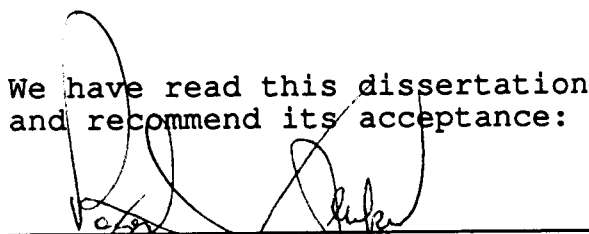
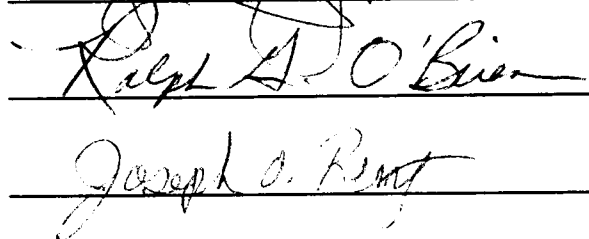


To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Normand D. Turgeon entitled "Comparative Advertising Strategy for Market Leaders." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Business Administration.


David J. Barnaby,
Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:


Ralph A. O'Brien

Joseph A. Remy

Accepted for the Council:


Vice Provost
and Dean of The Graduate School

COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING STRATEGY
FOR MARKET LEADERS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Normand D. Turgeon
August 1988

Copyright © Normand D. Turgeon, 1988
All rights reserved

À Moncef Guitouni,
pour son dévouement auprès de
l'humanité et plus spécifiquement
auprès de la société et de la jeunesse québécoises.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people contributed to the writing of this dissertation, and I gratefully acknowledge the help that I have received from each of them.

To my dissertation chairman, Dr. David J. Barnaby, whose continuous support and encouragement and timely advice enabled me to obtain results which otherwise would have been impossible, I am indebted.

I am also indebted to Dr. Roger L. Jenkins, Dr. Ralph G. O'Brien and Dr. Joseph O. Rentz, who provided me with constructive criticisms and valuable suggestions.

A round of thanks goes to the marketing faculty at The University of Tennessee and especially to Dr. David W. Schumann and Dr. Paul Surgi Speck.

Thanks are also due to Ms. Mary French and Ms. Penny Tschantz who proofread this dissertation and to Ms. Sophie Deschênes, Ms. Johanne Brunet, and Ms. Caroline Léger who assisted me in the content analysis and in the preparation of this document. I would also like to thank the participants for their time, patience and understanding during each stage of this study.

Finally, my warmest thanks go to my friend and wife, Aline, who was doing her doctoral studies in accounting at the same time I was completing mine. She lived through the same difficult but so enriching moments, and has never waived in her support.

ABSTRACT

Businesses have been relying increasingly on comparative advertising as a marketing communication device. However, there is a controversy as to whether market leaders should use such advertising copy strategy.

A four-factor factorial design (2x2x2x3) was developed. The first factor corresponded to the market environment context and comprised two levels -- competition and retaliation. The second factor also had two levels -- comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types. The third factor included two types of claim statements -- product attribute and market standing. The final factor comprised three levels of leader's market dominance -- weak, moderate, and strong.

The conceptual framework of this study was based on the S-O-R paradigm, and five moderating variables were used: message-response involvement, expertise, attitude toward the ad, advertiser disparagement, and loyalty/commitment to the leader's brand.

Finally, three sets of dependent variables were used in the assessment of the appropriateness, fairness, and effectiveness of comparative advertising for market leaders.

The results indicate that for the ad-related covariate-adjusted dependent variables, agreement with comparative advertising was more favorable when used in a

retaliative market environment context. However, the noncomparative advertising copy type was evaluated as better than the comparative one in either market environment context. Finally, the comparative product attribute advertisement was perceived by subjects as more informative and more valuable.

The advertiser-related covariate-adjusted dependent variables (perception of the advertiser's fairness and attitude toward the advertiser) showed, as expected, no leader's market dominance main effect. Contrary to expectation, the interaction effects between the advertising copy type factor and the leader's market dominance factor were not significant for either measure.

The brand-related dependent variables indicated that the comparative product attribute advertisement was the best approach for achieving brand differentiation in the marketplace. The results on the covariate-adjusted attitude toward the brand measure were inconclusive. Finally, the results on the covariate-adjusted conative measure showed the product attribute claim statement to be better than the market standing claim statement for developing positive behavioral intentions toward the brand.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
1. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY.....	1
Introduction	1
A View of Comparative Advertising	1
Comparative Advertising Background	1
Comparative Advertising Practice	3
Comparative Advertising Research	4
Reconciling Comparative Advertising Practice and Research	5
Focus of the Study	8
A New Situation for Comparative Advertising	9
Theoretical Viewpoint on This Issue	10
Object of This Study	10
Organization of the Study	11
2. REVIEW OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING LITERATURE.	13
Introduction	13
Purpose of this Chapter	17
The S-R Approach to Comparative Advertising Research	17
The Source	19
The Message	21
The Channel	25
Summary	26
The S-O-R Approach to Comparative Advertising Research	26
Attitude Toward Advertising	29
Attitude Toward the Ad.....	31
Attitude Toward the Brand	32
Behavioral Intention	32
Cognitive Thought	33
Demographics	33
Information Processing	35
Involvement	36
Psychographics	37
Situation	38
Summary	43
Conclusion	44
3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES.....	46
Introduction	46
Conceptual Framework	46
The Stimulus Variables	48

3. (Continued)

Summary	63
The Organism and Response Variables.....	64
Summary	69
Hypotheses	69
Unidimensional and Bidimensional Effects.	71
Multidimensional Effects	76
Conclusion	83

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY..... 85

Introduction	85
Research Environment	85
Research Design	85
Subject Selection	89
Experimental Product Decisions	90
Operationalization of the Study Variables .	96
The Stimulus Variables	96
The Organism Variables	105
The Response Variables	110
Pretest	116
Research Procedures	116
Conclusion	118

5. RESULTS 119

Introduction	119
Unidimensional and Bidimensional Effects	
Tests	119
Effects of Market Environment Context	119
Effects of Leader's Market Dominance	127
Effects of Claim Statement	129
Summary	136
Multidimensional Effects Tests	137
Effects of Advertising Copy Type and Claim Statement in Competition Market Environment Context	137
Effects of Advertising Copy Type and Claim Statement in Retaliation Market Environment Context	138
Effects of Claim Statement on Comparative Advertising Copy Type in Retaliation Market Environment Context	144
Effects of Claim Statement on Comparative Advertising Copy Type in Competition Market Environment Context	148
Summary	151
Conclusion	152

CHAPTER	PAGE
6. DISCUSSION	153
Introduction	153
Conclusions	153
The Appropriateness Issue	153
The Fairness Issue	154
The Effectiveness Issue	155
Contributions of the Study	156
Limitations of the Study	158
Current Issues and Future Directions	161
Conceptual Dimension	161
Methodological Dimension	163
Analytical Dimension	163
Conclusion	164
BIBLIOGRAPHY	165
APPENDIXES	180
A. A SURVEY OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING DEFINITIONS	181
B. PRETEST QUESTIONNAIRE	185
C. LEADER'S MARKET DOMINANCE EXCERPTS	191
D. QUESTIONNAIRE	195
E. CHALLENGER'S NONCOMPARATIVE AND COMPARATIVE ADVERTISEMENTS	223
F. TREATMENT ADVERTISEMENTS	226
G. COVER SHEET	231
H. MANIPULATION BOOKLET CONTENT	233
I. CELL MEANS	235
J. MAIN AND INTERACTION EFFECTS GRAPHS.....	249
VITA	256

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. A Census of the Research Reports and their Approach in Comparative Advertising	14
2. Examples of Product Attribute and Market Standing Advertising Claim Statements	53
3. Randomization Checks	88
4. Characteristics of the Sample	91
5. List of Experimental Brand Names	95
6. List of Bicycle Features	104
7. Organism-Related Scale Dimensionality and Reliability	107
8. Ad-Related Scale Dimensionality and Reliability	111
9. Advertiser-Related Scale Dimensionality and Reliability	113
10. Brand-Related Scale Dimensionality and Reliability	115
11. Hypotheses 1 ANCOVA Results	122
12. Hypotheses 2 ANCOVA Results	124
13. Hypotheses 3 ANCOVA Results	125
14. Adjusted Group Means for Market Environment Context Effects	126
15. Hypotheses 4 ANCOVA Results	128
16. Hypotheses 5 ANCOVA Results	130
17. Adjusted Group Means for Leader's Market Dominance Effects	131
18. Hypotheses 6 ANCOVA Results	132

TABLE	PAGE
19. Hypotheses 7 ANCOVA Results	134
20. Adjusted Group Means for Claim Statement Effects	135
21. Hypotheses 8 ANOVA and ANCOVA Results	139
22. Hypotheses 8 Unadjusted and Adjusted Group Means -- Competition Market Environment Context	140
23. Hypotheses 9 ANOVA and ANCOVA Results	142
24. Hypotheses 9 Unadjusted and Adjusted Group Means -- Retaliation Market Environment Context	143
25. Hypotheses 10 ANOVA and ANCOVA Results	145
26. Hypotheses 10 Unadjusted and Adjusted Group Means -- Retaliation Market Environment Context	146
27. Hypotheses 11 ANOVA and ANCOVA Results	149
28. Hypotheses 11 Unadjusted and Adjusted Group Means -- Competition Market Environment Context	150

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1. Predictor and Criterion Variables Used in the S-R Type Comparative Advertising Studies...	18
2. Predictor, Intervening, and Criterion Variables Used in the S-O-R Type Comparative Advertising Studies	28
3. The Stimulus, Organism, and Response Variables of this Study	47
4. Interrelation Among the Organism and Response Variables of this Study	66
5. Experimental Design	86
J-1. Agreement with Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising Copy Types	250
J-2. Attitudes Toward the Comparative and Noncomparative Advertisements	251
J-3. Perception of the Advertiser's Fairness.....	252
J-4. Attitudes Toward the Advertiser.....	253
J-5. Perceived Informativeness of the Ad.....	254
J-6. Perceived Value of Information in the Ad.....	255

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

Worldwide advertising expenditures for 1987 were expected to reach \$200 billion, an increase of 10% over 1986, and of that amount \$109.8 billion would be spent in the U.S. alone (Alter, 1986). The projection for the year 2000 in the United States is \$305 billion (Advertising Age, 1980); and if the same ratio (55%) applied, worldwide advertising expenditures would be well over \$500 billion. These figures alone demonstrate the magnitude of advertising expenditures and the related importance of management decisions in business practice.

A VIEW OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

Comparative Advertising Background

In order to seek the greatest effectiveness per dollar spent on advertising, advertising facilitating institutions in conjunction with businesses have become committed to developing new advertising techniques and strategies.

As a result, in the late 60's, businesses began to initiate comparative advertising. Under this approach, advertisers use advertising "... that compares alternative brands on objectively measurable attributes or price and

identifies the alternative brand by name, illustration, or other distinctive information (FTC News, 1979)."

At first this provocative form of advertising met resistance. Although the NBC television network had been accepting comparative advertisements for some time, the two other major networks (CBS and ABC) were still airing only indirect comparative advertisements - mostly brand "X" and electronically "beeped" advertisements (Ulanoff, 1975). Likewise in the advertising community, some advertising agency managers hailed and other advertising executives disparaged comparative advertising (Advertising Age, 1976a, 1976b).

However, the FTC observed that contrary to past advertising practice this new form of advertising would benefit consumers and businesses (Scammon, 1978). Therefore, in 1971 it urged advertisers and advertising agencies to explicitly name competitors in their comparative advertisements and appealed to CBS and ABC to lift their ban on comparative advertising (Ulanoff, 1975). In 1974, the American Association of Advertising Agencies amended a previous position and took the stance that properly employed comparative advertising is in the interest of consumers (Ulanoff, 1975). During the same period of time, the National Association of Broadcasters also put its seal of approval on comparative advertising (Belch, 1981).

Finally, in 1979 the FTC officially sanctioned the use of comparative advertising (Abrams, 1982).

Comparative Advertising Practice

Comparative advertising was a business practice as far back as the early 18th century (Ulanoff, 1975). Since the beginning of the 1970's, its use has increased substantially. In 1973, comparative advertising comprised about 7% of all copy (Shimp, 1975), and in 1974 20% of US media's ads had a comparative format (Wilkie and Farris, 1974). Between 1970 and 1975 Stevenson and Swayne (1980) noticed a sharp decline in implied (indirect) comparative industrial advertising and an increase of over 100% of strictly (direct) comparative claim. Brown and Jackson (1977) reported that almost 19% of television advertisements were comparative, and Townley (1982) reported 23%. Abrams (1982) stated that around 6,700 of the 29,000 radio and television advertisements reviewed at the ABC network in 1981 had a comparative format. Harmon, Razzouk, and Stern (1983) observed that 30% of a sample of print advertisements they analyzed for content had comparative claims, and Koten (1984) indicated that comparative advertising accounted for 35% of all television commercials. Finally, Swayne and Stevenson (1987) observed that comparative industrial advertising significantly increased from 14.5% in 1980 to 24% in 1985.

A major impetus in the increasing use of comparative advertising has been the many real-life success stories of companies that have used it. For example, Savin Business Machines used TV, radio, and newspaper advertisements in which it compared itself to Xerox, the leader in the copier industry. It reported that this advertising campaign coupled with a new marketing approach increased its sales from \$60 million to \$200 million in less than four years (Mornier, 1978). In the credit card market, Carte Blanche claimed to be as good as American Express. It also reported that the number of applications and cardholders went up, the amount of money spent went up, and the number of customer cancellations went down (Connor, 1973).

Due to this kind of success, the practice of comparative advertising is today a widespread phenomenon. Boddewyn and Marton (1978a) report signs of its increasing usage and acceptance and mention that it is practiced in many countries - Australia, Canada, United Kingdom, Netherlands, and the USA among others.

Comparative Advertising Research

Research on comparative advertising has increased considerably since the call for additional research by Wilkie and Farris (1974) in their seminal article on the topic. Aaker and Myers (1987) report between 25 and 30 published studies. This researcher counts over 40 empirical research reports on comparative advertising published

in the last 13 years or so. Additionally, 18 doctoral dissertations were identified, and the results of some of them have been reported in journals and proceedings.

Usually, researchers compare the effectiveness of comparative to noncomparative advertising using the situational model and the hierarchy of effects model (Ash and Wee, 1983). All in all, research does not support a straightforward significant positive differential level of effectiveness for comparative advertising over noncomparative advertising. In some cases, comparative advertising has significantly differed from noncomparative advertising, and the results have been, more often than not, harmful rather than beneficial to the sponsored brand. In other instances, the results have been neutral, comparative advertising being no more nor no less effective than noncomparative advertising (Ash and Wee, 1983; Etgar and Goodwin, 1978; Ginter and Starling, 1979; Lincoln and Samli, 1979; Muehling and Kangun, 1985; Wilson, 1978).

Reconciling Comparative Advertising Practice and Research

Comparative advertising constitutes an important and successful segment of marketing communications. However, we have observed that research on its effectiveness vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising has brought more unfavorable than favorable findings so far. Various rationales to explain this issue have been proposed by comparative advertising researchers.

Gorn and Weinberg (1984, 1983) observed that comparative advertising practice in a product category is usually initiated by a challenger that tries to place his brand in the same league as the brand leader in the consumer's mind. Gorn and Weinberg (1984, 1983) did not choose to simply analyze comparative advertising versus noncomparative advertising but opted for a careful manipulation of source, message, and media variables. They designed an experiment which tested the effects of comparative and noncomparative advertising in two media contexts (brand leader's ad absent and present in the same medium) and across three product categories on three dependent variables (perception, attitude, and cognitive response). Their findings (1984 version) support their hypothesis that comparative advertising would significantly increase challenger-leader brand similarity. However, they found that comparative advertising did not produce more favorable attitudes toward the challenger's brand.

Villarreal-Camacho (1983) observed the substantial disagreement over the real impact of comparative advertising on consumers and resolved that the hierarchy of effects model and situational model were not appropriate for its study. She proposed using an information processing approach as an alternative method to study communication effects. She focused her attention on three different sets of factors: factors that affect the processing,

factors that mediate the processing, and factors that result from the processing. She studied the impact of the advertising copy type and prior knowledge factors on cognitive response, product positioning (which she declared was the single most important dependent variable in the study of comparative advertising), and attitudinal and behavioral intention measures; and her findings failed to support most of the research hypotheses.

Muehling (1985) also used the consumer as an intervening variable and tried to determine whether comparative advertising was processed differently than noncomparative advertising in non-manipulated low and high message-response involvement situations. The results of his study "... provide evidence to support that comparative ads are processed differently than noncomparative ads" (p. ii). However, the hypotheses concerning differences in strengths of relationships among constructs under different advertising copy types and message-response involvement levels are not supported.

Finally, Demirdjian (1978) observed the increasing use of comparative advertising by companies in various industries and their apparent success. He also reported on the few positive findings for comparative advertising and deduced "...that the studies in comparative advertising research have possibly misevaluated the true effectiveness of this promotional strategy" (p.29). Demirdjian's (1978)

conclusion was based on the observation that oftentimes researchers mismatched the high involvement hierarchy (cognition-affect-conation) with low involvement purchase situations (low-involvement items). However, in his study, he carefully matched the low involvement hierarchy (cognition-conation-affect) with a low involvement purchase item and used behavior as the dependent variable. As hypothesized, he noted that comparative advertising was better than noncomparative advertising for coupon redemption and concluded that comparative advertising was a successful communication device. Moreover, he insisted on appropriate matchings of hierarchy of effects and purchase situations when studying comparative advertising effects on consumers.

FOCUS OF THE STUDY

Muehling and Kangun (1985) reasoned that the equivocality in the comparative advertising research findings was probably due to idiosyncratic experimental manipulations, methods, construct definitions, and a lack of replication.

While it is possible that these research dimensions might influence results, the contention of this research account, following observations from the literature, is that the findings in the comparative advertising paradigm are situation-bound and therefore somewhat sensitive to the choice of stimuli arrangement and response variables. Moreover, in many instances, as Chapter 2 shows, the

results have been significantly moderated by consumer's intervening variables.

A New Situation for Comparative Advertising

As Gorn and Weinberg (1984) mentioned, comparative advertising by market leaders has increased substantially over the past few years. A brief overview of the literature and of some advertising campaigns of the last few years substantiates this claim.

For example, Coca-Cola counter-attacked Pepsi-Cola at the height of the Pepsi-Cola challenge (Buchanan, 1985); General Motors (Pontiac division) took on the imports in the subcompact car market (see the ad in Aaker and Myers, 1987, p.133); and Business Week, which correctly defines itself as the leader among business magazines, compared itself to Forbes and Fortune in a comparative chart (see the ad in Advertising Age, April 6, 1987, pp.S8-S9). In television advertising, AT&T has been differentiating itself from the "look-a-like" in the telephone receiver market. Finally, GM's Oldsmobile division is comparing its "Ciera" model to such competitors as Honda, Toyota, and Nissan and is proclaiming that it offers a better car at a cheaper price. Moreover, Levy (1983) reported on the use of comparative advertising by such leaders as Heinz (for its catsup product) and Dristan. These examples illustrate that market leaders of different market dominance levels have chosen to use product attribute or market standing

based comparative advertising for the purpose of offensive or defensive marketing moves.

Theoretical Viewpoint on This Issue

However, from a theoretical standpoint, Swayne, Starling, and Ginter (1981) mentioned that the market leader should not use comparative advertising. One of the propositions included in their contingency theory of comparative advertising reads:

"IF the product is the market leader --->	THEN comparative advertising should not be used as doing so may elevate the competition in the market (building recognition)" (p.33).
--	---

Moreover, when Wines (1985) reviewed the possible forms of retaliation for market leaders named in competitor's comparative advertisements, he stated that a counter-comparative advertisement could be perceived as unsportsmanlike. He added that "...many consumers feel the technique is too low to be justified under any circumstances" (p.61). On the contrary, Gorn and Weinberg (1984) indicated that a market leader's use of comparative advertising may be warranted for combating a challenger's comparative advertising claim.

Object of This Study

No one has systematically tested the relative effectiveness of comparative advertising vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising for market leaders.

This study adopts a confrontational-manipulative design (Shimp and Dyer, 1978) in comparing the effectiveness of two comparative advertising claims (product attribute versus market standing) with matched types of noncomparative advertisement for three levels of leader's market dominance (weak, medium, strong) in two types of market environment contexts (competition or offensive and retaliation or defensive).

The impact of the factors of this research is related to covariate-adjusted dependent variables such as perception (of the ad, the brand, and the sponsor), attitude (toward the ad, the brand and the sponsor), and behavioral intention.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

In Chapter 2, a review of the literature in comparative advertising using the Yale research paradigm is presented. The comparative advertising studies are positioned in terms of Hovland, Janis, and Kelly's (1953) communication model elements, and their results are reviewed.

The third chapter deals with the conceptual framework and the elaboration of hypotheses. Using the communication model presented in Chapter 2, the variables of this research are positioned and reviewed; and, secondly, the hypotheses based on the preceding explanations and past empirical research results are deduced.

The fourth chapter explains the methodology that is used to empirically test the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3. The operationalization of the stimulus variables is proposed, and the measurement of the intervening and response variables is discussed.

The fifth chapter presents an analysis of the results. The findings are related to the conceptual framework of Chapter 3, and explanations of the divergence of the results to the theory are offered when needed.

The last chapter is about the conclusions, implications, and directions for future research that can be derived from this study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

Research on comparative advertising has been very diversified and dynamic. In addition to Ulanoff's (1975) historical piece, the comparative advertising paradigm has been studied with, among others, a legal perspective (e.g., Meyerowitz, 1985; Posh, 1986), a conceptual perspective (e.g., Boddewyn and Marton, 1978; Scammon, 1978; Wilkie and Farris, 1974), and a strategic perspective (e.g., Byer and Cooke, 1985). Further, a contingency theory of comparative advertising has been proposed in order to guide its many applications (Swayne, Starling, and Ginter, 1981). However, the empirical point of view has dominated the field and is of special interest in this chapter.

A comprehensive list of the empirical work is presented in Table 1. The correlational studies listed have mainly utilized the stimulus-response (S-R) and the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) conceptual approaches. The former approach postulates that response is determined by stimulus; i.e., external factors such as exposure to advertising, product, etc. This approach looks at the external environment as the source of response or action. The latter approach proposes that the environment affects

Table 1. A Census of the Research Reports and their
Approach in Comparative Advertising.

Author(s)	Year	Approach	
		S-R	S-O-R(a)
Abramson(b)	1977		*
Belch(b)	1980		*
Belch(c)	1981		*
Belch and Lutz(c)	1982		*
Demirdjian(b)	1978	*	
Demirdjian(c)	1983	*	
Demirdjian(c)	1986	*	
Droge(b,h)	1986	*	
Droge and Darmon(c,h)	1987	*	
Dyer(b)	1977	*	
Earl(b)	1978	*	
Earl and Pride(c)	1980	*	
Etgar and Goodwin	1982	*	
Golden	1975		*
Golden	1979		*
Goodwin and Etgar	1980		*
Gorn and Weinberg	1983		*
Gorn and Weinberg(d)	1984		*
Grossbart, Muehling, and Kangun	1986		*
Hackleman and Jain	1978		*
Holmes and Holley	1986		*
Jain and Hackleman	1978	*	
James(b)	1981	*	
Johnson(b)	1981		*
Johnson and Horne	1987	*	
Kangun, Muehling, and Grossbart	1984		*
Lamb, Pletcher, and Pride	1979	*	
Lamb, Pride, and Pletcher	1979	*	
Levine	1976		*
Lincoln(b,h)	1979	*	
Mazis(e)	1976	*	
McDougall	1977	*	
McDougall	1978		*
Muehling(b)	1985		*
Muehling	1987		*
Murphy and Amundsen	1981	*	
Murphy, Wilcox, and Hardy	1985		*
O'Connor(h)	1986	*	
Ogilvy and Mather(f)	1975		*

Table 1 (Continued)

Author(s)	Year	Approach	
		S-R	S-O-R
Ogilvy and Mather(e,g)	1977a		
Ogilvy and Mather(e,g)	1977b		
Ohanian(b)	1981	*	
Prasad	1976		*
Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher	1977		*
Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher	1979	*	
Sellars(b,i)	1978		*
Sheluga and Jacoby	1978	*	
Shimp	1978	*	
Shimp and Dyer(c)	1978	*	
Stack(b,h)	1978	*	
Stutts	1982		*
Sujan and Dekleva	1987		*
Swinyard	1981		*
Tashchian and Slama	1984		*
Traylor(b)	1980		*
Villarreal-Camacho(b)	1983		*
Villarreal-Camacho(c)	1985		*
Walker, Swasy, and Rethans	1986		*
Warr(b)	1982	*	
Weir(c,j)	1977		*
Wilkes	1977		*
Wilson	1976	*	
Wilson and Muderrisoglu	1979a	*	
Wilson and Muderrisoglu	1979b	*	

a

A study is classified as using an S-O-R approach if a variable (observable or unobservable) expressing the organism was used as a receiver's characteristic in the design.

b

Doctoral dissertation.

c

Publication from dissertation results.

d

This study is a re-analysis of the 1983 results.

Table 1 (Continued)

e

This study is referenced in the literature. However, we were not able to obtain the research report.

f

This study has also been published by Levine (1976).

g

No reference in the literature is complete enough to help classify this study.

h

Only a small subset of the study has hypotheses based on the S-O-R approach. Therefore, it is classified as a S-R type study.

i

Sellars used a wide array of moderator variables demographics: level of education; psychographic: price consciousness, self confidence, information seeking, and opinion leadership; general view of advertising: trustworthiness, informativeness, and usefulness. Response variables such as recall and perceptions of the ad, product, and sponsor were used in the study. However, limitations to the study design prompted us not to report the results.

j

Weir used variables such as age, sex, marital status, educational attainment, occupation, family income, television viewing habits, brand preference, and brand ownership. Response variables were claim recall, sponsor identification, and slogan identification. Brand preference and brand ownership were found to be associated with the criterion variables. However, the data analytic technique used in this study strongly limits the conclusions one can reach regarding the moderating/mediating role of these receiver's characteristics.

the individual and that the individual's characteristics determine his response. In this case, the effects of stimuli are mediated by intervening variables (Williams, 1981).

Purpose of this Chapter

This chapter reviews the research studies presented in Table 1 by using Hovland and associates' research paradigm (Hovland, Janis, and Kelley, 1953) which was derived from Laswell's (1948) verbal model of communication (Smith, 1982): "Who says what in which channel to whom with what effect?" Also known as the Yale research paradigm, this model postulates that the effectiveness of persuasive communication is dependent on five factors: 1) the perceived source's characteristics, 2) the message's arguments, 3) the channel factors, 4) the receiver's characteristics, and 5) the communication situation's characteristics (Hovland, Janis, and Kelley, 1953). The following two sections of this chapter review the studies undertaken with an S-R and an S-O-R approach respectively.

THE S-R APPROACH TO COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING RESEARCH

Researchers who used this conceptual framework manipulated a vast array of predictor variables and measured their effects on a wide combination of criterion variables. These variables are presented in Figure 1.

STIMULUS	RESPONSE
Source . Object . Sponsor Message . Claim Statement . Comparison Approach . Directionality . Illustration . Intensity . Primacy-Recency . Sidedness . Subject/Referent . Substantiation Channel . Media Class	Effect Attitude . To the Ad . To the Brand/Product . To the Sponsor Awareness Behavior Cognitive Thought Perception . Of the Ad . Of the Brand/Product . Of the Sponsor Product Positioning Purchase Intention Recall

Figure 1. Predictor and Criterion Variables Used in the S-R Type Comparative Advertising Studies.

As one can observe, only three of the five factors of the Yale research paradigm are included: since the S-R approach does not comprise the organism component, the receiver characteristics factor is excepted; moreover, since no communication situation characteristics were used by researchers, this factor is also excluded.

The Source

Object. Jain and Hackleman (1978) used Copeland's (1924) goods classification and "...found brand names for convenience and specialty goods tend to be recalled more than brand names for shopping goods when advertised in comparison form" (p. 24).

Of the types of products utilized in comparative advertising, Wilson (1976) chose eight (1 durable, 6 non-durables, and 1 service) and observed that the product type/advertising copy type interaction was significant only for the offensiveness of the ad and was in disfavor of comparative advertising.

O'Connor (1986) chose three different products (cigarettes, long distance calls, and computers) and found a highly significant interaction effect between advertising copy type and product type for believability, information usefulness, information amount, and purchase intention. The comparative advertising effect was therefore product

specific, and the telephone carrier obtained the most pronounced favorable effects overall.

Using relatively undifferentiated brands, Demirdjian (1986, 1983) observed in a field design experiment that comparative advertising had a stronger influence than noncomparative advertising on purchase behavior as measured by coupon redemption.

Lincoln (1978) remarked that comparative advertising produced a significantly less favorable impression than noncomparative advertising on performance evaluation, belief, and overall store image. Finally, Warr (1982) concluded that comparative advertising was no more or no less effective than noncomparative advertising for local retailers (compared to national chains) on sponsor identification, recall, believability, and store patronage.

Sponsor. Wilkie and Farris (1974) hypothesized that the sponsor's competitive position had an impact on the effectiveness of comparative advertising. Shimp and Dyer (1978) found that comparative advertising was better than noncomparative advertising for a new fast food chain (compared to an established one) on ad convincingness and intention to patronize. Moreover, James (1981) observed that brands with small market shares benefited at a perceptual level and at an attitudinal level from using comparative over noncomparative advertising.

The Message

As one can observe in Figure 1, many dimensions of the message variable have been subjected to empirical research.

