

THE EFFECTS OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING ON THE  
DEPARTMENT STORE IMAGE: AN EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS

by

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## CHAPTER I

### RETAIL IMAGES AND COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

In recent years manufacturers have attempted to manipulate their product images and hence carefully "position" their products in the consumer's mind. In this process, they apparently have relied on comparative advertising as their main advertising approach. An important question which remains to be answered is whether or not retailers could also use comparative advertising in their store image development programs.

#### Introduction

The way a product is perceived is probably more important to its ultimate marketing success than are its factual characteristics. Accordingly, marketers continually find that it is what consumers believe to be true that predicts their behavior, not what is the pure or scientific truth.

For example, taste tests reveal that most beer drinkers can not discriminate between beer tastes, yet many brand loyal beer drinkers insist that their brand of beer has a superior taste.<sup>1</sup> Some consumers claim that decaffeinated coffee is inferior in taste to regular coffee. However, in blind taste tests they have not been able to differentiate between the

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<sup>1</sup>Ralph J. Allison and Kenneth P. Uhl, "Influence of Beer Brand Identification on Taste Perception," Journal of Marketing Research 1 (August 1964): 36-39.

two.<sup>1</sup> In many cases, consumers use price as a surrogate indicator of a product's quality.<sup>2</sup>

The overall manner in which a product is perceived is often called the product's image. A product image is a personality or set of meanings by which a product is known and through which people describe, remember, and relate to it.<sup>3</sup> The product image is created in response to certain stimuli to which consumer is exposed and it constitutes the sum of the consumer's reactions to the product. Some of these stimuli are purely physical, like a food product's taste, while others are purely psychological, like the product's name. Between these two extremes are stimuli which are both physical and psychological, like a product's package. The consumer's overall response to these stimuli forms an image of the product.<sup>4</sup>

Today, the term "positioning" is increasingly used to refer to the development of a specific product image.<sup>5</sup> In 1972, Trout and Ries heralded

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<sup>1</sup>Charles E. Overholser and John M. Kline, "Advertising Strategy for Consumer Research," Journal of Advertising Research 1 (October 1971): 3-10.

<sup>2</sup>See for example, Kent B. Monroe, "Buyer's Subjective Perceptions of Price," Journal of Marketing Research 10 (February 1973): 70-80; and Benson P. Shapiro, "Price Reliance: Existence and Sources," Journal of Marketing Research 10 (August 1974): 286-294.

<sup>3</sup>David A. Aaker and John G. Myers, Advertising Management (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), p. 139.

<sup>4</sup>Kenneth E. Runyon, Consumer Behavior and the Practice of Marketing (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1977), pp. 20-21.

<sup>5</sup>As evidenced by the increased usage of the term positioning and re-positioning in the literature, especially Advertising Age. Very often the term positioning is used to refer to the new product situation while re-positioning is used to refer to existing products.

the coming of a new era in marketing strategy, that they called the "Era of Positioning." They stated that:

Positioning has its roots in the packaged goods field where the concept was called product positioning. It literally meant the product's form, package size and price as compared to its competition. . .today we are entering an era that recognizes the importance of both the product and company image, but more than anything else, stresses the need to create a position in the prospect's mind.<sup>1</sup>

Although positioning or the development of a product image requires many marketing decisions such as quality, price, package, etc., the marketer must also carefully promote the product to create the image that the firm wants the market to see and understand.<sup>2</sup> Products can be overlooked by consumers because they have not been clearly positioned or sharply targeted at the intended consumer market or they may be rejected because they are perceived by the consumer as unable to satisfy perceived needs as well as competitive products. In each of these instances, it is implied that marketers need to design promotional programs to impart a more favorable, perhaps more relevant product image to the target customer.<sup>3</sup>

Therefore, a problem in positioning is determining the type of promotional program necessary to create the desired image or state of mind. For most consumer goods, this issue is not what type of promotion, but instead,

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<sup>1</sup>Jack Trout and Al Ries, "The Positioning Era Cometh," Advertising Age 24 April 1972, pp. 35-38.

<sup>2</sup>William G. Nickels, Marketing Principles (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978), p. 99.

<sup>3</sup>Leon G. Schiffman and Leslie Lazar Kanuk, Consumer Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978), p. 81.

what type of advertising program or approach to use. The following discussion suggests that manufacturers have increasingly employed comparative advertising as their approach.

#### Comparative Advertising: A Background

During the past few years there has been a surge in the use of comparative advertising. Comparative advertising is defined as advertising that:

- (1) Compares two or more specifically named or recognizably presented brands of the same generic class, and
- (2) Makes such a comparison in terms of one or more specific produce or service attributes.<sup>1</sup>

Although comparisons with named competitors have been a long established personal selling technique for products and services, it was not until 1968 when American Motors compared its Javelin to the Ford Mustang (automobiles) that direct brand comparison of major products began to appear in print media.<sup>2</sup> Since that time, there has been widespread use of the technique in broadcast media. A 1973 content analysis study of national network television commercials indicated that comparative advertisements constituted approximately seven percent of all types of advertising message structures.<sup>3</sup> More recently, about 8.3 percent of the

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<sup>1</sup>William L. Wilkie and Paul Farris, "Comparison Advertising: Problems and Potential," Journal of Marketing 39 (October 1975): 7. Note: The terms comparison and comparative advertising are used synonymously to refer to this approach.

<sup>2</sup>Linda L. Golden, "Consumer Reactions to Comparative Advertising," in B. B. Anderson (ed.), Advances in Consumer Research Vol. III, Association for Consumer Research, 1976, pp. 63-67.

<sup>3</sup>Terence P. Shimp, "Comparison Advertising in National Television Commercials: A Content Analysis," Proceedings, Fall Conference of the American Marketing Association, 1975, p. 506.



commercials during prime time television were comparative in nature.<sup>1</sup> Recent examples of this form of advertising include the following: Ford's Granada vs. Mercedes-Benz (automobiles), Tylenol vs. Datril (pain relievers), and Right Guard vs. Arrid (deodorants).

There appears to be two dominant reasons for the increased use of comparative advertising. One is the Federal Trade Commission's (FTC) stand relative to the technique. In 1971, the FTC encouraged the major television networks to accept advertisements that included comparisons with named competitors' brands. The FTC apparently did this in an attempt to move advertisers away from indirect comparisons with "Brand X" or electronic "beep" sound techniques. The FTC's underlying motives were to provide a more competitive market and provide the consumer with information that might permit more objective product decision making.<sup>2</sup>

A second and even more important reason for the increased use of comparative advertising lies with the advertising industry. Its supporters point to this approach as:

A new, creative method of communication--one that increases levels of brand awareness and the consumers' general interest in advertising.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Neil Hickey, "It's Goodbye 'Brand X'," TV Guide 2 October 1976 44.

<sup>2</sup>Stanley M. Ulanoff, "Comparison Advertising: An Historical Retrospective," Working paper, Marketing Science Institute, 1975, pp. 12-13.

<sup>3</sup>William D. Tyler, "Comparative Advertising: A Powerful Selling Tool When It Is Not Abused," Advertising Age 21 April 1975, p. 58.

Perhaps the greatest support for comparative advertising comes from the belief that it is the advertising approach best suited for product positioning. This contends that comparative advertising enables the firm to develop a more precise, clearer image than is possible with noncomparative advertising. Trout and Ries express this feeling.

In the positioning era. . .to establish a position you must often name competitive names. . .the prospect already knows the benefits of using the product. . .to climb on his (consumer's) product ladder you must relate your brand to the brands already there.<sup>1</sup>

Thus, Trout and Ries feel that a brand's position should be developed by making comparisons with the competitors' products.

Some users of comparative advertising claim phenomenal financial rewards from using this type of advertising. For example, Shick, Inc.,'s comparative campaign for its Fleximatic electric shaver is credited with pushing market share figures from eight to twenty-four percent.<sup>2</sup> The Savin Business Machine Corporation has used comparative advertising, naming IBM, to develop an image which as most likely contributed to a quadrupling of sales over a four year period.<sup>3</sup>

Despite increasing popularity of comparative advertising, recent reported studies<sup>4</sup> have both supported and refuted its usefulness. For

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<sup>1</sup>Jack Trout and Al Ries, "Positioning Cuts Through Chaos in Marketplace," Advertising Age 1 May 1972, pp. 51-54.

<sup>2</sup>"Schick, Inc., Teeters on the Razor's Edge," Business Week 5 May 1975, p. 38.

<sup>3</sup>"It Pays to Knock Your Competitor," Fortune 13 February 1978, p. 106.

<sup>4</sup>A thorough review of these studies is offered in Chapter II.

example, Philip Levine, executive research director at the Ogilvy & Mather advertising agency, states:

Our study of television commercials that name names suggests that there is little to be gained from this type of advertising for the advertising industry, the advertiser, or the consumer.<sup>1</sup>

One of Levine's major findings was that comparative advertising did not create clear product images. Consumers often confused the sponsoring brand with the named competitors. In contrast, Wilson found higher perceived quality for three products (beer, cat food, and toothpaste) when they were comparatively versus noncomparatively advertised.<sup>2</sup>

Wilson and others seem to feel that comparative advertising may have differing effects, depending upon the conditions under which it is applied. These conditions might include, but are not limited to: nature of the product (convenience, shopping, specialty), audience characteristics, stage of product in its life cycle, market position of sponsored product (leader versus nonleader), intensity of comparison, media used, and retail versus manufacturer usage.

Thus, marketers need to identify the set of conditions under which this new advertising approach would be preferred over a more traditional or noncomparative approach. Therefore, the problem that this study addresses is whether or not comparative advertising can be used to produce desirable effects regarding the image of the retailer.

<sup>1</sup>Philip Levine, "Commercials that Name Competing Brands," Journal of Advertising Research 16 (December 1976): 7-16.

<sup>2</sup>R. Dale Wilson, "An Empirical Evaluation of Comparative Advertising Messages: Subject's Responses on Perceptual Dimensions," in B. B. Anderson (ed.), Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. III, Association for Consumer Research, 1976, pp. 53-57.

### The Problem Area

Despite the need to study the variety of conditions under which comparative advertising might be effectively used, all empirical studies to date have limited themselves to the investigation of the effects of manufacturer sponsored comparative advertising. No one has measured the effects of retailer sponsored comparative advertising on store image. This literature gap represents a problem area for three major reasons.

First, the image of a retail store may often influence the image of the products sold in that store. Although the type of product the consumer wishes to buy will influence the selection of a retail outlet, the evaluation of that same product will be influenced by knowledge of where it was bought.<sup>1</sup> Thus, the image of a retail store may be used as a surrogate indicator of product quality.<sup>2</sup> For example, in an experimental setting, carpet samples from a high prestige store had more favorable product images than the same samples from a low prestige store.<sup>3</sup>

Roselius found that the store image ranked high with consumers as a method of reducing risk in the purchase situation.<sup>4</sup> Current studies limited to

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<sup>1</sup>Schiffman and Kanuk, p. 84. For example, this means that the decision to buy a color television limits the consumer's choice of retail outlets (e.g., to a department store, appliance store, etc.) but also that the consumer's perception and image of the television which was eventually purchased is strongly influenced by knowledge of the outlet selected for the purchase.

<sup>2</sup>Runyon, p. 304.

<sup>3</sup>Ben M. Enis and James E. Stafford, "Consumer's Perception of Product Quality as a Function of Various Informational Inputs," in Philip R. McDonald (ed.), Marketing Involvement in Society and the Environment (Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1969), pp. 340-344.

<sup>4</sup>Ted Roselius, "Consumer Rankings of Risk Reduction Methods," Journal of Marketing 35 (January 1975): 56-66.

manufacturer sponsored comparative advertising overlook this very important relationship between product and store images. Since retail store image may affect the product image, it appears justifiable to study methods of improving the store image.

A second reason lies with the basic importance of store image to retailing success. The repeat business of a retailer is a function of the image that consumers have of that store.<sup>1</sup> There is also evidence that store loyalty is closely associated with store image.<sup>2</sup> Dalrymple and Thompson argue that the image of the store is, in many cases, far more important to the consumer than is the image of the merchandise bought.<sup>3</sup> The image is also of key importance to those retailers in the maturity stage of their life cycle.<sup>4</sup> Retailers in this stage have very limited opportunities for growth and any increase in sales must often come by drawing customers away from the competition.<sup>5</sup> In order to draw these

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<sup>1</sup>Ronald B. Marks, "A Multi-attribute Approach to the Store Imagery Problem," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri: Columbia, 1974).

<sup>2</sup>V. P. Lessig, "Consumer Store Images and Store Loyalties," Journal of Marketing 38 (October 1973): 72-74.

<sup>3</sup>Douglas J. Dalrymple and Donald C. Thompson, Retailing: An Economic View (New York: The Free Press, 1969), p. 121.

<sup>4</sup>For a discussion of the retail life cycle see: William R. Davidson, Albert D. Bates, and Stephen J. Bass, "The Retail Life Cycle," Harvard Business Review (November-December 1976), pp. 89-96.

<sup>5</sup>Herbert E. Brown and J. Taylor Sims, "Market Segmentation, Product Differentiation and Market Positioning as Alternative Marketing Strategies," Proceedings, American Marketing Association Educator's Conference, 1977, pp. 483-487.

customers, a given retailer must develop and communicate an image which is more favorable than those of the competition. Comparative advertising may offer an effective method for accomplishing this task.

A third reason why comparative advertising should be studied in the retailing sector comes from the sheer magnitude of retail advertising budgets. In 1976, the total sales of U.S. retailers were estimated at \$661.7 billion. At this level of sales, approximately \$9.9 billion was invested in retail advertising.<sup>1</sup> In 1977, Sears, Roebuck & Company spent a total of \$447 million on national and local advertising. Its advertising budget was the second largest in the U.S., only slightly less than Procter & Gamble's \$460 million.<sup>2</sup> The volume of these figures alone point out the need for retailers to be continually looking for and using the most effective advertising methods available to promote their images.

In summary, the cause for concern over the lack of empirical studies addressing the impact of comparative advertising on the store image is based on three reasons. They are: (1) store images affect product images, (2) the importance of store image to retail success, and (3) the size of retail investment in advertising. By acknowledging these reasons, merit is given to the study of retail comparative advertising and its effect on store image.

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<sup>1</sup>Statistical Abstract of the United States, U.S. Census Bureau, Department of Commerce, 1976, p. 589.

<sup>2</sup>Advertising Age 28 August 1978, p. 196.

### The Study Problem

This study, therefore, deals with the retail store image. It explores the degree to which store image can be changed and/or enhanced when a retailer employs comparative advertising. Thus, the study is another attempt to evaluate comparative advertising's effectiveness. However, it is to be evaluated in a setting different than that of the manufacturer.

### Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of the study is to evaluate the effects of retail sponsored comparative advertising. More specifically, an attempt is made to assess the relative effects of comparative and noncomparative newspaper advertising on the image of a department store. The choice of the department store as a unit of investigation is based upon the economic role played by this type of retailer. In 1976, department store sales represented approximately 11.4 percent of all retail sales, ranking third in total retail sales behind food stores and automobile dealers. However, department stores exhibit a higher percent of sales dollar amount spend on advertising (2.8%) than do all retailers combined (1.5%). Department stores spent nearly three billion dollars on advertising in 1976.<sup>1</sup>

The specific questions investigated by the study are: (1) Do comparative and noncomparative advertisements have different effects on the overall image of a sponsoring department store? (2) Do comparative and noncomparative advertisements have different effects upon consumers' evaluation

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<sup>1</sup>National Retail Merchants Association (January 1978), telephone interview.

of those individual image dimensions stressed in the advertisements?<sup>1</sup>

(3) Do comparative and noncomparative advertisements have different effects upon the consumers' beliefs of specific advertising claims? and (4) Do comparative and noncomparative advertisements have different effects on the image, advertised attributes, and claim beliefs within specific market segments (e.g., income, degree of loyalty to sponsoring store, age and income.)

### Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in its potential contribution to three areas: (1) public policy decision making, (2) general knowledge concerning comparative advertising's effect on consumers, and (3) retail sponsored advertising knowledge.

As previously stated, the FTC is currently encouraging the use of comparative advertising. To maintain this policy without a full understanding of its effects upon the users and audience is questionable. Further documentation of these effects could tend to either support or refute the current FTC stand.

The results of the study will also add to the current body of knowledge concerning comparative advertising's effect on the image of its sponsor. Of special interest is measuring the effects on special market segments as defined by demographic, socioeconomic, and loyalty variables. The study investigates the possible differences in effects on consumers

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<sup>1</sup>Store image dimensions are conceptually analogous to attributes composing a product image. Identification of the attributes that compose a department store image are discussed in Chapter II.



loyal and nonloyal to the sponsoring store. These findings will have important implications for those sponsors attempting to expand their market share by drawing customers from competitors.

A general potential contribution of the study is to add to the body of knowledge concerning retail advertising. The study hopes to facilitate the establishment of guidelines concerning the use of retail sponsored comparative advertising. The fact that retailers generally have fewer guidelines and information for making advertising decisions than manufacturers do can be easily documented.<sup>1</sup> From this, the greatest potential contribution is knowledge about how the use of comparative advertising affects store image. As has been discussed in this chapter, store image is a most important determinant of retail success. Of course, the findings of this study are most directly applicable to the case of department store advertising and image development.

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<sup>1</sup>For example, numerous books on advertising relegate discussion, if any, on retail advertising to back chapters. Also, the number of books devoted solely to retail advertising are few in number, compared to those predominately having a manufacturer orientation. A review of Books in Print 1977-1978 (New York: R. R. Bowker Company) found 93 books (hardbounds, paperbacks, trade books and textbooks) appear to have a manufacturer orientation while only 5 appear to have a retailer orientation. This literature shortage is also evident in the current periodical field. A review of issues from the last ten years (1968-1977) of the Journal of Advertising Research, Journal of Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research, and Journal of Retailing revealed that a total of twelve articles, notes, or communications were specifically addressed to retail advertising. This is rather minute when one considers that an estimated 2000 such pieces were produced in those journals.

### Organization of the Study

The study is divided into five chapters. The first chapter has introduced the reader to the concepts of product and retail images, positioning, and comparative advertising. The general purpose of the study was identified as an investigation of the effects of comparative versus noncomparative newspaper advertising on the image of a department store.

Chapter II presents a review of literature concerning comparative advertising, conceptualization and measuring store image and the effects of retail advertising on the store image.

The details of the study's methodology and an identification of its hypotheses are given in Chapter III. The preliminary study conducted in order to develop the experimental ads and test the reliability of the dependent variable measures is described in this chapter. A complete description of and justification for the experimental design used to generate data are made. Since a multi-attribute model was used to measure store image, a review of the issues concerning the use of this general type of attitude model is also presented.

A summary of the sample and of the check for randomization of experimental treatments is presented in Chapter IV. Various other summary and descriptive statistics are provided along with the results of hypotheses testing.

The final chapter provides a short summary of the findings of the study and suggests explanations for these findings. It also points out limitations of the experiment, identifies contributions of the study and, lastly, suggests directions for future research.

Summary

Comparative advertising, which involves the naming of competitors, is an advertising approach recently popularized by manufacturers. There is strong reason to believe that this popularity is based on the feeling that comparative advertising is appropriate for the development of favorable product images.

Unfortunately, the emphasis on product images and manufacturer sponsored comparative advertising overlooks another important business sector--that of retailing. Whether or not retailers would find comparative advertising useful, as manufacturers have, is an unanswered research question. Perhaps comparative advertising can produce favorable effects on store image. This study is an attempt to answer this crucial question and measures the effect(s) of comparative advertising on store image.

The justification for this investigation comes from the following considerations: (1) There is a close relationship between the product and store image, (2) Store image is a very important determinant of retail success and (3) The size of retail advertising investment is so large that a contemporary advertising approach such as comparative advertising can not be ignored. These three considerations give merit to studying retail sponsored comparative advertising.

The results of the study are of greatest potential significance to retailers. Through the findings, it will be possible to explore the strengths and/or weaknesses of retail sponsored comparative advertising. Such an exploration will permit the generation of guidelines governing the retail use of comparative advertising.

## CHAPTER II

### STORE IMAGES, RETAIL ADVERTISING AND THE STORE IMAGE, AND EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING'S EFFECTS

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature concerning three topics relevant to the study. First, knowledge regarding store image conceptualization and measurement is presented because store image was the study's dependent variable. Second, the key literature supporting the belief that advertising affects store image is discussed because the study assumed that advertising is used by retailers to influence store images. Third, the current body of knowledge addressing the suggested and proven effects of comparative advertising is examined because the study used retailer sponsored comparative advertising as an independent variable. All three of these topics are discussed below in the same order as outlined above.

#### Store Images

The literature addresses three important issues concerning store image. These issues include defining store image, identifying the image dimensions, and measuring store image.

#### Definitions of Store Image

The most widely referenced definition of store image is:

. . .the way in which the store is defined in the shoppers' mind, partly by its functional qualities and partly by an aura of psychological attributes.<sup>1</sup>

This definition has two key phrases. The first, "functional qualities," refers to such store elements as assortment of product offerings, store layout, store location, price-value relationships and other such qualities that the consumer can somewhat objectively compare to competitors. The second key phrase, "psychological attributes," refers to the consumer's perception of the store's attributes, such as friendliness of store personnel, helpfulness of store personnel, or attractiveness of decor. Both of Martineau's phrases imply the existence of multiple descriptors to which a goodness-badness rating can be attached.

A study measuring the effects of television advertising on store image defined store image as ". . .a complex of meanings and relationships serving to characterize the store for people."<sup>2</sup> This definition implies that consumers take a complex of factors and reduce them to manageable proportions. The phrase "meanings" also implies dimensions and would, therefore, parallel Martineau's definition.

The customer's store image may depend on how well the store has met the customer's aspiration level with regard to price, quality, and service.<sup>3</sup> Thus, store image is determined by comparing the perceived and

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<sup>1</sup>Pierre Martineau, "The Personality of the Retail Store," Harvard Business Review 36 (January-February 1958): 48.

<sup>2</sup>Leon Arons, "Does Television Viewing Influence Store Image and Shopping Frequency?" Journal of Retailing 37 (Fall 1961): 2.

<sup>3</sup>Bruce Weale, "Measuring the Customer's Image of a Department Store," Journal of Retailing 37 (Summer 1961): 40-48.

desired level of store performance across these dimensions.

Oxenfeldt considers the image to be "a combination of factual and emotional material."<sup>1</sup> This viewpoint, which parallels Martineau's definition, stresses that many customers will hold factually based opinions about a store and also feel certain ways toward it.

Another frequently cited definition is offered by Berry:

In this study image is defined as the discriminative stimuli (S<sup>d</sup>) for expected reinforcement. That is, an image is the result of differential reinforcement in the context of a given stimulus or set of stimuli. Specifically, department store image is the result at any one point in time of differential reinforcement, in the context of a department store, previous to that time. Stated differently, department store image is the total conceptualized or expected reinforcement that an individual associates with a particular store.<sup>2</sup>

This definition proposes that store image is developed through experience and points out the need for retailers to reinforce favorable (existing) image dimensions.

