

SUBCULTURE PERSPECTIVES OF MONEY AND  
HUMOROUS ADVERTISING APPEAL

By

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This document was created and dedicated to Cuban and Mexican Americans, as well as everyone else in the world who have been victims of marketing and have fallen prey to the minority rich vacuum. Hopefully, by reading and implementing the concepts in this research, you can plan and prepare for a future that will reap you far more benefits than living in the present.

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Abstract of Thesis Presented to the Graduate School  
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DIFFERENT SUBCULTURE PERSPECTIVE OF MONEY AND  
HUMOROUS ADVERTISING APPEAL

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Money is an object that is based on trust; it has served as a medium of exchange for centuries, and was derived from the pre-capitalistic formations of barter. Economically, money has been seen as objective and utilitarian, a commodity that is ordinary, mundane, impersonal, neutral, and is comprised of quantitative meaning. However, many social scientists see money as a subjective unit, an object where different individuals attach an affective and emotional meaning to it.

This research tapped into the subjective components of money from a Hispanic intra-subculture perspective due to the high demand from marketers to target financial products towards them, and the vast complexities that lie between these groups in terms of attitudes and behaviors. Unfortunately, a major consensus from empirical evidence has been conducted illustrating how Hispanics are less likely to plan and prepare for their future (i.e. they are present oriented) than their Anglo-American counterparts. Yet, the

majority of research has only focused on Mexican Americans, as opposed to other Hispanic subcultures.

As a result, this research investigated differences in attitudinal and cognitive abilities for both Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans in planning and preparing for their future, as well as humorous advertising appeals. A major finding from this research has shown that high-acculturated Cuban Americans are more likely to plan and prepare for their future than high-acculturated Mexican Americans; also, Cuban Americans (both high and low acculturated) prefer non-humorous financial advertisements while Mexican Americans (high and low acculturated) prefer humorous financial advertisements.

Therefore, utilizing non-humorous financial advertising appeals with Cuban Americans and humorous financial advertising appeals with Mexican Americans can help marketer's further tap into these Hispanic niche markets by creating and customizing ads towards their preferences, while indirectly helping their economic status in our financial market place.

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Money, money, money! The term money is what many people think about from the moment they wake up to the moment they die. Many have mass migrated from developing countries to developed countries in search for the formula of economic success (Furnham and Bochner 1996). Economically, money has been seen to be very objective and utilitarian: a commodity that is ordinary, mundane, impersonal, neutral, and has only a quantitative meaning (Mitchell and Mickel 1999). Yet, many social scientists view money as being emotionally charged and having meaning attached to it.

For example, many people feel that money gives them a sense of power, prestige, security, and drive while defining their social income status of say wealth and/or poverty. For instance, social psychologist Krueger stated, “Money is probably the most emotionally meaningful object in contemporary life: only food, and sex are its close competitors as common carriers of such strong and diverse feelings, significance, and strivings” (Krueger 1986, pg. 3).

To this date, research has been conducted in examining money and it’s associations with “sensitivity”, “emotional stability”, “compulsive behavior”, “income”, “education”, “age”, and more importantly ethnic background. For example, past research has indicated that Hispanics are more present oriented (are less likely to plan and prepare for the future in terms of finances) than their Anglo-American counterparts (Medina et al. 1996). Also, Hispanic consumers attach greater levels of importance to brand names of

products than would their Anglo counterparts, and Hispanic consumers have a higher propensity to be concerned with social status and/or prestige derived products than Anglo consumers (Barbara et al. 1999). Hispanics are high brand status oriented, will spend more money on high quality consumer products, and do not save for the future. Unfortunately, in light of these facts, Hispanics in parallel are much more likely to be unemployed, live in poverty, and have a lower annual median income than non-Hispanic Whites (U.S. Bureau of the Census 2002a).

Despite these striking facts, researchers have only taken into consideration Mexican American's and not other subcultures of the Hispanic population, especially when there are striking differences among them. For example, out of the Hispanic population, Cuban Americans are considered the most similar to Anglo-Americans, and are considered economically the most successful group compared to any other Hispanic subculture such as Mexican Americans (Tienda 1989, Angel and Worobey 1991). David Weiss, president of Packaged Facts released a report on the Hispanic market, which stated: "The group represents a mix of cultures, physical types, racial backgrounds and social aspirations. The market's continuing inability to find a way to target these consumers suggests a general inability to identify the needs of the emerging Hispanic market." (Radice 1997, pg. 2).

As a result of these variances, an investigation of money attitude between Hispanic subgroups was needed to further the literature on money and ethnic background. Moreover, even though Hispanics as a group have lower annual medium incomes than non-Hispanics Whites, their population and purchasing power are increasing

exponentially, creating demand for uncovering attitudinal and cognitive behaviors with regards towards financial products between the different subculture groups.

Research has indicated that many financial institutions (e.g. banks and discount brokerage firms) have come to see Hispanics as a profitable market but are facing adversity in terms of marketing towards them (Joelson 2001, Reilly 2001, Wilson 1994, and Negroni and Neill 2002). According to Manny Ruiz, C.E.O. of Hispanic PR Wire Inc, “Latinos that do banking in the United States continue to harbor fears of financial institutions because in their homeland, putting money in a bank is playing ‘Russian roulette,’ due to major currency devaluation” (Joelson 2001, pg. 3).

Unfortunately, most of the literature on money and ethnic background deals with Mexican Americans, but this research focuses on not only Mexican Americans but Cuban Americans due to their vast differences in socioeconomic status and entry into the United States. For example, the Cuban experience in the United States has been very favorable (unlike Mexican Americans) which allowed them to enter the economic mainstream rather quickly.

Historically, Cuba was first acquired by the United States as a consequence of the Spanish-American War in 1898. During this time, cigar manufacturing brought many Cuban businessmen to Key West, Miami, and Tampa, Florida (Llanes 1982, Moore and Pachon 1985). For example, approximately 18,000 to 19,000 Cubans were living in the United States during the 1930’s, which soon jumped to 79,000 by the 1960s. The causation of such a rapid influx to the United States was due to Fidel Castro and his regime. Cuban Americans came to the United States to escape the political situation. Many of them were wealthy businessmen, government officials, managers, professionals,

and capitalist who left Cuba to escape Fidel Castro's communist views; the majority of them that came over crowded into only one city, which was Miami, Florida (Moore and Pachon 1985).

Once arriving to the United States, the Anglo Americans welcomed them, sympathized for them, and supported the brave refugees for taking a daring journey to escape Castro's political powers. In fact, because of their similarities between race (white/fair skinned), and class (entrepreneurs, wealthy), the United States depicted the movement as a "perfect" immigration (Llanes 1982). As a result, they formed a cohesive "ethnic enclave" which allowed Cubans to become very successful financially because they kept their language and culture intact. For example, by having Spanish as a first language in Miami, Cuban Americans prospered by conducting business among themselves with the lack of fluency in English. Yet, a lack of fluency in English for Mexican Americans has been considered a major socioeconomic handicap (Angel and Worobey 1991).

On the contrary, the Mexican American immigration experience has been very different than that of Cuban Americans. In 1848, when the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed ending the war between Mexico and the United States for territorial rights of Texas, the United States adopted Mexican Americans by annexing Texas and "conquering" the Mexican Americans (Blauner 1977). Consequently, these Mexican Americans lost contact with their parent country (Mexico) and lost their land.

Soon the Southwest was open for Anglo settlement, which took control of the land and brought about the destruction of the social lives of the Mexican residents via oppression (Blauner 1977). Anglo Americans used Mexican Americans for cheap labor

in agriculture, mining, and the railroad industry, which enhanced racism (largely due to their dark skin, unlike Cuban Americans). Unfortunately, with the lack of power to challenge the Anglo rulers in their guerilla tactics, Mexican Americans social mobility became blocked which led to a deterioration of their social position (Bean and Tienda 1985).

Therefore, since some money attitude differences between Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans may exist, the second part of this research sought to compare these differences with humor preferences. For example, since humor has been known for calling attention to an advertisement and brand, increasing comprehension to an ad, and contributing to the positive attitudes towards an ad in hopes of selling products for the company/client (Codruta and Tom 2001), it was the tenant of this research to give aid to marketers a humor audience perspective for both Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans.

Already throughout the humor literature, empirical evidence claims that different audience characteristics may confound the effects of humor such as age, education, gender, and involvement with the message issue (Sternthal and Craig 1973). As a result, other successors have investigated this issue and found that humor does in fact relate to many variables such as sex, race, origin, personality, and/or social attitudes of the audience (Madden and Weinberger 1982)

Research suggests that humorous ads are best suited to a target audience composed of better educated younger males (Madden and Weinberger 1984), humor works better for men than women (Madden and Weinberger 1982), humor is more effective for white

subjects than black ones (Shama and Coughlin 1979), and humor was found more favorable to Western Israeli Jews than Eastern Israeli Jews (Weller et al 1976).

Nevertheless, even though people of different cultural backgrounds respond to humor differently and humor is considered a “universal human process exhibited by people of all cultures throughout recorded history,” (Alden et al. 1933) there has been a lack of research done in examining humor between the Hispanic subcultures. As a result, this research aids the humor literature by examining humor preferences between both Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans as well as giving marketers an aid to target these niche markets for financial products.

Accordingly, this research had two significant roles. The first goal was to further the literature on both the money attitude and the humor research from a Hispanic intra-cultural approach. The second role was to provide marketers an aid to target Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans more effectively and efficiently by providing them insights on the different subculture humor preferences for financial products. As a result, this study will benefit consumers and marketers by understanding the different Hispanic subculture attitudes towards saving money and planning for their future, while measuring this attitude with a humorous and non-humorous appeal to see which appeal is most effective and draws most favorable attitudes. Therefore, not only will marketers of financial products better understand these two fast growing subculture Hispanic groups (and which type of ad appeal is most effective), but these groups themselves will see the importance in saving money and thinking for the long-term as opposed for the short-term.

As a result, Chapter 2 which is the literature review, provides a summary of current research in advertising, included but not limited to money attitudes, ethnicity, and humor.

Chapter 3 on methodology explains the research design and rationale of the experimental procedures. Chapter 4 provides an analysis of the data, and finally Chapter 5 discusses the conclusions, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

## CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

### **Money**

#### **Cognitive and Affective Significance**

Money is an object where its initial formations have derived from the concept and idea of barter. Money serves as a medium of exchange such as acquiring goods and services, and is used as a unit of account such as measuring the “cheapness or dearness” of goods by using money (Mitchell and Mickel 1999). Money also serves many other functions such as savings, storing of value (*i.e.* it is not perishable- changing value over time), and used as a credit for standard of deferred payment such as when buying and selling takes place before a commodity goes on to the open market (Furnham and Argyle 1998).

Money’s functionality derives from circulation throughout our economy. For example, individuals in our society earn money in exchange for producing goods and services. Next, the money they earn (a.k.a. wages, salaries) is spent on consuming the goods produced such as food, shelter, and entertainment. Some individuals may continue this cycle of earning and spending presently (earn-spend), while others invest their money for future prosperity (earn-invest-spend). Finally the government controls money by limiting the supply of it, in order to prevent both depression and inflation (Furnham and Argyle 1998).

While this all may be true, the underlying dimensions of money is based on trust; if our country suddenly believes that “cards” will be the next medium of exchange instead

of this paper bill called money, then money will dissipate faster than unchased dreams. This happens because our country has departed from the gold standard, and the amount of cash exceeds the amount of gold, which averts to a cash turnover causing an erosion of money (Kiyosaki and Sharon 2000). Money from an economic standpoint has been seen to be very objective and utilitarian: a commodity that is ordinary, mundane, impersonal, neutral, and has only a quantitative meaning (Mitchell and Mickel 1999). Economists note that money may be analyzed according to substance: copper, paper, gold, or silver and has no intrinsic value other than a medium of exchange. They also believe that people want goods and services that provide satisfaction and that money is the measure of how much of these goods and services can be afforded.

On the other hand, social scientists believe money is emotionally charged and has meaning attached to it. For example, people have different views about money that stem from their age, social case, wealth, and political beliefs. Furnham and Argyle (1998) reviewed different studies on money and happiness and came to the conclusion that there exists an average correlation of .25 between life satisfaction and financial status. For example, in measuring income and the level of happiness and/or satisfaction, small positive correlations have occurred between .15 and .20.

Moreover, in a study conducted across 55 countries, money and happiness was found to have a positive correlation of .50. Furnham and Argyle (1998) also state that net wealth is a possible source of happiness and there exists a positive correlation between well-being and national economic growth. Therefore, even though there exists a small positive correlation, the satisfaction with most aspects of one's life is consistently and positively related to one's financial holdings. Money has also the ability of bringing out

the irrational in an individual by tapping into their core personality and releasing avarice, jealousy, resentment, and fear (Furnham and Argyle 1998). Many sociologists defend that money is defined in cultural norms and values where people perceive, value, and treat money differently. For example, sociologists contend that the market economy is a social institution, where individuals in this institution see money as good, valuable, important, and attractive, while others see it as shameful, evil, useless, and dishonest (Lane 1991, Tang 1992, Tang 1993, and Tang 1995). Money is also claimed to have symbolic components where money is seen as an achievement and recognition, status and respect, freedom and control, and power (Goldberg and Lewis 1978, Parsons 1967, Kirkcaldy and Furnham 1993, and Tang 1992).