Claim Statement. Droge (1986) crossed comparative and noncomparative advertising with product attribute and market standing based advertising claim statements (the first type of claim refers to characteristics of the product while the second type contains arguments about characteristics of the market in which the advertised product competes). She derived her hypotheses from an integrated model that incorporated the high and low involvement hierarchies and used two conceptualizations of brand comprehension, one anchored in the attitude paradigm and another in the perceptual distance paradigm. She found, contrary to expectation, that comparative advertising did not seem to generate more sponsor brand name recall than noncomparative advertising. Moreover, market standing advertisements did not significantly generate more recall than product attribute advertisements. As for message claim recall, comparative advertisements were significantly better than noncomparative advertisements on recall for the headline, but no difference was found between market standing and product attribute advertisements on that same response variable. Further, an interaction effect was found: the comparative product attribute advertisement had the highest recall while the noncomparative product attribute advertisement

had the lowest. Noncomparative advertisements were rated better in general and were better liked than comparative advertisements on advertisement-related responses. In fact, in this respect, the best advertisement was the noncomparative product attribute. Further, using the perceptual distance paradigm, she found that the comparative product attribute advertisement was somewhat better in creating challenger-leader brand similarity. No major differences due to advertising treatment were found on affective responses. Finally, for non-purchase trial (free sample) and vested information search (free booklet), the comparative product attribute advertisement generated the highest conative intention.

Comparison Approach. McDougall's (1977) study revealed mixed results on the indirect-direct comparison factor while Shimp (1978) found that incomplete comparisons were potentially misleading. Additionally, Murphy and Amundsen (1981) compared the effectiveness of noncomparative, direct comparative, and "Brand X" advertising. They observed that noncomparative advertising was more effective on immediate and delayed claim recall, claim believability, and claim recall decay than the other two appeals. Moreover, the direct comparative advertising approach appeared to be preferable to the "Brand X" approach.

Directionality. Comparative advertising directionality refers to whether an associative (similarity between products stressed), a differentiative (differences between product stressed), or a combinational approach (both similarities and differences between products are considered) is used (Muehling and Kangun, 1985).

Research reports showed that the associative approach was more believable and that the differentiative approach was more interesting (Lamb, Pletcher, and Pride, 1979), but none of them was found to create more awareness or be perceived as more informative (Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, 1979).

Illustration. Lamb, Pride, and Pletcher (1979) studied the impact of illustrating/not illustrating the compared-to brand. A fictitious brand of pocket calculator was compared to a leading brand, and no significant illustration main or interaction effect was found on subjects' rating of believability and interest of the ad.

Intensity. The intensity factor refers to the "...degree of specificity [low, moderate, high] of comparison that is made" (Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, 1979 p. 30). Wilson and Muderrissoglu (1979b) noted that subjects perceived the strength of claims or the intensity dimension in an advertisement. In a related study, they also found that the level of intensity did not significantly impact any of

the seven types of cognitive response used as criterion variables (Wilson and Muderrissoglu, 1979a). Moreover, two interaction effects were found: one for support arguments and the other for negative ad-related statements.

Lamb, Pride, and Pletcher (1979) observed that the moderate intensity level was significantly more believable than either the low or the high intensity level but did not find significant impact on degree of interest. Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher (1979), on the other hand, found no significant effect of intensity on product feature awareness and perceived informativeness of the ad.

Primacy-Recency. In Ohanian's (1981) study, the order of the brands in the comparative advertisement significantly impacted on their level of evaluation and likelihood of usage. The study indicated that the service mentioned first in the comparative advertisement had better evaluation and purchase intention but did not result in better recall.

Sidedness. Stack's (1978) study revealed that one-sided treatment did not significantly receive better interest level, believability, and informational value ratings than two-sided comparative advertisements. Also, no significant difference was found for perceived informativeness of the ad, product feature awareness, confidence in

product claims, and credibility of the advertiser (Earl and Pride, 1980).

Subject/Referent. Johnson and Horne (1987) researched the impacts of using a well known brand as subject or referent in comparative advertising. They used Tversky's (1977) contrast model and deduced that the subject/referent position can systematically influence subjects' perceived brand proximity. They hypothesized that using a more distinctive brand (e.g., Coke) as referent would facilitate a strategy of association while using the same brand as subject would facilitate a strategy of differentiation. The pilot study supported their hypothesis.

Substantiation. McDougall (1977) concluded that "the substantiated claims were perceived as significantly more reliable and helpful than the unsubstantiated claims" (p. 290). However, Earl and Pride's (1980) study indicated that although the use of performance test results was a significant factor, its use did not interact with advertising copy type and, therefore, did not influence the effectiveness of comparative advertising on perceived informativeness and product feature awareness.

The Channel

Media Class. Mazis (1976), as reported in Wilson (1978), tested the effectiveness of print and audio media

for comparative advertising. His evidence suggests that there is no difference between these two media classes. Reports of all the other studies that used but did not manipulate media classes seem to indicate that comparative advertising is more effective with the print than with the television medium (Lincoln and Samli, 1979).

Summary

Comparative advertising effectiveness has been tested in many pertinent ways. However, response variables related to cognitive, affective, and conative dimensions have received positive (e.g., Demirdjian, 1986, 1983; Shimp and Dyer, 1978), neutral (e.g., Sheluga and Jacoby, 1978; Warr, 1982), and negative (e.g., Murphy and Amundsen, 1981; Wilson, 1976) evidence of superior effectiveness over non-comparative advertising.

THE S-O-R APPROACH TO COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING RESEARCH

As Table 1 indicates, a large number of researchers chose to study comparative advertising using an S-O-R conceptual approach. A basic motivation to use this approach is that researchers believe organism mediates comparative advertising effectiveness. However, studies that used data analysis techniques suitable to test for the presence of mediators (cf., James and Brett, 1984) are not prevalent in the field. In fact, researchers tested more for the presence of concomitant and moderator variables.

For example, some researchers (e.g., McDougall, 1978; Stutts, 1982; Villarreal-Camacho, 1983) have experimentally reduced error variation by treating receivers' characteristics as blocking variables in their study design. Then they proceeded to analyze the experimental factors' main and interaction effects with advertising copy type. Other researchers (e.g., Golden, 1979, 1975; Grossbart, Muehling, and Kangun, 1986; Swyniard, 1981) have adjusted responses for extraneous sources of error by treating receivers' characteristics as covariates. Thus, researchers have statistically controlled the impact of organism on response. However, a significant covariate should not be understood as the mediator of a stimulus. In fact, this demonstrates that the researchers' concern about this variable's correlation with the response variable is warranted. As recommended, this influence should be "netted out" before any main and interaction effects are tested (Green and Tull, 1978). Another method researchers (e.g., Levine, 1976; Walker, Swasy, and Rethans, 1986) have adopted is the screening of subjects by characteristics of interest. Under this approach, only subjects having the characteristics of interest are studied, and results are generalizable only to that subset of population.

As can be observed in Figure 2, a large selection of receivers' characteristics has been utilized in conjunction with a wide array of stimulus variables, and the impacts of

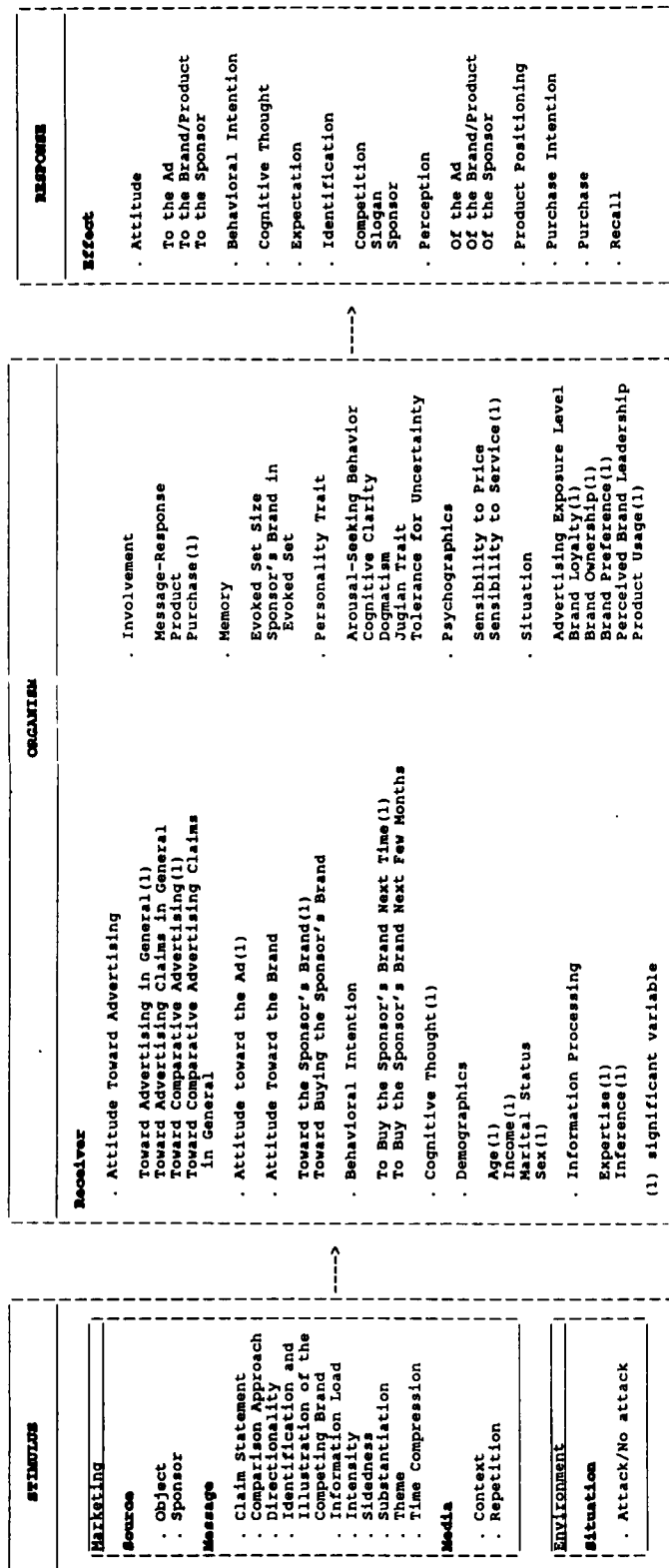


Figure 2. Predictor, Intervening, and Criterion Variables Used in the S-O-R Comparative Advertising Type Studies.

these variables on many criterion variables have been assessed. The major interest in this section is the presence of intervening variables in the study of comparative advertising effectiveness; therefore, the emphasis will be centered on the organism component of the S-O-R model. The next few pages will review the significant receivers' characteristics listed in Figure 2 and the situations where they have successfully and unsuccessfully contributed to the effectiveness of comparative advertising. Attitude toward advertising will be reviewed first.

Attitude toward Advertising

Attitude toward Advertising in General. Two research studies on the illustration and identification of the competing brand in comparative advertising show attitude toward advertising in general to significantly covary with claims acceptance, attitude toward the sponsor's brand, and intention to buy the sponsor's brand (Grossbart, Muelhing, and Kangun, 1986; Kangun, Muehling, and Grossbart, 1984). In these studies the criterion of homogeneity of regression slopes is met, and the inclusion of this covariate does not greatly influence results.

Grossbart et al. also observed that only the comparative advertisement with both verbal and visual cues evoked less claim acceptance than the noncomparative advertisement. Moreover, the noncomparative advertisement induced

more positive attitudes toward the sponsor's brand than the comparative advertisement, and the comparative advertisement with only verbal cues elicited more positive attitudes toward the sponsor's brand than the comparative advertisement with both verbal and visual references to the competitor. Finally, no significant difference was noted between the different identification/illustration formats used in comparative advertising nor between comparative advertising and noncomparative advertising for intention to buy the sponsor's brand.

Attitude toward Comparative Advertising. Grossbart, Muehling, and Kangun, (1986) in the same identification/illustration study observed that attitude toward comparative advertising significantly covaried with noncomparative recall. Again, the criterion of homogeneity of regression slopes was met, and the covariate did not greatly influence results. They found that noncomparative recall was higher for the noncomparative advertisement than for any forms of identification and illustration in comparative advertising. Moreover, the comparative advertisement which used both verbal and visual identification/illustration cues elicited more noncomparative recall than the comparative advertisements that used either verbal or visual cues.

Attitude toward the Ad

Muehling (1987) tested the impact of attitude toward the ad on attitude toward the sponsoring/competing brands and attitude toward purchasing the sponsoring/competing brands. The results of his study show that, for all five comparative advertising formats used, attitude toward the ad did influence attitude toward the sponsor's brand. However, subjects' attitudes toward the ad did not transfer to their attitudes toward the competing brand and their attitudes toward purchasing the competing brand.

Droge (1986) and Droge and Darmon (1987) observed that attitude toward the ad was a significant predictor of belief and confidence in belief responses. Even when controlling for this effect, they did not find, as hypothesized, that beliefs generated by the comparative product attribute advertisement were superior to beliefs produced by other comparative and noncomparative advertising formats. However, they found that the comparative product attribute advertisement was superior to the noncomparative product attribute advertisement in generating confidence in beliefs overall. This finding led them to conclude that comparative product attribute advertising is superior in generating positioning clarity.

Attitude toward the Brand

Attitude toward the Sponsor's Brand. Kangun, Muehling, and Grossbart (1984) and Grossbart, Muehling, and Kangun (1986) found attitude toward the sponsor's brand covariate to significantly impact on noncomparative recall and total recall. The noncomparative recall was higher for the noncomparative advertisement than for any forms of identification and illustration in comparative advertising while the total recall results indicated that the comparative advertisement which fully identified and illustrated competition had the same total recall as the noncomparative advertisement. Moreover, the comparative advertisement with either verbal or visual references to competition elicited less recall than any of the other forms of identification/illustration.

Behavioral Intention

Intention to the Buy Sponsor's Brand Next Time. Again, Grossbart, Muehling, and Kangun (1986) in their identification/illustration study in advertising observed that a pre-measure of intention to buy the sponsor's brand next time was a significant covariate of a post-measure of intention of buying that brand. However, no significant difference was found between comparative and noncomparative advertising on that criterion.

Cognitive Thought

Based on models proposed by Wright (1973), Belch (1981) researched the relationship of cognitive response to message acceptance (attitude and purchase intention). Simple regressions were performed with each model (counter-argument, compensatory weighting, and weighted integrative models). An interesting result was the increase in the relation of cognitive response to message acceptance for recipients of the comparative advertisement when the source-oriented cues of source derogation and source bolstering were included in the compensatory model.

Belch (1981) also used individual response as a mediator of message acceptance and observed a strong mediating role of source derogation in the comparative condition. He concluded that "...recipients of a comparative message were relying on disparagement of the advertiser rather than message-related arguments as a strategy for processing the comparative commercials" (p.34).

Demographics

Age. Swinyard (1981), in a field experiment study of the effects of advertising copy type and message sidedness on advertising credibility, acceptance of key claim, and behavioral intention, found that age significantly covaried with each of these criterion variables. However, no

explanation of how this covariate impacted on comparative advertising effectiveness was provided.

The comparative advertisements were perceived as less credible than the noncomparative ones. Furthermore, two-sided claims were perceived as more credible, and an interaction effect was found between advertising copy type and message sidedness for advertising credibility and acceptance of key claim. As expected, the two-sided comparative advertisement was more powerful in acceptance of key claim than the one-sided comparative advertisement.

Income. Again, Swinyard's (1981) study provided evidence that income is a significant covariate of behavioral intention. However, again, no explanation of how this covariate impacted on comparative advertising effectiveness was provided, and neither main nor interaction effect was significant.

Sex. Hackleman and Jain (1978) conducted an experiment to measure subjects' attitudes toward comparative and noncomparative advertising. They used a split-plot factorial design and found a significant main effect for sex and product type but not for advertising copy type. This means that attitude toward comparative and noncomparative advertising is affected significantly by the sex of an individual and the type of product being advertised. However, they found that sex is not a moderator of advertising copy

type for attitude toward comparative and noncomparative advertising.

Information Processing

Expertise. Villarreal-Camacho (1985, 1983) tested prior product knowledge as a blocking variable of advertising copy type on criterion variables such as recall, cognitive response, product positioning, perception, attitude (to the ad and to the brand), and behavioral intention.

No t-test was significant between expert and nonexpert and comparative and noncomparative for valence, origin, and target of cognitive response. Moreover, there was no impact of the two research factors on product positioning. She also found, contrary to usual results, that noncomparative advertising received higher recall than comparative advertising. Moreover, she observed a prior product knowledge main effect for perception of the advertiser (believability), attitude toward the ad (incompleteness), and overall attitude toward the brand. However, of these criterion variables, only for advertising believability was the advertising copy type main effect significant. Finally, she noticed only one significant advertising copy type and prior product knowledge interaction effect -- and that for information search intention. Nonexpert subjects had higher information-search intentions

when they saw noncomparative advertising than when they saw comparative advertising.

Sujan and Dekleva (1987) used categorization theory and observed that for experts comparative brand level advertisements differed from noncomparative product type advertisements on brand evaluation extremeness, brand similarity, and brand distinctiveness. As expected, for novices, no differences were found between the comparative brand level advertisement and the noncomparative product type advertisement on brand evaluation extremeness, brand similarity, and brand distinctiveness.

Inference. Sujan and Dekleva (1987) researched the mediation effect of inference and observed "...that the results were consistent with the notion that more specific attributes are perceived to be characteristics of the product when comparative advertisements are used than when noncomparative advertisements are used, especially for experts" (p.376). They also directly tested the mediation effect of inference and determined that it was an important mediator of some measures of effectiveness (perceived ad informativeness and extremeness of evaluations).

Involvement

Purchase. Taschian and Slama (1984) found that purchase involvement was a significant covariate of recall and behavioral intention (checking prices, visiting the store,

and using the service). However, contrary to theoretical expectations, they noted that recall and intention to use the service were negatively affected by involvement. While there was no difference between comparative and noncomparative advertising on intention to use the service, recall was significantly better with noncomparative advertising. In addition, they found that the purchasing involvement covariate positively affected intention to check prices and intention to visit the store: comparative advertising had a significantly better evaluation than noncomparative advertising on the latter variable, but no difference was found for the former variable.

Psychographics

Sensitivity to Service. This covariate was found significant for acceptance of key claim and behavioral intention in Swinyard's (1981) study. However, no explanation of how this covariate impacted on these criterion variables was provided. Moreover, an interaction effect between advertising copy type and message sidedness was found for acceptance of key claim. While the level of key claim acceptance for the one-sided noncomparative advertisement was better than for the one-sided comparative advertisement, the utilization of a two-sided claim with comparative advertising made this combination the best one for this response variable.

Situation

Brand Loyalty. Golden (1979, 1975) used past purchasing behavior as a surrogate for brand loyalty and tested loyalty toward the advertiser's brand and loyalty toward the competing brand as covariates of advertising credibility, advertising believability, and purchase intention. She found that the loyalty to the advertiser's brand was a significant covariate (for the three criterion variables) and did not identify any interaction effect with the experimental factors (advertising copy type, advertiser's competitive position, claim substantiation, and theme). The degree of brand loyalty to the advertiser's brand impacted positively on each criterion variable.

She observed an interaction effect between advertising copy type and advertiser's competitive position for advertising credibility. There was no significantly preferable copy type for the brand leader and the number two brand. However, the third brand in the market was significantly better served by a noncomparative approach. She observed an interaction effect between advertising copy type and brand theme for purchase intention. A strong and aggressive theme appeared to serve comparative advertising better than positive, fairly light, and less threatening themes.

McDougall (1978) used two measures of brand loyalty (brand ratings and purchase behavior) and observed a significant relationship between them. He proceeded to

analyze the data with a combination of the two loyalty categories as the operationalization of the brand loyalty factor. Although he observed a brand loyalty main effect for the reliability of information in comparative advertising, he found no advertising copy type main effect or interaction effect. Therefore, brand loyalty could not be identified as a moderator of advertising copy type.

Abramson (1977) used predetermined brand loyal subjects and studied the effectiveness of five advertising defensive strategies (no defense, inoculative, restorative, supportive, and dual defensive) for a toothpaste market leader (Crest) being both attacked and not attacked by a small challenger brand (Phillips). For only one criterion variable (freshens breath) were the main effects of advertising defense strategy and attack/no attack factors significant. In that case, the challenger's attack advertisement did significantly lower the subjects' evaluations of the leader's brand. Moreover, significant differences were found for the advertising defense strategy factor, and the dual defensive mode obtained the highest score. Finally, no significant interactions were found.

Brand Ownership. Stutts (1982) studied comparative advertising and counterargument and used brand ownership as a blocking variable. She used Lamb, Pride, and Pletcher's (1979) taxonomy and found that brand ownership was significant. As expected, owners of the compared-to brand engaged

in a higher level of counterargument than did nonowners. No information, however, was provided on a possible interaction of brand ownership and advertising copy type.

Wilkes (1977) used an ex-post facto design and tested the effectiveness of Ford's associative comparative advertising campaign in which the Ford company asserted the similarities of its Granada model to a Mercedes-Benz model. Using multidimensional scaling and cluster analysis, he observed that Ford Granada owners positioned their model nearer to the Mercedes-Benz model than Mercedes-Benz owners and nonowners did. They also included their model in the cluster containing the Mercedes-Benz and the ideal car. Again, Mercedes-Benz owners and nonowners did not associate Ford Granada in the ideal car and Mercedes-Benz cluster. However, no statistical tests were provided.

Brand Preference. Holmes and Holley (1986) investigated the relative effectiveness of comparative vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising for both the brand leader and the second ranked brand in terms of informativeness, claim believability, credibility, and purchase intention. They used brand preference (for the leading brand, the second leading brand, and a different brand) as blocking variable.

They found an advertising copy type main effect for informativeness and credibility. Contrary to expectation, noncomparative advertising was found to be more informative than comparative advertising. As expected, noncomparative

advertising was also found to be more credible than comparative advertising. There was also a brand preference main effect and an interaction effect between advertising copy type and brand preference for purchase intention. However, no marginal means nor explanation was offered to help interpret this finding.

Product Usage. Walker, Swasy, and Rethans (1986) observed for a pre-screened product class user group that subjects seeing an associative comparative advertisement did perceive more similarity, however not significantly, between the new beer brand and the premium beer brands (prototype brands). Moreover, as predicted by categorization theory, subjects who saw the comparative advertisement perceived the new beer brand as less similar to the super-premium brands (non-prototype brands). However, the subjects who saw the noncomparative advertisement perceived the new beer as more similar to the super-premium brands.

Kangun, Muehling, and Grossbart (1984) observed that the frequency of product use covaried significantly with comparative advertising recall. They reported homogeneity of regression slopes and mentioned that the covariate did not greatly influence the results. The results of the study support the hypothesis that recall of comparative points is greater for the comparative advertisement that identifies and illustrates the competing brand than for the

comparative advertisement that either identifies or illustrates the competing brand.

In a study of advertising copy type and context (leader's ad present or absent) for non-brand leader, Gorn and Weinberg (1983) found that subjects had more favorable attitudes toward the challenger's brand following exposure to comparative advertising and that this result held for tooth-paste and cigarettes but not for golf balls. They also found that golf ball product usage covaried with attitude toward the brand. Moreover, the result of the context main effect was significant for the three products. The presence of an advertisement by the leader reduced the effectiveness of the challenger's advertisement. However, no interaction effect was found.

In a subsequent discussion of the results, Gorn and Weinberg (1984) remarked that there were in fact few differences between the ANCOVA and the ANOVA results and proceeded to report on the ANOVA results. This change canceled out the result on brand attitude reported in their 1983 analysis version: advertising copy type did not significantly affect attitude toward the brand. However, they found a significant advertising copy type main effect on perceived similarity of the challenger and leader and perceived similarity of new brands that might be introduced into the marketplace.

Summary

Many receivers' characteristics have been used and half of them have been found to be significant. Few researchers have chosen to integrate receivers' characteristics as factors in their study designs. Of the ones who did so, Villarreal-Camacho (1983) obtained a significant interaction between advertising copy type and expertise for information search intention, and Holmes and Holley (1986) found a significant interaction between advertising copy type and brand preference for purchase behavior. However, many have chosen to include one or more receivers' characteristics as covariates in their study designs. As predicted, some of these covariates covaried significantly with the response variables. Therefore, from these studies some concomitant and moderating variables have been identified but few intervening variables have significantly mediated comparative advertising effectiveness.

The same observation as the one provided in the preceding summary remains true: overall, comparative advertising was found to be more effective (e.g., Gorn and Weinberg, 1984, 1983; Tashchian and Slama, 1984), as effective (e.g. Belch, 1981), and less effective (e.g., Shimp and Dyer, 1978; Swyniard, 1981) than noncomparative advertising.

CONCLUSION

Some researchers (e.g., Demirdjian, 1978; Sheluga and Jacoby, 1978; Warr, 1982) straightforwardly confronted comparative and noncomparative advertising and observed their differential effects on a wide array of communication and sales-related criterion variables. From these studies, researchers have observed many significant and nonsignificant findings both favoring and disfavoring comparative advertising.

Other researchers (e.g., Earl and Pride, 1980; Stack, 1978; Ohanian, 1981) believed comparative advertising effectiveness was dependent upon the source's characteristics, the message's arguments, and the channel's factor. Consequently, researchers have begun to use factorial designs and crossed advertising copy type with a large selection of situational variables. An important stream of research was undertaken leading, again, to a wide collection of significant results both in favor or in disfavor of comparative advertising.

Finally, another component to be integrated by researchers (e.g., Belch, 1981; Johnson, 1981; Etgar and Goodwin, 1982) in the study of comparative advertising effectiveness was the organism dimension. As evidenced in the literature, many types of intervening variables have been used and some of them have significantly moderated comparative advertising effectiveness. Again, a wide

collection of significant and nonsignificant results both in favor and in disfavor of comparative advertising were found.

Some researchers blame the mixed evidence in the results on the many different manipulations, constructs definitions, and lack of replications (Muehling and Kangun, 1985) while others reason that researchers did not use the most appropriate set of predictors, intervening variables, or criterion variables (Demirdjian, 1978; Muehling, 1985; Villarreal-Camacho, 1983). Finally, others argue that a thoughtful comparative advertising strategy is a prerequisite for its success (Gorn and Weinberg, 1984, 1983); and, therefore, comparative advertising effectiveness is context or environment-bound.

Following the present literature review, the context in which comparative advertising is relied upon by advertisers is acknowledged as an important condition of its effectiveness. Chapter 3 presents such a communication environment, and hypotheses about the effectiveness of comparative advertising are deduced.

CHAPTER 3

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

INTRODUCTION

Comparative advertising, notwithstanding the largely negative and nonsignificant body of evidence in favor of it vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising, is being used more and more by advertisers. Even though the bulk of advertising is still considerably noncomparative, market leaders are relying increasingly on comparative advertising as a mass communication device. However, some researchers argue that market leaders should not use comparative advertising (e.g., Swayne, Starling, and Ginter, 1981), and others hypothesize that it may be warranted depending upon the context (e.g., Gorn and Weinberg, 1984). This chapter elaborates on possible uses of comparative advertising by market leaders and presents related hypotheses.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

As can be observed in Figure 3, this study adopts an S-O-R conceptual framework. Evidence of consumer moderating comparative advertising effectiveness was demonstrated in Chapter 2 and, therefore, the receiver component of Hovland, Janis, and Kelley's (1953) model is considered in this research. In light of recent positive research findings (Droge and Darmon, 1987; Gorn and Weinberg, 1984;

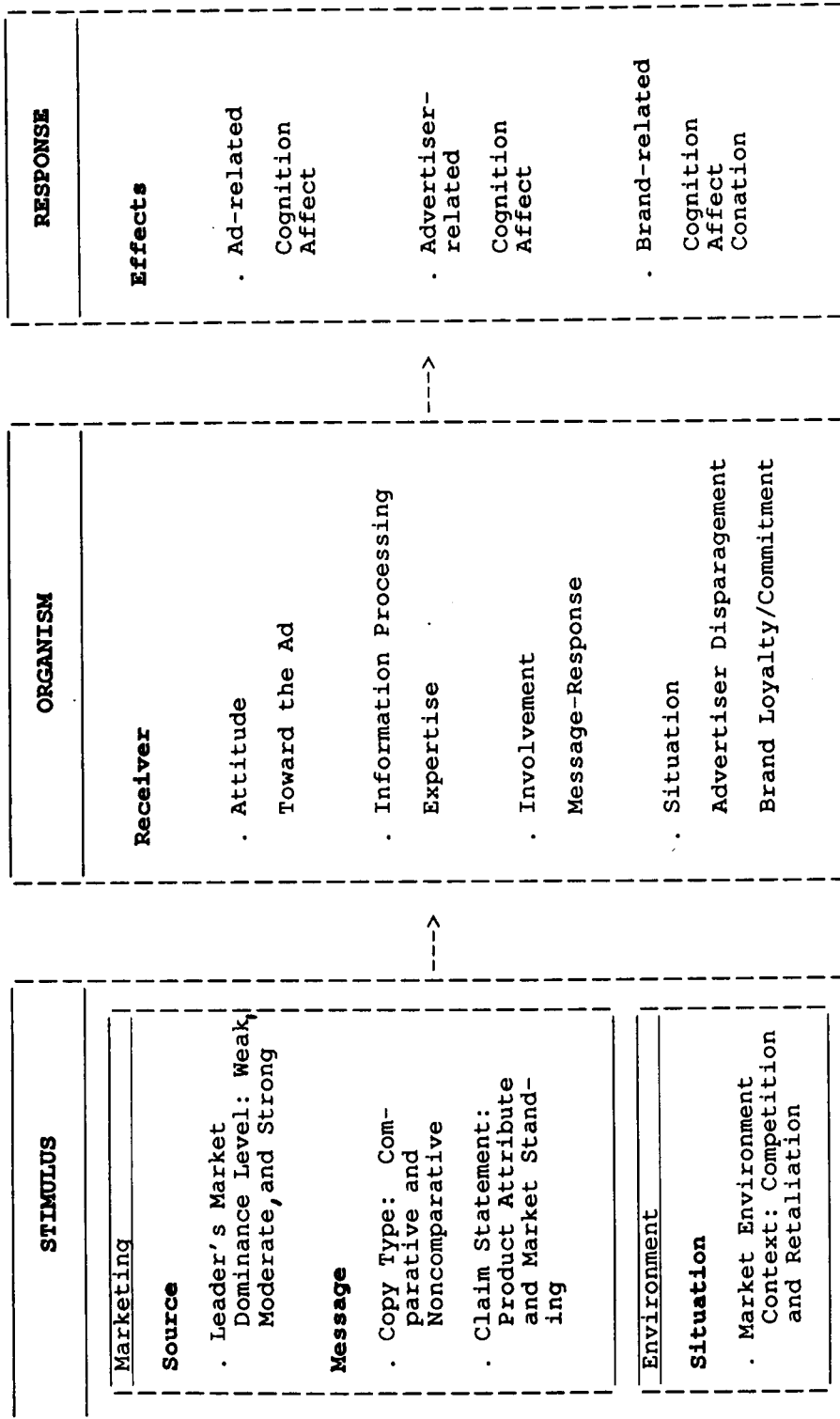


Figure 3. The Stimulus, Organism, and Response Variables of this Study.