A definition similar to Berry's considers the consumers' experience with the store. Here image of a department store is:

the summation of all his (consumer's) attributes resulting from personal experiences with various facets of that store. The public image of a department store is the aggregation of all consumer images of that store.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Alfred R. Oxenfeldt, "Developing a Favorable Price-Quality Image," Journal of Retailing 50 (Winter 1974-1975): 7.

<sup>2</sup>Leonard Berry, "The Components of Department Store Image," Journal of Retailing 41 (Spring 1969): 2.

<sup>3</sup>Robert G. Wyckham, "Aggregate Department Store Images: Social and Experimental Factors," Proceedings of the American Marketing Association Conference, 1967, p. 333.

### Store Image Definitions--Commonalities

All of the above authors stress that store image is complex by nature. They also view image as consisting of a combination of tangible or functional dimensions and intangible or psychological dimensions that consumers perceive to be present. Engel, Kollat and Blackwell acknowledge that store image definitions differ somewhat, but an essential point is that the store exists in the perception of consumers as well as in objective characteristics.<sup>1</sup> Thus, store image researchers must be concerned with identifying the dimensions of a store which, when considered together, compose store image.

### Composition of Store Image--The Dimensions

Numerous authors have offered their suggestions about what dimensions are used to form store image. In 1958, Martineau suggested that four categories of ingredients make the store's image: symbols and color, layout and architecture, advertising, and sales personnel.<sup>2</sup>

Shortly after Martineau's work, six different categories of image dimensions were conceptualized. A total of 30 specific dimensions were identified in those categories.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>James F. Engel, Roger D. Blackwell, and David J. Kollat, Consumer Behavior, 3rd ed. (Hinsdale, Illinois: The Dryden Press, 1978), p. 520.

<sup>2</sup>Martineau, pp. 47-55.

<sup>3</sup>George Fisk, "A Conceptual Model for Studying Customer Image," Journal of Retailing 37 (Winter 1961-1962): 1-8.

Store image has been viewed as consisting of eight different dimension categories, each category containing its own unique dimensions. These categories comprise a total of 35 dimensions.<sup>1</sup>

Perhaps the most exhaustive development of an image dimension list was undertaken by Kunkel and Berry. By answering three open-ended questions, their respondents provided 3,737 statements describing their perceptions of three Phoenix (Arizona) department stores; statements of dimensions they liked and disliked, and statements of why they thought other people shopped in those three stores. From these statements, the authors identified 12 categories derived from a total of 43 individual dimensions.

While several other authors have suggested specific image dimensions,<sup>2</sup> their proposed dimensions are most similar to those suggested by the author above. Lindquist reviewed the published results of 19 studies and synthesized their store image frameworks into a set of nine image/attitude dimension categories. The following is an identification and description of those nine categories:

Merchandise--The five dimensions considered here are quality, selection or assortment, styling or fashion, guarantees, and pricing. Merchandise itself is taken to mean the goods and services offered by a retail outlet.

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<sup>1</sup>Robert F. Kelly and Ronald Stephenson, "The Semantic Differential: An Information Source for Designing Retail Patronage Appeals," Journal of Marketing 31 (October 1967): 43-47.

<sup>2</sup>See, for example: Arons, pp. 1-13; Eleanor G. May, Department Store Images: Basic Findings (Cambridge, Mass.: Marketing Science Institute, March, 1972); Louis P. Bucklin, "Retail Strategy and the Classification of Consumer Goods," Journal of Marketing 27 (January 1963): 50-55; T. Ellsworth, D. Benjamin, and H. Rudolf, "Customer Response to Trading Stamps," Journal of Retailing 33 (Winter 1957-1958): 165-169; and Stewart A. Rich and Bernard D. Portis, "The 'Imageries' of Department Stores," Journal of Marketing 28 (April 1964): 10-15.



Service--The dimension areas are service-general, salesclerk service, presence of self-service, ease of merchandise return, delivery service, and credit policies of the store.

Clientele--Social class appeal, self-image congruency, and store personnel are included as dimensions of this factor.

Physical Facilities--This dimension category covers the facilities available in a store to include such things as elevators, lighting, air conditioning, and washrooms. It may also be used by a customer to include store layout, aisle placement and width, carpeting, and architecture.

Convenience--Three dimensions have been identified that fit into this classification; namely, convenience-general, locational convenience, and parking.

Promotion--Within this summary grouping one finds sales promotions, advertising, displays, trading stamps, and symbols and colors.

Store Atmosphere--This dimension category consists of what the author would dub atmosphere-congeniality. This refers to a customer's feeling of warmth, acceptance, or ease.

Institutional Factors--Within this grouping is the conservative-modern projection of the store, and also the dimensions of reputation and reliability enter the picture.

Post-Transaction Satisfaction--This classification of dimensions would include such areas as merchandise in use, returns, and adjustments. In essence, was the consumer satisfied with his purchase and with the store?<sup>1</sup>

Using a "Percent of Scholar Mentions," Lindquist identified what the literature has deemed important image dimensions. The results of this popularity measure are provided in Table 1. Lindquist cautions the retailer's use of his findings for the following reason:

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<sup>1</sup>Jay D. Lindquist, "Meaning of Image," Journal of Retailing 50 (Winter 1974-1975): 29-38.

TABLE 1

## PERCENT OF SCHOLAR MENTIONS FOR STORE IMAGE DIMENSIONS\*

Category-Attribute**	Scholar Mentions
Merchandise-Selection or Assortment	42%
Merchandise-Quality	38%
Merchandise-Pricing	38%
Convenience-Locational	35%
Merchandise-Styling, Fashion	27%
Service-General	27%
Service-Salesclerk	27%

\* Percent of Scholar Mentions was calculated by dividing the total number of times the issue was mentioned by the number of scholarly studies reviewed.

\*\* Attribute is synonymous to dimension.

Note: The above seven items are combinations of Lindquist's categorical titles (nine) and specific attributes within those categories. It is these seven that were most popular with the work of the 26 authors recognized by Lindquist.

Adapted from: Jay D. Lindquist, "Meaning of Image," Journal of Retailing 50 (Winter 1974-1975): 29-38.

. . .statements of the relative importance of various attributes with respect to consumer retail store image formulation based upon relative frequency of mention by the investigators cited is not encouraged. However, one may assert that such relative frequency of mention is a valuable indicator of potentially key attributes.<sup>1</sup>

Acknowledging Lindquist's feelings, Hansen and Deutscher used consumers as the sole basis for determining grocery and department store images. A major conclusion made by this study was that the same set of dimensions are important across different types of stores.<sup>2</sup>

#### Measurement of Store Image

Approaches to the measurement of store image are a function of the researcher's definition of store image as well as his/her conception of what specific store dimensions compose store image. Despite this, all store image measurement approaches can be classified as either structured or unstructured.

Unstructured approaches include word association tests, nondirective questioning and other projective techniques. An unstructured psycholinguistic technique was used where individual consumers provided names of stores (nouns) and bases of similarity and dissimilarity (adjectives) among stores.<sup>3</sup> In a more recent study, the same technique was used to

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<sup>1</sup>Lindquist, p. 32.

<sup>2</sup>Robert A. Hansen and Terry Deutscher, "An Empirical Investigation of Attribute-Importance in Retail Store Selection," Journal of Retailing 53 (Winter 1977-1978): 59-72.

<sup>3</sup>Richard N. Cardozo, "How Images Vary by Product Class," Journal of Retailing 50 (Winter 1974-1975): 85-97.

measure images of men's retail clothing stores.<sup>1</sup> In an attempt to explain why consumers left a store without making a purchase ("Walk-outs"), Myers employed an unstructured store image measurement approach. "Walkouts" were asked what thoughts or concepts came to their mind when they thought of the particular store they had just left.<sup>2</sup> A variety of projective techniques, including cartoon tests, were utilized to investigate image variation among sister units of major retail institutions in Los Angeles.<sup>3</sup>

Structured approaches to the store image measurement problem include: the semantic differential, multidimensional scaling, and multiattribute attitude modeling. The semantic differential is the most popular of these approaches.<sup>4</sup>

Kelly and Stephenson proposed using the semantic differential to identify the factors underlying consumer patronage decisions.<sup>5</sup> The

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<sup>1</sup>William V. Muse, "Using Word-Association Tests to Develop Retail Store Image," Journal of Retailing 50 (Winter 1974-1975): 35-42.

<sup>2</sup>Robert H. Myers, "Sharpening Your Store Image," Journal of Retailing 36 (Fall 1960): 129-137.

<sup>3</sup>Burton H. Marcus, "Image Variation and the Multi-Unit Retail Establishment," Journal of Retailing 48 (Summer 1972): 29-43.

<sup>4</sup>For description of this technique and its theoretical underpinnings see Charles E. Osgood, George J. Suci, and Percy H. Tannebaum in The Measurement of Meaning (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Free Press, 1957) and James G. Snider and Charles E. Osgood (eds.) Semantic Differential Technique: A Sourcebook (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1969). For a discussion of the marketing application of the semantic differential, see: William A. Mindak, "Fitting the Semantic Differential to the Marketing Problem," Journal of Marketing 25 (April 1961): 28-33.

<sup>5</sup>Kelly and Stephenson, pp. 43-47.

same technique was used to measure department store image,<sup>1,2</sup> investigate possible differences in customers' versus retailers' department store images,<sup>3,4</sup> measure the effects of television advertising on department store image,<sup>5</sup> and to assess the semantic differential's weaknesses relative to an open-ended question technique.<sup>6</sup>

The use of multidimensional scaling (MDS) for measuring store image has also been reported.<sup>7</sup> This technique has been used to measure the image of several South Carolina discount/department stores,<sup>8</sup> measure differences

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<sup>1</sup>Wyckham, pp. 333-337.

<sup>2</sup>Eleanor G. May, "Image Evaluation of a Department Store--Techniques for Conducting the Study," working paper (Cambridge, Mass.: Marketing Science Institute, 1971).

<sup>3</sup>Dev. S. Pathak, William J. Crissy, and Robert W. Sweitzer, "Customer Image versus the Retailer's Anticipated Image," Journal of Retailing 50 (Winter 1974-1975): 21-28.

<sup>4</sup>Arons, pp. 1-13.

<sup>5</sup>Arons, pp. 1-13.

<sup>6</sup>G. H. G. McDougall and J. N. Fry, "Combining Two Methods of Image Measurement," Journal of Retailing 50 (Winter 1974-1975): 53-61.

<sup>7</sup>For a review of the MDS technique and its application to marketing, see Paul E. Green, "Marketing Applications of MDS; Assessment and Outlook," Journal of Marketing 39 (January 1975): 24-31; and with V. R. Rao, Applied Multidimensional Scaling (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972).

<sup>8</sup>Peter Doyle and Alok Sharma, "A Model for Strategic Positioning in Retailing," Proceedings, American Marketing Association Educators' Conference, 1977, pp. 10-14.

in store images held by consumers with varying degrees of store loyalty,<sup>1</sup> and measure grocery store images.<sup>2</sup>

Marketers have also recently applied multiattribute attitude models for the purpose of measuring store image.<sup>3</sup> Lessig adapted a Fishbein attitude model to examine the relationship between consumer images of grocery stores and consumer loyalty to those stores.<sup>4</sup> In an image study of a men's clothing store, James, Durand, and Dreves concluded that a multiattribute approach was a good predictor of store image.<sup>5</sup> The

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<sup>1</sup>Ricardo L. Singson, "Multidimensional Scaling Analysis of Store Image and Shopping Behavior," Journal of Retailing 51 (Summer 1975): 38-52.

<sup>2</sup>Peter Doyle and Ian Fenwick, "How Store Images Affect Shopping Habits in Grocery Chains," Journal of Retailing 50 (Winter 1974-1975): 39-52.

<sup>3</sup>A thorough discussion of applying this approach to the image measurement problem is offered in Chapter III. All multiattribute models are basically derived from those originally conceived by Fishbein and Rosenberg. See, for example: Martin Fishbein, "A Behavior Theory Approach to the Relations Between Beliefs About an Object and the Attitude Toward the Object," Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), pp. 256-266. Also, see Milton J. Rosenberg, "Cognitive Structure and Additudinal Affect," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 53 (November 1956): 367-372.

<sup>4</sup>V. Parker Lessig, "Relating Multivariate Measures of Store Loyalty and Store Image," Proceedings, American Marketing Association Educators' Conference, 1972, pp. 305-309.

<sup>5</sup>Don L. James, Richard M. Durand, and Robert A Dreves, "The Use of a Multiattribute Attitude Model in a Store Image Study," Journal of Retailing 52 (Summer 1976): 23-32.

multiattribute approach was also employed to compare images of a department and specialty (clothing) store,<sup>1</sup> as well as to isolate different market segments for a 20 store restaurant chain.<sup>2</sup>

#### Summary--Store Image

A review of the literature has shown that there are several definitions of the store image. However, each definition seems to recognize that store image is the result of the consumer's perception of the store's performance across a variety of specific image dimensions. Some of these dimensions are more functional or objective in nature (e.g., credit policy and location) and that others are more psychological or subjective in nature (e.g., friendliness of personnel and interior decor).

The list of dimensions composing store image is often lengthy and sometimes has overlapping dimensions. The list is often entirely dependent on the researcher's creativity, while in other cases, the list is based on research findings. However, recent store image research acknowledges that it is the consumer who should determine what dimensions are relevant to the overall image and the importance of those dimensions.

Finally, the literature shows a variety of approaches being used to measure store image. The semantic differential has been the traditional

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<sup>1</sup>Ronald B. Marks, "A Multi-attribute Approach to the Store Imagery Problem," (Columbia, Missouri: unpublished dissertation, University of Missouri, 1974).

<sup>4</sup>William R. Swinyard, "Market Segmentation in Retail Service Industries: A Multiattribute Approach," Journal of Retailing 53 (Spring 1977): 27-34.

and most popular approach. However, multidimensional scaling and multiattribute modeling are being increasingly employed.

#### Retail Advertising and Store Image

The first purpose of this section is to review the three major studies assessing the impact of retail advertising on the store image. The second purpose is to review briefly some non-empirical based literature which suggests that store image is a function of retail advertising.

Arons used a field study to determine the degree to which television viewing influenced the consumers' images of Midwest department stores. A positive relationship was found between television viewing, which included a particular store's advertisements, and that store's image.<sup>1</sup> Arnold and Tigert found that substantially changing a marketing effort (advertising included) affected consumers' perceptions of grocery store dimensions. The change resulted in a more favorable store image.<sup>2</sup> The impact of retail advertising on store image is further documented by the results of a study conducted by Social Research, Inc. In this study, women who judged a department store solely by its advertisements (with store identification omitted) described the store almost identically with women who knew the store.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Arons, pp. 1-13.

<sup>2</sup>Stephen J. Arnold and Douglas J. Tigert, "Market Monitoring Through Attitude Research," Journal of Retailing 49 (Winter 1973-1974): 3-22.

<sup>3</sup>Pierre Martineau, Motivation in Advertising (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957), p. 175.



Despite the shortage of empirical studies assessing the impact of retail advertising on store image, other retail literature exhibits a belief that retail advertising affects store image. In describing the functions and goals of retail advertising, Duncan and Hollander note: ". . .its main job from the retailer's standpoint is to create a desirable image in the customer's mind."<sup>1</sup> Although image building advertising is often referred to as institutional advertising, all retail advertising has some institutional effect.<sup>2,3</sup>

Mason and Mayer suggest that advertising can be used over time to enhance and/or change a store image.<sup>4</sup> For example, the A&P (food store) now uses a "Price and Pride" advertising campaign to rebuild an image which was tarnished by the earlier W.E.O. ("Where Economy Originates") campaign.

Thus, the literature suggests that store image is affected by retail advertising. This means that retail advertising has an affect on the consumer's perception of a particular store's performance across the image dimensions mentioned earlier in this chapter. Hence, a very important retail consideration is identifying and using advertising approaches which improve, not damage, store images.

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<sup>1</sup>Delbert J. Duncan and Stanley C. Hollander, Modern Retailing Management (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc. 1977), p. 444.

<sup>2</sup>Duncan and Hollander, pp. 444-445.

<sup>3</sup>Martineau, Advertising, p. 175.

<sup>4</sup>Joseph Barry Mason and Morris Lehman Mayer, Modern Retailing Theory and Practice (Dallas, Texas: Business Publications, Inc., 1978), p. 445.

### The Effects of Comparative Advertising

The purpose of this section is to review the literature identifying the effects of comparative advertising.

Research undertaken to measure the specific effects of advertising on the consumer is classified as either "sales" or "communications" effect research.<sup>1</sup> A review of what has been reported concerning comparative advertising's effects is next offered within these two research approaches.

### Sales Oriented Advertising

Recent evidence that comparative advertising is effective for increasing sales is exemplified by Bristol-Myers' exuberance over the early national sales performance of Datril (an aspirin substitute). In October, 1975, Bristol-Myers announced that Datril had reached 15 percent more of the market than its competitor Tylenol.<sup>2</sup>

Further evidence that comparative advertising may increase sales was provided by Schick, Inc. In 1972, Schick's share of the \$175 million electric shaver market was eight percent. Immediately following Schick's comparative advertising campaign stressing the advantages of their Fleximatic brand over Norelco, Remington, and Sunbeam offerings, its market share quickly jumped to 24 percent.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>S. Watson Dunn and Arnold M. Barban, Advertising: Its Role in Modern Marketing (Hinsdale, Illinois: The Dryden Press, 1978), p. 289.

<sup>2</sup>"Datril Sales Booming, Bristol-Myers Claims: Top Excedrin," Advertising Age 6 October 1975, p. 1.

<sup>3</sup>"Schick, Inc.," Teeters on the Razor's Edge," Business Week 5 May 1975, p. 38.

Buick has credited substantial sales increases to comparative advertising for its Japanese-made Opel automobile. Prior to a comparative campaign aimed at the VW Rabbit, Toyota Corolla, Datsun B-210, and the Subaru DL, Opel was ranked eleventh in sales among twelve imported cars in its price class. Opel's market share doubled following that campaign.<sup>1</sup> Savin Business Machines Corporation claimed that a comparative advertising campaign naming IBM was a major factor in quadrupling their sales since 1974 to approximately \$200 million in 1978.<sup>2</sup>

Despite these reportings, the "sales effect" approach to measuring effectiveness presents numerous problems since it is doubtful that the specific variables of advertising effectiveness can be isolated, let alone be meaningfully measured. The exact sales effect is difficult to measure since numerous factors influence the sales of a particular product.<sup>3</sup> Prasad points out:

Although some cases of [sales] success by marketers who employed comparative advertising strategies have been cited, it's not entirely clear whether this success was due to increased advertising budgets, or whether the same results could have been achieved with more conventional advertising formats without explicitly naming competitors.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>"It Pays to Knock Your Competitor," Fortune 13 February 1978, p. 106.

<sup>2</sup>"It Pays to Knock Your Competitor," p. 108.

<sup>3</sup>Philip Kotler, Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, and Control 3rd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976).

<sup>4</sup>V. Kanti Prasad, "Communications Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising: A Laboratory Analysis," Journal of Marketing Research 13 (May 1976): 128-137.

Expressing similar feelings, several researchers have therefore attempted to measure the communication effects of comparative advertising.

#### Communications Oriented Advertising

Communications oriented advertising strategists frequently employ adoption models for the purpose of describing and measuring how consumers process information. Adoption models view the purchase decision as a sequential process that begins with awareness of an advertised object and concludes with the purchase of that object. There are numerous adoption models.<sup>1</sup> One popular model is the "hierarchy of effects" model.<sup>2</sup> The sequential steps of this model are: awareness, knowledge, liking, preference, conviction, and purchase.

Wilkie and Farris suggest that the hierarchy of effects model should be used to measure the communications effects of comparative advertising.<sup>3</sup> This model is also said to be a key theoretical construct in the field of

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<sup>1</sup>For example, the AIDA acronym (awareness, interest, desire, action) classic in marketing literature is a simplistic explanation of the adoption process. More sophisticated explanations are provided by Robert J. Lavidge and Gary A. Steiner, "A Model for Predictive Measurements of Advertising Effectiveness," Journal of Marketing 24 (October 1961): 59-62; Russell H. Colley, Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results (New York: Association of National Advertisers, 1961); and more recently by John N. Howard and Jagdish N. Sheth in The Theory of Buyer Behavior (New York: John Wiley & Son, 1969).

<sup>2</sup>The model was initialled such by Kristian S. Palda, "The Hypothesis of a Hierarchy of Effects: A Partial Explanation," Journal of Marketing Research 3 (February 1966): 13-24.

<sup>3</sup>William L. Wilkie and Paul Farris, "Comparison Advertising: Problems and Potential," Journal of Marketing 39 (October 1975): 7-11.

marketing communications.<sup>1</sup> As other adoption models, the hierarchy of effects model recognizes three attitudinal components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral.

These three components provide a viable framework for reviewing the empirical studies that have measured comparative advertising's effects. The next section of this chapter provides such a review within this type of framework. Figure 1 is an outline of the exact framework used.

#### Comparative Advertising and the Cognitive Component

The cognitive component concerns itself with the manner in which the attitude object is perceived. In an attempt to affect this component, the advertiser sets a goal of imparting "favorable knowledge" which will lead to the development of positive attitudes toward the product. Providing the favorable knowledge construct requires that consumers: (1) be made aware of the advertisement and/or the product advertised and (2) develop favorable perceptions of both.<sup>2</sup>

#### Awareness Levels

In a 1976 study, Ogilvy & Mather, using experimental tests of comparative and noncomparative 30-second television advertisements, failed to find favorable effects for comparative advertising on awareness levels.<sup>3</sup> In

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<sup>1</sup>Michael Ray, "Marketing Communication and the Hierarchy-of-Effects," Marketing Science Institute Working Paper, November 1973, p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>Peter M. Ginter and Jack M. Starling, "A Two-Dimensional Analysis of Comparative Advertising Effectiveness," paper presented at the Southwestern Marketing Association Annual Conference, Dallas, Texas, March 1978, p. 4.

<sup>3</sup>Ogilvy & Mather Research, The Effects of Comparative Television Advertising that Names Competing Brands, 1976, pp. 1-8.

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- I. COGNITIVE COMPONENT
    - A. Awareness levels
    - B. Favorable perceptions
      - 1. Differentiation
      - 2. Association
      - 3. Believability
      - 4. Informativeness
      - 5. Comprehension
        - a. Confusion
        - b. Brand misidentification
  - II. AFFECTIVE COMPONENT
    - A. Specific Advertisement Attribute
    - B. Products
    - C. Sponsoring Company
    - D. Comparative Advertising Practice
  - III. BEHAVIORAL COMPONENT
    - A. Buying Intentions
    - B. Brand Preferences
    - C. Purchase Behavior
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Figure 1. Hierarchy of Effects Model used to Review Comparative Advertising Studies.