Finally the behavioral component of money is seen as saving and/or investing. Many people save for security. Furnham and Argyle (1998) states: “Emotional security is represented by financial security and the relationship is believed to be linear-more money, more security. Money is an emotional life jacket, a security blanket, a method of starving off anxiety” (pg. 83). They also state that turning to money for security may be harmful because people tend to alienate themselves by thinking they are superior. As a consequence, this leads to an emotional wall, which causes fear of being hurt, rejected, deprived, and even a financial loss.

There have also been money types formed that state all people, conscious or not, fall into as a symbol of security. For example, there are the “compulsive savers” who save for their own reward. The “self-deniers” are savers who save a little and spend a lot on themselves; they even may spend a little money on others just to emphasize their martyrdom. The “compulsive bargain hunters” are people who retain money only until

there exists a perfect situation and then joyfully spend. Finally, the “fanatical collectors” are those who collect many material possessions and are reluctant to let go as a sense of security (Goldberg and Lewis 1978).

### **Money Attitude Scale (retention)**

In terms of measuring money, there are currently three categories of measurement in the money and individual-difference literature: peripheral (constructs that are similar to money scales like sensation-seeking and materialism), idiosyncratic (scales that have only been used once and have little reliability and validity like Thierry’s new meaning of pay), and finally well-developed measures which have been fully developed and used more frequently (Mitchell and Mickel 1999). Some examples of the well-developed measures are the “money ethics scale”, “money belief and behavioral scale”, “money importance scale”, and the “money attitude scale.”

The money ethics scale, developed by Tang (1992, 1993) was used for the ethical meanings people ascribe to money; the six factors that resulted from this scale are good, evil, achievement, respect, budget, and freedom. Next, the Money Belief and Behavioral Scale (MBBS) developed by Kirkcaldy and Furnham (1993) resulted in six factors which are obsession, power, retention, security, inadequacy, and effort/ability. Further, the third scale was the money importance scale developed by Mitchell et al. (1988) that showed factors of value importance of money, personal involvement with money, time spent thinking about financial affairs, knowledge of financial affairs, comfort in taking financial risks, skill in handling money, and money as a source of power and status.

Unfortunately, these aforementioned scales have been either inadequate for investing purposes or shown to have weak reliability such as the money belief and behavior scale (Bailey et al. 1994, and Furnham et al. 1996). As a result, the final scale,

the money attitude scale (29-item scale which records responses on a 5 point Likert type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree) developed by Yamauchi and Templer (1982), was the one used in this study because it shows several advantages towards its predecessors making it a reliable successor.

For example, the retention-time dimension has been shown to provide consistent reliability among Hispanic groups (Medina et al. 1996, and Roberts and Sepulveda 1999). Medina et al. (1996) recommended it for future research, stating that: “the external validity of the construct being measured by the scale across other ethnic and national groups remains to be demonstrated.” Yamauchi and Templer (1982) developed the Money Attitude Scale from three broad psychological content areas commented on by many prominent psychotherapists and personality theorists such as Freud, Ferencze, Klein, Abraham, Fenichel, Adler, Murray and McClelland.

From all their research, three major areas have developed involving money that the Western industrial society possesses such as greed, fame, and power. The three major content areas consist of security, retention, and power-prestige. Security concerned optimism-pessimism, confidence-insecurity, and comfort-dissatisfaction. Retention consisted of parsimony, hoarding, and obsessive personality traits, where power prestige comprised of status, importance, superiority, and acquisition. Yamauchi and Templer (1982) generated 62 items to reflect the 3 content domains which were then broken down to 34 items representing 5 factors after “scree” test and factor analysis were formed. Factor one was the “power- prestige factor”, where items that loaded high on this factor all pointed to the use of money to impress and influence others and as a symbol of success. The “time-retention factor” was the second factor where items that loaded

highly on this factor described behaviors aimed at the future that required planned preparation; so, people scoring high on this factor could be described as placing great value on the process of preparation as well as the goal of security in the future.

Factor three was the “distrust” factor where people scoring high on this factor appear to maintain hesitant, suspicious, and doubtful attitudes in regards towards money. Factor four was called the “quality” factor where people scoring highly on this factor believed in getting the best or paying the most to get the quality described. Finally, the last factor was the “anxiety” factor where people scoring high on this factor held a view that money is a source of anxiety as well as a source of protection from anxiety. From the five factors, factor four (quality) was not included because the authors believed it was too similar to the first factor-power/prestige and consequently the birth of the new 29 item Money Attitude Scale took place; in order to test validity, the 4 factors were hypothesized (correctly) to correlate with various psychometric instruments rationally predicted to measure similar theoretical constructs.

### **Cultural Money Attitudes**

Money as a concept is an extremely important subject towards different individuals whether emotionally, economically, or behaviorally. Many studies have been performed on consumer behavior such as price and quality, brand loyalty, propensity to shop, acculturation, and personality traits (Medina et al. 1996). For example, many personality traits have been investigated showing associations between money and sensitivity/emotional stability (Bailey and Gustafson 1991), income (Tang 1992), education (Furnham 1984), age (Bailey and Lown 1993), gender (Graham et al. 2002) and compulsive behavior (Hanley and Wilhelm 1992, and Roberts and Sepulveda 1999).

In terms of cultural differences with regards towards money, it has been shown throughout research that Anglo Americans are highly preoccupied with wealth (O'Guinnet al. 1986, and Penaloza 1994) while Hispanic Americans have a high propensity to shop, are brand loyal, consider price and quality, and are more present oriented. (Saegert and Hoover 1985, Saegert et al. 1985, Wilkes and Valencia 1985, Medina et al. 1996). For example, in a study on generic purchasing between different cultures, it was found that African Americans were more likely to purchase generic brands than Mexican Americans (Wilkes and Valencia 1985).

Money has been found to influence more people that are in lower income groups and as a result they are more likely to use money for power. In addition, females are found to be more conservative, risk averse, and security conscious than males. Also, older adults (65yrs +) have been found to be more satisfied with their financial resources than younger and middle-aged adults, while income, work ethic, political, and religious values have a strong influence on how people perceive money. Furnham and Argyle (1988) also stated that there has been relatively little research in examining cultural background (ethnic groups) variables and money attitudes, and that the role of individual differences and personality traits is needed in the study of money attitudes and behavior.

The most relevant research in this area is a cross-cultural study conducted by Medina et al. (1996), that compared attitude towards money of Mexican and Anglo-American consumers (student samples) via the money attitude scale developed by Yamauchi and Templer (1982). The Money Attitude Scale was used because it was an original attempt to measure attitudes towards money not derived from any other scale, it was developed in a more ethnically diversified region of the United States, and the scale

has shown valid consistency in its results unlike other money scales (e.g. Money Beliefs and Behaviors Scale). The scale measured 4 dimensions: power/prestige, retention/time, distrust/anxiety, and quality.

The power-prestige dimension involved status seeking, competitiveness, external recognition, and acquisition of material good. Next, the retention-time dimension measured behaviors and attitudes, which require planning and preparing for the future. The distrust/anxiety dimension dealt with a suspicious nature towards the price of goods/services and a lack of faith in the ability to make efficient purchase decisions. Finally, the quality dimension pertained to purchasing a high quality product as a predominant behavior; for example, those that score high on this dimension believe in buying the best and paying more to get high quality brands.

Medina et al. (1996) formulated 4 cross-cultural hypotheses: compared with Anglo Americans, Mexican Americans will have lower Power-Prestige and Retention -Time, but higher Distrust-Anxiety and Quality scores; the results confirmed only hypothesis two (retention/time dimension). As a result, the authors came to the conclusion that Mexican Americans were less likely to engage in behaviors involving medium to long-term personal saving, investing, and speculating with money at the expense of present consumption.

Moreover the authors came to the conclusion that Mexican Americans strayed away from any offers involving products/services that required planning and long-term consumption; some services affected were listed as bank saving accounts, saving bonds for children's education, investment options, and retirement plans. In addition, the authors suggested that Mexican Americans tended to be heavier users of credit cards and

personal loans than Anglo Americans because the immediate (perceived) benefits of consumption took precedence over long-term planning.

In a survey illustrating a relationship between “traditional” values and the income of Mexican Americans, the poor Mexicans in all three cities (Los Angeles, San Antonio, Albuquerque) were content with whatever came their way rather than expecting too much from life (Moore and Pachon 1985). Even though they worried about the future, their main philosophy was to plan for the present; the authors stated that Mexicans were serene and calm people, who even though are “improvident” in planning for their future, the pleasure in life and living compensates fully (Moore and Pachon 1985).

In a survey conducted by Employee Benefit Research Institution (1999), only 48% of Hispanic Americans are saving for retirement compared with 77% of White Americans (Anderson 2000). In a comparison to African Americans, the insurer All State Corporation stated that 17% of Hispanics have never saved for retirement compared to 70% of Blacks who did”. (Porter and Kranhold 2003). Finally in a poll of attitudes and behaviors of different culture groups (i.e. African, Asian, Jewish, Italian, and Arab Americans) Hispanic Americans were the least likely to own a savings account and most likely to have a credit card further illustrating the contention of present-oriented thinking (Zogby 2001).

This is extremely detrimental in terms of saving and preparing for the future because it has been shown to cause depression, anxiety, frustration, and low self-esteem (Desarbo and Edwards 1996). This is crucial because the more Mexican Americans compulsively spend, the less money they have towards investing or purchasing “assets,” (Kiyosaki and Sharon 2000). This supports previous research that indicates Hispanics

have present-oriented attitudes and are more flexible toward time than Anglo-Americans; Hispanics therefore may be less willing to delay gratification or to plan for future acquisitions (Holtzman et al.1975, Hall 1983, and Marin 1987).

Yet, even though there has been homogenous consensus in Hispanics lack of planning and preparation for their future, research has failed to study more than just one sub culture of this Hispanic group and thus much of the current research can only be inferred to Mexican Americans and not the larger Hispanic population especially when there exists much variability between them. (Holtzman et al. 1975, Medina et al. 1996)

Research has shown that different sub cultures of Hispanics have different values and perceive information differently. For example, Andrew Nuttney, Research Director for the Research and Advisory Group in New York, recommended plotting different tactics for different geographic Hispanic markets such as micromarketing to specific Hispanic populations whose characteristics vary according to national origin, acculturation, and location in the U.S. (Byrne and Marx 2003). In addition, David Weiss, President of Package Facts states: “In many ways, Hispanics are typical of the future of the United States...The group represents a mix of cultures, physical types, racial backgrounds, and social aspirations,” (Radice 1997, pg. 2).

Jake Byrne, Collections Director for Sears in Los Angeles, reported that each culture has its own accents and opinions. Mexican and Central American employees reported Cuban customers treated them condescendingly, saying ‘I don’t speak Mexican,’ for example after a customer service call (Byrne and Marx 2003). Laura Starita, a Financial Services Technology Analyst with Gartner Group Inc., says it’s better to target than treat all Hispanics as one big market (Joyce 2000). Finally, Holland and Gentry

(1999) state that “segmenting schemes are being developed that recognize that the Hispanic market, for example, is not a single entity, but rather a preliminary categorization that warrants further analysis of variables such as values, lifestyles, and country of origin”(pg. 66).

Nevertheless, along with their variances, many current financial firms still see this market as a great potential: “Marketing products such as credit cards and home mortgages to Hispanics has been a hot trend over the past several years because U.S. financial institutions are facing near-saturation levels in the general consumer markets” (Byrne and Marx 2003). According to Spectrum Group, 401K plan providers are seeking to market to small and midsize businesses because of saturation-97% of companies with more than 1000 employees already have 401Ks; similarly well over 70% of the Hispanic population works for small businesses (Anderson 2000).

## **Ethnicity**

### **Hispanic Population**

According to the United States Bureau of the Census (2000), the projected Hispanic population will double in size from 26.9 million in 1995 to 50.7 million by the year 2020 (Kyriakos 1999). In addition, according to Tina Kyriakos, “reports suggest that there are about 6.8 million undocumented Hispanics that would edge numbers close to \$40 million, making them the most attractive of all multiethnic markets.” (pg. 1) Moreover, according to Strategic Research Corporation, Hispanic’s purchasing power is estimated at about \$273 billion dollars; as a result their purchasing power represents about 10%of the U.S. consumer market potential (Tharp 2001).

This group is potentially a very lucrative group to understand and market to, since their rise in purchasing power and growth rate. For illustration, within the next 10 years,

Hispanics will become the largest ethnic group in the United States, surpassing African-Americans (Radice 1997). Already, geographically Cuban Americans dominate the Latinos of southern Florida (approximately 80%) and Mexican Americans dominate the Latinos of Los Angeles (approximately 70%).

According to market research done by HISPANIC broadcasting corp., the top 3 Hispanic markets are Los Angeles, New York City, and Miami-Ft. Lauderdale.

According to this special report on multicultural media, there are about 6.2 million Hispanics living in the L.A. area, the majority being Mexicans with \$70 billion dollars worth of buying power. Similarly, there are 1.4 million Hispanics living in the Miami-Ft. Lauderdale area, the majority being Cubans with an estimated buying power close to \$22.6 billion (Rubi 2000). In addition, these demographic numbers have been reported in being static because of recent immigration and high birth rates among long time Hispanic residents (Kyriakos 1999).

As a result of these facts, many researchers have begun trying to uncover Hispanic attitudes and behaviors towards money and consumption. According the United States Bureau of the Census (2002a), Hispanics refers to people whose origin are Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, South or Central American, or other Hispanic/Latino, regardless of race. In addition, many times the terms Hispanic and/or Latino are seen as highly symbolic and used to distinguish from other Americans (Marin and Marin 1991, and Braus 1993). Nevertheless, the term originated from the political organization (i.e. U.S. Government) to classify people of Spanish speaking origins (Portes and MacLeod 1996).

