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How African-American and Hispanics perceive their racial equality in American advertising

Denise Michele Pallais
Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College

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HOW AFRICAN-AMERICANS AND HISPANICS PERCEIVE THEIR RACIAL EQUALITY IN AMERICAN ADVERTISING

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural Mechanical College
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Denise M. Pallais
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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on how African-Americans and Hispanics perceive their racial equality in American advertising. A survey was conducted to find out the African-American and the Hispanic perceptions about how these ethnic groups saw themselves depicted, and the way they are stereotyped by the U.S. media. Overall, the study found that there was no difference between race and the level of perception between these two ethnic groups. However, age appears to be the only demographic variable that affects the African-American and Hispanic perception of discrimination. In addition, the study also exposed that African-Americans are mostly portrayed in the athletic advertising industry. Hispanics, on the other hand, appear most often in family-oriented and business-oriented ads.
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

There has been a rapid increase in the amount and spending power of African-Americans and Hispanics in the United States (Wellner, 2002). Consequently, these two ethnic groups have become very important to the U.S. economy, and advertisers must take them into consideration. However, African-Americans and Hispanics have long been ignored and stereotyped in negative ways (Chinyelu, 1991). Therefore, these ethnic groups have developed a feeling of discrimination as a result of this under-representation and negative portrayal in U.S. advertisements. Furthermore, these minority groups not only feel discriminated against, but they believe that Caucasians feel superior and reflect much of this superiority through the media (Chinyelu, 1991).

According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2002), Hispanics and African-Americans are the top two minority groups in the United States. African-Americans are the largest minority group in the U.S. with over 36 million people, followed by Hispanics with over 35 million, who have become the fastest growing minority group. African-Americans, or blacks, are defined “as people who have origins in any of the black racial groups of Africa including people that identify their race as black or African-American” (“What do we mean,” 2002). Hispanics are defined as “a person of any race who either speaks Spanish or has a Spanish speaking ancestor” (Braus, 1993).

Demographics

The distribution of African-Americans by age indicates that about 32.5% of the African-American population are 18 years and under. Eleven percent of the African-Americans are in the range between 18 to 24 years. Thirty-one percent of African-Americans are between 25 and 44 years, while about 19% of the African-American population is between 45 to 64 years. Almost
8% of the African-American population is 65 years and over (U.S. Census Bureau, 2002a). On the other hand, the distribution of Hispanics by age indicates that about 35% are 18 years and under. Thirteen percent of Hispanics are between 18 to 24 years. Thirty-three percent of Hispanics are between 25 and 44 years, while about 15% of Hispanics are between 45 and 64 years. Almost 6% of the Hispanic population is 65 years and over (U.S. Census Bureau, 2002b).

Regarding gender, there are more females than males in both of the two ethnic groups. As these ethnic groups have increased in number, their purchasing power has also increased, and they have become very important to the U.S. economy. In addition, according to American Demographics, by the year 2007, “African-American spending will top the $850 billion mark, and Hispanics will yield more than $900 billion in spending power” (Wellner, 2002).

As a result of the rapid increase of the African-American and the Hispanic’s purchasing power, many businesses will be forced to rethink their strategies for targeting their products and services to these two ethnic groups. Consequently, there has been an increase of interest in the African-American and Hispanic community by associations. These associations have been forming to achieve the goal of targeting these ethnic groups. One example is the Association of Black-Owned Advertising Agencies, Inc. (ABAA), which focuses on “advocating for the interests of African-American-owned advertising agencies and marketing communications firms maintaining relations with governmental, industry, consumer and other organizations on matters affecting advertising and marketing communications encouraging the development of research” (“Black advertising agencies,” 2005). Another example is the Association of Hispanic Advertising Agencies (AHAA), which main focus is to “grow, strengthen and protect the Hispanic marketing and advertising industry by providing leadership in raising awareness of the value of the Hispanic market opportunities” (“About AHAA,” 2005). In addition, there are other
agencies such as these that are helping U.S. companies target the African-American and the
Hispanic community by attempting to get the minority consumers involved in an effort to
improve the advertisements that target these minorities.

Evidence shows that African-Americans and Hispanics are not being effectively reached
by advertising that is placed in the traditional media. For example, “The Los Angeles Times
estimated the Hispanic market of 778,181 reaches only 12% of the 6.5 million Hispanics in the
Los Angeles DMA” (“Why multicultural,” 2005). Even when traditional media advertising
reaches these ethnic groups, the advertising often fails to convey the message to the targeted
audience. The advertisements are viewed by many minorities as not being for them (“Why
multicultural,” 2005). So, the African-American and Hispanic audiences feel that conventional
media typically does not understand them, and that generally the messages do not speak directly
to them. The minorities reason that the general media tries to reach everyone, and that advertisers
do not take into account the differences in consumption patterns and the emerging demographics
of the minority market (“Minorities: Targets of,” 2005). For example, in the case of Hispanics,
earlier generations of immigrants thought that simple translations and advertisements featuring
Hispanic faces were acceptable. However, “Hispanics are acculturating and have a unique desire
to retain language and culture as a crucial element of self-identity and pride” (“AHAA Member
Agencies”, 2005).

On the other hand, the targeted ethnic media attempts to accommodate African-American
and Hispanic culture in their messages to target each of their communities. Many of these ethnic
groups’ newspapers contain editorial matter that focuses on the news and issues directly
affecting their readership. For example, “Spanish-language radio stations, which are among the
top rated stations in many markets, feature music catering to Hispanic heritage and tastes, and
television outlets such as Black Entertainment Television (BET), The International Channel and Telemundo draw diverse ethnic audiences with their focused programming” (“Why multicultural,” 2005).

In spite of the U.S. media’s attempts to reach the African-American and the Hispanic communities, the media still struggles to find out how to appeal to these ethnic groups. Many businesses have began to reengineer their strategies to focus on the group’s culture to develop new guidelines to achieve their goal of specifically targeting them. For example, Heineken in 2005 launched the “No kiss for you” advertising. The ad featured two men, a Caucasian and a Hispanic, hanging at a bar, when a couple of girls stop by. The girls greeted their Hispanic friend with a kiss, but gave the Caucasian friend only a handshake. The Caucasian asked the Hispanic, “why didn’t he get a kiss?” The Hispanic man answers him, “you know, cultural differences,” and the camera reveals that the Caucasian is holding a non-Heineken beer (Wentz, 2005).

Nevertheless, in order for businesses and advertisers to achieve their goal of reaching these minority groups, they must first study their target audience and carefully explore their culture, language, beliefs, values, and so forth.

Culture

“Culture plays a powerful, defining role for how ethnic consumers behave and purchase goods and services” (Gardyn, 2001). For instance, the African-American culture is both part of, and distinct from, American culture. From their earliest presence in North America, Africans and African-Americans have contributed literature, art, agricultural skills, foods, clothing styles, music, and language to American culture. Nevertheless, the African-American culture is a combination of influences from different parts of the world, such as the Caribbean, European, African and the Hispanic cultures. On the other hand, the Hispanic culture varies widely from
one Hispanic community to another. Despite this diversity, several features tend to unite Hispanics from diverse backgrounds. According to American Demographics, there are many things in particular that differentiate Hispanics from other races. For example, Hispanics are extremely brand loyal (Oliver, 1992). In addition, they share many things in common such as the Spanish language, cultural attitudes, and religion (Braus, 1993). Most importantly, Hispanics value the family.