Note: This is a modified framework of that offered by Peter M. Ginter and Jack M. Starling, "A Two-Dimensional Analysis of Comparative Advertising Effectiveness," presented at the Southwestern Marketing Association Annual Conference, Dallas March 1978.

fact, one of their major conclusions was a warning that comparative advertising may increase awareness levels for the named competing brands. In a similar study (1977), Ogilvy & Mather found no significant difference in awareness levels for comparative advertising versus noncomparative advertising.<sup>1</sup>

Using mock magazine advertisements for a fictitious calculator brand, another study reported no overall differences in respondent's ability to recall product features seen in noncomparative and comparative advertisements.<sup>2</sup> In contrast, comparative advertising has been found to cause higher immediate brand recall than noncomparative advertising. However, after 24 hours, there was little difference in recall ability.<sup>3</sup>

Brand name recall levels for "Brand X" advertisements were equal to those for comparative advertisements while claim recall for the comparative advertising approach was significantly higher than for the "Brand X" approach.<sup>4</sup> Moreover, noncomparative advertisements are more effective than

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<sup>1</sup>Ogilvy & Mather Research, A Further Investigation Into the Effects of Comparative Television Advertising that Names Competing Brands, 1977, pp. 1-9.

<sup>2</sup>William M. Pride, Charles W. Lamb, and Barbara A. Pletcher, "Are Comparative Advertisements More Informative for Owners of the Mentioned Competing Brand than for Nonowners?" Proceedings, American Marketing Association Educators Conference, Harford, August 1977, p. 298-301.  
Note: Intensity is concerned with how "strong" a comparison is made.

<sup>3</sup>Subhash C. Jain and Edwin C. Hackleman, "How Effective is Comparison Advertising for Stimulating Brand Recall?" Journal of Advertising 7 (Summer 1978): 20-25.

<sup>4</sup>Prasad, pp. 128-137.

comparative advertisements in producing consumer ability to recall copy points.<sup>1</sup>

#### Favorable Perceptions

The primary determinants for favorable perceptions of advertisements are the consumer's ability to: (1) perceive brand differentiation or association, (2) believe the advertisement, (3) perceive informativeness in the advertisement and (4) comprehend the advertisement (understandability).

Differentiation. Comparing one brand to another may be an effective means for clearly differentiating the two, especially if stressed product attributes are those important to the consumer.<sup>2</sup> One set of studies concludes that there is no clear-cut advantage in using comparative advertisements to differentiate between brands.<sup>3</sup>

Association. Often referred to as "upgrading by association," an attempt is made to obscure the differentiating abilities of the public by associating a sponsor's brand with a more highly regarded brand (often a brand with a larger market share). Such a strategy is very attractive when used for "underdog" brands or products:

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<sup>1</sup>Terence A. Shimp and David C. Dyer, "The Effects of Comparative Advertising Mediated by Market Position of Sponsoring Brand," Journal of Advertising 7 (Summer 1978): 13-19.

<sup>2</sup>Wilkie and Farris, pp. 7-11.

<sup>3</sup>Ogilvy & Mather Research 1976, 1977, and An Investigation Into the Effects of Comparative Print Advertising that Names Competing Brands, (Fall 1977), pp. 1-14.



In the Avis "No. 2" campaign, and campaigns by Carte Blanche, S.O.S. Soap Pads, and American Motors, "All could gain from clearly identifying the competition." Research predicts that if the named competitor retaliates, the "underdog" will benefit for two reasons: (1) people interpret the response as a sign the first attack may be true, and (2) the "association rule" still holds. This rule states that when a high-status object is associated with a low-status object, the high-status object loses a little and the low-status object gains from the association.<sup>1</sup>

Thus, the BBDO advertising agency supports using comparative advertising for an association strategy while the Ogilvy & Mather agency condemns its use for a differentiation strategy. In an experimental test of comparative advertising's effectiveness for executing either strategy, Pride et al. found no significant differences between comparative and noncomparative advertising.<sup>2</sup>

Believability. In several studies, consumers have been asked how much they believed comparative advertisements and/or advertisement claims relative to those for noncomparative advertising. Comparative advertising has been found to produce lower believability levels versus noncomparative advertising for: health and beauty aids, drug products,<sup>3</sup> consumer services, packaged goods,<sup>4</sup> airline credit cards, pain relievers,<sup>5</sup> and fast food chains.<sup>6</sup> Higher believability levels were found for: beer, deodorants,

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<sup>1</sup>"Underdog Advertiser Wins in 'Naming Names': BBDO," Advertising Age 10 March 1975. p. 556.

<sup>2</sup>Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, pp. 298-301.

<sup>3</sup>Ogilvy & Mather Research (1976), pp. 1-8.

<sup>4</sup>Ogilvy & Mather Research (1977), pp. 1-9.

<sup>5</sup>Ogilvy & Mather Research (Fall 1977), pp. 1-14.

<sup>6</sup>Shimp and Dyer, pp. 17-18.

and mouthwash products.<sup>1</sup> Claim believability of a camera comparative advertisement was lower than that for a "Brand X" advertisement among subjects who exhibited a preference for the named competitor brand.<sup>2</sup>

The following statement suggests that comparative advertising believability will be low if questionable, poor, or unimportant comparisons are made:

Comparative advertising is a logical extension of comparison shopping. But when it does not supply useful facts, when it is merely "name naming," comparative advertising runs the risk of making consumers skeptical of all advertising.<sup>3</sup>

Wilson concurs by noting that comparative advertising is not appropriate unless one brand offers a clear-cut, substantial advantage over another brand.<sup>4</sup> Citing tests by independent laboratories or other trustworthy sources may also help to improve claim believability.<sup>5</sup>

Informativeness. Comparative advertising is used to inform owners or users of the mentioned competing products that the sponsoring product is equal to or superior to competing products. Unless consumers view

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<sup>1</sup>R. Dale Wilson, "An Empirical Evaluation of Comparative Advertising Messages: Subject's Responses on Perceptual Dimensions," in B. B. Anderson (ed.) Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. III, Association for Consumer Research, 1976, pp. 53-57.

<sup>2</sup>Prasad, pp. 134-135.

<sup>3</sup>"Care in Comparisons Urged: Cosmetics Market Tacks Hit," Advertising Age 5 August 1975, p. 31.

<sup>4</sup>Wilson, p. 57.

<sup>5</sup>Prasad, p. 135.

comparative advertising as informative, brand switching should not occur.<sup>1</sup>

Perceived informativeness was found significantly greater for single-product versus comparative advertisements for autos and catfood.<sup>2</sup> No significant differences were found for bath soap, beer, credit cards, deodorant, mouthwash, toothpaste,<sup>3</sup> calculators,<sup>4</sup> and fast food chains.<sup>5</sup>

McDougall, using Likert-type scales, found 45.8 percent of 225 respondents agreeing with the statement: "comparative advertisements provide the consumer with more useful information than other types of ads," and 51.1 percent disagreeing with the statement: "comparative ads which name other brands help consumers in their buying decisions."<sup>6</sup>

Comprehension. In communications, comprehension implies that the "intended message is the same as the "received" message. In addressing this issue, all three Ogilvy & Mather studies found comparative advertising to be of more or equal confusion than noncomparative advertising in all

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<sup>1</sup>Wilkie and Farris, p. 12.

<sup>2</sup>Wilson, pp. 53-57.

<sup>3</sup>Wilson, pp. 53-57.

<sup>4</sup>Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, pp. 298-301.

<sup>5</sup>Shimp and Dyer, pp. 13-19.

<sup>6</sup>Gordon H. G. McDougall, "Comparative Advertising: Consumer Issues and Attitudes," Proceedings American Marketing Association Educators Conference, 1977, pp. 286-291.

studied product/service categories except for cigarette advertisements aimed at men.<sup>1</sup>

Another aspect of comprehension is brand misidentification which occurs when the consumer can not properly identify the sponsoring brand versus named competitors. More correct sponsor identification has been found in comparative (versus noncomparative) advertising for durable goods<sup>2</sup> and fast food chains.<sup>3</sup> Other studies report no significant differences.

#### Comparative Advertising and the Affective Component

The affective component of attitude structure is concerned with the intensity and the direction of the consumer's feelings toward a specific object, such as a product. Both intensity and direction have been measured on the basis of four criteria: (1) specific advertisement attributes, (2) products, (3) sponsoring company, and (4) the comparative advertising practice itself.

#### Specific Advertisement Attributes

Comparative advertisements were found significantly more offensive than single-product advertisements for six products (autos, bath soap, beer, cat food, credit cards, and deodorant).<sup>4</sup> Comparative advertisements

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<sup>1</sup>Ogilvy & Mather Research, 1976, pp. 1-8; 1977, pp. 1-9 and Fall 1977, pp. 1-14.

<sup>2</sup>Ogilvy & Mather (1977), pp. 1-9.

<sup>3</sup>Shimp and Dyer, pp. 13-19.

<sup>4</sup>Wilson, pp. 53-57.

were also rated as significantly less interesting than single-product advertisements for bath soap, cat food, and deodorant.<sup>1</sup> Fast food chain comparative advertisements were rated more interesting than non-comparative advertisement.<sup>2</sup>

#### Products

Consumers have indicated a greater willingness to change their views toward the product when exposed to comparative versus noncomparative advertising. Unfortunately, the study reporting this finding did not identify the direction of change.<sup>3</sup>

#### Sponsoring Company

Consumers have labeled the companies sponsoring comparative advertising as less trustworthy than those sponsoring noncomparative advertising.<sup>4,5</sup>

#### Comparative Advertising Practice

Using 14 Likert-type scaling questions, McDougall concluded that consumers feel that advertisers should not be allowed to name other brands in their advertisements. However, bimodal response patterns

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<sup>1</sup>Wilson, pp. 53-57.

<sup>2</sup>Shimp and Dyer, pp. 13-19.

<sup>3</sup>Wilson, pp. 53-57.

<sup>4</sup>Wilson, pp. 53-57.

<sup>5</sup>Shimp and Dyer, pp. 13-19.

to the attitude statements indicated that there was a minority of respondents who held a positive attitude toward comparative advertising.<sup>1</sup>

### Comparative Advertising and the Behavioral Component

The transition from attitudes to actual buying behavior is usually made through this component. Measurement of this component frequently involves the use of buying intentions, brand preferences, and purchase behavior.

#### Buying Intentions

The buying intentions of consumers exposed to comparative advertisements are not significantly different from those exposed to other forms of advertising.<sup>2,3</sup> However, higher intention ratings are possible when using specific themes.<sup>4</sup>

#### Brand Preferences

Comparative advertising of a consumer service and a pain reliever was found significantly more effective than noncomparative advertising in causing a brand to be considered "first priority" given a consumer need to purchase that type of product. Noncomparative advertising produced

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<sup>1</sup>McDougall, pp. 286-291.

<sup>2</sup>Shimp and Dyer, pp. 13-19.

<sup>3</sup>Linda Golden, "Consumer Reactions to Comparative Advertising," in B. B. Anderson (ed.), Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. III, Association for Consumer Research, 1976, pp. 63-67.

<sup>4</sup>Golden, pp. 63-67. Although her study did not offer a description of these themes, it is perceived that differences were due to variations in headline construction, illustrations, amount of copy, etc.

higher brand preference levels for autos, airlines, cigarettes, vodka, deodorants, and salad oil.<sup>1</sup>

#### Purchase Behavior

Only the first study conducted by Ogilvy & Mather contains evidence concerning comparative advertising's effects upon purchase behavior as measured by a pre-post change in the average number of purchases. The findings reported a significant increase in the amount of purchases of health and beauty aids which were comparatively advertised.<sup>2</sup> This purchase behavior measurement was not made (or at least not reported) in the two later Ogilvy & Mather studies.

These studies, and their measured effects, seem to indicate that comparative advertising may or may not offer an advantage over noncomparative advertising. This has led researchers to conclude that comparative advertising is potentially more effective than noncomparative advertising, depending on the "situation" in which it is applied.<sup>3</sup> The purpose of this next section is to describe what has been reported concerning the situational effects of comparative advertising.

#### Situational Effects of Comparative Advertising

Several of the above studies, using attitude as their dependent variables, also isolated specific independent or intervening variables

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<sup>1</sup>Ogilvy & Mather Research (1977) pp. 1-14 and (Fall 1977), pp. 1-9.

<sup>2</sup>Ogilvy & Mather Research (1976) pp. 1-8.

<sup>3</sup>Golden, pp. 63-68; Prasad, pp. 128-137; Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, pp. 298-301; Jain and Hackleman, pp. 20-25; Shimp and Dyer, pp. 13-19; and McDougall, pp. 286-291.

which allowed an investigation of comparative advertising's situational effects. The studies are reviewed within the following outline:

1. Audience Characteristics
  - a. loyalty to sponsoring brand
  - b. ownership of named competitor
  - c. demographics
2. Message Characteristics
  - a. substantiation of claims
  - b. use of tests
  - c. intensity of appeal
  - d. theme
3. Media Characteristics
  - a. print versus broadcast
4. Product/Company Characteristics
  - a. product/services
  - b. durable versus nondurable goods
  - c. market position (i.e., market leader, follower, new entrant)

#### Audience Characteristics

It has been suggested that comparative advertising might have differing effects (versus noncomparative advertising) on dissimilar market segments or audiences.<sup>1</sup> One study found users of the sponsoring brand rating message claims significantly more favorably than did users of competing brands or nonloyal users (i.e., purchase any brand.)<sup>2</sup> Golden reported significantly higher purchase intentions for respondents loyal to the sponsored versus named competitor brand.<sup>3</sup> Prasad found respondents

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<sup>1</sup>Wilkie and Farris, p. 14.

<sup>2</sup>McDougall, pp. 286-291.

<sup>3</sup>Golden, p. 65.



whose preferred brand was "attacked" in the comparative advertisement not exhibiting lower claim recall than those who showed no preference for the same brand. In the same study, consumers loyal to the named competitor had significantly lower claim believability than those nonloyal.<sup>1</sup>

Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher investigated the possibility of differential effects on users or nonusers of the competing brand. Their study reported no significant difference between comparative versus noncomparative advertisements on two dependent variables: perceived informativeness and feature awareness.<sup>2</sup> Answers to fourteen attitude statements toward comparative advertising were related to six respondent demographic variables (marital status, education, education of spouse, age, employment status and income). No significant differences were found. This suggests that attitudes toward comparative advertising are related to factors other than demographics.<sup>3</sup>

#### Message Characteristics

Studies measuring the effects of comparative message appeals have investigated three areas: (1) substantiation and citing of a testing organization, (2) intensity of appeal, and (3) theme.

A substantiated advertisement is one in which the audience is told (or shown) that tests, studies, etc. have been conducted to prove a claim. Sometimes the name of a testing agency is mentioned as part of the

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<sup>1</sup>Prasad, p. 134.

<sup>2</sup>Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, pp. 299-301.

<sup>3</sup>McDougall, pp. 290.

substantiation. McDougall found respondents skeptical of test claims made in comparative advertisements.<sup>1</sup> Another study used unsubstantiated claims in comparative toothpaste ads and found no advantage over noncomparative advertisements in effectiveness.<sup>2</sup> The citation of an agency that conducted tests or other trustworthy source might increase claim believability.<sup>3,4</sup>

Comparative advertisements can be shown with strong intensity (e.g., claiming superiority on several attributes over several competitors), weak in intensity (e.g., name one competitor, do not illustrate their product, or mention their brand name more than once) or any degree of intensity between these two extremes. Studying three intensity levels, Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher found that a moderate level created a higher level of perceived informativeness for both owners and nonowners of the competing brand.<sup>5</sup>

An advertisement for a specific product can be constructed in several ways by varying illustrations, headlines, amount of copy, colors, etc. These different approaches could be called themes. In conjunction with specific themes, comparative advertisements have relatively stronger influence on purchase intentions than noncomparative advertisements.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>McDougall, p. 291.

<sup>2</sup>Wilson, pp. 56-57.

<sup>3</sup>Golden, p. 67.

<sup>4</sup>Prasad, p. 135.

<sup>5</sup>Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher, p. 300-301.

<sup>6</sup>Golden, pp. 63-68.

### Media Characteristics

Wilkie and Farris raised the question of whether or not comparative advertising would have varying effects depending on the media selected for advertisement presentations.<sup>1</sup> Table 2 identifies the comparative advertising studies by authors and the media used. A review of these studies hints that comparative advertising is more effective in print media than in broadcast (television only). The effects of comparative advertising through the radio media have not been assessed.

### Product/Company Characteristics

Whether or not certain products and/or services "lend" themselves to comparative advertising has been, at least, partially determined. First, Table 3 lists the various products/services that have been studied to date. Second, Table 4 identifies those products/services for which comparative advertising has been found to produce significantly more favorable effects than other advertising approaches.

Shopping goods may be special candidates for comparative advertising because consumers often compare two or more brands before purchasing.<sup>2</sup> A review of Table 4 shows this is not to be the case. In fact, Jain and Hackleman measured the effectiveness of comparative advertising for convenience, shopping, and specialty goods and concluded that comparative advertisements work best for convenience goods. One reason for this may be that consumers have little risk involved in accepting the information

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<sup>1</sup>Wilkie and Farris, p. 11.

<sup>2</sup>Wilkie and Farris, p. 11.

TABLE 2  
 MEDIA USED IN COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING STUDIES

Study (Year)	Media
Golden (1976)	Newspaper
McDougall (1977)	Unspecified
Ogilvy & Mather (1976)	Television
Ogilvy & Mather (1977)	Television
Ogilvy & Mather (Fall 1977)	Magazine
Prasad (1976)	Magazine
Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher (1977)	Magazine
Wilson (1976)	Magazine and Television
Jain and Hackleman (1978)	Print (slides)
Shimp and Dyer (1978)	Magazine

TABLE 3

## PRODUCTS/SERVICES USED IN COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING STUDIES

Study (Year)	Product/Service
Ogilvy & Mather (1976)	Health and beauty aids (3), drugs (2)*
Ogilvy & Mather (1977)	Service, durable goods (3), packaged goods (3)*
Ogilvy & Mather (Fall 1977)	Autos, airlines, credit cards, cigarettes, vodka, oven cleaner, salad oil, pain reliever, potato chips
McDougall (1977)	Deodorant, laundry detergent, bleach
Prasad (1976)	Camera (fictitious brand)
Golden (1976)	Deodorant
Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher (1977)	Calculator (fictitious brand) .
Jain and Hackleman (1978)	Convenience goods: coffee, toothpaste headache pill, cigarette Shopping goods: refrigerator, clock radio, camera, electric shaver Specialty goods: piano, foreign sports car, overseas vacation, foreign liqueur (all fictitious brands)
Shimp and Dyer (1978)	Fast food hamburger chains (fictitious and real brand)
Wilson (1976)	Automobile, beer, cat food, credit cards, deodorant, mouthwash, tooth- paste, and soap

\* Unspecified type.

TABLE 4  
 STUDIES IDENTIFYING PRODUCTS/SERVICES APPROPRIATE  
 TO COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

Study (Year)	Product/Service	Dependent Variable
Wilson (1976)	Beer, deodorant, mouthwash	Believability
Golden (1976)	Deodorant (for specific theme) <sup>a</sup>	Purchase intentions
Ogilvy & Mather (1977)	Service (unspecified)	Brand preference
Ogilvy & Mather (Fall 1977)	Pain reliever	Brand preference
Ogilvy & Mather (1976)	Health and beauty aid	Brand purchase
Jain and Hackleman (1978)	Toothpaste <sup>a</sup>	Brand recall
Shimp and Dyer (1978)	Fast food chain <sup>a</sup>	Hierarchy of effects

<sup>a</sup>For fictitious brand (new market entrant)

contained in a convenience good versus shopping or specialty good advertisement.<sup>1</sup>

Comparative advertising's effectiveness may be a function of the market position of its sponsor. Specifically, is it effective for market leaders, market followers, or even new market entrants? In addressing this critical issue, Golden offers little insight as she concludes that the particular advertisement theme "interacts" with market position to determine a comparative advertisement's effectiveness.<sup>2</sup> However, in a more definitive study, comparative advertising was more effective for new market entrants and noncomparative advertising better for established sponsoring brands.<sup>3</sup>

#### Summary--The Effects of Comparative Advertising

Although there have been several corporate reports suggesting that comparative advertising leads to increased sales, empirical studies find mixed results in comparative advertising's ability to provide desirable communications effects. Thus, in some cases, comparative advertising produces more favorable effects than noncomparative advertising and in other cases the opposite is true. Comparative advertising studies have used a variety of products (i.e., convenience, shopping, and specialty goods) and media (i.e., magazines, television, and newspaper). Some have used well-known brands, while others have utilized fictitious brands.

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<sup>1</sup>Jain and Hackleman, pp. 24-25.

<sup>2</sup>Golden, pp. 66-67.

<sup>3</sup>Shimp and Dyer, pp. 13-19.

Some general conclusions derived from the studies are: (1) Comparative is relatively more effective than noncomparative advertising for convenience goods and when promoting a new brand, (2) Some segments of the market have positive feelings about comparative advertising, (3) Users or owners of the named competitor brands appear to be resistant to comparative claims, (4) Comparative ads can be made more effective through careful theme construction and use and citing of a source to substantiate ad claims, and (5) Most researchers agree that there is a great deal more to be learned about comparative advertising's effects and situations in which its use is appropriate.



CHAPTER III  
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGIES

This chapter presents approaches used to measure the effects of department store sponsored comparative advertising. The chapter is composed of seven separate sections: (1) general research objective, (2) research setting, (3) research design and sampling, (4) preparation of experimental treatments, (5) dependent variable measurement approaches, (6) research hypotheses and (7) summary.

General Research Objective

The comparative advertising literature review recognizes a need for research to fully explore the situations in which comparative advertising might be preferred over noncomparative advertising. Although there have been an increasing number of empirical studies addressing this research need, a serious neglect has been a failure to assess the effects of retail comparative advertising.

Even though there have been attempts to measure the effects of comparative advertising on the brand image, there have not been attempts to measure the effects of this advertising approach on store image. Recognizing the importance of store image to retailers, it is appropriate to answer the question of how appropriate retail comparative advertising is for promoting store images.

Therefore, the general purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of retail comparative advertising. The specific objectives were to measure and compare the effects of comparative and noncomparative advertising on a department store image, advertised image attributes,<sup>1</sup> and advertisement claim beliefs.<sup>2</sup> Based on the literature review of Chapter II, the study hypothesized different effects from the two advertising approaches on the dependent variables.<sup>3</sup>

### Research Setting

One of the most potentially profitable, and yet elusive, concerns of consumer behavior remains the study of advertising's effect on the consumer. An essential problem is measuring the advertising effect in an environment that is "psychologically equivalent," if not physically equivalent, to the real world environment.<sup>4</sup> When research is conducted in the real world environment, it is often difficult to control for several variables such as economic and political fluctuations, competitive responses,

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<sup>1</sup>In this chapter the term image attribute is used synonymously with image dimension. This is appropriate as a multiattribute model was used to measure the store image.

<sup>2</sup>Explanation of these dependent variables is provided later in this chapter.

