevertheless Web advertising has a potential to benefit consumers, it is often criticized because of this reason. In this context, therefore, this factor has a negative impact on consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. In previous studies, materialism, the second social effect, was measured with: ‘Web advertising makes you buy things you do not really need’; ‘Web advertising increases dissatisfaction among consumers by showing products
which some consumers cannot afford’; ‘Web advertising is making us a materialistic society-interested in buying and owing things’; ‘Advertising makes people live in a world of fantasy’; and ‘Web advertising makes people buy unaffordable products just to show off’ (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Wolin et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2009).

3. Falsity/no sense

“Advertising can be seen as purposefully misleading, or more benignly, as not fully informative, trivial, silly, confusing, etc.” (Pollay and Mittal, 1993, p.102). In the case of Web advertising, many firms have rushed to create their own websites and Web advertising since the use of Internet has gained popularity in business field as a mean of advertising. Consequently many firms had created ineffective and non-logical websites (Nadilo, 1998). These websites tend to contain half-truths, deceptive claims, and intelligence-insulting prose (Wolin et al., 2002). Hence some consumers may perceive some of Web advertising as unfaithful or feel that some companies are exaggerating benefits of offered products. This factor negatively affects consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. In previous studies, ‘Falsity/no sense’ was measured with: ‘One can put more trust in products advertised on the Web than in those not advertised on the Web’; ‘Certain products play an important role in my life, and Web advertisements reassure me that I am doing the right thing in using these products’; ‘Web advertising helps the consumer buy the best brand for the price’; ‘In general, advertising is misleading’; ‘Most advertising insults the intelligence of the average consumers’; and ‘In general, advertisements present a true picture of the product advertised’ (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Ducoffe, 1996; Wolin et al., 2002; An and Kim, 2008).
4. Value corruption

As mentioned above, any kind of advertising has a potential to shape one’s value in both positive and negative ways (Pollay and Mittal, 1993). The negative side of this fact has been one of serious concerns regarding not only traditional means of advertisements but also Web advertising. For instance, some researchers have depicted the issue in the context of parental guidance: Web advertising can distort the values that parents desire to instill in their children (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Wolin et al., 2002). As a result, this sort of concern lead many Web users to start installing so-called ‘ad blocker’ software to avoid undesired Web advertising (McCormally, 2000 in Wolin et al., 2002). This factor has a negative effect on consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. In the previous studies, the last social effect, value corruption was measured with: ‘Advertising promotes undesirable values in our society’; ‘Web advertising takes undue advantage of children’; ‘Web advertising leads children to make unreasonable purchase demand on their parents’; ‘There is too much sex in Web advertising’; and ‘Most advertising distorts values of youth’ (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Wolin et al., 2002)

The figure 1 on the next page summarizes the model of seven belief factors, which was used by Wolin et al. (2002) to understand consumers’ attitudes and behavior towards Web advertising. This study focuses on the upper part of the model below because the focus of the study is the attitude, and this study is not to investigate further in the behavior.
What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?

Figure 1: The Model of Seven Belief Factors (Wolin et al., 2002, p.96)

2.3 Dimensions of Culture

Culture could be defined in many different ways. A broad definition of national culture is that it is “values, beliefs, norms, and behavioral patterns of a national group”, and significance of national culture has been critical more and more after a classic study by Hofstede in 1980 (Leung et al., 2005,
As his operating definition, Hofstede defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes one group or category of people from another”, putting focus on saying that culture is “a collective attribute” that is “manifested in behaviors” and that is “common to some but not all people” (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004, p.58). Although culture may be defined in a broad range of ways, it is widely agreed among researchers studying consumer behavior that culture has influence over beliefs, norms, traditions, and values of a society (Manrai and Manrai, 2011).

Using a database collected from 71 countries by a multinational enterprise, Hofstede conducted a study on differences in national culture in 1980 (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). This work has resulted in finding four major dimensions of national culture, which are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, and masculinity versus femininity (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). In addition to the four dimensions, long-term versus short-term orientation has been added as a fifth dimension later in 1980s (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). The initial four dimensions and a recently added dimension are discussed in detail in 2.3.1.

By examining average scores and rankings of the countries studied, a few generalizations can be made based on the study. Generally, so-called Western countries tend to score low on power distance and uncertainty avoidance and to score high on individualism (Manrai and Manrai, 2011). On the other hand, Eastern countries are characterized with scoring high on power distance, uncertainty avoidance and collectivism, and they are said to be long-term oriented (Ibid.).

It is also notable that empirical data collection for Hofstede’s study of the original four dimensions was carried out in 1967 to 1973, which is often criticized as a shortcoming of the work (Soares et al., 2007). It is often said that the findings are outdated by now as the culture is said to be evolving (Ibid.). Some researchers have made counter-arguments to this criticism. For example, Sivakumar and Nakata has argued that the Hofstede’s work is still significant as culture changes slow enough to keep the cultural differences persistent (Sivakumar and Nakata, 2001). Hofstede himself
has argued that his work would be valid until 2100 as the culture changes slowly and incrementally, which is not enough to invalidate the country index scores (Hofstede, 2001 in Soares et al., 2007).

### 2.3.1 Dimensions of Culture

**Power distance**

The first dimension in Hofstede’s dimensions of culture, power distance, is the degree of acceptance by less powerful members of institutions regarding unequally distributed power (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). As this dimension is the inequality defined from the perspective of followers, it implies that the followers may support in equality in a society as much as the leaders may do (Ibid.). The dimension is also suggested to be linked to the amount of power a person has over others (Manrai and Manrai, 2011).

If a society is identified to hold a low power distance index, it supports the idea of minimizing the inequality within the community (Hofstede, 1983). The society would also be characterized by supports for interdependence and equal rights, and members of the society believe that people with power should try to be seen less powerful than they actually are (Ibid.). Hierarchy in the society with low power distance index is there for convenience, and redistribution of power is considered to be the way to make changes to the social structure (Ibid.). If something goes wrong in the society, people should blame for the system, not others, and there should be a harmony between powerful individuals and powerless others (Ibid.).

On the other hand, a society with a high power distance index is characterized by acceptance to the inequality and power (Hofstede, 1983). In the society, people are supposed to act and be seen as powerful as they are, and dependence of individuals is recommended (Ibid.). It is believed that the way to change the society is to replace the people in power, and if anything goes wrong, the powerless are the one to be blamed for (Ibid.). In addition, there may be suppressed conflicts between people in power and others (Ibid.).

What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?
Uncertainty Avoidance

The second dimension of Hofstede’s dimensions of culture deals with the acceptance of a society toward ambiguity (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). It is believed that this dimension is connected to how a society deals with conflicts and hostility (Manrai and Manrai, 2011). This dimension is the indication of the degree to which members of a society feel comfortable, or uncomfortable, to situations which are not well-structured or known (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). Uncertain situations are defined as those, which are surprising and different from what are considered as usual, and this dimension of culture examines how members of a society react to those situations (Ibid.).

People in a society with low uncertainty avoidance index are considered to be less emotional, more willing to take risks in their lives, and less conservative (Hofstede, 1983). Hard work is not considered as a virtue, and members of the society generally seek to have ease and lower stress (Ibid.). The rules in the society with low uncertainty avoidance are believed to be something should be changed if necessary, and people believe that the number of rules should be as few as possible. Members of the society frown upon aggressive behaviors, and they tend to be accepting toward dissenting (Ibid.).

Compared to a society with low uncertainty avoidance index, an uncertainty-avoiding culture tends to minimize the chances of unstructured situations with strict rules (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). People in an uncertainty-avoiding society are said to have greater anxiety and stress and feel urged to work hard (Hofstede, 1983). They tend to be conservative and less likely to show emotions (Ibid.). The society needs written-down rules and regulations, and there are strong stresses toward agreement being necessary (Ibid.).

Individualism versus Collectivism

Individualism versus Collectivism dimension of culture is the extent to which members of a society
join together in groups (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). In other words, it looks at the extent to which members of a society put values on themselves and their groups (Wu, 2006). The individualism versus collectivism dimension is said to be related to how dependent a person is on the group (Manrai and Manrai, 2011).

In a non-individualistic culture, people are born to be a part of extended families that are to look after them in exchange for faithfulness (Hofstede, 1983). They are collectivity-oriented, identify themselves in the social structure, and emotionally dependent on organizations (Ibid.). Private life and opinion of a person can be possessed by the group to which the person belongs to, and in turn, orders, duties, and securities are offered by the group (Ibid.). The decisions are made in groups, and it is believed that standards of value can vary among different groups (Ibid.).

On the other hand, people in a highly individualistic culture tend to have looser ties between individuals, and they are supposed to take care of themselves and their immediate families (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). They consider that all the people should have a right to enjoy private life and have personal opinion, and they are self-oriented (Hofstede, 1983). Individual decisions and emotional independence are valued more than group decisions and dependence to organizations (Ibid.). It is also believed in the society that there should be universal value standards that can be applied to everybody (Ibid.).

Masculinity versus Femininity

The fourth dimension of Hofstede’s dimensions of culture, Masculinity versus Femininity dimension, sees the share of emotional roles between males and females (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). Moreover, masculinity versus femininity is said to be connected to choice of gender roles and how it influences on individuals in a society (Manrai and Manrai, 2011). This dimension takes a look at the distribution of roles between genders and defines gender roles in institutions (Wu, 2006). The distribution of this dimension varies from the assertive extreme, which is called as masculine, to the
modest pole, which is feminine (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004).