Unfortunately, in determining Hispanic attitudes and behaviors, many researchers tend to define this group into one segment; however not all Hispanics are the same in

terms of culture or linguistic background (Tharp 2001). There are many variables that play a role in uncovering their attitudes and behaviors such as: socioeconomic status, physical appearances, countries of origin, age, time or generation in the United States, language spoken, acculturation into the U.S. mainstream culture, and educational background. Some common themes research depicts among Hispanics in the United States are the levels of culture change in mainstream America (i.e. acculturation).

For example, Hispanics can assimilate into mainstream America (i.e. their culture begins to mimic the Anglo American culture), Hispanics can gain Anglo culture traits without totally losing Hispanic culture traits (a.k.a. biculturalism), and Hispanics can adopt a hybrid culture composed of both Anglo and Hispanic traits (Moore and Pachon 1985). Mostly, the general consensus in research has shown that important dimensions for the Hispanic individual are language familiarity and usage, interaction with fellow Hispanics, ethnic loyalty and identity, cultural awareness, and generational proximity (Olmedo and Padilla 1978; Cuellar 1980).

For illustration, Hispanic members of established communities that assist newer immigrants in adjusting to U.S. lifestyle and work style, help perpetuate the concentration of immigrants in particular localities by country of origin, which affect behaviors and attitudes in that region (Tharp 2001). As a result, many research firms have begun segmenting Hispanic groups in terms of schemas that affect the Hispanic identity. For example, NuStats' Infosource have classified Hispanics by five stages (Arce 1994). Stage one, "New Comers," are those who have only spent part of their lives in the United States, less than one-fourth total. Stage two, "Transitionals," are those who have spent part of their lives in the United States, less than one-fourth total. Stage three,

“Transplants,” are those who have spent one-fourth to one-half of their lives in the United States. Stage four, “First Born,” are those who are born in the United States with one foreign parent. And finally stage five, “Deep Roots,” are those who are at least second generation Hispanic where both parents are from the United States.

Similarly, Bromley Aguilar and Associates created an Acculturation Index Group which is broken up into three indexes: AIG I (Spanish Dominant)-Hispanics who read, write, speak, and think Spanish; AIG II (Bilingual/Bicultural)-Hispanics are considered dominant in Spanish language and culture (first half) and Hispanics that are dominant in English language and culture (second half). Finally, AIG III (English dominant) where Hispanics are most comfortable in English (Bromley 1992).

### **Hispanic Cultural Differences**

More specific variances in culture and linguistic background deal with Hispanics being different to Mainstream America. For example, it has been noted that Hispanic Americans maintain a strong ethnic identity and commitment to their cultural traditions (Berman 1995, Hamstra 1996, and Radice 1997). In addition, Hispanics are known to be more interdependent, be more likely to be influenced by family members, and are more likely to conform than Anglo Americans (Bellinger and Valencia 1982, Penaloza and Gilly 1986, and Nicholls et al. 1997). To illustrate with an example between the different Mexican American and Anglo American culture, Diaz-Guerrero (1967) summarizes:

The historical traditional pattern of the United States will produce individuals who are active...they will be independent, individualistic, autonomous, oriented toward achievement, competitive, somewhat impulsive and aggressive, and rather tense and nervous. The Mexican historical-socio-cultural pattern, on the other hand, will produce individuals who are obedient, affiliative, interdependent, orderly, cooperative, not oriented toward achievement, and not self-initiated...Whenever members of the U.S. culture face stress, they seem to feel that the way to resolve the problem is to modify the environment...Mexicans seem to feel that the best way to resolve the problem is to modify oneself. (pg. 74)

Two strong characteristics of Hispanics supported throughout research are that they portray familistic and patriarchal views unlike the Anglo American views which are individualized. Valuing the family (familistic) relationships has been shown to take precedence over anything, even themselves as the individual. Family is referred to not just the immediate family but also an extended family of several generations including cousins. Next, patriarchal views have been common themes between Hispanic households where the authority is vested in the male head of the family. Many social scientists also refer to this as “machismo” where the male figure is considered to have much respect and can command respect at his leisure while women are to abide by their husbands (Moore and Pachon 1985).

Another major difference rests in demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. For example, according to the United States Bureau of the (2002a), Hispanic Americans are more geographically concentrated in the West and South and less likely to live in the Northeast and Midwest. More specifically, Hispanics are more likely to live inside central cities of metropolitan areas than non-Hispanic Whites. Also, Hispanics are more likely than non-Hispanic Whites to be under age 18 and two in five Hispanics are foreign born. In terms of family size, Hispanic households tend to be larger than non-Hispanic Whites. Researchers, Alaniz and Gilly (1986), believe that cultural values play a role in accepting the large family households such as Hispanic favoritisms towards large family houses, the Catholic Church prohibiting birth control, and the extended family tradition (Edington and Hays 1978, Guernica 1982).

Next, Hispanics are much more likely than non-Hispanic Whites to be unemployed and Hispanic workers earn less than non-Hispanic White workers. There were variances

evident between the Hispanic group and non Hispanic White group when researchers performed studies involving the consumption habits between the two groups. For example, research that has show lots of attention in the literature has been brand loyalty. Hispanics have been considered to be brand loyal and strongly influenced by product/brand status and prestige (Watanabe 1981, Hoyer and Deshpande 1982, Guernica 1982, Segal and Sosa 1983, Yankelovitch et al. 1984).

Alaniz and Gilly (1986) believe that differences in the Hispanic structure and composition affect their consumption patterns. They state that since Hispanic families are larger and younger than Anglo families, a higher consumption of product needs and wants occurs. For illustration, Guernica (1982) stated that since Hispanic families have a lower income and are of larger sizes, they spend between 4 and 10% more than the average non-Hispanic family on food and other consumer items. Also, since the Hispanics are younger than Anglo Americans, larger amounts of consumption have been allocated towards records, tapes, and soft drinks (O' Guinn and Meyer 1983).

In terms of purchasing high status items compared to Anglo Americans, Hispanic consumers are considered to value advertised brands (Segal and Sosa 1983), have higher agreements with statements dealing with brand loyalty (Yankelovich et al. 1984), and place higher stress on brand names (Barbara et al. 1999). For example, over 80% of Hispanics surveyed stated that once they found a brand they liked, they stuck with it (Yankelovich et al. 1984). Hoyer and Deshpande (1982) state that the reasons why Hispanics purchase and use high-status, high-visibility products are to emphasize their Hispanic values of individual identity and family pride. They further state that Hispanic

values and attitudes may be communicated by the ownership and use of certain high product quality goods.

Theoretical differences between the Hispanic culture and mainstream America are illustrated by Hall (1983) who defines culture as “a set of unspoken, implicit rules of behavior and thought that controls everything we do. This hidden cultural grammar defines the way in which people view the world, determines their values, and establishes the basic tempo and rhythms of life”(pg.6). He mentions time as a cultural system and states that time is a foundation of each culture. For example, he defines time as a cluster of concepts, events, and rhythms covering an extremely wide range of phenomena. More specifically, the author says there are two types of time that societies engage in, “polychronic time (p-time)” and “monochronic time (m-time).” Polychronic time is a system used when people do many things at once, where monochronic time is doing one thing at a time.

Those individuals that engage in polychronic time are individuals oriented towards people, human relationships, and the family (i.e. family takes precedence over everything else). Monochronic time, on the other hand, is oriented to tasks, procedures, schedules, and is very individualized. North American culture is further noted in being conducted in m-time and is very depersonalized, low context (explicit) and everything is in written form (contract). Furthermore, Latin American culture is noted in being conducted in p-time and is very personalized, high-context (implicit), where people depend more on human relationships that they consider permanent (rather than a contract).

For example, Hall (1983) illustrates with an example of working-class Hispanic woman (p-time) engaging in a monochronic culture (i.e. U.S.A.). This “Chicana

woman,” a founder of a private school for battered children, has to actually go out and pick up the children (her clients) because of their parents inability to adapt to a routine/schedule. She states: “We have to go out and get them, because they can’t plan far enough ahead to catch the bus” (pg. 66). Once again, this emphasizes the present orientation of Hispanic Americans and does justice to the cultural differences between Hispanics and Anglo Americans.

### **Intragroup Hispanic Cultural Differences**

With all the empirical evidence stating the differences between Hispanics and Anglo Americans, it is important to note that there are many differences between the subculture Hispanic groups such as age, education, language preference, socio-economic levels, and acculturation levels. In first attempting to distinguish between Hispanic cultures, it is important to get a clear concise definition on what “culture” consists of. From the naked eye, culture can be viewed from the exterior visible surface such as modes and dress of hair, food, diet, dancing, myths about medicine, and music. Nevertheless, beneath the surface lie the socio-culture systems that represent the many complexities of Hispanic life such as poverty. One fact about the Hispanic cultures is that they are revolving.

For example, the northern New Mexico villages represent a different way of life than the Hispanics living in New York or Los Angeles. Culture differences within regions, age, and sex exist such as new immigrants having stronger Mexican values than second or third generation U.S. domestic born. Hispanic culture is therefore considered as pluralistic; there are many Hispanic subcultures and ways of life that are at often many times over looked (Moore and Pachon 1985, and Angel and Worobey 1991). One great example in examining the differences between both Cuban Americans and Mexican

Americans is to take a look at their nationalities and economic well being from when they first arrived to the United States. This historical viewpoint will set the stage for the rationale of why Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans may display different attitudes and behaviors towards saving and planning for their future.

### **Cuban Americans**

Cuban Americans (i.e. businessmen) first arrived to the United States during the 1800s in search of their economic success in cigar manufacturing due to their unstable markets in their homeland; the most memorable immigration has been the Cuban Revolution in 1959. Because Fidel Castro's revolutionary objectives directly affected professionals and managers, many of them migrated to Key West, Miami, and Tampa Florida (Moore and Pachon 1985).

Chronologically, Cuban Americans came in three waves. The first wave brought about 280,000 Cubans to America and began when Castro took office in 1959 until around the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962. Demographically, the first wave was mostly white (94%), middle-aged (approximately 34 yrs old), and well-educated (an average of 14 years of schooling). Moreover, politically they shared similar beliefs with right wing conservatives in the American Republic Party.

The second wave of Cubans emerged during 1965 when the U.S. and Cuban governments negotiated an air bridge from Camarioca, Cuba to Miami, Florida. This air bridge transported 1000 Cubans a week, with approximately 273,000 Cubans coming to the United States. Demographically, the second wave was less white (80%), younger, and poorer. Finally the last wave took place in 1980, where 125,000 Cubans escaped to the United States because of a hostile takeover by 10,000 Cubans who took over the Peruvian Embassy in Havana, Cuba. This third wave was known as the "Marielitos", the

group was only 60% white, much younger, and much poorer (Llanes 1982), Marielitos stigmatized all those who came to the U.S. during the Mariel boatlift who were considered criminals or social misfits (Piloto and Roberto 1985).

From the three-wave migration, the most interesting thing to review was how Americans viewed these immigrants, which kept them the most financially successful group among Hispanics until this day. For example, because the first wave of immigrants believed in overthrowing the Cuban government (which was congruent with American foreign policy at that time) they had support from a series of federal administrators from the U.S. such as CIA backing and unofficial government endorsements (Moore and Pachon 1985 and Piloto and Roberto 1985). Politically, the “open door policy” for all Cubans to enter the United States was done to drain Fidel Castro’s labor resources (e.g. physicians, teachers, technicians), and discredit Castro’s regime (via embarrassment) through encouraging the flight of thousands from a “Communist” to a “free” country (Piloto and Roberto 1985).

In the eyes of the American public, the first wave of Cubans were given much support and were empathized for. The United States at that time gave much affection towards them and gave them an open door to enter. A major reason why they encountered such generosity was due to their demographic characteristic of being white (the majority) just like the Anglo Americans. In addition, since they were well educated, entrepreneurs, and wealthy, the United States depicted the immigration as a perfect “successful” immigration (Angel and Worobey 1991).

As a result, Miami, Florida opened up as a safe haven for all the exiles, which brought about the tight Cuban community where everyone participated as a team. For

example, because the first wave had found difficulty finding jobs, they were forced to start their own business and took care of the second and third wave immigrants who came at a later date by providing employment (Bach 1980, and Llanes 1982).

This class structure has been often referred to as an “enclave economy” where the successful entrepreneurs in various industries such as construction, real estate, and tobacco provide jobs for the professional managerial Cubans (second wave) and the prison/labor workers (third wave) all in an enclosed Spanish speaking community. This highly cohesive and economically vital enclave has contributed to the financial success of Cuban Americans to this day (Angel and Worobey 1991).

### **Mexican Americans**

In contrast to the restorative expedition Cuban Americans had when they entered the United States, the Mexican Americans’ voyages were quite onerous. After being conquered and losing territorial rights over Texas in 1846, Mexican Americans became subordinates to Anglo Americans; they were put to work for cheap labor and were victims of discrimination and hatred which dramatically affected their economic, social, and political roles in America (Moore and Pachon 1985). For example, when public land became private land after the American conquest, and cotton plantations began moving to the South particularly Texas, and much of the Mexican livestock wealth disappeared.

In addition, since African American slaves were no longer available, the demand for Mexican cheap labor to cultivate cotton and brush out new land acquired became a parameter for Mexicans to adhere to. Once Mexicans in Texas were considered slaves to Anglo Americans, they took the same brutality, as did the African American slaves. They were lynched by the “Texas Rangers” in masses and discriminated harshly due to

the lack of African Americans and American Indians to lynch (Taylor 1972, Staples 1974, and Barrera 1979).