<sup>3</sup>The operational hypotheses are presented at the end of this chapter. Note: A preliminary study was necessary to develop these hypotheses and a description of that study is given in this chapter.

<sup>4</sup>Frederick W. Winter, "A Laboratory Experiment of Individual Attitude Response to Advertising Exposure," Journal of Marketing Research 10 (May 1973): 130.

pricing, and distribution patterns. Those variables can influence measures of effectiveness. This is one reason why an experimental design was used in this study to assess comparative advertising's effects.

In an experimental design, the researcher has direct control over at least one independent variable and observes at least one dependent variable.<sup>1</sup> This experiment was also termed a laboratory, not field, experiment since the setting for viewing the experimental treatments was not natural.<sup>2</sup> The experiment was conducted in a classroom situation. By using the laboratory-experimental approach, it was possible to isolate the comparative and noncomparative advertising effects.

#### Research Design and Sampling

In order to measure the effects of retail comparative advertising, a posttest-only with control group design was used. This design is also often referred to as an after-only with control. The form of this design is:

R	$X_1$	$O_1$
R	$X_2$	$O_2$
R		$O_3$

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<sup>1</sup>Fred Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973), p. 315.

<sup>2</sup>Kerlinger, p. 399.

where: R = Randomization of sample units to the treatment or control groups

$X_1$  = Treatment number one

$X_2$  = Treatment number two

$O_1$  = Posttest observation on treatment group number one

$O_2$  = Posttest observation on treatment group number two

$O_3$  = Posttest observation on control group

Treatment number one ( $X_1$ ) consisted of mock comparative newspaper advertisements for a sponsoring department store (Belk). Treatment number two ( $X_2$ ) consisted of mock noncomparative newspaper advertisements for the same department store.

The decision to use this design was based on the desire to maximize the study's internal and external validity.

#### Internal and External Validity

A study is said to have internal validity when, in fact, the experimental treatment affected the dependent variables.<sup>1</sup> External validity asks "to what populations, settings, etc. can this effect be generalized?"<sup>2</sup> Table 5 identifies the various sources of internal and external invalidity and the degree to which the posttest-only with control group experimental design controls for those sources. A complete discussion of these sources

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<sup>1</sup>Donald J. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963), p. 5.

<sup>2</sup>Campbell and Stanley, p. 5.

TABLE 5  
 SOURCES OF INVALIDITY FOR POSTTEST-ONLY  
 CONTROL GROUP DESIGN\*

Internal								External			
History	Maturation	Testing	Instrumentation	Regression	Selection	Mortality	Interaction of selection and maturation, etc.	Interaction of Testing and X	Interaction of Selection and X	Reactive Arrangements	Multiple-X Interference
+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	?	?	

Note: In this table, a minus (-) would indicate a definite weakness, a plus (+) indicates that the factor is controlled, a question mark (?) indicates a possible source of concern, and a blank indicates that a factor is not relevant.

\* Adopted from Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963), p. 8.

is not offered here.<sup>1</sup> However, discussion of the sources unique to the validity of this study follows.

The posttest-only with control design was appealing as it controlled for all sources of internal invalidity and one source of external invalidity. This was partially due to the absence of a pretest. As Banks, Campbell, and Stanley note:

The pretest is a concept deeply imbedded in the thinking of research workers in the social services, but it is not actually essential to true experimental designs,<sup>2,3</sup>

Reactivity to a pretest is a potential source of internal and external invalidity. Internal validity is threatened by the effect of testing (the affect of the pretest itself). For example, on achievement and intelligence tests, students taking the test for a second time usually do better than those taking the test for the first time.<sup>4</sup> Reactivity also occurs when respondents attempt to discover the purpose of a test and respond in an abnormal manner. External validity is threatened by interaction of testing and the treatment (X). This interaction is especially important in attitude change studies where the attitude tests

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<sup>1</sup>For an excellent discussion, see Campbell and Stanley, pp. 5-22.

<sup>2</sup>Seymour Banks, Experimentation in Marketing (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965), p. 35.

<sup>3</sup>Campbell and Stanley, p. 25.

<sup>4</sup>Campbell and Stanley, p. 9.

themselves introduce considerable amounts of unusual content and it is quite likely that a person's attitudes and his/her susceptibility to persuasion are changed by a pretest.<sup>1</sup>

Despite the advantages of using the posttest-only with control group design, care was taken to control for two other sources of external invalidity: (a) reactive arrangements, and (b) interaction of selection and experimental treatment (X). The reactive arrangements problems were: (1) not letting the randomization process cause reaction and (2) not revealing the true nature of the experiment. In this study, the use of researcher distributed instrument packages eliminated problem (1) since sample units did not know what type of package others received.<sup>1</sup> Problem (2) was overcome by disguising the experiment as an intention to measure consumers' reactions to different art and layout patterns of retail advertisements as well as to understand the store's image. The other potential source of external invalidity (interaction of sample selection and the experimental treatments) was concern over whether or not the selected sample would interact with the experimental treatments in the same manner as would the entire population to which generalizations are made. In this study, an effort was made to select sample units who were department store customers and thus minimize this source problem.

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<sup>1</sup>Campbell and Stanley, p. 18.

<sup>2</sup>Packages in this study consisted of the experiment's guise, experimental treatments (except for the control group) and a measurement instrument.

Although the posttest-only with control group design is appealing due to its control over internal and external invalidity, researchers have tended to avoid its use. This avoidance is apparently caused by a lack of confidence in the randomization process which is crucial to the design. In this study, the respondents were randomly placed into the control and two treatment groups. Randomization can be accomplished by mixing the order of materials for distribution to the sample units.<sup>1</sup> Thus, whether a respondent received a measurement instrument only (the control group) or one of the two experimental treatments along with the same measurement instrument was determined by mixing packages.

Although this procedure increased the probability of obtaining randomization, it was still desirable to know whether or not randomization occurred. This was accomplished by measuring and testing how similar the treatment and control groups were across specific descriptor variables. These variables included demographics and a measure of loyalty to the sponsoring store (Belk). The results of this randomization check are presented in Chapter IV.

#### Sampling

The requirements of the sampling procedure were to find a group of respondents large enough to perform statistical analysis and, at the same time, make sure this group was likely to exhibit a fair amount of department store shopping. The respondents selected were 203 male and female

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<sup>1</sup>Campbell and Stanley, p. 26.



students attending business administration and education classes at Forsyth Technological Institute in Winston-Salem, North Carolina. Approximately two-thirds of the sample came from evening classes where most students are full-time employees of nearby organizations. The data were collected on July 25 and 26, 1978.

#### Preparation of Experimental Treatments

The first step in this test of advertising effects was preparation of the experimental treatments. Two different treatments were needed: comparative and noncomparative advertisements. Essential questions to be answered in relation to this task were: (1) How many advertisements should be prepared and administered to the respondents? and (2) What should the advertisements' message content be?

Answers to these questions came from a preliminary study conducted with 31 respondents in two evening business administration classes at Forsyth Technological Institute in Winston-Salem, North Carolina on March 6 and 20, 1978. Students were given a self-administered questionnaire (see Appendix A) intended to elicit their image of the Belk department store located at Hanes Mall, Winston-Salem, North Carolina. The image measurement device was similar to the tailor-made semantic differential developed and tested for reliability by Albaum and Dickson who proposed the use of 29 bipolar adjectives and phrases which met the three assumptions crucial to the proper use of the semantic differential: (1) bipolarity of the adjectives of phrases, (2) the representativeness of the

scales, and (3) the various metric properties of the scales.<sup>1</sup> A list of the 29 bipolar adjectives and phrases which they used to measure the retail store image are presented in Table 6. Because of their rigorous approach to developing this list of image attributes and evidence of the instrument's reliability, the same list was incorporated in the preliminary study. A more thorough discussion of their study and its applicability to this study is presented later in this chapter.

Respondents rated the Belk store's performance across all 29 image attributes. These scores were then used to decide how many comparative and noncomparative advertisement would be used in the final study as well as what the message content of each advertisement would be. Although knowledge about store performance across all 29 attributes was managerially appealing, the vastness of that amount of data inhibited the preparation of advertisements necessary for this study. With such a large number of items, the question arose as to how many were viewed as interrelated in the consumers' minds. For example, were attributes such as "fast checkout," "friendliness of personnel," and "store layout" viewed separately in the consumers' minds or were they all viewed in terms of one overall composite attribute? It was intuitively appealing to design the experimental comparative and noncomparative advertisement message appeals around these, if any, overall attributes instead of one advertisement for each of the 29 attributes.

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<sup>1</sup>Gerald Albaum and John Dickson, "A Method for Developing Tailor-made Semantic Differentials for Specific Marketing Content Areas," Journal of Marketing Research 14 (February 1977): 87-91.

TABLE 6

ALBAUM-DICKSON SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL USED IN  
PRELIMINARY STUDY TO MEASURE BELK IMAGE\*

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crammed merchandise - well spaced merchandise

bright store - dull store

ads frequently seen by you - ads infrequently seen by you

low quality products - high quality products

well organized layout - unorganized layout

low prices - high prices

bad sales on products - good sales on products

unpleasant store to shop in - pleasant store to shop in

good store - bad store

inconvenient location - convenient location

low pressure salespeople - high pressure salespeople

big store - small store

bad buys on products - good buys on products

unattractive store - attractive store

unhelpful salespeople - helpful salespeople

good service - bad service

few clerks - many clerks

friendly personnel - unfriendly personnel

easy to return purchases - hard to return purchases

unlimited selection of products - limited selection of products

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TABLE 6 (con't)

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unreasonable prices for value - reasonable prices for value
messy - neat
spacious shopping - crowded shopping
attracts upper-class customers - attracts lower-class customers
dirty - clean
fast checkout - slow checkout
good displays - bad displays
hard to find items you want - easy to find items you want
bad specials - good specials

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Adopted from: Gerald Albaum and John Dickson, "A Method for Developing Tailormade Semantic Differentials for Specific Marketing Content Areas," Journal of Marketing Research 14 (February 1977): 87-91.

From the preliminary study, a procedure to analyze the data on the 29 attributes was used to see whether or not a few key attributes could be singled out which would explain the customers' store image. The factor analysis technique was utilized for this purpose. It was chosen for three reasons. First, it is valuable in pointing out the latent factors or dimensions that determine the relationships among a set of observed values. Second, factor analysis may help to point out relationships that are not readily apparent. Third, factor analysis helps reduce redundancy in a group of variables that may possess high intercorrelations.<sup>1</sup> The performance scores given to the Belk store by respondents in the preliminary study were factor analyzed so that a smaller list of attributes could be identified. These attributes were then used in the preparation of the comparative and noncomparative experimental advertisements.

Using the BMDP4M package, varimax factor analysis of the preliminary study data was performed. The following criteria were used in evaluating the results of the varimax factor analysis. Factoring was ceased when all eigenvalues equal to or greater than one were obtained and when a set of factors explained a large percentage of the variance (79.4%). If factor loadings (the correlation between a variable or attribute and a factor) are squared and summed, the resulting sum of squares is technically called an eigenvalue. Each eigenvalue summarizes a fraction of total variance in the variables. When the variables are standardized, each variable's

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<sup>1</sup>Ronald B. Marks, "A Multi-attribute Approach to the Store Imagery Problem," (Doctoral dissertation, University Missouri, Columbia, 1974), p. 38.

variance is equal to one. By keeping all factors with eigenvalues of greater than or equal to one, factors are retained that measure at least as much variance as one of the original variables.<sup>1</sup>

In the preliminary study, eight factors with eigenvalues equal to or greater than one accounted for 79.4 percent of the total variance with two factors accounting for slightly over 44 percent of the total variance. Results of the factor analysis are presented in Table 7. The percent of variance explained by each factor is shown in Table 8. While some controversy exists about significance of specific variables to factors, loadings of greater than .50 have been suggested by Wells and Sheth.<sup>2</sup> However, careful inspection of the factor loading patterns in this case indicated that factor loadings of .60 or greater were more relevant to identifying the resulting factors.

Assigning a name to each of the eight factors required careful interpretation and a review of similar research attempts. Unfortunately, very few studies of store images have used factor analysis.<sup>3</sup> Despite this shortcoming, the following identifications were given to the eight factors found in the preliminary study. The first factor was interpreted as

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<sup>1</sup>William D. Wells and Jagdish N. Sheth, "Factor Analysis in Marketing Research," from The Handbook of Market Research, Robert Ferber, ed. (McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1971), p. 226.

<sup>2</sup>Wells and Sheth, p. 226.

<sup>3</sup>See Albaum and Dickson, pp. 87-91, and Marks.

TABLE 7

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF PRELIMINARY STUDY  
ATTRIBUTE PERFORMANCE SCORES\*

Factor	Factor Loading	Factor	Factor Loading
<u>Factor 1</u>		<u>Factor 4</u>	
Low prices	.836	Friendly personnel	.807
Reasonable prices	.812	Helpful salespeople	.679
Good specials	.808	Good service	.597
Good buys	.752	Easy to return merch.	.581
Good sales	.734		
Many clerks	.610	<u>Factor 5</u>	
		Attractive	.852
<u>Factor 2</u>		Bright	.526
Low pressure salespeople	.809	<u>Factor 6</u>	
Fast checkout	.748	Attracts upper class	.912
Big store	.675	Clean	.563
Pleasant	.671		
Spacious	.643	<u>Factor 7</u>	
High quality products	.587	Unlimited selection	.686
Ads frequently seen	.574		
		<u>Factor 8</u>	
<u>Factor 3</u>		Convenient	.829
Good displays	.818	Bright	.561
Well organized	.810		
Easy to find merch.	.741		
Well spaced	.571		
Good store	.555		

\* Only factor loadings of .500 or more are reported.

TABLE 8  
VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY PRELIMINARY  
STUDY ATTRIBUTE FACTORS

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Factor Number	Percent of Variance Explained
1	.334
2	.107
3	.095
4	.065
5	.056
6	.052
7	.045
8	.041

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"economy" since attributes such as reasonable prices, good buys, low prices, and good sales loaded heavily on this factor. Other factors, in order of decreasing total variance explained, were interpreted as "facilitates shopping," "physical layout," "personnel," "attractiveness," "social appeal," "variety of merchandise," and "convenience."

This information provided valuable insight for preparation of the experimental comparative and noncomparative advertisements. The logical approach to answering the question as to message content and how many advertisements to construct came from the factor analysis results. Advertisements could be constructed so as to appeal to unique factors. Although eight factors were found in the varimax factor analysis procedure, only four of the eight were selected as a basis for message appeals in four different advertisements. The four factors were "economy," "facilitates shopping," "physical layout," and "personnel." This decision was based on two reasons. First, consumers are very rarely exposed to eight different advertisements for the same department store in one specific issue of a newspaper. To ask a consumer to view eight such advertisements in a single exposure situation is unrealistic and would be likely to seriously influence the reliability of the experiment. Second, the specific attributes in each of the eight factors had varying degrees of importance to consumers. The importance of the 29 attributes was measured in the preliminary study (see Preliminary Questionnaire--Appendix A). The mean importance score for each attribute is presented in Table 9. Mean scores above 2.00 were considered very important attributes for any one factor.

TABLE 9

## IMPORTANCE OF PRELIMINARY STUDY IMAGE ATTRIBUTES

Attribute	Mean Score*
Ads frequently seen by you	0.94
Attractive store	1.13
Attracts upper-class customers	-0.29
Big store	0.42
Bright store	0.94
Clean	2.06
Convenient location	1.97
Easy to find items you want	2.35
Easy to return purchases	1.65
Fast checkout	2.48
Friendly personnel	2.35
Good buys	2.48
Good displays	.65
Good sales	2.26
Good service	2.48
Good specials	1.77
Good store	1.97
Helpful salespeople	1.94
High quality products	2.42
Low pressure salespeople	2.10
Low prices	2.29
Many clerks	.84
Neat	2.00
Pleasant Store	1.81
Reasonable prices	2.48
Spacious shopping	1.45

\* Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of these 29 attributes by selecting a number from +3 (of more importance) to -3 (of less importance).

TABLE 9 (con't)

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Attribute	Mean Score*
Unlimited selection of products	1.71
Well organized layout	1.74
Well spaced merchandise	1.26

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\* Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of these 29 attributes by selecting a number from +3 (of more importance to -3 (of less importance).

Since it was considered unrealistic to advertise a factor by addressing all the attributes loading on that specific factor, it was decided to select those attributes which loaded heavily in the factor analysis and also had high importance scores. Therefore, the factors and attributes identified in Table 10 provided the message appeals for the experimental treatments. Preparation of the advertisements using this approach assumed that the department store would want to spend more time and money advertising those attributes that consumers consider important.<sup>1</sup>

Although the factor analysis, combined with attribute importance analysis, provided substantial insight into advertisement construction, other considerations were also necessary. They included: (a) strength of the comparative appeal, (b) size of the advertisements, (c) whether or not claims should be substantiated, (d) the fact that most department store advertising is not institutional but more likely to be product-specific, and (e) what competitors would be named in the comparisons.

Concerning the issue of message strength of intensity of the comparative appeal, Pride, Lamb, and Pletcher found that a moderate intensity of comparison was best for maximizing the informativeness of the comparative

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<sup>1</sup>For other possible strategies, not considered relevant to this study, see: Harper W. Boyd, Jr.; Michael L. Ray; and Edward C. Strong, "An Attitudinal Framework for Advertising Strategy," Journal of Marketing 36 (April 1972): 27-33.

TABLE 10  
SELECTED IMAGE FACTORS AND CORRESPONDING  
ATTRIBUTES USED TO DESIGN EXPERIMENTAL ADVERTISEMENTS

Factor Number	Factor Name	Message Appeal (attributes)
1	Economy	Reasonable price Good buys
2	Facilitates Shopping	Fast checkout Low pressure salespeople
3	Physical layout	Easy to find merchandise
4	Personnel	Friendly personnel Good service

advertisement.<sup>1</sup> Using their findings, the comparative advertisements were prepared in a form considered not to be "strong" or "weak" in appeal.

Another consideration was the size of the advertisements. In order to produce an experimental situation as realistic as possible, the experimental advertisement size was made similar to the size currently used by the Belk department store and equal to or less than 8-1/2" x 11" since this was the most convenient size for the experimental packages.

The decision to substantiate the comparative advertisement claims was based on suggestions of the Golden study. She concluded that substantiated claims were relatively no more effective in influencing purchase intention than are unsubstantiated claims (for comparative advertising). However, she also noted that this might not be true if a specifically named testing organization, laboratory, etc. was used for the substantiation.<sup>2</sup> Based on this suggestion, the comparative advertisements in this study name a fictitious research agency (Reynolds Research, Inc.) in order to substantiate message claims. The name Reynolds was assumed to have high credibility because of the local influence of the Reynolds Industries, Inc. Company.

At this point, the study had envisioned the use of comparative advertisements stressing store image attributes. However, most department store

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<sup>1</sup>Charles W. Lamb; Barbara A. Pletcher; and William M. Pride, "Are Comparative Advertisements More Informative for Owners of the Mentioned Competing Brand Than for Nonowners?" Proceedings, American Marketing Association Educators' Conference, August 1977.

<sup>2</sup>Linda L. Golden, "Consumer Reactions to Comparative Advertising," Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. III, Association for Consumer Research 1976, pp. 63-67.

advertising is not of this type--that called institutional advertising which attempts to sell the company, not the products.<sup>1</sup> This situation was also true of the Belk department store used in this study as evidenced by a review of the newspaper advertising undertaken by the Belk store for the first six months of 1978. To keep the experiment as realistic as possible, the institutional appeal (stressing the attributes) was tied in with a product-specific appeal. This was done for the comparative as well as noncomparative advertisements. For the product-specific appeal, four products (women's coats, men's trousers, shoes, and t-shirts) were chosen because of their general appeal to all classes of customers (e.g., male, female, married, unmarried, and families with or without children) and because illustrations and some copy materials were made available by Belk.

Determination of the competing stores to be named in the comparisons was based upon geographical proximity, perceived similarity of product offerings and customer targets. Although no store is an exact substitute or replacement for another, substantial overlays of products and customers indicate a large degree of competitiveness. With these considerations, Belk's main competitors were perceived to be Sears, Roebuck & Company, J. C. Penney and Thalhimers. Each have stores located in the same shopping mall as Belk. (Hanes Mall, Winston-Salem, North Carolina).

By considering the above five issues, the results of factor analysis, and attribute importance scores, four comparative and four noncomparative

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<sup>1</sup>Arnold M. Barban and S. Watson Dunn, Advertising: Its Role in Modern Marketing (Hinsdale, Illinois: The Dryden Press, 1978), p. 11.

advertisements were constructed. Those eight advertisements are displayed in Appendix B (noncomparative ads) and Appendix C (comparative ads).

#### Measurement of Dependent Variables

As noted in the first chapter, the three dependent variables of interest to this study were: (1) store image, (2) performance evaluations of the seven advertised attributes and (3) belief levels of specific advertisement claims. The purpose of this section is to discuss the approaches used in the study to measure these variables.

#### Measuring Store Image

As pointed out in Chapter II, marketers have traditionally applied the semantic differential to the store image measurement problem. The advantages of the semantic differential are that it is simple to administer and tabulate, allows the presentation of quantified data in a format easily understood, is easy to duplicate, requires minimal verbal skills on the part of the respondent, and is relatively reliable.<sup>1,2,3</sup> A serious problem to overcome in using the semantic differential is determining the adjectives to be included and making sure that the adjectives are actually stated in a bipolar manner.<sup>4</sup> Another problem often occurs when the

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<sup>1</sup>William Mindak, "Fitting the Semantic Differential to the Marketing Problem," Journal of Marketing 25 (April 1961): 28-33.

<sup>2</sup>Roger D. Blackwell, James F. Engel, and David T. Kollat, Consumer Behavior, 3rd ed. (Hinsdale, Illinois: The Dryden Press, 1978), p. 522.

<sup>3</sup>Peter Doyle and Ian Fenwick, "How Store Image Affects Shopping Habits in Grocery Chains," Journal of Retailing 50 (Winter 1974-1975): 39-52.

<sup>4</sup>Blackwell, Engel, and Kollat, p. 522.



researcher selects a large number of attributes to be scaled. The question then arises as to how many are viewed as interrelated in the consumer's mind. Furthermore, how many attributes are important to the consumer in terms of his/her overall image of a store is sometimes not considered.<sup>1</sup>

Store image researchers have also employed multidimensional scaling to measure the store image.<sup>2</sup> The advantage of this technique is that it makes the fewest assumptions about the ability of the respondent to be precise and gives him the chance to make minimally structured judgments.<sup>3</sup> For the store manager, it allows seeing the store's image in relation to the competitors' store images. The main disadvantages of the multidimensional approach are difficulty in administering it and analyzing its data.<sup>4</sup> Relative to the second point, interpreting the axis or dimensions of the perceptual map is difficult and it is not possible to assess statistical significance with this procedure.<sup>5</sup>

A recent approach to measuring the store image which does not possess several of the disadvantages of the semantic differential and multidimensional scaling is called the multiattribute attitude modeling. The

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<sup>1</sup>Ronald B. Marks, "Operationalizing the Concept of Store Image," Journal of Retailing 52 (Fall 1976): 38.