Scoring low in masculinity index, meaning being feminine, has connotation of being people oriented (Hofstede, 1983). In a feminine culture, roles between genders should be fluid, and the differences in gender roles are not connected to the difference in power (Ibid.). It is ideal for the men in a feminine culture to have modest and thoughtful values in the same way as women do (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). Moreover, people put value in the quality of life, and they are said to work to live (Hofstede, 1983).

On the other extreme, in a masculine culture, the genders appear to have differences in values. For example, women in a masculine culture seem to be less assertive than men are (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). People are money and things oriented in masculine countries, live to work, and believe that gender roles in the society should be distinguished (Hofstede, 1983). Men in the society should be dominating, and they are supposed to act assertively, and women are considered to stay caring and nurturing (Ibid.). Performance and growth are valued, and people should be trying to be the best in excelling nature (Ibid.).

**Long-term versus Short-term Orientation**

Lastly, the newer, fifth dimension by Hofstede, the long-tem versus short-term orientation, was added to prior four dimensions to address national economic growth (Manrai and Manrai, 2011). This dimension refers to the promotion of virtues, which are oriented toward future returns, specifically perseverance and thrift (Hofstede, 2001 in Soares et al., 2007). The dimension is strongly related to the Confucian-like values, and originally called as Confucian Dynamism. However, Hofstede later renamed the designation as it would be more appropriate (Soares et al., 2007).

**2.4 Culture and Consumers’ Attitudes**

Culture is said to have a lot of significance to many aspects of a business. This implies that
differences in culture also have importance to a business. According to Munson and McIntyre (1979), studying aspects of values that could be generalized in culture will reveal cultural differences. Advertisers have been paying attentions to cultural differences of markets because they recognize importance of value in understanding consumer behavior (Munson and McIntyre, 1979 in Zhang and Gelb, 1996). The reasoning for the importance of understanding cultural difference lies in value system, beliefs and perception processes that consumers get used to as they grow up in a culture. Accordingly, the result of this process is reflected in the way they react to the messages in advertisements which fits to their culture (Zhang and Gelb, 1996).

Culture also plays a vital role in knowing more about consumers on the Web. For example, even if the global consumer interface of the Web needs to be internationalized to some degree, it is also necessary that the design reflects some of the cultural characteristics of the audience (Chau et al, 2002). This fact may appear in the use of color as the same color may have different representation in different culture. For instance, white is the color which shows purity in the United States, but the color is often linked with an image of death in Japan (Ibid.). In this way, each consumer’s tastes and preferences are affected by collective values of their local society to a certain extent (Ibid.). As mentioned earlier, beliefs a consumer has tend to be connected to his or her attitude towards web advertising, and it is likely related further to his or her behavior (Wolin et al, 2002). Hence, considering in a cultural context would help advertisers to understand and predict whether a consumer will react positively or negatively to an advertisement (Chau et al., 2002).

In addition, differences in cognitive styles of consumers from different culture affect how successful an advertisement will be in a market (Cui et al., 2013). The study regarding differences in cognitive styles among cultures can go back to the studies on hemispheric processing, and they have found out that there are differences among cultures in the way people process information in their brain, deriving from the differences in the languages (Ibid.). They have observed that people from Western culture tend to use left hemispheric processing more, thus people tend to think linearly and
logically, generally speaking (Ibid.). In contrast to that, people from East culture are more likely to have emphasis on the use of right hemispheric processing, leading to their tendency to think holistically with images. Studies suggest that people from East culture have analogical, nonlinear, concrete and intuitive thinking (Ibid.). With these factors contributing to the effectiveness of international advertising, it is said that East Asians like transformational advertising, while Westerners perceive informational advertising more attractive (Ibid.).

2.5 Chapter Summary

The importance of knowing consumers’ attitudes to be successful in Web advertising and the factors that forms up consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising are well investigated and explained by existing studies such as Wolin et al. (2002) and Pollay and Mittal (1993). In addition, some of the existing literatures explore cultural differences of consumers’ attitudes and its importance in the success of advertising (Zhang and Gelb, 1996; Chau et al, 2002; Cui et al., 2013). In addition to that, consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising are still under the process of evolving because of the newness of the topic (Karson et al., 2006 in Wang and Sun, 2008). Moreover, there have not been many cross-cultural studies done to investigate in consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. The first cross-cultural study on consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising was conducted in 2008 by An and Kim (An and Kim, 2008). There are a few other studies that are attempting to understand consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising more in cross-cultural context, such as a study by Wang and Sun in 2010. Thus, although literature suggests the importance of cultural difference on consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising, there have not been enough comparisons explained to fully understand the differences. By conducting more cross-cultural studies, it may be possible to strengthen the credibility of the existing argument on the influence of culture to attitudes toward Web advertising by previous research.
2.6 Proposed Research Model

As it has been discussed in chapter one, this study is to explain the differences in attitudes toward Web advertising in a context of Sweden and Japan. The whole picture of the research model is summarized in the Figure 2 on the next page. As the literature in the previous chapter shows, there are seven belief factors that affects consumers’ attitude toward Web advertising. In addition to those seven factors, this research attempts to reveal if consumers’ cultural backgrounds may lead to differences in the way they put importance on different factors among the seven belief factors, resulting in the differences in their attitudes toward Web advertising.
What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?

2.7 Hypotheses

Thus, this study examines following hypothesis. The relationships between factors and the hypothesis are found in the Figure 1 above.

**Hypothesis 1**: There is a difference in the way consumers put importance on product information in advertisements, depending on the country they have grown up.
Hypothesis 2: There is a difference in the way consumers put importance on hedonic factor of advertisements, depending on the country they have grown up.

Hypothesis 3: There is a difference in the way consumers put importance on social role and image factor of advertisements, depending on the country they have grown up.

Hypothesis 4: There is a difference in the way consumers put importance on good for the economy factor of advertisements, depending on the country they have grown up.

Hypothesis 5: There is a difference in the way consumers put importance on materialism factor of advertisements, depending on the country they have grown up.

Hypothesis 6: There is a difference in the way consumers put importance on falsity factor of advertisements, depending on the country they have grown up.

Hypothesis 7: There is a difference in the way consumers put importance on value corruption factor of advertisements, depending on the country they have grown up.

Hypothesis 8: There are different attitudes based on the countries consumers have grown up, resulting from the differences in the mixture of the seven factors for each country.
3 Methodology

This chapter discusses and justifies the authors’ choices for the methodological approaches employed in the research. Starting from the discussion regarding research approach, choices for research design, data sources, research strategy, data collection method, data collection instrument, sampling, data analysis method, and quality criteria are presented with the reasons behind the choices.

3.1 Research Approach

3.1.1 Inductive vs. Deductive Research

In the field of business research there are generally two ways of approach to draw a conclusion, deductive and inductive approaches. In the deductive approach, researchers use existing theories and ideas to draw a conclusion by conducting experiments based on hypotheses (Ayalon and Even, 2013). On the other hand, in the inductive approach, researchers collect data and develop a theory based on the data analysis (Saunders et al., 2009).

Consequently, this research will follow the form of the deductive approach. The primary purpose of the research is dedicated to fulfill a lack of research in specific areas, more precisely comparison between Japanese and Swedish consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. To accomplish the objective, the authors have utilized and expanded existing theories and models to apply to this specific case.

3.1.2 Qualitative vs. Quantitative

Ali and Birley (1999) argue that the term qualitative has no clear meaning and it can be rather explained as a term, which covers various techniques (Ali and Birley, 1999). They also state that in the use of qualitative research method, researchers try to describe, decode, and translate reality through participation (Saunders et al., 2009). Therefore, the main focus is on respondents and their
opinions and reactions. Thus research usually begins with questions and observations of the world and then moves to more generalized and abstract ideas (Ibid.). On the other hand, quantitative research method concerns more about actual numbers, such as frequency of occurrence, test score, or even rental costs (Ibid.).

This study will solely be using the quantitative research approach. In order to achieve the purpose of this research, to assess and compare differences in attitudes toward web advertising of consumers from different countries, the authors have based this research on seven-belief factor model created by Pollay and Mittal (1993). This model intended to quantitatively assess consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising through seven belief factors. Considering the given nature of the model, therefore, quantitative research approach would be the most suitable approach for this case.

3.2 Research Design

Research design helps a researcher to form an appropriate design for the chosen subject and the purpose of his study. It soothes the operation of the study and is to ensure the researcher to be able to collect empirical data through his study that is necessary to meet the purpose and to answer the research question (Dhawan, 2010). According to Dhawan (2010), there are three main types of research design; exploratory design, descriptive design, and causal design (Ibid.).

In exploratory research design, the main purpose of the study often lies in more exact problem formulation. Thus, the emphasis for this type of research is in finding ideas and insights (Dhawan, 2010). If the study employs descriptive design, it tries to describe the characteristics of the subject to study. In this type of research design, a researcher needs to have a clear definition of his subject to study, and the study aims to gather complete data to picture the subject (Ibid.). Lastly, if a study takes research design of hypothesis testing, it tries to see the fundamental relationships between variables in the study and to explain if one variable causes the value of another. This type of study enables the
What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?

Since their study aims to observe and obtain deeper understanding of attitudes toward Web advertising of consumers from different countries, the main interest of the study is to picture the consumers’ attitudes based on their culture. In addition, the authors conduct an intensive literature review to get insights for the study from already existing studies. Thus, exploratory and descriptive research design fits the best for the purpose of the study.

3.3 Data Sources

There are mainly two kinds of data that researchers should consider, primary and secondary. Primary data are original data that are collected for the first time, and secondary data are those which have already been collected by somebody else and have existed after the statistical process (Kothari, 2004). A researcher needs to decide upon the main source of data used primarily in his or her research, so he or she can make a choice between one and the other methods of collecting data for the research accordingly (Ibid.).