Similar instances of oppression occurred to Mexican Americans in Arizona and California (Texas border states). For example, after the railroads emerged (during the mid 1800s) new markets came about for mineral resources such as wool, meat, and hides. Soon the Anglo Americans used these markets to form enterprises and conglomerate companies (for profit) at the expense of cheap Mexican American labor. Much of this remained static until the Mexican Revolution in 1910, the Great Depression in 1929, and World War II in 1939 where Mexican Americans finally had a chance to improve their economic condition by serving in the armed forces (Moore and Pachon 1985).

Nevertheless, the early arrivals of Mexicans were remembered for cheap labor for sugar beet (in Texas), electric railway construction and fruit harvesting (in California), cotton harvesting (in Arizona), and wage labor in meat packing plants, and steel mills (in Chicago). Moreover, they appeared in the mines of Arizona and Colorado as well as in the railroad maintenance throughout the United States (Kerr 1975). Much of this was due to the immigration policies involving the U.S. and Mexico where there was a constant theme of “admitting, deporting, and admitting again” based on economical reasons. For example, since both the price and demand of products increased dramatically in the Southwestern mines and agriculture due to World War I, the U.S. allowed 50,000 “temporary” Mexican Americans to enter and be exploited to the Anglo American enterprises (Moore and Pachon 1985).

Even during the 1950s discrimination, Mexican Americans were haunted by instances such as “Operation Wetback” where hundreds of thousands of Mexican

Americans were deported back to Mexico. Moreover, in Texas there existed segregated bowling alleys, municipal facilities, and housing facilities. It was only until about 1954 after the Supreme Court ruled for desegregation of schools that Mexican Americans in the U.S. were liberated of discrimination (legally that is). Nevertheless, even though there exists much immigration today from Mexico (legally and illegally), the unfortunate subordination upon the early Mexican Americans has played a major impact upon the economic, social, and political roles of the Mexican Americans to this day.

### **Cuban and Mexican American Variances**

It has been argued that the highly cohesive and economically vital enclave has contributed to the financial success for Cuban Americans, unlike their counterparts Mexican Americans (Portes and Bach 1985). For example, since English proficiency and nativity (i.e. dependability of the language) are major determinants of Mexican American success (Tienda and Neidert 1984), and Mexican immigration is an everlasting process (unlike Cuban immigrating), the lack of English fluency and the reliance of Spanish has caused a socioeconomic handicap for Mexican Americans due to the lack of an enclave economy like the Cuban Americans (Angel and Worobey 1991).

To illustrate, the United States Bureau of the Census (2002c) has reported some demographic and socioeconomic data that differentiates both Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans. For example, Mexican Americans had the highest proportion of individuals who were under the age of 18 (37.1%) while Cuban Americans origin population had the lowest (19.6%). This is imperative because the younger a person is, the higher the chance that person has of becoming unemployed since younger people earn less than older people. Furthermore, it has been noted that Cuban Americans have the

least probability of becoming unemployed because relatively they are an older group (Moore and Pachon 1985).

More variances between the two cultures are household status and education. Mexican family households were more likely to have 5 or more people while Cuban Americans were more likely to have family households of only 2 people. A major predictor of these statistics deals with fertility rates and how Mexican American women have lower access to birth control, work less frequently, and are more likely to stay home than Cuban American women. In addition, it has been noted that Cuban American women not only have fewer children, but also are better educated than other Mexican American women which help them obtain better jobs and higher income (Moore and Pachon 1985). For example, the United States Bureau of the Census (2002b) reports that Cuban Americans were more likely to graduate high school (74%) compared to Mexican Americans (50.6%).

The causation of these facts has been accredited to some hypotheses such as the “minority group status hypothesis” and the “subcultural hypothesis.” To illustrate, the minority group status hypothesis claims that being a member of a minority group creates an individual effect of frustration and marginality, which has the potential to reduce the fertility among women with higher socioeconomic status. For example, since higher educated women (e.g. Cuban American women) have higher aspirations for upward mobility than less educated women (e.g. Mexican American women) and these women find their aspiration more difficult to realize, they lower their fertility in order to achieve and sustain socioeconomic goals (Goldscheider and Uhlenberg 1969, and Bean and Tienda 1985).

The subcultural hypothesis claims that the cause of higher fertility is due to traits in their country of origin, since in the country of origin it is normal to have higher fertility, it is normal to carry out these similar behavior in their present country (Bean et al. 1977). For example, observers of traditional Mexican culture point out that family is their single most important component, with women finding their greatest satisfaction in the bearing and raising of children (Bean and Tienda 1985). Due to these household variances, it may be more difficult for Mexican American households to support other members in the house (dependents) with only a limited stream of income.

Finally, there exist economic characteristics that have merit in distinguishing between Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans such as occupational distributions and earnings. For example, it has been stated that among the Latino groups, Mexican Americans were less likely than other groups to work in managerial or professional occupations and Mexican Americans had the lowest proportion of workers earning \$50,000 or more. In addition, it was stated among the Hispanic group that represented 13.3% of the total population, 24.3% lived in poverty among which Hispanic children younger than 18 years of age were more likely to live in poverty than non-Hispanic Whites. Therefore, since most of the Cuban American population is an older population, and Mexican American population is younger, this impact of poverty, earnings, and occupational distributions has grounds to confirm their may exist different money attitudes in terms of retention.

In examining the large differences that exist between Hispanic groups, Angel and Worobey (1991) conducted a study examining the health risks between Cuban Americans, Mexican Americans, and even Puerto Ricans. They believed since there is

such a vast difference in economic well being between these groups, the health risk factors associated with poverty should manifest themselves differently as well for the three groups. For example, many Puerto Ricans (like African Americans) are living in innercity neighborhoods that have experienced rapid economic decline due to the lack of entry level jobs which causes a lack of economic mobility that results in chronic poverty (Wilson 1987, and Kasarda 1989).

In contrast, Cuban Americans are considered similar to non-Hispanic Whites in terms of economic success because of their ethnic enclave formed in Miami, Florida while Mexican Americans are considered somewhat in between (Portes and Bach 1985). As a result Angel and Worobey (1991) believed since the economic welfare between these groups are so different, and that children are among the most dependent members of society, (i.e. they are particularly vulnerable to the negative health consequences of poverty) the children's level of health will be affected by their parents varying physical health caused by different socioeconomic status.

Thus, the results indicated that Cuban American children suffered the least health problems compared to Mexican American children and Puerto Rican children. In addition, out of the respondents surveyed, Cuban American parents reported that their children health was "great" while Mexican American parents and Puerto Rican parents reported their children to have poorer health. Evidently, the subjective evaluation is clearly parallel to the objective data of varying socioeconomic conditions (i.e. health and economic well being) from these groups providing evidence to the anecdotal research justifying how Cuban Americans are economically better off than Mexican Americans.

Since there are variances in socioeconomic status, physical appearances, countries of origin, age, time or generation in the United States, language spoken, acculturation into the U.S. mainstream culture, and educational background between Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans, it is justifiable to contend that there may exist differences in money attitudes between these groups as well. As a result, humor is next used to examine if any attitudinal and/or behavioral preferences exist between Cuban Americans and Mexican American due to their possible variances in money attitudes.

## **Humor**

### **Humor Defined**

With the increasing Latino subculture population and purchasing power, it is tenant of this paper to discover if a humor appeal plays an important role with different Latino subcultures in terms of attitudes and behaviors (i.e. purchasing a financial product). Financial advertisement spending has been increasing over the years and many corporations are increasing their ad budgets for their financial products. For example, TNS Media Intelligence/CMR a New York based research firm, reported financial advertisement spending increased 7.1% (in just the first seven months of 2003) to \$3.7 billion from 2002 (Vranica 2003).

More specifically, humor has been used in much research and has been known to have many advocates compared to non-humor. For example, studies showed that 55% of advertising research executives believe humor to be superior to non-humor in gaining attention and 94% of advertising practitioners see humor as an effective way to gain attention (Madden and Weinberger 1984). In addition it is stated that on a given day, the average American is exposed to about 300 advertisement messages (McCarthy 1991).

In more practical terms, more than \$150 billion dollars is spent on advertisement (per year) of which 10-30% of those advertisements are humorous (Weinberger et al. 1995). For example, one of the largest events watched by Americans is the Super Bowl. The Super Bowl draws in more than 130 million Americans to watch at least part of the game and the rest mainly for the commercials. An advertisement on the Super Bowl, costs about \$2.1 million for 30 seconds (in 2003), and has proven appealing to big-budget companies such as Pepsi, General Motors, Sony, and Anheuser Bush which all believe in using the conventional humor for results (Ethridge 2003).

In determining what humor consists of, there are many definitions that have been conceptualized as to what humor actually is. For illustration, in some of the earlier work humor has been defined in terms of stimulus properties, examination of the responses elicited to a stimulus (e.g. smiles and laughs), and perceptual responses to audiences, i.e. actual audiences perception of humor (Sternthal and Craig 1973). Moreover, humor has been defined by content such as aggressive, sexual, or nonsense (Goldstein and McGhee 1972) and by technique saying whether or not humorous ads contains puns, jokes, satire, and irony (Kelly and Solomon 1975, and Riech 1997).

For example, Raskin (1985) states that funny situations, stories, and thoughts occur everyday virtually to everybody. Moreover, laughter (which is caused by humor) has different meaning from different occasions of circumstances to different cultures; nevertheless, humor, how variable it may be, is shared and appreciated by everyone. Therefore, each individual occurrence of a funny stimulus is considered an “humor act” which is comprised of certain elements such as: human participation (i.e. the speaker and the hearer), a stimulus where something happens in the humor act, the experience of an

individual, the predisposition of an individual to the humor act (a.k.a. the psychology), the situation which is the situational context that denotes the factor of the humor act, and finally the society where the humor is shared by individuals belonging to a certain group to make humor more effective.

In regards to the humor theories in the literature, there have been three major groups/classes of theories such as, “cognitive-perceptual”, “social-behavioral”, and “psychoanalytical”. For example, Raskin (1985) states that the first class (cognitive-perceptual) is associated with incongruity humor where a form of inappropriateness, paradox, and dissimilarity (incongruent components) are brought together, synthesized, and made similar. An example consists of a “punch line” which provides a shift from one level of abstraction to another in a matter of seconds which seems incongruous to the main body of the joke. He further relates that the incongruity-based theories make a statement about the stimulus in his “humor act” description.

Next, the second set of theories (social-behavioral) comprises approaches based on hostility, malice, aggression, disparagement, derision, and superiority. Some examples include laughing at other people’s minor mishaps, laughing at misfortunes of others because we do not share the same situations, and laughing at our own events in the past. These theories are related to the “humor act” example by characterizing the relationships or attitudes between the speaker and the hearer.

Finally, the third set of theories (psychoanalytical) comprises approaches of humor involving releases. For example, since individuals operate under a great number of constraints (i.e. to think clearly, to be logical, to talk sense) it is easier to release and diverge from a line of thought (via humor) we have embarked on, than keep it. For

example when jokes liberate an individual from an inhabitation (e.g. sex and viciousness jokes), a release of psychic energy is exerted; these psychoanalytical theories relate to the “humor act” example by commenting on the feelings and psychology of the hearer.

It is evident that there is no real mundane accepted classification of humor, which has also been in accord by other researchers in the past (e.g. Weinberger and Gulas 1992). As a result, some more recent researchers has addressed this issue and defined humor in terms of the Reick’s practitioner-oriented classification system (Codruta and Gail 2001). In this research, these authors sought out to find that different types of humor are more effective and better suited for different types of media.

For example, humor was defined in 7 categories (comparison, personification, exaggeration, pun, sarcasm, silliness, and surprise) and was found that sarcasm was the most popular form of humor used in magazines. In their research, the authors operationalized sarcasm as “blatant ironic responses or situations,” where they provided an example of a brother and sister conflict illustrating their tenant. In the Lexmark advertisement, the brother had his legs up on the desk contemplating signs to put up in his room, where his sister walks in and sarcastically says “How about for rent?”

### **Humor Executional Factors**

In addition to different types of humor being targeted towards different types of media, executional factors (i.e. how and when to actually use humor) vary greatly as well. Humor in advertising represents billions of dollars in spending a year, and the role of advertising goals and the impact of humor on these goals play a significant role in the appropriate use of humor. For example, when thinking of utilizing humor, there are many influences from a humorous message that come into play such as humor placement, humor relatedness, the nature of the product, and audience factors.

### **Humor Placement**

In terms of which medium humor will be placed in, major consensus from past research has shown that humor is used more frequently in television commercials than print commercials (Weinberger and Campbell 1991, Weinberger et al. 1995). For example, in the Weinberger et al. work (1995), these researchers discovered that television and radio used humor two to three times more often than magazine ads. Also in a survey from the 150 top United States companies, advertising research and creative executives felt that humor is best suited for television (88%) and radio (88%) as opposed to magazines (39%) (Madden and Weinberger 1984).

Many times this is a major consensus because companies want to be most cost efficient and effective in terms of maximum exposure per advertising dollar. Therefore, since the breadth of television can be possibly more cost efficient than print in terms of the reach and frequency, many advertisers choose to use this medium. Yet, since this current research's motive is not necessarily to generalize the findings to the mass public (i.e. to all print advertisements), but to test for internal validity, print media was chosen as an effective and cost efficient way to conduct a laboratory experiment; also, it was chosen to broaden the scant work done with humor and print advertisements relatively compared with other mediums such as television and radio.