<sup>2</sup>See Chapter II for an identification of these authors.

<sup>3</sup>Doyle and Fenwick, pp. 39-52.

<sup>4</sup>Blackwell, Engel, and Kollat, p. 525.

<sup>5</sup>Marks, p. 38.

multiattribute approach to measuring a store image focuses on the importance of store attributes and performance evaluations of the same attributes. This approach can retain the advantages of the semantic differential and at the same time, handle the problem of differing attribute importance. The multiattribute modeling approach to measuring images (store or product) is built upon the work of Rosenberg and Fishbein.<sup>1,2</sup> However, such models should be used carefully since there are several issues concerning their application.

The issues of major concern to the use of the multiattribute approach in this study included: (1) specification of the multiattribute model, (2) attribute generation and inclusion, (3) inclusion of the importance component, (4) measurement of the importance component, (5) measurement of the belief component, (6) scoring of the importance and belief components, and (7) halo effects. The following sections provide the reader with a general background concerning these issues, and most importantly, how this study addressed those issues.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Martin Fishbein, "A Behavior Theory Approach to the Relations Between Beliefs About an Object and the Attitude Toward the Object," Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), pp. 389-400; and Martin Fishbein, "A Consideration of Beliefs and Their Role in Attitude Measurement," Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), pp. 256-266.

<sup>2</sup>Milton J. Rosenberg, "Cognitive Structure and Attitudinal Affect," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 53 (November 1956): 367-372.

<sup>3</sup>Much of the discussion is based upon the thorough examination offered by William L. Wilkie and Edgar A. Pessemier, "Issues in Marketing's Use of Multi-Attribute Models," Journal of Marketing Research 10 (November 1973): 428-441.

### Model Specification

The original specification of the multiattribute model is based upon expectancy-value theory which states that the strength of a tendency to act depends upon (1) the strength of the expectancy that the act will be followed by a consequence and (2) the value of that consequence to the individual.<sup>1</sup> Both the Fishbein and Rosenberg models are approaches to the study of attitudes using the expectancy-value approach. However, the multiattribute model most frequently appearing in the consumer behavior literature is the "Adequacy-Importance" model.<sup>2</sup> It is expressed as:

$$A_o = \sum_{i=1}^n P_i D_i$$

where  $A_o$  = an individual's attitude toward an object

$P_i$  = importance of attribute<sub>*i*</sub> for the individual

$D_i$  = the individual's evaluation of the object with respect to  
attribute<sub>*i*</sub>

$n$  = number of attributes

In this study, the term "importance" is used to imply measurement  $P_i$  while the term "performance evaluation" is used to imply measurement  $D_i$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Michael B. Mazis, Olli T. Ahtola, and R. Eugene Klippel, "A Comparison of Four Multi-Attribute Models in the Prediction of Consumer Attitudes," Journal of Consumer Research 2 (June 1975): 38-52.

<sup>2</sup>Joel B. Cohen, Martin Fishbein, and Olli T. Ahtola, "The Nature and Uses of Expectancy-Value Models in Consumer-Attitude Research," Journal of Marketing Research 9 (November 1972): 456-460.

The main advantage of the adequacy-importance model over other models is in the ease of measurement.<sup>1</sup> There has also been documentation for superiority of the adequacy-importance model over the Fishbein and Rosenberg models.<sup>2</sup> Because of ease of measurement and the proved ability to be a good predictor of attitudes and behavior, the adequacy-importance model was considered appropriate to measure the store image in this study. Ease of measurement was especially attractive as 29 attributes were used to measure the store image.

#### Attribute Generation and Inclusion

Issues in this area include the desired characteristics of attributes, generation of attribute lists and inclusion of attributes in the model.

The basic criteria for generation of attribute lists are that the attributes be exhaustive, semantically meaningful, and undimensional.<sup>3</sup> Albaum and Dickson suggest a method for producing a list of retail store attributes which meet the above criteria.<sup>4</sup> Using in-depth interviews, they elicited potential store descriptors which resulted in a list of 31 attributes. Further analysis revealed that 29 of those attributes were

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<sup>1</sup>Mazis, Ahtola, and Klippel, pp. 38-52.

<sup>2</sup>Mazis, Ahtola, and Klippel, pp. 38-52. However, this still remains a generally unanswered issue concerning the multiattribute model.

<sup>3</sup>Edgar A. Pessemier, "Multi-Attribute Models for Predicting Individual Preference and Choice," Institute Paper No. 346, Institute for Research in the Behavioral, Economic, and Management Sciences, Purdue University, 1972, p. 3.

<sup>4</sup>Albaum and Dickson, pp. 87-91.

exhaustive for measuring the image of a discount store, supermarket, shoe store, and department store. Because of the rigor of the Albaum and Dickson approach, the same set of attributes were used in this study (see Table 6 for a list of the 29 attributes).

#### Inclusion of the Importance Component

The issue with the most controversy is whether or not importance weights should be included in the model. Some claim that inclusion of importance scores is unnecessary<sup>1</sup> while others say it is necessary.<sup>2</sup> Wilkie and Pessemier conclude that the importance component should continue to be included in the model because of possible halo effects on the belief components.<sup>3</sup> Recognizing this, importance scores were elicited in this study.

#### Measurement of the Importance Component

Measurements of importance are aimed at providing meaningful variation both within and between respondents.<sup>4</sup> Most studies have obtained the

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<sup>1</sup>See for example: Jagdish N. Sheth, "Brand Profits from Beliefs and Importances," Journal of Advertising Research 13 (February 1973): 37-42; and Jagdish N. Sheth and W. Wayne Talarzyk, "Perceived Instrumentality and Value Importance as Determinants of Attitudes," Journal of Marketing Research 9 (February 1972): 6-9.

<sup>2</sup>See for example: Cohen, Fishbein, and Ahtola, pp. 456-460; and J. Palmer and P. Sampson, "The Importance of Being Earnest about Importance," Proceedings, Marketing Research Society Conference, 1973, pp. 157-189.

<sup>3</sup>Wilkie and Pessemier, p. 436.

<sup>4</sup>Wilkie and Pessemier, p. 433.

importance ratings on scales ranging from 1 to 5, 6, or 7. However, there is empirical support for using a constant-sum scale to fill the multiattribute model's need for ratio or interval scaled data.<sup>1</sup> In this study, a rating scale of 1 to 7 was used to measure importance. The constant-sum scale was not used due to the large number of comparisons necessary (across 29 store attributes) which could have led to respondent fatigue and internal invalidity.<sup>2</sup>

Although the constant-sum method can produce interval data, a rating scale can be carefully constructed and lead to an increase in the probability of obtaining interval data. Several studies have used and investigated different approaches to this construction issue.<sup>3</sup> The major issues considered by these studies are the bipolar cues and the number of response

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<sup>1</sup>Dan E. Schendel, William L. Wilkie, and John M. McCann, "An Experimental Investigation of Attribute Importance," Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 2, Association for Consumer Research, 1971, pp. 404-416.

<sup>2</sup>G. David Hughes, Attitude Measurement of Marketing Strategies (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1971), p. 107.

<sup>3</sup>See for example: Mazis, Ahtola, and Klippel, pp. 38-52; Peter D. Bennett and Jerome E. Scott, "Cognitive Models of Attitude Structure: 'Value Importance' is Important," Proceedings, Combined Spring and Fall Conferences, American Marketing Association, 1971, pp. 346-350; Gilbert D. Harrell and Peter D. Bennett, "An Evaluation of the Expectance Value Model of Attitude Measurement for Physical Prescribing Behavior," Journal of Marketing Research 11 (August 1974): 269-278; John F. McElwee and Leonard J. Parsons, "The Cognitive Algebra of the Parametric Marginal Desirability Model: A Research Note," Journal of Marketing Research 14 (May 1977): 257-260; Reza Moinpour and James B. Wiley, "An Empirical Investigation of Expectance-Like Models in Marketing," Proceedings, Fall Conference, American Marketing Association, 1972.

levels (e.g., 1 to 6, 1 to 7). Cues and response levels were selected which encouraged respondents to use a greater proportion of the scale and, at the same time, product approximate interval data. Mazis, Ahtola, and Klippel note that using the cues "of more importance" and "of less importance" accomplishes this task.<sup>1</sup> The measurement instrument used in both the preliminary and the final study employed this cue format. A review of the above studies also indicated that seven response levels or points were appropriate. In the preliminary study, the response levels were given to respondents on a +3 to -3 rating scale. However, analysis of the preliminary study's importance ratings showed a reluctance on the part of respondents to use the negative values of -1, -2, and -3. Because of this, the final measurement instrument used a positive only scale of 1 to 7 for measuring importance ratings.<sup>2</sup> In the final study, respondents did appear to use a greater range of scale values.

#### Measurement of the Belief Component

Measurement of the belief component in this study concerns itself with the approach used to elicit the consumers' performance evaluations of the Belk store across the 29 attributes.

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<sup>1</sup>Mazis, Ahtola, and Klippel, pp. 38-52.

<sup>2</sup>Although they were scaled 1 to 7 for respondents, the ratings were scored (coded) from -3 to +3 for analytic purposes. The reason for this is given in a later section entitled "Scoring of Importance and Belief Ratings."

Bipolar rating scales have been typically used by marketers to measure the belief component.<sup>1</sup> One popular bipolar rating scale approach is the semantic differential originally developed by Osgood and others.<sup>2</sup> In using this scale, the researcher must be cautious of the adjectives or phrases to be included and must make sure that they are actually stated in a bipolar manner.

Addressing these two issues, Albaum and Dickson suggest first using depth interviews to elicit an attribute list<sup>3</sup> and following up with Deese's method to determine linguistic contrasts for attribute adjectives and phrases.<sup>4</sup> Using this approach, the same researchers found 29 attributes appropriate for studying the image of a department store. A test-retest measure indicated a high degree of reliability for this tailor-made semantic differential. Considering the approaches and findings of the Albaum-Dickson study, the same 29 bipolar phrases and adjectives (with

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<sup>1</sup>Wilkie and Pessemier, p. 435.

<sup>2</sup>Charles E. Osgood, George J. Suci, and Percy H. Tannenbaum, The Measurement of Meaning (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Free Press, 1957); Charles E. Osgood, "The Nature and Measurement of Meaning," Psychological Bulletin 49 (May 1952): 197-237.

<sup>3</sup>Albaum and Dickson, pp. 87-91.

<sup>4</sup>J. Deese, The Structure of Association in Language and Thought (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins, 1965).



some modification) were adopted for this study. Modifications included changing "salesmen" to "salespeople." Despite the apparent attractiveness of the Albaum-Dickson instrument, a measure of its applicability to this study was obtained.

In order to measure the applicability of the Albaum-Dickson instrument, an indication of the instrument's reliability was sought. A questionnaire was administered in a test-retest situation with two weeks separating the measurements. This was the same instrument referred to and used earlier to develop the experimental treatments (preliminary study). The questionnaire elicited the respondents' multiattribute image of the Belk department store. Thus, the measure of reliability in the preliminary study was the stability of multiattribute image scores, not just performance evaluation scores as reported by Albaum and Dickson. The Spearman rank correlation coefficient was used to determine reliability. Each individual's importance rating was multiplied by his/her performance evaluation rating for each of the 29 attributes and then summed to produce the overall store image. Next, the summated scores were rank ordered for the test-retest situations and a correlation was computed on the basis of these rankings. The coefficient of stability was  $r_s = .61$  which is significant at  $\alpha = .01$ . Although lower than the measure of reliability reported by Albaum and Dickson ( $r_s = .91$ ), it was felt that the reliability attained was high enough to warrant use of their tailor-made semantic differential in the final study. Albaum and Dickson measured the stability of performance evaluation scores only. However, the preliminary study undertaken in this case was also inherently measuring

stability of importance scores since the reliability correlation coefficient was for the stability of the entire multiattribute image score.

### Scoring of Importance and Belief Ratings

How the importance and belief ratings assigned by respondents are scored is very important to the proper use of the multiattribute model.

Essentially, researchers have four choices in scoring the importance and belief components. They can: (a) score each in a bipolar manner (e.g., +3 to -3), (b) score both in a unipolar manner (e.g., 1 to 7), (c) score importance using unipolarity and score belief using bipolarity, or (d) score importance using bipolarity and score belief using unipolarity. However, Bonfield and Ryan offer arguments in favor of using bipolar scoring for both the importance and belief components.<sup>1</sup> Bettman, Capon, and Lutz concur and propose that a scoring of +3 to -3 be used for both components.<sup>2</sup> In the preliminary and final study both importance and belief components of the adequacy-importance model were scored with a scale ranging from -3 to +3.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>See E. H. Bonfield and Michael J. Ryan, "The Fishbein Extended Model and Consumer Behavior," Journal of Consumer Research 2 (September 1975): 118-136. Basically, Bonfield and Ryan show that failure to use bipolar scoring for both components can lead to an incorrect contribution to the total attitude score.

<sup>2</sup>James R. Bettman, Noel Capon, and Richard J. Lutz, "Multiattribute Measurement Models and Multiattribute Attitude Theory: A Test of Construct Validity," Journal of Consumer Research 1 (March 1975): 1-15.

<sup>3</sup>In the final study, consumers rated both components on a 1 to 7 scale, but their responses were scored (coded) using a -3 to +3 scale in order to produce valid attitude scores.

### Halo Effects

This potential problem for the inclusion of the belief (performance) measure in the model is concerned with the extent to which belief ratings vary across attributes for a given store.

The presence of halo effects in the model will confound investigations as to the dimensionality of attitude structure and impair diagnostic analysis of store strengths and weaknesses. Wilkie and McCann point out that halo effects can be reduced by varying the order of attributes in the measurement instrument.<sup>1</sup> To reduce halo effects in this study, the order of the adjectives and phrases was randomly determined by a computer program. Halo effects can also be minimized by reducing opportunities for comparison of responses with prior ratings.<sup>2</sup> In many tests of the multiattribute model's predictive ability, researchers have asked respondents to first indicate their overall attitude toward a brand or store; then following that act, they are asked for responses on belief and importance measurements. This pattern is believed to product halo effects. Such a phenomenon was not a problem in this study since there were no pre-test measurements and no requests for indicating overall attitude toward the department stores.

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<sup>1</sup>John M. McCann and William L. Wilkie, "The Halo Effect and Related Issues in Multi-Attribute Models--An Experiment," Institute Paper No. 377, Institute for Research in the Behavioral, Economic, and Management Sciences, Purdue University 1972.

<sup>2</sup>McCann and Wilkie.

### Measuring Other Dependent Variables

An approach was needed to measure the consumers' performance evaluations of the Belk store across the seven attributes referred to in the experimental advertisements. This was accomplished by using the performance component of the multiattribute model referred to in the previous section. Thus, the performance evaluations of the seven attributes were the responses given to these seven sets of bipolar semantic scales.

Another dependent variable was used to determine belief levels for specific claims made in each advertisement. Four general advertisements, each with a comparative and noncomparative version, were used in the study. A total of seven attributes were advertised in these four advertisements.

In the comparative treatments, consumers were told that the sponsoring store (Belk) had better performance than three competing stores (Sears, J. C. Penney, and Thalhimers) on the seven attributes. In the noncomparative treatments, no mention of competing stores was made; only a general superior attribute performance claim was made. By isolating each of the three competing stores and each of the seven attributes, 21 specific advertising claims were found for the comparative treatment group. Since no competing stores were named, the noncomparative treatment group members were exposed to only seven claims (one for each attribute). Thus, a total of 28 claims were made in all advertisements combined and it was these 28 claims which were treated as another set of dependent variables. These 28 claim beliefs were used as a dependent variable to provide a

measure perhaps more sensitive to the comparative and noncomparative advertising effects than the multiattribute model might be. The claim belief measures provided a very precise identification of what attribute performance claims Belk could effectively make through either advertising approach. These 28 claims are exhibited in Table 11. Belief levels for the 28 claims were measured by obtaining the respondent's estimate of the probability that the Belk store performed as claimed in the advertisement. Respondents were given all 28 claims and asked to indicate their beliefs on a seven point scale ranging from "very probable" to "very improbable".

### Hypotheses

The purpose of this section is to identify the study's research hypotheses. These hypotheses are in congruence with the research questions raised in Chapter I and are based on the literature reviewed in that chapter as well as Chapter II.

#### Hypothesis 1:

The store image will differ among the comparative, noncomparative, and control groups.

As suggested by the literature, manufacturer sponsored comparative advertising affects brand image. Reports of comparative advertising's sales effects suggest that brand image is enhanced. Empirical studies assessing the communications effect of comparative advertising have found both unfavorable and favorable images resulting from its use.

TABLE 11

CLAIMS MADE IN NONCOMPARATIVE  
AND COMPARATIVE ADVERTISEMENTS

Claim Number	Claim
1	At Belk it is easier to find the items you want than at Sears
2	At Belk it is easier to find the items you want than at J.C. Penney
3	At Belk it is easier to find the items you want than at Thalhimers
4	At Belk it is easy to find the items you want
5	Belk personnel are friendlier than Sears'
6	Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's
7	Belk personnel are friendlier than Thalhimer's
8	Belk personnel are friendly
9	Belk service is better than Sear's
10	Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's
11	Belk service is better than Thalhimer's
12	Belk service is excellent
13	Belk has faster checkouts than J.C. Penney's
14	Belk has faster checkouts than J.C. Penney's
15	Belk has faster checkouts than Thalhimer's
16	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Sear's
17	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than J.C. Penney's
18	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalhimer's
19	Belk has fast checkouts
20	Belk has low pressure salespeople
21	Belk has more reasonable prices than Sear's
22	Belk has more reasonable prices than J.C. Penney's
23	Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalhimer's
24	Belk has better buys than Sear's
25	Belk has better buys than J.C. Penney's
26	Belk has better buys than Thalhimer's
27	Belk has reasonable prices
28	Belk has good buys

Whether or not retailers, especially department stores, should consider using comparative advertising instead of noncomparative advertising to promote their image is an unanswered question. The test of hypothesis 1 was an attempt to answer this question.

Hypothesis 2:

The performance evaluations of the seven advertised attributes<sup>1</sup> will differ among the comparative, noncomparative, and control groups.

The test of this hypothesis provided clues as to whether or not specific attributes were appropriate to the comparative advertising approach. A shortcoming of the current comparative advertising literature is a failure to identify attributes (product or store) which might be viable for use in comparative advertisements. Overall, this hypothesis test provided an answer as to which attributes were most appropriate for comparative or noncomparative advertising.

Hypothesis 3:

Advertisement claim belief levels will differ among the comparative, noncomparative and control groups.

Results of the Hypothesis 3 test are of interest to the sponsoring store. The tests on the 28 advertisement claims identified situations where noncomparative or comparative advertising should be used for

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<sup>1</sup>The seven attributes were: reasonable prices, good buys, low pressure salespeople, fast checkouts, easy to find items you want, friendly personnel, and good service.

promoting specific attributes against specific competitors. Thus, it was possible to determine which combinations of the seven attributes and three named competitors were appropriate to the two advertising approaches. The current literature does not address the consideration of what should be claimed against whom in comparative advertisements.

Hypothesis 4:

Store images, attribute performance evaluations, and claim belief levels will differ among the comparative, noncomparative, and control groups within certain age, sex, income and store loyalty market segments.

The literature suggests that attitudes toward comparative advertising are not related to demographic variables, but it does not identify the effects of comparative advertising on specific demographic market segments. Such an identification was possible through the test of Hypothesis 4 which offered some insight for advertisement message construction, media and media vehicle selection, and media scheduling.

Another test of Hypothesis 4 recognized the existence of market segments with varying degrees of loyalty to the sponsoring store. Empirical studies assessing comparative advertising's effects on consumers loyal to the sponsoring brand have shown mixed results. It is possible that comparative advertising may have varying effects on those loyal or nonloyal to the sponsoring store. Such varying effects would be important to the marketing strategies of retaining current customers and drawing customers currently loyal to competing stores. Additionally,



this hypothesis provided clues as to which combinations of specific attributes and named competitors formed claims which were best suited to a comparative or noncomparative advertising approach. This concern has not been addressed by the literature.

Research Hypotheses 1-4 tested for a difference in comparative, noncomparative, and control group scores, yet a direction of difference was not stated. This approach was considered appropriate in light of the empirical studies to date which do not suggest that one approach is clearly more effective than another. The fact that this study is exploratory in nature is another reason for hypothesizing differences in effects without also specifying directionality of differences.

### Summary

The major purpose of this chapter was to present the study's research problems and associated methodologies. First, an after-only with control group experimental design was used to generate data as this design was capable of producing internal and external validity. Second, the problem of preparing the experimental treatments (advertisements) for the study was solved by conducting a preliminary study to determine the store attributes important to department store shoppers. Third, the sample used in both the preliminary and final study was identified as business administration/education students enrolled at Forsyth Technological Institute

(a community college) in Winston-Salem, North Carolina. Fourth, this chapter described the dependent variables used to measure the comparative and noncomparative advertising effects. An adequacy-importance multiattribute model was employed to measure two of the dependent variables. Therefore, considerable discussion centered around the issues concerning the use of multiattribute models. Fifth, the study's research hypotheses were identified and potential significance of possible findings from the hypotheses tests were explored.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY

The general purpose of this chapter is to report the findings of the study. It consists of four major sections: (1) preliminary procedures, (2) the randomization check, (3) test of hypotheses and (4) summary.

#### Preliminary Procedures

A total of 203 questionnaires were collected from the treatment and control groups. Of these, 55 were found usable for analysis from the comparative treatment group, 51 from the noncomparative group<sup>1</sup> and 60 from the control group.<sup>2</sup> The reasons for deleting 37 questionnaires from analysis were: (1) incomplete questionnaires, (2) poorly answered questionnaires and (3) demand characteristics.

#### Incomplete Questionnaires

A total of 19 questionnaires had complete blank pages (usually the second page). This may have been the fault of variation in the weight and thickness of the questionnaire's pages. In an attempt to randomize question items, the entire questionnaire, exclusive of the experimental

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<sup>1</sup>See Appendix D for an example of the treatment group questionnaires.

<sup>2</sup>See Appendix E for an example of the control group questionnaire.

advertisements, was printed by computer. The advertisements were produced on substantially heavier and thicker paper than the computer paper. Evidence of this problem seems to come from the fact that 16 of the 19 questionnaires with blank pages came from the treatment groups while only three came from the control group. Pretesting of the questionnaire did not isolate this problem as subjects in the pretest received photostated copies of the questionnaire, including the experimental advertisements.

There were eight other incomplete questionnaires, all from the two treatment groups. The length of the treatment group questionnaire (13 pages) apparently resulted in respondent fatigue which discouraged completion. Evidence of this was incompleteness occurring only in the latter parts of the questionnaire (demographic section).

#### Poorly Answered Questionnaires

Five respondents exhibited inconsistency of responses and warranted deletion from analysis. Only one respondent did not properly follow directions while responding to the semantic differential scale.

