Brand familiarity in Comparative Advertising:
Investigating the Effects on Attitudes and Intentions

Abstract

In today’s highly competitive market, marketers have comprehended that consumers are not only surrounded by numerous brands but are also exposed to many different marketing practices that are developed to differentiate these brands from their competitors. This study investigates the impact of comparative advertisements on consumers’ attitude towards ad, attitude towards brand and purchase intention in beverages product category, focusing specifically on fruit juices. We propose that brand familiarity play a moderating role in this relationship. The study is empirical in nature and involved administering a questionnaire to the respondents, prior to which they were shown print ads. Results reveal that the influence of attitude towards the ad on consumers’ attitude towards the brand and purchase intention depends on the familiarity of the sponsor brand. Brand familiarity is found to positively moderate the relationship between attitude towards ad and consumers’ attitude towards brand. The study offers research and managerial implications.

Keywords: Comparative ads, Brand familiarity, attitude towards ad, attitude towards brand, purchase intention.

Introduction:

The mass market developments and huge structural innovations in the media have radically changed the business environment for both corporations and consumers, and also resulted in extensive use of advertising by the marketers (Barry, 1993).
It is widely accepted that feelings evoked by marketing communications, such as advertisements have important effects on consumers’ response to the brand (Kirmani & Campbell, 2009). Factors such as high saturation of advertising, wide range of product or service offerings, and insufficient emphasis on differentiating attributes have contributed to making it even more difficult for the consumer to distinguish among brands available and to evaluate effectively. Therefore, advertising is often taken to a competitive level where companies tend to promote their products and services by comparing them with those of their competitors to gain consumers’ attention and enhance their sales (Wilkie & Farris, 1975).

From the corporate point of view, introducing one’s offering in a distinctive way and stressing on perceived product differentiation has become all the more necessary, as the number of competitors entering the market is on a rise (Barry, 1993). In particular, advertisements that directly compare the same attributes of two or more brands, have often been claimed to be the most effective tool to communicate different advantages of a brand (Muehling et al., 1990). Such comparative ads help “superior” corporations carve out better market positions at the expense of their competitors and also differentiate themselves from the homogeneity that characterizes modern markets (Muehling et al., 1990). In addition because of the comparisons made in the ads, consumers have greater access to the information they need in order to make informed purchase decisions (Muehling et al., 1990).

From the consumer’s perspective, comparative advertising has become an effective tool in widening the gap between competing products by creating differentiation between the brand the consumers have purchased in the past and their ideal brand (Shy, 1995). Research on comparative advertising has revealed that consumers not only compare the brands, but also make associations between them (Manning et al., 2001). When there is no other specific brand associations, consumers still prefer to buy a brand that is well established and familiar to them (Pae et al., 2002). Familiarity involves the knowledge extent that consumers own toward various brands in a specific product category (Park and Lessig, 1981). Some academicians define familiarity as the frequency of product-related experience (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Familiarity with a brand influences a consumer’s confidence toward the brand, which in turn affects his/her intention to buy the same brand (Laroche et al., 1996). And thereafter it has been discussed in the
literature as an important moderating factor of consumer behaviour (e.g., Baker et al., 1986; Kraus, 1995). Brand familiarity captures consumers’ brand knowledge structures, that is, the brand associations that exist within a consumer’s memory. Although many advertised products are familiar to consumers, many others are unfamiliar, either because they are new to the marketplace or because consumers have not yet been exposed to the brand (Stewart, 1992). In practice, the more the consumers are familiar with a product or a brand, the fewer cues the consumers need to judge the product quality (Chueh and Kao, 2004).

Pechmann and Stewart (1990) confirm that the efficacy of advertising has been found to vary with the familiarity of the sponsored brand. Well-known brands generate higher recall and are protected from competitive advertising clutter than less familiar brands (Kent and Allen, 1994). Thus, consumers are more likely to be motivated to allocate their attention to product information for familiar brands rather than that for unfamiliar brands. Advertisements that are both original and familiar attract and promote brand memory directly (Pieters et al., 2002). Since consumers tend to avoid risks by preferring familiar brands, those who have positive impressions of familiar and established brands are more likely to accumulate positive evaluations of those familiar brands (Gregan-Paxton & John, 1997; Tauber, 1988).

In the following sections of this paper, first, we will discuss effect of attitude the comparative ad on attitude toward the brand. Subsequently, we will investigate whether consumers’ attitude towards comparative advertisements has an influence over purchase intention (PI) of the advertised product. We also examine the potential effect of brand familiarity as a moderator of comparative advertising on consumers’ attitudes. Hence, this study will explore the affect of brand familiarity on relationship between attitude toward advertisement with attitude toward brand.