### **Humor Relatedness**

In determining the most effective method in terms of advertising performance, it was found that "message dominant humor" should be used in magazine ads because it appeared to work best at capturing and maintaining attention (Spotts et al. 1997). For example, in their research, the authors incorporated the typology of Speck (1991) and a variety of product grids introduced to the market (e.g. Rossiter et al. 1991) and conducted

a content analysis of the ads. Message dominance was used in the study and defined (from Speck's typology) as humor being subordinate to the overall message, which if removed from the advertisement, no loss in the comprehension of the message will incur; message dominant ads can also be image (containing verbal and/or visual content that reinforces the image or reputation of the product) or "information-focused" (containing information that focuses explicitly on the more tangible features or price of the product).

### **Humor Product Factors**

In addition to where humor should be placed, and how humor should be used, product factors play an imperative role as well. To illustrate, in their research, Spotts et al. (1997) concluded that for "white good products" (i.e. high risk products that are mostly based on price, expensive, and requires consumers to do "due diligence" because of the risk involved) information or image-focused humor should be used. For example, the authors found that for white good products, information-focused humor was used most often (59%) and image focused humor was used 18% of the time. Thus, for their conclusion, they recommended that using humor should be limited to white goods, message dominant ads should be used in magazines because it appears most effective in capturing attention, and most of the ads in the content analysis used incongruity-based humor (i.e. this type of humor should be used).

### **Humor Audience Factors**

Only after describing the main ingredients of "humor," it is the tenant of this paper to see how humorous advertising appeals affect unprecedented audience characteristics, i.e. both Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans in terms of attitudes and behaviors towards financial products. In regards to audience characteristics, humor can go far back

as Sternthal and Craig's work (1973) that proposed humorous messages attract attention and audience characteristics may confound the effect of humor.

In an examination of the literature review they concluded that there has been relatively little research on the persuasive effects of humor on audiences with particular profiles and that variables such as age, education, and involvement with the message mediate the persuasive effects of humor. For example, they stated that if humor targets an audience with low intelligence, and low intelligence inhibits humor, then the audience would have low understanding and a lack of interest of the message resulting in little persuasion of humor.

Furthermore, to add to the scant research on audience characteristics, Madden and Weinberger (1982) conducted research providing empirical evidence about the effects of humor on attention in magazine advertising in a non-laboratory setting. They used a sample of advertisements from the Starch/Inra/Hooper, Inc. advertising files and measured attention on 3 Starch recall scores. The product category used was liquor ads, and the ads were coded as "nonsense" ads; the humorous ad sample was drawn from 12 different magazines.

For example, in their sample of liquor ads found in magazines, humor was considered to be dependent on the respondents' gender and racial characteristics. Humor was found to work better for men than women and humor hurt attention levels for the "black" magazine audiences. They stated that humor preference is related to sex, race, origin, personality, and/or social attitudes of the audience because attention scores for "white" magazine readers were greater than scores for "black" magazine readers.

In another study, it was found that people of different cultural backgrounds respond to humor differently. For example, in an experiment that involved Israeli Jews from Eastern vs. Western descent, the ones from the Eastern descent found absurd humor not as funny as the Jews from the Western descent because of cultural differences (Weller et al. 1976). The authors stated that these differences are “habits of thought and mental attitude rooted in cultural backgrounds” where if the language differences are removed, jokes are not as easily translatable between different cultures.

In a lab experiment involving 403 undergraduate students, it was found when “Black vs. White” audiences witnessed humor via radio and television, humor was more effective for the White subjects (Shama and Coughlin 1979). Finally from a cross-cultural perspective, the content of humorous communications from diverse cultures (i.e. Korea, Germany, Thailand, and the United States) has been found to be variable among countries (Alden et al. 1993). Unfortunately with all the research conducted in examining humor differences among cultures and/or racial characteristics, there has been no research dealing with humor variances between intra subculture Hispanic groups.

Theoretically, the closest circumstances we can apply to attitude and behavioral differences between Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans rests in their cognitive processing efforts. For example, it has been theorized that individuals differ in their tendency to engage in effortful cognitive processing and these differences significantly influence the degree of success in using humor advertising. (Underwood and Shaughnessy 1975, Cacioppo and Petty 1982, Cacioppo et al. 1986, Zhang 1996a, and Geuens and Pelsmacker 2002).

For example, it is argued that individuals who are intrinsically interested in analyzing and processing discrete pieces of information and enjoy thinking about product-related information cues, are likely to form their attitudes based on the strength of the product-related arguments in the ad. In contrast, individuals who enjoy the outcome rather than process the thinking, and only prefer to think as hard when necessary, will be less motivated to analyze the argument in the ad and base their attitude of the product by associating it with likable cues in the ad such as humor (Cacioppo et al. 1983, and Batra and Stayman 1990). This issue-relevant thinking and attitude formation about a persuasive communication has also been seen in context by the “elaboration likelihood model” (ELM) proposed by Petty and Cacioppo (1986). According to the model, when individuals are motivated to engage in processing an argument extensively, they will be persuaded by issue relevant arguments also known as “the central route to persuasion.”

In contrast, when individuals are unmotivated or unable to process issue-relevant arguments, attitude changes may still occur if peripheral cues are present (a.k.a. “peripheral route to persuasion”); a peripheral cue is an element of the ad that is not directly related to the merit of the product advertised such as humor. So if an individual favors the “peripheral route” to persuasion, than likable cues such as humor will dictate persuasion. Contrarily, if the individual favors the “central route” to persuasion, than the cogency of the argument will dictate persuasion.

Empirical evidence has confirmed these theories on cognitive processing from an individual perspective and confirmed that those individuals who enjoy thinking and processing an arguments thoroughly focus more on central information cues (Baker and Lutz 2000), process information more extensively than those who do not think as

elaborately (Mantel and Kardes 1999), collect information on more aspects of a problem and excel in problem-solving tasks (Nair and Ramnarayan 2000), develop more topic-relevant cognitions (Haughtvedt et al. 1992), and respond more positively to factual appeals, informationally dense ads, and ads containing high quality arguments (Cacioppo et al. 1996).

In addition it has been evident that those who are less likely to engage in an abundance of cognitive resources to process a message are more likely to respond to peripheral cues such as celebrities (Ul et al. 1996), an attractive endorser (Cacioppo et al. 1996), promotional cues (Inman et al. 1990), and humor (Zhang 1996b). For example, Zhang (1996a) tested a humorous (comprised of a funny cartoon) and a non-humorous print ad containing weak and strong arguments for a fictitious brand. An experiment was conducted with 240 student subjects from an undergraduate business class where the results confirmed the hypothesis that advertising humor was more effective when the viewers took less cognitive effort to process a message argument and when they were not likely to engage in evaluating the claims of the ad or the attributes of the product. Moreover, when viewers were more likely to engage evaluative processing, the presence of humor had a minimal effect. Zhang (1996b) further concluded by providing implications for advertisers and their agencies to question what audience conditions humor may work under, and stated that understanding target audience characteristics are imperative in guaranteeing a successful humorous execution.

### **Hypothesis Development**

It was the object of this paper to further understand the audience characteristics of both Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans by (1) investigating their differences in money orientation towards retention (i.e. saving and planning for their future) and (2) to

investigating the effects of their money orientation in cognitive and affective responses to advertising appeals (humor vs. non humor). Already from empirical evidence it has been shown that Hispanics are more “present oriented” than their counterparts Anglo Americans (i.e. they are less likely to plan and prepare for their future), are high brand status oriented, and will spend more money on high quality consumer products falling prey to the minority rich vacuum (i.e. individuals who live paycheck to paycheck acquiring products that loose value from the moment upon purchase such as clothes, cars, music, and electronics). This is detrimental because Hispanics are much more likely to be unemployed, live in poverty, and have a lower annual median income than non-Hispanic Whites (United States Bureau of the Census 2002a).

Yet despite these facts, Hispanic research has been conducted involving Mexican Americans and not other members of the Hispanic group especially since there is an abundance of variability between them. For example, in examining the differences between Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans, it has been shown throughout research that Cuban Americans are better off economically than Mexican Americans due to immigration, demographic, and socioeconomic reasons.

Cuban American immigration patterns in the U.S. were far more favorable than Mexican Americans because they were not conquered immigrants, they were not discriminated against like Mexican Americans were (e.g. fair skin vs. dark skin), they had wealthy businessmen and entrepreneurs flee the communist Cuban country to pursue capitalism (unlike Mexican Americans who were forced into cheap labor), they had U.S. government support for political reasons (i.e. to embarrass Fidel Castro), and they formed “economic enclaves” which allowed them to utilize Spanish as a first language in Miami,

Florida. This was sufficient enough to communicate, provide jobs, and build businesses for their subsequent second and third wave of immigrants family members (Taylor 1972, Tienda and Neidert 1984, Moore and Pachon 1985, Piloto and Roberto 1985, and Angel and Worobey 1991).

Demographically, Cuban Americans (compared to Mexican Americans) have the lowest percentage of individuals who are under the age of 18 (i.e. the younger you are the greater the chance of becoming unemployed which leads to poverty), and have a greater likelihood of having a family household consisting of 2 people. Also, Cuban Americans are considered more likely to have at least graduated high school (74%) and obtained a bachelors degree (18.6%) than are Mexicans Americans graduating high school (50.6%) and obtaining a bachelors degree (7.6%)(U. S. Bureau of the Census 2002a, U.S. Bureau of the Census 2002b, and U.S. Bureau of the Census 2002c). Likewise, Cuban American women are better educated (i.e. have higher aspirations for upward mobility), have greater access to birth control, are less likely to stay at home, and are more prominent in the work force than Mexican American women (Goldscheider and Uhlenberg 1969, Bean et al. 1977, Moore and Pachon 1985, and Bean and Tienda 1985).

Economically, Cuban Americans are more likely to work in managerial or professional occupations than Mexican Americans, and have a higher percentage of workers earning \$50,000 a year or more. Likewise their medium income was \$35, 831 in 2001 compared to \$33,533 for Mexican Americans (U.S. Bureau of the Census 2002c). Therefore, with all these aforementioned facts, even though there is no research on Cuban Americans and retention/savings, it can be reasonably hypothesized that in comparison Cuban Americans will score higher than Mexican Americans on the retention dimension

from the Money Attitude Scale since education and money is correlated to the Money Attitude Scale:

**Hypothesis (1).** Cuban American's will score higher on the retention dimension than Mexican American's on the Money Attitude Scale.

In regards to humor, there has been major consensus from past literature that different audience involvement variables impact the efficacy of humor such as sex, race, origin, personality, and social attitudes of the audience. For example, humorous ads have been found to better suit a target audience composed of better-educated younger males (Madden and Weinberger 1984), men vs. women (Madden and Weinberger 1982), "Whites vs. Blacks" (Shama and Coughlin 1979), and Western Israeli Jews vs. Eastern Israeli Jews (Weller et al. 1976). Yet, unfortunately there has been no research dealing with humor preferences between the intra subculture Hispanic groups.

Nevertheless, humor has been intertwined with the individual cognitive processing efforts involving the demand to analyze a message argument thoroughly or not. Since advertising humor was found more effective in influencing audience members who are less motivated to analyze an argument presented in an ad (because they prefer peripheral, likable cues) and non-humorous ads are more effective for those who are intrinsically interested in processing an advertisement thoroughly (Cacioppo et al. 1983, Batra and Stayman 1990, Zhang 1996a, Mantel and Kardes 1999, and Baker and Lutz 2000), it is reasonably to assume that Cuban Americans will prefer a non-humorous advertising appeal and Mexican Americans will prefer a humorous advertising appeal because of their predisposition money attitudes.

**Hypothesis (2)** . Cuban American's (compared to Mexican Americans) will show more favorable thoughts towards the message argument for the non-humorous appeal over the humorous appeal.

Humor throughout the literature has been known to affect both ad attitude and brand attitude. For example, consumers may like an ad so much that they transfer their positive feelings from the ad to the brand (Derbaix 1995). This "affect-laden ad attitude" has been known to transfer affect from the ad to the brand and even to the purchase intentions of the product via the dual-mediation hypothesis (MacKenzie et al. 1986).

This hypothesis claims that consumers can have favorable attitudes towards an ad because they find it believable and/or feel good about it. So, this favorable attitude towards the ad can affect brand attitudes either through believability or liking, which results in a possibility of affecting consumers' intentions to purchase the brand. Therefore, when someone reads an ad, they can have responses that are cognitive (believable) and/or affective (positive feelings about the ad) which next may cause that person to like the ad that influences more acceptance of the brand belief, attitude, or positive feeling towards the brand (e.g. I like the ad so I like the brand) which eventually may leads to an intention to purchase the product.

Empirical evidence has already shown humor to enhance liking for the ad (Belch and Belch 1984, and Yih and Mason 1999), brand (Gelb and Pickett 1983, Yih and Mason 1999), and has been seen to transfer liking from the ad to the brand while putting people in positive moods (Batra and Stayman 1990). As a result, it is reasonable to assume that Cuban Americans will produce more favorable ad, brand, and purchase intention for the non-humorous ads, while Mexican Americans will prefer more favorable

ad, brand, and purchase intention evaluations for humorous ads because of their predisposition money attitudes:

**Hypothesis (3).** Cuban American's (compared to Mexican Americans) will show more positive attitude towards the ad for the non-humorous ad appeal over the humorous ad appeal.

**Hypothesis (4).** Cuban American's (compared to Mexican Americans) will show more positive brand attitudes towards the ad for the non-humorous ad appeal over the humorous ad appeal.