#### Demand Characteristics

Demand characteristics warranted deleting four more questionnaires. Three subjects exhibited specific and undesirable patterns while answering the attribute importance, performance, and/or claim belief sections of the questionnaire. Finally, one subject in the comparative treatment group correctly identified the true nature of the experiment.

#### Randomization Check

Randomization of subjects into the experimental and control groups was a necessary condition for statistical analysis of the data produced

in this after-only with control group experimental design.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, the question of whether or not the mixing of questionnaire packages produced randomization was examined. The randomization check was performed by measuring intergroup homogeneity across several demographic characteristics and by measuring intergroup homogeneity concerning loyalty to the sponsoring store (Belk).

#### Demographic Homogeneity

Considering that demographic classification data were nominal and ordinal, the Chi-square test was used for the first task of the randomization check. A "goodness of fit" Chi-square test was used to measure the degree to which the frequency of specific demographic characteristics in each of the three groups matched that of all three groups combined.<sup>2</sup> The test was applied to the following demographic variables: sex, age, occupation, education, social class, income, and race. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 12.

Overall, the Chi-square tests seem to indicate that the randomization procedure was effective. Still, homogeneity appears most evident for income (Sig. of  $\chi^2 = .479$ ) and least evident for education (Sig. of  $\chi^2 = .146$ ).

#### Store Loyalty Homogeneity

Another check for randomization was made possible by measuring the degree of loyalty to Belk possessed by each of the three groups. If the three groups significantly differed in degree of loyalty to Belk, the

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<sup>1</sup>Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963), p. 26.

<sup>2</sup>Three groups consisted of a comparative treatment group, noncomparative treatment group, and a control group.

TABLE 12

CHI-SQUARE TEST FOR NONCOMPARATIVE, COMPARATIVE  
AND CONTROL GROUP DEMOGRAPHIC HOMOGENEITY

Demographic Variable	$\chi^2$ *	df	Sig. of $\chi^2$
Sex	1.926	2	.382
Age	14.266	10	.161
Occupation	15.423	12	.219
Education	9.521	6	.146
Social Class	8.674	8	.371
Income	13.613	6	.479
Race	9.221	6	.162

NOTE: The Chi-square results presented in this table were arrived at by considering comparative, noncomparative, and control group categorical response frequencies.

\* The  $\chi^2$  values in this column are slightly inflated as there were situations where calculated expected frequencies were less than one. Thus, the stated associated sig. of  $\chi^2$  is deflated. This was considered further support for evidence of group demographic homogeneity.

effects of the experimental advertising treatments could have been potentially difficult to determine. This would be true if there was an interaction between store loyalty and either advertising approach. Also, one purpose of the study was to assess the effects of comparative advertising on both the loyal and nonloyal market segments.

The first step in the check for store loyalty homogeneity among the three groups was to operationalize a measure of store loyalty. The second step was to perform analysis of variance (ANOVA) on group mean loyalty scores. These two steps are discussed below.

#### Measuring Loyalty to Belk

Measuring consumer loyalty to a retail store parallels the measurement of brand loyalty. In either case, developing an operational measure of loyalty requires distinguishing between "intentional loyalty" and "spurious loyalty." As Day points out:

. . . the spuriously loyal buyers lack any attachment to brand attributes as they can be immediately captured by another brand that offers a better deal, a coupon, or enhanced point-of-purchase visibility through displays and other devices.<sup>1</sup>

Traditional definitions of loyalty, such as brand choice sequences, preferences over time, and proportion of purchases often fail to distinguish between intentional and spurious loyalty. Alleviating this problem is possible by using a multidimensional definition which combines consumer preferences and purchases. Such a definition recognizes that loyalty is something more than repeat purchase behavior and suggests that

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<sup>1</sup>George S. Day, "A Two-Dimensional Concept of Brand loyalty," Journal of Advertising Research 9 (September 1969): 29-35.

brand loyalty has at least two primary dimensions: brand loyal behavior and brand loyal attitude.<sup>1</sup> Accordingly, a multidimensional measure of loyalty to the Belk store was used in this study.

Loyalty to Belk was measured by using a combination of responses to a set of three questions<sup>2</sup> concerning the following three loyalty dimensions:

- (1) Percentage of shopping done at Belk. Respondents were asked to provide a subjective estimate (0 - 100%) of their total department store shopping done at Belk.
- (2) Ranking among competitive stores. Respondents were asked to rank the Belk store and the three competitive stores (Sears, J. C. Penney, and Thalhimers) by using a "first" through "fourth" preference.
- (3) Propensity to shop at Belk when the shopper needs an item he/she thinks that store carries. This dimension was measured by using responses to the statement "I shop at Belk when I need an item I think they carry." The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement as strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, or strongly disagree.

A measure of loyalty was calculated by multiplying the percentage from dimension (1) by the reverse rank of dimension (2)<sup>3</sup> by the score from dimension (3). In dimension (3), "strongly agree" was scored as five, "agree" as four, "neutral" as three, "disagree" as two, and "strongly disagree" as one. Thus, the highest possible loyalty measure would be 2000 (100 x 4 x 5) while the lowest possible would be zero (from responding 0% to dimension 1). This multidimensional loyalty measurement approach

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<sup>1</sup>Jacob Jacoby, "Model of Multi-Brand Loyalty," Journal of Advertising Research 11 (June 1971): 25-31.

<sup>2</sup>See Final Questionnaire, questions #10, 11, and 12, Appendix D.

<sup>3</sup>Thus, if Belk was ranked "1" the reverse rank would be a "4".



is essentially the same as that developed by Bellenger, Steinberg, and Stanton.<sup>1</sup>

After a Belk store loyalty measure was calculated for each respondent, noncomparative, comparative, and control group mean loyalty scores were produced and subjected to a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test for significant differences.

#### ANOVA on Group Store Loyalty

The one-way analysis of variance model for a completely randomized design is:

$$X_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_j + \epsilon_{ij}$$

$$i = 1, \dots, n_j$$

$$j = 1, 2, 3.$$

where  $X_{ij}$  = the mean dependent variable (store loyalty) score of subject  $i$  in treatment (control) group  $j$

$\mu$  = the dependent variable grand mean for treatment and control groups

$\alpha_j$  = the effect associated with treatment  $j$

$\epsilon_{ij}$  = a random error term

$n_j$  = the number of subjects in treatment (control) group  $j$

This model was used to test the randomization hypothesis:

$$H_0 = \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$$

where  $\mu_1$  = mean store loyalty score for comparative advertising treatment group

$\mu_2$  = mean store loyalty score for noncomparative advertising treatment group

$\mu_3$  = mean store loyalty score for control group

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<sup>1</sup>Danny N. Bellenger, Earl Steinberg, and Wilbur W. Stanton, "The Congruence of Store Image and Self Image," Journal of Retailing 52 (Spring 1976): 17-27.

In performing the ANOVA, a check was made for possible violations of its underlying assumptions.<sup>1</sup> The usual assumptions are: (1) for each treatment population, the distribution of experimental errors is assumed normal (2) for each treatment population, the distribution of experimental errors has an equal variance. . .homogeneity of variance and (3) the treatment population error components are assumed to be statistically independent.<sup>2</sup>

The third assumption, statistical independence of errors, is met since the dependent variable, store loyalty, was measured only once for each respondent. Concerning possible violations of the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance, Hays suggests that group sizes large and equal will permit violation without serious risk.<sup>3</sup> In this study, group sizes are large and ranged from  $n = 60$  (control) to  $n = 51$  (noncomparative) and seemed to satisfy Hay's suggestion. Concern over data normality is also reduced by using relatively large samples.<sup>4</sup> Furthermore, there is evidence that the distribution of the ratio of mean squares (F-ratio) is little affected by departures from normality.<sup>5</sup> Feeling that the ANOVA assumptions were met, the test was made.

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<sup>1</sup>These assumptions were also considered in the study's hypotheses tests which employed the ANOVA technique.

<sup>2</sup>For a detailed review of these assumptions, see William L. Hays, Statistics (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1963), pp. 378-380; and Roger E. Kirk, Experimental Design: Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences (Belmont, Calif.: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1968), pp. 60-62.

<sup>3</sup>Hays, p. 379.

<sup>4</sup>Hays, p. 378.

<sup>5</sup>Jerome L. Myers, Fundamentals of Experimental Design, 2nd ed. (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1972), p. 71.

The results of the ANOVA test of inter-group homogeneity of store loyalty are presented in Table 13. As the F-ratio was less than unity, it was concluded that the treatment and control groups possessed equal loyalty to the Belk store. This finding, combined with the demographic homogeneity check, seemed to indicate that the experiment's randomization procedures were effective.

#### Tests of Hypotheses

Assuming that the randomization procedures were effective, the next step was to test the study's four research hypotheses. The following four sections will restate each hypothesis and present the results and analysis for each test.

#### Store Image

Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be a difference in the Belk store image held by the noncomparative, comparative, and control groups. To test this hypothesis a mean multiattribute attitude score was produced and used as a measure of store image for each respondent.<sup>1</sup> Mean group scores (see Table 14) were then subjected to a one-way ANOVA test. The results of this test are presented in Table 15. With a F-ratio = 1.547 and an associated F-probability = .216 there appears to be no significant differences in the image of Belk held by the noncomparative, comparative, and control groups. Thus, Hypothesis 1 (stating a group difference) is rejected.

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<sup>1</sup>Use of the multiattribute attitude model for this purpose was discussed in Chapter III.

TABLE 13

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR NONCOMPARATIVE, COMPARATIVE  
AND CONTROL GROUP STORE LOYALTY HOMOGENEITY

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F-prob.
Treatments (among groups)	31,686.795	2	15,843.395	.184*	ns
Error (within groups)	13,972,042.000	163	85,718.000		
Total	14,003,728.795	165			

NOTE: "ns" indicates nonsignificant results as F-ratio < 1.000

\* If the F-ratio is so small that its reciprocal is significant, this suggests that some assumptions of the analysis of variance model may have been violated (see, Myers, p. 79). Thus if:

$X$  is  $F_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2}$ , then  $Y = Y_x$  is  $F_{\alpha_2, \alpha_1}$ . Therefore,  $P(Y) > F_{\alpha_2, \alpha_1} =$

$P(Y_x < 1/F_{\alpha_2, \alpha_1}) = P(F_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2} < 1/F_{\alpha_2, \alpha_1})$ . Here,  $X = F_{2, 165}$ ,  $Y = F_{165, 2}$ .

An  $F_{\infty, 2}$  value greater than 9.149 is significant at the .10 level. The new F-ratio in this case (5.410) is therefore not significant at the .10 level. This supports the conclusion of no difference in group store loyalty.

TABLE 14  
GROUP MEAN STORE IMAGE SCORES\*

Comparative Group	Noncomparative Group	Control Group
43.76	53.18	60.52

\* Highest possible score =  $3 \times 3 \times 29 = 261$   
 Lowest possible score =  $-3 \times 3 \times 29 = -261$

NOTE: First, a +3 is the highest possible score for the importance of a specific attribute (-3 the lowest) and +3 is the highest possible score for the attribute performance evaluations (-3 the lowest). Second, the multiattribute model was composed of 29 attributes.

TABLE 15  
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR NONCOMPARATIVE  
 COMPARATIVE AND CONTROL GROUP STORE IMAGE DIFFERENCES

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F-prob.
Treatments (among groups)	8,069.862	2	4,034.931	1.547	.216
Error (within groups)	425,267.250	162	2,609.002		
Total	433,337.112	165			

## Attribute Performance

Hypothesis 2 predicted a difference in mean attribute performance scores exhibited by the treatment and control groups.<sup>1</sup> The seven sub-hypotheses attributes were: (2a) "easy to find items you want", (2b) "low pressure salespeople", (2c) "good buys on products", (2d) "good service", (2e) "friendly personnel", (2f) "reasonable prices for value" and (2g) "fast checkouts."

The mean performance scores produced for the seven attributes across all three groups are presented in Table 16 (Columns 1 - 3). The seven one-way ANOVA tests performed on those means are summarized in Table 16 (Columns 4 & 5). There tended to be significant differences in the mean scores for two of the seven attributes. One attribute was "easy to find items you want" while the other was "friendly personnel". These findings showed a failure to reject subhypotheses 2a and 2e and a rejection of subhypotheses 2b, c, d, f, and g.

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<sup>1</sup>Only on those seven attributes for which noncomparative and comparative advertisement claims were made.

TABLE 16

MEAN SCORES, ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AND SCHEFFÉ TEST  
SUMMARIES FOR GROUP ATTRIBUTE PERFORMANCE DIFFERENCES.

Attribute	Comparative Group Mean* (1)	Noncomparative Group Mean* (2)	Control Group Mean* (3)	F-ratio (4)	F-prob. (5)	Scheffe' Test** (6)
Easy to find items you want	.31	.76	.90	2.927	.056	1-3
Low pressure salespeople	.82	1.12	1.05	.589	ns	NS
Good buys on products	.35	.49	.15	.891	ns	NS
Good service	.98	1.06	1.37	1.312	.272	NS
Friendly personnel	.98	.73	1.33	2.724	.069	2-3
Reasonable prices for value	.20	.53	.18	.871	ns	NS
Fast checkouts	.84	.75	.97	.340	ns	NS

NOTE: "ns" indicates nonsignificant results as F-ratio < 1.000

\* Scored: +3 (favorable) to -3 (unfavorable).

\*\* For the Scheffé test, NS denotes nonsignificance of group differences at .10 level. Where groups significantly differ, which pairs of groups are indicated by their respective mean score column numbers (i.e., comparative = 1, noncomparative = 2, and control = 3).

For example, in the above "easy to find items you want" attribute, the comparative and control group scores are significantly different. Inspection of their respective mean scores in columns (1) and (3) shows that the comparative group score is significantly lower than that of the control group.



Although the two significant F-ratios seemed to indicate significant group differences on two attributes, it was still desirable to identify which pairs of the three groups differed significantly on these attributes. It was this knowledge that could provide clues as to the relative effectiveness of comparative, noncomparative, and current advertising<sup>1</sup> of the attributes. Inspection of group mean performance scores for the two attributes provided insight into this problem (see Table 16, columns 1-3), but the inspection did not answer the question as to which groups significantly differed. An answer was obtained by employing a follow-up procedure called a multiple comparison test. In this study, the Scheffe' multiple comparison test was utilized.

#### Scheffe' Multiple Comparison Test Procedure

Although there are a number of multiple comparison tests,<sup>2</sup> the

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<sup>1</sup>The control group effects can be considered as representing the effects of Belk's current advertising campaigns since respondents in this group (as the treatment groups) have been and are continually exposed to these campaigns.

<sup>2</sup>For example: Duncan Multiple Range, Least Significant Difference, Tukey, and Student-Newman-Keuls.

Scheffe' method was selected for this study.<sup>1</sup> The Scheffe' method was chosen for the following reasons: (1) it is applicable to groups of unequal sizes, (2) it is suitable for comparisons other than pair-wise and (3) it is relatively insensitive to departures from normality and homogeneity of variance.<sup>2</sup>

Again, the ANOVA test found a significant difference between group means on two attributes ("easy to find items you want" and "friendly personnel"). Group means for these two attributes were subjected to the Scheffe' multiple comparison test at the .10 level.

#### Significance Level

Although there are a number of criteria one should consider in selecting a significance level.<sup>3</sup> Type I and II errors were considered most relevant to this study. The hypotheses tested by ANOVA in this study all predicted differences in the dependent variables exhibited by

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<sup>1</sup>The Scheffe' method can be expressed as a ratio:

$$F = \frac{[C_j (X_j) + C_j'/(X_j') + \dots + C_j''(X_j'')] }{MS \text{ error} \left( \frac{(C_j)^2}{n_j} + \frac{(C_j')^2}{n_j'} + \dots + \frac{(C_j'')^2}{n_j''} \right)}$$

where  $C_j$  = the coefficient of the contrast, and  $n_j$  = number of scores in the  $j$ th treatment level. In order to be significant,  $F$  must exceed  $F'$  where  $F' = (k - 1) F_{\alpha; v_1, v_2}$ .

<sup>2</sup>Hays, p. 484.

<sup>3</sup>See for example: Sanford Labovitz, "Criteria for Selecting a Significance Level: A Note on the Sacredness of .05, American Sociologist, 3 (1968): 220-222.

the noncomparative, comparative and control groups. A Type I error would occur if group differences were falsely assumed. A Type II error would occur if no differences were assumed when there were, in fact, differences. By selecting a lower significance level ( $\alpha$ ) it is possible to reduce the possibility of a Type I error but, at the same time, this increases probability of a Type II error.

The nature of this study indicated a need to select a relatively high level of significance ( $\alpha$ ). As Chapter II noted, it appears that only one study has been reported that (somewhat) measures the effects of retail sponsored comparative advertising. Thus, measuring the effects of comparative advertising in the retailing sector essentially represents exploratory research. Support for the use of a relatively high alpha ( $\alpha$ ) level in this study is offered by Myers:

"...in research areas where the variables influencing behavior are less well understood, the experimenter might be willing to take a greater risk of a Type I error, ...in an attempt to avoid missing some promising lead."<sup>1</sup>

The "promising lead" is the possible suggestions for further research efforts that are generated by exploratory research. The exploratory nature of this study appeared to justify using a .10 level of significance for hypotheses testing and thus, the Scheffe' method.

#### Scheffe' Test Results on Attributes

For the "easy to find items you want" attribute, the Scheffe' method indicated a significant difference between the comparative and control group scores (see Table 16, Column 6). The mean scores

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<sup>1</sup>Myers, p. 50.

(Columns 1 - 3) show that comparative advertising produced significantly less favorable<sup>1</sup> effects on this attribute than current advertising. Concerning the "friendly personnel" attribute, a significant difference was found between the noncomparative and control group scores. Inspection of the mean scores in Table 16, Columns 1 - 3, showed that non-comparative advertising produced significantly less favorable effects on this attribute than did current advertising.

#### Claim Beliefs

Hypothesis 3 stated that there would be a difference in claim beliefs<sup>2</sup> exhibited by the two treatment and control groups. To test this hypothesis, 28 mean claim belief scores were produced for each of the three groups and then subjected to 28 separate one-way ANOVAs. The mean scores, F-ratio, and F-probabilities are presented in Table 17 (Columns 1 - 3, 4 and 5 respectively).

Viewing the ANOVA data of Table 17, 13 of the 28 claim beliefs were perceived to be significantly different across the three groups. Those 13 claims were:

1. "At Belk it is easy to find the items you want"
2. "Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's"
3. "Belk service is better than Sears"
4. "Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's"

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<sup>1</sup> A lower scores is less favorable.

<sup>2</sup> Identification of, and explanation for the 28 advertisement claims was made in Chapter III.

TABLE 17  
 MEAN SCORES, ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AND SCHEFFE  
 TEST SUMMARIES FOR GROUP CLAIM BELIEF DIFFERENCES

Claim Number	Claim	Comparative Group Mean* (1)	Noncomparative Group Mean* (2)	Control Group Mean* (3)	F-ratio (4)	F-prob. (5)	Scheffe Test** (6)
1	At Belk it is easier to find the items you want than at Sears.	3.31	3.65	3.28	.698	ns	---
2	At Belk it is easier to find the items you want than at J.C. Penney.	3.25	3.86	3.83	2.200	.114	---
3	At Belk it is easier to find the items you want than at Thalhimers.	3.80	4.39	3.77	1.774	.174	---
4	At Belk it is easy to find the items you want.	4.24	5.00	4.15	4.304	.015	1-2 , 2-3
5	Belk personnel are friendlier than Sears.	3.33	4.20	3.80	4.179	.017	1-2
6	Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's.	3.05	3.90	3.93	5.534	.005	1-2 , 1-3
7	Belk personnel are friendlier than Thalhimers.	3.75	4.18	3.58	1.967	.143	---
8	Belk personnel are friendly.	4.83	4.86	4.03	.299	ns	---
9	Belk service is better than Sear's.	3.15	3.96	3.57	2.853	.061	1-2
10	Belk service is better than J. C. Penney's.	3.13	4.22	4.07	6.779	.002	1-2,1-3
11	Belk service is better than Thalhimers.	3.76	4.41	3.78	2.749	.967	NS
12	Belk service is excellent.	4.11	4.47	4.27	.592	ns	---

NOTE: "ns" indicates nonsignificant results as F-ratio < 1.000.

\* means scored from 1 ("very improbable") to 7 ("very probable")

\*\* For the Scheffe Test, NS denotes nonsignificant group differences at .10 level. A dash (-) indicates that the test was not performed since the F-ratio did not appear significant. Where groups significantly differ, which pairs of groups are indicated by their respective mean score column numbers (i.e., comparative = 1, noncomparative = 2, and control = 3).

TABLE 17 (con't)

Claim Number	Claim	Comparative Group Mean* (1)	Noncomparative Group Mean* (2)	Control Group Mean* (3)	F-ratio (4)	F-prob. (5)	Scheffe Test** (6)
13	Belk has faster checkouts than Sear's.	3.40	4.22	4.12	3.887	.023	1-2,1-3
14	Belk has faster checkouts than J.C. Penney's.	3.58	4.14	3.87	1.656	.194	---
15	Belk has faster checkouts than Thalheimer's.	3.80	4.49	3.97	2.521	.084	NS
16	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Sear's.	3.69	4.39	4.02	2.234	.110	---
17	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than J.C. Penney's.	3.49	4.14	3.95	2.283	.105	---
18	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalheimer's.	4.00	4.86	3.90	5.488	.005	1-2,2-3
19	Belk has fast checkouts.	4.49	4.63	4.57	.095 <sup>a</sup>	ns	---
20	Belk has low pressure salespeople.	4.35	4.80	4.53	1.015	.364	---
21	Belk has more reasonable prices than Sear's.	3.00	3.55	2.92	2.217	.112	---
22	Belk has more reasonable prices than J.C. Penney's.	2.87	3.51	2.87	2.567	.082	NS
23	Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalheimer's.	4.44	5.57	4.62	6.540	.002	1-2,2-3
24	Belk has better buys than Sear's.	3.31	3.45	3.18	.303	ns	---
25	Belk has better buys than J.C. Penney's.	2.96	3.33	3.13	.553	ns	---
26	Belk has better buys than Thalheimer's.	4.36	4.96	4.23	2.417	.092	NS
27	Belk has reasonable prices.	3.80	4.65	3.70	5.057	.007	1-2,2-3
28	Belk has good buys.	4.29	4.47	4.33	.161	ns	---

NOTE: "ns" indicates nonsignificant results as F-ratio < 1.000

\* means scored from 1 (very improbable) to 7 (very probable)

\*\* For the Scheffe Test, NS denotes nonsignificant group differences at .10 level. A dash (-) indicates that the test was not performed since the F-ratio did not appear significant. Where groups significantly differ, which pairs of groups are indicated by their respective mean score column numbers (i.e., comparative = 1, noncomparative = 2, and control = 3).