Walker, Swasy, and Rethans, 1986), the marketer's market position and marketing and promotional strategy are also important dimensions considered in this study of comparative advertising. Therefore, in addition to the message's characteristics, the source's characteristics component is examined in this research. Finally, the situation component of Hovland et al.'s model is manipulated and refers to the market environment context at the moment of communication by advertisers. The impact of these research factors is assessed on covariate-adjusted ad-related, advertiser-related and brand-related responses. This study's stimulus, organism and response variables are reviewed below.

The Stimulus Variables

This section describes the conceptual aspect and outlines specific empirical findings of this study's stimulus variables.

Copy Type: Comparative and Noncomparative. Droge (1986) surveyed the field and noted a large diversity of comparative advertising definitions. As can be observed in Appendix A, consensus on what comparative advertising is or how it should be defined has not been reached. This diversity of opinion regarding comparative advertising conception accounts, as Muehling and Kangun (1985) noted, for some of the variability in the research findings.

This study adopts the FTC's (1979) definition of comparative advertising as that which "...compares alternative brands on objectively measurable attributes or price and identifies the alternative brand by name, illustration, or other distinctive information" (p.2). However, two points need to be discussed concerning this definition. First, for the scope of this research, a slight modification of this definition is necessary; it is achieved by expanding the actual bases of comparison (objectively measurable attributes or price) to include a market standing basis of comparison. Second, the FTC's definition correctly emphasizes that comparative advertising should distinctively identify the competition. Therefore, advertisements that use such references as "Brand X" or "other leading brands" are not cases of comparative advertising but are cases of indirect comparative advertising (Harmon, Razzouk, and Stern, 1983).

Noncomparative advertising was coined as unilateral advertising and defined as "...advertising which touts features of its product or service regardless of the fact that the competition may offer the same or better advantages" (Ulanoff, 1975 p. 10). This definition emphasizes product attribute information (e.g., features) and is also modified to include market standing claim statements.

Chapter 2 presented an extensive review of the comparative and noncomparative advertising paradigm research

results. However, for the purpose of that literature review, no distinction was made between comparative and indirect comparative advertising.

Even though the Wilkie and Farris (1974) seminal paper which prompted the majority of studies in comparative advertising proposed a definition that emphasized the use of distinctive identification of the compared-to brand (Belch, 1980), some researchers (e.g., Mazis, 1976; McDougall, 1978; Murphy and Amundsen, 1981; Prasad, 1976) chose to use indirect comparative advertisements in their research studies. However, even when this difference is accounted for, the results of comparative advertising studies have the same pattern as the one observed in Chapter 2. Overall, there is little evidence in support of comparative advertising, somewhat more evidence in opposition, and a large body of studies that do not show any significant findings.

These results are somewhat odd considering the first series of speculations concerning the differential effectiveness of comparative vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising. Wilkie and Farris (1974) reasoned that the novelty aspect of comparative advertising along with its ability to break through brand users' and nonusers' selective attention and exposure mechanisms would likely increase consumers' brand awareness. They further argued that the second step of Lavidge and Steiner's (1961) hierarchy of effects model, brand knowledge, would also be positively influenced

by comparative advertising. They posited that comparative advertising would enable consumers to determine more easily the attributes and differences in attributes between two or more brands and that, therefore, clearer perceptions of a brand's position within its product class would occur. With respect to the third step of the hierarchy of effects model, brand preference, Wilkie and Farris' (1974) reasoning was that comparative advertising's theme and appeal potentials for specificity lent themselves to product positioning and target market selection. These two concepts are important underlying dimensions of the brand preference construct. Moreover, they contended that the brand preference component was also a function of consumers' reactions and cognitive responses to advertising. However, they also mentioned that comparative advertising could provoke more counterarguments for the non-brand users.

According to the hierarchy of effects model, higher levels of attention, brand knowledge, and brand preference increase the probability that consumers will buy the brand. Therefore, comparative advertising, which is thought to be a positive influence on these three steps of the hierarchy of effects, might be more advantageous in the end to marketers.

Much of Wilkie and Farris' (1974) conceptual thinking is still relevant. However, the section concerning the

attention attraction superiority of comparative over non-comparative advertising should be reexamined. In effect, comparative advertising has been used for over fifteen years now and is not a novel advertising copy type anymore. Thus, the superior attention attraction capability of comparative advertising, which was due in part to novelty, must be discounted. Concerning brand knowledge, brand preference, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention, no changes of Wilkie and Farris' (1974) theoretical premises are needed.

Claim Statement: Product Attribute and Market Standing. McDougall (1976) proposed and Droge (1986) validated this typology of advertising claim statements. As we may recall from Chapter 2, product attribute claims refer to characteristics of the product and market standing claims refer to arguments that contain characteristics of the market in which the product competes. Examples of comparative and noncomparative advertisements using such claim statements are presented in Table 2.

Droge (1986) first studied the moderation effect of product attribute and market standing claim statements on comparative and noncomparative advertising effectiveness. She reasoned that one important justification for this distinction is the fact that "product attribute based comparisons basically appeal to cognitive beliefs about brand attributes or about the importance of brand

Table 2. Examples of Product Attribute and Market Standing Advertising Claim Statements.

A) Comparative Product Attribute Advertisement

"A" lasts longer than "B"
"A" cleans better than "B"
"A" gets more mileage than "B"

B) Comparative Market Standing Advertisement

"A" sells more than "B"
"A" is recommended by doctors more than "B"
"A" is preferred by consumers to "B"

C) Noncomparative Product Attribute Advertisement

"A" lasts long
"A" cleans well
"A" gets good mileage

D) Noncomparative Market Standing Advertisement

"A" sells 'x' number of units a day/a year
"A" is recommended by doctors
"A" is liked by consumers

Source: Adapted from Droge (1986).

attributes, while market standing based comparisons basically appeal directly to affective components" (p. 21).

She did not find an interaction effect between advertising copy type and claim statement for sponsor brand name recall but found one for message claim recall. In that case, the comparative product attribute advertisement generated significantly less headline recall, while there was no difference between the other three means. No significant interaction was found for the overall attitude toward the ad. Regarding specific ad-related scales, the following results were found:

1. the comparative product attribute advertisement was rated significantly better liked and rated better in general than the comparative market standing advertisement;

2. the noncomparative product attribute advertisement was rated significantly less offensive and irritating and was better liked and rated better in general than the comparative product attribute advertisement;

3. the noncomparative product attribute advertisement was rated significantly less offensive, less irritating, more informative, and better liked and rated better in general than the comparative market standing advertisement;

4. the comparative product attribute advertisement was rated significantly more informative than the noncomparative market standing advertisement.

Regarding the brand-related responses, no interaction effect between advertising copy type and claim statement was found for belief strength and confidence in belief strength for each of the seven product attributes. This result is, however, somewhat at odds with the theoretical expectation. In effect, since only product attribute claim statements contain information about the attributes and/or the importance of the attributes, they should be better than market standing claim statements for forming belief strength and confidence in belief strength. A possible explanation of this result is that Droge did not use a pure type of market standing claim statement but included product attribute information along with market standing information in her market standing experimental advertisements. Her product attribute experimental advertisements, however, were of pure type and contained only product attribute information. Therefore, her experimental advertisements probably confounded her results.

No interaction effect was found for the overall attitude toward the brand as measured by the overall like/dislike, expectancy-value, and the average attitude approaches. This result, however, conforms to her theoretical expectation which was based on the fact that, first, she used an experimental product consistent with the low-involvement hierarchy and that, second, she stated that advertising is

usually unable to generate higher order beliefs for a new brand.

However, another explanation of this result is possible. On one hand, product attribute advertising claim statements do not appeal directly to affect but contain the brand attribute and attribute importance type of information. Therefore, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) expectancy-value attitude toward the brand type can be formed by consumers. On the other hand, the market standing advertising claim statements do not contain such attribute-based information but are said to appeal directly to affect (Droge, 1986). Therefore each claim statement type is as apt as the other to form attitude toward the brand. Evidence for such reasoning is offered in Droge's (1986) study results which show that expectancy-value based attitude toward the brand significantly correlates with overall liking or affect and global affect-based attitude.

Finally, no interaction effect was found for any of the five behavioral measures used. According to Droge's theoretical framework, differences should have been found for evaluative behaviors (purchase trial, non-purchase trial, vested information search behavior, and non-vested information search behavior). Comparative product attribute advertising, due to its posited superiority in generating changes in cognitive beliefs, was hypothesized to be better than comparative market standing, noncomparative

product attribute, and noncomparative market standing (these three being equal) in generating evaluative intention behaviors. However, it should be remembered that Droge's market standing claim statement also included product attribute information and, therefore, lessened the difference in the superiority of product attribute claim statement to modify belief structures. Thus, again, her results were possibly confounded by her market standing experimental advertisements.

Droge (1986) also used the perceptual distance paradigm (maximum likelihood multidimensional scaling) and studied the subjects' inter-brand similarity judgments. Her experimental comparative advertisement embodied an associative strategy and she found no advertising copy type by claim statement interaction effect on similarity judgments.

She concluded that her results are supportive of the posited model. Her theoretical reasoning that product attribute claim statements basically appeal to cognitive beliefs about brand attributes or about the importance of brand attributes and that market standing claim statements appeal directly to affective components is warranted. However, with a pure type of market standing claim statement, the results are expected to conform more with the theoretical position.

Sponsor: Leader's Market Dominance Level. Wilkie and Farris' (1974) and Ulanoff 's (1975) concerns about the underlying effects of the market leader/underdog competitive positions in comparative advertising were empirically tested by researchers. Of special interest here is the impact of the market leader's strength on comparative and noncomparative advertising effectiveness.

Mazis (1976) as noted in James (1981) obtained evidence in a first experiment that market leaders were hurt by comparative advertising. In a second experiment Mazis (1976) also found that comparative advertisements by market leaders generated more counterarguments, fewer source derogations, and more support arguments, and resulted in leaders being perceived as more likely to be lower in price than when noncomparative advertisements were used.

Golden (1979, 1975) found an interaction effect between advertising copy type and advertiser's competitive position for credibility but not for believability and purchase intention. She found that the No. 1 brand was better served by noncomparative advertising.

Holmes and Holley (1986) also studied the issue of advertiser's competitive position on informativeness, claim believability, credibility, and purchase intention. The comparative advertisements were of high intensity and embodied a dissociative approach (Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, 1979). The Manova results did not show any significant

interaction effect between advertising copy type and advertiser's competitive position and neither did the univariate results. Finally, a series of planned contrasts was tested, and noncomparative advertising was perceived as more informative and credible than comparative advertising for the brand leader. Moreover, claim believability was rated better for the brand leader than for the second-ranked brand when both used noncomparative advertising.

No researchers, however, manipulated the leaders' market dominance across different levels in their study design. Therefore, the findings just presented generalize only to the levels of market dominance represented by the leaders used in the studies. Furthermore, since different products/markets were used, no combination of the results obtained across the different studies is possible.

However, in this study, three levels of market dominance are manipulated, and these levels are product/market-based, not industry-based. For example, even though General Motors is the industry leader, Chrysler is credited to be the leader in the family wagon market. A similar situation exists in the pet food market: 9 Lives (Star-Kist), not Purina 100 (Ralston Purina--the industry leader with a 27.3% market share), is leading the canned cat food market (Maxwell, 1987).

Moreover, not all markets are dominated with the same level of control. Some markets are highly dominated as in

the US beer market; for example, Anheuser-Bush's Budweiser with 27% of the market has a 21% market share lead over Miller's High Life which has only 6% of the regular beer market (Hume and Seraphin, 1987). Other markets are only moderately dominated; for example, the instant coffee market is dominated by Maxwell House (24%) followed by Nestle's Taster's Choice (17%) which gives only a 7% market share lead. Finally, other markets are weakly dominated, as is the case of the canned cat food in which 9 Lives with a 22% market share has only a very small 2% lead over Kal-Kan (Kal-Kan--20% of the market) (Advertising Age, 1987).

In any case, there seems to be a majority of researchers agreeing that market leaders should avoid comparative advertising (e.g., Golden, 1979; Holmes and Holley, 1986; Levine, 1976; Shimp and Dyer, 1978; Swayne, Starling, and Ginter, 1981; Ulanoff, 1975; Wilkie and Farris, 1974). Part of their reasoning is based on the idea that a market leader's use of comparative advertising provides free exposure and additional credibility to a lesser known brand. Most importantly, Wines (1985) pointed out that consumers might react negatively to a No. 1 brand attacking a No. 2 brand. The fact that Swayne (1978) mentioned that there is evidence that consumers can differentiate comparative vis-a-vis noncomparative advertisements and that James (1981) showed that consumers were able to identify market leaders makes Wines' (1985) assertion more important.

However, such impacts might be moderated by the leaders' relative strength over their competitors. For example, market leaders which have only a weak dominance level over their most important competitors may be more "allowed" by consumers to use comparative advertising. This tolerance, however, may not be as much acknowledged to leaders that highly dominate the markets.

Market Environment Context: Competition and Retaliation. All comparative advertising studies but one were done with an unmanipulated competitive environment context; i.e., the intent of the experimental advertisements was to develop positive attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the sponsored brand.

The only study to deviate was Abramson (1977), who used a factorial design including an attack/no attack factor and a five-level advertising defense factor (no defense, inoculative, restorative, supportive, and dual defensive). His study demonstrated that no interaction effect was significant.

However, to this researcher's surprise, Abramson (1977) did not determine, even though he had the data, whether restorative (comparative) advertising was a better defense strategy than supportive (noncomparative) advertising for a market leader being attacked by a challenger. Other anomalies in Abramson's research design were identified. For example, he used a restorative defense strategy

(i.e., a counter-comparative ad) in a no-attack situation. Therefore, for these reasons Abramson's study results must be discounted.

Two market environment contexts are integrated in this study. The first one, competition, corresponds to offensive moves. In competitive rivalry or attack situations, the marketer's goal is to expand its market share (O'Shaughnessy, 1984). Such a goal is actually achieved by investing in the marketing mix variables. Advertising is one of the mix variables, and comparative advertising is an available copy strategy. However, as Wines (1985) reported, the use of comparative advertising for attacking a No. 2 brand might not be proper.

Retaliation, on the other hand, is defined as returning "...an unfriendly or hostile action with a similar one" (Roget's II, 1980 p.781). For Colbert (1948), "Retaliation involves the use of force to inflict an injury in return for an injury inflicted" (p.3). Porter (1980) refers to retaliation as an answer, a disproportionate response to threatening moves.

Defined this way, retaliation corresponds to Porter's (1985) second type of defensive strategy which he labelled response. As he states, response "...is one (defensive strategy) in which the firm reacts to challenges as they occur. Response seeks to lower the challenger's objectives for a move once begun, or lead the challenger to rescind it

altogether" (p.504). Therefore, response is a defensive or market share protection strategy (O'Shaughnessy, 1984).

Gorn and Weinberg (1984) have hypothesized that comparative advertising may be warranted for a leader to defend his brand against a challenger's comparative advertising attack. This position is somewhat supported by one of Porter's (1985) retaliation principles which states that it is important to base the response on the reasons for the attack. Therefore a counter-comparative claim may be an appropriate avenue for responding to a competitor's comparative claim. Swayne and Starling (1978) noted in a survey of marketing and advertising executives that some of them approved of the use of comparative advertising in a retaliation context. Such approval is also expected to be true for consumers.

Summary

The conceptual and empirical dimensions of comparative and noncomparative advertising were depicted. It appears that much of the theoretical reasoning of Wilkie and Farris (1974) still holds and that comparative advertising is expected to offer advertisers a useful means of communication.

In addition, three intervening variables were described, and expectations as to how the claim statement, sponsor position, and market environment context are supposed to impact on the response variables were offered.

The next section of this chapter presents the organism and response variables used in this study.

The Organism and Response Variables

Following the presentation of the stimulus variables, three major questions are of interest in this study. The first one is related to the appropriateness of comparative advertising as a copy strategy. The second one addresses the fairness of advertisers that use such copy strategy. The final question concerns the effectiveness of comparative advertising to develop proper perception, attitude, and behavioral intention toward the brand.

Since past studies demonstrated the importance of the organism component in comparative advertising research, the study of the appropriateness, fairness, and effectiveness of comparative advertising vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising for market leaders is related to the moderation effects of receiver's characteristics such as attitude toward the ad, expertise, message-response involvement, advertiser disparagement, and loyalty/commitment to the leader's brand.

Thus, the three sets of response variables of this research, which reflect this study's concerns, are adjusted for the presence of covariates and consist of: 1) ad-related, 2) advertiser-related, and 3) brand-related responses. These variables along with their covariates are presented in the next section.

Ad-Related Responses. This type of response variable has been the most commonly used in the study of comparative advertising effects (Droge, 1986). In this research, ad-related responses are used for measuring respondents' perceived appropriateness of comparative advertising as a copy strategy and are, therefore, ends in and of themselves. For that purpose, as can be seen in Figure 4, the cognitive and affective components of ad-related responses are investigated.

First, the cognitive component is explored. As we saw in Chapter 2, Villarreal-Camacho (1983) and Sujana and Dekleva (1987) proposed and evidenced expertise as a moderator of comparative advertising effectiveness. Therefore, in light of this finding, the perceived informativeness and perceived value of information dimensions of the cognitive component are adjusted for expertise in bike product.

Secondly, agreement with comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types, as well as attitude toward the comparative and noncomparative advertisements, is examined. Recent research in persuasion literature has proposed and observed different message processing strategies under varying conditions of involvement (e.g., Petti, Cacioppo, and Schumann, 1983). Muehling (1985) hypothesized message-response involvement to moderate comparative advertising effectiveness, and his findings are indicative of a tendency for recipients to process comparative advertising

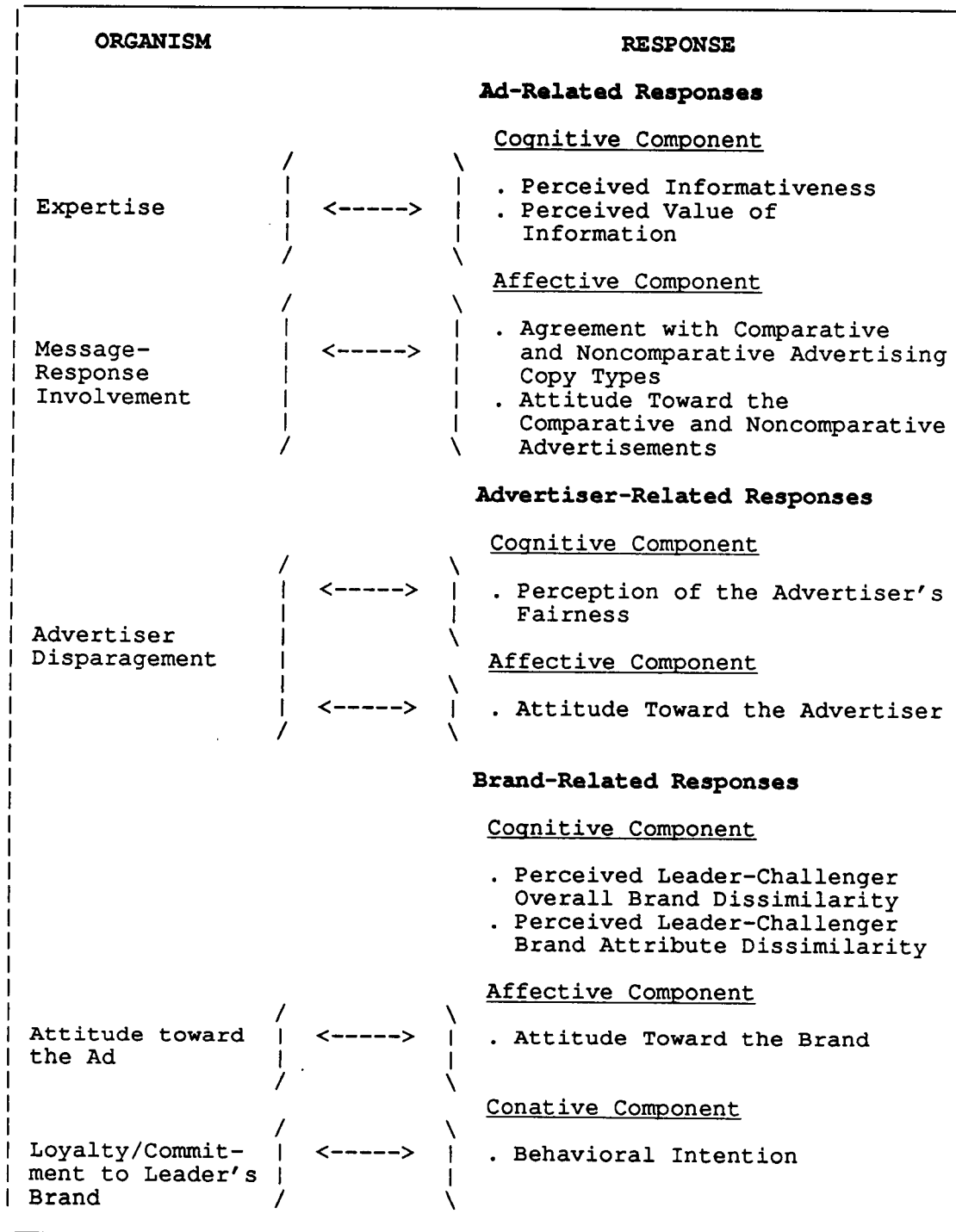


Figure 4. Interrelation among the Organism and Response Variables of this Study.

differently from noncomparative advertising. In the same vein, this research takes into account involvement with message; and, therefore, the affective component of ad-related responses is adjusted for the message-response involvement covariate.

Advertiser-Related Responses. In the comparative advertising studies, advertiser-related responses have been more often than not intertwined with brand-related responses. However, due to the importance of the advertiser factor in this study, the advertiser-related responses are studied as specific entities.

Two components of advertiser-related responses are evaluated. The first one refers to perception of the advertiser's fairness and the second one to attitude toward the advertiser. Both components are assessing recipients' evaluation of the fairness of the advertiser.

As in the preceding section, answers are covariate-adjusted. One may recall from Chapter 2 that Belch (1981) noted source disparagement as a strategy used by recipients for processing comparative messages. However, such strategy was not observed for recipients exposed to noncomparative messages. Therefore, the scores of respondents who are shown the treatment comparative advertisements are adjusted for advertiser disparagement while recipients who are exposed to the noncomparative advertisements do not have such adjusted scores.

Brand-Related Responses. This set of responses is used to assess the differential effectiveness of comparative vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising for market leaders. For that purpose, as can be observed in Figure 4, three components of brand-related responses are investigated.

On one hand, perceived leader-challenger brand dissimilarity is assessed on a global basis and, as called for by Gorn and Weinberg (1984), on an individual attribute basis. Brand dissimilarity is used in this study to account for the effects of the leader's advertising approach, which is to differentiate or dissociate his brand from the challenger's brand in the market. On the other hand, attitude and behavioral intention toward the leader's brand relative to the challenger's brand are assessed.

As for the other sets of responses, the brand-related responses are covariate-adjusted. Based on the attitude-toward-the-ad rich conceptual foundation (e.g., MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch, 1986), Muehling (1987) and Droge and Darmon (1987) hypothesized and observed that this variable was a moderator of recipients' attitudes toward the brand. Therefore, as one can observe in Figure 4, attitude toward the ad is related to the affective component of brand-related responses in this study.

On the other hand, some researchers (e.g., Golden, 1979; McDougall, 1978) found brand loyalty to impact on

comparative advertising effectiveness. This variable is also used in this study as a covariate of the conative component of brand-related responses and is coupled with brand commitment in order to account for both bike owners and non-bike owners.

Summary

The group of predictor variables used in this study sets the stage for investigating the differential appropriateness, fairness, and effectiveness of comparative advertising vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising. Therefore, three types of covariate-adjusted advertising effects are used: the covariate-adjusted ad-related responses explore the appropriateness, the covariate-adjusted advertiser-related responses investigate the fairness, and the covariate-adjusted brand-related responses provide information on the effectiveness of comparative advertising.

HYPOTHESES

As was noted, market leaders' use of comparative advertising is gaining in popularity. Using Zaltman, Pinson, and Angelmar's (1973) conceptual framework, one can say that this research idea is valid from an observational standpoint.

Theoretical reasoning in support of comparative advertising over noncomparative advertising was proposed and

tested on many occasions. The results of these studies have been extensively presented in Chapter 2 and in the preceding section of this chapter. Therefore, apart from replication, which is not the endeavor of this study, no interest is seen in extensively questioning the advertising copy type main effect.

As was proposed in the conceptual framework section of this chapter, neither comparative nor noncomparative advertising is used in a vacuum but in the presence of other intervening variables. For example, Droge (1986) proposed that claim statement could be a moderator of comparative and noncomparative advertising effects and stated that her empirical results supported her theoretical positions. Abramson (1977) posited that the attack/no attack market situations could impact on advertising copy type and found nonsignificant results on brand-related responses. He did not use, however, any ad or advertiser-related responses. Finally, Wilkie and Farris (1974) and Ulanoff (1975) postulated that the market position could affect the comparative and noncomparative advertising results, and the BBDO advertising agency (Advertising Age, 1975) stated that underdog advertisers would win in "naming names." Some researchers studied the impact of the leader/challenger market positions, but no one attempted to analyze the effects of three levels of leader's market dominance.

Much more needs to be known, however, about the market environment context, the sponsor's market position, and claim statement factors main effects and their interaction effects with the advertising copy type factor.

Unidimensional and Bidimensional Effects

The first set of hypotheses addresses the main and interaction effects of the three aforementioned intervening variables.

Effects of Market Environment Context. These hypotheses state that respondents evaluate differently the comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types depending upon whether they are seen in competitive or retaliative market environment contexts.

For example, McDougall (1977) in an unmanipulated competition market environment context observed that, overall, recipients held more negative than positive attitudes toward comparative advertising. No researcher measured ad-related responses in a retaliation market environment context. However, the use of comparative advertising as a defense means should receive consumers' approval and consequently should receive a more positive evaluation in a retaliation market environment context. Such context effect is also thought to hold true for agreement with the comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types and

attitude toward the comparative and noncomparative advertisements. Therefore,

H1a: Agreement with the use of comparative advertising is stronger in a retaliation than in a competition market environment context;

H1b: Agreement with the use of noncomparative advertising is stronger in a retaliation than in a competition market environment context;

H1c: Attitudes toward the comparative advertisement are more favorable in a retaliation than in a competition market environment context;

H1d: Attitudes toward the noncomparative advertisement are more favorable in a retaliation than in a competition market environment context.

Moreover, Muehling (1985) observed that in an unmanipulated competition market environment context, respondents had less favorable attitudes toward comparative than noncomparative advertising. However, such a difference in agreement with the use of comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types is not expected to occur in a retaliation market environment context. Finally, this reasoning is also thought to apply at the advertisement level. Therefore,

H2a: In a competition market environment context, there is less agreement with the use of comparative advertising than with the use of noncomparative advertising;

H2b: In a retaliation market environment context, there is a similar agreement with the use of comparative and noncomparative advertising;

H2c: In a competition market environment context, there are less favorable attitudes toward the comparative advertisement than toward the noncomparative advertisement;

H2d: In a retaliation market environment context, there are similar attitudes toward the comparative and noncomparative advertisements.

Finally, the market environment context variable is expected to interact with the advertising copy type factor for:

H3a: Agreement with advertising copy type;

H3b: Attitude toward the advertisement.

Effects of Leader's Market Dominance. As mentioned before, no one has studied the effects of different levels of leader's market dominance. However, empirical results of studies that contrasted market leaders to challengers are available. For example, Holmes and Holley (1986) and Shimp and Dyer (1978) did not find any market position main effect on sponsor's credibility and truthfulness, respectively. Similar results are expected to occur for the leader's market dominance level factor of this study. As a matter of fact, every firm, be it small or gigantic, has an acknowledged right to advertise. Therefore, perception of the advertiser's fairness and attitude toward the

advertiser are not anticipated to vary as a function of the leader's market dominance level.

Thus, the hypotheses are that there is no leader's market dominance level main effect for:

H4a: Perception of the advertiser's fairness;

H4b: Attitude toward the advertiser.

However, an interaction effect between the leader's market dominance level and advertising copy type factors is expected. Wines (1985) mentioned that consumers might perceive it as unsportsmanlike for a No. 1 brand to attack a No. 2 brand in comparative advertisements. Moreover, such negative perception is expected to vary positively with the leader's market dominance level. However, if the brand leader uses noncomparative advertising, any negative perception is expected to occur for weak, moderate, or strong market dominant leaders.

Therefore, the hypotheses are that the leader's market dominance factor will interact with the advertising copy type factor for:

H5a: Perception of the advertiser's fairness;

H5b: Attitude toward the advertiser.

Effects of Claim Statement. A basic difference between product attribute and market standing claim statements is the type of information conveyed. However, a similarity between the two claim statements is that each can supply as much information as necessary.

