Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

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1.1 Thesis Structure

This thesis is divided in eight chapters besides References and Annexures. The eight chapters are as follows:

First chapter consists along with this thesis’s structure, covering of conceptual framework. Conceptual framework constitutes of introduction to the subject of advertising, history of global advertising, history of Indian advertising, an introduction to gender role in advertising, gender identity and gender stereotype, Indian view on gender roles, and gender roles in advertising with Indian perspective.

Second chapter is Review of Literature that shape the literary evidence related to the topic.

Third chapter is Rationale of the Study justifying this research.

Fourth chapter is Objectives of the Study and Research Hypotheses dealing with problem-statements and hypotheses formulation.

Fifth chapter describes the Research Methodology and Design explaining the research design, sampling plan, data collection, tools for data analysing, quality standards, and ethical issues in the study.

Sixth chapter, Data Analysis deals with analysis of collected data with the help of different data analysis tools.

Seventh chapter is Results and Findings focusing on the results acquired in the course of dissertation. It contains prominent points accentuated the major finding of the work vis-à-vis the research objectives.

Eighth chapter focusses on the Conclusion, Implications, Limitations of the Study, and Suggestions for Future Research.
1.2 Conceptual Framework

1.2.1 Introduction

Marketing is the process that facilitates the exchange of goods and services between producers and users to the satisfaction of all parties. It is defined as the task of creating, promoting, and delivering goods and services to consumers and businesses (Kotler, 2003). All the activities of marketing revolve around the consumer. Based on his/her identified needs the marketer strategically designs the marketing mix elements to get the desired results. In order to reach and control the target audience the four marketing tools are used viz., product, price, place and promotion (Isaksson and Nilsson, 2004).

Marketing communication, or in other words promotion, is used by the companies to inform, influence, induce, and remind consumers about the offer they sell (Keller, 2001). Czinkota and Ronkainen (2004) further define marketing communication as a process of establishing commonness between a sender and a receiver. This procedure persists further the transmitting of ideas to embrace persuasion and thereby make the marketing process more effective and efficient. The ideal marketing communication is a dialogue where companies and consumers obtain reciprocally satisfying exchange agreements, a two-way nature of the process.

The communication process (Ref. Figure 1.1) is sender encoding-transmission device-decoding-receiver, which is part of any advertising or marketing program. Encoding the message is the second step in communication process, which takes a creative idea and transforms it into attention-getting advertisements designed for various media (television, radio, magazines, and others). Messages travel to
audiences through various transmission devices. The third step of the marketing communication process occurs when a channel or medium delivers the message. Decoding occurs when the message reaches one or more of the receiver's senses. Consumers both hear and see television ads. Others consumers handle (touch) and read (see) a coupon offer. One obstacle that prevents marketing messages from being efficient and effective is called noises. Noise is anything that distorts or disrupts a message. It can occur at any stage in the communication process. The most common form of noise affecting marketing communication is clutter (Clow, et al, 2007).

As shown in the marketing communication model in Figure 1.1, in order to create effective communications three elements are required: the sender, the message, and the receiver, all three linked by a message channel. It is necessary for the sender to study the receiver characteristics before encoding the message to be able to achieve maximum impact.

Message is the essence of the communication process. Formulating the communications to achieve the desired response will require solving three problems:
what to say (message strategy), how to say it (creative strategy), and who should say it (message source). (Kotler et al. 2008)

Advertising, an important element of marketing communication defined by Kotler and Armstrong ‘any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods and services through mass media such as newspapers, magazines, television or radio by an identified sponsor.’ According to Well et al. (2003) advertising is defined as “the paid form of non-personal communication from an identified sponsor using mass media to persuade or influence an audience. Advertising as a term is simplified by Percy, Rossiter and Elliot (2001) stating that advertising is an indirect way of turning a potential customer toward and advertised product or service by providing information that is designed to affect a favourable brand attitude. Advertising can in the same way be described as a social phenomenon focused on stimulating consumption, economic activity as well as influencing the lifestyle and value orientation of the audience (Meijer and Styven, 2001).

Advertising /ˈadvərˌtiziNG/ is a form of communication used to persuade an audience (viewers, readers or listeners) to take some action with respect to products, ideas, or services. Most commonly, the desired result is to drive consumer behaviour with respect to a commercial offering, although political and ideological advertising is also common. Advertising messages are usually paid for by sponsors and viewed via various traditional media; including mass media such as newspaper, magazines, television commercial, radio advertisement, outdoor advertising or direct mail; or new media such as websites and text messages. It is one of the most important elements of marketing mix. According to Colley, “Advertising pulls a consumer towards purchasing action through changes in his/her knowledge and attitude
responses”. He defined advertising ‘a mass paid communication the ultimate purpose of which is to impart information, develop attitude and induce action, beneficial to the advertiser, generally the sale of the product or service’.

1.2.2 History of Global Advertising

The origins of advertising lie thousands of years in the history. One of the first known methods of advertising was outdoor displays, usually an eye-catching sign painted on the wall of a building. This custom of wall painting can be traced back to Indian rock art paintings that date back to 4000 BC. History tells us that out-of-home advertising and hoardings are the oldest forms of advertising. Archaeologists have discovered many such signs, particularly in the remains of ancient Rome and Pompeii. An outdoor advertisement dug up in Rome offers property for rent, and one found painted on a wall in Pompeii calls the attention of travellers to a tavern situated in another town. Egyptians made use of papyrus to make sales messages and wall posters. Commercial communications and political campaign displays have been found in the remains of Pompeii and ancient Arabia some 3000 years ago. Lost and found advertising on papyrus was common in Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome. Wall or rock painting for commercial advertising is another sign of an ancient advertising form, which is here to this day in many parts of Asia, Africa, and South America.