**Literature Review**

For some time now, comparative advertising has been the focus of considerable research activity as well as an often debated, controversial topic. Comparative advertising has become a popular creative technique despite the fact that few empirical studies reported in the advertising and marketing journals have demonstrated its superiority in terms of brand and message recall, comprehension, and persuasive abilities (Ash and Wee, 1983). A primary reason for these mixed results is that “the complexity of
comparative advertising and advertising response makes it difficult to assess the effectiveness of comparative advertising outside of some usage context” (Rogers and Williams, 1989). Despite the widespread practice of comparative advertising, a consensus on the effectiveness of comparative advertising or its effects has not been established (Jeon & Beatty, 2002; Manning et al., 2001; Miniard et al., 1998). Comparative advertising compares two or more specifically named, or recognizably noticeable, brands of the same generic product or service class, and the comparison is made in terms of one or more specific product or service attributes (Wilkie & Farris, 1975). Comparative advertising has become an advertising argumentation technique since the marketing studies suggest different degrees of prevalence of comparative advertising. Some researchers claim that comparative advertising provides advantages that are not associated with non-comparative advertising (e.g. Droge and Darmon, 1987; Miniard et al., 1993; Pechmann & Ratneshwar, 1991; Pechmann & Stewart, 1990; Rose et al., 1993), while others found that comparative advertising results in undesirable outcomes (e.g. Belch, 1981; Golden, 1979; Goodwin & Etgar, 1980; Levine, 1976; Swinyard, 1981). Some individuals and groups have lauded its use, suggesting that it aids in brand positioning, creates a positive competitive environment, and provides consumers with useful product information. Others, however, have voiced their uncertainty, charging that comparative advertising merely confuses the consumer, provides free exposure for the competitive brand, and results in far more legal scuffles and authoritarian mess than conventional, non-comparative advertisements (Giges, 1980a, 1980b, 1980c; Phillips, 1980).

According to Yagci et al. (2009) advertisement believability mediates the effects of comparative advertisement and brand characteristics on such important consumer outcomes as attitude toward the advertisement, attitude toward the sponsor brand and purchase intention. Further Pechmann & Stewart (1990) indicate that comparative advertising is typically most effective for unknown or relatively lesser-known brands, as consumers are likely to confuse the source of message when two relatively well known brands are compared. Also, comparative advertisements are found to generate less favorable attitudes to the advertisement (Aad) than noncomparative advertisements (Belch, 1981; Gorn and Weinberg, 1984; Grewal et al., 1997), but attitude to the advertised brand is more favorable with comparative advertisements than with noncomparative advertisements.
The efficacy of direct comparative advertising is contingent on the relative market position of the advertised brand (Pechmann & Stewart, 1991). Olsen et al. (2008) suggested that consideration of advertised brand and purchase intent will be higher for individuals who have purchased the competing brand and are seeing the competitive comparison advertisement than for those who have recently purchased the advertised brand and who view the self-comparison advertisement. For a person who has not yet made a purchase, the competitive comparison advertisement will be more effective at evoking brand consideration and future purchase intent than either a non-comparative advertisement or a self-comparative advertisement. Chattopadhyay (1998) advocated that comparative advertisements sponsored by an unknown brand are more effective in changing consumers’ brand attitudes than non-comparative advertisements, when brand response occurs at a delay.

Consumers who have a higher brand familiarity, hold more positive brand attitudes, and are more likely to consider the brand for future purchase, than those who have never tried the brand (Bogomolova and Romaniuk, 2005). Sundaratn (1999) supported for the main effect of brand familiarity that familiar brands receive more favourable evaluations than unfamiliar brands. Brand familiarity will moderate brand attitudes, with familiar brand receiving more favourable evaluations than an unfamiliar brand. Brand familiarity can directly mediate consumers’ attitude, purchase decisions and increase the likelihood of brand consideration (Baker et al., 1986). Grewal et al. (1997) in a study based on a meta-analysis of 77 papers regarding comparative advertising indicated that comparative advertisements increased purchase intention and purchase behaviour, while also generating a more favourable attitude toward the sponsored brand.

For familiar brands, brand attitude affects ad attitude (Machleit & Wilson, 1988). The attitude towards advertisement significantly affects attitude towards brand for unfamiliar brands (Phelps & Thorson, 1991). Also, attitude towards advertisement affects attitude towards brand for familiar brands, even after controlling for prior brand attitude. The subjects’ attitude toward the advertisement had a strong effect on brand attitude (Chattopadhyay and Nedungadi, 1990). Attitude toward the advertisement is a strong mediator of advertising effectiveness (Batra and Ray, 1986; Homer, 1990) and studies have shown a
strong positive relationship between the advertisement and brand attitude, which in turn is positively related to purchase intention.