One of the main advantages of the use of secondary data is the reduction in cost. Because secondary data already exists, they are less expensive, and they would also save time for researchers to conduct their study (Cowton, 1998). Other advantages include that they may help the researcher to refine the research problem, to get background information, to find solution to the research problem, and to find alternatives for the main research model (Bryman and Bell, 2007). On the other hand, secondary data do have disadvantages that the data may lack availability and relevance and that the data may be inaccurate. It may also be insufficient to use only secondary data for the research (Ibid.).

Knowing these advantages and disadvantages of secondary data, the authors’ primary choice of data source is to use primary data mainly. Although they have been using secondary data to get insights and to provide theoretical background for their research, the main focus of the research is...
What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?

going to be centered on the use of primary data collected through their data collection methods (which is described in later subsections of this chapter). The main reason behind their choice of using primary data is that the use of primary data allows the author to obtain up-to-date and specific information needed for their research (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Even though the authors are aware of the disadvantages of using primary data, which are high costs requirements and its time consuming nature (Ibid.), those disadvantages can be minimized, thus, the advantages outdo the disadvantages to the authors.

3.4 Research Strategy

There are five main categories of research strategies available to researchers. Those are experiment, survey, archival analysis, history, and case study. Table 2 below summarizes the characteristics and requirements of each research strategy. The first one in the Table 2, experiment, aims at confirming, falsifying, or establishing the validity of hypothesis by making changes to one or more variables to see the differences (Bryman and Bell, 2007). However, this strategy is not really common in business research due to the requirement for control over the behavioral events as it is shown in the table. In history strategy, the fourth item in the table, a researcher gathers and analyzes historical sources (Ibid.), but he does not put its focus on contemporary events; thus it is not a common choice in business research, either.

The rest of three options, survey, archival analysis, and case study, are common choices available to business researchers. Survey is the sampling of people in the population, and it aims to make statistical conclusions about the population (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Meanwhile, a researcher studies documents or archives of the unit he or she is analyzing (Ibid.). The last option in the table, case study, is also a careful observation of an individual entity or person, which focuses on developing deeper study rather than studying broad number of events (Cowton, 1998). Among those three options, the authors take survey with online questionnaire as their research strategies. The
authors take survey as their strategy to provide hard, statistical data about attitudes of Japanese and Swedish consumers toward web advertising.

Table 2: Types of Research Strategy (Yin, 2009, p.8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Strategy</th>
<th>Form of Research Question</th>
<th>Requires control over behavioral events</th>
<th>Focuses on contemporary events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>How, why</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Who, what, where, how many, how much</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archival Analysis</td>
<td>Who, what, where, how many, how much</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes/No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>How, why</td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case Study</td>
<td>How, why</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5 Data Collection Method – Online Questionnaire

To collect quantitative data for the research, the authors chose survey as one of their data collection methods. This is because it is a preferred method for quantitative approach. In addition, there are a couple of advantages of this type of data collection method. First, it is a low-cost method even if the population is geographically spread and large in quantity (Cowton, 1998). Secondary, it is somewhat free from interviewer’s bias, and respondents can have enough time to answer to the questionnaire (Ibid.). This method also allows the researcher to reach respondents who are difficult to be reached due to the physical distance, and it also enables the researcher to conduct a study on a large population (Ibid.).

On the other hand, there are disadvantages in using survey as a data collection method as well. One of the disadvantages is that there is bias due to no-response as a factor that cannot be determined
in advance, and this method is only available as an option when the respondents are educated and willing to cooperate (Cowton, 1998). Furthermore, the control over the questionnaire is low once it is sent to the respondents, and flexibility is built in the questionnaire itself (Ibid.). What is more, slow nature of the method, difficulty to identify representative respondents, and risk for unclear replies are the others of disadvantages that should be noticed (Ibid.).

3.6 Data Collection Instrument Design

3.6.1 Operationalization and Measurement of Variables

Operationalization can be described as a process of defining vague concepts in order to make the concept measurable in form of variables composing of specific observation (Bryman and Bell, 2007). They also mention steps required for successful operationalization: Theoretical insights → Define key variables → Provide operational definition of key variables → Find and list potential measures for key variables → Pretest → Design data collection instrument (Ibid.). Table 3 summarizes the authors’ operationalization process for this research.

Table 3: Definitions of Concepts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptual definition</th>
<th>Operational definition</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seven factors (Questions)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Product information</td>
<td>- Advertising is an important information provider (Wang et al., 2009) - Consumers’ needs and wants will be better matched (Wolin et al., 2002)</td>
<td>A measure that reflects effectiveness of information gathering in the context of consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Hedonic/</td>
<td>Web advertising is…</td>
<td>A measure that reflects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pleasure</th>
<th>enjoyment and aesthetics in the context of consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising.</th>
<th>advertising (Q5 &amp; 6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Entertaining</td>
<td>- Aesthetic value of Web advertising (Q7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Pleasant</td>
<td>- Trends and social image/role making ability of Web advertising (Q8 &amp; 10)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Beautiful</td>
<td>- Associated status (Q9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Sentimental</td>
<td>- Personality reflection on Web advertising (Q11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Humorous (Watson et al., 1998)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 3. Social Image and Role | A measure that reflects trends and social image/role, and personality reflection in the context of consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. | - Improves quality of life (Q12) |
| --- | --- | - Reduces people’s time for searching products (Q13) |
| Web advertising promotes social and life style messages linked with status, image of ideal users, social reaction to purchase and brand image (Pollay and Mittal, 1993) | - Enhances purchase incentives (Q14) | - Excessive commercial concerns (Q15, 16 & 17) |
| Web advertising helps one knows what people like him/her are using or buying the right | | |
| People can learn recent trends and what to buy for keeping a good social image (Wolin et al., 2002) | | |

| Social Effects | A measure that reflects benefits for the economy and consumers in the context of consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. | - Improves quality of life (Q12) |
| --- | --- | - Reduces people’s time for searching products (Q13) |
| 4. Good for the Economy | - Improves quality of life (Q12) | - Enhances purchase incentives (Q14) |
| Advertising can save consumers’ time and help them to be efficient (Wolin et al., 2002) | - Excessive commercial concerns (Q15, 16 & 17) |
| Advertising has a potential to raise the average standard of living (Wang et al., 2009) | | |

| 5. Materialism | A measure that reflects commercial concerns in the context of consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. | - Excessive commercial concerns (Q15, 16 & 17) |
| --- | --- | | |
| Belief structures that perceive consumption as a route to satisfactions (Pollay and Mittal, 1993) | | |
| Web advertising promotes excessive commercial concerns (Wolin et al., 2002) | | |

| 6. Falsity/No-sense | A measure that reflects validity in the context of consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. | - Trustworthiness of Web advertising (Q18, 19 & 20) |
| --- | --- | |
| “Advertising can be seen as purposefully misleading, or more benignly, as not fully informative, trivial, silly, or confusing,” (Pollay and Mittal, 1993, p.102) | | |
| Ineffective and non-logical websites | | |
What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. Value Corruption</th>
<th>8. Overall Attitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Web advertising has a potential to mold users’ values; hence, it may corrupt users’ values</td>
<td>- One likes Web advertising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Web advertising has a negative influence on children (Wolin et al., 2002)</td>
<td>- One thinks Web advertising is essential (Wolin et al., 2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Web advertising promotes undesirable values a society (Wang et al., 2009)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Most advertising distorts values of our youth (Pollay and Mittal, 1993)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Web advertising re assure one that he/she has been buying and using right products (Wolin et al., 2002)

- A measure that reflects one’s preference of Web advertising.

- A measure that reflects value distortion and undesired influence on children in the context of consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising.

- Value distortion (Q21 & 22)
- Excessive sex appeal (Q23)
- Good thing (Q24)
- Preference (Q25)
- Essential (Q26)

Furthermore, it has been argued that consumers’ demographical factors have an influence on their attitudes towards advertising (Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1994; Wolin et al., 2002). Wolin et al. (2002) summarize previous research and conclude that older and wealthier consumers show greater dislike for television advertising than younger and poorer consumers. Additionally, they also mention that younger male people, those with less education and income, and non-whites consumers tend to have favorable attitudes toward advertising than others. Finally, they argue that those who with higher income or higher education tend to avoid mass media more than others (Wolin et al., 2002). Turning more specifically to Web advertising, some similarities were found. For example, they found the followings: the higher the respondents’ education, the more negative their behavior to...
Web advertising and income level has the same effect as it does in regard to traditional means of advertising. These indicate that the original model can be applied to Web advertising as well. Therefore, in addition to the seven factors, measurements for some of demographical data, such as nationality, age, and average amount of time spent online per day have been added to the questionnaire.

Taking the above-mentioned characteristics into account, the research is based on quantitative data collected through questionnaires, which measure consumers’ attitudes based on seven belief factors. To make a most suitable questionnaire for this research, the authors had modified and expanded a previously used questionnaire created by Wolin et al. (2002).

### 3.6.2 Questionnaire Design

When the authors were constructing the questions for this specific research, some of the previous studies in consumers’ beliefs, attitudes, and behavior toward advertising were reviewed carefully (e.g. Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Wolin et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2009). Based on the previous studies and the questionnaires used in those studies, in the end the online questionnaire used for the research consisted of 29 questions.

Among all, 23 questions were designed to measure the seven-belief factors – product information, hedonic/pleasure, social role and image, good for the economy, value corruption, materialism, falsity/no sense - that form respondents’ beliefs about Web advertising. The next three questions were designed to measure the respondents’ overall attitudes toward Web advertising. Finally, the rest of the three questions were asked to collect respondents’ demographic information, such as their country, their age, and amount of time they spend online per day on average. Beside the last three question, all questions were asked on a seven-point scale of (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. 5-point scale and 7-point scale are said to be comparable, therefore, this study is
expected to be comparable with the previous studies, which have been using either 5-point or 7-point Likert scales (Colman et al., 1997).