The history of advertising can broadly be divided into six periods (Source: ietd.inflibnet.ac.in) as follows:

1.2.2.1 Pre-Printing Period - Before 15th century;

1.2.2.2 Early Printing Period - From the 15th century to about 1840;
1.2.2.3 Period of Expansion - From 1840 to 1900;

1.2.2.4 Period of Consolidation - From 1900 to 1925 (Introduction of Radio);

1.2.2.5 Period of Scientific Development - From 1925 to 1945; and

1.2.2.6 Period of Business and Social Integration - From 1945 to the present (Introduction of Television).

1.2.2.1 Pre-Printing Period - Before 15th Century

As the towns and cities of the Middle Ages began to grow ‘Town-Criers’, the first form of advertising, used by the proprietors of fruits and vegetable sellers to announce their whereabouts for the convenience of the customers as the general population was unable to read. Signs that these days would say cobbler, miller, tailor or jeweller would use an image associated with their trade such as a shoe, a suit, a clock, a diamond, a horse shoe, a candle or even a container of flour. In many cases people derive their surnames projecting the work they do; like in India we have Bandookwala, Kanchwala, Pehalwan, Saraf, and in the western countries Hunter, Carpenter, Miller, etc.

The earliest surviving woodblock printed fragments are from China and are of silk printed with flowers in three colours from the Han dynasty (before 220 AD), and the earliest example of woodblock printing on paper appeared in the mid-7th century in China. (Ref. Figure 1.2)

Figure 1.2 - The intricate frontispiece of the Diamond Sutra from Tang Dynasty China, 868 AD (British Museum) (Source: wikipedia)
By the 9th century printing on paper had taken off, with the first extant complete printed book, the Diamond Sutra in 868, and by the 10th century, 400,000 copies of some sutras and pictures were printed and the Confucian classics. A skilled printer could print up to 2,000 double-page sheets per day. Commercial messages and campaign displays have been found in the ruins of ancient Arabia. Lost and found advertising on papyrus was common in ancient Greece and Rome. The tradition of wall and rock painting for commercial advertising is still present in many parts of Asia, Africa and South America. Indian rock art painting date back to 4000 BCE. (Bhatia 2000).

1.2.2.2 Early Printing Period - From the 15th century to 1840

The growth of the printing technology and the increase in the literacy population meant much to business. The first printed English advertisement was a ‘handbill’ or ‘poster’ with an announcement written by William Caxton in 1472. There were twelve London newspapers and 24 provincial papers by the 1720s; the Daily Courant was the first London newspaper. The printing press was then being used in a fashion, which led to the gradual growth and development of advertising by providing a practical, readily available medium to deliver advertising messages to the literate portion of the public.

Figure 1.3 - Edo period advertising flyer from 1806 for a traditional medicine called Kinseitan. (Source: wikipedia)
Many of the early newspaper advertisements were in the form of announcements of a pure informative nature. Beverages, Cosmetics and patent Medicines (Ref. Figure 1.3) had a prominent place among the advertisements appeared in media. Well-known among early advertisers were the importers of products, which were new to England. For instance, the first offering of coffee was made in a newspaper advertisement in 1652, followed by an offering of chocolate in 1657 and of tea in 1658. It had led to the production of advertisements in large quantities for wide distribution.

1.2.2.3 Period of Expansion - From 1840 to 1900

This period includes, roughly, the sixty years between 1840 and 1900. It was during these six decades that the great changes, which had a vital influence on the business of advertising, were witnessed in the United States and the world.

Improvement in transportation facilities by 1840 led to the broadening of markets and had resulted in an increase in the number of advertisements in magazines, which served large territories. The growth in the numbers and the circulation of magazines were mainly due to the development of rapid and long distance transportation.

Figure 1.4 - An 1895 advertisement for a weight gain product (Source: Wikipedia)
Advertisements during that period were mostly trade advertisements in nature, announcing the arrival of shipments of Coffee, Tea, Silk cloth, and of health products (Ref. Figure 1.4). Advertisements at that time were also designed especially for dealers in consumer goods as well as grocery or dry goods.

Advertisements were mostly handled by printers and publishers of newspapers, who used to sell advertisement space to procure necessary finances for their survival and growth. Many of the advertisements during this period were the classified variety, which had carried classified business information. But only 20 years later, many of these firms were not patent medicine manufacturers anymore but manufacturers of food, soap, cosmetics and automobiles. These firms began to market their packaged goods under various brand names. Some of the first brands were of the firms like Ivory, Colgate, Wrigley and Coca Cola, etc. Previously household products of daily use like milk, sugar, soap, rice and candles had been sold in the neighbourhood shops in bulk packages.

Emergence of consumer market during mid Nineteenth century gave rise to the modern marketing system, which had led to the emergence of consumer advertisements on the scene in late nineteenth century. The late Nineteenth and early Twentieth century also witnessed the appearance of consumer product advertisements like Tooth pastes, Shampoos, Readymade dresses, etc. in magazines.

1.2.2.4 Period of Consolidation - From 1900 to 1925 (Introduction of Radio)

This period stretches over a period of 25 years from 1900 to 1925. In 1911 a crusade against the ranker types of untruthfulness in advertising was launched in the United
States. Printers Ink Inc., the Curtis Publishing Company and other organizations led the fight to reduce or eliminate the use of gross exaggeration, false testimonials and other forms of misleading and untruthful advertising. It was also during this period that trust-busting, expose and reform programs became popular. It is not surprising that advertising was caught up in this clean up movement. The establishments of the Audit Bureau of Circulations in 1914 and The American Association of Advertising Agencies (AAAA) in 1917 were another move for fewer untruths in the field. This Bureau sewed to validate the circulation statements made by publishers. This was a measure for self-preservation but it sewed to consolidate the gains made in the heyday of publication and advertising growth. All this had some influence in solidifying the business and in raising the ethics somewhat above the levels of previous periods.

![Figure 1.5 - A print advertisement for the 1913 issue of the Encyclopaedia Britannica (Source: wikipedia)](image)

By the end of this period many advertisers had established their own market like Britannica Encyclopaedia *(Ref. Figure 1.5)* and consumer research departments and specialized research firms had been organized to make independent and unbiased investigations for advertisers and media. This increased the quality of advertising strategy and the performance as well as benefits rendered to consumers. World War-I witnessed advertising as a profession and regarded it as a tool of social engineering with advertisements being used to mobilize public opinion in favour of the war.
Product appeals were emphasized less and greater prominence had been laid on appeals such as fear, hope, emotions, insecurity, attachments, desires, etc.