5. "Belk service is better than Thalhimers"
6. "Belk has faster checkouts than Sears"
7. "Belk has faster checkouts than Thalhimers"
8. "Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalhimers"
9. "Belk has more reasonable prices than J.C. Penney's"
10. "Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalhimers"
11. "Belk has better buys than Thalhimers"
12. "Belk has reasonable prices"
13. "Belk personnel are friendlier than Sears"

Determination of which group claim belief scores were significantly different from each other was made possible by using the Scheffe' multiple comparison test. The results of the 13 Scheffe' tests are presented in Table 17, Column 6. No significant differences, were found among group scores on four claims (#11, 15, 22, and 26). For the other nine claims (#4, 5, 6, 9, 10, 13, 18, 23, and 27), the comparative group belief scores were significantly lower than those of the noncomparative group. In three cases (#6, 10, and 13), comparative group scores were significantly lower than those of the control group. In four cases (claims #4, 18, 23, and 27) the noncomparative group exhibited significantly higher belief scores than the control group.

The results of the Scheffe' tests suggest that Belk could use the noncomparative ads of this study to produce the most favorable effects on the following claims: #4 ("At Belk it is easy to find the items you want"), #18 ("Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalhimers"), #23 ("Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalhimers") and #27 ("Belk has reasonable prices").

Ignoring the Scheffe' findings for a moment and instead inspecting the mean group scores in Table 17, Columns 1 - 3, another important conclusion can be made. All noncomparative group mean belief scores were higher than all respective comparative group scores. Except for claim #6, all noncomparative group scores were higher than the control group's. This means that Belk would find it advantageous to use noncomparative advertising, as designed in this study, to produce favorable claim beliefs except on claim #6 ("Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's"). Noncomparative advertising's tendency was to produce more favorable scores (although not always significantly so) than either a comparative or current advertising approach.

Store Image, Attribute Performance, and Claim Belief  
Analyzed According to Demographics and Store Loyalty

Hypothesis 4 predicted a difference in the store image, attribute performance, and claim belief scores across the treatment and control groups within certain demographic and store loyalty segments. In order to test this hypothesis, the sample was blocked into demographic and store loyalty groupings common to the treatment and control groups.

Blocking Procedures

Due to the need to produce sizeable cells in each group for statistical analysis, several demographic variable categories were collapsed. Age was limited to 24 years and under or 25 years and over. Income categories were \$14,999 per year and under or \$15,000 per year and over. Another demographic grouping was sex (male or female). Other demographic breakdowns were not used because the total sample was very homogeneous with respect to those variables (occupation, social class, education, and race).



In order to test Hypothesis 4 according to loyalty to the Belk store, the multidimensional measure of store loyalty discussed earlier in this chapter was employed. An analysis of the frequency distributions of scores on this variable to each of the three groups indicated that 47 was a median loyalty score approximately common to all three groups.<sup>1</sup> Thus, approximately 50 percent of the total sample and 50 percent of the respondents in each of the three groups scored above or below 47. Accordingly, those respondents scoring between zero and 47 were classified as nonloyal to Belk while those scoring above 47 were classified as loyal to Belk.

After respondents in each group were assigned to appropriate demographic and loyalty categories, ANOVA and Scheffe' tests were performed to check for possible group differences across the three dependent variables (store image, attribute performance and claim belief). The results of the ANOVA and Scheffe' tests are discussed below.

### Store Images

The first test of Hypothesis 4 was to check for significant differences in store images held by the comparative, noncomparative, and control groups within the age, sex, income, and store loyalty segments. Mean store image scores were first calculated for all eight segments<sup>2</sup> in each group. Next, eight one-way ANOVAs were performed on the image scores. The results of these tests are summarized in Table 18.

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<sup>1</sup>Out of the highest possible score of 2000 derived by multiplying responses to a set of three questions. See page 100 of this chapter for a complete explanation.

<sup>2</sup>Four variables (age, sex, income, and store loyalty) each with two categories (male-female, high-low, etc.).

TABLE 18

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GROUP DIFFERENCES IN  
STORE IMAGE WITHIN SELECTED MARKET SEGMENTS

Market Segments	F-ratio	F-prob.
Male	1.337	.268
Female	1.027	.364
24 years & under	.170	ns
25 years & over	1.796	.172
\$14,999/yr & less	.434	ns
\$15,000/yr & more	2.108	.130
Nonloyal	.970	ns
Loyal	.443	ns

NOTE: "ns" indicates nonsignificant results as F-ratio < 1.000

None of the F-probabilities appeared to be significant. Thus, there was a rejection of the Hypothesis 4 that there is a difference in effects on the store image exhibited by the three groups according to age, sex, income, and store loyalty.

#### Attribute Performance

The next test checked for group differences in attribute performance scores within the age, sex, income, and store loyalty segments. This was accomplished by performing eight one-way ANOVAs across groups for each of the seven attributes. The results of the tests are presented in Table 19.

There appeared to be group differences on the "easy to find items you want" and "good buys on products" attributes in the 24 years and under age category. The "friendly personnel" performance scores appeared to have a group difference as mediated by the female segment and the nonloyal segment. Lastly, significant group differences were found in the lower income segment for the "reasonable prices for value" attribute.

Identifying which groups, if any, were significantly different from each other in each market segment was accomplished by the Scheffe' method. The results of the five Scheffe' multiple comparison tests (.10 level) are reported in Table 20, Column 4 along with group mean

TABLE 19  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARIES FOR GROUP  
ATTRIBUTE PERFORMANCE DIFFERENCES WITHIN SELECTED MARKET SEGMENTS

Market Segments	ATTRIBUTES:													
	"Easy to find items you want"		"Low pressure salespeople"		"Good buys on products"		"Good Service"		"Friendly personnel"		"Reasonable prices for value"		"Fast checkouts"	
	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.
Male	2.316	.104	.770	na	.817	na	.718	na	.191	na	.039 <sup>a</sup>	na	.205	na
Female	1.106	.337	.185	na	.118	na	2.426	.096	3.974	.023	1.464	.239	.824	na
24 years & under	2.889	.063	.021 <sup>a</sup>	na	3.560	.034	1.385	.258	1.600	.210	2.087	.133	.428	na
25 years & over	2.079	.131	.478	na	.457	na	.329	na	1.422	.240	.165	na	.993	na
\$14,999/yr & less	.829	na	.059 <sup>a</sup>	na	.448	na	2.043	.138	1.468	.238	3.519	.035	1.976	.147
\$15,000/yr & more	2.148	.101	.726	na	.606	na	.793	na	1.265	.287	.031 <sup>a</sup>	na	.287	na
Nonloyal	1.364	.262	1.231	.298	.795	na	1.916	.154	3.068	.052	.179	na	.777	na
Loyal	.825	na	.115	na	2.351	.102	.094 <sup>a</sup>	na	.277	na	1.807	.171	.883	na

NOTE: "na" indicates nonsignificant results as F-ratio < 1.000

<sup>a</sup> Reciprocal property of F-ratio significant at .10.

TABLE 20  
 MEAN SCORES AND SCHEFFE TEST FOR GROUP ATTRIBUTE  
 PERFORMANCE DIFFERENCES WITHIN SELECTED MARKET SEGMENTS

Attribute	Markets Segments	Comparative Group Mean* (1)	Noncomparative Group Mean* (2)	Control Group Mean* (3)	Scheffe Test** (4)
"Easy to find items you want"	24 yrs & less	.13	1.14	.75	1 - 2
"Good buys on products"	24 yrs & less	.81	.55	- .14	1 - 3
"Friendly personnel"	Female	.87	.22	1.48	2 - 3
	Nonloyal	.91	.48	1.48	2 - 3
"Reasonable prices for value"	\$14,999/yr & less	.11	.55	.03	2 - 3

\*Scored +3 (favorable) to -3 (unfavorable).

\*\*Column 4 presents an identification of the cases where the Scheffe test indicated significant group difference at .10 level. Which pairs of groups significantly differed are identified by their respective mean score column numbers (i.e., comparative = 1, noncomparative = 2, and control = 3).

scores (Columns 1 - 3). The "easy to find items you want" attribute is more effectively advertised<sup>1</sup> using a noncomparative versus comparative approach aimed at the lower age segment. Within the same segment, the comparative advertising group score was significantly more favorable than the control group's, but not the noncomparative advertising group's for the attribute "good buys on products." The noncomparative advertising scores for the "friendly personnel" attribute were significantly lower than the control group's in the female and nonloyal segments but significantly more favorable for promoting "reasonable price for value" to the lower income segment.

#### Claim Beliefs

The last test of Hypothesis 4 involved a check for group differences in claim beliefs within the age, sex, income and store loyalty segments. This test was accomplished by first calculating mean claim belief scores for each market segment in the treatment and control groups. The resultant mean scores were then subjected to one-way ANOVAs to check for significant differences. The F-ratio and their associated F-probabilities for the 28 separate ANOVAs in each of the

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<sup>1</sup>By being "more effective" a specific advertising approach produced higher scores relative to an another approach.

eight categories<sup>1</sup> appear in Tables 26 - 29 in Appendix F. In those cases where the F-probabilities appeared to signal significant group differences (at .10 level), the Scheffe' multiple comparison test was performed to identify which, if any, groups significantly differed. The results of the Scheffe' tests indicating significant group differences are reported in Table 21 (according to age), Table 22 (according to sex), Table 23 (according to income) and Table 24 (according to store loyalty). Discussion of results found in these tables is presented in the next four subsections which are then followed by a section synthesizing their general findings.

The key to analyzing the results of the multiple Scheffe' tests is to look for cases where either the comparative or noncomparative group scores (or both) are significantly different than those of the control group. If noncomparative and comparative group scores are both significantly higher than the control group's, then a check is made to see if and how the two treatment groups differ. This would tell Belk which approach it should prefer for producing the most favorable claim beliefs.

#### Claim Beliefs - Age Segments

The following Scheffe' test results were found for the 24 years and under/25 years and over age categories (see Table 21). In the 24 years

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<sup>1</sup>There were 28 ad claims treated as dependent variables and three demographic and one loyalty segments broken into two categories each.

TABLE 21

MEAN CLAIM BELIEF SCORES AND SCHEFFE TESTS INDICATING  
SIGNIFICANT GROUP DIFFERENCES ACCORDING TO AGE

Age Category	Claim Number	Claim	Comparative Group Mean* (1)	Noncomparative Group Mean* (2)	Control Group Mean* (3)	Scheffe Test** (4)
24 years & under	10	Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's	2.81	3.82	4.25	1-3
25 years & over	4	At Belk it is easy to find the items you want	4.08	5.03	4.00	1-2,2-3
	5	Belk personnel are friendlier than Sears'	3.36	4.35	3.66	1-2
	6	Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's	3.03	4.10	3.78	1-2
	7	Belk personnel are friendlier than Thalhimer's	3.85	4.45	3.41	2-3
	10	Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's	3.26	4.52	3.91	1-2
	11	Belk service is better than Thalhimer's	3.72	4.59	3.59	2-3
	15	Belk has faster checkouts than Thalhimer's	3.62	4.62	3.91	1-2
	18	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalhimer's	3.77	5.07	3.66	1-2,2-3
	23	Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalhimer's	4.36	5.83	4.44	1-2,2-3
	27	Belk has reasonable prices	3.90	4.97	3.75	1-2,2-3

\* Scored 1 (very improbable) to 7 (very probable).

\*\*Column 4 presents an identification of the cases where the Scheffe test indicated significant group difference at .10 level. Which pairs of groups significantly differed are identified by their respective mean score column numbers (i.e., comparative = 1, noncomparative = 2, and control = 3).



TABLE 22

MEAN CLAIM BELIEF SCORES AND SCHEFFE TESTS INDICATING  
SIGNIFICANT GROUP DIFFERENCES ACCORDING TO SEX

Sex Category	Claim Number	Claim	Comparative Group Mean* (1)	Noncomparative Group Mean* (2)	Control Group Mean* (3)	Scheffe Test** (4)
Female	6	Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's	3.17	3.89	4.31	1-3
	9	Belk service is better than Sear's	2.87	4.33	3.93	1-2
	10	Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's	3.26	3.78	4.52	1-3
Male	2	At Belk it is easier to find the items you want than at J.C. Penney's	2.94	3.78	3.48	1-2
	4	At Belk it is easy to find the items you want	4.28	4.94	3.71	2-3
	5	Belk personnel are friendlier than Sear's	3.28	4.12	3.77	1-2
	6	Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's	2.97	3.91	3.58	1-2
	10	Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's	3.03	4.46	3.65	1-2
	15	Belk has faster checkouts than Thalhimer's	3.44	4.55	3.87	1-2
	18	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalhimer's	3.97	4.91	3.65	1-2,2-3
	22	Belk has more reasonable prices than J.C. Penney's	2.88	3.82	2.90	1-2
	23	Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalhimer's	4.38	5.58	4.74	1-2
	27	Belk has reasonable prices	3.97	4.76	3.65	2-3

\* Scored 1 (very improbable) to 7 (very probable)

\*\* Column 4 presents an identification of the cases where the Scheffe test indicated significant group difference at .10 level. Which pairs of groups significantly differed are identified by their respective mean score column numbers (i.e., comparative = 1, noncomparative = 2, and control = 3).

TABLE 23

MEAN CLAIM BELIEF SCORES AND SCHEFFÉ TESTS INDICATING  
SIGNIFICANT GROUP DIFFERENCES ACCORDING TO INCOME

Income Category	Claim Number	Claim	Comparative Group Mean* (1)	Noncomparative Group Mean* (2)	Control Group Mean* (3)	Scheffe Test** (4)
\$14,999/yr & under	6	Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's	2.84	3.57	4.17	1-3
	9	Belk service is better than Sear's	2.84	4.00	3.77	1-2
	10	Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's	2.90	3.76	4.23	1-3
	22	Belk has more reasonable prices than J.C. Penney's	2.42	3.62	3.27	1-2
\$15,000/yr & over	3	At Belk it is easier to find the items you want than at Thalhimer's	3.67	4.67	3.80	1-2
	5	Belk personnel are friendlier than Sear's	3.36	4.40	3.67	1-2
	6	Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's	3.17	4.13	3.70	1-2
	10	Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's	3.25	4.53	3.90	1-2
	11	Belk service is better than Thalhimer's	3.64	4.93	3.83	1-2,2-3
	15	Belk has faster checkouts than Thalhimer's	3.69	4.67	3.90	1-2
	17	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than J.C. Penney's	3.53	4.33	3.70	1-2
	18	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalhimer's	3.89	5.13	3.87	1-2,2-3
	23	Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalhimer's	4.11	5.70	4.90	1-2

\* Scored 1 (very improbable) to 7 (very probable).

\*\* Column 4 presents an identification of the cases where the Scheffé test indicated significant group difference at .10 level. Which pairs of groups significantly differed are identified by their respective mean score column numbers (i.e., comparative = 1, noncomparative = 2, and control = 3).

TABLE 24

MEAN CLAIM BELIEF SCORES AND SCHEFFE TESTS INDICATING  
SIGNIFICANT GROUP DIFFERENCES ACCORDING TO LOYALTY

Loyalty Category	Claim Number	Claim	Comparative Group Mean* (1)	Noncomparative Group Mean* (2)	Control Group Mean* (3)	Scheffe Test** (4)
Nonloyal	4	At Belk it is easy to find the items you want	4.00	4.82	3.48	2-3
	6	Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's	2.91	3.82	3.29	1-2
	10	Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's	3.00	4.19	3.42	1-2
	13	Belk has faster checkouts than Sear's	2.97	3.96	3.91	1-2
	15	Belk has faster checkouts than Thalheimer's	3.56	4.78	3.71	1-2,2-3
	16	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Sear's	3.22	4.22	3.62	1-2
	17	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than J.C. Penney's	3.13	4.04	3.42	1-2
	18	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalheimer's	3.66	4.85	3.52	1-2,2-3
	23	Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalhimers	4.19	5.30	4.19	1-2
27	Belk has reasonable prices	3.38	4.44	3.29	1-2,2-3	
Loyal	5	Belk personnel are friendlier than Sear's	3.44	4.58	3.82	1-2
	6	Belk personnel are friendlier than J.C. Penney's	3.26	4.00	4.28	1-3
	9	Belk service is better than Sear's	3.35	4.50	3.74	1-2
Loyal	10	Belk service is better than J.C. Penney's	3.30	4.25	4.41	1-3
	22	Belk has more reasonable prices than J.C. Penney's	2.83	3.88	2.87	1-2,2-3
	23	Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalheimer's	4.78	5.88	4.85	1-2,2-3
	26	Belk has better buys than Thalheimer's	4.26	5.46	4.33	1-2,2-3
	27	Belk has reasonable prices	4.39	4.88	3.92	2-3

\* Scaled and scored 1 (very improbable) to 7 (very probable)

\*\* Column 4 presents an identification of the cases where the Scheffe test indicated significant group difference at .10 level. Which pairs of groups significantly differed are identified by their respective mean score column numbers (i.e., comparative = 1, noncomparative = 2, and control = 3).

and over category, comparative advertising produced a significantly lower score than noncomparative advertising in eight cases (claims #4, 5, 6, 10, 15, 18, 23 and 27) while noncomparative advertising generated significantly higher scores than the control group for claims #4, 7, 11, 18, 23, and 27.

#### Claim Beliefs - Sex Segments

The following Scheffe' test results were found for the female and male categories (see Table 22). In the female category, the comparative advertising group possessed significantly lower scores than the control group for two claims (#6 and 10) and a significantly lower score than noncomparative advertising for claim #9. In the male category, comparative advertising generated significantly lower scores than noncomparative advertising for claims #2, 5, 6, 10, 15, 18, 22 and 28. Noncomparative ads achieved significantly higher scores than exhibited by the control group for claims #4, 18 and 27.

#### Claim Beliefs - Income Segments

Table 23 presents the outcomes of the Scheffe' tests for the \$14,999 per year and less/\$15,000 per year and over income categories. In the lower income category, comparative advertising produced significantly lower scores than the noncomparative approach for claims

#9 and 22 as well as significantly lower scores than in the control group for claims #6 and 10. In the upper income category, comparative advertising produced significantly lower scores than noncomparative advertising for claims #3, 5, 6, 10, 11, 15, 17, 18 and 23. For two claims (#11 and 18), noncomparative group scores were significantly higher than the control group's.

#### Claim Beliefs - Loyalty Segments

The following Scheffe' test results were found for those respondents identified as either loyal or nonloyal to the Belk store (see Table 24). In the nonloyal category, comparative group scores were significantly lower than noncomparative group scores for claims #4, 15, 18 and 27. In the loyal category, comparative advertising produced significantly lower scores than noncomparative advertising for claims #5, 9, 22, 23, and 26 and significantly lower scores than the control group for claims #6 and 10. Noncomparative advertising generated significantly higher scores for claims #22, 23, 26 and 27 than were found for the control group.

#### Claim Beliefs and Mediating Variables--A Synthesis

In a check for significant differences among group claim belief scores in the age, sex, income, and story loyalty segments, 224 separate ANOVAs were performed (eight categories multiplied by 28 ad claims). As a follow-up to the ANOVA tests, the Scheffe' test indicated

significant group differences in 55 cases. In these 55 cases, there was a failure to reject Hypothesis 4 which predicted group differences.

Overall, the 55 "failure to reject" cases led to a rather clear conclusion. As can be seen in Table 25, when significant differences were indicated by the Scheffe' method, noncomparative advertising produced more favorable scores than comparative advertising. This study's noncomparative ads produced significantly favorable effects on the following claims:

4. At Belk it is easy to find the items you want
7. Belk personnel are friendlier than Thalhimers.
11. Belk service is better than Thalhimers.
15. Belk has faster checkouts than Thalhimers.
18. Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalhimers.
22. Belk has more reasonable prices than J.C. Penney's.
23. Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalhimers.
26. Belk has better buys than Thalhimers.
27. Belk has reasonable prices.

Two of these claims do not mention a competitor (#4, 27) while the other seven do. It appears that claims beliefs relative to Thalhimers are most favorable for Belk. Six of the nine claims involved the Thalhimers store. This means that many consumers, exposed to noncomparative advertising, believed that Belk had better performance than Thalhimers on six of the seven attributes.

TABLE 25

SEGMENTS FOR WHICH NONCOMPARATIVE ADVERTISING  
 PRODUCES SIGNIFICANTLY MORE FAVORABLE CLAIM BELIEFS

Claim Number	Claim	25 years & over	Male	\$15,000/yr & over	Nonloyal	Loyal
4	At Belk it is easy to find the items you want	X	X		X	
7	Belk personnel are friendlier than Thalhimers	X				
11	Belk service is better than Thalhimers	X		X		
15	Belk has faster checkouts than Thalhimers				X	
18	Belk has lower pressure salespeople than Thalhimers	X	X	X	X	
22	Belk has more reasonable prices than JC Penney					X
23	Belk has more reasonable prices than Thalhimers	X				X
26	Belk has better buys than Thalhimers					X
27	Belk has reasonable prices	X	X		X	X

NOTE: An "X" indicates that noncomparative advertising produced significantly more favorable claim belief levels within a specific market segment.

This conclusion is based on cases where significant group differences were indicated. If such differences are ignored for a moment, and instead only the treatment and control group mean scores (columns 1, 2, and 3 of Tables 21 - 24) are viewed, a consistent pattern is found. Usually, noncomparative group scores are highest in value (most favorable), comparative group scores lowest in value and control group scores falling in between these two extremes. This suggests that Belk should always prefer noncomparative advertising of attributes, irregardless of promotional target, if Belk wants to produce a favorable image. Thus, the findings of Hypothesis 4 strongly suggest that use of noncomparative advertising is best for Belk.

#### Chapter Summary

The preliminary procedures used in the study found 166 questionnaires out of 203 collected, usable for analysis. Incomplete questionnaires resulting from accidental skipping of pages was determined to be the major reason for questionnaire deletion.

Chi-square tests on noncomparative, comparative, and control group demographic characteristics led to the conclusion that the groups tended to be homogeneous with respect to sex, age, occupation, education, social class, income, and race. Furthermore, analysis of



variance (ANOVA) seemed to indicate that the three groups also exhibited similar loyalty to the Belk store. These two sets of findings tended to support the belief that the study's randomization procedure (mixing of questionnaire packages) was effective.

The procedures for testing the study's four hypotheses were reported in this chapter. One-way ANOVAs were first utilized to identify cases where there appeared to be significant group differences in store image, attribute performance, and claim belief scores. The Scheffe multiple comparison test was next used (.10 level) as a follow-up test to determine which groups significantly differed and the direction of difference (i.e., favorable-unfavorable).

The results of the four hypotheses tests were reported in this chapter. The comparative, noncomparative, and control groups did not exhibit significantly different images of Belk. Thus, there was a rejection of Hypothesis 1 which predicted group differences in images. There were significant group differences in scores for two of the seven advertised attributes ("easy to find items you want" and "friendly personnel"). This meant a failure to reject two subhypotheses of Hypothesis 2 (predicting group differences in attribute performance scores). In neither case did comparative advertising produce more favorable scores than noncomparative or Belk's current advertising approach (control group).