3.6.3 Pretesting

When collecting data through questionnaires, researchers need to conduct a pretest in order to refine a questionnaire that they are going to use. By doing so, they will be able to assure that respondents will understand the questionnaire in the way that researchers intended to and there will be no problem in recording acquired data (Saunders et al., 2009). In addition, it also helps researchers to have some assessment of questions’ validity and reliability of the data (Ibid.).

For the research, a series of pretests were conducted before the online questionnaires were carried out. The procedure can be summarized into two steps. First of all, the authors have tested their English version of questionnaire on a senior lecturer at Linnaeus University in Sweden. The primary reasons for asking a senior lecturer was to make sure that questions used were appropriate, understandable, and, well reflecting their operationalization of the concepts used. Second, the translated versions of questionnaire were tested on randomly chosen five Swedish and five Japanese consumers (translation validity is discussed in 4.9.1). The main focus of the second pretest was to make sure that all questions were understandable to anybody, as it was assumed that the levels of respondents’ background knowledge of the research topic would vary to some extent. On that account, the questions’ validity and reliability, especially wording and phrasing in Swedish and Japanese, were carefully confirmed through the second pretest.
3.7 Sampling

Briefly, there are two kinds of surveys for collecting data for research: census and sampling surveys. In general, whatever a research purpose is, researchers need to decide whether they are going to use census or sampling survey when collecting data. Census survey aims to collect and analyze data from every possible case or group member, whereas sampling survey provides ways that enable researchers to reduce the amount of data needed to collect by considering only data from a sub-group rather than entire possible cases or elements (Saunders et al., 2009). Even though census survey can be more accurate than sampling survey, it cannot be used in many studies. In many studies, it may be impossible to collect and analyze all available data, due to limited time, money and even access to entire elements (Ibid.). In that regard, sampling survey requires less cost comparing to census survey. In fact, if the selection of samplings has conducted successfully, sampling survey can reduce the amount of time and even money needed for conducting, as the total number of respondents becomes relatively small. In addition, due to its smaller number of respondents, researchers are able to acquire more detailed information than census survey can (Ibid.).

The authors had chosen to conduct sampling surveys for the research after examining both advantages and disadvantages of each survey strategy. The selected survey strategy, sampling survey, was believed to be most suitable and reasonable for this research over census survey strategy. Some research showed that, in 2010, 79% of Japanese population and 85% of Swedish population had an access to the Internet (MPHPT_2012; Olle Findahl, 2010). With the vast numbers of Internet users in Japan and Sweden, it will be highly costly and impossible to conduct census surveys in Japan and Sweden. Therefore, census survey strategy was eliminated from the possibilities.
3.7.1 Sampling Frame

In Japan, more than 96% of the young people (13-29 years old) frequently used the Internet in 2010 (MPHPT_2012). However, the frequency of the use of the Internet became less frequent as the sampled segments become older. For instance, 94.9% of those who are aged between 40-49 years old used the Internet in 2010 and it even declined to 86.1% between 50-59 years old people (MPHPT_2012, p.8). A similar pattern can be seen from Swedish people as well, showing that Swedish people aged between 16 and 24 years old use the Internet more often than other segments (Olle Findahl, 2010). Thus, it can be said that younger people are the ones that face Web advertising most frequently both in Japan and Sweden. On that account, the researchers have decided that the questionnaires should mainly aim for Japanese and Swedish university students, assuming that the chosen samples would be well representing the majority of Swedish and Japanese Internet users. Detailed discussion of the procedure used for distributing the questionnaires is presented in the following section.

3.7.2 Sample Selection and Data Collection Procedure

For both qualitative and quantitative research method, there is no definite answer when it comes to the sample size. Rather, it is depending on a number of considerations, time, and costs (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Therefore, to make a right decision about the sample size, researchers need to take these considerations into account. When deciding the sample size, the authors had looked at some of the previous research conducted by Wolin et al. (2002) and Wang et al. (2009) because the questioner used in this research was based on the questionnaires used in previous studies. In above-mentioned studies, researchers used paper and pencil surveys and personal interviews to acquire the data. However, because of some limitations, the authors had decided to distribute the questionnaires via
‘Google document’. There are mainly two reasons why it was chosen for this specific study. Comparing to paper and pencil survey, first, online questionnaires are able to reduce the amount of time required for conducting questionnaires and actually collecting data. Since the time limitation was one of critical concerns that authors faced, this factor was taken into consideration. Second, it enables researchers to have an access to remotely located respondents. Especially, as the questionnaires were aiming for consumers in two different countries, Sweden and Japan in this study, the authors considered this method to be more suitable than paper and pencil survey. With all this said, some of the concerns about online questionnaires were considered beforehand. Bryman and Bell (2007) argues the following issues:

- Not everyone has an access to the Internet and has a technical ability to handle the questionnaires.
- Many people have more than one e-mail address
- A household may have a one computers but several users
- Internet users are a biased sample of the population, in that they tend to be better educated, wealthier, younger, and not representative in ethnic terms (Couper, 2000 in Bryman and Bell, 2007)

After concerning the issues mentioned above, the authors still believed that online questionnaires would be best suited to the topic of this research instead of previously used methods. First of all, as mentioned in the previous section, targeted samples were highly assumed to have an Internet access, considering the fact that approximately 95% of youth had an access to the Internet in 2010 both in Japan and Sweden (MPHPT_2012; Olle Findahl, 2010). In this research, the questionnaires used were aiming for these people. In turn, respondents were also assumed to have an ability to handle online questionnaires. Therefore, the authors expected that some of the concerns would not really hinder the process. Further, use of Google document can solve some other issues. Regarding the issues mentioned above, for instance, researchers do not need to reach respondents’ e-mail addresses,
since it takes a form of self-completion survey. Researchers can simply present a URL and have respondents reach the questionnaires by themselves. Therefore, the whole process can be simpler for both researchers and respondents.

In the first place, to draw attentions from Swedish and Japanese students, the questionnaires were posted on Facebook pages that are related to Japanese and Swedish universities. Additionally, the questionnaires were sent out to Japanese students at Kansaigaidai University in Japan with the help of university personnel. In this way, the questionnaire was open to public for 12 days. In the end, 275 respondents answered the questionnaires (160 Japanese and 115 Swedish). The details of the respondents will be discussed in the later chapter.

3.8 Data Analysis Method
The authors are going to analyze the data, using statistical software, SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). SPSS is one of the most commonly used software to conduct quantitative analyses, which is available to researchers (Greasley, 2008). An analysis using SPSS takes a several steps: data coding, data entry, descriptive statistics, reliability test, correlation analysis, and hypothesis testing. The authors were to follow the steps to display the data and complete their analysis on the data they collect through the survey.

Data Coding
After the process of questionnaire design, each question in the questionnaire needs to be coded to enable the analyses using SPSS. As it is shown in the operationalization table in 4.6.1, each question from question 1 to 26 is supposed to measure a construct in the research model, and either three or four questions together are to measure each of the constructs. Question 27, 28, and 29 are to gather personal information of the respondents. The authors have coded all the questions with abbreviations
of the names of the constructs such as “PRODINFO” for product information factor and “HDNC” for hedonic factor (See Table 4 in the appendix for all the codes).

**Data Entry**

Using the Form functions in Google Documents, it is possible to save the responses for each version of the questionnaire in spreadsheets automatically. Two spreadsheets, one for Japanese and the other for Swedish respondents, are created, and the responses for each country are saved separately. After the collection of data, the authors have entered the data into SPSS by copying and pasting the data from spreadsheets to minimize the chances of errors in data entry. The answers for question 18 (FALS1neg), however, were reversed manually after copying the data because it was a reverse-scaled question.

**Descriptive Statistics**

After coding and entering the data, the authors are going to make descriptive statistics on SPSS for the data they are going to analyze. Descriptive statistics with frequency command produce tables that show frequencies for the data and measures of central trend (Greasley, 2008). For example, using descriptive statistics, it is possible to obtain and display statistics for such values as frequencies, mean values, median values, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values.

**Reliability Test**

After obtaining basic information on the data set using descriptive statistics, reliability test is to be done to make sure that the scale applied in the survey is reliable. Cronbach’s alpha is to be calculated using the reliability analysis command for this purpose. The authors chose Cronbach’s alpha as their choice of measure of reliability because it is a common measure of internal reliability when the questions in the survey are multiple Likert questions (Laerd Statistics_2013). Cronbach’s alpha can
be a value from 0 to 1, and as the value of Cronbach’s alpha becomes closer to 1, the internal reliability of the scale increases (Matkar, 2012). It is generally said that Cronbach’s alpha indicates a reliable scale if the alpha is higher than 0.7 or researchers may accept as lower score as 0.6 (Hair et al., 1998). This study accepts a Cronbach’s alpha higher than 0.6, looking at the practices in previous studies.

Once the reliability of scales was examined and approved, summated values for each construct were calculated in SPSS to create indexes for each of the constructs. This process was done by simply calculating average value for each construct. For example, to create a summated value for product information of respondent A, his answers for question 1 to question 4 were summed up and divided by 4.

**Correlation Analysis**

Correlation of variables shows how variables are related to each other, and this relationship can be positive, negative, or no observable correlation (Greasley, 2008). If the relationship is positive, values of a variable increase, or decrease, in line with the movement in values of the other variable. On the hand, it would move into the opposite direction if the two variables were negatively correlated (Ibid.). In addition, it is also important to see the strength of relationships. The strength of correlation can be in the range of -1 to +1. The table blow shows the distribution of the strength of a correlation.