1920 saw the first advertisement broadcasted through radio. On September 29, 1920, the Joseph Horne department store in Pittsburgh began advertising amateur wireless sets for $10, which could be used to listen to Conrad’s broadcasts (Barnouw 1990). AT&T in February 2012 declared that they would sell ‘toll broadcasting’ to advertisers in the sponsorship format. The advertisers had to underwrite or pay a part of broadcast and their names would be cited on the radio (Ref. Figure 1.6). Radio advertising turned out to be more efficient and effective medium for the advertisers to reach their target segment.

Figure 1.6 - Advertisement for a live radio broadcast, sponsored by a milk company and published in the Los Angeles Times on May 6, 1930 (Source: wikipedia)

1.2.2.5 Period of Scientific Development - From 1925 to 1945

This period saw the application of the scientific methods to resolve the problems of advertising; knowledge was systematized to a much greater degree than before; and facts were observed, recorded and classified through the application of various scientific devices. There were a few "radical" advertising men who were so bold as to suggest that advertising be subjected to tests to prove or disprove its ability to work
the wonders claimed for it. Not until the depression, starting in 1929, did these men get much of a hearing. But with advertising appropriations receiving liberal cuts, both professional advertising men and advertisers set out to test the effectiveness of advertising as a selling tool.

1.2.2.6 Period of Business and Social Integration - From 1945 to the present (Introduction of Television)

The post war years were characterized by prosperity in advertising. In the 1950s came television which developed fast to the advertising-media (Ref. Figure 1.7). The growing popularity of T.V as an important media of mass communication and recreation had contributed greatly in bringing about this situation and had also provided the much needed momentum to the advertising business.

Figure 1.7 - One of the earlier TV Advertisement (Source: blog.nielsen 2009)

These advertisers could demonstrate the use of their products and services and present well-known figures to praise such products and services. They also could arrange emotions through television.

With the passage of time, advertising assumed an important position as a means of mass communication in Industrial societies. It not only generated greater sales but also had played an active role in boosting the images of companies. Advertisements also have become a common medium through which churches, political parties,
labour groups, trade associations and the ordinary people communicate their ideologies, ideas and concepts to many of the public making up the total society. Advertising has also become an institution of persuasion to promote such social and economic values as safety, health, education benevolence, liberty, democracy, free enterprise and tolerance.

Today, advertising is wide-spread all over the world in different countries and its importance is widely accepted having profound recognition in the global market. The turbulent environment of the 21st century, with rapid changes in technology, products, processes, methods, cut throat competition and emergence of new marketing challenges only indicates the significant role of advertising, which is expected to play in the survival and growth of business units. The significance of advertising has been extensively accepted all over the world and has deep recognition in the worldwide market. According to Colley “advertising pulls a consumer towards purchasing action through changes in his/her knowledge and attitude responses.” He defined advertising ‘a mass paid communication the ultimate purpose of which is to impart information, develop attitude and induce action, beneficial to the advertiser’.

1.2.3 The History of Indian Advertising

1.2.3.1 Pre-Independence Era (Till 1947)

Advertising in India dates back to the Indian civilization. Relics of Harappa, Mohenjo-Daro indicates names engraved on exquisite earthen, stone or metal works, which is comparable to the present trade mark system. Paintings or writings on wall indicating slogans or stone engravings indicate a form of advertising. The earliest forms of advertising were mostly used for religious purposes. That is, advertising was
in the form of propaganda. To spread the teachings of Buddha, the emperor Ashoka of Kalinga set up rock and pillar edicts all over the Indian Territory between 563 and 232 B.C. These rock and pillar edicts can be called the forerunners of poster advertising of today. Thus it was the outdoor advertising that came to light with the point of sale display in market places. The indoor visual communications were the wall paintings in the cave temples of Ajanta, Sanchi and Amraoti. Literally the Indian Advertising starts with the hawkers calling out their wares right from the days when cities and markets first began.

Till the advent of British rule in India, advertising was not taken for business purposes. The reasons were that India was the unique example of household industrial activities. At the time of British entry, India was in Village Economy stage where the relations between the producers and consumers were direct. The local markets were weekly bazaars called ‘haats’ where the producers displayed their wares by shouting and giving samples for promoting their trade. The skills of Indian artisans in the areas of textiles - silk and cotton and metal works were all accepted and there was no need of any special efforts of advertising.

British settlement and ruling from 1600 onwards brought about certain changes in our country. British needed advertising efforts to popularize their goods, particularly the luxury goods. They made it possible through the print medium. The first printing press was brought by Portuguese in 1556, which was used exclusively for printing Christian literature. It was only in 1780 that the first Indian newspaper was started, namely the 'Bengal Gazette' in Calcutta. By 1786, there were four weekly newspapers and a few monthlies published from Calcutta. It was in the 'Bengal Journal' that all the government advertisements were printed during that period. In
1790, ‘The Courier’ published from Bombay during those period also contained advertisements in various Indian languages, namely Marathi, Gujarati, Konkani, Urdu and Kannada. In 1791, the government gazette was started in which all the Government advertisements in different provincial languages were printed. Though the first newspaper in an Indian language was started in 1833, it took pretty longer time to put advertisements in Indian languages. There were no advertising agencies but the newspapers had provided the services of space selling.

Studios mark the beginning of advertising created in India (as opposed to import from England). Studios were set up for creating bold type, ornate fonts, fancier, and larger advertisements. Newspaper studios trained the first generation of visualisers and illustrators. Major advertisers were the retailers like Spencer’s, Army & Navy and Whiteaway & Laidlaw whose catalogues provided early examples. One of earlier Indian ad in language was of medicine for Plague released in south Indian regional language (Ref. Figure 1.8)

The origin of commercial advertising in India is relatively recent. 'B. Dattaram and Company' was the first advertising agency promoted in the country in 1905. The growth of Indian advertising too has been slow with the pre-independence era. Only a few companies were engaged in the business of advertising on an unprofessional basis and had remained almost confined to the media buying services with very little
creative work. Until the outbreak of the World War 1 (1914-1918), most of the advertising was planned and placed by the foreign manufacturers. During the First World War, the newspaper circulation was increased as the people were interested in hot news of war affairs. During the post war period Indian market was flooded with foreign goods that gave a lot of spurt to newspaper advertising so that more and more space had been reserved for advertising (Ref. Figure 1.9).