On one hand, since market standing claim statements are very seldom used (Droge, 1986), the novelty aspect should positively influence consumers to pay attention to those ads (Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell, 1968). However, this difference in awareness of the ad does not necessarily mean that market standing claim statements are to be perceived as more informative. In effect, since consumers rarely experience this type of information, they might not have available schema to adequately process such content. On the other hand, because product attribute claim statements are the standard in the advertising field, consumers are in a better position to schematically process this type of information. Therefore, an end result might be a higher level of perceived informativeness for product attribute claim statements. This position is congruent with Droge's (1986) results.

With regard to the perceived value of information of both claim statements, product attribute claim statements are likely to be perceived as more valuable than market standing claim statements. This position is taken on the ground that normative consumer decision-making models (e.g., Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard, 1986; Howard and Sheth, 1969) state that attribute-based information is used for the most part in the evaluative process step and that market standing type information might not be as valuable to consumers in their decision-making process.

Therefore,

H6a: The product attribute claim statement is perceived as more informative than the market standing claim statement;

H6b: , The product attribute claim statement is perceived as more valuable than the market standing claim statement.

Finally, an important factor that motivated the FTC to push for more use of comparative advertising by marketers was a posited superiority of information content and of value of that information. Harmon, Razzouk, and Stern's (1983) study results support the contention that comparative advertising is objectively more informative than non-comparative advertising. However, the study results for perceived informativeness and perceived value of information of comparative vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising are mainly nonsignificant. Nevertheless, the FTC stance is adopted in this study, and the advertising copy type effect adds to the claim statement effect. Therefore, the hypotheses are that the claim statement factor will interact with the advertising copy type factor for:

H7a: Perceived informativeness of ad;

H7b: Perceived value of information in ad.

Multidimensional Effects

That marketers' advertising strategies can include many intervening variables was reasoned following

observations in the market place. Consequently, more than one variable may be interacting simultaneously with the advertising copy type factor.

The next step of this research is to identify what advertising copy type/claim statement combination is the most effective. This search for the best advertising approach is done separately in the competition and retaliation market environment contexts and across the sponsor market position factor.

Effects of Advertising Copy Type and Claim Statement in Competition Market Environment Context. What combination among the comparative product attribute, comparative market standing, noncomparative product attribute, and noncomparative market standing advertisement is the most effective for market leaders in competition market environment context?

On one hand, we saw that Swayne, Starling, and Ginter (1981) stated that market leaders should not use comparative advertising. Wines' (1985) contention also supported this idea. However, Gorn and Weinberg (1984) found that greater perceived challenger-leader brand similarity occurred with exposure to associative comparative advertising than with noncomparative advertising. Since this study uses a dissociative advertising approach, greater leader-challenger brand dissimilarity is expected to occur with comparative than with noncomparative advertising.

Additionally, Gorn and Weinberg (1983) found evidence favoring comparative advertising for developing a more favorable attitude toward the brand, but their 1984 re-analysis does not provide this kind of evidence. Many other studies obtained nonsignificant findings on the attitude component (e.g., Goodwin and Etgar, 1980; Villareal-Camacho, 1983). Finally, mainly nonsignificant research results were found for behavioral intention measures.

On the other hand, only product attribute claim statements are attribute-based. We can recall that market standing claim statements refer only to characteristics of the market in which the product competes. Therefore, product attribute claim statements have an edge over market standing claim statements for communicating leader-challenger overall and attribute-based brand dissimilarities. When considering the affective component, both claim statements are equally capable of developing favorable attitude toward the brand and no difference between these two claim statements is foreseen for the behavioral intention component.

Following these observations, the hypotheses are that:

H8a: A greater perceived leader-challenger overall brand dissimilarity occurs with exposure to a comparative product attribute ad versus a noncomparative market standing ad;

H8b: A greater perceived leader-challenger attribute-based brand dissimilarity occurs with exposure to a comparative product attribute versus a noncomparative market standing ad;

H8c: There is no difference between the two advertisement combinations for attitude toward the brand;

H8d: There is no difference between the two advertisement combinations for behavioral intention.

Effects of Advertising Copy Type and Claim Statement in Retaliation Market Environment Context. What advertising copy type-claim statement combination is the most effective for market leaders in retaliation market environment context? Contrary to Swayne, Starling, and Ginter's (1981) contention that market leaders should not rely on comparative advertising, Gorn and Weinberg (1984) stated that this advertising copy type could be warranted for market leaders defending against challengers' comparative claims.

Much of what was said about the claim statement factor in the preceding section still holds. The only modification is that market standing claim statements make a clearer point in identifying leaders' brand superiorities in the market and, therefore, produce more favorable attitudes toward the brand on the consumer's part. Since comparative advertising is used in this case to defend leaders' brands against incumbents' attacks, special

affective reactions toward the brand are also called for on the part of consumers. This upsurge in favorable affective reactions toward the brand also transmits to behavioral intentions.

Following these premises, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H9a: A greater perceived leader-challenger overall brand dissimilarity occurs with exposure to a comparative product attribute ad versus a noncomparative market standing ad;

H9b: A greater perceived leader-challenger attribute-based brand dissimilarity occurs with exposure to a comparative product attribute ad versus a noncomparative market standing ad;

H9c: More positive attitudes toward the leader's brand occur with exposure to a comparative market standing ad versus a noncomparative product attribute ad;

H9d: More positive behavioral intentions toward the leader's brand occur with exposure to a comparative market standing ad versus a noncomparative product attribute ad.

Effects of Claim Statement on Comparative Advertising Copy Type in Retaliation Market Environment Situation.

What comparative claim statement is more effective in a retaliation market environment context? Swayne, Starling, and Ginter's (1981) rationale for why market leaders should refrain from using comparative advertising is that it may

elevate competition. One way market leaders can prevent challengers from responding to their defensive comparative advertisements and restrain undesired competition activity is to use market standing claims. In effect, with this type of claim statement, market leaders clearly point out their superiority in the market. Following this reasoning, challengers would be ill-advised to engage in advertising argument battles that would show that their brands are not the most preferred in the market. However, market standing claim statements do not communicate any product attribute information and are more likely to force consumers to make inferences about those attributes.

Another advertising strategy market leaders might want to use is to choose product attribute claim statements and communicate their brands' differential advantages. In this case, information about attributes of the brands is readily available to consumers and, therefore, fewer inferences on their part are likely to be required. However, challengers are able to respond to such claims by using counter-comparative advertisements stating that their brands are the best for the most important attributes. Therefore, a state of elevated competition might be the outcome of such a claim statement choice.

As we can see, each claim statement has its own strategic pros and cons. However, the concern here is to identify the better claim for achieving proper brand

dissimilarity, attitude, and behavioral intention toward the leader's brand.

Following the arguments in the preceding section, the hypotheses are that:

H10a: A greater perceived leader-challenger overall brand dissimilarity occurs with exposure to a comparative product attribute ad versus a comparative market standing ad;

H10b: A greater perceived leader-challenger attribute-based brand dissimilarity occurs with exposure to a comparative product attribute ad versus a comparative market standing ad;

H10c: More positive attitudes toward the leader's brand occur with exposure to a comparative market standing ad versus a comparative product attribute ad;

H10d: More positive behavioral intentions toward the leader's brand occur with exposure to a comparative market standing ad versus a comparative product attribute ad.

Effects of Claim Statement on Comparative Advertising Copy Type in Competition Market Environment Context. What comparative claim statement is more effective in competition market environment context? This last question is for market leaders who, despite all advice against the use of comparative advertising by firms in such leading position, really want to use comparative advertising in competition market environment context.

Based on what has been stated in this study on product attribute and market standing claim statements, the hypotheses are that:

H11a: A greater perceived leader-challenger overall brand dissimilarity occurs with exposure to a comparative product attribute ad versus a comparative market standing ad;

H11b: A greater perceived leader-challenger attribute-based brand dissimilarity occurs with exposure to a comparative product attribute ad versus a comparative market standing ad;

H11c: There is no difference between the two advertisement combinations for attitude toward the brand;

H11d: There is no difference between the two advertisement combinations for behavioral intention.

CONCLUSION

The advertising copy type variable along with the three posited intervening variables were presented in the conceptual framework section of this chapter. Each variable studied in this research has been described conceptually, and empirical results in support of the use of these intervening variables have been presented.

The response variables, along with their covariates, have also been described by specifying the nature and

content of responses related to the ad, the advertiser, and the brand.

Finally, a series of hypotheses dealing with unidimensional, bidimensional, and multidimensional effects was deduced from the conceptual framework. The next chapter develops the methodology to be used in order to empirically test the theoretical positions of this research.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research methodology of this study. First, the research environment is delineated. Secondly, the operationalization of the study variables is depicted. Next, the pretests are described. Finally, the research procedures are reviewed.

RESEARCH ENVIRONMENT

Research Design

A laboratory experiment was conducted in order to empirically test the series of hypotheses presented in the preceding chapter. A 2X2X2X3 between-subjects factorial design was used, and 639 subjects were randomly assigned to the 24 experimental cells. An illustration of this design is presented as Figure 5.

A series of randomization checks was conducted to ensure that subjects distributed evenly among experimental cells. SPSS-X's Hiloglinear procedure was used for the categorical sample characteristics and SAS's GLM procedure was used for the continuous ones. There were 19 dependent variables (8 categoricals and 11 continuous), and a four-factor factorial design yields 15 tests of main and

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
ENVIRONMENTAL CONTROL MARKET	Competition	ADVERTISEMENT TYPE	NC	ADVERTISEMENT STATUS	PA	27*	27	27
					MS	27	27	27
			C		PA	27	26	26
					MS	26	26	27
	Retaliation		NC		PA	26	26	26
					MS	28	27	28
			C		PA	27	26	26
					MS	26	26	26

NC: Noncomparative
C: Comparative

PA: Product Attribute
MS: Market Standing

* Cell size

Figure 5. Experimental Design

interaction effects per variable. Thus, 285 tests were performed.

As one can observe in Table 3, none of the partial associations of the categorical sample characteristics were found significant at the .05 level. Ten out of the 165 tests on the continuous variables were found significant. Thus only $10/285 = .035$ were significant, a result that supports the notion that subjects were randomly assigned to treatment groups.

Subject Selection

Students enrolled in introductory marketing classes at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville participated in this study. Two reasons motivated the choice of students as the population of subjects.

For one, the theoretical impact of using students as subjects was considered. As found in the marketing literature, a major concern is the external validity of studies using such samples. This issue has been extensively addressed both conceptually (Calder, Phillips and Tybout, 1983, 1982, 1981; Lynch, 1983, 1982; McGrath and Brinberg, 1983) and empirically (see Lamb and Stem [1980] for a review of literature).

Using McGrath and Brinberg's (1983) theoretical framework, the use of samples of college students is deemed acceptable in theory-testing research. Since the purpose of this study was to test the theoretical propositions

Table 3. Randomization Checks.^a

Variable	Statistical Test
Categorical	Test of Partial Associations
Sex	n.s.
Brand Names in Evoked Set	n.s.
Bike Ownership	n.s.
Type of Bike Owne (Bike Owners)	n.s.
Brand of Bike Owned (Bike Owners)	n.s.
Brand of Bike Would Buy (Bike Owners)	n.s.
Type of Bike Would Buy (Non-Bike Owners)	n.s.
Brand of Bike Would Buy (Non-Bike Owners)	n.s.
Continuous	Significant Main and Interaction Effects
Age	MLD (F=3.35 df=2,610 P<.04) MEC (F=5.67 df=1,610 P<.02) ACS (F=6.59 df=1,610 P<.02)
Brand Satisfaction (Bike Owners)	None
Brand Loyalty (Bike Owners)	ACT (F=17.66 df=1,343 P<.02)
Use Frequency (Bike Owners)	ACS (F=4.72 df=1,343 P<.04)
Likelihood Will Buy a Bike Soon (Non-Bike Owners)	None

Table 3. (Continued)

Variable	Statistical Test
Continuous	Significant Main and Interaction Effects
Commitment to Brand of Bike would Buy Soon (Non-Bike Owners)	ACT (F=5.07 df=1,239 P<.03) MDL*ACT*MEC (F=15.05 df=2,239 P<.05)
Attitude Toward Raleigh (Prior to Experiment - All Subjects)	None
Attitude Toward Schwinn (Prior to Experiment - All Subjects)	MEC*MLD (F=3.84 df=1,299 P<.03) ACS*MLD (F=13.17 df=1,299 P<.009)
Familiarity with Bikes (All Subjects)	MEC*MLD (F=3.26 df=1,613 P<.04)
Interest in Bikes	None
Number of Brands in Evoked Set	None

a

ACS = Advertising Claim Statement; ACT = Advertising Copy Type; MEC = Market Environment Context; MLD = Market Leadership Dominance.

presented in Chapter 3, students could be used without major concerns about the external validity of this study.

Convenience was also considered. The student population was far more accessible to the researcher than the population in general. Using the O'Brien (1986) power simulation software, an estimated 600 subjects were deemed necessary to provide adequate tests of this study's hypotheses. Therefore, the use of students rendered the task more possible resourcewise.

Some characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 4. As one can observe, the sample comprised a majority of business students in their early twenties. Most of the subjects owned a 10-speed bike (experimental product type). Non-bike owners, if they were to buy a bike, would be most likely to buy a Schwinn-made 10-speed bike.

Experimental Product Decisions

Product Category Selection. Several factors were considered when selecting the bicycle as the product category of this study. The first factor was related to the appropriateness of comparative advertising for such a product category. As mentioned in Chapter 2, Hackelman and Jain (1978) found an interaction effect between advertising copy type and product category. They observed that a comparative advertisement was judged more favorable than a noncomparative advertisement for a refrigerator, a clock

Table 4. Characteristics of the Sample.

Characteristic	Proportion
Age	
< 22	79.7 %
> 22	20.3 %
Sexe	
Female	49.0 %
Male	51.0 %
Class Standing	
Freshman	0.3 %
Sophomore	72.1 %
Junior	4.3 %
Senior	22.6 %
Others	0.8 %
Major	
Marketing	18.8 %
Business Related (Finance, Management, Production, etc.)	62.9 %
Advertising/Communications	10.0 %
Others	8.4 %
Bike Owners	57.4 %
Type of Bike Owned	
City Bike	12.0 %
Competition Bike	6.8 %
Mountain Bike	3.3 %
10-Speed Bike	74.9 %
Others	3.0 %
Brand of Bike Owned	
Raleigh	4.1 %
Schwinn	35.8 %
Others	49.6 %
Don't Know/Not Sure	10.5 %

Table 4. (Continued)

Characteristic	Proportion
Use Frequency	
Never	10.1 %
Very Seldom	34.1 %
Seldom	32.4 %
Often	16.6 %
Very Often	3.3 %
Daily	3.5 %
Non-Bike Owners	42.6 %
Type of Bike Would Most Likely Buy	
City Bike	11.6 %
Competition Bike	5.4 %
Mountain Bike	6.5 %
10-Speed Bike	76.1 %
Others	0.4 %
Brand of Bike Would Most Likely Buy	
Raleigh	1.8 %
Schwinn	52.7 %
Others	23.4 %
Don't Know	22.0 %

radio, and an electric shaver. They mentioned that "since all three of these products are shopping goods, one is tempted to conclude that shopping goods do benefit from comparison advertising, whereas convenience and specialty goods tend to benefit more from non-comparison ads" (p.93). The bicycle, which falls in the shopping goods class, could thus benefit from comparative advertising.

A second factor was the relatedness of the sample to the experimental product. Ferber (1977) proposed that a strong link should be prevalent and observed that because of low frequency use the dichotomy student-bicycle was doubtful. However, Ferber's (1977) contention was time-bound and might not be warranted anymore. In effect, two recent reports (Leccese, 1987; U.S. Industrial Outlook, 1987) indicated that bicycling is increasingly popular and that the male and female student populations represent important market targets to bicycle manufacturers. This new trend was confirmed in a pretest (Appendix B) of 93 introductory marketing students in which 56% reported owning a bicycle. The bicycle proved to be, again, an acceptable choice of experimental product.

Product Manufacturer Selection. The pretest showed that a majority of students (71%) perceived Schwinn bicycle manufacturer as the market leader, and 48% of the students classified Raleigh as an underdog (second or third place). Moreover, with regard to the extent of Schwinn's market

control, distribution ranged from a low of two to a high of six (mean= 4.52, s.d.= 1.20) on a 7-point scale item. Therefore, a neat experimental manipulation of the leader's market dominance factor could be expected from using these two companies.

Product Type Selection. A wide range of types of bicycles is offered by manufacturers. However, the pretest indicated that 81% of bike owners reported having a 10-speed bike (also known as sports bike and touring bike). A majority (66%) of non-bike owners also chose the 10-speed bike type when asked of the type of bike they would be most likely to buy. From these results, the 10-speed bike type was selected for the purpose of this study.

Brand Name Selection. A concern about the operationalization of this study was related to the experimental brand names to be used. Rossiter and Percy's (1980) contention is that experimental brand names should not generate negative nor positive valence. Therefore, special care was taken that the leader's and challenger's brand names would be as neutral as possible.

For that purpose, students were asked to indicate, in the pretest, the extent to which they liked/disliked each of the 23 brand names listed in Table 5. This list was made up of names used in other studies (Hackleman and Jain,

Table 5. List of Experimental Brand Names.^a

Brand Name	N	Mean	Mode	Median
Rapido	93	4.39	4	4
Albatron	93	3.76	4	4
PS 22	93	4.39	4	4
Cyber	93	4.13	4	4
Alva	93	4.32	4	4
Leader	92	4.18	4	4
Unitech	93	4.01	4	4
Maxon	93	3.63	4	4
6000	93	4.44	4	4
Maxium	93	4.04	4	4
Pacer	92	3.80	4	4
Challenger	93	3.84	4	4
Tasco	92	4.56	4	4
Dynatron	92	4.03	4	4
Tempest	93	3.63	4	4
Albatross	93	4.48	4	4
Catalina	92	4.26	4	4
GT 12	92	4.46	4	4
Knox	92	4.94	4	4
Speedo	92	4.41	4	4
Uno	92	4.59	4	4
Karbon	92	4.46	5	4
Bigo	92	5.15	5	5

^a Semantic Differential Scale: (1) Like - (7) Dislike.

1978; Muehling, 1985) and names created for the purpose of this research.

The results show that some of them were somewhat liked while others were rather disliked. Of the three brand names (Dynatron, Maxium, and Unitech) with appropriate level of neutrality, Dynatron and Maxium were selected and were associated with Raleigh (challenger) and Schwinn (leader) respectively.

OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE STUDY VARIABLES

Three sets of study variables were used in this study. First, the stimulus variables are described. Then, the organism variables are depicted. Finally, the response variables are presented.

The Stimulus Variables

This study used a factorial design which consisted of the manipulation of four independent variables: leader's market dominance level, market environment context, advertising claim statement, and advertising copy type. The procedures for manipulating these variables are discussed below.

Leader's Market Dominance Level: Weak, Moderate, and Strong. A first approach for operationalizing this factor was to choose real world examples. However, since there is only one leader per market, three companies representing

three different product/market contexts had to be used. By electing to use such an operationalization, chances were that confounding effects due to the interaction of the leader's market dominance level, product/market, and company dimensions might occur.

Such problem could be averted by creating a hypothetical market situation through the use of the scenario method (Eroglu, 1987). In this case, the scenario would consist of a script stating the market positions of a hypothetical bicycle leading brand, a first runner-up or challenging brand, and some other less important challenging brands as well. However, Spencer's (1978) negative assessment of role playing as substitute for in vivo experimentation discarded this approach.

The procedure that was finally used consisted of having subjects read a mock newspaper report on the bike market issue. Such type of operationalization has been successfully used by Petty and Cacioppo (e.g., Cacioppo, Petty, and Morris, 1983) in their work on persuasion.

In this study, one of three newspaper-like excerpts (Appendix C) was included in the manipulation booklet. As one can observe, in order to enhance the excerpts' credibility, special care was taken in the editing and printing process that they would look like copies made from a newspaper. As for the content, Schwinn was reported to be the market leader and Raleigh the challenger in the 10-speed

bike market. Such arrangement would conform to students' perceptions identified in the pretest. Moreover, in order to limit confounding effects, only information on leader's market dominance level and leader's/challenger's market share varied.

In order to test for the effectiveness of this factor's manipulation, subjects were first asked to recall and report (Appendix D, Part G, Q. 3) what their excerpt said about Schwinn's market control. Content analysis was used to classify subjects' answers, and coefficient Kappa was calculated to assess consistency between coders. The result ($Kappa = .74$) indicates a somewhat high level of agreement. Then, subjects' answers were analyzed, and the result ($\chi^2 = 806.42$ $df = 8$; $p < .000$) suggests that subjects properly stored and recalled information on leader's market dominance level. Subjects were also asked to indicate their levels of agreement with the content of the excerpt they were exposed to (Appendix D, Part G, Q. 4), and no market leader dominance main effect was found ($F = 1.34$ $df = 2, 610$; $p > .27$). Subjects' expectations were thus equally fulfilled among all levels of market leadership dominance.

These checks demonstrate the effectiveness of this study's manipulation of the leader's market dominance factor.

Market Environment Context: Competition and

Retaliation. The operationalization of this factor was deduced from Gorn and Weinberg's (1983) study. The challenger's advertisement was shown first followed by the market leader's advertisement (treatment advertisement).

The competition and retaliation market environment context resulted from the content of the challenger's advertisement (Appendix E). In the former case, the advertisement was noncomparative. Therefore, no deliberate provocation or attack was made by the challenger in this market context. However, in the retaliation case, the advertisement was comparative and adopted Ulanoff's (1975) "twisting the tiger's tail" strategy. For that purpose, the challenger's ad used a combinational approach (Muehling and Kangun, 1985); i.e., the challenger compared his brand to the market leader's brand and argued that his brand was as good as the leader's brand on selected product attributes but with a cheaper price. This theoretically set an attack tone and compelled the leader to retaliate against the challenger.

Two sets of manipulation checks were used to assess the validity of this operationalization. In the first set, three direct questions were asked of subjects. When demanded whether the sponsor's brand took on another brand in the first advertisement (Appendix D, Part G, Q. 1a), subjects who saw the comparative advertisement agreed while

subjects who saw the noncomparative one did not agree as much ($F = 378.81$ $df = 1,611$; $p < .0001$). Another question asked of subjects was about the advertisement's tone (Appendix D, Part G, Q. 5). Subjects who saw the comparative advertisement mostly felt that the ad had an attack tone, and subjects who saw the noncomparative advertisement mostly felt that the ad did not have such a tone ($F = 249.69$ $df = 1,610$; $p < .0001$). Finally, when asked how they felt about the second advertisement (leader's ad) (Appendix D, Part G, Q. 6), subjects who saw the comparative advertisement sensed that the second one was a direct response to the claim made in the first advertisement while subjects who saw the noncomparative one did not have such feeling ($F = 31.07$ $df = 1,610$; $p < .0001$). This last result seems to indicate that the attack-retaliation/no attack-no retaliation dynamic worked on subjects.

In the second set of questions, subjects were asked to evaluate Raleigh's Dynatron (challenger) friendliness-fairness in the market. Three 7-point items were used to assess this construct (Appendix D, Part E, Q. 4), and reliability analysis indicated that one item (aggressive-not aggressive) did poorly on this construct assessment. This item was therefore dropped and subsequent analysis revealed a high index of reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$) for the two remaining items. As expected, subjects who saw the comparative advertisement judged Raleigh as being more

unfair than subjects who saw the noncomparative one ($F = 14.00$ $df = 1, 614$; $p < .0002$).

The results of these two sets of manipulation checks demonstrate the effectiveness of this study's manipulation of the market environment context factor.

Advertising Copy Type (Comparative and Noncomparative) and Advertising Claim Statement (Product Attribute and Market Standing): The Treatment Advertisements. Two dimensions were used in the development of the treatment advertisements. Subjects saw the market leader using a comparative or noncomparative advertisement whose information content was product-feature or market standing-oriented. Four treatment advertisements resulted from a crossing of these two dimensions: a comparative product attribute advertisement, a noncomparative product attribute advertisement, a comparative market standing advertisement, a noncomparative market standing advertisement (Appendix F). The decisions regarding the structure and content of the treatment advertisements are explained below.

Based on Villareal-Camacho's (1983) study results and Russo's (1974) view on information load, a decision was made that the treatment advertisements should contain a fair amount of information. Practically, four attributes (the average number of attributes listed by students in the free-elicitation task in the pretest) or four market standing facts were used in the noncomparative advertisements

and the same four attributes or market facts were used in point-by-point comparisons in the comparative advertisements. The advertisements used a multi-level information approach (information that can be hierarchically ordered) rather than dichotomous information (those that can take two values: present/absent, included/extra cost, etc.) (Villarreal-Camacho, 1983). Of the number of brands to be included in the comparative advertisements, only the challenger's brand name was mentioned. This decision was based on the fact that the main purpose of the leader's advertisement was to compete with the challenger in the market or defend his brand against the challenger's attack.

The content of the comparative advertisements conveyed a differentiative approach; i.e., most of the references in the ad pointed out differences between the leader's brand and the challenger's brand (Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, 1979). Moreover, the intensity of the advertisements corresponded to Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher (1979) taxonomy's highest level in that "the competing brand name [was] identified and [was] mentioned frequently in a point-by-point comparison" (p.31).

With regard to the claim statement, a list of attributes to be potentially included in the comparative and noncomparative product attribute advertisements was made using Goodwin and Etgar's (1980) free-elicitation procedure. In the first pretest students were asked to write

down features (including price) that came to mind when they thought of bicycles. Twenty-eight different features were mentioned and the first ten are listed in Table 6. A content analysis of three magazines likely to be consulted by potential buyers (Bicycle, Bicycling, and Cyclist; all July 1987 issues) was also performed, and the features used in the advertisements and comparative charts converged with the ones reported by students in the pretest.

As recommended by Villarreal-Camacho (1983), only salient attributes (including price) that showed real differences were included in the comparative and noncomparative product attribute advertisements. This approach generated informative advertisements and is congruent with the FTC's objective on that matter (Ulanoff, 1975).

On the other hand, the comparative and noncomparative market standing advertisements which, as mentioned in the preceding chapter, were of a pure type comprised only market standing facts. This was information related to the market position of the brands, number of units sold at one point in time, brands' endorsers, and experts' and associations' recommendations. The idea for this type of market standing facts originated from a content analysis of bicycle-related advertisements and articles found in three magazines (Bicycle, Bicycling, and Cyclist; all July 1987 issues).

Table 6. List of Bicycle Features.

Feature	Response Frequency
Price	47
Number of Speeds	40
Weight	27
Colors Available	23
Saddle	22
Brake Set	22
Frame	18
Gear System	15
Handle Bars	13
Tire Size	13

Finally, special care was taken that the overall layouts of the treatment advertisements be as equivalent as possible. Parallel wording was used in the title and copy (body text) of the advertisements. The likelihood that the results would be confounded due to technical differences in the treatment advertisements was, therefore, reduced as much as possible (Percy and Rossiter, 1978).

One question (Appendix D, Part G, Q. 1b) was used to assess the advertising copy type factor's manipulation effectiveness. The result ($F = 362.26$ $df = 1,611$; $p < .0001$) indicates that subjects did perceive the type of advertising copy they were shown. One question (Appendix D, Part G, Q. 2) was also used to test the effectiveness of the advertising claim statement factor. Again, the result ($F = 696.40$ $df = 1,610$; $p < .0001$) indicates that subjects recognized the type of advertising claim statement they were exposed to. Therefore, the two dimensions included in the treatment advertisements seem to have been perceived by subjects.

The Organism Variables

Five organism variables were used in this research: 1) attitude toward the ad, 2) expertise, 3) message-response involvement, 4) advertiser disparagement and 5) loyalty/commitment to the leader's brand. The procedures for measuring these variables, which were based on Churchill's (1979) paradigm, are reported below.

Attitude toward the Ad. Two questions were used in order to assess subjects' attitudes toward the ad (Appendix D, Part D, Q. 2 and Q. 10) and a linear composite of these two questions constituted subjects' measures. As one can observe in Table 7, factor analysis revealed only one factor or dimension, and this variable was measured with acceptable level of reliability [according to Nunnally's (1978) criterion--.70 and over].

Expertise. Two items from Muehling's (1985) product familiarity scale (Appendix D, Part B, Q. 13b and Q. 13c) were used, and the mean response constituted subjects' expertise scores. As found in Table 7, the reliability coefficient does not meet Nunnally's (1978) criterion but was judged acceptable. Moreover, factor analysis revealed only one dimension in the scale.

Message-Response Involvement. Again, two items from Muehling's (1985) involvement scale (Appendix D, Part F, Q. 1 and Q. 2) were used, and subjects' involvement measures are a linear composite of these two items. Results (see Table 7) indicate that this variable was measured with acceptable dimensionality and reliability.

Advertiser Disparagement. The procedure for determining subjects' advertiser disparagement scores was borrowed from Zillmann and Cantor's (1976) disparagement theory of

Table 7. Organism-Related Scale Dimensionality and Reliability.

	Dimensionality(a)	Reliability(b)
Attitude Toward the Ad	1	.85
Expertise	1	.62
Message-Response Involvement	1	.74
Advertiser Disparagement		
Score derived from Affective Disposition toward:		
. Raleigh	1	.76
. Schwinn	1	.79
Loyalty/Commitment to the Leader's Brand	(one item only)	

a
Exploratory factor analysis with eigenvalue criterion set to one.

b
Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

humor. Their disposition model formula states that "mirth ... is said to vary proportionally with the negativeness of the affective disposition toward the disparaged party and the positiveness of the affective disposition toward the disparaging party, and jointly so (Zillmann, 1983, pp. 91-91)."

First, subjects' affective dispositions toward Raleigh and Schwinn bike manufacturers were assessed using two questions (Appendix D, Part B, Q. 12 and Q. 14). As can be observed, both names were included in a long list of bike manufacturers so that subjects would not be primed on the experimental brand names beforehand. Moreover, in order to prevent possible order effects, two questionnaire versions were developed and the names of the two bike manufacturers were reversed.