Communication and advertising researchers have long been interested in researching African-Americans and Hispanics, and trying to find out how to effectively target them through advertising. Early studies of minority groups were based on the assumption of homogeneity and the biological determination of race and ethnicity. Later, there were some attempts to create multicultural advertising, but these ads were not fully appreciated. However, there was an increasing amount of research on minorities, which focused on descriptive differences between African-American and Caucasian consumers, especially in terms of equality of treatment. However, images of African-Americans revealed negative stereotyping (Stern, 1999).

The media has strived to target these ethnic groups; however, the media has failed to convey the message because their ads are not aimed at these minority groups. Thus, advertisers must take action and conduct research to find out ways to target these minorities. Many studies have been done, on the portrayal of Caucasian attitudes, behaviors, feelings and beliefs. Other studies talk either about specific ethnic groups and the difference in their attitudes based on race, or how other ethnic groups view other ethnic groups in relation to media (McDonald, 2001). Many studies have also researched the effects the media has upon viewer’s perceptions in relation to gender and ethnicity (Graves, 1999). Conversely, there appears to be no research on how minorities perceive themselves in U.S. advertisements and the feelings that are evoked from
This portrayal.

This research is designed to fill in this gap. This study was first done as a pilot study. A survey was employed, resulting in a total of 70 usable surveys. The results of the pilot study revealed that there was no difference between race and the level of perception between these two ethnic groups in relation to certain factors, such as work ethics and education. Hence, the study revealed that African-Americans are mostly portrayed in advertising pertaining to the athletic industry. Hispanics, on the other hand, appear most often in family-oriented and business-oriented ads.

Although the pilot study revealed useful data for advertisers to consider, it could not be generalized due to a small sample size. The purpose of this exploratory thesis study is to expand the pilot study to identify and to compare how the top two minority groups in the United States, African-Americans and Hispanics, perceive their racial equality in American advertising. Thus, it tries to answers the following key questions: how do African-Americans and Hispanics feel they are portrayed in American Advertising, and do they feel they are positively or negatively portrayed?
CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are five avenues of literature review for this study. These are Caucasian perceptions about minorities, media portrayal of minorities, race, theoretical framework, and racial ideology and stereotyping.

Caucasian Perceptions about Minorities

The studies found on African-Americans look at how they and the Hispanic community are viewed by other ethnic groups, especially Caucasians, and way the media portrays them, and the effect this has on the general public. Many of these studies reveal that African-Americans and Hispanics are being discriminated and stereotyped by the media.

There are some studies, such as McDonald’s (2001) study that focused on how Caucasians explain African-American and Hispanic inequalities. It explains the difference among racial groups. In this research, McDonald (2001) explained these inequalities, and elaborated on two different explanations. These explanations include the following: the individual explanation, which identifies personal or cultural flaws or a minority group’s membership as a source of socioeconomic disadvantages or structural explanation, which focuses on societal factors that impede the life changes of racial and ethnic minorities.

McDonald’s (2001) study found that Caucasians tend to perceive African-Americans as more racially discriminated against than Hispanics, using different explanations to justify this inequality. McDonald (2001) contends that while Hispanics were regarded as a new immigrant group in the United States, African-Americans were never considered immigrants and were subjected to slavery and severe economic, social and political subjugation (McDonald, 2001). As a result, this barrier still prevails among many American families. In the same way McDonald’s (2001) study talks about Caucasian attitudes, Brink and Harris (1964) proposed another
explanation, which states that African-American attitudes towards Caucasians are based on the desire to be treated equally. However, Brink and Harris (1964) suggested that Caucasians’ attitudes towards African-Americans reveal an inner conflict between Caucasian’s emotions and intellect. According to Brink and Harris (1964), Caucasians’ intellect tells them that African-Americans have suffered years of discrimination, contradicting the American belief of equality. On the other hand, their emotions make them feel uncomfortable with the viewpoint of such equality for African-Americans (Brink & Harris, 1964).

In addition to McDonald’s (2001) and the Brink and Harris (1964) studies about Caucasian attitudes towards ethnic groups, Coover (2001) tries to explain the influence of race representation on Caucasian viewers’ feelings, perceptions, and opinions. The analysis completed by Coover (2001) about television and social identity characterizes many Caucasian viewers as having a positive response to African-Americans in the media. It suggests that this positive response is due to “Caucasian viewers’ fears of appearing racist being allayed, while Caucasians negative assumptions or racist attitudes about African-Americans in general, go unchallenged’ (Coover, 2001). Coover (2001) believes that a possible explanation to these results might be that Caucasian audiences like to see portrayals of people from two different ethnic groups helping one another.

**Media Portrayal of Minorities**

Other studies that have been done on minorities relate to how media, especially television, affects people’s perceptions about minority groups. “By transmitting selective images and ideas, television commercials not only teach young consumers to buy and consume certain products, but they also teach children to accept certain beliefs and values” (Bang & Reece, 2003). For instance, Graves (1999) conducted a study that focused on “televised role portrayals
and interracial interactions as sources of vicarious experiences that contribute to the development of stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination among children” (Graves, 1999). According to Graves (1999), among ethnic groups, African-Americans are most likely to be shown on television, and Hispanics are the least likely to be represented. “Though the numbers are limited, the portrayals of visible racial/ethnic groups are relevant to television’s capacity to create, maintain and modify stereotypes and prejudice, especially in children” (Graves, 1999). The result of the study conducted by Graves (1999) acknowledges that children can learn racial and nonracial information from television. In fact, their short and long-time exposure to televised racial portrayals can influence their racial attitudes and perceptions (Graves, 1999).

In addition to Graves’ study on how media affects people’s perception of minority groups, LiVollmer (2002) developed a study that focused on how race was presented in child-targeted television commercials. He studied the visibility, status, and roles of several U.S. racial groups in commercial broadcasting during children’s programming. He found that “the modest improvement in the racial demographics of child-targeted television commercials are insignificant when weighed against the racial disparity evident (or invisibility), status, and roles granted to the characters shown” (LiVollmer, 2002). Therefore, television aids children in constructing their own point of view. However, the images and sounds shown on television are very realistic and stimulate real life experiences that can greatly influence children as they create their own way of thinking.

**Race**

“Studies show that racial and ethnic minorities are underrepresented in advertisements. In the United States, Hispanics are significantly underrepresented in television commercials” (Cohen-Eliya & Hammer, 2004). Although African-Americans are not underrepresented in
advertisements, they are significantly underrepresented in some types of ads, such as these ones involving family settings (Cohen-Eliya & Hammer, 2004).