Figure 1.9 - One of the first advertisements for Coca-Cola (Source: wikipedia)

ITC (then Imperial Tobacco Co. Ltd.) launched Gold Flake in 1912, was the first product to be advertised. In 1920s entered the first foreign owned ad agencies and Indian based agencies also started like Gujarat Advertising, Indian Advertising, Alliance Advertising, Tata Publicity. D J Keymer gave rise to Ogilvy & Mather and Clarion. Between 1920 and 1940 the advertising scenario boomed with starting of many advertising agencies in many parts of India, from Kolkata to Mumbai to remote places like Kolhapur’s Jayendra Publicity.

Lever's advertising department launched Dalda, the first major example of a brand and a marketing campaign, specifically developed for India in 1939. The Dalda film was an advertisement created for the marketing campaign in 1939 for a vanaspati (cooking fat) brand called Dalda. It was conceived by Harvey Duncan, of LINTAS Ad agency and created in 1939 by Bombay Talkies. The film was shown from a
cinema van that went round remote countryside showing the film to villagers. This van consisted of a huge round tin to imitate the product packaging. The 1200-ft film is the second known screen motion film based advertisement in India, the first being a 1931 advertisement for a GM Chevrolet.

In 1941 they signed Leela Chitnis the yesteryear heroine of Indian films to endorse Lux in India (Ref. Figure 1.10 A). The pre-independence advertisements were mostly about jewellery (Ref. Figure 1.10 B), cigarettes (Ref. Figure 1.10 D), gents' clothes, travelling, restaurants and hotels and entertainments for the British people in India. Motor cars, electricity and lifts in houses were considered to be the items of luxuries in those periods. Many of the early advertisements were about hotels, four-

![Figure 1.10 - Advertisements in Indian newsprints between 1935 and 1945. (Source: wikipedia)](image)

wheelers, tea, gramophones, cotton goods, tailoring shops, etc., and their target audiences were the British people in India, the princely families and the people from the upper strata of the society. It is only after independence and the abolition of the princely order that a new-born middle class received attention of advertisers.
On September 21, 1945, 60 years ago, Advertising Agencies Association of India (AAAI) was registered as a society in Calcutta. The Advertising Agencies Association of India (AAAI) is the official, national organization of advertising agencies, formed to promote their interests so that they continue to make an essential and ever-increasing contribution to the nation. The AAAI today is truly representative, with a very large number of small, medium and large-sized agencies as its members, who together account for almost 80% of the advertising business placed in the country. It is thus recognized at all forums -- advertisers, media owners and associations, and even Government -- as the spokesperson for the advertising industry. (Source: aaaindia.org)

1.2.3.2 Post-Independence Era (Between 1947 and 1991)

This trend continued till eighties. 1980 to 1990 was the television era. Television began in India on 15 September 1959 as an experiment. It was started under All India Radio flagship. There were only two one-hour programmes a week, each of one hour duration. Imagine a television set working for only two hours a week. The early programmes on these experimental broadcasts were generally educational programmes for school children and farmers. Several community television sets were set up in Delhi’s rural areas and schools around Delhi for the dissemination of these programmes. (Source: download.nos.org)

By the 1970s, television centres were opened in other parts of the country also. In 1976 Doordarshan, which was All India Radio’s television arm until then became a separate department. Network, associate of UTV, pioneered cable television in India in 1981. In 1982 the biggest milestone in television in India, the ASIAD 1982,
happened when television turned to colour transmission. Bombay Dyeing was the first to broadcast the first colour television advertisement.

In the 1980s there was a growth in the number of alliances with multinational agencies and an expansion in advertising though foreign network participation in agency ownership was limited. In 1987 Hindustan Thompson was affiliated to J. Walter Thompson. Lintas, the 2nd ranking agency, held only 4% of its subsidiary, as did Ogilvie and Mather. Saatchi and Saatchi/Compton had minority interests in Compton as did Lintas. A study done in 1984 of the largest companies in India found that the ratio of advertising expenditure to sales had risen from .64 in 1976, to .71 in 1980 to .74 in 1984. Foreign controlled corporations had the dominant share of total advertising expenditure, and 80% of these were in the consumer goods sectors. Advertising was very concentrated with the top 50 advertisers accounting for 80% of the advertising spending and the top 10 advertisers made up 40% of that figure, 32% of the total. The largest advertiser throughout the period was Hindustan Unilever, an advertisement of surf released in 1980s (Ref. Figure 1.11) which was nearly 10% of the advertising budget of the corporate sector companies. Pharmaceutical companies were also significant advertisers at this time.

Figure 1.11: TV advertisement of Surf Ad in 1980s
1.2.3.3 Post-Liberalisation Era (After 1991)

The Indian advertising industry is talking business today. It has grown from small scale setups like Ibex, Shilpi, Contract, etc. to a full-fledged industry. In the tertiary sector the share of advertising industry has grown multi-fold. It has widen its horizons be it number of people in advertising field, capital invested or be it creative facet. Indian advertising industry with an estimated value of Rs. 13,200 crores is anticipated to grow by 11.6 per cent as opposed to 10 per cent in 2013, as per the 'This Year, Next Year 2014' report released by the WPP group's media planning and media buying arm, Group M. (Source: exchange4media.com)

Digital advertising will witness the most growth this year, at around 35 per cent over the Rs 3,042 crore (US$ 503.56 million) in 2013. TV advertising is expected to grow by 12.8 per cent this year, whereas print is projected to witness eight per cent growth compared to four per cent in 2013. (Source: afaqs.com)

In 2014 annual Cannes Ad Fest India won 27 metals, six less than the 33 it won in 2013, which was the country's biggest haul at the awards. The agency that won the most awards this year was J Walter Thompson (JWT) followed by McCann, with Ogilvy & Mather (O&M) also winning awards. The Goafest awards 2014 were dominated JWT, which won 40 awards, including one Grand Prix, five gold, 13 silver and 21 bronze awards. Taproot India placed second with 29 awards - three gold, 10 silver and 16 bronze awards, followed by Ideas@work with 10 silver and 4 bronze awards. Draft FCB, Alok Nanda and Company, Digital Law and Kenneth also awards. (Source: ibef.org)
E-commerce companies such as Quikr, Flipkart, Snapdeal and Jabong, plan to focus on 360-degree advertising, which goes much beyond digital marketing. Category-specific companies like FabFurnish are also looking to run television advertisement campaigns. "We have already launched a new television campaign. This is because digital advertising is silent advertising; it can't do brand story-telling for us. Also, television brings credibility to the brand," as per Mr Piyush Bansal, founder and chief executive, Lenskart. Amazon.com plans to spend about Rs 100-150 crore (US$ 16.55-24.82 million) on advertising in FY15 (Source: ibef.org)