A series of analyses of variance was performed, and results show no significant questionnaire version main effect (Feel about Raleigh: $F = .03$ $df = 1, 626$; $p > .87$ --Attitude toward Raleigh: $F = .08$ $df = 1, 619$; $p > .50$ --Feel about Schwinn: $F = .08$ $df = 1, 634$; $p > .77$ --Attitude toward Schwinn: $F = .02$ $df = 1, 628$; $p > .89$). As can be observed in Table 7, factor analysis revealed only one dimension for each scale, and both reliability coefficients are deemed acceptable.

Then, based on the formula presented above, subjects who were shown a comparative advertisement had their

negative affective dispositions (a linear composite of the two questions on Raleigh bike manufacturer) toward Raleigh, the disparaged party, added to their positive affective dispositions (a linear composite of the two questions on Schwinn bike manufacturer) toward Schwinn, the disparaging party, in order to form their disparagement scores. Subjects who were exposed to a noncomparative advertisement did not face such disparagement situation and, therefore, were given a disparagement score equal to zero.

Loyalty/Commitment to the Leader's Brand. In order to account for both bike owners and non-bike owners, brand loyalty was coupled with brand commitment to form this covariate.

First subjects reported on the brand of bike they owned or would be most likely to buy (Appendix D, Part B, Q. 3 and Q. 9b) and then were asked about their loyalty or commitment to that brand of bike (Appendix D, Part A, Q. 5 and Q. 10). The loyalty/commitment scores for subjects who declared owning or being most likely to buy a Schwinn bike took a positive sign. However, such scores for subjects who reported owning or being most likely to buy another brand of bike were reported as a negative loyalty/commitment to Schwinn.

Only one item was used to assess subjects' loyalty or commitment scores and, therefore, no dimensionality nor reliability analyses were performed.

The Response Variables

Three types of dependent variables were used in this study: 1) ad-related, 2) advertiser-related, and 3) brand-related responses. The procedures for measuring these variables, based, again, on Churchill's (1979) measurement paradigm recommendations, and are described below.

Ad-Related Responses. Two components of ad-related responses were examined in this research. With regard to the cognitive component, the perceived informativeness of the ad was assessed with two 7-point bipolar items, and the perceived value of information was measured using three 7-point bipolar items (Appendix D, Part D, Q. 4). In each case, the endpoints were derived from earlier comparative advertising studies (e.g., Earl and Pride, 1980; Holmes and Holley, 1986; Shimp and Dyer, 1978; Wilson and Mudderrisoglu, 1979b), and a linear composite constituted subjects' scores. As one can observe in Table 8, both constructs were measured with acceptable level of reliability and dimensionality.

The affective component of the ad-related responses comprised one measure of agreement with advertiser's use of comparative and noncomparative advertising copy type and one measure of attitudes toward the treatment comparative and noncomparative advertisements (Appendix D, Part D, Q. 2, 5, 6, and 10). With regard to the assessment of agreement, only one item was used and, therefore, no

Table 8. Ad-Related Scale Dimensionality and Reliability.

	Dimensionality	Reliability
Cognitive Component		
Perceived Informativeness	1	.84
Informative/Uninformative		
Instructive/Uninstructive		
Perceived Value of Information	1	.92
Valuable/Not Valuable		
Helpful/Unhelpful		
Relevant to information		
needs/Irrelevant to		
information needs		
Affective Component		
Agreement with Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising Copy Types		
Level of Agreement		(one item only)
Attitude Toward the Comparative and Noncomparative Advertisements	1	.85
Liking of the Ad		
Overall Attitude Toward the Ad		

dimensionality and reliability analyses were performed. However, attitudes toward the comparative and noncomparative advertisements were assessed with two 7-point bipolar items, and the mean response constituted subjects' scores. As found in Table 8, this construct was measured with acceptable level of dimensionality and reliability.

Advertiser-Related Responses. Again, two components of advertiser-related responses were examined. The items used for measuring the cognitive and affective components are presented in Table 9. The perception of the advertiser's fairness was assessed with three 7-point bipolar items derived from Muehling (1985) and Wilson and Mudderrisoglu (1979b) studies (Appendix D, Part D, Q. 7. One of the items (aggressiveness) did not measure well the construct and was therefore dropped. As can be seen in Table 9, the two remaining items reliably measured subjects' perceptions, and factor analysis revealed one dimension only.

The attitude toward the advertiser variable was measured using two 7-point bipolar items (Appendix D, Part D, Q. 8), and results (see Table 9) show this construct to be unidimensional and reliable.

Again, for both the cognitive and affective components, subjects' measures were linear combinations of the items used.

Table 9. Advertiser-Related Scale Dimensionality and Reliability.

	Dimensionality	Reliability
Cognitive Component		
Perception of the Advertiser's Fairness	1	.75
Fair/Unfair		
Friendly/Unfriendly		
Aggressive/Not Aggressive		
Affective Component		
Attitude Toward the Advertiser	1	.94
Good/Bad		
Not Very Likeable/ Very Likeable		

Brand-Related Responses. As can be observed in Table 10, three components of brand-related responses were investigated. The cognitive component was examined first. The perceived leader-challenger overall brand dissimilarity was measured using Gorn and Weinberg's (1984) procedure (Appendix D, Part D, Q. 9). Essentially, subjects indicated on a 7-point bipolar scale the extent to which they perceived the leader and challenger brands to be dissimilar. Since only one item was used, no dimensionality and reliability analyses were performed. The same procedure was used to assess subjects' perceived leader-challenger dissimilarity on the attributes used for the advertisements (Appendix D, Part D, Q. 1) and, again, no dimensionality nor reliability analyses were conducted.

Secondly, the affective component was examined using Gorn and Weinberg's (1984) relative approach procedure. Subjects were asked to indicate their preferences for the two items (Appendix D, Part D, Q. 12) listed in Table 10, and a linear composite score was constituted. Results show this construct to be unidimensional and reliable.

The last component to be investigated was the conative dimension (Appendix D, Part D, Q. 14). Subjects' buying intentions were assessed with the three 7-point bipolar items (Muehling, 1985; Villarreal-Camacho, 1983) shown in Table 10. Again, the mean response constituted subjects' measures. Finally, factor analysis revealed one dimension

Table 10. Brand-Related Scale Dimensionality and Reliability.

	Dimensionality	Reliability
Cognitive Component		
Perceived Leader-Challenger Overall Brand Dissimilarity	(one item only)	
Identical/Different		
Perceived Leader-Challenger Brand Attribute Dissimilarity	(one item only)	
Identical/Different		
Affective Component (Relative Approach)	1	.88
Leader's Brand Much Better/ Challenger's Brand Much Better		
Leader's Brand Much Preferable/ Challenger's Brand Much Preferable		
Conative Component (Relative Approach)	1	.93
Will Buy Leader's Brand over Challenger's Brand:		
Unfavorable/Favorable Foolish/Wise Unlikely/Likely		

only, and reliability analysis shows an acceptable coefficient of reliability.

PRETEST

Perdue and Summers, (1986) discussed the issue of manipulation checks in marketing experiment. They mentioned, among other things, that such manipulation checks have "...their greatest value during the pretest and/or pilot-testing plans of an experiment ..." (p.319).

Therefore, two series of meetings were held with undergraduate students. In the first series, students' understanding of the bike market was assessed. Goodwin and Etgar's (1980) free-elicitation procedure was used to identify attributes students use when shopping for bicycles. Twenty-three brand names were also tested for their neutrality. In the second series of meetings, two undergraduate marketing classes were used to pretest the experimental procedures. Students also responded to the questionnaire booklet. In order to clarify unclear instructions and questions, a period of discussion was held. Special care was taken to correct any problems related to the manipulation and questionnaire booklets.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

Introductory marketing students were invited to participate in this experiment and, for encouragement, were

offered extra credit. During a class period students who accepted received an envelope containing the experimental materials. A sheet stating seven general instructions (Appendix G) was stapled on the envelope and subjects were given five minutes to read it.

Then subjects were told to remove the questionnaire booklet (Appendix D) from the envelope and to follow all the instructions written on the bottom of each page and on special pages. Subjects were then given all the time needed to read the briefing and introduction instructions [based on Muehling (1985) and Speck (1987)] and to fill in Part A and Part B of the questionnaire booklet. Overall, subjects took about 15 minutes to complete this task.

They were then asked to remove the manipulation booklet (Appendix H) from the envelope and go through as they would usually be doing with magazines. They were given up to three minutes to complete this task. When finished with the manipulation booklet, they were asked to place it back in the envelope and take their questionnaire booklet back.

Subjects were then instructed to read the instructions on the thought listing procedure (based on Muehling, 1985) and were given up to four minutes to complete the required task (Part C). When finished, they were told to complete the rest of the questionnaire (Part D to Part G) at their own pace. Subjects took about 15 minutes to complete the five remaining parts.

Then subjects were thanked and requested not to talk about the experiment with other students. Overall, the procedures took about forty to fifty minutes to complete.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the methodology used to operationalize the independent variables and measure the intervening and dependent variables of this study. Overall, results seem to indicate that further analysis can be performed on the data. The next chapter reports the study's results.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to test the appropriateness, fairness and effectiveness of comparative advertising vis-a-vis noncomparative advertising for market leaders. Therefore, three sets of covariate-adjusted dependent variables were proposed, and this chapter presents the results of the unidimensional, bidimensional, and multidimensional effects tests.

UNIDIMENSIONAL AND BIDIMENSIONAL EFFECTS TESTS

This first set of hypotheses addresses the main effects and interaction effects of market environment context, leader's market dominance, and advertising claim statement with advertising copy type.

Effects of Market Environment Context

The first three hypotheses (and sub-hypotheses) deal with agreement with comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types and attitudes toward the comparative and noncomparative advertisements used in this study.

However, since the subjects in the retaliation-comparative advertising treatment cells were exposed to two comparative advertisements (one for setting up the

retaliation context, and the treatment advertisement) and the subjects in the other treatment cells saw only one (the treatment advertisement) a confounding effect might have happened if a direct question had been used to assess agreement with comparative advertising copy type.

In order to attenuate this possible confounding effect, a screening question was used so that subjects would focus only on the treatment advertisement they were shown when answering the agreement question. Moreover, only subjects who appropriately described the treatment advertisement were accounted for in the tests of hypotheses. This selection was based on a content analysis of subjects' descriptions performed by two coders, and coefficient of agreement ($Kappa = .65$) indicates that a somewhat small but still acceptable level of consistency between the coders was reached.

Finally, such confounding effect was not of concern for the attitude toward the comparative and noncomparative advertisements hypotheses. Therefore, no screening question was used and all subjects were included in the tests of hypotheses.

Tests of Hypotheses 1. H1a and H1b state that agreement with the use of comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types is stronger in a retaliation than in a competition market environment context. Such effect is also

said to be impacted by the message-response involvement covariate.

The results in Table 11 show that the test for heterogeneity of slopes is not significant and that the effect of the covariate is strongly significant. Moreover, the H1a statistical test is significant at the .05 level but the H1b statistical test is not. The directionality in the means suggests that, indeed, subjects agreed more with comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types (see Table 14 for adjusted treatment means and Appendix I for all cell means) when they were used for counter-attacking the challenger.

H1c and H1d hypotheses hold a similar point of view regarding attitudes toward the comparative and noncomparative advertisements. Again, no significant effect of heterogeneity of slopes was found, and a significant message-response involvement covariate effect along with significant statistical tests for H1c and H1d hypotheses were found (see Table 11). These results indicate that, again, subjects' attitudes toward the comparative and noncomparative advertisements were more favorable when used in a retaliation market environment context.

Tests of Hypotheses 2. This set of hypotheses questions which of the comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types is more appropriate in competition and in retaliation market environment contexts. As one can

Table 11. Hypotheses 1 ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS(a)	F Value	Pr > F
H1a and H1b: Agreement with Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising Copy Types				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,429	5.7618	2.40	0.1223
Effect of the Covariate	1,430	313.1123	129.84	0.0001
H1a	1,430	8.9854	3.73	0.0542
H1b	1,430	7.8521	3.26	0.0719
H1c and H1d: Attitude Toward the Comparative and Noncomparative Advertisements				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,609	0.4638	0.22	0.6415
Effect of the Covariate	1,610	364.4866	170.71	0.0001
H1c	1,610	8.4578	3.96	0.0470
H1d	1,610	10.9769	5.14	0.0237

^a
SAS Type III Sum of Squares

observe in Table 12, the tests for heterogeneity of slopes are not significant and the message-response involvement covariate effects are significant for either dependent variable.

Moreover, in a competition market environment context, subjects agreed less and had less favorable attitudes toward comparative than noncomparative advertising (supporting H2a and H2c). However, similar results were found in the retaliation market environment context, lending, this time, no support for H2b and H2d. Therefore, noncomparative advertising seemed to be preferred by subjects over comparative advertising in any type of market environment context.

Tests of Hypotheses 3. H3a and H3b refer to the interaction effects of market environment context and advertising copy type on agreement with comparative and noncomparative advertising and attitudes toward the comparative and noncomparative advertisement respectively.

Test results (see Table 13) and the adjusted treatment means (see Table 14 and Figures J-1 and J-2 in Appendix J) clearly indicate no such interaction effects, leading to rejection of these two hypotheses. Therefore, market environment context is not found to be a moderator of advertising copy type.

Table 12. Hypotheses 2 ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H2a and H2b: Agreement with Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising Copy Types				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,429	0.1058	0.04	0.8343
Effect of the Covariate	1,430	313.1123	129.84	0.0001
H2a	1,430	18.7949	7.79	0.0055
H2b	1,430	14.7092	6.10	0.0139
H2c and H2d: Attitude Toward the Comparative and Noncomparative Advertisements				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,609	1.9483	0.91	0.3399
Effect of the Covariate	1,610	364.4866	170.71	0.0001
H2c	1,610	21.1408	9.90	0.0017
H2d	1,610	24.3971	11.43	0.0008

Table 13. Hypotheses 3 ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H3a: Agreement with Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising Copy Types				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	3,427	7.8556	1.09	0.3545
Effect of the Covariate	1,430	313.1123	129.84	0.0001
H3a	1,430	0.0641	0.03	0.8705
H3b: Attitude Toward the Comparative and Noncomparative Advertisements				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	3,607	4.4228	0.69	0.5587
Effect of the Covariate	1,610	364.4866	170.71	0.0001
H3b	1,610	0.0571	0.03	0.8701

Table 14. Adjusted Group Means for Market Environment Context Effects.

	Competition/ Noncomparative	Competition/ Comparative	Retaliation/ Noncomparative	Retaliation/ Comparative
H1a (a)	-----	3.71	-----	4.13
H1b (a)	4.28	-----	4.65	-----
H1c (b)	-----	3.97	-----	4.30
H1d (b)	4.49	-----	4.85	-----
H2a (a)	4.28	3.71	-----	-----
H2b (a)	-----	-----	4.65	4.13
H2c (b)	4.49	3.97	-----	-----
H2d (b)	-----	-----	4.85	4.30
H3a (a)	4.28	3.71	4.65	4.13
H3b (b)	4.49	3.97	4.85	4.30

a

7-point scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree
7 = Strongly Agree

b

7-point scale: 1 = Not very Likeable - Bad
7 = Very Likeable - Good

Effects of Leader's Market Dominance

Empirical studies that contrasted market leaders with challengers are available, but no study that systematically tested varying levels of leader's market dominance is available in comparative advertising literature. One important question about the use of comparative advertising by market leaders is consumers' perceived fairness of such practice, and this concern is addressed in this section.

Tests of Hypotheses 4. H4a and H4b respectively state that there is no leader's market dominance level main effect for perception of the advertiser's fairness and attitudes toward the advertiser. As one can observe in Table 15, on no occasions were the tests for heterogeneity of slopes significant, and the covariate effect (advertiser disparagement) is not significant for perception of the advertiser's fairness but is for attitudes toward the advertiser. Moreover, the leader's market dominance factor is not significant for either dependent variable, indicating (see Table 17 for adjusted treatment means), as predicted, that firms of small and large sizes have, from the consumer's viewpoint, an acknowledged right to advertise.

Tests of Hypotheses 5. This set of hypotheses holds that leader's market dominance level is a moderator of advertising copy type. The results of the tests for heterogeneity of slopes and covariate effects (advertiser

Table 15. Hypotheses 4 ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H4a: Perception of the Advertiser's Fairness				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	2,607	0.6563	0.24	0.7891
Effect of the Covariate	1,609	0.0086	1.18	0.9369
H4a	2,609	3.5831	1.30	0.2742
H4b: Attitude Toward the Advertiser				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	2,607	0.3342	0.09	0.9139
Effect of the Covariate	1,609	7.0418	3.79	0.0521
H4b	2,609	9.4950	2.57	0.0777

disparagement) are similar to the ones presented in the preceding section (see Table 15). Moreover, as can be observed in Table 16, the results of the leader's market dominance and advertising copy type factors interaction effects are not significant, providing no support for H5a and H5b. A closer look at the adjusted treatment means (see Table 17 and Figures J-3 and J-4) shows an inverted "U" effect for either measure.

Effects of Claim Statement

One basic purpose of advertising is to convey information to consumers (Nelson, 1974). Advertisers can use, for that purpose, product attribute or market standing claim statements (McDougall, 1976). The next two sets of hypotheses deal with identifying which of these two claim statements better fulfills advertising's information role to consumers.

Tests of Hypotheses 6. H6a and H6b mention that the information content of product attribute claim statements is perceived as more informative and more valuable than the information content of market standing claim statements. Such effects are related to expertise as an intervening variable.

As can be observed in Table 18, none of the tests for heterogeneity of slopes are significant and, contrary to expectations, the effects of the expertise

Table 16. Hypotheses 5 ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H5a: Perception of the Advertiser's Fairness				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	2,607	0.6563	0.24	0.7891
Effect of the Covariate	1,609	0.0086	1.18	0.9369
H5a	2,609	0.8591	0.31	0.7329
H5b: Attitude Toward the Advertiser				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	2,607	0.3342	0.09	0.9139
Effect of the Covariate	1,609	7.0118	3.79	0.0521
H5b	2,609	2.2567	0.61	0.5439

Table 17. Adjusted Group Means for Leader's Market Dominance Effects.

Leader's Market Dominance and Advertising Copy Type						
Market Leader Dominance Level						
	Weak	Moderate			Strong	
H4a (a)	4.77	4.86			4.67	
H4b (b)	4.52	4.79			4.55	
	Noncomparative			Comparative		
	Weak	Moderate	Strong	Weak	Moderate	Strong
H5a (a)	5.13	5.22	4.96	4.42	4.49	4.39
H5b (b)	5.12	5.26	5.13	3.93	4.33	3.96

a
7-point scale: 1 = Unfair - Unfriendly
7 = Fair - Friendly

b
7-point scale: 1 = Bad - Not very Likeable
7 = Good - Likeable

Table 18. Hypotheses 6 ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H6a: Perceived Informativeness of Ad				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,611	0.0411	0.02	0.8909
Effect of the Covariate	1,612	0.7540	0.35	0.5569
H6a	1,612	166.6764	76.38	0.0001
H6b: Perceived Value of Information in Ad				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,611	4.0474	1.82	0.1774
Effect of the Covariate	1,612	0.4649	0.21	0.6476
H6b	1,612	236.6372	106.46	0.0001

covariate are also not significant for either dependent variable. Finally, the statistical tests for H6a and H6b are, as expected, significant. Advertisers seem therefore better served with product attribute claim statements (see Table 20) when trying to reach the information goal in the market place.

Tests of Hypotheses 7. H7a and H7b test for the presence of interaction effects between the advertising copy type and advertising claim statement factors for perceived informativeness of the ad and perceived value of information in the ad. Again, these effects are bound to the expertise covariate.

As displayed in Table 19, no tests for heterogeneity of slopes are significant. Moreover, contrary to expectations, no tests for covariate effects are significant for either dependent variable. Finally, as hypothesized, advertising claim statement interacted with advertising copy type for perceived informativeness of the ad and perceived value of information in the ad. As can be seen in Table 20 (see also Figures J-5 and J-6), the comparative product attribute advertisement received the highest evaluations while the comparative market standing advertisement obtained the lowest scores on either dependent variable.

Table 19. Hypotheses 7 ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H7a: Perceived Informativeness of Ad				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	3,609	1.3038	0.20	0.8975
Effect of the Covariate	1,612	0.7540	0.35	0.5569
H7a	1,612	12.2245	5.60	0.0183
H7b: Perceived Value of Information in Ad				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	3,609	9.7204	1.46	0.2241
Effect of the Covariate	1,612	0.4649	0.21	0.6476
H7b	1,612	36.7874	16.55	0.0001

Table 20. Adjusted Group Means for Claim Statement Effects.

Advertising Copy Type and Advertising Claim Statement				
Product Attribute			Market Standing	
H6a (a)	5.07		4.05	
H6b (b)	5.05		3.83	
Noncomparative			Comparative	
	Product Attribute	Market Standing	Product Attribute	Market Standing
H7a (a)	4.89	4.14	5.26	3.96
H7b (b)	4.89	4.15	5.22	3.51

a

7-point scale: 1 = Uninformative - Uninstructive
7 = Informative - Instructive

b

7-point scale: 1 = Not Valuable - Irrelevant to
Information Needs - Incomplete
7 = Valuable - Relevant to Information
Needs - Complete

Summary

On no occasion did the expertise, message-response involvement, and advertiser disparagement covariates interact with their experimental variables. Moreover, the message-response involvement covariate significantly impacted the affective component of ad-related responses, the advertiser disparagement covariate was significant only for the affective component of advertiser-related responses, and the expertise covariate was not significant for either cognitive component of ad-related responses.

The statistical tests of Hypotheses 1 indicate that, overall, both comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types were thought better of in a retaliation than in a straight competition market environment context.

As for Hypotheses 2, the results of the statistical tests show that noncomparative advertising was more approved of by subjects in any type of market environment context. Finally, the market environment context factor was not found to be a significant moderator of the advertising copy type factor.

Two series of hypotheses (Hypotheses 4 and 5) were stated in order to test for perception of the advertiser's fairness and for attitudes toward the advertiser. The results of the statistical tests indicate no leader's market dominance level factor main effect for the former measure but a strong directionality in the means for the

later measure. Moreover, contrary to expectations, the moderation effect of the leader's market dominance factor was not statistically significant.

Finally, the product attribute claim statement was found to be rated better than the market standing claim statement on information-related measures by subjects. Additionally, as expected, the advertising claim statement factor strongly interacted with the advertising copy type factor. Thus, the effectiveness of comparative and noncomparative advertising is related to the type of claim statements used in the ad.

MULTIDIMENSIONAL EFFECTS TESTS

Many variables may be interacting simultaneously with the advertising copy type factor. This series of hypotheses questions which combination among the comparative product attribute, comparative market standing, noncomparative product attribute, and noncomparative market standing advertising is best for market leaders in competition and retaliation market environment contexts.

Effects of Advertising Copy Type and Claim Statement in Competition Market Environment Context

Tests of Hypotheses 8. What advertising combination should market leaders use when competing with challengers? H8a and H8b state that the comparative product attribute

combination is better than the noncomparative marketing standing one for creating overall and attribute-based brand dissimilarities. As one can observe in Table 21 (see Table 22 for treatment means), both hypotheses are supported.

Moreover, no differences between these two advertisement combinations were hypothesized for the covariate-adjusted attitude toward the brand and behavioral intention dependent variables. The results presented in Table 21 indicate that both tests for heterogeneity of slopes are not significant and that both covariate (attitude toward the ad and brand loyalty/commitment) effects are significant. However, contrary to expectations, H8c was found significant: the comparative product attribute advertisement was better than the noncomparative market standing advertisement to form positive attitudes toward the brand. Finally, as predicted, H8d was found not significant: both advertisement combinations generated similar behavioral intentions.

Effects of Advertising Copy Type and Claim Statement in Retaliation Market Environment Context

Tests of Hypotheses 9. What advertising combination should market leaders use when defending against challengers' attacks? H9a and H9b mention that market leaders would achieve greater overall and attribute-based brand differentiations by using comparative product attribute

Table 21. Hypotheses 8 ANOVA and ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H8a: Perceived Leader-Challenger Overall Brand Dissimilarity				
H8a	1,615	10.0033	5.3394	0.0212
H8b: Perceived Leader-Challenger Brand Attribute Dissimilarity				
Frame Tubing	1,610	71.2971	28.3853	0.0001
Brake Set	1,610	104.6060	40.5855	0.0001
Colors	1,610	429.1440	179.1457	0.0001
Available				
Price	1,610	10.1045	4.4712	0.0349
H8c: Attitude Toward the Brand				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	3,611	1.7806	0.5400	0.6561
Effect of the Covariate	1,614	307.9932	280.0700	0.0001
H8c	1,614	8.0801	7.3476	0.0069
H8d: Behavioral Intention				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	3,602	6.6078	0.9000	0.4425
Effect of the Covariate	1,605	99.8295	40.6700	0.0001
H8d	1,605	2.9420	1.1986	0.2740

Table 22. Hypotheses 8 Unadjusted and Adjusted
Group Means -- Competition Market
Environment Context.

	Comparative Product Attribute Ad	Noncomparative Market Standing Ad
Overall Brand Dissimilarity(a)	4.18	3.68
Attribute-Based Brand Dissimilarity(a)		
Frame Tubing	4.87	3.53
Brake Set	5.13	3.51
Colors Available	6.39	3.11
Price	5.75	5.26
Attitude toward the Brand(b)	4.91	4.47
Behavioral Intention(c)	4.62	4.34

a
7-point scale: 1 = Identical
7 = Different

b
7-point scale: 1 = Challenger's brand much better -
Preferable
7 = Leader's brand much better -
Preferable

c
7-point scale: 1 = Buy leader's brand over challen-
ger's brand: Unfavorable -
Foolish - Unlikely
7 = Buy leader's brand over challen-
ger's brand: Favorable - Wise -
Likely

advertising rather than noncomparative market standing advertising. Results (see Table 23) show that H9a is supported and that H9b is supported for all attributes but one--price.

This result can be explained on the ground that all subjects were exposed to the challenger's combinational comparative advertisement. They were thus aware of the similarities between the two brands on the gear, saddle, and weight attributes and knew of the difference on the price attribute. However, only the subjects who were shown the comparative product attribute advertisement were informed of the differences between the two brands in the frame, brake, and colors attributes. The subjects who saw the noncomparative market standing advertisement were exposed to another type of information such as the bike's endorser and numbers of units sold and, therefore, were not informed of any of the differences between the two brands. However, as we saw, they had been made aware of some similarities between the two brands in the challenger's advertisement; and, as the treatment means seem to indicate (see Table 24), these subjects possibly generalized their perception of similarity to all of the bike's attributes. This possibly made the difference in the frame, brake, and colors attributes statistically significant and the difference in the price attribute not statistically significant.

Table 23. Hypotheses 9 ANOVA and ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H9a: Perceived Leader-Challenger Overall Brand Dissimilarity				
H9a	1,615	13.3004	7.0992	0.0079
H9b: Perceived Leader-Challenger Brand Attribute Dissimilarity				
Frame Tubing	1,610	90.2242	35.9207	0.0001
Brake Set	1,610	112.4150	43.6155	0.0001
Colors	1,610	390.2420	162.9060	0.0001
Available Price	1,610	1.8970	0.8394	0.3599
H9c: Attitude Toward the Brand				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	3,611	1.7806	0.5400	0.6561
Effect of the Covariate	1,614	307.9931	280.0700	0.0001
H9c	1,614	0.1622	0.1476	0.7010
H9d: Behavioral Intention				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	3,612	6.6078	0.9000	0.4425
Effect of the Covariate	1,605	99.8295	40.6700	0.0001
H9d	1,605	8.3766	3.4126	0.0652

Table 24. Hypotheses 9 Unadjusted and Adjusted
Group Means -- Retaliation Market
Environment Context.

	Advertising Copy Type and Claim Statement	
	Comparative Product Attribute Ad	Noncomparative Market Standing Ad
Overall Brand Dissimilarity	3.54	2.97
Attribute-Based Brand Dissimilarity		
Frame Tubing	4.49	2.99
Brake Set	4.59	2.93
Colors Available	6.28	3.18
Price	5.65	5.43
	Comparative Market Standing Ad	Noncomparative Product Attribute Ad
Attitude toward the Brand	4.50	4.43
Behavioral Intention	4.09	4.55

On the other hand, H9c and H9d state that more positive attitudes and behavioral intentions would be achieved by using a comparative market standing versus a noncomparative product attribute advertisement. The results in Table 23 indicate that the test for heterogeneity of slopes is not significant for either dependent variable and that the effects of the covariates (attitude toward the ad and brand loyalty/commitment respectively) are statistically significant. Moreover, contrary to expectations, the test for H9c is not significant, and, although the test for H9d is not significant at the .05 level, a directionality in the means was identified. As one can observe in Table 24, the treatment means show that the best advertisement is not, as expected, the comparative market standing but the noncomparative product attribute.

Effects of Claim Statement on Comparative Advertising Copy Type in Retaliation Market Environment Context

Tests of Hypotheses 10. What comparative claim statement should market leaders use for defending against challengers' attacks? H10a and H10b state that the product attribute claim statement is more effective than the market standing claim statement for attaining overall and attribute-based brand dissimilarities.

The results of the tests, presented in Tables 25 and 26, show that the leader's brand differentiation was better

Table 25. Hypotheses 10 ANOVA and ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H10a: Perceived Leader-Challenger Overall Brand Dissimilarity				
H10a	1,615	7.2466	3.8680	0.0497
H10b: Perceived Leader-Challenger Brand Attribute Dissimilarity				
Frame Tubing	1,610	89.9554	35.8137	0.0001
Brake Set	1,610	121.0470	46.9643	0.0001
Colors Available	1,610	328.3260	137.0593	0.0001
Price	1,610	0.0055	0.0024	0.9606
H10c: Attitude Toward the Brand				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,613	0.2180	0.2000	0.6565
Effect of the Covariate	1,614	307.9931	280.0700	0.0001
H10c	1,614	0.1193	0.1086	0.7419
H10d: Behavioral Intention				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,604	1.6984	0.6900	0.4060
Effect of the Covariate	1,605	99.8294	40.6700	0.0001
H10d	1,605	7.4238	3.0244	0.0825

Table 26. Hypotheses 10 Unadjusted and Adjusted
Group Means -- Retaliation Market
Environment Context.