Some researchers, such as Bristor, Hunt and Lee (1995), believe that even though there has been an increase in African-American representation in advertisements, the ads “suggest that the positive effect of including more African-Americans in ads is sometimes mitigated by racist elements that suggest African-American inferiority. Some of these elements include the following: role portrayal, screen presence, camera distance, and exposure time among others” (Bristor, Hunt & Lee, 1995). For example, in 2005 American Express One launched an ad featuring young Adam Stern, who was “a born spender.” “He had the cafeteria lady bring a carton of milk to a cute classmate, tipped the crossing guard and bribed his gym teacher, who is played by an African-American. Adam Stern has an American Express One card, which deposits money to a high-yielding saving account for every purchase Adam makes, so ‘now when Adam spends, he saves’”(www.adweek.com). The African-American model has a small time exposure in the ad and he is negatively portrayed.

In addition, Coltrane and Messineo (2000) conducted a study on the “Perpetuation of Subtle Prejudice: Race and Gender Imagery in 1990’s Television Advertising” (Coltrane & Messineo, 2000). In their study, Coltrane and Messineo (2000) suggest that the images presented in television advertisements contribute to the understated prejudice against minorities by exaggerating cultural differences. For example, Carlos Mencia, a Hispanic stand–up comedian on Comedy Central has a show named after him, called Mind of Mencia. In his show, Mencia addresses a variety of subjects, including ethnic stereotypes, racism, and people's inability to laugh at themselves. Coltrane and Messineo (2000) concluded that although African-Americans are more prominent than other minorities, evidence reveals that negative stereotypes of African-
Americans are still common.

As observed in the Coltrane and Messineo (2000) study, other minorities, such as Hispanics, are under-represented. For instance, Bang and Taylor (1997) conducted a study to examine the frequency and nature of advertising portrayals of Hispanics. The results of their study revealed that Hispanics are highly under-represented and that they are portrayed in more negative ways than other minority groups. The Bang and Taylor (1997) study suggested Hispanics are portrayed more frequently in blue-collar occupations and less frequently in white-collar occupations. This finding raises the possibility that stereotypical portrayals are serving to create an expectation relating to the types of jobs that are held by Hispanics. For example, the TV show aired on NBC, *Will and Grace*, has a Hispanic character whose occupation is a housekeeper. Interestingly, their findings were found to be consistent with stereotypes of Hispanics relating to occupation/educational level and emphasis on family relationships (Bang & Taylor, 1997).

In addition, multicultural research addresses race/ethnicity as a collection of meanings determined by individuals who have had varied life experiences. Many scholars reject the category of race as a biological fact. They believe that African-Americans do not simply look alike, but rather originally come from different countries, with different languages and different cultures. Yet, African-Americans are now considered a racial group, just as Hispanics and Asian-Americans, and the descriptor African-American, which refers to diverse national origins, has been replaced by the “black” label, which refers to a single skin color (Stern, 1999). However, today the biological concept of considering race as a category has been widely accepted.
Theoretical Framework

As a way to analyze how African-Americans and Hispanics perceive their racial equality in advertising, there are several theories such as, identification theory, which facilitates the understanding of ethnic portrayal in advertising. Identification theory maintains that people automatically assess their level of similarity with a source during an interaction and make similar judgments. This process drives individuals to choose models based on perceived similarities between themselves and the model. “Identification occurs when an individual’s interests are dramatized (talking his language by speech, gesture, tonality, order, image, attitude, idea) identifying your ways with his” (Connaughton & Jarvis, 2004). Thus, when viewers perceive that the source possesses characteristics similar to their own, such as race or gender, they begin to infer that the source will also share other characteristics, all of which lead to greater identification. Nevertheless, studies such as the one conducted by Lai, Tan and Tharp (1990), believe that “prejudice decreases the contact of one race with people of different ones, and that prejudice should also decrease the liking of the ad or product that uses a person of the other race as a spokesperson” (Lai, Tan & Tharp, 1990). On the other hand, studies, such as the one conducted by Appiah (2001) have shown that individuals who are more likely to feel identification with the character’s traits are more affected by the content in which those characters are engaged.

As Appiah (2001) suggested in his study, people must identify with the model to the extent where the person must feel he/she belongs to the same social group. “The individual’s feeling of belongingness in a social group, and emotional significance attached to that feeling of belongingness, defines a person racially and ethnically” (Appiah, 2001). For example, African-Americans consider this feeling of belonging to a social group very important for their
self-concept. Thus, African-Americans who identify themselves strongly to the African-American culture also identify themselves strongly with the African-American models in advertising. To target the African-American consumers effectively, advertisers must employ an African-American model or use certain African-American culture cues to make them realize they are being targeted.

In addition to the Appiah (2001) study, Whittler and Spira (2002) studied how a model’s race is examined by minority viewers and the minority viewers’ use of racial cues when they are exposed to a product advertisement. The results of Whittler and Spira (2002) study is supported by the Appiah’s (2001) study, suggesting that African-Americans express greater liking for an African-American model than a Caucasian model. Whittler and Spira (2002) argue that African-Americans that are highly identified with the model are more motivated to produce positive thoughts and evaluations when the model they are exposed to, is an African-American.

Besides, the two studies mentioned above, there is a third study that also supports the identification theory. This third study was conducted by Green (1995), who examined the “interaction effects of strength of ethnic identification, media placement and degree of racial composition” (Green, 1995). Green’s (1995) study proves once again that African-Americans have a positive evaluation of ads that have strong ethnic identifiers. Conversely, Caucasians have a more positive evaluation of ads that have weak ethnic identifiers. So, ethnic groups strongly identify with people that have similar backgrounds to their own because they feel they are being targeted.

**Racial Ideology and Stereotyping**

Researchers have also looked at ideology as a way to explain the portrayal of ethnic groups in the media and to understand stereotypes. Ideology is a system of beliefs that combines
various discourses to reinforce and reproduce assumptions about individuals. However, this definition was later modified to the ideological process of analyzing media representations: “Ideology is described as a state of political, psychic, economic, aesthetic, pedagogic and discursive tension, conceptualized and studied as a lived relationship rather than as a set of beliefs which are shared or imposed” (Paek & Shah, 2003). Ideologies can be shared by few, such as a small soccer team, or many such as an entire continent or religious group.

In countries where there are unequal relations of power, such as the United States, ideology is the means by which the dominant group exerts its power and maintains it over other groups. In addition, the mass media is used as the channel by which the groups’ ideologies are reproduced and transmitted (Paek & Shah, 2003). For instance, television provides information concerning social groups in two ways, by inclusion and by exclusion. When diverse social groups are included, a television “portrays specific examples of the social group’s physical, psychological, social, cultural, and economic characteristics” (Graves, 1999). However when these groups are excluded, they are “portrayed as unimportant, inconsequential and powerless” (Graves, 1999). Yet, both ways can contribute to the development, maintenance, and modification of people’s thoughts, feelings and actions towards racial/ethnic groups (Graves, 1999).

Consequently, researchers and authors who have studied media portrayal of ethnic groups classify the problem of racism as an ideology. Although ideologies are extremely powerful, they are difficult to detect and understand. Racism is defined as being the “number one ideology of racial domination or exploitation that incorporates beliefs in a particular race’s cultural and/or inherent biological inferiority and uses such beliefs and prescribes inferior or unequal treatment for that group” (Bristor, Hunt & Lee, 1995). The media plays an important role in the way racial
ideology is disseminated, because it can communicate racial ideology in several ways, such as omission, which simply is ignoring the existence of other racial/ethnic groups, and stereotyping, which shows these racial/ethnic groups in disproportionate, lower status roles.