Table 5: The Strength of a Correlation (Greasley, 2008, p.80)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative Correlation</th>
<th>Positive Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-1~0.6</td>
<td>0.1~0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.4~0.1</td>
<td>0.6~+1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Negative</td>
<td>Weak negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak Positive</td>
<td>Strong Positive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Generally speaking, any values of correlation above 0.5, either negative or positive, imply strong correlations. However, if the value is getting closer to zero, it means there is a lack of strong relationship between variables, which indicates a low or no correlation between the two variables (Greasley, 2008).

Pearson’s $r$ is one of the methods to see the correlation of variables, and the bivariate correlations function in SPSS is used to obtain Pearson’s $r$ in this study (Bryman and Bell, 2007). This function enables researchers to obtain Pearson correlation and 2-tailed significance score. Pearson correlation, which is shown by Pearson’s $r$ in a result of this correlation analysis, is an indication of how strong the relationship between the variables is, and the significance score shows how statistically significant the computed Pearson’s $r$ is (Ibid.).

**Hypothesis Testing with T-tests**

There are some means of carrying hypothesis tests out when researchers want to see the differences between two constructs. There are two kinds of data, independent and related samples. If the samples are provided by the same people, those are related samples. However, if it is not the case, the samples are independent samples (Greasley, 2008). Thus, the authors have chosen independent-samples t-test as their mean to test their hypotheses. Independent-samples t-test makes comparison between the means of two non-related groups on the same variable (Laerd Statistics_T-test_2013). In this study, hypotheses were tested with the conventional level of statistical significance for business research, which were to accept significance score lower than 0.05.
If the significance score was lower than 0.05, hypothesis tested was accepted (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

3.9 Quality Criteria

3.9.1 Validity

Content validity, or face validity, refers to the degree to which a measurement instrument measures what it is planned to measure (Bryman and Bell, 2007). To make sure that they keep this validity of their research, the authors have asked their tutor, who is a senior lecturer at business and economics department of Linnaeus University in Sweden, to review the content of the questionnaire. They have also applied the already established theoretical model, which has been tested and used for a several times by different researchers again and again. The authors have also done a small-scale pretest before they started sending out the questionnaires. When the authors translated the original copy of the questionnaire in English into Swedish and Japanese, they have asked a professor and a senior lecturer to review their translations for each language at business and economics department of Linnaeus University in Sweden. They have also asked some of their Japanese friends and Swedish friends to check the use of language in the translations of questionnaire.

The construct validity is the extent to which an operationalization of a study examines the concepts, which it is supposed to assess. This is to make sure that the hypotheses are tested with appropriate theories that are significant to the concepts (Bryman and Bell, 2007). To ensure that they hold this kind of validity for their study, the authors were going to run a correlation analysis on SPSS before they moved onto the hypotheses testing. This was to avoid having constructs that were correlating too much each other.
To confirm that they hold criterion validity, or concurrent validity, a researcher should have criteria that are important and related to the concepts tested. This kind of validity refers to the degree to which the operationalization the authors employ in their study is able to predict other constructs and performs as projected in relation to other variables (Bryman and Bell, 2007). This validity was kept in this study by running statistical hypothesis testing.

### 3.9.2 Reliability

Reliability deals with the consistency of variables at basic level, and there are a few meanings of the word (Bryman and Bell, 2007). One of the meanings of the term is the stability, which refers to the consistency of a measure over repeated or replicated occasions. The second essence of reliability is the internal reliability, and this is to ensure that all the measurement items are relating to the same thing that we plan to assess (Ibid.). Reliability of this study was to be assessed by the reliability analysis on SPSS by looking at the Cronbach’s alpha. Cronbach’s alpha is a common measure of reliability for the surveys employing such system as multiple Likert questions, and it shows how questions in the questionnaire are related to each other among the answers from different respondents (Laerd Statistics, 2013). The alpha was used to examine the internal reliability of the study for the further analysis.

### 3.10 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the authors’ choices on methodological approaches for the current study have been presented and justified. This chapter has explained how the choices are chosen to fulfil the purpose and to answer the research question. The Table 6 on the next page summarizes all the choices presented in this chapter.
What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?

Table 6: Summary of Research Methodology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Summary of Research Methodology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Approach</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deductive and quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Design</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploratory and descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Data Sources</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Strategy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Data Collection Method</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Data Collection Instrument</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling survey: Online questionnaire with 29 7-point Likert scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>questions on Swedish and Japanese consumers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sampling</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese and Swedish consumers who are mostly university students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Data Analysis Method</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative data analysis using SPSS: Data coding, data entry,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>descriptive statistics, reliability test, correlation analysis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and hypothesis testing (t-test)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Quality Criteria</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validities (content validity, construct validity, and criterion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>validity) and Reliability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Survey Results

In this chapter, the result of survey is presented. The result is presented in accordance with the data analysis method presented in chapter three. Descriptive statistics reveal the general picture of the result, and reliability test and correlation analysis follow to show details of the survey result. The result of hypothesis follows after the presentation of the above in the last section of this chapter.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

The table 7 in appendix shows the whole result of descriptive statistics. The mean and median value for some items (look Table 3 in chapter 3 for the factors and question numbers in the questionnaire) appears to be quite similar for both countries. For example, the mean and median values of the items for Product Information factor are quite similar between the two countries. The values of standard deviations for this factor also display the similarity between the two countries. On the other hand, some items, such as Hedonic 2, Social Role 1, Materialism 1, Materialism 3, and Value Corruption 3, appear to have greater differences than the others in the mean and median values. Moreover, the differences in the standard deviations of the two countries indicate another difference between the two countries. For instance, standard deviation for Product Information 1 among the Swedish respondents is as low as 0.544, while the one among Japanese respondents is 1.018. This shows how the answers for the question differ among the respondents of each country, and the greater value of standard deviation for Japanese respondents show that the answers vary more than the ones of Swedish respondents.

4.2 Reliability Test

As it has been explained in chapter three, reliability of the scale in this study is measured by Cronbach’s alpha using SPSS. As a result of the reliability test, we obtained the value of Cronbach’s Alpha as the table 8 on the next page shows. Using the bottom line of 0.6, as it has been discussed in
the methodology chapter, some constructs in the research model such as Product Information, Hedonic, Social Role, Value Corruption, and Attitude held acceptable levels of reliability. Rounding off to two decimal places, Good for Economy and Materialism construct keeps levels of reliability which can be considered as acceptable. The result of reliability test for Falsity factor, however, shows a significantly low value of Cronbach’s alpha. As the alpha is used to test the internal reliability, this result denotes a low internal reliability of Falsity scale (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Table 8: Reliability Test – Cronbach’s alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Sweden Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Sweden Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</th>
<th>Japan Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Japan Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Information</td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td>0.597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedonic</td>
<td>0.628</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td>0.683</td>
<td>0.684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Role</td>
<td>0.749</td>
<td>0.751</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td>0.703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good for Economy</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td>0.708</td>
<td>0.554</td>
<td>0.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materialism</td>
<td>0.584</td>
<td>0.587</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td>0.616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Falsity</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.260</td>
<td>0.250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value Corruption</td>
<td>0.711</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.644</td>
<td>0.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>0.876</td>
<td>0.802</td>
<td>0.812</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The possible reasons for a low value of Cronbach’s alpha are a small number of questions to measure the construct, poor inter-correlation among items or heterogeneous constructs (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). The inter-item correlations among the items of Falsity factor are low as the table 9
below shows. The result of reliability test shows that the Cronbach’s alpha would remain lower than the acceptable level even if any of the three items for Falsity construct have been deleted (See Table 10 below). This may be showing that questions were not understood by the respondents well or the factor was not relevant to the countries in the context of this study. Above data led the authors to a conclusion that the factor was not applicable to the case of this study, and Falsity factor is discarded in the further analysis because the reliability for this factor cannot be ensured.

Table 9: Inter-correlation Matrix for Falsity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>FALS1neg</th>
<th>FALS2</th>
<th>FALS3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FALS1neg</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-0.151</td>
<td>0.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FALS2</td>
<td>-0.151</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FALS3</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Cronbach’s Alpha If Item Deleted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha If Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FALS1neg</td>
<td>0.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FALS2</td>
<td>0.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FALS3</td>
<td>-0.355</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once the reliability for the scale was assured, the summated values for each factor, except for Falsity factor, are calculated for each country as indexes, and it is summarized in the figures on the next page. In the mean values, Social Role factor, Materialism factor, and Value Corruption factor
differ in the number to a great extent. Among the standard deviations, hedonic factor and good for economy factor proposes differences between two countries, showing that Swedish respondents are more united in the answers for hedonic factors and more diverse in the answers for good for economy factor than Japanese respondents are.

4.3 Correlation Analysis

The table 11 on the next page is the result of the correlation analysis on the data set. In the table, the coefficients with possibility higher than 0.05 \((p>0.05)\) are marked as not significant \((\text{ns})\) in upper-right hand corner of the number. All the other coefficients are statistically significant \((p<0.05)\). As it has explained in chapter three, in general, the relationships between two variables are strong when the value of Pearson’s \(r\) is greater than 0.5 (Greasley, 2008).

Although there are small differences between the results of Sweden and Japan, there is a tendency of variables to strongly relate each other based on how the factors are affecting the attitude in the model proposed in chapter two. Factors that are said to have positive effect on a consumer’s attitude toward Web advertising are Product Information, Hedonic, Social Role, and Good for Economy, and those tend to have strong, positive correlation as it is shown in the table. Similarly,
factors which are supposed to negatively relate to a consumer’s attitude toward Web advertising, which are Materialism, (Falsity), and Value Corruption, are more likely to have a strong correlation each other than they do with the other four factors.