Advertising Claim Statement		
	Product Attribute Claim Statement	Market Standing Claim Statement
Overall Brand Dissimilarity	3.54	3.11
Attribute-Based Brand Dissimilarity		
Frame Tubing	4.49	2.97
Brake Set	4.59	2.83
Colors Available	6.28	3.38
Price	5.65	5.66
Attitude toward the Brand	4.50	4.44
Behavioral Intention	4.53	4.09

achieved by using a product attribute rather than a market standing claim statement for the overall brand image and for three of the four brand attributes. As in the preceding section, the perceived difference in price is not statistically significant, and the rationale previously proposed for explaining this null effect also applies in this case.

Moreover, the market standing claim statement was hypothesized to be better than the product attribute claim statement for developing positive attitudes and behavioral intentions. The results of the tests presented in Table 25 indicate that there are no interaction effects between the covariates (attitude toward the ad and brand loyalty/commitment) and the advertising claim statement factor and that each covariate has a significant effect. The ANCOVA results indicate that the H10c and H10d statistical tests are not significant. Table 26 shows no directionality in the means for attitudes toward the brand. On the other hand, the directionality in the means for the behavioral intention measure suggests that the product attribute claim statement was better than the market standing claim statement.

Effects of Claim Statement on Comparative Advertising Copy Type in Competition Market Environment Context

Tests of Hypotheses 11. What comparative claim statement should market leaders use for competing with challengers? H11a and H11b mention that, again, the product attribute claim statement is better than the market standing claim statement for achieving overall and attribute-based brand differentiations in the market.

The results of the tests clearly show (see Table 27) that both hypotheses are strongly supported. It is interesting to note that, in this case, price differentiation was also achieved. A rationale for this effect may be that since the challenger's advertisement was noncomparative, only the subjects who saw the leader's comparative product attribute advertisement were aware of the difference in prices. The subjects who were shown the comparative market standing advertisement probably inferred that the prices were different (see the treatment means in Table 28) but not as much as the other subjects did.

No differences between the product attribute and market standing claim statements were hypothesized for attitude toward the brand and behavioral intention. The results, summarized in Table 27, show that no tests for heterogeneity of slopes were significant and that the attitudes toward the ad and brand loyalty/commitment covariate effects were also significant. Finally, the test for H11c

Table 27. Hypotheses 11 ANOVA and ANCOVA Results.

Source	df	SS	F Value	Pr > F
H11a: Perceived Leader-Challenger Overall Brand Dissimilarity				
H11a	1,615	33.1992	17.7204	0.0001
H11b: Perceived Leader-Challenger Brand Attribute Dissimilarity				
Frame Tubing	1,610	126.0030	50.1652	0.0001
Brake Set	1,610	146.8280	56.9671	0.0001
Colors	1,610	406.7310	169.7894	0.0001
Available Price	1,610	33.9584	15.0266	0.0001
H11c: Attitude Toward the Brand				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,613	0.2180	0.2000	0.6565
Effect of the Covariate	1,614	307.9931	280.0700	0.0001
H11c	1,614	2.5045	2.2775	0.1318
H11d: Behavioral Intention				
Heterogeneity of Slopes	1,604	1.6984	0.6900	0.4060
Effect of the Covariate	1,605	99.8294	40.6700	0.0001
H11d	1,605	11.6637	4.7517	0.0297

Table 28. Hypotheses 11 Unadjusted and Adjusted
Group Means -- Competition Market
Environment Context.

Advertising Claim Statement		
	Product Attribute Claim Statement	Market Standing Claim Statement
Overall Brand Dissimilarity	4.18	3.26
Attribute-Based Brand Dissimilarity		
Frame Tubing	4.87	3.09
Brake Set	5.13	3.20
Colors Available	6.39	3.18
Price	5.75	4.82
Attitude toward the Brand	4.91	4.66
Behavioral Intention	4.62	4.07

is not, as predicted, statistically significant. However, the H11d statistical test is significant and, contrary to expectations, the product attribute claim statement was better than the market standing claim statement for developing positive behavioral intentions.

Summary

This second series of hypotheses dealt with brand-related responses. Overall, the comparative product attribute claim statement was found to be better than the noncomparative and comparative market standing claim statements for differentiating the leader's brand from the challenger's brand. The same conclusion also applies to attribute-based differentiation: overall, subjects perceived more differences between the two brands following exposure to the comparative product attribute claim statement than to the noncomparative or comparative market standing claim statements.

On the other hand, the results of the affective component are, overall, not significant. The results of the conative component indicate that the product attribute claim statement is somewhat better than the market standing claim statement for developing positive behavioral intentions toward the leader's brand, and this result holds regardless of the advertising copy type.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has reported the results of this study, and many of the hypotheses stated in Chapter 3 were upheld. The following chapter will present and discuss this study's conclusions, contributions, and limitations and will propose guidance for future research in comparative advertising.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the study's conclusions, contributions and limitations. It also offers recommendations for future studies.

CONCLUSIONS

Three issues are of concern to market leaders who want to include comparative advertising in their marketing communication programs: the appropriateness of such copy strategy, the perceived fairness of market leaders who use comparative advertising and attack challengers, and the effectiveness of comparative advertising in communicating information, forming/changing attitudes, and leading behavioral patterns.

The Appropriateness Issue

Two dependent variables, agreement with and attitude toward comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types (exemplars) and the comparative and noncomparative advertisements (prototypes) were used in the investigation of the appropriateness of comparative advertising to market leaders.

The results indicate that agreement with and attitude toward comparative advertising use by market leaders is more favorable in a retaliation market environment context. Similar results were observed for the advertisement measures. Moreover, it was found that noncomparative advertising was rated better than comparative advertising on the agreement and attitude measures in both market environment contexts. This result also applies at the advertisement level.

A conclusion from these results is that consumers would agree more with a market leader's advertising copy strategy if it took a noncomparative approach. However, if a market leader wanted to use comparative advertising it could do so in retaliation market environment context.

The Fairness Issue

Two sets of dependent variables (perception of the advertiser's fairness and attitude toward the advertiser) were used in the assessment of perceived fairness.

The results indicate that, as expected, no leader's market dominance main effects were found significant for either measure. The advertising copy type and leader's market dominance factors interaction effects were, contrary to expectations, not significant.

An interesting conclusion from these series of results is that where fairness is concerned strong market leaders could rely on comparative advertising as much as weak

market leaders could since consumers' perceived fairness and attitudes toward the advertiser would be equivalent.

The Effectiveness Issue

This issue was investigated using three sets of dependent variables: overall and attribute-based brand dissimilarities, attitude toward the brand, and behavioral intention.

It was found that for achieving consumer awareness of both overall and attribute-based brand dissimilarities, the comparative product attribute advertisement was better than the noncomparative market standing and the comparative market standing advertisements. Interestingly, when subjects were asked to rate the informativeness and value of the information in the ad for all treatment advertisements, they rated the comparative product attribute advertisement the best on both accounts. Finally, with regard to the attitude toward the brand, results were, overall, nonsignificant. The results of the conative component indicate that the product attribute claim statement was somewhat better than the market standing claim statement for developing positive behavioral intentions toward the leader's brand, and this result holds regardless of the advertising copy type.

A conclusion from this series of results is that, as far as the cognitive component is concerned, market leaders should use comparative product attribute advertisement

when trying to differentiate in the market place. With regard to the conative component, market leaders should use product attribute claim statements in both comparative and noncomparative advertising copy types. Finally, no general conclusion can be reached concerning the affective component.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

Since the majority of markets are of a monopolistic competition type and consumers have limited spending resources, advertising constitutes a strategic tool in which businesses invest in order to achieve specific market share goals. Thus, it becomes important to capture all advertising possibilities as a business ammunition (see Ries and Trout [1986] for a military vision of marketing).

The present research responds in part to such a call as that made by Stewart et al. (1985) for studying advertising as advertising and not mainly as an application of cognitive psychology. Therefore, the main thrust of the contributions of this research is mostly of interest to practitioners, although there are also some theoretical contributions.

There is much doubt concerning the use of comparative advertising by market leaders (Hisrich, 1983). Ulanoff (1975) says, "outwardly it would appear that comparison advertising offers the leader nothing but problems from

gadfly competitors" (p.40). The author probably meant that market leaders must rely on anything but comparative advertising to defend their market positions.

This study particularly tested whether or not comparative advertising is more effective than noncomparative advertising for market leaders in achieving brand differentiation and developing positive attitudes and behavioral intentions toward their brands. These tests also took into account three levels of leader's market dominance, two types of advertising claim statement, and two market environment contexts.

The results of these tests are of particular interest to advertising agencies handling market leaders' accounts and can also prove useful to marketing strategists in many kinds of business actually contemplating the use of comparative advertising.

Additionally, this study contributes to the enhancement of theoretical knowledge by adding specificity to Swayne, Starling, and Ginter's (1981) contingent theoretical framework. In effect, a new set of empirical rules regarding the use of comparative advertising by market leaders can now be added to their theory. These rules refine the actual theory by specifying in what types of market environment context and with what types of advertising claim statement market leaders of different levels of

market dominance can efficiently use comparative advertising.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The contributions just described should be regarded in light of the conceptual and methodological limitations of this study.

1) This study utilized direct comparative advertising. The challenger's brand name was explicitly named in the treatment advertisements. This limitation is important considering that direct comparative advertising is less frequently used than indirect comparative advertising (Harmon, Razzouk, and Stern, 1983). However, the direct comparative advertising appeal was not found to be systematically inferior to indirect comparative advertising. For example, although Murphy and Amundsen (1981) found direct comparative advertising to have better claim believability and immediate and delayed claim recall, it should be noted that Goodwin and Etgar (1980) found indirect comparative advertising to be superior for cognitive, affective, and conative responses toward the sponsor's brand.

2) The challenger's comparative advertisement employed for setting up the retaliation market environment context used a combinational approach (Muehling and Kangun, 1985), and the leader's comparative and noncomparative

advertisements used a differentiative approach (Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, 1979). The outcome could be different if the market leader were to face a challenger using, for example, a pure differentiative or associative comparative advertising strategy (Droge, 1986).

3) This study used the second ranked brand in the market as the "attacker" of the leader's brand. Respondents' reactions could be different if a third or fourth tier challenging brand were used instead of the best challenging brand (Golden, 1979).

4) The procedure for manipulating the leader's market dominance level factor also limits this study. Respondents were asked to read a businesslike newspaper report on the market dominance the leader enjoyed. However, this procedure only partially replicates feelings respondents can develop in such real market place situations.

5) The artificial creation of the competition and retaliation market environment contexts is another limitation of this study. Again, real competition and retaliation market environment contexts (e.g., the cola war or burger war) could possibly bring different outcomes.

6) Experimental print advertisements were used in this study. Villarreal-Camacho (1983) observed a consumer preference for this medium for comparative advertising. However, Mazis (1976) did not find print media to be better than other types of media, and Lincoln and Samli (1978)

reported that studies using print media seemed to have more significant results than studies using other media. Therefore, the outcomes of this study could be different if, for example, electronic media had been used. Moreover, the treatment advertisements were shown only one time to respondents. Even though Belch (1981) did not find significant results of repetition on attitude and purchase intention, the use of the two-factor theory (Rethans, Swasy, and Marks, 1986) would predict that stronger effect sizes would probably occur with more than one exposure. This study is therefore limited by its level of repetition.

7) Finally, limitations due to specific operationalizations and the setting of the study are identified. For example, the utilization of more culturally-loaded experimental brands (e.g., Coca-Cola, Chevy, Wrangler, Budweiser) would probably have changed the outcomes of this study. Moreover, although Calder et al.'s (1981) conceptual framework permits, and even encourages, the use of students in theory-testing type research, a general population sample would have added to the generalizability of this study's results. For example, the students' states or levels on the questions may not be equivalent to the general population's. Another limitation is the use of a laboratory experiment as the setting of this study. A field experiment would have provided this study with more external validity but would have impaired its internal validity.

However, since the study of the process is the issue of this endeavor, a decision was made to favor internal over external validity.

CURRENT ISSUES AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Comparative advertising constitutes an increasingly important means of communication in the marketing of consumer goods (Koten, 1984; Neiman, 1987) and industrial goods (Swayne and Stevenson, 1987). However, research on its effectiveness has brought mixed evidence. The equivocality in comparative advertising research findings is probably due of conceptual, methodological, and analytical limitations to the studies.

Conceptual Dimension

Overall, researchers should be commended for the large array of stimulus, organism, and response variables that they have used in comparative advertising research. However, some early studies did not make the best use of these variables. They lacked both scope and sophistication (Shimp and Gresham, 1983) and, therefore, suffered conceptual limitations. This is less the case with recent studies in which researchers have developed sound theoretical frameworks.

For example, Gorn and Weinberg (1983) thoughtfully remarked that comparative advertising is usually initiated by challengers that try to place their brands in the same

league as the brand leader in consumer's mind. Their study's results along with Walker, Swasy, and Rethans's (1986) seem to indicate that such an associative strategy can work in the market place.

These researchers appropriately situated comparative advertising use by advertisers and obtained mostly favorable results. Future comparative advertising research should have such observational validity (Zaltman, Pinson, and Angelmar, 1973). For example, researchers should plan on including more characteristics of the communication situation. An example of such characteristics could be the competitive interference between brands.

Moreover, Muehling (1987), based on the attitude-toward-the-ad paradigm's research results, rightfully posited that the subject's affective response to an ad could influence comparative advertising effectiveness. On the other hand, Sujan and Dekleva (1987) properly hypothesized that inference could also play such an intervening role. Future comparative advertising work should include the organism dimension.

Another dimension critical to comparative advertising effectiveness assessment is response set choice. Wilkie and Farris (1974) in their seminal paper proposed that product perception should be investigated by comparative advertising researchers. Droge (1986) used probabilistic multidimensional scaling and observed results favoring

comparative over noncomparative advertising for positioning products. It is proposed that future research use product positioning when studying comparative advertising effects.

Methodological Dimension

Muehling and Kangun (1985) reasoned that the comparative advertising research findings pattern was probably due to idiosyncratic experimental manipulations, methods, construct definitions, and a lack of replications. Moreover, not all studies had samples large enough to capture small effects. Therefore, another factor that led to equivocality in research findings was statistical power.

Future comparative advertising research should make sure that results will not be confounded by inappropriate methodology. Moreover, researchers should carefully determine sample sizes (e.g., Cohen, 1977; O'Brien, 1986) so that inadequate statistical power will not be the prime reason for inconclusive findings.

Analytical Dimension

Researchers proposed that comparative advertising effectiveness was related to sender's, message's, communication situation's, and/or receiver's characteristics. In order to determine the impact of these intervening variables, most used analytical techniques such as analysis of variance (block design) and analysis of covariance. These

techniques, which are effective for determining moderation role of intervening variables, do not appropriately address, however, the possible mediating role of organism dimension.

Future comparative advertising research should invest heavily in questioning recursiveness of effects in the S-O-R conceptual framework. More would then be known about the role of organism as intervening variable between comparative and noncomparative advertising stimuli and response variables.

CONCLUSION

Although this study's results should not be used without consideration of its conceptual and methodological shortcomings, it does provide academicians and practitioners with a better understanding of the comparative advertising phenomenon. For example, strategists working on the development of advertising campaigns have scientific results to help them make decisions about using comparative advertising. In addition, precision is added to Swayne, Starling, and Ginter's (1981) comparative advertising contingency theoretical framework.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aaker, David A., Myers, John G. (1987), Advertising Management, Third Edition, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Abrams, Bill (1982), "Comparative Ads Are Getting More Popular, Harder Hitting," The Wall Street Journal, March 11, 29.

Abramson, Joseph (1977), "Comparative Advertising, Inoculation Theory, and the Prevention of Attitude Change among Brand Loyal Consumers: A Laboratory Experiment," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.

Advertising Age (1975), "Underdog Advertiser Wins in 'Naming Names:BBDO'," Advertising Age, (March 10), 56.

Advertising Age (1976a), "Tannenbaum: Comparative Ads Can Work; Kershaw Says No," May 17, 1, 110.

Advertising Age (1976b), "For and Against Comparative Advertising," July 15, 25-8.

Advertising Age (1980), "Twentieth Century Advertising and the Economy of Abundance," April 30, Part 4.

Alter, Srewart (1986), "Outlook for '87 Ad Growth Repeats '86: Cohen," Advertising Age, December 15, 92.

Ash, Stephen B., Wee, Chow-Hou (1983), "Comparative Advertising: A Review with Implications for Further Research," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 10, 370-6.

Belch, George E. (1980), "An Investigation of the Effects of Advertising Message Structure and Repetition upon Cognitive Processes Mediating Message Acceptance," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.

Belch, George E. (1981), "An Examination of Comparative and Noncomparative Television Commercials: The Effects of Claim Variation and Repetition on Cognitive Response and Message Acceptance," Journal of Marketing Research, 18, (August), 333-49.

Belch, George E., Lutz, Richard J. (1982), "A Multiple Exposure Study of the Effects of Comparative and Noncomparative Television Commercials on Cognitive Response, Recall, and Message Acceptance," working paper, Marketing Science Institute.

Boddewyn, Jean J., Marton, Katherin (1978), "Comparison Advertising and Consumers," Journal of Contemporary Business, 7, 4, 135-47.

Boddewyn, Jean J., Marton, Katheryn (1978a), Comparison Advertising: A Worldwide Study, New York: Hastiggs House Publishers.

Brown, Stephen W., Jackson, Donald W. (1977), "Comparative Television Advertising: Examining its Nature and Frequency," Journal of Advertising, 6, (Fall), 15-8.

Buchanan, Bruce (1985), "Can You Pass the Comparative Ad Challenge," Harvard Business Review, (July-August), 106-13.

Byer, William J., Cooke, Ernest F. (1985), "Comparative Advertising's Dilemma: How to Attack the Competition without Allienating his Customer," The Journal of Consumer Marketing, Vol. 2, No. 3, (Summer), 67-71.

Cacioppo, John T., Petty, Richard E., Morris R. (1983), "Effects of Need for Cognition on Message Evaluation, Recall, and Persuasion," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45, 805-818.

Calder, Bobby J., Phillips, Lynn W., Tybout, Alice M. (1981), "Designing Research for Application," Journal of Consumer Research, Vol 8, (September), 197-207.

Calder, Bobby J., Phillips Lynn W., Tybout, Alice M. (1982), "The Concept of External Validity," Journal of Consumer Research, 9, (December), 240-4.

Calder, Boby J., Phillips, Lynn W., Tybout, Alice M. (1983), "Beyond External Validity," Journal of Consumer Reserach, 10, (June), 112-4.

Churchill, Gilbert A. Jr. (1979), "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," Journal Of Marketing Research , Vol XVI (February), pp. 64-73.

Cohen, Jacob (1977), Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences, Revised Edition, New York: Academic Press.

Colbert, Evelyn S. (1948), Retaliation in International Law, New York: King's Crown Press.

Connor, Michael J. (1973), "Carte-Blanche - Good as American Express Is, Isn't Enough," The Wall Street Journal, December 26, 1.

Cooper, Ann (1984), "Battle of the Burgers," Marketing, (February, 16), pp. 32-34.

Copeland, Melvin T. (1924), Principle of Merchandising, New York: McGraw-Hill Book, Inc.

Demirdjian, Zohrab S. (1978), "Comparative VS. Conventional Advertising: A Study of the Differential Effects of Two Promotional Strategies on Attitude and Purchase," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.

Demirdjian, Zohrab S. (1983), "Sales Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising: An Experimental Field Investigation," Journal of Consumer Research, 10, (December), 362-4.

Demirdjian, Zohrab S. (1986), "Attitudinal and Behavioral Response to Comparative Advertising: An Experimental Field Analysis," Proceedings, Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 9, 288-92.

Droge, Cornelia (1986), "An Experimental Investigation of the Differential Effectiveness of Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising," unpublished doctoral dissertation, McGill University.

Droge, Cornelia, Darmon, Rene Y. (1987), "Associative Positioning Strategies through Comparative Advertising: Attribute versus Overall Similarity Approaches," Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 24, (November), 377-389.

Dyer, David C. (1977), "A Laboratory Test of the Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kent State University.

Earl, Ronald Lynn (1978), "An Experimental Investigation of the Effects of Advertisement Structure, Message Sidedness, and Test Results of Selected Communication Variables," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University.

Earl, Ronald L., Fride, William M. (1980), "The Effects of Advertisement Structure, Message Sidedness, and Performance Test Results on Print Advertisement Informativeness," Journal of Advertising, 9, 3, 36-46.

Engel, James F., Blackwell, Roger, D., Miniard, Paul W. (1986), Consumer Behavior, Chicago: Dryden Press.

Engel, James J., Kollat, Donald T., Blackwell, Roger D., (1968), Consumer Behavior, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Eroglu, Sevgin (1987), "The Scenario Approach: A Theoretical, Not Theatrical, Perspective," Working Paper, Michigan State University.

Etgar, Michael, Goodwin, Stephen A. (1978), "Comparative Advertising: Issues and Problems," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol 5, 63-71.

Etgar, Michael, Goodwin, Stephen A. (1982), "One-Sided versus Two-Sided Comparative Message Appeals for New Brand Introductions," Journal of Consumer Research, 8, (March), 460-5.

Ferber, Robert (1977), "Research by Convenience," Journal of Consumer Research, 4, (June), 57-8.

Fishbein, Martin, Ajzen, Icek (1975), Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research, Reading: Addison-Wesley.

FTC News (1979), Washington D.C.: Federal Trade Commission, July 27.

Ginter, Peter M., Starling, Jack M. (1979), "A Twofold Analysis of Comparative Advertising," Akron Business & Economic Review, 10, 1, 12-18, 28.

Golden, Linda L. (1975), "Consumer Reactions to Comparative Advertising," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol.3, 63-7.

Golden, Linda (1979), "Consumer Reactions to Explicit Comparisons in Advertisements," Journal of Marketing Research, 16, (November), 517-32.

Goodwin, Stephen, Etgar, Michael (1980), "An Experimental Investigation of Comparative Advertising: Impact of Message Appeal, Information Load, and Utility of Product Class," Journal of Marketing Research, 11, (May), 63-9.

Gorn, Gerald J., Weinberg, Charles B. (1983), "Comparative Advertising: Some Positive Results," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 10, 377-80.

Gorn, Gerald J., Weinberg, Charles B. (1984), " The Impact of Comparative Advertising on Perception and Attitude: Some Positive Findings," Journal of Consumer Research, 11, (September), 719-29.

Green, Paul E., Tull, Donald S. (1978), Research for Marketing Decisions, Fourth Edition, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Grossbart, Sanford, Muehling, Darrel D., Kangun, Norman (1986), "Verbal and Visual References to Competition in Comparative Advertising," Journal of Advertising, 15, 1, 10-23.

Hackleman, Edwin C., Jain, Subbash C. (1978), "An Experimental Analysis of Attitudes Toward Comparison and Non-Comparison Advertising," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol 7, 90-94.

Harmon, Robert R., Razzouk , Nabil Y., Stern, Bruce L. (1983), "The Information Content of Comparative Advertising," Journal of Advertising, 12, 4, 10-9.

Hisrich, Robert D. (1983), "Executive Advertisers' Views of Comparison Advertising," Sloan Management Review, 25, 1, 39-50.

Holmes, John H., Holley, Brian E. (1986), "The Relative Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising and Product Benefit Advertising for Top Ranked Brands," Proceedings, American Academy of Advertising, R85-R90.

Hovland, Carl I., Janis, Irving L., Kelly, Harold H. (1953), Communication and Persuasion, New Haven: Yale University Press.

Howard, John, A. Sheth, Jagdish N. (1969), The Theory of Buyer Behavior, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Hume, Scott, Serafin, Ray (1986), "Beer Marketers Barreling toward Market Share Fight," Advertising Age, January 20, 4, 66-7.

Jain, Subbash C., Hackleman, Edwin C. (1978), "How Effective is Comparison Advertising for Stimulating Recall," Journal of Advertising, (Summer), 20-5.

James, William L. (1981), "The Impact of Market Position on the Effectiveness of Comparative Ads: A Laboratory Experiment," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University.

James, Lawrence R., Brett, Jeanne M. (1984), "Mediators, Moderators, and Test for Mediation," Journal of Applied Psychology, 69, 2, 307-21.

Johnson, Ronald Dale (1981), "The Relationship of Jungian Psychological Trait and the Effects of Comparative Advertising," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas Tech University.

Johnson, Michael D., Horne, David A. (1987), "Subject/Referent Positioning in Comparative Advertising: A Pilot Study," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 14, 164-7.

Kangun, Norman, Muehling, Darrel D., Grossbart, Sanford L. (1984), "An Investigation of the Cognitive Effects of Alternative References to Competition in Comparative Advertising: Implications for the F.T.C.," Proceedings, AMA Educators' Conference, Series No. 50, 314-8.

Koten, John (1984), "More Firms File Challenge to Rivals' Comparative Ads," The Wall Street Journal, January 12, 27.

Lacasse, Michael (1987), "Bikes are Back, and on a Roll," USA Today, October 8, p. 1.

Lamb, Charles W., Stem, Donald E. (1980), "An Evaluation of Students as Surrogates in Marketing Studies," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 7, 796-9.

Lamb, Charles W., Pletcher, Barbara A., Pride William M. (1979), "Print Readres' Perceptions of Various Advertising Formats," Journalism Quarterly, 56, 328-35.

Lamb, Charles W., Pride, William M., Pletcher, Barbara A. (1979), "Should Competing Brand Be Illustrated in a Comparative Advertisement?," Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 6, 3, 176-86.

Laswell, Harrold D. (1948), "The Structure and Function of Communication in Society," The Communication of Idea, Ed. Lyman Bryson, New York: Institute for Religious and Social Sciences Studies.

Lavidge, Robert J., Steiner, Gary A. (1961), "A Model for Predictive Measurement of Advertising Effectiveness", Journal of Marketing, 25 (October), 59-62.

Levine, Philip (1976), "Commercials That Name Competing Brands," Journal of Advertising Research, (December), 7-14.

Levy, Sidney J. (1983), "How Comparative is Comparative Advertising?," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 10, 381-2

Lincoln, Douglas J. (1978), "The Effects of Comparative Advertising on the Department Store Image: An Experimental Analysis," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Lincoln, Douglas J., Samli, A. Coskun (1979), "Empirical Evidence of Comparative Advertising Effects: A Review and Synthesis," Proceedings, AMA Educators' Conference, Series No. 44, 367-72.

Lynch, John G. Jr. (1982), "On the External Validity of Experiments in Consumer Research," Journal of Consumer Research, 9, (December), 225-39.

Lynch, John G. Jr. (1983), "The Role of External Validity in Theoretical Research," Journal of Consumer Research, 10, (June), 109-11.

Mackenzie, Scott B., Lutz, Richard J., Belch, George E. (1986), "The Role of Attitude Toward the Ad as a Mediator of Advertising Effectiveness: A Test of Competing Explanations," Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 23, 130-143.

Maxwell, J.C. Jr. (1987), "Pet Foods Collar Modest Gains," Advertising Age, October 5, p. 40.

Mazis, Michael B. (1976), "A Theoretical and Empirical Examination of Comparative Advertising," working paper, College of Business Administration, University of Florida, Gainesville.

McDougall, Gordon G. H. (1976), "Comparative Advertising: An Empirical Investigation of its Role in Consumer Information," Working Paper #167, School of Business Administration, University of Western Ontario.

McDougall, Gordon G. H. (1977), "Comparative Advertising: Consumer Issues and Attitudes," Proceedings, AMA Educators' Conference, Series No. 41, 286-291.

McDougall, Gordon G. H. (1978), "Comparative Advertising: The Effect of Claim Type and Brand Loyalty," Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 39-52.

McGrath, Joseph E., Brinberg, David (1983), "External Validity and the Research Process: A Comment on the Calder/Lynch Dialogue," Journal of Consumer Research, 10, (June), 115-24.

Meyerowitz, Steven A. (1985), "The Developing Law of Comparative Advertising," Business Marketing, (August), 81-6.

Mornier, Aimee L. (1978), "It Pays to Knock Your Competitor," Fortune, February 13, 104-11.

Muehling, Darrel D. (1985), "The Moderating Effect of Message-Response Involvement on the Processing of Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising," unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Nebraska - Lincoln.

Muehling, Darrel D. (1987), "Comparative Advertising: The Influence of Attitude-toward-the-Ad on Brand Evaluation," Journal of Advertising, Vol. 16, No. 4, 43-49.

Muehling, Darrel D., Kangun, Norman (1985), "The Multi-Dimensionality of Comparative Advertising: Implications for the Federal Trade Commission," Journal of Public Policy and Marketing, 4, 112-28.

Murphy, John H., Amundsen, Mary S. (1981), "The Communications-Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising for a New Brand on Users of the Dominant Brand," Journal of Advertising, 10, 1, 14-20, 48.

Murphy, John H., Wilcox, Gary B., Hardy, Andrew P. (1985), "The Effects of Tiome-Compression on the Performance of Comparative and Non-Comparative Television Commercials (Abstract)," Proceedings, AMA Educators' Conference, Series No. 51, 49.

Neiman, Janet (1987), "The Trouble with Comparative Ads," AdWeek, January 12, BR4-BR5.

Nelson, Philip (1974), "Advertising and Information," Journal of Political Economy, 82, (July-August), 729-54.

Nunnally, Jum C. (1978), Psychometric Theory, (Second Edition), (New York: McGraw-Hill).