**Hypothesis (5).** Cuban American's (compared to Mexican Americans) will be more likely to purchase the financial product for the non-humorous ad appeal compared to the humorous ad appeal.

## CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

### **Design of the Experiment**

The goal of this study was to first compare different Hispanic subculture attitudes in terms of retention on the Money Attitude Scale and then to see which type of advertising appeal is most effective and congruent with their levels of retention. In order to test the above hypotheses, an experiment was conducted with approximately 210 undergraduate students comprised of 62 Hispanic students, 82 Caucasian students, 17 African American students, 11 Asian American students, and 23 “other” students (i.e. mixed races). Respectively, 28 Cuban Americans, 34 Mexican Americans, and 82 Caucasian students (as the control) each saw both the humorous and non-humorous ad. The experiment was a two-by-two design: high/low levels of retention vs. humor/non humorous ads. Independent variables in the study included ethnicity, retention, and humor. Dependent variables in the study included attitudes towards the message argument, ad, brand, and purchase intention.

### **Manipulation**

Ethnicity was manipulated by having a sample of 62 undergraduate business students between the ages of 18-24 at one large southeastern university located in Florida to represent Cuban Americans, and one large southwestern university located in Texas to represent Mexican Americans due to their high population influx within those states (Radice 1997, Tharp 2001, and Kyriakos 1999). To increase motivation, subjects were provided with free food and drinks for their participation. The subjects were told that

they were participating in an advertising-related study that would be used for academic purposes only. More specifically, they were told that the ads they were going to see were going to be blueprints for possible ads in upcoming magazines, for which consumer input was needed.

Each subject received a booklet containing two stimulus ads, the dependent measures, the self-administered questionnaire containing the retention dimension from Yamauchi and Templer's MAS scale (1982) and some basic demographic questions. The respondents answered the attitudinal statements with regards to the ads, the retention dimension questionnaire, and then some basic demographic questions. There was no time limit given and the students completed the questionnaire at their own pace. Finally the students were debriefed after completion of the study.

Humor was manipulated within the stimulus development by being present in one ad (i.e. the picture component) and being absent in another. Two color print ads were produced, each consisting of a headline, picture component, and the verbal message, which was relevant and used to support the ad theme. Since the nature of incongruity of any ad information is determined by its relationship with the ad theme, the picture component from both ads were manipulated (i.e. one used a humorous picture component that was relevant to the ad theme and the other used a non-humorous picture component that was relevant to the ad themes (see Appendix B and C) while the headline and verbal component stayed the same across treatments (Heckler and Childers 1992, Yih and Mason 1999).

The ad theme conveyed was a long-term investment theme which used a savings account as the investment product, which was operationalized as "white good products,"

products that are high involvement products where information is needed in addition of humor to sell. The headline stated, “Are you tired of your kids arranging your retirement plans for you,” while the verbal message stated, “Put just \$100.00 in Aramis Investments savings account and watch it grow tax-free to \$10,000 in 10 years. With A.I. enhanced financial expertise, we offer deep financial service knowledge which means keener insight, lower risks, and faster R.O.I.”

### **Pre-Test**

Humorous ads were presented to a panel of judges for them to judge the humor contents in the ads, which was subjected to a pre-test prior to the actual experiment to ensure that humor manipulation was effective. Both the picture components in each ad were designed and pre-tested to see the relationships with the ad themes. Thirty subjects were asked basic demographic questions and rated their agreement (after exposure to the two ads) on the following six-point scale: The degree to which think the picture in the advertisement is humorous (1=not humorous, 6=humorous; to test the level of humor). After the pre-test, the ads were used in the final study for future analysis (see Appendix B and C).

### **Independent Variables**

In determining the measurement for ethnicity, ethnic self reporting had been implemented which is a way of classifying members of ethnic subgroups because it represents the internal belief of the individual and their perceived cultural reality (Cohen 1978, Hirschman 1981, and Medina et al. 1996) further eliminating any misclassification bias when using the subjects surname or country of birth (Valencia 1983).

Next, in order to properly compare money attitudes between these sub cultures, chi-square tests were performed to make sure there were no significant differences between

the two groups (Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans) in terms of socioeconomic status (gender, income, and age). Therefore, differences in socioeconomic status (SES) cannot be argued for observed differences because the two groups' education level as well as socioeconomic standings are considered directly comparable.

In terms of acculturation, the use of language has been found to be a strong indicator of acculturation for the Hispanic groups (Olmeda and Padilla 1978, Arce 1994, Valencia 1983, Deshpande et al. 1986, Lee and Um 1992, Webster 1992). As a result, the acculturation effect was measured based on the type of language used; the type of language used was assessed on a four-point semantic differential scale (1=only use the native language, 4=only use English) for at home, school, and among friends. A respondent with an acculturation score greater than the median was considered "high," where a respondent with an acculturation score lesser than or equal to the median was categorized as "low" (Kim and Kang 2001).

In determining the measurements for retention, the money attitude scale (29-item scale) developed by Yamauchi and Templer (1982) was used in this study because its Retention/Time dimension (Appendix A) has been shown to provide consistent reliability among Hispanic groups (Medina et al. 1996, and Roberts and Sepulveda 1999). Furthermore, the scores on the Money Attitude Scale were reversed and summed so that the higher scores on the subscales indicated a greater presence of the measured construct.

### **Dependent Variables**

In determining the dependent measures for the experiment, subjects were asked to indicate their extent of agreement with attitudinal statements using four point scales collecting ad and brand attitudes (Zhang 1996b). For example, to evaluate attitude toward the ad, a four-item semantic differential scale (unpleasant-pleasant, unlikable-

likable, not irritating-irritating, and not interested-interested, with the third item reverse-scaled) was used. To evaluate the attitude towards the brand, a similar four-item semantic differential scale (bad-good, not nice-nice, unlikable-likable) was used.

To evaluate purchase intention, a four-item scale (unlikely-likely, improbable-probable, impossible-possible) was used. Next, to evaluate message argument strength, a four item semantic differential scale was used consisting of 4 pairs of bipolar adjectives (weak-strong, unpersuasive-persuasive, not convincing-convincing, and bad argument-good argument).

## CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

### **Pretest Analysis**

In examining the humorous advertisements, an analysis of variance (one way) was used for the pre-test, where source type was used as the categorical independent variable (humorous monkey ad and non-humorous old man ad) and attitude towards humor was used for the continuous dependent variable. The results indicated significance for humor ( $F(1,29)=39.6, p<0.01$ ), which demonstrated that the ads were sufficient for the experiment. For example, on a scale from one to five (five=most humorous and one=least not humorous), the average number of the subjects that were given the humorous monkey ad found the ad to be humorous ( $M=3.64$ ), while in contrast the average number of subjects given the non-humorous old man ad found the ad to be non humorous ( $M=1.31$ ).

### **Preliminary Data Analysis**

After conducting the pretest, a subject pool was recruited from several lecture classes in business administration at 2 large universities located in Florida and Texas to represent both Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans; the lecture classes were different from those used in the pretest. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the two advertising packets according to the version of questionnaire instruments they received during experiment implementation. They were exposed to a single non-humorous message stimulus (i.e. old man ad) and a single humorous message stimulus (i.e. monkey ad) that measured attitudes towards the advertisement, brand, and purchase

intention. All questionnaires were completed independently and took approximately 15 minutes to finish.

A total of 210 college students participated in the study consisting of 28 Cuban Americans, 34 Mexican Americans, 82 Caucasians (as the control), with the rest (64 subjects) as a mixture of Asians, mixed Latinos, and African Americans. An analysis on the demographic profile of subjects indicated that 52% (n=110) reported their academic classification as seniors. The average age of the sample was 22 years, the average intended date of graduation was spring of 2004 or later (41%, n=86), the majority of the subjects were single (93%; n=196) and the majority of the subjects (62%) were female (n=79).

Out of all the Latinos reported, 51% (n=108) lived in the U.S. their whole life, used English at home (38%, n=79), used English at school (52%, n=110), used English among friends (49%, n=103), spent less than one hour on Spanish speaking media (27%, n=56), and more than two hours on English speaking media (59%, n=123). Thirty-nine percent of the sample reported their race as Caucasian/White (n=82), 13% (n=28) as Cuban American, 16% (n=34) as Mexican American, 8% (n=17) as African American, 5% (n=11) as Asian American, 11% (n=23) as Latino, and 6% (n=12) as Latino other.

Coefficient alpha reliability tests run for each dimension satisfied Nunally's (1978) criterion of .70 or higher as a standard for basic research (attitude towards the ad alpha=0.77, attitude towards the brand alpha=0.84, attitude towards purchase intention alpha=0.86, humor alpha=0.94, argument strength alpha=0.90). Furthermore, the reliability results for the seven retention questions measured by Yamauchi and Templer (1982) instrument were all found reliable as well (alpha=0.83).

Descriptively, on a scale from one (minimum) to four (maximum), the average number of subjects had strong attitudes towards the ad (M\_2.70; n=210), brand (M\_2.87; n=210), and message argument (M\_2.59; n=209). Also, on a scale from one (minimum) to five (maximum), the average number of subjects had stronger beliefs in purchasing the brand (M\_2.45; n=208). Moreover, the average out of the seven questions that made up the retention scale fell above the mid point meaning that subjects were less interested in retention (M\_2.89).

### **Experimental Results**

The first hypothesis sought out to find if Cuban Americans scored higher on the retention dimension than Mexican Americans. An analysis of variance (one way) with race as the categorical independent variable and attitude towards retention as the dependent continuous variable suggested that on a scale from one (highest retention) to five (lowest retention), Cuban Americans (n=28) had a stronger inclination towards high retention (M\_2.67) while Mexican Americans (n=33) had an inclination to stray from retention as hypothesized (M\_3.13); however, this difference was not significant at the 0.05 level ( $F(1,60)=3.34, p>0.05$ ).

A second analysis of variance (two-way) was performed using language as an indicator of acculturation, as well as race for the independent variables. This analysis was performed to explore the possibility that race and acculturation (categorical independent variable) both had an effect on retention (continuous dependent variable). The interaction effect indicated significance at the 0.1 level ( $F(1,60)=3.88, p<0.10$ ) {see Chart 1}. This result indicates that English dominant (high acculturated) Cuban Americans had stronger attitudes towards retention than English dominant (high

acculturated) Mexican Americans; Spanish dominant Cuban and Mexican Americans showed relatively no difference:

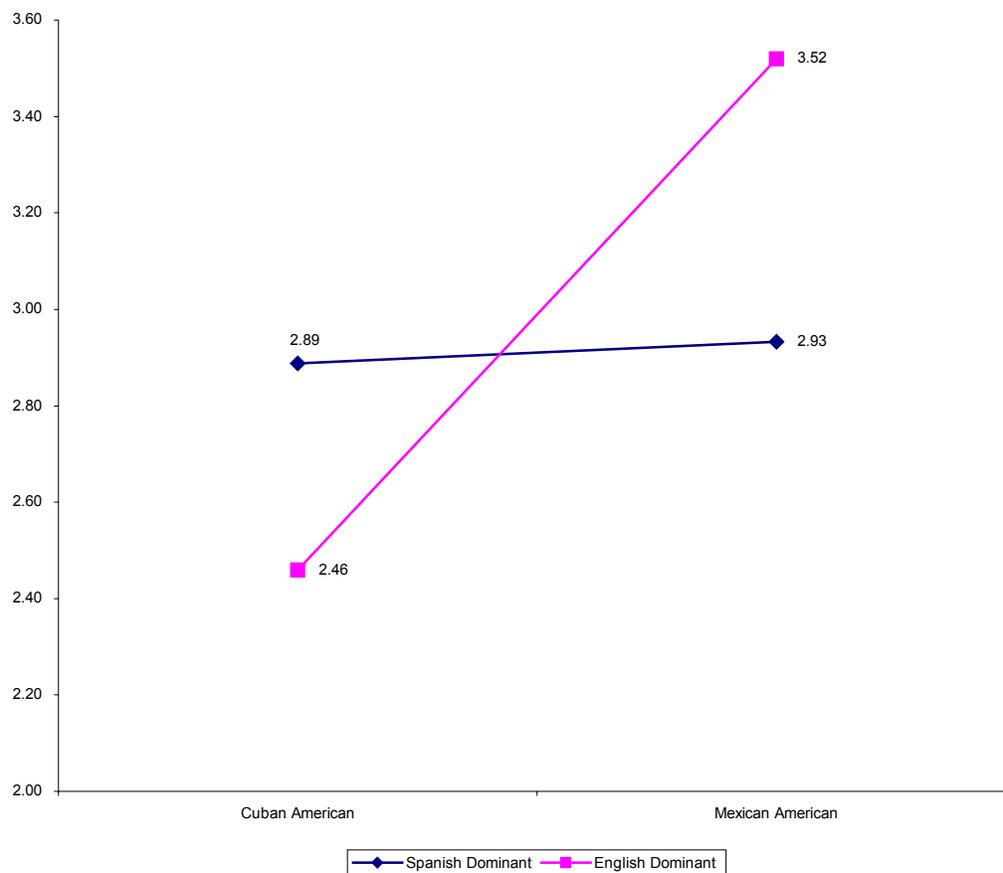


Figure 1. The effect of race and acculturation on retention.