Stereotypes are a set of representational practices by which one group’s beliefs about personal attributes of members of another group are widely accepted and generalized. Stereotyping condenses people to a few, simple, essential characteristics, which are represented as fixed by nature. According to Cohen-Eliya and Hammer (2004), people are exposed to stereotypes as part of their socialization process, which means transferring norms from one generation to another. “Socialization begins with the family and then continues in school, but it is also conducted ceaselessly by the media” (Cohen-Eliya & Hammer, 2004). “In advertising there is a pervasive tendency to stereotype, due to the fact that advertising must convey ideals and images quickly and easily” (Peak & Shah, 2003). Although, stereotyping may many times be very effective, it may also be ineffective because it causes the exclusion of several possible consumer groups that are not targeted.

While advertising is essential for the United States’ economy, it carries stereotypical images of minority groups to the mass audience and conveys about racial ideology. For example, African-Americans have been stereotyped negatively in advertising (Chinyelu, 1991). Several decades ago, they were usually portrayed as servants, maids, porters, and so forth. Nonetheless, this stereotyping has been changing through the years, and now “African-Americans are generally portrayed as athletes” (Bristol, et al., 1995). Several advertisers use celebrity/professional athletes, such as Charles Barkley and Michael Jordan, for McDonald’s and Nike. African-American athletes can serve as positive role models, yet their appearance can cause conflict. For instance, stereotypical African-American athleticism is embedded in the
assumption that African-Americans, especially men, possess genetically gifted skills that are not biologically accorded to Caucasians. Nevertheless, Caucasians are assumed to have more brain power than African-Americans. Another common stereotypical African-American role portrayal is that of fast food worker, or other a low wage worker, often happily helping a Caucasian customer (Bristor, et al., 1995). Hence, the simple presence of an African-American model in ads may invoke certain race-based stereotypes that characterize African-Americans as being cool, hip, athletic, musical and fashionable (Appiah, 2001).

In addition, although Hispanics are considered a new immigrant group in the United States and their portrayals have recently increased, they have been portrayed in both negative and less accurate ways than Caucasians (Bang & Taylor, 1997). Prior research has found that there are a limited number of portrayals of Hispanics, and that the portrayals that do exist are often stereotypical. For example, the Bang and Taylor (1997) study found that Hispanics are most frequently shown in business settings, and that they are depicted as having family relationships somewhat more frequently than other minority groups. Nonetheless, Hispanics are often associated with criminal activity in advertising (Bang & Taylor, 1997). Additionally, Hispanics regularly appear in commercials associated with upscale lifestyle products, suggesting that Hispanics work hard to achieve a higher-class lifestyle (Graves, 1999).

Redundant to the Bang and Taylor (1997) study about the portrayal of Hispanics in advertising, Mastro and Greenberg (2000) examined the portrayal of racial minorities on prime time television and focused on the linkage between the social perceptions of minorities and their TV roles. Although minorities groups are more frequently targeted, they are still negatively stereotyped. For instance, the Mastro and Greenberg (2000) study supports the Bang and Taylor (1997) and Chinyelu (1991) studies, revealing that African-Americans are more negatively
portrayed than Caucasians or Hispanics. Thus, Mastro and Greenberg (2000) study found that
African-Americans are depicted as the laziest and the least respected minority group.

Interestingly, in another study conducted by Mastro and Stern (2003), concerning the
representations of race in television commercials, we can observe that a contradiction exist
between this study and an earlier study conducted by Mastro and Greensberg (2000). Mastro and
Stern (2003) study reports that “progress and stagnation for racial/ethnic minority exists”
(Mastro & Stern, 2003). The study contradicts the Mastro and Greenberg (2000) study because
the second study concludes that Caucasians and African-Americans are generally portrayed in a
more diverse and equitable way. Nevertheless, it still identifies with the Bang and Taylor (1997)
study because it suggests that Hispanics remain underrepresented and often negatively portrayed.
One example is that Hispanics identity in many ads reveals “sexuality and physical appearance
rather than intellect, as the most important components of self” (Mastro & Stern, 2003).

Some researcher, such as Bristor et al. (1995), believe that the problem with these
stereotypes is not their truth or falsity, but their asymmetry, primarily because they represent
negative depictions of African-Americans and Hispanics that either occur in reality or in the eye
of Caucasians. Such stereotypical images inhibit the production of other meanings. For example,
advertising image depictions of African-Americans as athletes, Hispanics as hard workers, as
opposed to Caucasians as professionals, can shape and reinforce certain assumptions about race
(Bristor, et al., 1995). As a result, the use of stereotyping in advertising may result in negative
outcomes if the consumers have limited contact with other ethnic groups, especially the African-
Americans and the Hispanics community.

The purpose of the present study was to investigate how African-Americans and
Hispanics perceive themselves in American advertising. In addition, the study also examines
how these two ethnic groups are stereotyped and their perceptions about the stereotypes that are portrayed through the media.

**Hypotheses and Research Questions**

Based on the previous findings, this study tests the following hypotheses and research questions:

H1: African-Americans will tend to see themselves depicted significantly more in athletic advertisements than in family-oriented, fast food industry, fashion industry and business industry advertisements.

H2: Hispanics will tend to see themselves depicted significantly more in family-oriented advertisements than in athletic, fast food industry, fashion industry and business industry advertisements.

H3a: The racial equality scale will be affected by age.

H3b: The racial equality scale will be affected by income.

H3c: The racial equality scale will be affected by education.

H3d: The racial equality scale will be affected by ethnicity.

RQ1: From respondents’ direct experience, how do African-Americans think they have been stereotyped in advertising?

RQ2: From respondents’ direct experience, how do Hispanics think they have been stereotyped in advertising?
CHAPTER 3. METHOD

“A quantitative research involves several methods of data collection, such as telephone surveys, mail surveys, and Internet surveys” (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003, p. 47). This kind of research has several advantages, such as “the use of numbers, which allows greater precision in reporting results” (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003, p. 48). A survey was employed to test the hypotheses and answer the research questions, because information obtained from the study can be generalized and transformed to gain valuable information. The information obtained from this study can later be used by advertisers to expand their knowledge and target the African-American and the Hispanic minority groups. Other reasons that influenced the decision to use the survey as the research method, was that it is low in cost, avoids interviewer bias, and gives respondents a feeling of anonymity, which will allow the respondents to answer more openly to sensitive questions (Judd, Smith & Kidder, 1991, p. 216).

The populations of interest of this study are people with African-American and Hispanic ethnic background. Being African-American refers to people whose origins are from any of the black racial groups in Africa. Being Hispanic refers to people whose decedents or themselves are from a Latin American country. This study conducted a purposive sample of people that had either African-American or Hispanic backgrounds. The purposive sample was chosen for this study because the subjects were selected for specific characteristics and it eliminated those who failed to meet these criteria (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003, p. 88). Another reason why the subjects were chosen purposefully was to yield as many different and mixed situations as possible (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003, p. 88).