It is also notable that factors that are strongly correlated with the overall attitude toward Web advertising slightly differ between the results of Sweden and Japan. The result of Swedish respondents shows that overall attitude is strongly correlated to factors such as Product Information, Hedonic, and Good for Economy. Compared to that, the result of Japanese respondents suggests the strong correlation in the attitude with factors such as Hedonic, Social Role, and Good for Economy.

Table 11: Correlation Matrix, Pearson’s r and (significance)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PRODINFO</th>
<th>HDNC</th>
<th>SOC ROLE</th>
<th>GOOD ECON</th>
<th>MAT</th>
<th>FALS</th>
<th>VALCRP</th>
<th>ATTD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRODINFO</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.642</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>-0.102</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDNC</td>
<td>0.642</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.558</td>
<td>0.608</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>-0.179</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC ROLE</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>0.558</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.593</td>
<td>0.377</td>
<td>-0.085</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>0.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOOD ECON</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.608</td>
<td>0.593</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>-0.035</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>0.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAT</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>0.377</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.240</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>0.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FALS</td>
<td>-0.102</td>
<td>-0.179</td>
<td>-0.085</td>
<td>-0.035</td>
<td>0.240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.263</td>
<td>-0.224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALCRP</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>0.263</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.004*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTD</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>0.725</td>
<td>0.469</td>
<td>0.654</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>-0.224</td>
<td>0.004*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRODINFO</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.488</td>
<td>0.510</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td>0.089*</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.062*</td>
<td>0.454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDNC</td>
<td>0.488</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.534</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>0.093*</td>
<td>0.059*</td>
<td>0.089*</td>
<td>0.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC ROLE</td>
<td>0.510</td>
<td>0.534</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.505</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>0.163</td>
<td>0.508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOOD ECON</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>0.505</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.382</td>
<td>0.090*</td>
<td>0.139*</td>
<td>0.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAT</td>
<td>0.089*</td>
<td>0.093*</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.382</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.090*</td>
<td>0.327</td>
<td>0.038*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FALS</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.059*</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>0.090*</td>
<td>0.090*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>-0.031*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALCRP</td>
<td>0.062*</td>
<td>0.080*</td>
<td>0.163</td>
<td>0.139*</td>
<td>0.327</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.033*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTD</td>
<td>0.454</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>0.038*</td>
<td>-0.031*</td>
<td>0.033*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 Hypothesis Testing

In order to test the hypotheses presented in chapter two, independent-samples t-tests were carried out as it has discussed in chapter three. Each constructs was tested between the two countries, Sweden and Japan. The results of tests are summarized in the Table 12 on the next page. Based on the statistical significance level of 0.05, hypothesis 3, hypothesis 6, and hypothesis 7 are accepted \( (p<0.05) \). In other words, the differences between Sweden and Japan in factors of Social Role, Falsity, and Value Corruption are accepted statistically. However, Falsity factor will not be included in the further analysis in the following chapter because of the poor score on internal reliability of its scales.

Table 12: Results of Hypothesis Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>2-tailed significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>5.1261 (1.06704)</td>
<td>4.9734 (0.97798)</td>
<td>1.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>3.1014 (1.14808)</td>
<td>3.3167 (1.32270)</td>
<td>-1.405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>3.6130 (1.23909)</td>
<td>3.9547 (1.20137)</td>
<td>-2.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>3.4261 (1.50862)</td>
<td>3.5042 (1.30365)</td>
<td>-0.459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5</td>
<td>3.8377 (1.24359)</td>
<td>3.5813 (1.25016)</td>
<td>1.682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6</td>
<td>4.6232 (0.88249)</td>
<td>5.2042 (0.90498)</td>
<td>-5.306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7</td>
<td>3.9797 (1.37315)</td>
<td>4.3979 (1.23398)</td>
<td>-2.644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8</td>
<td>3.3217 (1.50174)</td>
<td>3.2417 (1.30470)</td>
<td>0.471</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5 Chapter Summary

The empirical data collected through the online questionnaire has been presented in chapter four. The result of the survey on 275 respondents (115 Japanese and 160 Swedes) has been presented in line with the data analysis method explained previously in chapter three. The result has been presented in forms of tables and figures so it enables the further analysis in chapter five.
5 Discussion and Interpretation

Chapter five is to discuss the authors’ interpretations of the survey result, which was presented through the previous chapter. Hofstede’s dimensions of culture (1983) are mainly used to understand the cultural differences between Sweden and Japan along with a few other literatures. The discussion presented in this chapter five is to be the base for answering the research question.

5.1 Differences between Sweden and Japan in the Seven Belief Factors

The result of hypotheses tests proves that there are statistically significant differences between Sweden and Japan in Social Role factor and Value Corruption factor among the seven factors. As it has been explained in chapter 2, Social Role factor is related to consumers’ beliefs on such things as social status, prestige, or social reaction (Pollay as Mittal, 1993). Value Corruption is a factor, which concerns about distorting existing values of consumers (Wolin et al., 2002). Taking a look at mean values in the results of Sweden and Japan on Social Value index, Japanese consumers put greater value in this factor than Swedish consumers do as the greater value of mean for this factor indicates. Correlation efficient of Japanese also shows strong relationship between Social Role factor and the attitude towards Web advertising. Similarly, Japanese consumers appear to be concerned more about Value Corruption factor as well, as the higher mean value shows.

Comparing it to the Pollay and Mittal’s study (1993), this result of the survey implies that Japanese consumers are more sensitive for the brand information in advertising, valuing such information more than Swedish consumers do. Japanese respondents appear to prefer to have such information in Web advertising to be able to display their privilege with knowledge they learned through Web advertising. It also appears that Japanese are more carefully aware of and fearing the effect that Web advertising may possess to distort the existing values. They tend to have a fear that Web advertising may contain undesirable information to themselves, to their significant others, and to the society.
5.1.1 Cultural Difference behind Social Role Factor

Checking the theories against the survey result, the study found some connections between cultural differences and differences in the seven belief factors of Sweden and Japan. For example, lower degree of value in Social Role factor of Sweden can be connected to the low Masculinity index and low Power Distance index of Sweden in Hofstede’s study (1983). As it have been discussed in theoretical chapter, scoring low in Masculinity index, being characterized as Feminine culture, has connotation of leveling culture meaning that Swedish consumers do not like trying to be better than other people (Hofstede, 1983). This may be linked together with scoring low in Power Distance that they do not like the inequality in the society (Ibid.). These explain why consumers in Sweden are less concerned about Social Role factor than ones in Japan are; that they do not want to neither show nor brag their status off to others.

On the other hand, Japan is scoring almost on the other extreme in Masculinity index (Hofstede, 1983). Japanese consumers are likely to find it valuable to have information regarding brands in Web advertising due to their cultural background. The excelling nature, achievement being ideal, and money and things orientation of Japanese culture may have contributed to enhance this preference and have appeared in the result of survey as higher value in Social Role factor (Ibid.). The excelling nature of the Japanese culture fits to the Social Role factor of Web advertising that the advertising can be used as a source of getting brand information to exhibit social status. Moreover, the characteristics of Japanese culture recognize it as a good thing to be able to do to show off one’s status, unlike the Swedish culture.

5.1.2 Cultural Difference behind Value Corruption Factor

The survey results of Sweden and Japan on Value Corruption factor may be explained with Uncertainty Avoidance dimension and Individualism dimension of Hofstede’s four cultural
dimensions. While Sweden is featured as less conservative with lower score in Uncertainty Avoidance index, Japan is described as a country with a highly uncertainty-avoiding country with a conservatism nature (Hofstede, 1983). The Japanese culture tends to be greatly concerned with security and strictly tries to keep the law and order (Ibid.). Like the parenting example for this factor in the theoretical chapter, this factor is associated with changing existing values (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Wolin et al., 2002). This may be linked to the greater alert that Japanese consumers showed to the Value Corruption factor because they would like to avoid negative effects of the Web advertising. Furthermore, compared to the highly individualistic culture of Sweden, Japanese culture is less individualistic (Hofstede, 1983). This may have helped to increase the concern on Value Corruption factor because Japanese consumers may have cared about the negative effect of Web advertising not only to themselves but also to the others in the society that they should be protected.

In contrast to the characteristics of Japanese culture, Sweden is not identified as an uncertainty-avoiding culture. Thus, Swedes appeared to be more easygoing and less stressed about the distortion of the existing values by Web advertising. In addition, scoring high in Individualism index may have helped to widen the difference between the two countries. Being a highly individualistic culture has a connotation of self-protection; Swedish culture somewhat supposes that people should be taking care of themselves (Hofstede, 1983). This may have contributed for the Swedish consumers to be less concerned about Value Corruption factor because they assume that individuals should be able to protect themselves. These contrasting values of the two cultures may have been reflected in the difference in the survey result of Value Corruption factor.

5.2 Factors That Are Similar between Sweden and Japan in the Survey Result

In four other factors among the seven belief factors, except Social Role, Value Corruption and Falsity factor, the survey result did not identify significant differences between Sweden and Japan. Although
the difference was not significant enough, the result of a few factors somewhat reflects what is said
in the literature on the consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising and cultural differences.

For example, some studies have shown that Western consumers tend to like informational
advertising more than consumers from Eastern culture do, generally speaking (Cui et al., 2013).
Although it is a small difference, which is not enough to accept the hypothesis 1, the result of the
survey illustrates that Swedish respondents value Product Information factor more than Japanese
respondents do, reflecting this cultural preference.