The second hypothesis sought out to find whether or not Cuban Americans compared to Mexican Americans will show more favorable thoughts towards the message argument for the non-humorous advertising appeal over the humorous advertising appeal. An analysis of variance (one-way) with race as the independent categorical variable and attitudes towards message argument as the dependent continuous variable suggested that on a scale from one (lowest argument quality) to four (highest argument quality) for the serious advertising appeal, Cuban Americans (n=15) had a

stronger inclination towards the message argument ( $M_{2.80}$ ) while Mexican Americans ( $n=13$ ) had strayed away from message argument as hypothesized ( $M_{2.56}$ ). In the case of the humorous appeal, Mexican Americans ( $n=17$ ) had a stronger inclination towards the message argument ( $M_{2.91}$ ) while Cuban Americans ( $n=13$ ) had strayed away from message argument as hypothesized ( $M_{2.19}$ ); the results were statistically significant showing a main effect between race and attitudes towards message argument ( $F(1,61)=3.53, p<.05$ ).

The third hypothesis sought out to find whether or not Cuban Americans compared to Mexican Americans will show more positive attitudes towards the ad for the non-humorous advertising appeal over the humorous advertising appeal. An analysis of variance (one-way) with race as the independent categorical variable and attitudes towards the ad as the dependent continuous variable suggested that on a scale from one (low attitudes towards ad) to four (high attitudes towards ad), Cuban Americans ( $n=15$ ) had stronger attitudes towards the non humorous advertising appeal ( $M_{2.78}$ ) than Mexican Americans ( $n=17$ ) who displayed lower attitudes towards the non humorous advertising appeal ( $M_{2.54}$ ). In regards to the humorous advertising appeal, Mexican Americans ( $n=17$ ) had ( $n=17$ ) stronger attitudes towards the humorous appeal ( $M_{3.14}$ ) while Cuban Americans ( $n=13$ ) had weaker attitudes towards the humorous appeal ( $M_{2.61}$ ) just as hypothesized; the results were statistically significant showing a main effect between race and attitudes towards the ad ( $F(1,61)=2.76, p<.05$ ).

The fourth hypothesis sought out to find whether or not Cuban Americans would show more positive attitudes towards the brand for the non-humorous ad appeal over the humorous ad appeal. An analysis of variance (one-way) with race as the independent

categorical variable and attitudes towards the brand as the dependent continuous variable suggested that on a scale from one (low attitudes towards brand) to four (higher attitudes towards the brand), Cuban Americans (n=15) had stronger attitudes towards the brand (M<sub>3.02</sub>) for the non-humorous advertising appeal than Mexican Americans (n=17) who had lower attitudes towards the brand (M<sub>2.67</sub>). For the humorous appeal, Mexican Americans (n=17) were found to have more positive attitudes towards the humorous advertising appeal brand (M<sub>3.16</sub>) while Cuban Americans (n=13) were found to have weaker attitudes towards the humorous advertising appeal brand (M<sub>2.71</sub>) exactly as hypothesized; the results were statistically significant showing a main effect between race and attitudes towards the brand ( $F(1,61)=2.42, p<.05$ ).

Finally, the fifth hypothesis sought out to find whether or not Cuban Americans would be more likely to purchase the brand for the non-humorous ad appeal over the humorous ad appeal. An analysis of variance (one-way) with race as the independent categorical variable and attitudes towards purchase intention as the dependent continuous variable suggested that on a scale from one (less likely to purchase brand) to four (highly likely to purchase the brand), Cuban Americans (n=14) scored marginally lower to purchase the brand for the non humorous advertising appeal (M<sub>2.48</sub>) compared to Mexican Americans (n=17) who scored slightly higher (M<sub>2.57</sub>). In regards to the humorous advertising appeal, Mexican Americans were more likely to purchase the brand for the humorous advertising appeal (M<sub>3.12</sub>) compared to Cuban Americans (n=13) who were less likely to purchase the brand (M<sub>2.25</sub>); nevertheless, there was no significance ( $F(1,61)=2.22, p<0.05$ ) and the hypothesis was not supported.

## Findings

Even though this study has limitations that influence the ability to generalize the results, the purpose and significance of this study was to examine internal validity as opposed to external validity in an exploratory manner. The results here indicated that Cuban Americans did score higher on the retention dimension from the money attitude scale than Mexican Americans, but only after a second analysis of variance test combining acculturation and race, and with a probability level of 0.1 (10% chance of making a wrong decision about rejecting the null hypothesis) as opposed to 0.05 (5% chance of making a wrong decision about rejecting the null hypothesis) indicating a greater room for error.

Moreover, Cuban American and Mexican American who used Spanish as a dominant language, were almost identical in terms of retention (i.e. saving and planning for the future) where the English dominance between Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans showed the differences between the groups. Therefore the English dominant Cuban Americans saved and planned for their future more than the English dominant Mexican Americans, confirming the theory that their favorable immigration, demographic, and socioeconomic patterns resulted in higher attitudes towards retention. Yet, even though these results showed an interaction effect between race and acculturation on attitude towards retention, the significance of these results were rather feeble since it allowed for greater room for error and consisted of a small student based sample.

Cuban Americans were also found to display stronger attitudes towards the non-humorous ad and brand confirming the theory that they engaged in more cognitive ability to analyze the financial ad, while Mexican Americans displayed less cognitive abilities to

analyze the financial ad and brand, which resulted in stronger attitudinal preferences for the humorous appeal. Unfortunately, purchase intentions was not significant illustrating that even though Cuban Americans on average were less likely to purchase the financial product than Mexican Americans, the means were not real (i.e. statistically significant).

## CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

### **Discussion**

With the growing population and purchasing power of the Hispanic population (i.e. Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans), it was the purpose of this paper to discover if their attitudes towards savings money and planning for their future (retention) were different due to their variances within their subculture. For example, it has been shown from past research that Mexican Americans are more present oriented and less willing to save and prepare for the future (Medina et al. 1996, Hall 1983, Holtzman et al. 1975, and Marin 1987).

Taking precedence of the present oriented rationale over planning for the future is unfortunate because Roberts and Sepulveda (1999) found that compulsive buying and retention (saving/planning) was negatively related: “careful financial planning is clearly at odds with compulsive buying.” Compulsive buying has been described as “Chronic, repetitive purchasing that becomes a primary response to negative events or feelings” (O’Guinn and Faber 1989, pg. 155).

This paper further expanded on the money attitude literature by showing (with extreme caution) that English dominant Cuban Americans scored higher on the retention level than English dominant Mexican Americans. Thus, they have a tendency to favor planning and preparing for the future more than Mexican Americans. Moreover, from an advertising realm, the second part of this paper sought out to see if humor played a role in terms of congruency with the Cuban American and Mexican American levels of

retentions. For example, the results indicated that Mexican Americans would prefer a financial ad and brand that is humorous while Cuban American would prefer a financial ad and brand that is serious. Yet, since this study was conducted in an exploratory nature to break ground within the Hispanic intracultural groups, the data was found to be just adequate; the results were not found as expected since other variables that confound the results need to be controlled.

However, the exploratory study conducted still supported the theory illustrating marketers of financial products (i.e. savings accounts) should target these niche markets with the appropriate usage of humor. For example, practitioners should implement advertisements targeted towards Cuban Americans (involving long-term investment products) without the use of humor while Mexican Americans should be targeted (involving long-term investment products) with a more humorous approach to entice favorable attitudes towards the ads and brands. It is imperative to niche these sub culture differences since “Hispanics are getting richer”, in that their after tax income increased about 90 percent over ten years ago to about \$325 billion in 1999 (Anderson 2000). In addition, Hispanics are growing 4 times faster than the “White” population, are younger (26 years old vs. 34 years old) and have more time to accumulate assets (Anderson 2000).

### **Implications**

Humor as a role in advertising has been used in the trade for centuries and has many proponents and antagonists advocating or chiding its efficacy. For example, Dr. Pepper has been recorded in spending \$75 million on advertising in 1999 as it rolled out with 10 TV spots using humor to sell it’s diet brands that were created by Young and Rubicam to market towards Hispanics (McMains and Howard 1998).

With the knowledge of not all Hispanics being equal and being their own niche in terms of saving money and preparing for their future, it is imperative to find out how to get these consumers to start thinking in future terms as opposed to being present oriented (i.e. begin planning and investing for their future as opposed to present consumption of depreciating consumer products.) For example, why are Hispanic Americans spending more money on high quality consumer products, and attaching a high level of importance to high-status brand names (i.e. liabilities) compared to their counterpart Anglo Americans (Median et al. 1996) while they make less money in income, have bigger family sizes, and are more likely to live in poverty? The annual income for Hispanic families was only \$33,447 in 2000 compared to the U.S. median family income of \$42,148 (U.S. Bureau of the Census 2002c).

This research confirmed that Hispanics are not all the same, and English dominant Cuban Americans (high acculturated) do save money as well as plan and prepare for their future more than English dominant Mexican Americans (high acculturated). In addition it was found that Cuban Americans (both high and low acculturated) preferred a serious financial advertising appeal while Mexican Americans (both high and low acculturated) preferred a humorous financial advertising appeal. Therefore, if marketers can use humor to effectively attract Mexican Americans and non-humor to attract Cuban Americans, they can aid both themselves (financially) in targeting this underserved market, and both Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans by indirectly awakening their financial genius by investing and planning for their future.

Thus, by helping Hispanics break out of the minority rich vacuum, Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans can possibly focus on allocating their income to

invest in their future; instead of allocating their discretionary and/or disposable income on liabilities (i.e. products that depreciate from the moment of purchase-cars, furniture, and clothes) they can possibly focus on purchasing assets (i.e. products that make money on their money- stocks, certificate of deposits, bonds, and real estate) to plan financially for their future (Kiyosaki and Sharon 2000).

### **Limitations**

The research goal undertaken here was designed to first see if the two Latino subculture groups (Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans) have similar attitudes towards retention, and next to see if a humor appeal plays a more vital role than a non humorous ad appeal in terms of attitudes and behaviors of the ad, brand, and purchase intention. It is important to note that since this study was very exploratory, to break ground within the different subcultures of the Hispanic population, the results in this experiment were rather weak, allowing for a greater buffer of error; the results must be taken with extreme caution. First, this research used only one service category, long-term savings account, and the findings should only be inferred to long-term savings account as opposed to other financial products/services that are geared towards investing money.

Next, it is important to note that this study employed print ads as the medium as opposed to other mediums such as television and radio. Therefore, researchers using this study should take precaution generalizing the findings to other placement mediums. Dealing with the sample, since the majority of the sample were college students, it would be rash to generalize the findings to an older population and/or another college sample especially when the intent of this research was not to test for external validity but internal; also, gathering data and finding the target demographics was quite an onerous task since there seems to be a lack of Hispanics at the student sample level in colleges.

Also, even though the scales used in the questionnaire were all reliable, variables that were not controlled in this experiment were work, class, and predisposition of financial status and education of Hispanics. Finally in terms of the data analysis, the results indicated differences in retention (i.e. saving and planning for the future) between Cuban Americans and Mexican Americans but only at a 0.1 probability level leaving greater room for error; the data must be taken with extreme precaution.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

It would be premature to say that this study would need no additional augmentation and therefore guidelines for future research are as follows. First, future researchers should implement this study with actual advertisements from magazines as opposed to manifested ads along with different subcultures of the Hispanic group (e.g. Puerto Ricans, Central Americans and South Americans) or among different cultures altogether (e.g. African American and Asian American) to test for different levels of money attitudes and humor preferences.

Next, future research should replicate this study across different mediums (i.e. radio, television, and the Internet) to see if similar results do occur. In addition, different forms of financial products should be used since Cuban Americans were less likely to purchase the savings account product as hypothesized, which may be due to an insufficient conviction of purchasing the product even though favorable attitudes towards the ad and brand were present.

Moreover, since the sample (student base) limits generalizability of the study, future researchers should use this study with an older adult population to see if the hypotheses hold. Next, different ad appeals should be implemented such as humor vs. fear, to see if there are other differences and/or anomalies among the subjects. Also, this

study should be implemented with Spanish advertisements and across countries (e.g. U.S. and Mexico or Cuba) since the acculturation variable was found to affect attitudes towards retention (i.e. planning and preparing for the future).

This exploratory research set the stage (as a pre-pilot) for a full-blown experiment that has much opportunity to grow within the Hispanic population, a look into different geographic areas across the nation with a stronger sample of Hispanics should be used.