**Relationship between Attitude toward Advertisement (Aad), Attitude toward Brand (Ab) and Purchase Intention (PI)**

As discussed by many researchers, attitude towards advertisement (Aad) is a predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during particular exposure situation (Mackenzie et al., 1986; Biehal et al., 1992). In a print advertisement for example, consumers will depend more on the picture(s) and information about the product that are inserted in it to motivate them to take a closer look and continue reading it. An advertisement that provides good picture(s) may have a significant impact as picture(s) help readers to get “connected” with the product. Consumers can get closer to the product as they experience certain feeling(s) from watching the product like the product seems authentic, credible and real (Brosius, Donsbach & Birk, 1996). As the consumer is exposed to an advertisement, its influence can be observed through consumer’s reactions such as his/her persuasion speech (can be either positive or negative) about the brand on other people and his/her own behavior towards it. The uniqueness of (Aad) is that it has been used as antecedent to other variables or independent variable (Biehal et al., 1992), mediating variable (Ugur & Abdulla, 1993), even as dependent variable (Holbrook et al., 1987; Yi, 1990; Edell & Burke, 1987; Homer & Yoon, 1992) in past studies. Its usage depends on the way it is perceived and positioned by the researchers.

Many studies considered attitude towards advertisement (Aad) as the main input of attitude towards brand (Ab), with both (Aad) and (Ab) hypothesized to have an effect on consumers’ purchase intention (PI). Many previous studies have attempted to model the advertising effects that are assumed to happen through the flow of casual relationship between (Aad-Ab), (Aad-PI), and (Ab-PI). The advertising effect models can be found in studies such as Goldsmith et al. (1999; 2000; 2001; 2002) and Shimp and Gresham (1985). Messages in advertisements may affect the relationship between (Aad) and (Ab), specifically when consumers are not familiar with the advertised brand due to their lack of prior knowledge on which to base their (Ab) evaluation. Thus, they are more likely to rely on (Aad) in forming their (Ab). Consumers with prior brand familiarity, by contrast, are more likely to draw on their
existing brand knowledge, attenuating the influence of attitude towards specific advertisement (Aad) on (Ab). Therefore, the effect of (Aad) on brand evaluations should be greater when the advertisement is for an unfamiliar rather than a familiar brand (Campbell & Keller, 2003). There is a general agreement on the effect of (Aad) on (Ab) when unfamiliar brands are tested. However, the relationship between (Aad) and (Ab) is different when brand familiarity is tested. Both (Aad) and (Ab) have been assumed to have effect on consumers’ purchase intention (PI) (Shimp & Gresham, 1985; Goldsmith et al., 2000; 2002).

The consumer, who is effectively affected by advertising, may form a positive (Aad) that may then influence his (PI). A direct relationship between (Aad) and (PI) for both familiar and unfamiliar brands were found in Goldsmith et al.’s studies (2000; 2002). The relationships appear when affective responses are evoked, especially under conditions of low involvement. However, there can also be an indirect relationship between (Aad) and (PI) through (Ab), as will appear when the consumer develops a positive (Aad) which leads him or her to form (Ab) before starting to build a positive (PI) (Shimp & Gresham, 1985; Mackenzie et al., 1986; Brown & Stayman, 1992; Yoon et al., 1998). Phelps & Hoy (1996) in their study found out there is a significant effect of (Aad) on (PI) for both familiar and unfamiliar brands. Cox & Locander (1987), in their study, found out that (Aad) had an effect on (PI). However, Shimp & Gresham (1985) found out that (Aad) had both the direct effect on (PI) and the indirect effect through (Ab). In addition, Homer (1990) also found out that (Aad) had an effect on (PI). As for association between (Ab) and (PI), many studies found that (Ab) to have a positive and significant effect on (PI) (Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Shimp & Gresham, 1985; Batra & Ray, 1986; Phelps & Hoy, 1996). For example, Shimp’s (1986) study found out a strong relationship between (Ab) and (PI).

Many other studies have found out positive effects of (Ab) on (PI) when familiar and unfamiliar brands were tested (Shimp & Gresham., 1985; Batra & Ray, 1986; Homer, 1990; Yi, 1990; Brown & Stayman, 1992; Homer & Yoon, 1992; Phelps & Hoy, 1996). In addition, the causal sequence of (Aad-Ab-PI) relationship explored in the previous studies considered attitude towards brand (Ab) as a mediator in the relationship between (Aad) and (PI) (Machleit et al., 1988; Phelps et al., 1996).