However, Japanese culture also may tend to value Product Information factor, due to its
characteristic as a highly uncertainty-avoiding culture. Because Japanese culture has characteristic of
seeking for the truth and higher anxiety for ambiguous things, Product Information factor may have
also resulted as an important factor to Japanese respondents as well. In fact, this Product Information
one major factor that tends to be important commonly among many countries around the world
(Ducoffe, 1996).

5.3 Cultural Differences and Attitudes toward Web Advertising

Although the result of the survey shows differences between Sweden and Japan in two factors among
the seven belief factors, there was only a slight difference observed in the overall attitude toward
Web advertising between the two countries. The rejection of hypothesis 8 shows this in the survey
result. The mean values of overall attitudes shows that both Swedish and Japanese consumers have
somewhat negative attitudes toward Web advertising. There have been some studies showing a
connection between cultural differences and differences in consumers’ attitude toward Web
advertising such as Zhang and Gelb (1996), Chau et al. (2002), and Cui et al. (2013). In the context
of this study, however, there has not been enough difference for the hypothesis to be approved as
significant. The difference in overall attitude toward Web advertising may have been more
significant if more of the seven belief factors have had major differences.
One of the possible reasons for the four of the seven belief factors being insignificantly different between Sweden and Japan is the two countries’ similarities. Although the two countries are said to differ to a great extent in a few dimensions of culture in Hofstede’s study (1983), the two countries turned out to have some similarities when other stand points of cultural studies are considered together, like it is in the case of Product Information factor. In reality, the differences were considerable to the factors on which the cultures of the two countries are almost contrasting in some dimensions, which are Social Role and Value Corruption factor. Another possible reason may lie in the sample selection. Since this study focuses mainly on university students of the two countries, the study does not represent other demographic populations. Focusing on this particular population may have made the result of the two countries more similar than it was supposed to be.

5.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the interpretations of the survey result. Comparing the result to Hodstede’s dimensions of culture and other literature on culture, the differences and similarities observed in the seven belief factors and the result of overall attitudes toward Web advertising were analyzed. The main findings of the chapter were that there were a few factors that were notably different between Sweden and Japan in line with the significant cultural differences, and that attitudes toward Web advertising of both countries are somewhat negative.
6 Conclusion and Theoretical and Managerial Implications

This final chapter of the thesis draws conclusions from the discussion and interpretation in the previous chapter. The discussion answers the research question of the study, and presentation of theoretical and managerial implications, and limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research are followed in this chapter.

6.1 Conclusion

This research has focused on explaining differences in attitudes toward Web advertising between Japanese and Swedish consumers. In order to achieve this, the following research question was formulated along with the eight hypotheses based on an intensive literature review: “What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of consumers who have grown up in Sweden and Japan?”

The collected data was applied to Pollay and Mittal’s seven beliefs factors model and then it was further analyzed in relation to the existing studies on dimensions of cultures. As a result, there was no evidence to prove the differences in overall attitudes toward Web advertising between Swedish and Japanese consumers. Moreover, the research did not show any explicit differences in four factors: product information factor, hedonic factor, good for the economy factor, and materialism factor. However, in turn, as hypothesis 3 and hypothesis 7 were accepted, the research clearly showed some distinctive differences between Swedish and Japanese consumers in social role and image factor and value corruption factor. As explained before, these belief-factors would take a part in forming consumers’ attitudes toward Web advertising. In this case differences in those two factors were not influential enough to cause clear differences between Swedish and Japanese respondents’ overall attitudes toward Web advertising. However, the result still indicates that Swedish and Japanese consumers perceive Web advertising somewhat differently and they expect different things from Web advertising.
6.2 Theoretical and Managerial Implications

There are several models that attempt to measure consumers’ beliefs and attitudes toward Web advertising. Though the model used for this research, Pollay and Mittal’s seven-factor model, has been widely used so far, this is not the case in the context of cultural studies, along with the fact that there has not been many cross-cultural studies done. However, this research revealed a possibility that Pollay and Mittal’s seven-factor model can be applicable to a cross-cultural study. Consequently, this research approves the possibility that duplication of this research within other contexts, such as other countries or even culturally different regions within a country, can be made with possible modifications. Possible modifications will be further discussed in the later section.

Additionally, the research result highlighted the impacts that culture has on consumers and in turn on businesses, in regard to Web advertising. In the attempt to analyze this matter with the presented seven-factor model, Hofstede’s research (1983) seemed to be still credible in the case of Sweden and Japan, as could be seen in the analysis section. This fact implies that his research can be applied to consumers in other countries as well, when trying to investigate their attitudes toward Web advertising particularly with the seven-factor model.

Turning to more practical aspects of the findings, the research results show that there is a certain degree of need for modifying advertising, when it comes to the case of Sweden and Japan. For instance, since clear differences were found in social role and image factor and value corruption factor in this case, managers can specifically pay attention to these factors and modify their Web advertising when their Web advertising is transferred to Japan from Sweden, and vice versa. In addition, the findings also can be beneficial for firms that conduct their business only in Sweden or Japan. By looking at data for each country, managers will be able to know things that Swedish and Japanese consumers desire to get and avoid from Web advertising, and then they will be able to modify Web advertising to match to targeted consumers needs. Finally, the results would likely to
vary if other countries were to be investigated. Therefore, it is recommended that managers conduct a similar research on targeted areas before they start Web advertising in a new area.

6.3 Limitations

This research is limited by its scope, mainly resulting from limited time and funds for the research. Especially, the total amount of data collected both from Japan and Sweden, 275 respondents, is somewhat smaller than the total amount of data collected in the previous studies in the similar field. Further, because of the reason mentioned before in chapter three, the questionnaires used were mainly aiming for college students in Japan and Sweden. Consequently, other age groups and demographically different groups were not fully covered in this research. Even though the authors had carefully conducted the sampling selection in the attempt to lead the most representative samplings for the entire populations of Swedish and Japanese consumers, the result could have improved if the total number of respondent was increased. Thus, when comparing the data and result of this research with the ones from previous studies, some attentions should be paid before doing so.

6.4 Suggestions for Future Research

Concerning the given limitations, the authors would like to recommend that future research should include a larger sample size for the survey. As mentioned above, as the total amount of respondents rises, the result may look different and it will possibly depict a more accurate picture of a population in which samples have been selected from. Moreover, future research should also take the respondents’ demographic characteristics into consideration. In the case of cross-cultural studies, extended investigation on respondents’ demographic characteristics such as their educational level, income, occupation, age, or gender may uncover another aspect on this matter.

As another suggestion, there may be a need for revising some of the questionnaire questions. In this research, the data analysis showed the questions concerning the falsity factor were not fully...
understood by some of the respondents as described before. Although wording and phrasing of questions have been modified to some degree since those questions were formulated, the questions used in this research and some of the previous studies were still highly dependent on the original questionnaire questions created by Pollay and Mittal (1993). Considering the rapidly changing marketing technologies and business environment, relatively obsolete questions can be one of possible explanations for this problem. However, there is no evidence to prove this idea yet, so it is also recommended that researchers should look into this concern from different perspectives before conducting any future research. To do so, researchers may be able to start with qualitative research on this matter. In this way, they might find another factor that can possibly replace the falsity factor or they could simply make changes to Pollay and Mittal’s original model in order to measure consumers’ beliefs and attitudes toward Web advertising more accurately with more understandable questions. Further, a series of pretests of the questionnaire questions in other contexts is also recommended. By doing so, researchers can assure the reliability of questions and then make sure if the model is really applicable to other contexts.

6.5 Chapter Summary

The answer to the research question has been presented in the discussion of general conclusions of the research. Theoretical and managerial implications of the study have also been addressed in this chapter, following the general conclusion drawn early in this chapter. After the discussion on limitations of the study, suggestions are made to future research in this field of study.
What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?

**Bibliography**


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What are the differences in the attitudes toward Web advertising of Swedish and Japanese consumers?


Appendix

(A) The Empirical Data for Sweden and Japan from Hofstede’s study (1983)

The table blow shows scores of the indexes of the two countries in the Hofstede’s study. The table shows the data of Sweden and Japan in Hofstede’s study (1983) among 48 other countries and 3 regions. Each of the indexes ranges as follows; Power Distance Index from 11 to 104, Uncertainty Avoidance Index from 8 to 112, Individualism Index from 6 to 91, and Masculinity Index from 5 to 95 (Hofstede, 1983).

Table 1: Index Values and Ranks of Sweden and Japan on Four Cultural Dimensions (Hofstede, 1983, p.52)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index Values (Rank)</th>
<th>Sweden</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power Distance (PDI)</td>
<td>31 (6-7)</td>
<td>54 (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)</td>
<td>29 (4-5)</td>
<td>92 (44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism (IDV)</td>
<td>71 (40-41)</td>
<td>46 (28-29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculinity (MAS)</td>
<td>5 (1)</td>
<td>95 (50)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(B) Questionnaire (In Swedish)

En Enkätundersökning om Konsumenters Attityder till Webbaserad Reklam

Vi är studenter vid Linnéuniversitetet i Växjö, som just nu skriver vår kandidatuppsats i marknadsföring. Vi undersöker attityder till webbaserad reklam hos medborgare från olika länder, genom att titta på de faktorer som bidrar till attityder till sådan reklam.
Insamlad data från denna undersökning kommer endast att användas inom ramen för vår studie och alla svarande garanteras anonymitet. Undersökningen består av 29 frågor och tar ungefär 5 minuter att besvara.

Tack för din medverkan!