A two-page questionnaire containing 23 close-ended questions, which provides a greater uniformity of response was administered (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003, p. 170). The questions
related to how the African-Americans and Hispanics perceive their racial equality in advertising and whether they are stereotyped in ads (see Appendix A).

**Procedure**

A total of 150 people were questioned. The respondents included African-Americans or Hispanics that live in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. Baton Rouge was chosen as the site for this research due to the fact that a common area was needed where these two ethnic groups were located, and where each group has an opportunity to emigrate and expand. For instance, according to censusscope.org, the African-American community is mainly concentrated in the southeast area of the United States (“United States,” 2002a). Hispanics are also mainly concentrated in the southern section of the United States (“United States,” 2002b). Thus, Louisiana was chosen as the state to conduct the survey because it contains a large African-American population and an expanding Hispanic population (“United States,” 2002a & 2002b). The Hispanic population in Louisiana is expanding due to the fact that Texas, which is a neighboring state, contains one of the largest Hispanic populations and they are beginning to migrate to other states for better job opportunities (see Appendix B).

It took the researcher about a month to collect all surveys needed for the study. The first few days were used to plan how and where the surveys were going to be administered. After exploring several sites, Louisiana State University was chosen as the initial site where the surveys were distributed. Louisiana State University was chosen as the initial site due to the fact that it has a large number of students, teachers, and employees from both ethnic backgrounds, with different demographics. According to the LSU Office of Budget and Planning, there are about 2,600 African-American students and about 700 Hispanic students (see Appendix C). The researcher went to the Quad, which is a common area on the university campus. There the
respondents were purposely sampled by asking people from these two ethnic backgrounds if they belong to either of the two ethnic groups, and if they were willing to fill out a three page survey for research purposes. After each respondent completed the survey, the researcher asked each individual for advice and recommendations of where he/she could continue the sampling process. Some respondents suggested churches, others mentioned festivals and hospitals, and many recommended family members and friends. Following respondents’ recommendations, the researcher visited Christ the King Church. Christ the King is a Catholic church, located on Highland road, where mass is offered at 10:00 a.m., noon (Spanish), 6:00 p.m., 8:00 p.m., and at 10:00 p.m. The mass offered at noon is conducted in Spanish, which means that the worshipers are mainly composed of Hispanics. The researcher gathered samples from the 12:00 p.m., 6:00 p.m. and 8:00 p.m. mass. At the end of each mass, the researcher asked for the respondent’s permission and then distributed surveys.

In addition, the researcher attended a Latin festival offered in the School for the Deaf on Brightside Drive. This festival is offered twice a year and is an excellent site for obtaining a sample. This is an excellent site because a large number of people from different backgrounds, ages, and educations attend this festival. The festival is held to unite the Hispanic community and share each of their countries’ music, food, artifacts, and dances among themselves and with the rest of the Baton Rouge community. In spite of obtaining a sample from these sites, the researcher also used a snowballing method to sample people that have African-American and Hispanic background. The snowballing sampling method means that “the participant refers the researcher to another person who can provide information. This person, in turn, mentions another, and so forth” (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003, p. 96). By doing so, the researcher concluded the sampling stage after obtaining 150 surveys, 75 from each ethnic group.
Variables

The key independent variable of this study is race. The dependent variables are work ethics, educational achievement, discrimination in the workplace, discrimination in obtaining an education, fewer opportunities in obtaining an education, and motivation. These variables make up the racial equality scale. Work ethics are the rules or standards governing the conduct of a person or the members of a profession. Educational achievement is the knowledge or skills obtained or developed by a learning process, commonly acquired by attending an institution. Discrimination in the workplace refers to the treatment or thought based on a class or group rather than individual’s merit and effort to perform. Discrimination in obtaining an education refers the treatment or thought based on a class or group rather than individual’s merit to pursue knowledge and skills. Fewer opportunities in obtaining an education is an individual’s disadvantageous circumstance to pursue knowledge and skills. Motivation is a psychological feature that arouses an organism to action or the reason for that action.

The second dependent variable (work ethics) was measured with a 5-point Likert scale, from excellent to very poor. Likert scales are employed to measure these dependent variables, due to the fact that they can be used in any case where there are multidimensional domains and complex factors, such as favorability towards racial integration (Judd, et al., 1991). In the case of dependent variable, work ethics, excellent is coded as 1, and very poor is coded as 5. The third dependent variable (educational achievement) was also measured in a 5-point Likert scale, from very high to low. Very high is coded as 1 and low is coded as 5. Very high refers to have people who have obtained a college degree and low refers to people that have had some schooling or no education. The rest of the items in the dependent variables were also measured with a 5-point
Likert scale, from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Strongly disagree is coded as 1 and strongly agree is coded as 5. In order to test the hypothesis, these were reverse coded.

**Other Key Variables**

The Product/Service industries are companies that produce and sell a good or service. The dependent variables under the product/service industries are family-oriented, athletic industry, fashion industry, fast food industry and the business industry. Family-oriented includes the husband and wife relationship and any relationship between relatives, and counts children, as well as extended family such as aunts/uncles, grandparents, grandchildren, and adopted or foster children. The athletic industry is the portrayal of a male or female actually playing a sport or endorsing a sport-related product. The fashion industry, which includes models trying to portray a sense of trend, by modeling clothing, shoes, and accessories. The fast food industry includes the representation of people either eating or working in a fast food restaurant, or simply having a fast food restaurant as the background setting of the ad. The business industry includes the depiction of workers in the same company and colleagues in the same profession or occupation, even though different companies may employ them.

Respondents were asked to rank the key dependent variables in a 1 to 5 scale, 1 being most likely to be stereotyped, and 5 being least likely to be stereotyped. The purpose of this ranking question was done to observe how minorities are stereotyped in the different Product/Service industry.

In addition, demographics, such as age, education, and income, were also used as dependent variables. Age refers to the range of age to which each respondent belongs. Age was measured by eight categories, ranging from 18-22 years to 53 years and over. Education refers to the level of education completed by each respondent. It was measured by nine categories starting
from no education to J.D. or other doctoral degrees. Income refers to the level of income that each respondent earns annually. It was measured by eleven categories ranging from under $5,000 to $185,000 and over.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure, yielding identical or nearly identical responses each time the measure is given (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003, p. 57). The instrument was used in a pilot study. However, to test the reliability of the variables that form the racial equality scale, a reliability test was conducted. The racial equality scale variables that were tested included: work ethics, motivation, discrimination in obtaining an education, fewer opportunities for education, discrimination in the workplace, and level of educational achievement. The initial Alpha conducted on African-Americans was .53 (53%). The initial Alpha conducted on Hispanics was also .53 (53%). Therefore, in the case of African Americans, two variables were eliminated, work ethics and educational achievement. After elimination, the Alpha of the African-Americans was tested again and there was a 3% increase. In the case of Hispanics, one variable was eliminated, work ethics. After elimination, the Alpha of the Hispanics was tested again and there was a notable increase in the Alpha of 12%. Lastly, after eliminating the variables from the two ethnic groups, the Alpha test was conducted one more time, but in this case, the two groups’ variables were combined, and Alpha was .57 (57%), (results are shown on Table 1).