1.2.4 An Introduction to Gender Role in Advertising

Gender in general practice refers to the sexual difference between male and female. The word gender in dictionary has been classified as a noun or a pronoun as masculine and/or feminine (Source: Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 1990). The word originates from the Middle English word gendre, from Latin genus, and French word genre, all meaning ‘kind’, ‘sort’, or ‘type’. Protagoras, the Greek philosopher, utilized the terms masculine, feminine and neuter nouns introducing the idea of grammatical gender. Since the 14th century this word gender is used to indicate male and female qualities. In some part of the social sciences, following a usage shift that began in 1950s and was well established by 1980s, gender has been increasingly used to refer to a social construction rather than a biological condition. Thus while the word sex means male or female, gender implies masculine and feminine. The persons whose gender identity is incongruent with their physical body generally identify themselves as transgender.
In sociological term gender roles refer to the characteristics and behaviours that different cultures attribute to the sexes. The qualification to be a real man in any culture needs male sex plus the masculine characteristic and behaviours; similarly a ‘real woman’ needs female sex plus feminine characteristics and behaviour, defined by that culture. To summarise: 'man' = male sex+ masculine social role (a 'real man', 'masculine' or 'manly') and 'woman' = female sex + feminine social role (a 'real woman', 'feminine' or 'womanly'). (Source: www.med.monash.edu.au)

Due to environmental demands, economic, social, and technological, women and men were assigned to different tasks. Men were more likely to fulfil tasks that required pace, power, and the ability to be away from home for longer times, whereas women were primarily responsible for childbearing were to fulfil duties related to home and family. As a result of the disparity in social roles occupied by men and women, based upon this division of labour, gender roles developed concerning expectations about the characteristics and behaviours of women and men. Gender is used to describe the socially constructed differences between men and women, referring not only to individual identity and personality, but also at the symbolic level, to cultural ideals and stereotypes of masculinity and femininity and, at the structural level, to the sexual division of labour in institutions and organizations (Source: Online Dictionary of the Social Sciences).

In the latter half of the 20th century, the utilization of gender in academia has increased very much, and it now outnumbers the word sex in the humanities, social sciences and arts. However, in many cases, the term gender acts as a circumambages for sex, and the distinction between sex and gender is only fitfully observed. In the usage of the terms sex and gender by researchers, Haig (2004) reported that among
the reasons working researchers choose gender rather than sex in biological framework are, desires to signal sympathy with feminine goals, to use a more scholastic term, or to avoid the implication of copulation. In essence, sex is defined in biological terms, on the basis of the anatomical and physiological differences between males and females that are genetically determined; while gender refers to everything else associated with an individual’s sex, including his or her roles, behaviours, preferences and other attributes that define what is means to be male or a female in a given culture (Baron and Byrne 2005).

A person’s sexuality comes from within oneself making a person heterosexual, bisexual, homosexual, or asexual; depending on the partner s/he is or is not attracted to. Unlike sexuality gender roles are imposed through a variety of social influences. The first and the most strongly influencing factor on an individual are perceived gender role is his/her parents. Children look up to their parents for examples and role models. If a girl sees her mother taking part in physical activities, for example, she will grow up with the idea that it’s okay for girls to play sports. If a boy sees his father helping to take care of the new baby, he will integrate this image of "daddy as care giver" into his developing definition of masculinity (Spock, 2010).

These roles, behaviours and preferences have been found to vary among males and females in diverse cultures. The source of these gender differences is frequently arguable but several gender attributes are based on what one is taught. Barbara Mackoff (cited in Angier, 1998) asserted that the biggest difference between girls and boys is in how we treat them. In spite of the presence of other attributes that may be based wholly on biological determinants, young males across diverse cultures have been found to be engaged in play fighting much more frequently than young females
(Geary, 1999). Fabes et al. (2003) found that a number of attributes are influenced by an amalgamation of learning and biology. They observed that young children tend to play in the same-sex groups. However, once in these groups, the youngsters learn different social skills, styles and preferences.

Since 1950s, the term gender has been more and more used to tell apart a social role (gender role) and/or personal identity (gender identity) distinct from biological sex. The term gender role is used to indicate all those things that a person says or does to reveal him or herself as having the status of a boy/man or a girl/woman, respectively. It includes, but is not restricted to, sexuality in the sense of eroticism (Money, 1955). Elements of such a role include clothing, speech patterns, movement and other factors, which are not solely limited to biological sex. Many societies categorize individuals as either male or female, however this is not universal. Some societies recognize a third gender - for instance, the two-spirit people of some original Americans, and hijras of India and Pakistan (Reddy, 2005; Nanda, 1998), or even a fourth or fifth (Sharyn, 2001). Such categories may be an intermediate state between male and female, a state of sexlessness or a distinct gender, not dependent on male and female gender roles.

1.2.5 Gender Identity and Gender Stereotype*

Gender identity is a part of the self-concept which involves a person's identification as a male or a female. Awareness of gender identity usually develops when the child is about two years old. Every person has a gender identity and for majority of people, biological sex and gender identity correspond. As the child grows older, he/she begins to comprehend the importance of gender consistency, a concept that gender is

* Gender stereotypes are simplistic generalizations about the gender attributes, differences, and roles of individuals and/or groups.
a basic and enduring attribute of each individual. This understanding of gender consistency generally develops between the ages four and seven. Once these cognitions become stable, a child's subsequent perceptions are strongly affected by the teachings about gender.

All societies segregate some aspects of human existence into two distinct roles of male and female. The specific content of female and male gender roles varies among different societies. Gender identity develops through a process of differentiation: interactions of biological, social, and cognitive-learning factors that occur over time; differentiation means that a basically similar structure develops differently, depending upon the influence of other factors.