O'Brien, Ralph G. (1986), "Power Analysis for Linear Models," Proceedings, Eleventh Annual SAS Users Group International Conference, Cary, NC: SAS Institute, Inc., 915-922.

O'Connor, P. J. (1986), "The Information Value of Comparative Advertising Mediating Purchase Intention," Proceedings, AMA Educators' Conference, Series No. 52, 23-7.

Ogilvy and Mather (1975), "The Effects of Comparative Advertising that Names Competing Brand," unpublished research report.

Ogilvy and Mather (1977a), "An Investigation into the Effects of Comparative Print Advertising that Names Competing Brands," unpublished research report.

Ogilvy and Mather (1977b), "A Further Investigation into the Effects of Comparative Television Advertising that Names Competing Brands," unpublished research report.

Ohanian, Roobina (1981), "Application of Primacy-Recency in Comparative Advertising," unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin.

O'Shaughnessy, John (1984), Competitive Marketing: A Strategic Approach, George Allen and Bacon.

Percy, Larry, Rossiter, John R. (1980), Advertising Strategy: A Communication Theory Approach, New York: Praeger Publishers.

Perdue, Barbara C., Summers, John O. (1986), "Checking the Success of Manipulations in Marketing Experiments," Journal of Marketing Research, 23, (November), 317-26.

Petty, Richard E., Cacioppo, John T., Schumann, David (1983), "Central and Peripheral Routes to Advertising Effectiveness: The Moderating Role of Involvement," Journal of Consumer Research, 10, 134-148.

Porter, Michael E. (1980), Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competitors, New York: The Free Press.

Porter, Michael E. (1985), Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance, New York: The Free Press.

Posch, Robert (1986), "Comparative Advertising," Direct Marketing, (September), 122-5.

Prasad, V. Kanti (1976), "Communication-Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising: A Laboratory Analysis," Journal of Marketing Research, 13, (May), 128-37.

Pride, William M., Lamb, Charles W., Pletcher, Barbara A. (1977), "The Informativeness of Comparative Advertisements: An Empirical Investigation," Journal of Advertising, 8, 2, 29-35, 48.

Pride, William M., Lamb, Charles W., Pletcher, Barbara A. (1979), "Are Comparative Advertisements More Informative for Owners of the Mentioned Competing Brands than for Nonowners?," Proceedings, AMA Educators' Conference, Series No. 42, 298-301.

Rethans, Arno J., Swasy, John L., Marks, Lawrence J. (1986), "Effects of Television Commercial Repetition, Receiver Knowledge, and Commercial Length: A Test of the Two-Factor Model," Journal of Marketing Research, 23, (February), 50-61.

Ries, Al, Trout, Jack (1986), Marketing Warfare, New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Roget's II (1980), The New Thesaurus, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 781.

Rossiter, John R., Percy, Larry (1980), "Attitude Change Through Visual Imagery in Advertising," Journal of Advertising, 9, 2, 10-6.

Russo, J. Edward (1974), "More Information is Better: A Re-Evaluation of Jacoby, Speller, and Kahn," Journal of Consumer Research, 4, 1, 68-72.

Scammon, Debra (1978), "Comparative Advertising: A Reexamination of the Issues," The Journal of Consumer Affairs, 12, 2, 381-92.

Sellars, Ronald K. (1978), "A Study of the Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising for Selected Household Appliance," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.

Sheluga, David A., Jacoby, Jacob (1978), "Do Comparative Claims Encourage Comparison Shopping?," Current Issues and Research in Advertising, 23-37.

Shimp, Terence A. (1975), "Comparison Advertising in National Television Commercials: A Content Analysis" Paper Presented to the Fall Conference of the American Marketing Association, Rochester, N.Y. (August).

Shimp Terrence A. (1978), "Do Incomplete Comparisons Mislead?," Journal of Advertising Research, 18, 6, 21-7.

Shimp, Terence A., Dyer, David C. (1978), "The Effects of Comparative Advertising Mediated by Market Position of Sponsoring Brand," Journal of Advertising, (Summer), 13-9.

Shimp, Terence A., Gresham, Larry G. (1983), 'An Information Processing Perspective on Recent Advertising Literature," Current Issues and Research in Advertising, 39-75.

Smith, Mary John (1982), Persuasion and Human Action, Belmont California: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Speck, Paul S. (1987), "Humor Effects: The Importance of Humor Types and Message Types," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Texas Tech University.

Spencer, C.D. (1978), "Two Types of Role Playing: Threats to Internal and External Validity," American Psychologist, (March), 265-268.

Stack, Robert Thomas (1978), "Comparative Advertising: A Determination of Effects," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University.

Stevenson, Thomas H., Swayne, Linda E. (1980), "Comparative Industrial Advertising: The Content and Frequency," Industrial Marketing Management, 13, 2, 133-8.

Stewart, David W., Pechmann, Connie, Srinivasan, Ratneshwar, Stroud, Jon, Bryant, Beverly (1985), "Methodological and Theoretical Foundations of Advertising Copytesting: A Review," Current Issues and Research in Advertising, Vol. 2, 1-74.

Stutts, Mary Ann (1982), "Comparative Advertising and Counterargument," Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 10, 3, 302-313.

Sujan, Mita, Dekleva, Christine (1987), "Product Categorization and Inference Making: Some Implications for Comparative Advertising," Journal of Consumer Research, Vol. 14, (December), 372-378.

Swayne, Linda E. (1978), "Comparative Advertising as Corporate Strategy: An Investigation of Key United States Industries, unpublished doctoral dissertation, North Texas State University.

Swayne, Linda E., Starling, Jack M. (1978), "What Ever Happened to Brand "X"?," Business, August, 22-28.

Swayne, Linda E., Starling, Jack M., Ginter, Peter M. (1981), "Toward a Contingency Theory of Comparative Advertising: A Guide for Advertising Strategy," Akron Business & Economic Review, 12, 2, 29-35.

Swayne, Linda E., Stevenson, Thomas H. (1987), "Comparative Advertising in Horizontal Business Publications," Industrial Marketing Management, 16 (February), 71-6.

Swinyard, William R. (1981), "The Interaction Between Comparative Advertising and Copy Claims Variation," Journal of Marketing Research, 18, (May), 175-86.

Tashchian, Roobina O., Slama, Mark E. (1984), "Involvement and the Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising," Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 80-92.

Townley, Rod (1982), "No Hitting Below the (Money) Belt," TV Guide, August 7, 18-20.

Traylor, Mark B. (1980), "The Communications Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising under Conditions of Product Involvement and Brand Usage," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University.

Tversky, A. (1977), "Features of Similarity," Psychological Review, 84, 4, 327-52.

Ulanoff, Stanley M. (1975), "Comparison Advertising: An Historical Retrospective," working paper, Marketing Science Institute.

U.S. Industrial Outlook (1987), U.S. Department of Commerce, (January), 46-5.

Villareal-Camacho, Maria A. (1983), "Comparative Advertising: A Communication Strategy for Positioning Products," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburg.

Villarreal-Camacho, Maria A. (1985), "Effects of Product Class Knowledge on the Evaluation of Comparative Versus Noncomparative Messages," Proceedings, Association for Consumers Research, Vol. 12, pp. 504-509.

Walker, Beth A., Swasy, John L., Rethans, Arno J. (1986), "The Impact of Comparative Advertising on Perception Formation in New Product Introduction," Proceedings, Association for Consumer Research, Vol. 13, 121-25.

- Warr, Hollis Jefferson (1982), "Local Comparative Advertising: An Experiment," unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
- Weir, Ronald Lee (1977), "The Misidentification Problem: An Exploratory Study of the Relative Communication Effectiveness of Selected Comparative and Noncomparative Television Commercials among Cable Television Subscribers in Washington County, Tennessee," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Mississippi State University.
- Wilkes, Robert E. (1977), "Product Positioning by Multidimensional Scaling," Journal of Advertising Research, 17, 4, 15-9.
- Wilkie, William L., Farris, Paul (1974), "Comparison Advertising: Issues and Prospects," working paper, Marketing Science Institute.
- Williams, Keith C. (1981), Behavioural Aspect of Marketing, London: William Heinemann, Ltd.
- Wilson, R. Dale (1976), "An Empirical Evaluation of Comparative Advertising Messages: Subjects' Responses on Perceptual Dimensions," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 3, 53-7.
- Wilson, R. Dale (1978), "Comparative Advertising: Some Current Considerations for Managerial Planning and Strategy," Current Issues and Research in Advertising, 5-22.
- Wilson, R. Dale, Muderrisoglu, Aydin (1979a), "An Analysis of Cognitive Responses to Comparative Advertising," Proceedings, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 7, 566-71.
- Wilson, R. Dale, Muderrisoglu, Aydin (1979b), "Strength of Claims in Comparative Advertising: A Study of Competitive Vigor," Proceedings, AMA Educators' Conference, Series No. 44, 361-6.
- Wines, Leslie (1985), "Name Calling," Madison Avenue, (April), 54-61.
- Wright, Peter L. (1973), "The Cognitive Processes Mediating Acceptance of Advertising," Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 10, (February) 53-67.
- Zaltman, Gerald, Pinson, Christian R. A., Angelmar, Reinhard (1973), Metatheory and Consumer Research, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Zillmann, Dolf (1983), "Disparagement Humor," in Handbook of Humor Research, Vol. 1, Paul E. McGhee and Jeffrey H. Goldstein, eds., New York: Springer-Verlag, 85-108.

Zillmann, Dolf and Joanne R. Cantor (1976), "A Disposition Theory of Humour and Mirth." in Humour and Laughter: Theory Research and Application, Antony J. Chapman and Hugh C. Foot, eds. London: John Wiley & Sons, 93-116.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

A Survey of Comparative Advertising Definitions

X

Wilkie and Farris (1975):

"comparison advertising is defined as advertising that:

1. Compares two or more specifically named or recognizably presented brands of the same generic product or service class, and
2. Makes such a comparison in terms of one or more specific product or service attributes" (p. 7).

Schnabel (1974, 1975):

the main distinguishing feature of comparative advertising is the "advertising (of) the negative features of rival products" (p. 13).

Barry and Tremblay (1975):

"comparative advertising is defined as: A creative strategy where the advertised brand is explicitly compared with one or more competing brands and the comparison is obvious to the audience" (p. 15).

Shimp (1975):

the main distinguishing feature of comparative advertising is the fact that a comparison is made, either along specifically designated, vaguely designated or undesignated attributes, and with the comparison object being either another version of the advertiser's brand or one or more specifically designated, vaguely designated or underdesignated competitors.

Golden (1976):

"comparative advertising may be defined as any form of paid promotion which:

1. Compares the advertised brand to one or more specifically named or recognizably referred to brands within its generic product class;
2. with respect to one or more specific and/or overall product characteristics" (p. 63).

McDougall (1976):

"any advertisement that compares implicitly or explicitly two or more products and states or implies that information has been obtained or a test has been conducted on a comparative basis, or that states or implies a particular market standing in relation to other similar products, whether the products are named or not, shall be deemed comparative" (p. 286).

Wilson (1978):

"A comparative (or "comparison") advertisement:
1. explicitly names or identifies or implicitly identifies one or more brands of the same generic product/service class, and
2. makes a comparison between the sponsoring brand and the other identified brands in terms of specific attributes, vague attributes, or overall product attributes" (p. 7).

Boddewyn and Marton (1978):

"The truly comparative advertisement is usually defined in terms of three features:

. Two or more specifically named or recognizably demonstrated brands of a product or service category are compared.

. The comparison is based on one or more attributes of the good or service (eg. tar and nicotine contents of cigarettes).

. It is either stated, implied or demonstrated that factual information (based on in-house research or obtained from independent sources) provides a basis for the comparative claims. These criteria distinguish it from indirect comparisons" (p. 135).

Lamb, Pride and Pletcher (1978) distinguished non-comparative ads from three types of comparative ads:

1. A low intensity comparative ad "does not identify the competing brand(s) by name but does refer to it in other ways such as "the leading brand" or "major competitor"" (p. 44);

2. A moderate intensity ad "is one in which the competing brand(s) is identified by name, but there is not a point-by-point comparison of the sponsored and competing brand(s)" (p. 44);

3. In a high intensity ad "the competing brand(s) is identified, and the sponsored brand and the competing brand(s) are compared on a point-by-point basis" (p. 45).

Goodwin and Etgar (1980):

imply that indirect comparative ads are not true comparative ads when they state that "researchers...should consider two alternative message modes, a supportive ad (wherein only the promoted brand is described) and a brand X ad, and should compare the performance of the comparative mode with that of the other two" (p. 188).

Source: Droge, Cornelia (1986), "An Experimental Investigation of the Differential Effectiveness of Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising," unpublished doctoral dissertation, McGill University.

APPENDIX B
Pretest Questionnaire

Please read and answer each question completely. There are no right or wrong answers. All responses will be held confidential.

1. How many bicycles have you owned in your lifetime?
____None ____One ____Two ____Three ____Four or more
2. Do you **now** own a bicycle?
____No (Go to question 7)
____Yes (Go to question 3)
3. What type is it? (If you own more than one type , please indicate type you like most.)
____ATB (All-terrain bike)
____City bike ("one, three, and five-speed")
____Racing bike
____Sports/Touring bike ("ten-speed")
____Tandem
4. What brand is it? _____
(If you own more than one brand, please write in name of brand you like most.)
5. How satisfied are you with this brand?
Not at all _____ Very
Satisfied :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Satisfied
6. How frequently do you ride your bicycle?
____Never ____Very seldom ____Seldom ____Often ____Very often
(Go to Question 10)
7. What is the likelihood you will buy a bicycle **within the next few months?**
Very _____ Very
Unlikely :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Likely

8. What is the likelihood you will buy a bicycle **whithin** the next year?

Very Unlikely :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very Likely

9. If you were to buy a bicycle, what type and brand would you buy?

TYPE

BRAND

___ ATB (All-terrain bike)	_____
___ City bike ("one, three, and five-speed")	_____
___ Racing bike	_____
___ Sports/Touring bike ("Ten-speed")	_____
___ Tandem	_____

10. How committed do you consider yourself to be to this **type** of bicycle?

Not at all Committed :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very Committed

11. How loyal do you consider yourself to be to this **brand** of bicycle?

Not at all Loyal :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very Loyal

12. How knowledgeable about bicycles do you consider yourself to be?
(Place a " " in a space on each of the three scales below that best represents your knowledge about bicycles. Be sure to answer all three items.)

Know very little about them :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Know very much about them

Consider myself a novice :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Consider myself an expert

Consider myself informed :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Consider myself informed

13. In the space provided below, write down all the brands of bicycles you are aware of.

14. Indicate your general feelings about bicycles by responding to the following statements. Please try to answer in terms of all bicycles rather than any particular brand. Place a " " along scale to indicate your response.

Strongly Disagree Neither Strongly Agree

I definitively have a "wanting" for this product. : ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____:

If evaluating brands in this product class, I would examine a very long list of features. : ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____:

I have a preference for one or more brand in this product class. : ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____:

This is a product I could talk about for a long time. : ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____:

Most of the brands in this product class are all alike. : ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____:

I am not at all familiar with this product. : ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____:

This is a product that interests me. : ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____:

I understand the features well enough to evaluate the brands.: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____:

15. What company do you think is the market leader in the bicycle market?

16. Please indicate on the scale below the level of market dominance this leading company has in the bicycle market?

Weak Moderate Strong
Dominance Dominance Dominance

: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____:

17. When you think of bicycles, what are the features (e.g., price,...) that come to mind? Please write them down in the space provided below (use the back of this sheet if necessary).
18. Below are possible brand names for a new Sports/Touring Bike ("Ten-speed") to be introduced soon in the United States market. Please indicate the extent to which you like/dislike each of these brand names.

	Like	Neither like nor dislike	Dislike
Rapido	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Albatron	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
PS 22	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Cyber	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Alva	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Leader	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Unitech	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Maxon	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
6000	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Maxium	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Pacer	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Challenger	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Tasco	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Dynatron	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Tempest	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		
Albatross	: _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ :		

Catalina	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
GT 12	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Knox	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Speedo	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Uno	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Karbon	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Bigo	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:

19. Below are some bicycle manufacturer names. Please indicate which manufacturer is the first most important, the second most important, and third important in the United States market.

☐ Huffy
☐ Murray
☐ Raleigh
☐ Schwinn
☐ Peugeot
☐ Other: _____

20. To what extent do you think the first most important bicycle manufacturer "controls" the United States bicycle market?

Does not
 control : _____ Extensively
 : _____ controls

APPENDIX C

Leader's Market Dominance Excerpts

(Excerpt from "The Wall Street Journal," October 8, 1987 p.1)

BUSINESS BULLETIN

A Special Background Report
on Trends in Industry and Finance

10-Speed Bicycle Market: Schwinn's lead weak.

-- Raleigh's close runner-up.

The Bicycle Manufacturers Association reports a 5% gain in unit shipments to the U.S. market as of September 1987. The 10-speed bike accounted for a substantial amount of that upswing in demand. Schwinn Bicycle Co., with a 24% market share, weakly leads this important product market. Raleigh Cycle Co., of Kent, WA, which claims a 21% share, is a close runner-up. The imports along with some regional manufacturers have a significant stake in the market.

-- Jeffrey A. Tannenbaum

(Excerpt from "The Wall Street Journal," October 8, 1987 p.1)

BUSINESS BULLETIN

A Special Background Report
on Trends in Industry and Finance

10-Speed Bicycle Market:
Schwinn's lead moderate.
-- Raleigh's runner-up.

The Bicycle Manufacturers Association reports a 5% gain in unit shipments to the U.S. market as of September 1987. The 10-speed bike accounted for a substantial amount of that upswing in demand. Schwinn Bicycle Co., with a 45% market share, moderately leads this important product market. Raleigh Cycle Co., of Kent, WA, which claims a 24% share, is the runner-up. The imports along with a handful of small regional manufacturers have a modest stake in the market.

-- Jeffrey A. Tannenbaum

(Excerpt from "The Wall Street Journal," October 8, 1987 p.1)

BUSINESS BULLETIN

A Special Background Report
on Trends in Industry and Finance

10-Speed Bicycle Market: Schwinn's lead strong.

-- Raleigh trails far behind.

The Bicycle Manufacturers Association reports a 5% gain in unit shipments to the U.S. market as of September 1987. The 10-speed bike accounted for a substantial amount of that upswing in demand. Schwinn Bicycle Co., with a 62% market share, strongly leads this important product market. Raleigh Cycle Co., of Kent, WA, second in the market with a 12% share, trails far behind. The imports, hurt by a lowered dollar, along with a handful of very small regional manufacturers, have a small stake in the market.

-- Jeffrey A. Tannenbaum

APPENDIX D

Questionnaire

The following questionnaire is one of two versions administered to respondents. The only difference between the two versions is that in Part B (Q. 12 and Q. 13) the order of Raleigh and Schwinn brand names were reversed in order to eliminate a possible order effect.

QUESTIONNAIRE

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE

BRIEFING

This experiment concerns advertising. As a participant, you will be asked:

- 1) to read one short excerpt from **The Wall Street Journal**,
- 2) to view a series of advertisements, and
- 3) to answer a series of questions.

Most of the questions are not of a personal nature. Your name and social security number are not required. **Your answers are therefore strictly confidential.**

You will complete this experiment together with several other students. **Please refrain from communicating with other students until the experiment is completely over.**

After the experiment is over, and in the days to come, you are asked not to discuss it with other students. Other students may serve as experimental subjects at a later date; your comments could influence their responses.

Again, thank you for participating.

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

Questionnaire ID. _____

INTRODUCTION

I am interested in obtaining your responses to various materials. This questionnaire is an instrument for gathering this type of information. **Please answer each of the questions as honestly as you can. There are no right or wrong answers.** In most instances, the thoughts that come to mind first should be written down or checked first.

Please follow the instructions throughout the questionnaire and raise your hand if there is any problem. Please do not leave unanswered questions, and do not go back to a previous page and change your answers. Finally, please do the pages in order.

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

PART A

- 1- Do you own a bicycle?
 ____ No (Go to question 8)
 ____ Yes (Go to question 2)
- 2- What type is it? (If you presently own more than one bicycle, please indicate only the type you like the most)
 ____ City bike (1, 3, and 5 speed bikes with straight handle bars)
 ____ Competition bike (ultra light type bike for racing and triathlon type competitions)
 ____ Mountain bike (also called "All-terrain bike [ATB]" or "Dirt bike")
 ____ 10-speed bike (10 speed bikes with drop handle bars - also called "sports bike" or "touring bike")
 ____ Other (Specify): _____
- 3- What brand is it? (If you own more than one brand, please write in the name of the brand you like the most)

- 4- How satisfied are you with this brand?
 (Place an "X" in a space on the scale below which best represents your satisfaction with the brand.)
- Not at all _____ Extremely
 Satisfied : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : Satisfied
- 5- How loyal do you consider yourself to be to this brand of bicycle?
 (Place an "X" in a space on the scale below which best represents your loyalty to the brand.)
- Not at all _____ Extremely
 Loyal : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : Loyal

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

6- How often do you ride your bicycle?

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Very seldom (once or twice a year)
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very often (Every few days)
- ☐ Daily

7- If you were to buy a bicycle today, what brand of bike would you be most likely to buy?

_____ (Go To Question 11)

8- What is the likelihood you will buy a bicycle within the next year?

Very Unlikely : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : Very Likely

9- If you were to buy a bicycle today:

A) What type of bike would you be most likely to buy?

- ☐ City bike (1, 3, and 5 speed bikes with straight handle bars)
- ☐ Competition bike (ultra light type bike for racing and triathlon type competitions)
- ☐ Mountain bike (also called "All-terrain bike [ATB]" or "Dirt bike")
- ☐ 10-speed bike (10 speed bikes with drop handle bars - also called "sports bike" or "touring bike")
- ☐ Other (Specify): _____

B) What brand of bike would you be most likely to buy?

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

- 10- How committed do you consider yourself to be to this brand of bicycle?

Not at all
Committed :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Extremely
Committed

- 11- In the space provided below, write down all the brands of bicycles you are aware of.

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

R E M E M B E R

Please:

- * READ AND FOLLOW THE INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY. *
- * DO THE PAGES IN ORDER. *
- * DO NOT GO BACK TO A PREVIOUS PAGE AND CHANGE YOUR ANSWERS. *
- * ANSWER EVERY QUESTION ON EVERY PAGE. *

Thank you!

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

PART B

- 12- Please place an "X" to reflect how you feel about each of the following manufacturers' bikes.

	BAD	GOOD
Peugeot	:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:	
Schwinn	:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:	
Ross	:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:	
Huffy	:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:	
Trex	:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:	
Raleigh	:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:	
Miyata	:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:	

- 13- Indicate your general feelings about bicycles by responding to the following statements. **Please try to answer in terms of all bicycles rather than any particular brand.**

A) I rate this product as being of the highest importance to me personally.

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

B) This is a product I could talk about for a long while.

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

C) I am not at all familiar with this product.

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

D) This is a product that interests me.

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

14- What is your present attitude toward these manufacturers' bikes?

A) Meral

Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

B) Finelli

Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

C) Motokov

Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

D) Redline

Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

E) Norco

Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

F) Mikado

Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

G) Velo Sport

Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

H) Rapido

Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

I) Murray

Not Very
Likeable : __:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

J) Schwinn

Not Very
Likeable : __:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

K) BMX

Not Very
Likeable : __:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

L) Specialized

Not Very
Likeable : __:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

M) Raleigh

Not Very
Likeable : __:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

N) Nishiki

Not Very
Likeable : __:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

STOP HERE

DO NOT TURN THE PAGE

SET YOUR PEN DOWN AND WAIT FOR INSTRUCTIONS

INSTRUCTIONS

YOU WILL FIND A BLUE BOOKLET IN THE ENVELOPE. HOWEVER, WAIT FOR INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE REMOVING IT. HERE IS WHAT YOU WILL HAVE TO DO WITH IT:

- 1) YOU ARE ASKED TO READ THE
SHORT NEWSPAPER EXCERPT;
- 2) PLEASE READ THE ADVERTISEMENTS.
THE FIRST ONE IN THE SEQUENCE
MUST BE READ FIRST. THEN GO ON
TO THE SECOND ONE.

YOU WILL HAVE UP TO THREE MINUTES FOR THIS COMPLETE PROCEDURE. DON'T WORRY, THAT'S PLENTY OF TIME. WHEN YOU ARE FINISHED WITH THE BLUE BOOKLET, PLEASE PLACE IT BACK IN THE ENVELOPE AND GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE OF THIS BOOKLET.

PLEASE WAIT FOR A SIGNAL FROM ME BEFORE
REMOVING THE BLUE BOOKLET FROM THE ENVELOPE.

PART C

In a moment, you will be asked to list all of the thoughts and feelings that you had at the time you viewed the two advertisements for the bicycles.

Please write down each thought in a separate box. Do not hold back your thoughts; be sincere and write down everything that comes to your mind. **Please do not censor your thoughts.** I am interested in **what you think.** If something comes to mind, please write it down..... even if you consider it to be unimportant or silly.

Your thoughts do not need to be written in complete sentences -- a few words may be all that you need. Also, ignore spelling, punctuation, and grammar. **You will have up to two minutes maximum per ad to list your thoughts.** Try to list as many thoughts as you can remember in these two minutes, but don't worry if you cannot fill every box.

ON A SIGNAL FROM ME, TURN THE PAGE
AND BEGIN LISTING YOUR THOUGHTS.

- 1) In this series of boxes, please write in your thoughts and feelings related to the **FIRST ADVERTISEMENT** (Dynatron by Raleigh) appearing in the blue booklet. You have up to two minutes to complete this task.

(Remember one thought per box)

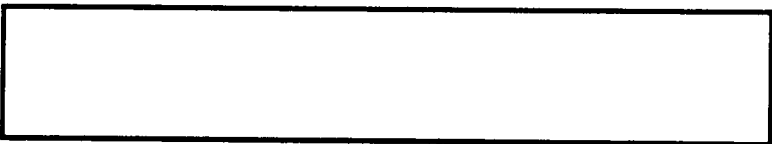
GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

IF YOU FEEL YOU HAVE NO OTHER THOUGHTS TO WRITE
ON THE FIRST AD, GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.

- 2) In this series of boxes, please write in your thoughts and feelings related to the **SECOND ADVERTISEMENT** (Maxium by Schwinn) appearing in the blue booklet. You have up to two minutes to complete this task.

(Remember one thought per box)

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE



IF YOU FEEL YOU HAVE NO OTHER THOUGHTS TO WRITE
ON THE SECOND AD, GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.

PART D

PLEASE NOTE:

The following questions are related to the
second advertisement (MAXIUM by Schwinn)
appearing in the booklet. Please indicate your
beliefs/feelings/attitudes related to
this advertisement.

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

- 1- How different do you think the leader's brand (MAXIUM by Schwinn) and the challenger's brand (DYNATRON by Raleigh) are on the...

...frame tubing

Different :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

...brake set

Different :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

...colors available

Different :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

...price

Different :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

...gear system

Different :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

...saddle

Different :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

...weight

Different :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

- 2- How much did you like the MAXIUM advertisement?

Not Very

Very

Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Likeable

- 3- Please place an "X" to reflect how you feel about the MAXIUM bike.

Bad :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Good

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

(REMEMBER, INDICATE BELIEFS/FEELINGS/ATTITUDES
RELATED TO THE SECOND ADVERTISEMENT)

4- The MAXIUM advertisement was:

Not Intense :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Intense
Uninformative :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Informative
Depressing :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Refreshing
Uninstructive :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Instructive
Dull :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Dynamic
Not Valuable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Valuable
Unhelpful :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Helpful
Unbelievable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Believable
Irrelevant to information needs :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Relevant to information needs
Unpersuasive :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Persuasive
Incomplete :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Complete
Confusing :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Not Confusing

5- Please describe in your own words the MAXIUM advertisement.

6- Please indicate your agreement/disagreement with advertisers' using this type of advertising:

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

(REMEMBER, INDICATE BELIEFS/FEELINGS/ATTITUDES
RELATED TO THE SECOND ADVERTISEMENT ONLY)

- 7- Please indicate your perception of the advertiser (the one who pays for the ad) on the scales below:

Not Truthful : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Truthful
Aggressive : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Not Aggressive
Not Credible : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Credible
Unfair : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Fair
Not Friendly : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Friendly

- 8- Please indicate your attitude toward the advertiser.

Bad : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Good
Not Very Likeable : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Very Likeable

- 9- How different do you think the leader's brand (MAXIUM by Schwinn) and the challenger's brand (DYNATRON by Raleigh) are, overall?

Different : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Identical

- 10- My overall attitude toward the MAXIUM advertisement is:

Bad : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Good

- 11- What is your attitude toward the MAXIUM bike?

Not Very Likeable : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : Very Likeable

- 12- My attitude is that, overall, the...

Leader's brand much better	: __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ :	Challenger's brand much better
Leader's brand much preferable	: __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ :	Challenger's brand much preferable

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

(REMEMBER, INDICATE BELIEFS/FEELINGS/ATTITUDES
RELATED TO THE SECOND ADVERTISEMENT ONLY)

- 13- What is your overall feeling about considering buying the
MAXIUM bike?

Unfavorable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Favorable

Foolish :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Wise

Unlikely :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Likely

- 14- What is your overall feeling about considering buying the
leader's brand (MAXIUM by Schwinn) over the challenger's
brand (DYNATRON by Raleigh)?

Unfavorable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Favorable

Foolish :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Wise

Unlikely :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Likely

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

PART E

PLEASE NOTE:

The following questions are related to the
first advertisement (DYNATRON by Raleigh)
appearing in the booklet. Please indicate your beliefs/feelings/attitudes
you had during and shortly after you read
that advertisement only.

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

- 1- How different did you think the challenger's brand (DYNATRON by Raleigh) and the leader's brand (MAXIUM by Schwinn) were on the...

...gear system

Different : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

...saddle

Different : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

...weight

Different : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

...price

Different : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

- 2- How much did you like the DYNATRON advertisement?