Validity refers to how accurate the measurement is. “There are four major types of validity, such as face validity, predictive validity, concurrent validity and construct validity. Face validity is achieved by examining the measurement device to see whether, on the face of it, it measures what it appears to be measuring” (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003, p. 59). The instrument
Table 1:
Alpha test conducted on both ethnic groups to test reliability of the discrimination scale variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Initial Alpha level</th>
<th>Alpha level after elimination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within the two groups</td>
<td></td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

has face validity for a broad population because a broad cross sections of the African-American and Hispanic population were used. This includes age (18 to 53 and over), income (from under $5,000 to $125,000), and education (from no education to PH.D and J.D. or other doctoral degrees). Because of this broad cross section, there is a reasonable representation of age, income and education of African-American and Hispanic community.
CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

A total of 150 people were sampled, 50% of the surveys were completed by African-Americans and 50% by Hispanics. Fifty-two percent of the respondents were male and 48% were female. About 67% of the respondents were between 18 - 32 years. Twenty-four percent of the respondents’ age ranged from 33 – 47 years. The respondents’ education was evenly distributed; however, about 50% of the respondents either had some college education, a bachelor’s degree, or a master’s degree.

H1: African-Americans will tend to see themselves depicted significantly more in athletic advertisements than in family-oriented, fast food industry, fashion industry and business industry advertisements.

An ANOVA was run to evaluate whether African-Americans depicted themselves differently among the five product/service variables. H1 suggests that African-Americans would see themselves depicted significantly more often in the athletic industry. This did not turn out to be the case $[F(1,148) = .66, p = .419]$. H1 was not supported. However, there was an unexpected finding, African-Americans did see themselves depicted significantly more often in reference to the business industry $[F(1,148) = 6.58, p = .011]$ representation in ads (results are shown on Table 2).

H2: Hispanics will tend to see themselves depicted significantly more in family-oriented advertisements than in athletic, fast food industry, fashion industry and business industry advertisements.

An ANOVA was run to evaluate whether Hispanics depicted themselves differently among the five product/service variables. H2 suggests that Hispanics would see themselves depicted significantly more in the family-oriented advertisements. This did not turn out to be the
Table 2:
How African-Americans tend to see themselves depicted in relation to the following industries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F value</th>
<th>(df)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family-Oriented</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.14*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletic industry</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.42*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashion industry</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast Food industry</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.93*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business industry</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = p<.05

case $[F(1,148) = 1.98, p = .16]$. H2 was not supported. However, there was an unexpected finding, Hispanics did see themselves depicted significantly differently in reference to the fast food $[F(1,148) = 25.92, p = .01]$ and business industries $[F(1,148) = 4.69, p = .03]$ representation in ads (result are shown on Table 3).

H3: The racial equality scale will be affected by demographics.

H3a: The racial equality scale will by affected by age. An ANOVA was run to evaluate whether racial equality was affected by the respondents’ age. H3a depicted that age $[F(18,131) = 2.20, p = .01]$ does affect the racial equality scale, meaning that depending on the respondents’ age they will feel more or less discriminated.

H3b: The racial equality scale was affected by education. An ANOVA was run to evaluate whether racial equality will be affected by the respondents’ education. H3b depicted that education $[F(18,131) = .69, p = .83]$ does not affect the racial equality scale.
Table 3:
How Hispanics tend to see themselves depicted in relation to the following industries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>F value</th>
<th>(df)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family-oriented</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.16*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletic industry</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.81*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashion industry</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.94*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast Food industry</td>
<td>25.92</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business industry</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>(1,148)</td>
<td>.03*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = p<.05

H3c: The racial equality scale will be affected by income. An ANOVA was run to evaluate whether racial equality was affected by the respondents’ income. H6c depicted that income \([F(18,131) = 1.18, p = .29]\) does not affect the racial equality scale (see Table 4).

Table 4:
The effect demographics have on the racial equality scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>F value</th>
<th>(df)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>(18,131)</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>(18,131)</td>
<td>.83*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>(18,131)</td>
<td>.29*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = p<.05

RQ1: From respondents’ direct experience, how do African-Americans think they have been stereotyped in advertising?
Including all respondents, among the five product/service categories of ads, the athletic industry ads were ranked as number one, followed by the fashion industry ads. Ranked at number three were the fast food industry ads, followed by the family-oriented ads. Lastly, respondents ranked the business industry ads as number five, meaning that the respondents were less likely to see an African-American model in this kind of ads (results are shown on Table 5).

RQ1 is different from H1 because H1 tries to find out how each respondent tend see themselves depicted significantly more, in respect to the five product/industries variables. On the other hand, RQ1 tries to find out how each respondent believe they have been stereotyped in by the media in American advertisements.

Table 5: African-American Stereotypes Percentages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking #</th>
<th>Family-Oriented (P)</th>
<th>Athletic Industry (P)</th>
<th>Fashion Industry (P)</th>
<th>Fast Food Industry (P)</th>
<th>Business Industry (P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>52.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RQ2: From respondents’ direct experience, how do Hispanics think they have been stereotyped in advertising?

Including all respondents, among the five major categories of ads, the family-oriented ads were ranked as number one, followed by the fast food industry ads. Ranked at number three were
the business industry ads, followed by the fashion industry ads. Lastly, the athletic industry ads were ranked as number five, meaning that the respondents were less likely to see a Hispanic model in these kind of ads (results are shown on Table 6).

Table 6:
Hispanic Stereotypes Percentages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking #</th>
<th>Family-Oriented (P)</th>
<th>Athletic Industry (P)</th>
<th>Fashion Industry (P)</th>
<th>Fast Food Industry (P)</th>
<th>Business Industry (P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate how African-American and Hispanics perceive their racial equality in American advertising. In general, the results indicate that African-Americans and Hispanics perceived they are stereotyped in some types of industries more than others. For instance, African-Americans believe they are mostly portrayed in athletic industry ads, however Hispanics believe they are mostly portrayed in family-oriented ads.

H1: African-Americans will tend to see themselves depicted significantly more in athletic advertisements than in family-oriented, fast food industry, fashion industry and business industry advertisements.

According to the H1 findings, African-Americans see themselves depicted significantly more in the business industry advertisements than in any other type of advertisements. H1 findings present an interesting fact because although African-Americans are depicted in business advertisements, it does not suggest that the business advertisements are the type of ads in which the African-American would like to see themselves depicted. As a result, advertisers must look for ways to find out the type of ads that African-Americans would most like to see themselves depicted. For instance, there are studies, such as the one conducted by Appiah (2001), in which African-Americans are depicted in other types of industries. Appiah’s (2001) study suggests that the simple presence of an African-American model in ads may invoke certain race-based stereotypes that characterize African-Americans as being cool, hip, athletic, musical and fashionable (Appiah, 2001). Despite the way African-Americans depict themselves, there could be other industries, in addition to the ones tested, where African-Americans could be depicted.

H2: Hispanics will tend to see themselves depicted significantly more in family-oriented...
advertisements than in athletic, fast food industry, fashion industry and business industry advertisements.