Conceptual Framework & Hypotheses
The construct Aad has received increased research attention as advertisers believe that a "likeable" ad can create a favourable consumer impression that may result in a long-term competitive advantage for the advertised brand (Bartos, 1981; Gardner, 1985; Gresham & Shimp, 1985; Mitchell, 1986). Kirmani & Campbell (2009) discussed attitude toward the ad as the set of thoughts and feelings consumers have about an ad, however, some researchers have conferred it as a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during particular exposure situation (Mackenzie, Lutz & Belch, 1986; Burke & Edell, 1989; Biehal, Stephens & Curlo, 1992). There is considerable classical conditioning research examining issues such as attitude toward the ad (Mitchell and Olsen, 1981; Shimp, 1981). These studies have highlighted the importance of attitude towards the unconditioned stimulus (in this case the ad) in the creation of a favourable response. Also, it has been identified that favourable attitudes held toward advertising-in-general have a positive direct influence on the attitudes held toward specific advertisements and an indirect influence on both attitude towards the brand and consumers’ intentions to purchase a brand (Lutz, Mackenzie and Belch, 1983; MacKenzie, Lutz & Belch, 1986; Ryan and Bonfield, 1975; Mitchell and Olson, 1981; Mehta, 1994; Shimp, 1981). Burke and Edell (1989) further supported that warm feelings about an ad had a positive effect on evaluation of the advertised brand. Conversely, negative feelings had a negative impact. Extending this to comparative ads, it can be argued that positive attitudes towards the ad will be associated with a positive response towards the sponsor brand. Hence, one reason for the keen interest of these researchers in Aad is the evidence that Aad is one of the factors that influences brand attitude (Ab) and intent to purchase (PI) (Gresham and Shimp, 1985; Cox and Locander, 1987; Moore and Hutchinson, 1983).

The extent of consumer processing elicited by a message should also affect the relation between attitude toward the ad and brand evaluations. According to Phelps & Thorson (1991), Aad affects Ab for familiar and unfamiliar brands, and the strength of the Aad-Ab relationship is influenced by brand familiarity. The Aad-Ab relationship was much stronger for unfamiliar brands than for familiar brands. In fact, for familiar brands, prior brand attitude explained more of the Ab variance than did Aad. This makes sense considering that people have more information on which to base their Ab than
just the ad when the brand is familiar. Consumers with prior brand familiarity, by contrast, are more likely to draw on their existing brand knowledge, attenuating the influence of attitude toward the specific ad on attitude toward the brand. Specifically, when consumers are unfamiliar with an advertised brand, they lack prior knowledge on which to base attitudes toward the brand. Thus, they are more likely to rely on attitudes toward the ad in forming attitudes toward the brand. Thus, the effect of attitude toward the ad on brand evaluations should be greater when the ad is for an unfamiliar rather than a familiar brand (Machleit, Allen, & Madden, 1993; Machleit & Wilson, 1988). That is, ad and brand attitudes may be expected to be more deviating in the case of familiar versus unfamiliar brands.

Mitchell and Olson (1981) and Shimp (1981) established the idea that consumers’ behaviour is likely to be influenced by attitudes toward the advertising stimulus. Many characteristics of the ad content have confirmed a relationship with respondent attitudes toward the ads (Muehling and McCann, 1993). In addition, many variables have been shown to moderate attitude toward the ad, including involvement, relevance, familiarity, and prior attitudes (Muehling and McCann, 1993). Hence, it is important to understand the relationships of antecedents and moderators of attitude toward the ad, partly because they identify the customer’s perceptions of a specific advertisement, but more importantly because of the relationship between attitude toward the ad and its outcomes. There is a link between attitude toward the ad and brand attitudes (Muehling and McCann, 1993). In addition, several studies have demonstrated the behaviour consequences of attitude toward the ad on purchase intentions, (Muehling and McCann, 1993).

Attitude towards the ad (Aad) affects advertising effectiveness since it was found to be an important antecedent of attitude toward the brand (Goldsmith et al., 2000; 2002; 2004; Mehta, 1994; Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989; Mackenzie, Lutz & Belch, 1986; Lutz, 1985; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Shimp, 1981). Attitude toward brand (Ab) has been discussed as a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular brand after the advertising stimulus has been shown to the individual (Phelps & Hoy, 1996). Consumers form feelings (affect) and judgments (cognition) when exposed to an advertisement which affects their attitude towards the ad and beliefs about the brand (Batra and Ray, 1986). Marketing and advertising researchers
have directed a lot of attention to understanding the concept of 'attitude toward the ad' (Aad) and its interaction with attitude toward the brand (Ab) and intention to purchase (Lutz et al., 1983; Shimp, 1981). Hence, it is hypothesised that

**H1:** Attitude toward comparative advertising (Aad) has significant influence on attitude toward brand (Ab).

**H2:** Attitude toward comparative advertising (Aad) has significant influence on intention to purchase (PI).

Attitude towards brand (Ab) has been found to play an important role in affecting the consumer’s purchase intention (Goldsmith et al., 2000; 2002; Gresham & Shimp, 1985; Yi, 1990). Purchase Intention (PI) is predisposition to buy a certain brand or product (Belch et al., 2004). PI also indicates how likely it is that the individual would purchase a product (Phelps & Hoy, 1996). Many previous studies have used (PI) as a dependent variable (Goldsmith et al., 2000; Yi, 1990; Cox & Locander, 1987).