Gender identity is generally consistent from early childhood through adulthood. Although gender identity as man or woman is stable, some of the content of an individual's gender role may change over a lifetime because of changing social norms or a move to another society. According to social role theory, behavioural sex differences spring from the differential social roles inhabited by women and men, especially those concerning the division of labour (Eagly, Wood, and Diekman, 2000).

Gender identity is considered to be a two-dimensional model, with masculine traits comprising one dimension, and feminine traits the other. Psychologists believe that varying degrees of these traits coexist within an individual (Gill et al., 1987). Two instruments, the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) are used to categorize individuals according to which set of gendered traits they primarily identify with (Source: amsreview.org).
Gender roles are "socially and culturally defined prescriptions and beliefs about the behaviour and emotions of men and women" (Anselmi and Law 1998). A person's circles of society and cultural heritage play an influential role in their formation of gender identity. Many theorists believe that perceived gender roles form the bases for the development of gender identity. Prominent psychological theories of gender role and gender identity development include Evolutionary Theory (Buss 1995; Shields 1975), Object-Relations Theory (Chodorow 1989), Gender Schema Theory (Bem 1981) and Social Role Theory (Eagly 1987).

Evolutionary theories of gender development are grounded in genetic bases for differences between men and women. Functionalists (e.g., Shields 1975) propose that men and women have evolved differently to fulfil their different and complementary functions, which are necessary for survival. Similarly, socio-biologists (e.g., Buss 1995) propose that behavioural dissimilarities between men and women stem from different sexual and reproductive strategies that have evolved to ensure that men and women are able to efficiently reproduce and effectively pass on their genes.

In contrast, object-relations theorists focus on the effects of socialization on gender development. For example, Nancy Chodorow (1989) emphasizes the role of women as primary caregivers in the development of sex differences. Chodorow asserts that the early bond between mother and child affects boys and girls differently. Whereas boys must separate from their mothers to form their identities as males, girls do not have to endure this separation to define their identities as females. Chodorow explains that the devalued role of women is a product of the painful process men undergoes to separate them from the female role.
Gender Schema Theory (Bem 1981) focuses on the role of cognitive organization in addition to socialization. This theory suggests that children learn how their cultures and/or societies define the roles of men and women and then internalize this knowledge as a gender schema, or unchallenged core belief. The gender schema is then used to organize subsequent experiences (Bem 1983). Children's perceptions of men and women are thus an interaction between their gender schemas and their experiences. Eventually, children will incorporate their own self-concepts into their gender schema and will assume the traits and behaviours that they deem suitable for their gender.

Alice Eagly offers yet another explanation of gender development that is based on socialization. Eagly's social role theory suggests that the sexual division of labour and societal expectations based on stereotypes produce gender roles. Eagly distinguishes between the communal and agentic dimensions of gender-stereotyped characteristics. The communal role is characterized by attributes, such as nurturance and emotional expressiveness, commonly associated with domestic activities, and thus, with women. The agentic role is characterized by attributes such as assertiveness and independence, commonly associated with public activities, and thus, with men. Behaviour is strongly influenced by gender roles when cultures endorse gender stereotypes and form firm expectations based on those stereotypes (Eagly 1987).

Ashmore (1998) defined stereotype as a picture in the head and not an accurate reflection of the real world. Gender stereotyping has been identified as a psychological process illustrating an individual's structured sets of beliefs about the personal attributes of men and women. For instance, when asked to identify what
comes to mind when they think of a typical woman, people are likely to say 'gentle', 'talkative', 'passive', 'tactful' and 'emotional'. They are likely to describe a typical man as 'confident', 'aggressive', 'independent', 'dominant', 'worldly-wise' and 'unemotional' (*Sigal and Nally, 2004*). People cling to gender stereotypes even though they have met and perhaps interacted with individuals who don't conform to their stereotypes (e.g., women who are independent; men who are emotional; women who are not nurturant).

An awareness of the contents of gender role stereotypes begins in the preschool years and is rather well-developed by the time the child enters first grade (*Hughes and Seta, 2003*). Parents are among the more important socializing agents for children in shaping values, beliefs and behaviours related to gender (*Heyman and Legare, 2004*). Parents project their labels to children in several ways, for example over play. Because girls are perceived as more fragile by both, mothers and fathers, parents are more likely to interact and talk more with their daughters, while parents of sons are more likely to play actively with them. In addition, parents encourage sex appropriate activities by providing children with sex-typed toys. Boys are given building blocks, sports equipment and model vehicles. Girls, on the other hand, are encouraged to play with dolls, doll houses and miniature household appliances (*Heyman and Legare, 2004*).

Media, teachers and peer groups also help reinforce gender roles for both sexes. For example, even among six and seven year olds, there is evidence of gender stereotypes in the kinds of occupations children consider for future employment. Girls choose the occupation of nurse, teacher or flight attendant, while boys choose police officer, truck driver, pilot or architect. Once set, children's ranges of occupations are difficult
to change (Eccles et al., 1999). A stereotyped view of the world reinforces many of the common gender role stereotypes and is a factor in prompting young boys’ interest in more than twice as many occupations as young girls (Levy et al., 2000).

Consequently, when girls reach high schools, they tend to restrict their occupational aspirations. Many girls focus on jobs that bring less status, less satisfaction and less money than the jobs that boys think about. Additional examples of gender stereotypic beliefs held by both sexes across the life span include: girls and women are more social than boys and men; girls and women are more suggestible than boys and men; boys and men are visual while girls and women are auditory; girls and women have lower self-esteem than boys and men; boys and men are poor at rote learning and simple tasks; girls and women lack a motivation to achieve; boys and men are more affected by environment while girls and women more by heredity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘Male’ Gender Traits</th>
<th>‘Female’ Gender Traits</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational</td>
<td>Irrational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rough</td>
<td>Gentle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasty</td>
<td>Nice</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brave</td>
<td>Cowardly</td>
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<tr>
<td>Insensitive</td>
<td>Sensitive</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aggressive</td>
<td>Placid</td>
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<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>Co-operative</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
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<td>Disobedient</td>
<td>Obedient</td>
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<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Passive</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unhappy</td>
<td>Happy</td>
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<td>Assertive</td>
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<tr>
<td>Confident</td>
<td>Unconfident</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uncaring</td>
<td>Caring</td>
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Table - 1.1: Summary of Conventional Stereotypical Gender Traits (Source: aber.ac.uk)
The Table-1.1 illustrates the summary of conventional stereotypical ‘male’ and ‘female’ traits. It is very clear to see that both genders are of opposite characters; for example males are seen to be brave, who are more independent and confident whereas females are seen as cowards, who are dependent on others (such as a male partner) and do not have the confidence that males demonstrate (aber.ac.uk 2009).