According to the H2 findings, Hispanics see themselves depicted significantly more in the fast food and the business industry advertisements. H2 findings present an interesting fact because, although Hispanics are depicted in fast food and business advertisements, it does not suggest that the fast food and business advertisements are the type of ads in which the Hispanics would like to see themselves depicted. However, these findings are supported by other studies, such as the one conducted by Bang and Taylor (1997), which states that Hispanics are most frequently shown in business settings. Nevertheless, there was an unexpected finding because the fast food industry advertisements are also where Hispanics are depicted the most than in any other product/service industry variable. This is an interesting finding because there is a bias towards the perception of how these two minority groups believe they are most likely to be featured pertaining to product/service categories. For instance, according to Bang and Reece (2003) study, Hispanics, among other minorities, are less frequently found in fast food advertisements. However, African-Americans are found to be mainly linked to fast food advertisements (Bang & Reece, 2003).

H3: The racial equality scale will be affected by demographics.

According to H3 findings, age is the only demographic variable that affects the racial equality scale. This is supported by LiVollmer (2002) study which found that “the modest improvement in demographics of child-targeted television commercials are insignificant when weighed against the racial disparity evident (or invisibility), status, and roles granted to the characters shown” (LiVollmer, 2002). So, that means that television exposes children to ideas and aids them in constructing their own points-of-view. However, the images and sounds shown
on television to which children are exposed are very realistic, and stimulate real life experiences that can greatly influence them as they create their own way of thinking. Therefore, as people get older, they are exposed to more images and sounds, which, in turn, can either positively or negatively influence the way they think and act. In addition, according to Adage.com, “Older consumers have been exposed to a lifetime of advertising and tend to be less persuadable than younger consumers” (“Minorities: Targets of,” 2005). Older consumers usually develop brand loyalties and are less likely than younger consumers to be influenced by ads. Nevertheless, this idea can be true for some people, but do not apply to others. Because each individual, regardless of their age, may have diverse opinions due to the fact that each individual is exposed to different images and sounds in his/her life span, which can greatly impact his/her perceptions.

The H3 finding are very interesting, because according to the results found on this hypothesis, age affects the way African-Americans and Hispanics perceive themselves in relation to discrimination. Consequently, if age affects each group’s perceptions towards discrimination, advertisers should modify their ads depending upon the age of the target audience. In addition, the media needs to find out ways to battle against the racial disparity which has been exhibited by the media, especially affecting the children’s way of thinking.

RQ1: From respondents’ direct experience, how do African-Americans think they have been stereotyped in advertising?

According to the research questions’ findings, African-Americans are mostly portrayed on the athletic industry advertisements. RQ1 findings are very interesting because, historically, it was rare to see ethnic groups cast as sole endorsers of products. However, with the rise of celebrity endorsements, African-American sports figures, in particular, are appearing on athletic industry advertising. Also, African-American adults regularly appear in commercials associated
with lifestyle products (Graves, 1999). An example of a sports figure appearing in the athletic industry advertising is Michael Jordan for Nike. Nowadays, these sport figures not only advertise athletic products, but they have diversified, as is the case of Charles Barkley for McDonald’s.

Nevertheless, advertisers must look at alternative ways to target African-Americans by figuring out their needs and destroying stereotypes. By doing so, advertisers can diversify African-Americans into the different industries.

RQ2: From respondents’ direct experience, how do Hispanics think they have been stereotyped in advertising?

On the other hand, RQ2 suggests that Hispanics appear most often in family-oriented and business advertisements. This finding supports the Bang and Taylor (1997) study. As mentioned above, the Bang and Taylor (1997) study suggest that Hispanics are most frequently shown in business settings. In addition to Bang and Taylor (1997), Graves (1999) suggests that Hispanics regularly appear in commercials associated with upscale lifestyle products, meaning that they are hard workers and manage to get to a higher-class lifestyle (Graves, 1999).

Nevertheless, advertisers must look at alternative ways to target Hispanics by examining their culture and figuring out their needs to destroy stereotypes. By doing so, advertisers can diversify Hispanics into the different industries.

As observed in previous literature, and as observed in the findings of this study, we can conclude that minorities (African-Americans and Hispanics) are underrepresented in advertising. This study supports previous studies, such as Appiah (2001) study, because it reinforces the concept that minorities are underrepresented in ads, and are frequently stereotyped as “in need of help” or as athletes, musicians or menial workers, as in the case of African-Americans (Chinyelu, 1991). However, it is unusual that African-Americans, the largest minority group in
the U.S., and Hispanics, the fastest growing minority group, are not being targeted in ads, and if they are, they are being depicted in a negative ways. In spite of the negative portrayal, one thing cannot be changed and that is that these two minority groups are rapidly increasing in size and spending power. As a result, companies, along with the help of advertising agencies, need to focus on these two ethnic groups and find out ways to improve their targeting tactics to appeal the African-American and Hispanic audiences.

Limitations

Since this is an exploratory study, there are several limitations, such as the sample size, and the site upon where the research was done. For instance, this study might have yielded better findings if it were to be conducted in all of the southern states where African-Americans and Hispanics reside. In addition, the study limits to six variables that define the racial equality scale. However, there may be other variables that should be taken into account that may be useful to the scale. Hence, on H3a, another analysis could have been conducted to determine the age range that affected the racial equality scale. Further research including more sampling units of other races and broadening the scope of the dependent variables could considerably expand our understanding of how each race perceives their racial equality.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study focused on finding out the perceptions of African-Americans and Hispanics towards racial equality in U.S. advertising. Previous studies have focused on how other minorities perceive these two ethnic groups, and how the media influences their audiences by helping create some of these perceptions. However, this study contributes to other studies because it does not only reveal that African-Americans and Hispanics perceive that they are
being stereotyped by the media, but it also suggests the types of ads they are mostly depicted, and the ones these ethnic groups believe they are stereotyped.

**Scholar Implications**

In addition, this study adds to previous studies, such as the Appiah (2001) study, because it employs the identification theory to support its findings. For example, the theory maintains that people automatically assess their level of similarity with a source during an interaction and make similar judgments. Therefore, African-Americans and Hispanics are mostly identified with models of their own racial background. So, when it came to choosing the product/service category in which they thought they saw themselves depicted, these minority groups believed that they were depicted in ads where they mostly appeared. In the case of African-Americans, this study revealed that they saw themselves depicted in the fast food and the business industry advertisements. Hispanics, on the other hand, saw themselves depicted in the business industry advertisements. Even though African-Americans and Hispanics saw themselves depicted on these types of ads, there could be other industries, in addition to the ones tested, where this ethnic group could be recognized.

Nevertheless, in order to have had a better knowledge of the findings, the study should have included more sampling units of other races, especially Caucasians, in order to compare responses. By doing so, it can better determine if the strongest racial group in the U.S., Caucasians, have a different perspective than the two largest minorities groups. In addition, a larger sample size would have yielded more generalizable information. However, that goes beyond the scope of this project. Nevertheless, a larger sample could be fruitful in helping researchers learn more about targeting the African-American and Hispanic population.
Research on how African-Americans and Hispanics perceive themselves in advertising is extremely important because these two ethnic groups are rapidly increasing in size and spending power, and are therefore becoming very important to the U.S. economy. The significance of this study is that no other study has researched how these two ethnic groups (African-American & Hispanics) perceive their own racial equality in American advertising. Consequently, advertising agencies, along with companies, should begin thinking of ways to reengineer their tactics to improve targeting methods used upon these groups.