Not Very
Likeable : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very
Likeable

- 3- The DYNATRON advertisement was:

Ambiguous : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Clear

Not Valuable : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Valuable

Uninformative : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Informative

Confusing : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Not Confusing

Unhelpful : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Helpful

Unbelievable : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Believable

Unpersuasive : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Persuasive

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

(REMEMBER, INDICATE BELIEFS/FEELINGS/ATTITUDES YOU HAD
DURING AND SHORTLY AFTER YOU READ THE FIRST ADVERTISEMENT ONLY)

- 4- Please indicate your perception of the advertiser (the one who pays for the ad) on the scales below:

Aggressive :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Not Agressive
Not Credible :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Credible
Unfair :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Fair
Not Friendly :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Friendly

- 5- Please indicate your attitude toward the advertiser?

Bad :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Good
Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Likeable

- 6- How different did you think the challenger's brand (DYNATRON by Raleigh) and the leader's brand (MAXIUM by Schwinn) were, overall?

Different :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Identical

- 7- My overall attitude toward the DYNATRON advertisement was:

Negative :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Positive

- 8- Please place an "X" to reflect how you felt about the DYNATRON bike.

Bad :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Good

- 9- My attitude was that, overall, the...

Challenger's brand much better :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:	Leader's brand much better
Challenger's brand much preferable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:	Leader's brand much preferable

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

(REMEMBER, INDICATE BELIEFS/FEELINGS/ATTITUDES YOU HAD DURING AND SHORTLY AFTER YOU READ THE FIRST ADVERTISEMENT ONLY)

10- What was your attitude toward the DYNATRON bike?

Not Very
Likeable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Likeable
Very

11- What was your overall feeling about considering buying the DYNATRON bike?

Unfavorable :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Favorable

Foolish : ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: Wise

Unlikely : __:__:__:__:__:__:__: Likely

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

PART F

- 1- How involved were you in the second advertisement?

None :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very Much

- 2- How much thought did you put into evaluating the second advertisement?

None :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Very Much

- 3- When I saw the second advertisement...

- A) ...I felt the information might be important to me.

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

- B) ...I felt the information might be meaningful to me.

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

- C) ...I felt the information would give me new ideas.

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

PART G

- 1- Please tell us how you agree or disagree with the following statements:

- A- In the first advertisement, the sponsoring brand (the one that pays for the ad) took on another brand.

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

- B- In the second advertisement, the sponsoring brand (the one that pays for the ad) compared itself to a competitor.

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

- 2- The information content of the second advertisement was mostly communicating:

Product Features :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Market Facts

- 3- According to The Wall Street Journal, Schwinn's lead in the bike market is...

(Please specify) _____

- 5- The report I read on the bike market is contrary to what I expected:

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

- 5- I felt that the first advertisement...

...had an attack tone :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: ...did not have an attack tone

- 6- I felt that the second advertisement was a direct response to the claim made in the first advertisement:

Strongly Disagree :__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly Agree

PART H

Age: _____

Sex: Female _____ Male _____

Class Standing: Freshman _____
Junior _____
Sophomore _____
Senior _____
Other _____

What is your academic major? _____

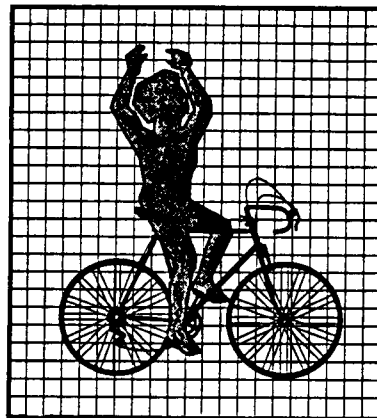
AGAIN, THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING

APPENDIX E

**Challenger's Noncomparative
and Comparative Advertisements**

DYNATRON[®]

by RALEIGH



- Examine the following product features and find out why you should buy a ***DYNATRON***[®].

Product Features	<i>DYNATRON</i> [®]
Gear System	10-sp Sun Tour (with stem-mounted levers)
Saddle	Padded contour
Weight	29 pounds
Price	\$114.95

- You find that the ***DYNATRON***[®] 10-speed bike is

DURABLE, COMFORTABLE, LIGHT
and **NOT EXPENSIVE.**

DYNATRON[®]



THE PERFORMANCE
CHOICE



For more information contact: Raleigh Cycle Co., 7701 Byers, Kent, WA 95342

DYNATRON[®]

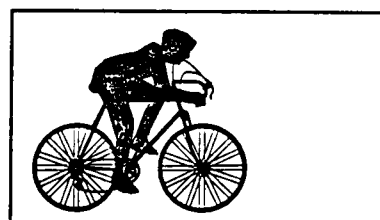
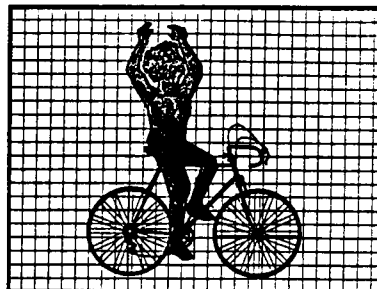
by RALEIGH

CHALLENGES

MAXIUM[®]

by Schwinn

AND WINS.



- Examine the following product features and find out why you should buy the *DYNATRON[®]*.

Product Features	The Challenger	Market Leader
	<i>DYNATRON[®]</i>	<i>MAXIUM[®]</i>
Gear System	10-sp Sun Tour (with stem-mounted levers)	10- sp Shimano (with stem-mounted levers)
Saddle	Padded Contour	Anatomic
Weight	29 pounds	29 pounds
Price	\$114.95	\$139.95

- When compared to the market leader, you find that the *DYNATRON[®]* 10-speed bike

is as **DURABLE**, as **COMFORTABLE**, as **LIGHT**, but **MUCH LESS EXPENSIVE**.

DYNATRON[®]



THE PERFORMANCE
CHOICE



For more information contact: Raleigh Cycle Co., 7701 Byers, Kent, WA 95342

APPENDIX F
Treatment Advertisements

MAXIUM[®] by Schwinn offers you many desirable features.

Product Features	MAXIUM [®]	Comments
Frame Tubing	Duralite	Strong
Brake Set	Shimano (dual levers)	Responsive
Colors Available	5	Large Variety to choose from.
Price	\$139.95	You get what you pay for.



*A Schwinn
Quality Product!*

Write for your free brochure: Schwinn Bicycle Co., 1856 N. Kostner, Chicago, IL 60639

MAXIUM[®] by Schwinn offers you more desirable features than **DYNATRON[®]** by RALEIGH.

Product Features	MAXIUM[®]	DYNATRON[®]	Comparative Results
Frame Tubing	Duralite	Hi-Ten	Stronger
Brake Set	Shimano (dual levers)	Polygon	More Responsive
Colors Available	5	2	Larger Variety to choose from.
Price	\$139.95	\$114.95	You get more for your money.



*A Schwinn
Quality Product!*

Write for your free brochure: Schwinn Bicycle Co., 1856 N. Kostner, Chicago, IL 60639

MAXIUM[®] by Schwinn offers you
the NUMBER ONE 10-speed bike.

Market Facts	#1 Brand	Comments
	MAXIUM[®]	
Units sold last year	Over 100,000	That's a lot of bikes.
Endorsed by	Eric Heiden (1985 US PRO Champion)	Eloquent
Praised by	Bicycling (World's No.1 Cycling Magazine)	Convincing
Recommended by	American Bicycle Association	Impressive



*A Schwinn
Leading Brand!*

Write for your free brochure: Schwinn Bicycle Co., 1856 N. Kostner, Chicago, IL 60639

MAXIUM[®] by Schwinn offers you
the NUMBER ONE 10-speed bike.

DYNATRON[®] by RALEIGH does not.

Market Facts	#1 Brand	#2 Brand	Comparative Results
	MAXIUM[®]	DYNATRON[®]	
Units sold last year	Over 100,00	Less than 75,000	That's a lot more bikes.
Endorsed by	Eric Heiden (1985 US PRO Champion)	Phil Anderson (Winner 1986 Tour of Switzerland)	More Eloquent
Praised by	Bicycling (World's No.1 Cycling Magazine)	Cyclist (Europe-based Magazine)	More Convincing
Recommended by	American Bicycle Association	Bicycle Federation of America	More Impressive



*A Schwinn
Leading Brand!*

Write for your free brochure: Schwinn Bicycle Co., 1856 N. Kostner, Chicago, IL 60639

APPENDIX G

Cover Sheet

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

PLEASE READ CAREFULLY.

- 1- Please wait for instructions before removing material from the envelope.
- 2- You may have been offered (or will be offered) extra credits for participating in this study. In any case, please fill out name and SSN spaces below so that your instructor keep track of participants and give extra credits (if applicable) accordingly.

Name (signature) Soc. Sec. #
- 3- Please follow instructions carefully throughout the study.
- 4- Once the experiment is over, please be sure to place all material back in the envelope. Then remove **this sheet** from the envelope.
- 5- On your way out, please drop **this sheet** in the "Extra credit" box and the envelope in the "Study" box.
- 6- Thank you very much for participating. Your help with this project is greatly appreciated.
- 7- Now, it is time to begin. On a signal from me, please refer to document **Questionnaire** (the thick one) and follow instructions carefully. **Please do not** remove the "Blue booklet" from the envelope until you are told to do so.

APPENDIX H
Manipulation Booklet Content

There were 24 versions of the manipulation booklet corresponding to the 24 treatment cells. All manipulation booklets had the following content:

- Blue cover sheet
- One of the leader's market dominance mock newspaper excerpts
- Beige separator
- One of the challenger's advertisements
- Green separator
- One of the treatment advertisements
- Blue back cover sheet

APPENDIX I

Cell Means

Agreement with Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising

						Leader's Market Dominance Level			
						Weak	Moderate	Strong	
ENVIRONMENTAL MARKET	Competition	ADVERTISING	NC	ADVERTISING	PA	4.49	4.74	4.87	
					MS	3.77	3.92	3.91	
					PA	4.37	4.65	3.80	
					MS	3.03	3.38	3.04	
	Retaliation		C			PA	4.37	5.02	4.74
					MS	4.76	4.51	4.50	
			NC			PA	4.34	4.46	4.37
					MS	3.77	3.58	4.23	

Attitudes toward the Comparative and Noncomparative Advertisements

						Leader's Market Dominance Level			
						Weak	Moderate	Strong	
ENVC MARK KOT EXT MET	Compe- tition	ADV VERT TISE SING TYPE	NC	AD VERT TISE SING STA TE TAE MEN T	PA	4.46	4.70	4.79	
					MS	3.89	4.63	4.45	
					PA	4.34	4.58	4.42	
					MS	3.28	3.71	3.46	
	Retal- iation				NC	PA	4.32	4.87	4.83
						MS	5.05	5.01	5.04
						PA	4.41	4.76	4.82
						MS	3.92	3.91	3.96

Perception of the
Advertiser's Fairness

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
ENVIRONMENTAL MARKETING CONCEPT	Competition	ADVERTISING COPY TYPE	NC	ADVANCE STATE RELATIVE TIMING	PA	5.25	5.34	4.83
					MS	4.73	4.88	4.90
	Retaliation		C		PA	4.64	4.76	4.65
					MS	3.72	3.93	3.60
			NC		PA	5.05	5.26	5.26
					MS	5.49	5.40	4.83
			C		PA	4.75	4.85	4.93
					MS	4.56	4.41	4.37

Attitude toward the Advertiser

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
E N V I R O N M E N T A I N M E N T	Compe- tition	A D V E R T I S I N G	NC	A D V E R T I S I N G	PA	5.25	5.29	5.21
					MS	4.64	4.97	4.99
			C		PA	4.31	4.76	4.10
					MS	3.23	3.68	3.48
	Retal- iation	I S I N G	NC	I S I N G	PA	4.96	5.40	5.19
					MS	5.62	5.36	5.11
			C		PA	4.34	4.90	4.73
					MS	3.83	3.99	3.54

Perceived Informativeness
of the Ad

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
E N V C O N T R O L L I N G T E M P E R A M E N T	Compe- tition	A D V E R T I S I N G	NC	A D V E R T I S I N G	PA	4.67	4.78	4.87
					MS	3.46	3.94	4.29
			C		PA	5.62	5.59	5.18
					MS	3.55	4.08	4.05
	Retal- iation	I N T E N S I T Y	NC	I N T E N S I T Y	PA	4.72	5.17	5.15
					MS	4.62	4.14	4.44
			C		PA	4.99	5.39	4.81
					MS	3.81	4.02	4.28

Perceived Value of Information
in the Ad

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
ENVIRONMENTAL MARKETING EFFECT	Competition	ADVERTISEMENT TYPE	NC	ADVERTISING TACTICS	PA	4.55	4.78	5.07
					MS	3.51	4.10	4.18
			C		PA	5.72	5.38	5.16
					MS	3.25	3.78	3.72
	Retaliation	SINCE	NC	INTELLIGENCE	PA	4.73	5.02	5.15
					MS	4.44	4.20	4.42
			C		PA	5.11	5.23	4.72
					MS	3.24	3.53	3.58

Leader-Challenger Brand Dissimilarity

- Overall -

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
E N M V C A I R R N K O T E T M X E T	Compe- tition	A D V E C T R O Y P E T I Y E	NC	A D V E C T R E L T I M E S M E N T I N G	PA	3.81	3.67	3.63
					MS	3.56	3.67	3.81
			C		PA	4.22	3.92	4.38
					MS	3.23	3.12	3.44
	Retal- iation	S I N G	NC		PA	2.92	3.27	3.54
					MS	3.04	2.63	3.25
			C		PA	3.48	3.65	3.50
					MS	3.00	3.19	3.15

- Frame -

						Leader's Market Dominance Level			
						Weak	Moderate	Strong	
ENVIRONMENTAL CONNECTIONS KOTENMET	Competition	ADVERTISING COPY TYPE	NC	ADVANCED REPTILE TAMING INSTRUMENT	PA	4.00	4.15	4.04	
					MS	3.59	3.23	3.78	
	Retaliation		C		PA	4.73	4.89	5.00	
					MS	3.19	2.85	3.22	
			NC		PA	3.19	2.76	3.96	
					MS	3.46	2.88	2.64	
			C		PA	4.62	4.46	4.38	
					MS	3.00	3.03	2.88	

- Brake -

						Leader's Market Dominance Level			
						Weak	Moderate	Strong	
ENVIRONMENTAL MARKETING	Competition	ADVANCEMENT TYPE	NC	ADVANCEMENT TYPE	PA	4.11	4.44	4.38	
					MS	3.78	3.00	3.74	
	Retaliation		C		PA	4.73	4.96	5.69	
					MS	3.34	2.88	3.37	
			NC		PA	3.54	3.64	3.76	
					MS	3.07	2.93	2.79	
			C		PA	4.63	4.65	4.50	
					MS	2.81	2.77	2.92	

- Color -

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
ENVIRONMENTAL MARKETING	Competition	ADVANCEMENT TYPE	NC	ADVANCEMENT TYPE	PA	5.11	4.96	5.35
			C		MS	3.22	2.88	3.22
	Retaliation	ADVANCEMENT TYPE	NC	ADVANCEMENT TYPE	PA	6.65	6.11	6.42
					MS	3.19	2.92	3.44
			C	ADVANCEMENT TYPE	PA	4.92	5.28	4.65
					MS	3.25	3.67	2.61
			C	ADVANCEMENT TYPE	PA	6.15	6.35	6.35
					MS	3.08	3.58	3.48

- Price -

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
ENVIRONMENTAL MARKETING	Competition	ADVERTISING COPY TYPE	NC	STATEMENT	PA	5.63	4.93	4.96
					MS	5.26	5.15	5.33
			C		PA	6.19	5.26	5.81
					MS	4.50	5.38	4.59
	Retaliation	ADVERTISING COPY TYPE	NC	STATEMENT	PA	5.96	5.52	5.84
					MS	5.82	5.30	5.18
			C		PA	5.41	5.58	5.96
					MS	5.81	5.65	5.52

Attitude toward the Brand

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
ENCOURAGEMENT	Competition	ADVERTISING	NC	ASTORIA	PA	4.57	4.49	4.47
					MS	4.68	4.91	5.16
			C		PA	4.49	4.23	4.68
					MS	4.81	4.37	4.80
	Retaliation	SING	NC	INTE	PA	4.20	4.71	4.38
					MS	4.18	4.66	4.49
			C		PA	4.63	4.57	4.44
					MS	4.61	4.17	4.72

Behavioral Intention

						Leader's Market Dominance Level		
						Weak	Moderate	Strong
E N V I R O N M E N T M A R K E T	Compe- tition	A D V E R T I S I N G C O Y P E T I T I O N	NC	A D V E R T I S I N G S T A T E M E N T	PA	4.09	4.70	4.21
					MS	4.56	5.09	4.20
			C		PA	3.80	4.51	4.72
					MS	4.17	3.91	4.14
	Retal- iation		NC		PA	4.15	4.97	4.53
					MS	4.48	4.54	4.56
			C		PA	4.51	4.68	4.28
					MS	4.06	3.83	4.37

APPENDIX J

Main and Interaction Effects Graphs

Figure J-1
 Agreement with Comparative and
 Noncomparative Advertising Copy Types

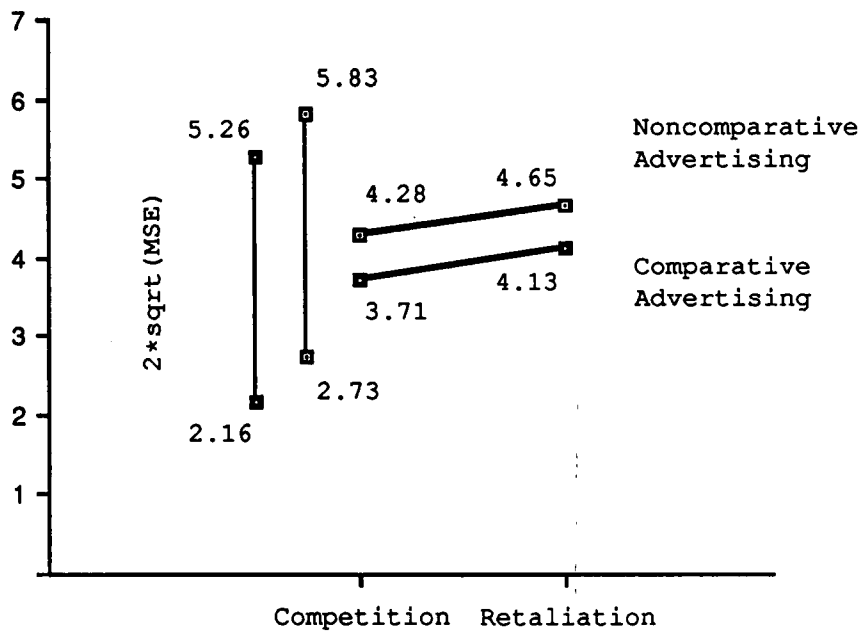


Figure J-2
 Attitudes toward the Comparative
 and Noncomparative Advertisements

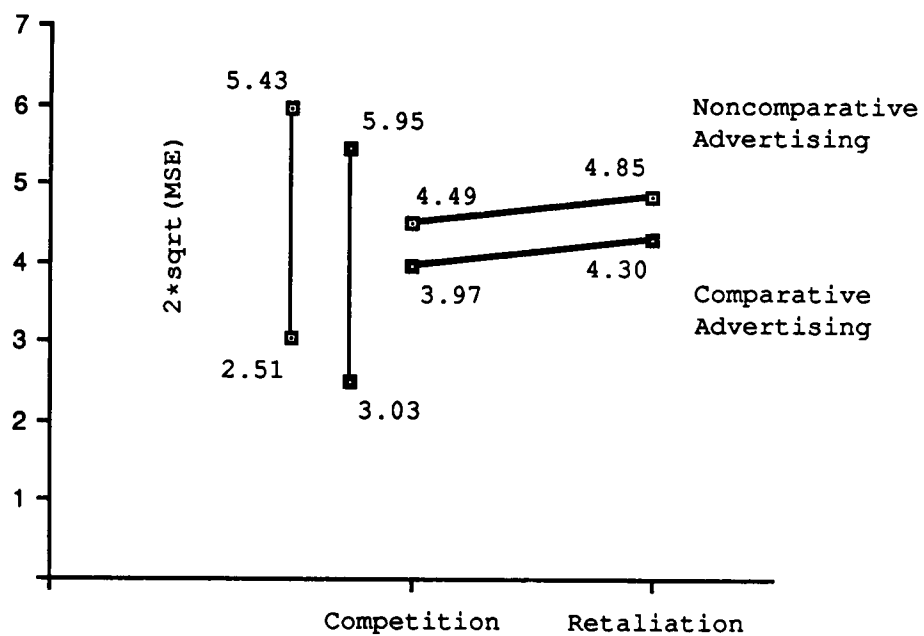


Figure J-3

Perception of the Advertiser's Fairness

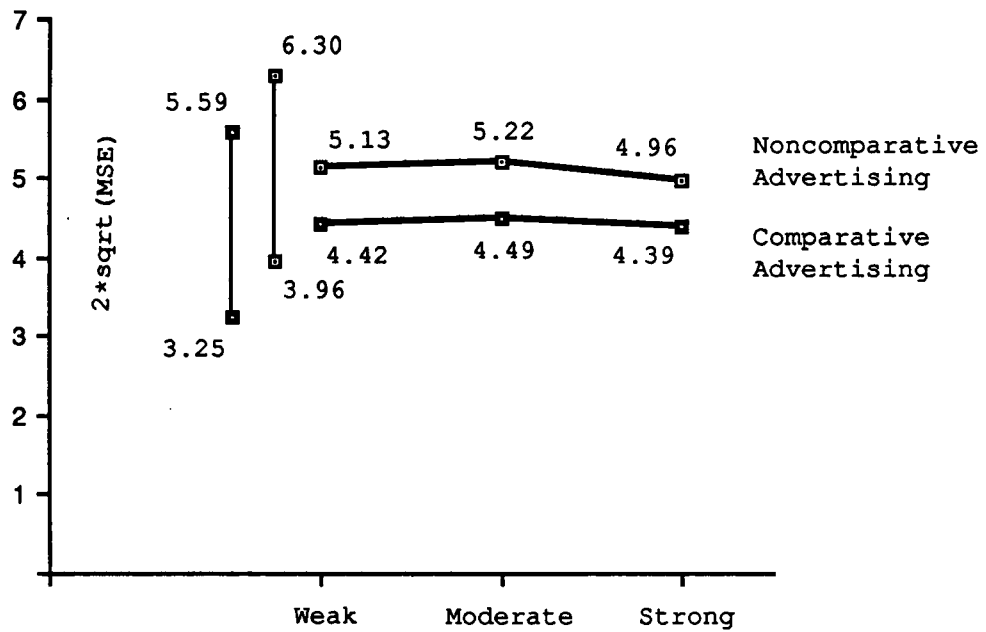


Figure J-4
Attitudes toward the Advertiser

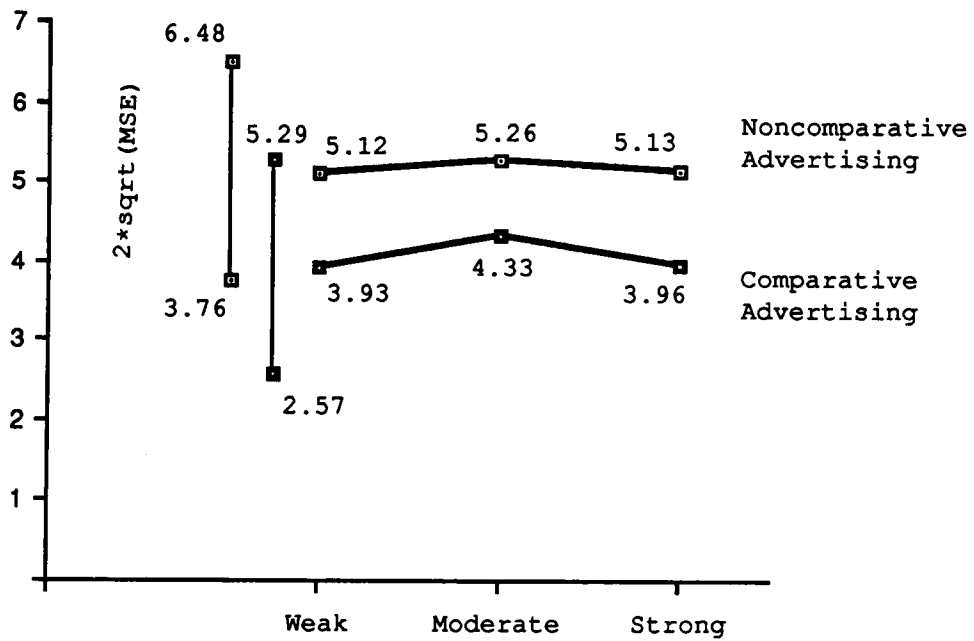


Figure J-5
Perceived Informativeness of the Ad

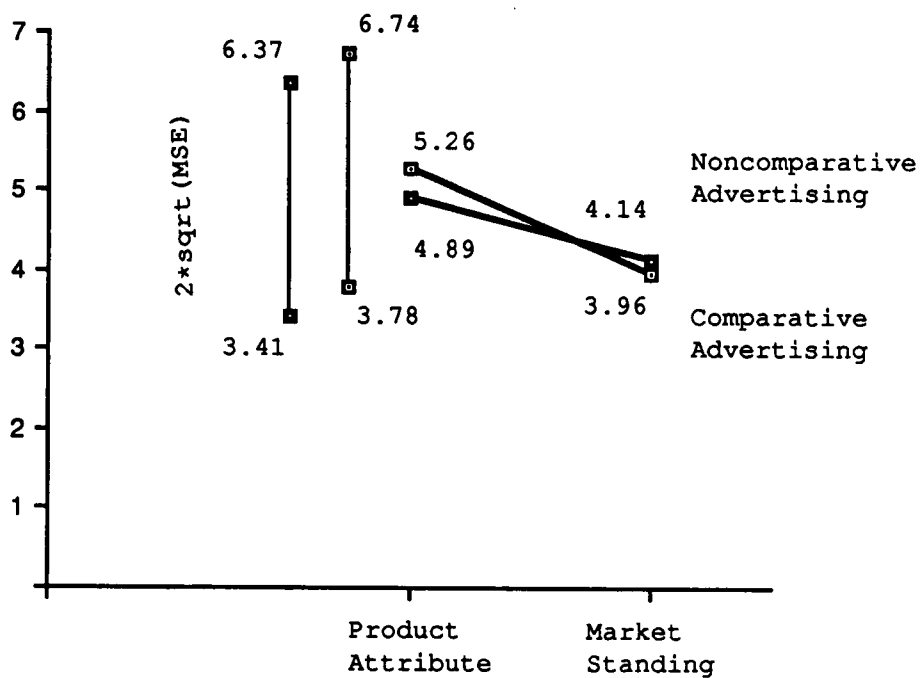
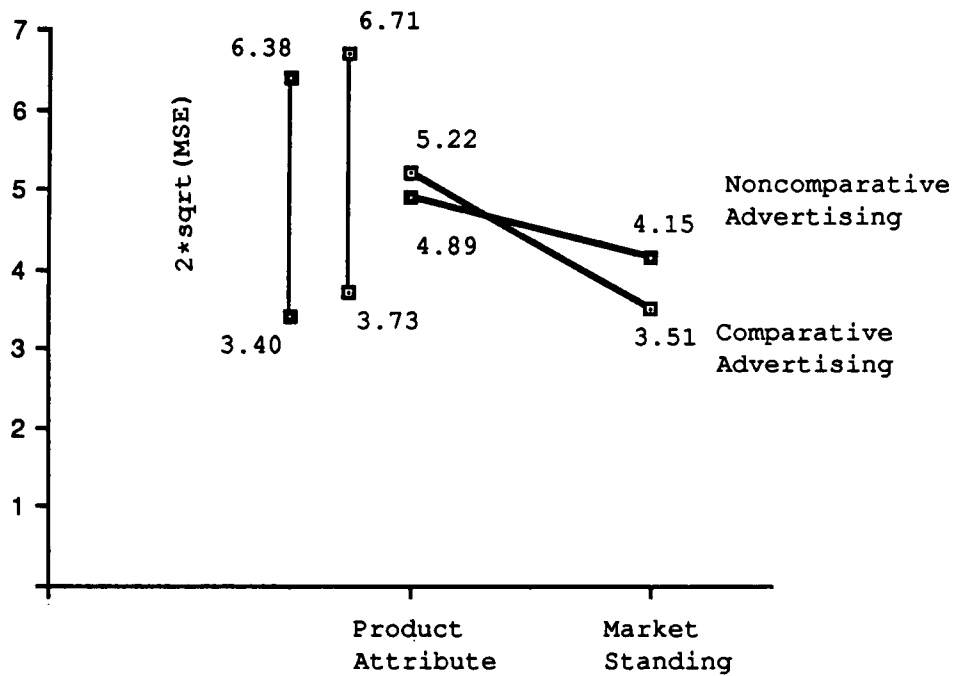


Figure J-6

Perceived Value of Information in the Ad



VITA

Normand D. Turgeon was born in Cap-de-la-Madeleine, Province of Québec, Canada on June 19, 1953. In September of 1974, he entered Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières where he received a Baccalauréat spécialisé en administration.

In 1977, he joined the Collège de Drummondville as a professor of business administration. Mr. Turgeon began his graduate studies in business at Université Laval while employed with the Collège and received his Master of Business Administration with a concentration in marketing in 1982. In 1984, Mr. Turgeon began his doctoral studies at The University of Tennessee in Knoxville where he received his Ph.D. in business administration with a concentration in marketing in 1988.

Mr. Turgeon is a Doctoral Consortium Fellow, a member of The Honor Society of Phi Kappa Phi, the American Marketing Association, and the Academy of Marketing Science. He accepted employment at École des Hautes Études Commerciales de Montréal in June 1987. Mr. Turgeon is married, and at the time of printing, a proud father-to-be.