According to the hierarchy of effects model of advertising (Lavidge & Steiner, 1961) holding other factors constant, an ad is more likely to enhance purchase intentions (1) to the extent that it attracts attention, (2) to the degree that it promotes favourable brand perceptions and attitudes, (3) if it does not enhance awareness of a competing brand, and (4) if consumers are unlikely to misidentify its sponsor as a competing brand (Pechmann & Stewart, 1990). Hence, it is hypothesised that

**H3:** Attitude toward brand (Ab) has significant influence on intention to purchase (PI).

Another concept primarily studied in decision making and brand preference literature is brand familiarity. According to Baker et al. (1986), brand familiarity is a uni-dimensional construct directly related to the amount of time that has been spent processing information about the brand, regardless of the type or content of the processing that has occurred. Brand familiarity captures consumers' brand knowledge structures, that is, the brand associations that exist within a consumer's memory. Although many advertised products are familiar to consumers, many others are unfamiliar, either because they are new to the marketplace or because consumers have not yet been exposed to the brand (Stewart, 1992). Brand familiarity can directly mediate consumers' purchase decisions. If sources of evaluation (i.e., brand attribute beliefs or source credibility) which require greater information processing intensity are not
accessible or cannot discriminate between brand alternatives, then brand familiarity may be a viable marketing communications strategy (Baker et al., 1986). Laroche et al. (1996) also supports the concept that familiarity with a brand influences a consumer’s confidence toward the brand, which in turn affects his/her intention to buy the same brand. Brand familiarity is also shown as one variable to affect recall (Kent & Allen, 1994; Pieters, Warlop, & Wedel, 2002).

Also, brand familiarity is posited to moderate the influence of Aad on Ab (Derbaix, 1995; Brown, Homer, & Inman, 1998; Campbell & Keller, 2003). Phelps and Thorson (1991) indicated that attitude towards advertisement significantly affects attitude towards brand for unfamiliar brands. In other words, consumers with prior brand familiarity will rely more on their existing knowledge about the brand than on Aad in forming their Ab (Derbaix, 1995; Campbell & Keller, 2003). Homer’s study (2006) indicates that even facing a completely emotional ad devoid of any product attribute information, the receiver’s attitude toward a familiar brand is changed mainly via brand cognitions when positive feelings are evoked (consumers “update” their existing evaluations), but negative affect directly ruins attitude even toward a familiar brand. Hence, it is hypothesised that

\[ H4: \text{Brand familiarity (BF) of the advertised/sponsor brand will moderate the effect of attitude towards comparative advertising (Aad) on brand attitude (Ab) and purchase intention (PI).} \]

Based on the literature reviewed, the conceptual model has been developed for the study and is as shown below (Figure 1)

![Figure 1: Conceptual model of Comparative Advertisements](image-url)
Research Methodology

Literature review on comparative advertisements reveals that majority of studies are experimental in nature. Therefore, the present study investigated comparative advertising effectiveness through an experimental study. The paper analysed responses to Brand familiarity (2 levels—familiar brand and/brand unfamiliar brand) in a comparative advertisement operationalized as a between-subjects variable. The hypotheses were tested with print advertisements. As print ads are reader paced, subjects can process them for as long as they want, which allows for differences in attention and elaboration induced by the brands.

Experimental Stimuli

The experimental stimuli used in the study are fictitious print advertisements. Print media appears to be a better vehicle for comparative advertisements since print lends itself to more thorough comparisons, that is, the consumer has control over the time needed to process the additional information.

There is evidence in the literature that comparative advertising is relatively more effective in print media than in television. Belch (1981) for example, posits that print may be more effective than television as a medium for comparison advertising, especially for the two-sided appeal since a printed message allows the recipients greater opportunity to process the message stimulus and to assess the credibility of the advertiser who admits product inferiority on some attribute. This argument is based on the notion that information overload may occur when too much information has to be processed by the subject in a situation where exposure time is constrained, for example a television commercial.

In the present study, a fictitious brand is compared to existing brand in the advertisements to remove the effects of prior experience and attitudes toward existing comparative brands and their advertisements and also to overrule effects of brand loyalty and “any possible confounding effects due to prior familiarity or affect of subjects” towards the brands (Belch, 1981).

Measurement Scales

The questionnaire included two parts. The first part measured four factors (attitude towards ad, attitude towards brand, purchase intention and brand familiarity); the second part recorded respondent demographic information.
Attitude toward the ad was measured using of three items anchored by “liked/disliked,” “good/bad,” and “pleasant/ unpleasant”. The scale has been used by Torn & Dahlen, 2008; Dahlen & Lange, 2004. (Cronbach’s α = .842)

Brand attitude was measured using three questions on a 7-point semantic-differential: good/bad, favorable/unfavorable, like/dislike. Together they formed an index (. The measure was taken from Torn & Dahlen, 2008; Dahlen et al., 2005). Cronbach’s alphas = 0.813)

Purchase intention was measured using of three questions on a 7- point Likert scale. The measure was based on Janssens & De Pelsmacker (2005) and De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). (Cronbach’s α = .795)

Brand familiarity was measured on a 3- item brand familiarity scale developed by Kent & Allen (1994). For example, participants were asked to rate the familiarity of the ad on a 7-point semantic-differential scale, with familiar with brand and not familiar with brand at the endpoints. (Cronbach’s α = .89)

Pilot Study

A group of 34 pilot subjects were given a list of 6 product categories (mobiles, fruit juices, toothpaste, watches, laptops and cold creams) and were asked to indicate the frequency of making a purchase on their own. They were also asked to list 2 brand names in each product category. Results showed that fruit juices product category was the most frequently purchased in this age group and therefore was selected for the study as the test product.