Om du har några frågor om undersökningen, vänligen kontakta oss via e-post:

  Sachi Komatsu: sk222jb@student.lnu.se
  Takuma Tsuji: tt222cb@student.lnu.se

1. Internet är en värdefull källa till information.
2. Webbaserad reklam är en värdefull källa till information om erbjudanden.
3. Webbaserad reklam är en möjlighet för mig att avgöra vilka produkter som har de egenskaper som jag efterfrågar.
4. Webbaserad reklam håller mig uppdaterad om erbjudanden på marknaden.
5. Jag uppskattar Webbaserad reklam.
6. Generellt sett är Webbaserad reklam till och med roligare än själva web sedan jag besöker.
7. Generellt sett är viss Webbaserad reklam mer estetisk än andra typer av reklam.
8. Genom Webbaserad reklam håller jag mig uppdaterad vad gäller mode.
9. Webbaserad reklam antyder vilka produkter som är associerade med status (exempel: en bil från Mercedes-Benz associeras med en föreställning om att vara rik)
10. Webbaserad reklam informerar mig om vad människor lika mig köper och använder.
11. Webbaserad reklam hjälper mig avgöra vilka produkter som reflekterar vilken typ av person jag är.
13. Webbaserad reklam minskar den tid jag spenderar på att söka efter produkter.
14. Det har funnits tillfällen när jag har köpt någonting, på grund av Webbaserad reklam, utan att jag egentligen hade tänkt köpa något.
15. Webbaserad reklam gör att jag köper saker jag egentligen inte behöver.


17. Webbaserad reklam får människor att köpa saker de inte har råd med, bara för att kunna visa upp.

18. Generellt sett kan man lite mer på produkter marknadsförda på internet, än produkter som inte marknadsförs på internet.

19. Webbaserad reklam gör mig osäker på om jag verkligen köpt den bästa produkten.

20. Viss Webbaserad reklam verkar vara osann.


22. Generellt sett tror jag att barn bör undvika att titta på Webbaserad reklam.

23. Webbreklam idag innehåller alltför många sexuella anspielningar.

24. Överlag betraktar jag Webbaserad reklam som bra.

25. Överlag uppskattar jag Webbaserad reklam.


27. I vilket land har du växt upp

   - Sverige
   - Japan


29. Hur många timmar spenderar i snitt du online varje dag?

   - Mindre än en time
   - 1 till 2 timmar
   - 2 till 3 timmar
   - 3 till 4 timmar
   - 4 till 5 timmar
   - 5 till 6 timmar
消費者のインターネット広告に対する意識調査

私たちはスウェーデン、国立リンネ大学に所属する学生で、現在、マーケティングの分野で学士論文を執筆しています。私たちは異なる国の消費者のインターネット広告に対する意見について研究しており、このアンケートを通して、その意見を構成する要因を調査しています。このアンケートから得られた情報は研究以外の目的以外で使用されることなく、全ての回答は匿名のまま利用されます。このアンケートは日本人、スウェーデン人を対象とし、設問数は29です。アンケートは約5分程度で終わります。

ご協力宜しくお願いします。
もしこのアンケートや研究に対し何か質問がある場合には以下の連絡先までご連絡ください。

小松 紗智：sk222jb@student.lnu.se
辻 拓馬：tt222cd@student.lnu.se

1. インターネットは重要な情報源である。
2. インターネット広告は販売されている商品を知るための重要な情報源である。
3. インターネット広告を通じ、私の求める特徴をもった商品を的確に探すことができる。
4. インターネット広告を通じ、どのような商品が市場にあるのか随時知る事ができる。
5. 私はインターネット広告を見る事を楽しんでいる。
6. 一般的に、いくつかのインターネット広告はその広告を掲載しているウェブサイトよりも面白いことがある。
7. 一般的に、いくつかのインターネット広告はテレビコマーシャルや新聞などの広告よりも美的だと感じることがある。
8. インターネット広告を通じ、現在の流行を知る事がある。
9. インターネット広告を通じ、どの商品がステータスと関連しているのか知る事が出来る。（例：ベンツ→高収入）
10. インターネット広告を通じ、自分と似たような人々がどのような商品を購入し、利用しているのか知る事が出来る。
11. インターネット広告を通じ、どのような商品が自分という人間をうまく反映するのか知る事が出来る。
12. インターネット広告は私たちの生活水準を向上させる手段である。
13. インターネット広告は商品を探す時間を短縮できる。
14. もともと購入意欲が無かったにもかかわらず、インターネット広告の影響で商品を購入したことがある。
15. インターネット広告は私たちに不必要な物を買わせる。
16. インターネット広告は物質主義（物質や金銭の充実を優先すること）を作り出して stratégies.
17. インターネット広告は人々に本来なら購入できないような高価な商品を他人に見せびらかすために購入させる。
18. 一般的に、テレビコマーシャルや新聞広告に掲載されている他の商品よりも、インターネット広告で掲載されている商品の方が信頼できる。
19. インターネット広告をみると、本当に自分が購入したものが最良であったか不安になる。いくつかのインターネット広告には嘘の内容が含まれていると感じられる。
20. いくつかのインターネット広告には嘘の内容が含まれていると感じる。
21. インターネット広告は私たちの伝統的な価値観を歪めてしまう可能性がある。
22. 一般的に、子ども達はネット広告をあまり見ないようにすべきだ。
23. インターネット広告には性的表現が含まれていることが多い。
24. 総合的にみて私はインターネット広告を良いものであると思う。
25. 一般的に、私はインターネット広告が好きである。
26. インターネット広告は私たちの生活に欠かせない。
27. あなたはどちらの国で育ちましたか？
   - スウェーデン
   - 日本

28. あなたの年齢を教えてください。 __歳
29. 平均的に一日何時間インターネットを使いますか？
   - 1時間以下
   - 1-2時間
   - 2-3時間
   - 3-4時間
   - 4-5時間
   - 5-6時間
   - 6-7時間
   - 7時間以上
Questionnaire (In English/Original Draft before Translations)

A Survey on Consumers’ Attitudes toward Web Advertising

We are students at Linnaeus University in Sweden, who are currently writing our bachelor thesis in marketing. We are doing research on attitudes toward Web advertising of consumers from different countries, by looking at factors that forms attitudes towards Web advertising.

The data collected through this survey will be used only for a pure academic purpose, and all the respondents will stay anonymous. There are 29 questions in this survey, and it takes about 5 minutes to complete the survey.

Thank you very much in advance for your collaboration. Your help is greatly appreciated.

If you had any questions regarding this survey, you can contact the authors by email:

Sachi Komatsu: sk222jb@student.lnu.se
Takuma Tsuji: tt222cb@student.lnu.se

1. The internet is a valuable source of information.
2. Web advertising is a valuable source of information about offers.
3. Web advertising enables me to spot which products have the features I am looking for.
4. Web advertising helps me keep up-to-date with offerings available in the market place.
5. I enjoy watching Web advertising.
6. In general, some Web advertising is even more enjoyable than the websites themselves.
7. In general, some Web advertising is more aesthetic than other types of advertising.
8. From Web advertising, I learn what is in fashion.
9. Web advertising tells me which products are associated with statuses. (For example, a car from Mercedes-Benz is associated with an image of being rich.
10. Web advertising tells me what people like me are buying and using.
11. Web advertising helps me know which products will reflect the sort of person I am.
12. Web advertising helps people to improve their standard of living by being as a useful tool for them.
13. Web advertising reduces the amount of time I spend for searching products.
14. There have been times when I have bought something because of Web advertising without initial purchase attention.
15. Web advertising makes you buy things you don't really need.
16. Web advertising is creating a materialistic society – interested in buying and owing things.
17. Web advertising makes people buy unaffordable products just to show off.
18. In general, one can put more trust in products advertised on the Web than in those not advertised on the Web.
19. Web advertising makes me unsure if I have bought the best product.
20. Some Web advertising seems to be untrue.
21. I think Web advertising has a potential to distort our traditional values.
22. In general, I think children should avoid watching Web advertising.
23. There are too many sexual appeals in Web advertising today.
24. Overall, you, as an Internet user, consider Web advertising as a good thing.
25. Overall, you like Web advertising.
26. I consider Web advertising essential.
27. Country where you have grown up
   - Sweden
   - Japan
28. Your age ( __ years old)
29. Amount of time you spend online per day on average
   - Less than an hour
   - 1 - 2 hours
   - 2 - 3 hours
   - 3 - 4 hours
   - 4 - 5 hours
   - 5 - 6 hours
   - 6 - 7 hours
   - More than 7 hours

(E) Data Coding

Table 4: Data Coding

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<td>3</td>
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### Marketing Strategy to EtoE

Group 4 | Tutor Åsa Devine
Sachi Komatsu | Takuma Tsuji

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<td>26</td>
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<td>0=Sweden, 1=Japan</td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>TIME</td>
<td>0=Less than an hour, 1=1-2 hours, 2=2-3 hours, 3=3-4 hours, 4=4-5 hours, 5=5-6 hours, 6=6-7 hours, 7=More than 7 hours</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(F) **Descriptive Statistics**

The respondents were in total 275 people, 115 from Sweden and 160 from Japan (See the table...
below for the full result of the survey). The average age for Japanese respondents is younger than one for Swedish respondents, but the age difference among samples is quite similar between the two countries as the value of standard deviation show. In addition, the result of survey indicates that Swedish respondents spend longer time using the Internet per day than Japanese respondents do, generally speaking. However, the amount of time spent on the Internet somewhat varies among the Swedish respondents, looking at value of standard deviation.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics

PRODINFO=product information, HDNC=hedonic, SOCROLE=social role, GOODECON=good for economy, MAT=materialism, FALS=falsity, VALCRP=value corruption, and ATTD=attitude

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<td>Mean</td>
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