Gender identity has been judged as the structured set of gendered personal identities that results when the individual takes the social construction of gender and the biological "facts" of sex and incorporates them into an overall self-concept (Frable, 1989). It also refers to a person's awareness of and feelings about their own gender category, whether it is man, woman or some combination of the two. Forming a gender identity is different from being male or female based on one's genital appearance at birth. Gender identification takes time and is influenced by an individual's physiological and sexual endowments as well as by what he/she learns from parents and significant others. Generally, gender identity corresponds with sexual identity. Females are expected to develop a feminine gender identity whereas males, a masculine gender identity. However, occasionally there is a mismatch between sexual and gender identities, leading to distress and a need to reconcile the two.

For the duration of the gender identity phase of development, the child discovers to label him/her and others appropriately. Next, the child learns about gender stability, understanding that once you are a boy or a girl, you will grow up to be a man or a woman, respectively. In the gender constancy stage, the child realizes that gender attribution is permanent and cannot be affected by cultural and personal whims, such
as temporary changes in hairstyles and clothing (Kohlberg, 1966). A child’s first acceptance of a consistent gender descriptor, such as “I am a boy no matter how I present myself”, requires the attainment of concrete operational thought, a cognitive process that occurs when the child is between four and six. Children have attained concrete operational thought when they understand that a quantity of fluid remains the same irrespective of the dimensions of containers into which it is poured (Kohlberg, 1966).

Thus cognitive and gender identity development takes place concurrently. Children primarily discover their own gender identity, followed by the understanding that their gender identity does not alter over time, leading to the concept of gender stability. Finally, the child recognizes that gender identity is unaffected by changes in situations such as wearing gender-inappropriate clothing, a process known as gender consistency (Warin, 2000). Achievement of gender consistency depends on mental age rather than chronological age, confirming an interaction between gender identity development and cognitive development.

Achieving a steady gender identity relies on forming gender schemas defined as dynamic knowledge representations that show age-related growth as a function of interactions between the individual and his/her environment as well as changes in response to situational variations (Martin et al., 2002). A gender schema refers to one's own gender identity, the role expected of someone of that gender, and how gender determines appropriate behaviour, both individually and in response to social influences.
The pattern of gender schemas has been studied in 11-year-old children as well as in adults. The most gender-typical scenarios reported by children are childcare (female), mechanical (male), and cooking (female), with boys showing more gender-stereotypical behaviour than girls. For adults, a scenario involving male and female executives can elicit gender stereotypes. The proportion of imagined female leaders is higher for those who saw a videotape showing women in management than it is for participants who did not view the video (Barbera, 2003). This indicates that stereotypes can be modified, highlighting how environmental influences affect both gender roles and the formation of gender schemas (Perry and Pauletti, 2011).

As Eagly suggests, gender roles are closely linked with gender stereotypes. Stereotypes are "over-generalized beliefs about people based on their membership in one of many social categories" (Anselmi and Law 1998, p. 195). Gender stereotypes vary on four dimensions: traits, role behaviours, physical characteristics, and occupations (Deaux and Lewis 1983). For example, whereas men are more likely to be perceived as aggressive and competitive, women are more likely to be viewed as passive and cooperative. Traditionally, men have been viewed as financial providers, whereas women have been viewed as caretakers. Physical characteristics and occupations have also been considered consistent or inconsistent with masculine or feminine roles.

Traditional gender stereotypes are most representative of the dominant (white, middle-class) culture. Hope Landrine et.al. (1999) asserts that although race and social class may not be mentioned when inquiring about gender stereotypes, most people will make assumptions about these categories. Her research suggests that when race and social classes are specified, different gender stereotypes emerge.
Gender roles and stereotypes affect couple and family interaction. Often, for example, the division of household labour is based on gender. Traditionally, women remained at home and completed most of the domestic labour, while their male partners worked outside the home to provide the family income. Although women have increasingly joined the workforce over the past thirty years, they are also expected to continue to do the majority of the household labour like cooking and taking the care of the house and that of kids.

Gender roles often become more differentiated when men and women become parents. Overall, women provide more direct care for and spend more time with children (Walzer 1998). This care includes taking responsibility for the mental work of gathering and processing information about infant care, delegating the tasks related to infant care, and worrying about infant health and well-being. In sum, the unequal division of both household labour and childcare, with women doing the bulk of the work, is thought to contribute to the reported lower marital satisfaction for women (Walzer 1998).

Gender-role identification has been described as the degree, to which an individual identifies with the gender stereotypes of his or her culture (Baron and Byrne, 2005). Chatterjee and McCarrey (1991) stated that once people develop a specific set of gender-relevant characteristics, their behaviour follows. They hold precise beliefs, make specific assumptions, and act in accordance with specific expectations. Gender-stereotyped behaviour was even found to be associated with bodily postures - men sit with their legs apart and arms away from the trunk, while women sit with their upper legs close to each other and arms against the trunk. Women who adopt the male posture are seen as masculine, and men who adopt the female posture are seen as
Corning (2000) researched the effect of gender on behaviour of college going students and found that gender indeed affected their behaviour. Women in traditionally female college majors (e.g., nursing or education) were found to perceive more social discrimination than women in traditionally male majors (e.g. math or physics). Also, women perform less well when they are aware that a given professor is perceived as a sexist who discriminates on the basis of gender (Ruggiero et al., 2003). In a simulated hiring study, Canadian undergraduates indicated more respect for male than female applicants, and males were more favoured in terms of hiring recommendations (Jackson et al., 2009).

Gender roles and stereotypes affect men and women in other ways. Specifically, men and women may be judged by how well they conform to traditional stereotypes. In his theory of masculine gender role strain, Joespech Pleck (1976) asserted that boys and men are pressured to fulfil a standard of masculinity. Boys and men, for example, who do not fulfil the standard often, suffer from low self-worth (Pleck; Sonnenstein; and Ku 1993). Other lifelong consequences befall men who experience traumatic socialization practices such as rites of passage that entail violence. Even men who successfully fulfil the standard of masculinity suffer psychologically or emotionally from rigid constraints on acceptable parenting roles for men (Pleck; Sonnenstein; and Ku 1993).