Pretests indicated that people drawn from the same subject pool as the actual study had (1) not seen the ads, (2) were familiar with the familiar brand, but (3) were unfamiliar with the fictitious brand. A pretest was designed to determine the product categories that respondents were inclined to make a purchase of.

Reliability and Validity

The reliability of constructs was tested by using Cronbach’s coefficient alpha, which ranged from .795 to .89, much larger than the standard of 0.7 (Churchill 1979). Since all measures were based upon prior relevant literature and were often used or adapted in research, evidence of content validity was provided.

An experimental study was conducted with 162 respondents who were MBA students at a large university. The subjects were first given a basic description of the study. The product category for the study was beverages and the product fruit juice was
selected to reflect different degrees of consumer uncertainty with respect to product attributes and associated information acquisition costs and to perceived risks of consumption. The two print advertisements were made for this product category. Both the advertisements were comparative in nature. The top two brands most frequently listed by the subjects were Real and Tropicana and they were adopted in the present study. Two print ads were developed using Coral graphics. Both the ads were indirect comparative ads. The first ad showed Real fruit juice being compared with an unidentified competitor (Tropicana with brand name hidden) with a tag line ‘Only one of these has both Great Taste and Wholesome nutrition’. The second ad was an exact replica of the first one except that the familiar brand (Real) was replaced with an unfamiliar brand (Amita) in the ad Amita, is an existing brand of fruit juices in Germany, but is not known in the Indian markets. Both the ads were prepared to assess the impact of attitude towards comparative advertising effectiveness, and also, its effect on the relationship between attitude towards the ad and attitude towards brand and purchase intention. In addition the study investigated the moderation impact of brand familiarity on the effectiveness of the comparative advertisement. The subjects read the advertisements and completed the measures for brand familiarity, attitude towards advertisement, attitude towards brand and purchase intention for both the advertisements respectively. These dependent variables were measured using differential scales.

Findings

1. Relationship between (Aad) and (Ab) – H1

(a) For comparative ad sponsored by a familiar brand.

The R value is 0.147 (as shown in Table 1), which represents the simple correlation and, therefore, indicates a low degree of correlation. The adjusted R² (0.009) value indicates how much of the dependent variable, attitude towards brand (Ab) (familiar sponsor brand); can be explained by the independent variable, Aad. In this case, 0.9% can be explained, which is not very large. The regression equation indicates that both the constant and Aad contribute significantly to the hypothesised model as:

Ab = 4.067 + 0.177(Aad)

Hence, the first hypothesis that Attitude toward comparative advertising (Aad) has significant influence on attitude toward brand (Ab) is accepted.
(b) For comparative ad sponsored by an unfamiliar brand.

Results from simple regression analysis carried out for an unfamiliar brand (Table 1) showed that (Aad) was positively and significantly associated with (Ab) as the regression equation is

\[ Ab = 2.960 + 0.173Aad. \]

The R value is 0.165 (as shown in Table 1), which represents the simple correlation and, therefore, indicates a low degree of correlation. In addition, (Aad) explained 0.027 of the variance in (Ab) (Adjusted \( R^2 = 0.027 \)) which means 2.7% of attitude towards brand Ab (unfamiliar sponsor brand); can be explained by the independent variable. This means that Attitude toward comparative advertising (Aad) has significant influence on attitude toward brand (Ab) for ad sponsored by an unfamiliar brand. Hypothesis (H1) is accepted in case of unfamiliar brands also.

Table 1   Impact of Aad on Ab

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Adjusted ( R^2 )</th>
<th>Std. error</th>
<th>Constnt</th>
<th>Std.Coff. Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<td>Attitude towards ad (familiar brand)</td>
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<td>.8625</td>
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<td>Attitude towards brand (unfamiliar brand)</td>
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<td>.027</td>
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<td>2.960</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>.00</td>
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2. Relationship between (Aad) and (PI) – H2

(a) For comparative ad sponsored by a familiar brand

The R value is 0.250 (as shown in Table 2), which represents the simple correlation and, therefore, indicates a low degree of correlation. The adjusted \( R^2 \) (0.063) value indicates how much of the dependent variable, purchase intention (PI) can be explained by the independent variable, attitude towards ad (Aad). In this case, 6.3% can be explained, which is good value. The regression equation indicates that both the constant and Aad contribute significantly to the hypothesised model as:

\[ PI = 3.470 + 0.336(Aad) \]
Hence, the second hypothesis that Attitude toward ad (Aad) has significant influence on purchase intention (PI) is accepted in case of comparative ad sponsored by a familiar brand.