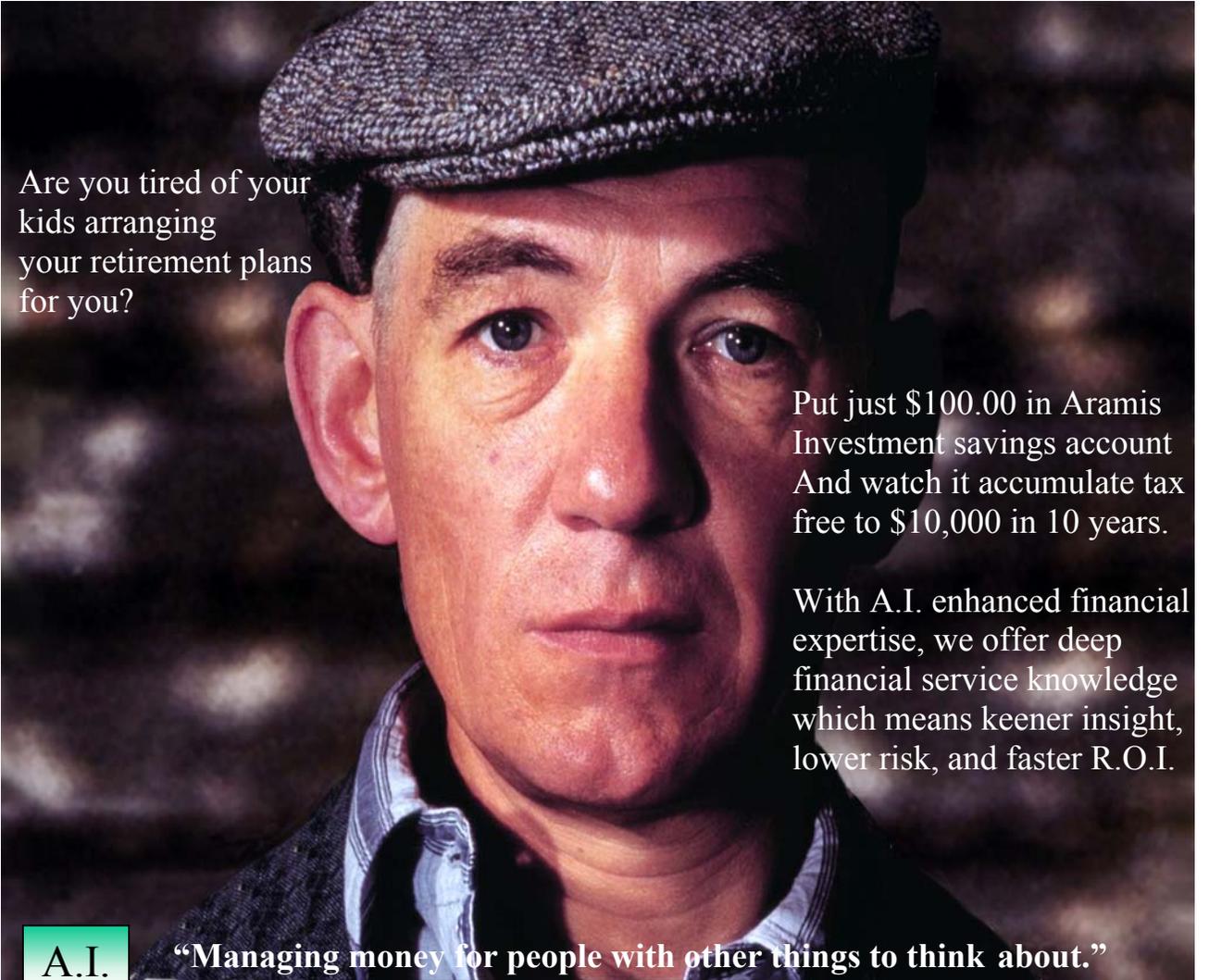
Finally, a scale that measures age and adequacy towards retention (e.g. measuring saving and planning for the future in terms of one to two years, as opposed to “planning for retirement”) should be implemented if another student sample is used; for example, an 19 year old student may not be planning and thinking for retirement at such an early age.

APPENDIX A  
RETENTION DIMENSION SCALE

Money Attitude (Retention/Time) Scale

1. I put money aside on a regular basis?
2. I do financial planning for the future?
3. I save now to prepare for my old age?
4. I have money available in the event of an economic depression?
5. I follow a careful financial budget?
6. I am prudent with the money I spent?
7. I keep track of my money?

APPENDIX B  
NON-HUMOROUS APPEAL



Are you tired of your  
kids arranging  
your retirement plans  
for you?

Put just \$100.00 in Aramis  
Investment savings account  
And watch it accumulate tax  
free to \$10,000 in 10 years.

With A.I. enhanced financial  
expertise, we offer deep  
financial service knowledge  
which means keener insight,  
lower risk, and faster R.O.I.

A.I.

“Managing money for people with other things to think about.”

APPENDIX C  
HUMOROUS APPEAL

**Are you tired of your kids arranging  
your retirement plans for you?**



Put just \$100.00 in Aramis  
Investment savings account  
And watch it accumulate tax free to  
\$10,000 in 10 years.

With A.I. enhanced financial  
expertise, we offer deep financial  
service knowledge which means  
keener insight, lower risk, and faster  
R.O.I.

**A.I.**

**“Managing money for people with other things to think about.”**

APPENDIX D  
QUESTIONNAIRE

**Directions**

The following questionnaire asks you to indicate your opinion to a number of descriptive adjectives about the advertisements presented on the previous page. The scales included in the questionnaire are meant to gauge your reactions to the tag line message. **There are no right or wrong answers.**

Read each set of adjectives carefully, and decide where your opinions would be most accurately reflected on the continuum. Then check the space on the scale that most closely reflects your opinion. You may refuse to answer any question.

**Proceed to Next Page**

- 1) Please list all thoughts occurred to you while viewing the advertisement.  
Please do not refer back to the test booklet.

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- 2) Please rate (check) how the ad makes you feel with regards to the following questions on a scale of 1 to 4. There are no right or wrong answers.

The advertisement was...

Unpleasant				Pleasant
—	—	—	—	
1	2	3	4	
Unlikable				Likable
—	—	—	—	
1	2	3	4	
Irritated				Not Irritating
—	—	—	—	
1	2	3	4	
Not interesting				Interesting
—	—	—	—	
1	2	3	4	

- 3) Please rate (check) how the **brand** makes you feel with regards to the following questions on a scale of 1 to 4. There are no right or wrong answers.

The brand was...

Bad

Good

\_\_\_\_\_  
1

\_\_\_\_\_  
2

\_\_\_\_\_  
3

\_\_\_\_\_  
4

Not nice

Nice

\_\_\_\_\_  
1

\_\_\_\_\_  
2

\_\_\_\_\_  
3

\_\_\_\_\_  
4

Unlikable

Likable

\_\_\_\_\_  
1

\_\_\_\_\_  
2

\_\_\_\_\_  
3

\_\_\_\_\_  
4

- 4) If you were in the market to purchase stocks, how likely is it that you would purchase it from the company depicted in the ad, on a scale of 1 to 3, where 1=I would be unlikely to buy from this company and 3=I would be likely to buy from this company. There are no right or wrong answers. (Check)

Unlikely to buy

Likely to buy

\_\_\_\_\_  
1

\_\_\_\_\_  
2

\_\_\_\_\_  
3

\_\_\_\_\_  
4

Improbable to buy

Probable to buy

\_\_\_\_\_  
1

\_\_\_\_\_  
2

\_\_\_\_\_  
3

\_\_\_\_\_  
4

Impossible to buy

Possible to buy

\_\_\_\_\_  
1

\_\_\_\_\_  
2

\_\_\_\_\_  
3

\_\_\_\_\_  
4

- 5) Please rate (check) how the advertisement makes you feel with regards to the following questions on a scale of 1 to 5. There are no right or wrong answers.

The advertisement was...

Not Humorous

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	2	3	4	5

Humorous

Not Funny

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	2	3	4	5

Funny

Not Playful

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	2	3	4	5

Playful

Not Amusing

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	2	3	4	5

Amusing

Dull

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	2	3	4	5

Not Dull

- 6) Please rate (check) how the advertisement message argument makes you feel with regards to the following questions on a scale of 1 to 4. There are no right or wrong answers.

Weak				Strong	
—	—	—		—	
1	2	3		4	
Unpersuasive				Persuasive	
—	—	—		—	
1	2	3		4	
Not Convincing				Convincing	
—	—	—		—	
1	2	3		4	
Bad Argument				Good Argument	
—	—	—		—	
1	2	3		4	

- 7) Read each of the following statements. Then, place a check on each scale to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree, if at all, with that statement. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. I put money aside on a regular basis?

Strongly	Slightly	Neither Agree	Slightly	Strongly
Agree	Agree	Nor Disagree	Disagree	Disagree
—	—	—	—	—
1	2	3	4	5

2. I do financial planning for the future?

Strongly	Slightly	Neither Agree	Slightly	Strongly
Agree	Agree	Nor Disagree	Disagree	Disagree

—	—	—	—	—
1	2	3	4	5

3. I save now to prepare for my old age?

Strongly	Slightly	Neither Agree	Slightly	Strongly
Agree	Agree	Nor Disagree	Disagree	Disagree

—	—	—	—	—
1	2	3	4	5

4. I have money available in the event of an economic depression?

Strongly	Slightly	Neither Agree	Slightly	Strongly
Agree	Agree	Nor Disagree	Disagree	Disagree

—	—	—	—	—
1	2	3	4	5

5. I follow a careful financial budget?

Strongly	Slightly	Neither Agree	Slightly	Strongly
Agree	Agree	Nor Disagree	Disagree	Disagree

—	—	—	—	—
1	2	3	4	5

6. I am prudent with the money I spent?

Strongly	Slightly	Neither Agree	Slightly	Strongly
Agree	Agree	Nor Disagree	Disagree	Disagree
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	2	3	4	5

7. I keep track of my money?

Strongly	Slightly	Neither Agree	Slightly	Strongly
Agree	Agree	Nor Disagree	Disagree	Disagree
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	2	3	4	5

**The following questions will be used for statistical purposes only. Your answers will be held in the strictest confidence. (Check)**

What is your academic classification?

- 01. \_\_\_\_\_ Freshman
- 02. \_\_\_\_\_ Sophomore
- 03. \_\_\_\_\_ Junior
- 04. \_\_\_\_\_ Senior
- 05. \_\_\_\_\_ Graduate student

What is your intended date of graduation?

- 01. \_\_\_\_\_ Fall 2003
- 02. \_\_\_\_\_ Spring 2004
- 03. \_\_\_\_\_ Summer 2004
- 04. \_\_\_\_\_ Fall 2004
- 05. \_\_\_\_\_ Spring 2004 or later

In what year were you born? \_\_\_\_\_

What is your gender?

- 01. \_\_\_\_\_ Male
- 02. \_\_\_\_\_ Female

What is your marital status?

01. \_\_\_\_\_ Single (not divorced or separated)  
 02. \_\_\_\_\_ Married  
 03. \_\_\_\_\_ Divorced or legally separated  
 04. \_\_\_\_\_ Widowed

What is your race? (Check one)

01. \_\_\_\_\_ Caucasian/White  
 02. \_\_\_\_\_ African American/Black  
 03. \_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic Latino Cuban American  
 04. \_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic Latino Mexican American  
 05. \_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic Latino Other (Specify \_\_\_\_\_)  
 06. \_\_\_\_\_ Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander  
 07. \_\_\_\_\_ Other \_\_\_\_\_ (please specify)

**Please answer the following questions if you checked options 03, 04, and/or 05 from the previous question. If you did not, then please turn in your questionnaire.**

How long have you lived in the United States? (Check one)

- 01 \_\_\_\_\_ Your whole life  
 02 \_\_\_\_\_ 15-20 years  
 03 \_\_\_\_\_ 14-10 years  
 04 \_\_\_\_\_ 9-5 years  
 05 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 years and under

What type of language do you use at home?

Only Use Spanish

\_\_\_\_\_                      \_\_\_\_\_                      \_\_\_\_\_  
 1                                      2                                      3

Only use English

\_\_\_\_\_  
 4

What type of language do you use at school?

Only Use Spanish

\_\_\_\_\_                      \_\_\_\_\_                      \_\_\_\_\_  
 1                                      2                                      3

Only use English

\_\_\_\_\_  
 4

What type of language do you use among friends?

Only Use Spanish

Only use English

\_\_\_\_\_  
1

\_\_\_\_\_  
2

\_\_\_\_\_  
3

\_\_\_\_\_  
4

How much time do you spend on Spanish speaking media (T.V., radio, magazines)?

01 \_\_\_\_\_ Less than 1 hour

02 \_\_\_\_\_ 1-2 hours

03 \_\_\_\_\_ More than 2 hours

04 \_\_\_\_\_ None at all

How much time do you spend on English speaking media (T.V., radio, magazines)?

01 \_\_\_\_\_ Less than 1 hour

02 \_\_\_\_\_ 1-2 hours

03 \_\_\_\_\_ More than 2 hours

04 \_\_\_\_\_ None at all

Thank you for participating. If you have any problems or questions, please email Dr. Villegas at [jvillegas@jou.ufl.edu](mailto:jvillegas@jou.ufl.edu).

APPENDIX E  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD CONSENT FORM

Student Informed Consent Disclosure Agreement

APPROVED BY  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board (IRB 02)  
Protocol# 2003-U-827  
For Use Through 10-7-04

**Purpose of Study:**

The purpose of this questionnaire is to get some consumer input on advertisement campaigns that will be used in upcoming magazines this year.

**What you will be asked to do in the study:**

If you choose to participate in the study, you will be asked to review two print ads and provide your reactions to them. All responses will be recorded on the questionnaire provided and should take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

**Benefits/Risks:**

There are no direct health benefits to the subjects for participating in the study. In addition, there are no personal discomfort, stress, or personal risks associated with participating in this study.

**Compensation:**

Everyone will be entitled to receive free food and drinks for participating in this study.

**Confidentiality:**

Your responses will be confidential to the extent provided by law. In addition, the results of your participation will be anonymous and the researcher will have no way of associating your responses directly with you.

Your participation is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw your consent at any time during the survey without penalty. In the event that you do withdraw consent, the results of your participation, to the extent that they can be identified as yours, will be returned to you, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

**Whom to contact if you have questions about the study:**

If you would like to learn more about the study, you may contact Dr. Jorge Villegas, Department of Advertising (2093 Weimer Hall) by telephone at (352) 392-5059 or by email at [jvillegas@jou.ufl.edu](mailto:jvillegas@jou.ufl.edu). Also you can contact Aarambh Shah, principal investigator, at (305) 710-7180 or by email at [aarwu2000@yahoo.com](mailto:aarwu2000@yahoo.com)

**Whom to contact about your rights as a research participant in the study:**

UFIRB Office, Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250; (352)-392-0433.

**Agreement:**

I have read, received a copy, and voluntarily agree to participate in the procedures above.

Participant: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Principal Investigator: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

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