1.2.6 The Indian View on Gender Roles

Till the industrialization took place gender roles around the world have been more or less similar. Yet, while in the Western world, the differences in the gender roles have
considerably narrowed, on the other hand in case of India there has been idiosyncrasy in the role of women, right from the early times. In India they have merely been tailored to adapt to new appealing proportions of modern Indian society.

The single major attribute of society which led to this particularity was the intense family centric nature of the society, where it was considered the primary duty of every individual to submit him/her to the interests and diktats of the family. The family did not mean just the couple and their children but also included a number of generations, and a lot of second and even third degree relatives.

In such a society, the extent of freedom available to any individual was limited, but men-folk, who often had to go out, had a greater freedom compared to the womenfolk who were mostly confined to home and had lesser individual freedom. Mother is traditionally closer to children, and when the children grow up, her influence is often greater than even the father, who is considered the head of the family. Males are the earners while the females the nurturers. Also in the family decision making the roles of the males are more protuberant than those of the females.

With time, the role of women across diverse classes has also changed. In rich class, there are just about few restrictions on women's education and working, but there they also retain the option of being housewives, with maids and servants at their disposal, doing nearly nothing except socializing and killing time. This option is not available to males irrespective of their wealth. Amid the middle class, the girls are now studying and working, but the conventional expectations still continue. A working woman is supposed to take care of the household, even though she may be
spending as much time as her husband in the workplace, and even if she earns as much. In the lower labour class, both men and women have to work to carry on themselves, and the gender roles are not very unlike, except that the women generally have the monopoly over child rearing responsibilities.

The role of women is constantly changing in modern India, and so are her ambitions. The sexual liberty has also arrived during the last couple of decades, with the modern women not afraid of experimenting with extra nuptial sex or adopting a child and being a mother without getting married. Divorces which were a rare phenomenon in Indian society have risen in numbers. Family still remains the centre point of society, but individualism is slowly replacing it. On the other hand roles of males are also changing. From rough, aggressive, insensitive they are transforming to a caring, sensitive and participative in the household chores.

In modern India, which embraces the Western values while clutching to the Indian traditions at the same time, a wide spectrum of options has emerged for women. On one hand, there are families where women are carrying on with the age old traditions with an almost religious faith; while on the other hand, there are women who are as independent and individualistic as any women anywhere else in the world. In this mix, anything and everything is possible, and it is often a matter of personal and family preferences that govern the role of women.

1.2.7 Gender Roles in Advertising in Marketing with Indian Perspective

Advertising promotes more than mere products in our popular culture. Because images used in advertising are often idealized, they eventually set the standard which we in turn feel we must live up to. Advertisements serve to show us what the ideal
image is, and further tell us how to obtain it. Advertisers essentially have the power to promote positive images or negative images. All societies set apart some facets of human existence into two idiosyncratic roles of male and female which though differs in substance from society to society. Different cultures impose different expectations upon men and women who live in that culture. Gender distinctiveness develops through a process of differentiation: interactions of biological, social and cognitive learning factors that occur over time.

Gender, maleness or femaleness, is an important factor. It is easy to identify and assess and are reactive to marketing mix fundamentals. Today, brands and its other related intangible assets represent a significant proportion of a company’s enterprise value. The traditional approach to brand management is changing and there has been shift towards a new paradigm in marketing organizations. Branding identifies this shift affecting the market behaviour and advocates their implications in brand management. The marketer has diffused the distinction between the two genders. Males with predominantly masculine, no-crying and rugged image are projected more family oriented softer and emotional whereas the females who used to be passive, unassertive, cowardly family oriented and compassionate are now projected as ambitious, achiever and strong outgoing individuals.

Gender stereotypes are of use for advertisers since the audience is familiar with them, and which act as a cultural point of reference. The audience almost expects women to be portrayed as protective, caring and loving, motherly types or as sex goddesses, and for men to be macho or ludicrously weak and ineffectual. It becomes a great deal simpler for the advertisers to market their product to a particular target market using
stereotypes because the people who see their advertisement are instantly aware whether that particular product is pertinent to them or not.

Advertisements featuring women as mother figures are likely to endorse products linking to the home, children, and health. Women in such advertisements are depicted as putting others before themselves, and doing the best for the family. They take more concerned of the children, make sure the house is clean, and cook all the meals.

On the other hand, women portrayed vampish are to attract men and to do so in any way possible. Beauty and hair-care products are presented as the best way for women to make the most of them, and usually feature attractive, slim, and unblemished women wearing the most flattering clothing. At times it is hard to remember that these advertisements are in fact aimed at women. It is because advertisers want their female audience to seek to be as striking and successful as the women in the advertisements are presented.

Even though there has been a tendency to focus on the use of women in advertisements as objects of desire, it is not unusual for men also to be used for their looks. Advertisements for razors, aftershave, cars, jeans and even Diet Coke have all employed the services of good-looking men to sell a product. These are supposed to be 'real' mean, who are naturally muscular and good with their hands. They care about how the way they look and smell, but not excessively so. In contrast there are those advertisements where men are presented as useless at traditionally 'manly' tasks, having to rely on their wives to fulfil simple do-it-yourself tasks, for instance (Wilkinson 2009).
There are some advertisements in which male and female roles are reversed without actually focusing specifically on the issue of gender, but simply used as a way to reflect a more realistic viewpoint for most people. The majority of advertisers rely on perpetuating traditional gender stereotypes, though, because such stereotypes make it possible for them to reach their specified audience without having to expend much energy on thinking of new ways to appeal to people. Obviously anyone who fails to fit into these narrow gender categories are not the priority of advertisers for a reason and, in the end, it usually comes down to money.
Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Sex and Gender
   2.1.1 Sex
   2.1.2 Gender

2.2 The Gender Identity

2.3 Gender Personality Trait Dimensions

2.4 Gender Salience

2.5 Gender Roles and Advertising in Marketing

2.6 Gender Roles in Indian Advertising in Marketing