(b) For comparative ad sponsored by an unfamiliar brand.

The R value is 0.574 (as shown in Table 2), which represents the simple correlation and, therefore, indicates a high degree of correlation. In addition Table 2 indicates acceptance of hypothesis (H2) whereby (Aad) was found to have the ability to explain (32.9%) of the variance in (PI) (Adjusted $R^2=.329$); and that (Aad) was found to positively and significantly associated with the regression equation as shown below:

$$PI = 1.030 + 0.710(Aad)$$

Hence, the second hypothesis that Attitude toward ad (Aad) has significant influence on purchase intention (PI) is accepted in case of comparative ad sponsored by an unfamiliar brand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2 Impact of Aad on PI</th>
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<td><strong>Model Summary of Regression Analysis</strong></td>
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<th>Independent Variable</th>
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<th>Std. error</th>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Std.Coeff. Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<th>Sig.</th>
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<tr>
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<td>1.007</td>
<td>3.470</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>4.627</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>5.777</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards ad (unfamiliar brand)</td>
<td>Purchase Intention (unfamiliar brand)</td>
<td>.574</td>
<td>.329</td>
<td>.321</td>
<td>1.030</td>
<td>.710</td>
<td>2.053</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>38.77</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Relationship between (Ab) and (PI) – $H3$

(a) For comparative ad sponsored by a familiar brand.

The R value is 0.107 (as shown in Table 3), which represents the simple correlation and, therefore, indicates a low degree of correlation. The adjusted $R^2$ (0.012) value indicates how much of the dependent variable, purchase intention (PI); can be explained by the independent variable, Ab. In this case, 1.2% can be explained, which is not very large. The regression equation indicates that both the constant and Aad
contribute significantly to the hypothesised model as:

\[ PI = 4.587 + 0.116(Ab) \]

Hence, the third hypothesis that Attitude toward brand (Ab) has significant influence on purchase intention (PI) is accepted.

(b) For comparative ad sponsored by an unfamiliar brand.

The R value is 0.364 (as shown in Table 3), which represents the simple correlation and, therefore, indicates a good degree of correlation. In addition Table 3 indicates acceptance of hypothesis (H3) whereby (Ab) was found to have the ability to explain (13.2%) of the variance in (PI) (Adjusted R²=.132; and that (Ab) was found to positively and significantly associated with the regression equation as shown below:

\[ PI = 2.394 + 0.429(Ab) \]

This means that Hypothesis (H3) is accepted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3 Impact of Ab on PI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model Summary of Regression Analysis</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependent Variable</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards brand (familiar brand)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards brand (unfamiliar brand)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Moderation effect of brand familiarity-

H4

(a) For comparative ad sponsored by a familiar brand.

In case of comparative ad sponsored by a familiar brand, the moderation effect of brand familiarity indicates R Square Change is 0.008(Table 4) when the interaction variable is added to the predictor and moderator variables. This change is significant, \( F (1, 41) = 0.335, p = 0.566 \). The significant interaction tells us that our presumed moderator (brand familiarity) does indeed moderate the effects of the predictor (Aad) on the outcome variable (Ab). Hence, Hypothesis 4 is accepted.
b) For comparative ad sponsored by an unfamiliar brand.

In case of comparative ad sponsored by an unfamiliar brand, the moderation effect of brand familiarity indicates $R^2$ Change is 0.003 (Table 5) when the interaction variable is added to the predictor and moderator variables. This change is significant, $F(1, 77) = 0.226$, $p = 0.636$. The significant interaction tells us that our presumed moderator (brand familiarity) does indeed moderate the effects of the predictor (Aad) on the outcome variable (Ab). Hence, Hypothesis 4 is accepted.

Table 5. Moderation Effect in case of unfamiliar sponsor brand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>R Square Change</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig. F Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.178$^a$</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>-.014</td>
<td>1.01227</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.687</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.199$^b$</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>-.031</td>
<td>1.02038</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.335</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>.566</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), bf, aad
b. Predictors: (Constant), bf, aad, aadbf