Professional Implications

This study not only adds to previous studies, but also contributes to the understanding on how these two ethnic groups see themselves depicted and stereotyped. The study helps advertisers realize how important these two ethnics groups are to the U.S. economy. So, advertisers need to focus on ways to target them by devoting more time and money on research, to try to find out ways to appeal to these minority audiences. For example, this study helps advertiser realize that to appeal to these minority audiences they need to look for special cues that will make these minority groups feel they are being targeted.

Future Research

Future research should concentrate on expanding the sample size and population by concentrating on the Southern states in which these two minorities groups reside. In addition, future research could be done on each minority group, such as investigating more about their culture, interest, needs, etc to figure out how they would like to be targeted. By doing so, it would help advertisers target each minority group by approaching them with each group’s unique cues that will result in more effective communication.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire relating to how the African-Americans and Hispanics perceive their racial equality in advertising and whether they are stereotyped in ads.
I am conducting a survey about how African American and Hispanic perceive their racial equality and hope you will give us a few minutes to fill out this survey. Let me assure you before we begin that everything you say will remain **confidential**. The only person who may read your responses is my supervisor who might review the surveys to evaluate my performance.

**Part I.** I would like to ask you a few questions about racial equalities.

1. African-Americans:

   1.) What is your general impression of the level of work ethics of African-Americans?
   
   ____ Excellent  ____ Good  ____ Neutral  ____ Poor  ____ Very Poor

   2.) What is your general impression of the level of educational achievement of African-Americans?
   
   ____ Very High  ____ High  ____ Medium  ____ Relatively Low  ____ Low

   3.) African-Americans are discriminated in the work place.
   
   1------------------2-------------------3------------------4------------------5
   
   Strongly Agree  Agree  Neutral  Disagree  Strongly Disagree

   4.) African-Americans are discriminated in obtaining education.
   
   1------------------2-------------------3------------------4------------------5
   
   Strongly Agree  Agree  Neutral  Disagree  Strongly Disagree

   5.) African-Americans have fewer opportunities for education.
   
   1------------------2-------------------3------------------4------------------5
   
   Strongly Agree  Agree  Neutral  Disagree  Strongly Disagree

   6.) African-Americans have the same motivation as people from other races in their jobs.
   
   1------------------2-------------------3------------------4------------------5
   
   Strongly Agree  Agree  Neutral  Disagree  Strongly Disagree

2. Hispanics:

   1.) What is your general impression of the level of work ethics of Hispanics?
   
   ____ Excellent  ____ Good  ____ Neutral  ____ Poor  ____ Very Poor

   2.) What is your general impression of the level of educational achievement of Hispanics?
   
   ____ Very High  ____ High  ____ Medium  ____ Relatively Low  ____ Low

   3.) Hispanics are discriminated in the work place.
   
   1------------------2-------------------3------------------4------------------5
   
   Strongly Agree  Agree  Neutral  Disagree  Strongly Disagree

   4.) Hispanics are discriminated in obtaining education.
   
   1------------------2-------------------3------------------4------------------5
   
   Strongly Agree  Agree  Neutral  Disagree  Strongly Disagree

   5.) Hispanics have fewer opportunities for education.
   
   1------------------2-------------------3------------------4------------------5
   
   Strongly Agree  Agree  Neutral  Disagree  Strongly Disagree

   6.) Hispanics have the same motivation as people from other races in their jobs.
   
   1------------------2-------------------3------------------4------------------5
   
   Strongly Agree  Agree  Neutral  Disagree  Strongly Disagree

**Part II.** Questions on ad portrayal. Please rank the following:

1. African-Americans:

   1.) In what kind of advertisements do you see African-Americans the most?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.) African-Americans are portrayed as hard working as workers from other races.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.) African-Americans are portrayed as having as good taste in fashion as people from other races.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Part III.** Information about you.

1.) Gender:
   - Male
   - Female

2.) Age:
   - 18-22
   - 23-27
   - 28-32
   - 33-37
   - 38-42
   - 43-47
   - 48-52
   - 53 and over.

3.) Ethnicity:
   - African-American
   - Hispanic
   - Caucasian
   - Asian-American
   - Other
4.) Education:
   _____ No Education.
   _____ Some Schooling.
   _____ Some High School.
   _____ High School.
   _____ Some College.
   _____ Bachelor Degree.
   _____ Masters.
   _____ P.H.D
   _____ J.D. or other doctoral degrees.

5.) Family Income:
   _____ Under $5,000
   _____ $5,001-$25,000
   _____ $25,001-$45,000
   _____ $45,001-$65,000
   _____ $65,001-$85,000
   _____ $85,001-$105,000
   _____ $105,001-$125,000
   _____ $125,001-$145,000
   _____ $145,001-$165,000
   _____ $165,001-$185,000
   _____ $185,001 and over.

Thank you very much for your time.
APPENDIX B: MAPS

Maps relating to the African-American and the Hispanic population and population growth.
Figure 1. This map shows the percentage of African-Americans in the United States. African Americans are largest racial minority in the United States, accounting for 12.1% of the total population in 2000. This population is concentrated largely in the Southern states and urban areas.
Figure 2. This map shows the percentage of Hispanics in the United States. Twelve point five percent of respondents to the 2000 Census identified themselves as Hispanic, up from 9% in 1990, making them one of the fastest growing demographic groups in the United States.
APPENDIX C: CHARTS

Charts relating to the enrollment by time, gender, and racial/ethnic category in Louisiana State University, fall 2005.
Enrollment by Time, Gender, and Racial/Ethnic Category  
Fall 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Undergraduate</th>
<th>Grad/Professional</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Full-Time</strong></td>
<td>23,766</td>
<td>3,444</td>
<td>27,210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Part-Time</strong></td>
<td>1,943</td>
<td>1,411</td>
<td>3,354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25,709</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,855</strong></td>
<td><strong>30,564</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Undergraduate</th>
<th>Grad/Professional</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td>12,320</td>
<td>2,302</td>
<td>14,622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td>13,389</td>
<td>2,553</td>
<td>15,942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25,709</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,855</strong></td>
<td><strong>30,564</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Racial/Ethnic</th>
<th>Undergraduate</th>
<th>Grad/Professional</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian/Pacific Islander</td>
<td>737</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black (non-Hispanic)</td>
<td>2,323</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>2,713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonresident Alien</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>1,172</td>
<td>1,665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White (non-Hispanic)</td>
<td>20,673</td>
<td>2,884</td>
<td>23,557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25,709</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,855</strong></td>
<td><strong>30,564</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: In the fall 2005 semester, LSU enrolled 2,700 visiting students whose college or university was impacted by Hurricane Katrina. These students are not included in this report.
VITA

Denise M. Pallais is a graduate student at the Manship School of Mass Communication at Louisiana State University. She graduated from LSU in May 2003 with a bachelor of science degree in business administration. She is from Managua, Nicaragua. Her interest for minorities has evolved from the experiences she has gone through in this country. Upon receiving her degree she plans to pursue a career in marketing and public relations sector.