Discussion

For the comparative ad sponsored by unfamiliar brand, attitude towards ad, attitude towards brand and purchase intention were higher as compared to that for an ad sponsored by a familiar brand. This suggests that it is better to expose consumers to comparative ads sponsored by unfamiliar brands. Thus result is in agreement with the study done by Chattopadhyay (1998) which suggested that comparative advertisements sponsored by an unknown brand are more effective in changing consumers' brand attitudes than non-comparative advertisements. Shimp & Dyer (1978) also support that comparative advertising is more effective
for new market entrants whereas non-comparative advertising may be better for established sponsoring brands. A market leader probably should not use comparative advertising for there are no apparent benefits to the firm in doing so (Jain & Hackleman, 1978). If a brand has a small market share, or is unfamiliar to buyers, it can enhance the relevance of an advertisement by naming a leading brand, which is regularly purchased or is familiar to consumers. (Muehling et al., 1990; Pechmann & Stewart, 1990; Gnepa, 1993). When consumers are exposed to an advertisement for an unfamiliar brand, they are more likely to have a goal of learning about and forming an accurate impression of the brand (Hilton & Darley, 1991). The possible reasons for this can be the fact that advertisements for unfamiliar brands appear more novel and interesting, and therefore they elicit more extensive processing. When consumers are exposed to an advertisement for an unfamiliar brand, they are more likely to have a goal of learning about and forming an accurate impression of the brand (Hilton & Darley, 1991).

By exposing consumers to an unfamiliar brand for which they have no prior exposure or ad recall, the risk of enhancing consumers’ already negative disposition toward the brand is reduced. Also, mere exposure can work to increase the prominence of the brand without having consumers access their existing dispositions toward the brand (Alba & Chattopadhyay, 1986; Janiszewski, 1993).

The study has shown that comparative advertising works quite differently for unfamiliar brands and for familiar brands. Familiar brands benefit from recall and can be perceived as even more attractive when they are exposed with other (unfamiliar) brands. Unfamiliar brands, on the other hand, do not benefit from recall. Unfamiliar brands, therefore, should be exposed in a way that will not lead consumers to process the advertising by comparing the unfamiliar brands with other familiar brands and accessing existing (negative) brand schemas. Advertisements for the existing and well-known brand led to a better understanding of the advertisement and to a more positive attitude towards the brand and Purchase Intention. Hypothesis 1, 2 and 3 were largely supported with respect to the effect of the type of advertisement on responses. All three components of attitude towards the advertisement, attitude towards the brand and purchase intention were influenced in a similar way.

In terms of the effect of brand familiarity on relationship between (Aad) and (Ab) (H4), this study found notable result, as it
found that attitude toward advertising has effect on attitude toward brand but when brand is familiar, and there is no effect for brand familiarity on the relationship between (Aad) and (Ab) when brand is unfamiliar. This result is in agreement with study of Gresham & Shimp (1985), as they found significant effect of (Aad) on (Ab) for familiar brands and they used prior attitude toward brand as moderator between (Aad) and (Ab), also, concords with studies of Phelps & Hoy, (1996), Edell & Burke, (1987). While, result of this study is in conflict with results of the study of Machleit & Wilson, (1988) and Madden & Allen, (1990) as they did not find significant relationship between Aad and Ab for familiar brands.

**Implications and Further Research**

This study has undertaken a profoundly review of comparative advertising and its effectiveness in terms of on (Aad), (Ab), and (PI), and beside that it explored the effect of brand familiarity on the relationship between Aad and Ab. The results provide an understanding of consumer behavior and thus gave practitioners some ideas in understanding how the use of comparative advertising can result in varying degrees of consumers’ attitude toward advertising (Aad) and brand (Ab), and their purchase intention (PI), depending on the familiarity of the sponsor brand. It is expected that the study can provide insights for further research in this area and help marketers and advertisers to execute comparative advertising can help consumer to distinguish among brands available and to evaluate effectively. Our proposed model can provide marketers with a framework to understand how their marketing plans, especially comparative advertising plans, influence their consumers. Marketers can use the model proposed in this study to rationalize the use and effectiveness of comparative advertisements. For example, this model entails that effectiveness of comparative advertising varies with different brand familiarity. Marketers of unfamiliar brands should focus more on such ads that make positive affective reactions transfer to Aad and consequently enhance PI. Also ads for unfamiliar brands should be designed in such way as to create a positive attitude toward the ad and brand, as such brands do not benefit from recall.

The research findings may help advertisers, marketers to understand what key factors would help implement successful comparative advertisements in the competitive market. These results are likely to help academicians and marketers to collect information and plan appropriate competitive advertising strategies. This
study will generate scope for other advertisers, which were earlier not into the practice of comparative advertising.

Limitations

This research has some limitations. One limitation of this approach was the absence of a control condition (in the form of non-comparative advertisements) from our experiment. Another limitation is that the results of this study cannot be generalized for all the consumers and results may vary for the other product categories. The present study consisted of only one exposure. A comparative ad of brand that is totally unfamiliar to consumers is likely to present a desolate contrast initially. With repeated exposures, the initial contrast effects could possibly be replaced by classical conditioning effects. Therefore, there is a need for further research taking multiple exposures into account. Also, the introduction of new advertising media such as mobile and internet may bring evolutionary changes in the hypotheses on which this study is based. Thus, further research should be conducted to reveal whether differences in media type can influence our integrative model. Finally, future studies are needed to address cross-cultural differences that can alter some of the propositions and relationships.

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