Concerning the 28 advertisement claims, significantly different group scores were found in 13 cases. This resulted in a failure to reject Hypothesis 3 (asserting group claim belief differences) in those 13 cases. In most of these cases, noncomparative advertising was found to produce significantly higher scores than comparative advertising and, in a smaller number of cases, significantly higher scores than those in the control group. In no case was a comparative group score significantly higher than the noncomparative and/or control group's.

The results of a check for possible group differences in the above three dependent variables within specific age, sex, income, and loyalty segments were presented in this chapter. The general finding was that noncomparative advertising produced significantly more favorable scores than comparative advertising and, to a lesser extent, more favorable than control group scores. Out of 224 cases for Hypothesis 4 (predicting group differences in claim beliefs within special market segments) there was a failure to reject that hypothesis in 55 cases. In no single case, out of the 224 possibilities, did comparative advertising produce significantly higher scores than noncomparative advertising in promoting the 28 advertisement claims aimed at these special segments.

The results in this chapter strongly show undesirable results from using comparative advertising and favorable results from non-comparative usage. Even in cases where there were no significant

differences, comparative group mean scores tended to be lower (less favorable) than those of the noncomparative and control groups. Thus, the way comparative advertising was utilized in this study for the Belk retail establishment proved to be rather ineffective while noncomparative advertising proved to enhance Belk's image.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>In this study, a large number of ANOVA and Scheffe tests were conducted. Thus, there is a large (and unmeasurable chance) of finding cases of significant difference purely by chance. Existence of such cases leads to spurious results. However, the pattern of mean scores still suggest that noncomparative advertising was better for promoting store attributes than was comparative advertising.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE OUTLOOK

This chapter attempts to serve four distinct purposes. They are to: (1) give a brief review of the research effort, (2) discuss the key conclusions and implications of the study, (3) identify perceived limitations of the study and (4) make suggestions for future research concerning retail comparative advertising.

#### Review of the Study

Manufacturers are increasingly employing a comparative advertising approach which involves the naming of competitors. This advertising approach is used to produce brand images that are more favorable than images that could be produced with traditional, noncomparative advertising.

Recognizing that advertising affects the store image, retail advertising approaches should be identified that produce favorable store images. From these considerations, the general research question asked was whether or not retailers would find the currently popular comparative advertising approach more effective than a noncomparative advertising approach for promoting the store image.

In an attempt to answer this question, an after-only with control group experimental design was utilized. The experiment was designed to measure and compare the effects of a comparative and noncomparative advertising approach. Using a department store sponsor,

four mock newspaper advertisements were constructed; each with a noncomparative and comparative version. The ads were developed by stressing seven store attributes found to be important determinants of the store image held by consumers in a preliminary study. The seven attributes were: easy to find items you want, low pressure salespeople, good buys on products, good service, friendly personnel, reasonable prices for value, and fast checkouts. Overall, the four ads stressed that the sponsoring store (Belk) had superior performance on all seven attributes. In addition, the comparative ads claimed superior performance over three named competitors (Sears, J.C. Penney, and Thalhimers).

The dependent variables used to measure effectiveness were: the overall store image, performance evaluations of the seven advertised attributes, and the belief levels for the specific advertisement claims. Store image was measured through a multiattribute attitude model. Attribute performance evaluations were measured by using a tailor-made semantic differential scale with proven reliability. Claim belief levels were assessed by using a subjective likelihood scale on which consumers indicated the extent to which they believed that a specific ad claim was true.

Three research hypotheses asserted that there would be differences in all three dependent variables as exhibited by the comparative, noncomparative, and control groups. It was further hypothesized that the effects on these three variables would be mediated by age, sex, income and loyalty to the sponsoring store. Data were collected on self-administered questionnaires given to students enrolled in evening and day classes at

Forsyth Technological Institute, Winston-Salem, North Carolina in July, 1978. Of the 166 usable questionnaires, 55 were from the comparative advertising treatment group, 51 from the noncomparative group, and 60 from the control group.

To test the four hypotheses, all dependent variable measures for each group were subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). In situations where there appeared to be significant group differences, the Scheffe<sup>1</sup> multiple comparison test was used to determine which, if any, groups were significantly different.

The results of the test of hypotheses produced the following major findings:

Hypothesis 1 No significant group differences in store images as measured by a multiattribute attitude model.

Hypothesis 2 No significant group differences, for five attributes (low pressure salespeople, good buys on products, good service, reasonable prices for value, and fast checkouts).

Comparative advertising significantly less effective<sup>1</sup> than current advertising (control group) for "easy to find items you want" attribute.

Noncomparative advertising significantly less effective than current advertising for "friendly personnel" attribute.

Hypothesis 3 Noncomparative advertising significantly more effective than comparative advertising for 9 out of 28 ad claims and significantly more effective than current advertising on four claims.

Comparative advertising significantly less effective than current advertising for three claims.

Hypothesis 4 In general, noncomparative advertising was significantly more effective than comparative advertising in promoting attributes and making claims aimed at specific segments as defined by age, sex, income and store loyalty.

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<sup>1</sup>"Less effective" means that an approach produced lower (less favorable) scores than another approach. More effective would mean relatively higher scores.

In a smaller number of situations, the noncomparative approach was found significantly more effective than current advertising.

Rather overwhelmingly, the results of the hypotheses tests identified comparative advertising as producing effects less favorable than noncomparative advertising. Even in situations of no significant differences among groups, the comparative group scores tended to be less favorable than the noncomparative group's and the control group's. The study found noncomparative advertising producing the most favorable effects on the store image.

#### Implications of the Study

The study's contributions are in three distinct areas: (1) public policy decision making, (2) general knowledge of comparative advertising's effects on the consumer and (3) the establishment of guidelines concerning retail sponsored advertising.

#### Public Policy

A lesser contribution of the study is to aid public policy decision making. By encouraging the use of comparative advertising, the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) has hoped to create a more competitive market and one in which consumers are better off. Theoretically, consumers should be in an advantageous shopping position with comparative advertising providing them with more information for consumption decision making. However, in this study it was found that consumers reacted negatively to the information provided by comparative advertising. If store images do in fact predict behavior, one would expect shoppers exposed to comparative advertisements for Belk to shop less at that store.

If the findings of this study are considered applicable to retailing in general and the FTC were to encourage retail comparative advertising, the FTC might be asking retailers to injure their store images and consumer patronage motives. The outcomes of encouraging comparative advertising as practiced in this study appeared to aid neither the retailer nor consumers.

#### Effects of Comparative Advertising

A contribution of this study was to add to the general body of knowledge addressing comparative advertising's effects. Although limited to the retail situation, the findings do supplement the results of manufacturer oriented studies discussed in Chapter II.

The results of the study strongly support the Ogilvy and Mather Research studies discussed in Chapter II which purported that little is to be gained from comparative advertising. In this study, comparative advertising never created significantly more favorable effects than non-comparative advertising. In fact, the comparative group's dependent variable scores were almost always lower in value (less favorable) than scores for the other two groups.

Perhaps the most congruent finding relative to manufacturer oriented comparative advertising studies was a discovery that the comparative approach used in this study was not effective for an established sponsor. The Belk store used as the advertising sponsor was not a new market entrant and dependent variable measures indicated the comparative advertising approach to be relatively ineffective. Another study also found



comparative advertising unsuitable for established brands versus new market entrants.<sup>1</sup>

Comparative advertising had less favorable effects than noncomparative advertising aimed at market segments identified by sex, age, income, and degree of store loyalty. Some of these findings parallel McDougall's suggestion that attitudes toward comparative advertising are not related to demographic variables.<sup>2</sup> These results are especially interesting as it has been found and hypothesized by others<sup>3</sup> that comparative advertising, at a minimum, has favorable effects on those loyal to the advertising sponsor. This expectation is based on the concept of perceptual vigilance<sup>4</sup> as well as the cognitive consistency attitude change theory.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Terence A. Shimp and David C. Dyer, "The Effects of Comparative Advertising Mediated by Market Position of Sponsoring Brand," Journal of Advertising 7 (Summer 1978): 13-19. NOTE: This study did not measure effectiveness for a new market entrant.

<sup>2</sup>Gordon H. G. McDougall, "Comparative Advertising: Consumer Issues and Attitudes," Proceedings, American Marketing Association Educators' Conference, Hartford, Connecticut (1977), pp. 286-291.

<sup>3</sup>McDougall, pp. 206-291, L. Golden, "Consumer Reactions to Comparative Advertising," in B. B. Anderson, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. III (Chicago: Association for Consumer Research, 1976), pp. 63-67, and W. L. Wilkie and P. W. Farris, "Comparison Advertising: Problems and Potential," Journal of Marketing 39 (October 1975): 7-15.

<sup>4</sup>L. Postman and B. Schneider, "Personal Values, Visual Recognition, and Recall," Psychological Review 58 (1971): 271-284. Basically, this concept would state that preferred brand names will be recognized more quickly than nonpreferred brands.

<sup>5</sup>For a general discussion of cognitive consistency theory see: M. J. Rosenberg, "Inconsistency Arousal and Reduction is Attitude Change," in I. D. Steiner and M. Fishbein (eds.), Current Studies in Social Psychology (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), pp. 123-124.

In this study, the perceptual concept would state that a person loyal to the Belk store is likely to attend to the comparative ads since their information is favorable. Cognitive consistency theory also predicts a favorable reaction to the comparative ads since they gave information which supports the loyal shoppers' behavior-shopping at Belk. The failure to find these expected results may be due to some of the study's limitations which will be discussed later in this chapter.

#### Retail Contributions

The most significant contributions of this study are in the area of store image development and retail sponsored advertising. First, retailers in general and Belk in particular, should be cautious of imitating the manufacturer practice of comparative advertising. It is likely that many manufacturer adoptions of this approach are based on imitation more so than empirical support. This study may serve as a warning to retailers who feel the temptation to emulate the manufacturers.

The results of hypotheses testing in this study point to one clear conclusion: the retailer is likely to injure its store image if it uses comparative advertising as conceptualized in this study. Although there were several cases where comparative advertising did not produce significantly lower effects in the dependent variables than shown by the noncomparative and control groups, those effects were generally in an unfavorable direction. In other words, comparative advertising consistently produced lower dependent variable scores than noncomparative advertising.

Of course, the more specific implications are made for the exact situation tested in this study. That is, the Belk store of Winston-Salem,

North Carolina would find undesirable effects if it were to use comparative advertising suggesting superiority on the seven attributes in relation to the Sears, J.C. Penney, and Thalhimers stores. Perhaps one of the most important issues in comparative retail advertising is the believability of ad claims. Possibly the comparative advertising claims used in this study were highly unbelievable. If the claims had been constructed differently, the conclusions of the study, and the recommendations for Belk, might be entirely different.

Overall, the suggestion is made that existing or established department stores should avoid using the type of comparative advertising employed in this study as a promotional approach to enhance the store image at the expense of competitors. Although the study suggests this major conclusion, further research will help to support or refute such a conclusion. Possibilities for such future research will be suggested later in this chapter.

#### Limitations of the Study

This section identifies and discusses perceived major limitations of the study. The five major limitations were: (1) insensitivity of the semantic differential scale, (2) lack of advertisement repetition, (3) strength and nature of ad claims, (4) measurement of store loyalty and (5) sampling.

#### Insensitivity of Semantic Differential

One possible problem in the study may have been the insensitivity of the semantic differential scale measuring the attribute performance evaluations used in the test of Hypotheses 1 and 2 as well as parts of

Hypothesis 4. In those hypotheses tests, control group scores were frequently higher than either the noncomparative or comparative group scores. This leans toward the conclusion that the experimental ads caused a negative reaction. Although this conclusion might be logical if the experimental ads were in poor taste, offensive, etc., the conclusion is not logical because the noncomparative advertisements were not substantially different from the store's current advertisements (control group). It was therefore concluded that the semantic differential may not have been an appropriate scale for picking up the advertising effects.

Support for this conclusion comes from inspection of the data used to test Hypothesis 3 (group differences in the 28 advertisement claim belief scores). To test this hypothesis, consumers were first given the 28 claims and then asked to indicate the probability that each claim was true on a seven point (very improbable to very probable) subjective likelihood scale. The results of the measures across each of the three groups followed a more logical pattern- in 27 out of 28 cases, control group scores were lower than noncomparative group scores. It therefore appeared that the subjective likelihood measures were more sensitive to measuring the advertising effects. Thus, the conclusions of testing hypotheses using semantic differential input data (Hypotheses 1, 2, and parts of 4) should be viewed with caution. Hypothesis 3 probably represents the most accurate assessment of comparative, noncomparative, and control group differences. This hypothesis used the subjective likelihood scale in testing for group differences in the 28 ad claim belief scores.

### Lack of Repetition

Another possible problem in the experiment may have been a lack of message repetition. Essentially, the purpose of the comparative and non-comparative advertising treatments was to create image change through attitude change at the cognitive level. To do this, consumers were given information in the advertisements which was intended to change, in a favorable direction, their perceptions of the Belk store's performance across seven attributes. It might be argued that a single exposure to four comparative advertisements stressing seven attributes was not enough exposure to induce attitude change. Perhaps repetition of comparative claims would increase ad believability or credibility and eventually enhance the store image.

### Strength and Nature of Ad Claims

A possible reason for the unfavorable showing of comparative versus noncomparative advertising was the strength and hence, believability of the comparative ad claims. Although the study intended to construct and use comparative ads of moderate strength, consumers may have perceived the ads as too strong. This may be true because Belk claimed better performance than three other stores (Sears, J.C. Penney, and Thalhimers) across a total of seven attributes. Consumers may have simply rejected the notion that such claims could be true. This could have resulted in advertising "puffery". Hopefully, credibility of ad claims was enhanced by stating that claims were based on a survey taken by an independent research agency.

When considered in totality, the ad claims may have appeared as suggesting that the Belk store is "all things to all people." This

advocated position could easily be perceived as too distant from the consumers' current position concerning Belk's performance relative to the competitors. In fact, such an advocated position may be in direct conflict with Belk's current market positioning strategy. Accordingly, Sherif's social judgment theory offers an explanation for the study's results. Sherif notes that consumers will accept advocated positions (here the advertised claims) only if they are not too distant from the current position held by the consumer. Positions not too distant fall into the "latitude of acceptance" while positions too distant fall into the "latitude of rejection" region. The theory suggests that attitude change will not occur if advocated positions (here advertisement claims) fall outside of the latitude of acceptance.<sup>1</sup> Thus, if the study's comparative ads were too strong, the desired attitude change could not occur.

The claim format, not the comparative versus noncomparative approach, may have caused the results found in dependent measures. For example, the claims may have been too general and not specific enough that consumers would find value in their information. Perhaps advertising "good buys on products" is too general, but claiming something more specific like "good buys on men's three piece suits" is more appropriate to the comparative advertising approach. More specific issues concerning ad claim construction will be made in the Suggestions for Further Research section of this Chapter.

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<sup>1</sup>Carolyn W. Sherif, M. Sherif, and R. Nebergall, Attitude and Attitude Change (Philadelphia: Saunders, 1965).

## Measurement of Store Loyalty

A final concern of the study was the measuring of store loyalty and its use in the nonloyal-loyal segment test for group differences. Experimental treatments probably produced a halo effect on measures of store loyalty in the treatment groups since loyalty was measured by using a combination of responses to three questions that followed exposure to the ad treatments. Thus, exposure to the experimental ads may have influenced what was indicated as loyalty to the Belk store.<sup>1</sup> Evidence of this phenomenon comes from inspection of the mean store loyalty scores for each of the three groups. Out of a highest possible loyalty score of 2000 and lowest possible score of zero, the following group scores were found: comparative mean = 167.9, noncomparative = 202.5 and control mean = 184.9. Combining these measures with the results of the hypotheses tests<sup>2</sup> appears to document the existence of halo effects in all groups.

Another problem may be the degree of store loyalty exhibited by the sample. Identification of the loyal-nonloyal segments used in measuring comparative advertising's effects in special market segments may have been inappropriate as all respondents exhibited low loyalty scores out of a maximum possible score of 2000. Therefore, the suggested effects of comparative, noncomparative and no advertising on the loyal segment may be

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<sup>1</sup>Negative feelings toward ads would produce corresponding lower loyalty scores. This could be explained by cognitive consistency theory.

<sup>2</sup>The general pattern of group mean scores showed noncomparative group scores highest, comparative, lowest, and control group scores in-between.

somewhat misleading as these respondents were simply the more loyal of the non-loyal shoppers. Also, no measure was taken of the consumers' loyalty to the three named competitors. Had this been accomplished, a more precise identification of loyalty to the Belk store may have been possible.

### Sampling

The use of community college students as a sample may represent a serious limitation to the study. Although most respondents, or their spouses, did hold full time employment and therefore represented potential department store shoppers, these same respondents may not have represented the major target of Belk's marketing efforts. In comparing the social and income class characteristics of the sample with a perception of Belk store marketing policies, a conclusion is made that there may not be a high degree of overlap. The Sears and J.C. Penney stores used in the comparisons are probably more in line with the needs and wants of consumers in the study. However, the study still may have assessed how effective comparative advertising might be in "drawing away" customers from these two competitors.

### Suggestions for Future Research

As expected in the exploratory studies such as this, it sometimes appears that more questions are raised than answered. This study is certainly no exception. Several suggestions are made in direct relation to limitations of this study while others are developed by considering parallel issues raised in manufacturer sponsored comparative advertising studies. All suggestions fall into six categories: (1) repetition of



advertisements, (2) message construction alternatives, (3) choice of dependent variables, (4) media, (5) market position of sponsor and (6) retail store type.

#### Repetition

This study, as all other reported investigations of comparative advertising's effects, have utilized a single exposure treatment. Although differences were found in group scores, the degree and direction of those differences might change after repetition of messages. Future studies should employ message repetitions. Ray and Sawyer suggest a laboratory procedure for accomplishing this task.<sup>1</sup>

#### Message Construction

Testing the effects of retail comparative advertising should recognize that a variety of ad formats and intensity of appeal are possible. This study considered only one variety - stressing superior performance on seven attributes relative to three competitors. The results were unfavorable for comparative advertising. The same results might not be found if perhaps only one, or two competitors were named.

Furthermore, comparisons among homogeneous store types (e.g., department store versus department store) may produce different effects than comparisons among heterogeneous store types (e.g., department store versus furniture store). Even department stores are not always exactly

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<sup>1</sup>Michael L. Ray and Alan G. Sawyer, "Repetition in Media Models: A Laboratory Technique," Journal of Marketing Research 8 (February 1971): 20-29.

homogeneous. For example, Sears sells large amounts of appliances, tools and automotive parts whereas Belk does not.

The stressing of seven attributes in the four ads may have represented an "information overload." The fact that Belk was advertised as having superior performance on seven attributes relative to three competitors may have represented too much information or an "information overload." Impending studies should address the issue of how many attributes to advertise in a given ad or advertising campaign. Closely related to this concern is the need to consider the relative effectiveness of one-sided vs. two-sided comparative claims. One-sided claims occur when the sponsoring store wins on every attribute (as in this study). Perhaps the store should not win on all attributes, but instead admit inferior performance of one or a few. This two-sided approach is supposedly more effective with sophisticated audiences.

A parallel issue is the need to identify the number and type of store attributes that lend themselves to comparative advertising. Some authors have argued that subjective attributes (e.g., friendly personnel) are not likely candidates for this advertising approach.<sup>1</sup> Instead, more objective attributes such as convenience of location may be better candidates. Retailers might find it desirable to avoid general attribute claims (institutional advertising) and instead make specific comparative claims. For example, in this study, Belk comparative ads for its children's wear might have been more effective than noncomparative ads.

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<sup>1</sup>Michael Etgar and Stephen A. Goodwin, "Comparative Advertising: Issues and Problems," Proceedings, American Marketing Association Educators' Conference, Hartford, Connecticut (1977), pp. 63-71.

Finally, this study was an attempt to differentiate Belk from the other three stores by claiming that Belk performed better on the seven attributes. Had an associative approach been used, an attempt would have been made to show that Belk's performance was equal or similar to the performance of other named stores on those attributes. Especially if Belk's position was one of an "underdog," then the associative approach might have worked very effectively.

The answers to the above issues involving various approaches to message construction are deemed necessary to fully assess retail comparative advertising's effects. Most of the above issues could be explored by using factorial, experimental designs to gather data and then using analysis of variance procedures to determine effects.

#### Dependent Variables

Although this study measured consumer perceptions relative to advertising claims, other dependent variables may be more accurate predictors of behavior. Assessing effects through behavioral tendency measures may be useful. For example, studies could measure pre- and post- levels of purchase intentions or purchase probabilities. If pretesting is undesirable, an after-only with control group design, such as used in this study, could be employed.

Store images of named competitors are probably affected by comparative ads aimed at them. This study only measured the image of the Belk store. Measurement of how the images of Sears, J.C. Penney and Thalhimers were affected was not attempted. Although the Belk store

image was affected in an undesirable direction, the images of the other three stores may have been injured even more. Future studies should assess the effects on named competitor stores, as well as the sponsoring store.

#### Media

Since the greatest proportion of the Belk store advertising was placed through the newspaper media, that media was employed in this study.

Retailers normally employ a mix of radio, television, and newspaper advertising as their main promotional channels. Forthcoming studies of retail sponsored comparative advertising may find it desirable to assess the effects of ads placed in different media.

#### Market Position

Generally, research assessing the effects of manufacturer sponsored comparative advertising have found this approach relatively more effective than noncomparative advertising for products "new" to the market versus those already established. The same conclusion may be true for retail comparative advertising. Although such a finding might be of limited value to national retailers (since there are very few new market entrants in a given time period), local or regional retail use could be possible. Thus, a department store new to a particular part of a state might find it desirable to use comparative advertising to develop a favorable image at the expense of local competitors. The effects of retail comparative advertising should be measured by

acknowledging the various market positions held by the sponsor. Perhaps future studies could use stages of the retail life cycle for this purpose.<sup>1</sup>

### Type of Store

Empirical studies of manufacturer oriented comparative advertising suggest that this approach is more applicable to convenience goods rather than shopping or specialty goods promotion. Convenience, shopping and specialty store types are also identifiable. Whether or not comparative advertising is more appropriate for a specific type of store is a question for the focus of future research. This study likely assessed the effects of comparative advertising for a shopping type store. Admittedly, research in this area is difficult because of the inherent problems in classifying stores. Researchers should use consumer perceptions to perform the classification procedure.

### Summary

This chapter has provided an outline of the study through an identification of its objectives, methodologies, and findings. The findings seem to suggest that retailers should avoid using comparative advertising to enhance their store image. In this study, comparative, institutional advertising produced an unfavorable store image for a department store. However, limitations of the study should temper the strong conclusion against retail comparative advertising use.

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<sup>1</sup>For a discussion of retail life cycle stages see: William R. Davidson, Albert D. Bates, Stephen J. Bass, "The Retail Life Cycle," Harvard Business Review (November-December 1976), 89-96.

Comparative ad claims possibly were too strong and therefore advocated a position too extreme for consumers to accept. This basic concern, strength of the comparative appeal, is an important issue to be addressed by future research.

In conclusion, there are many different types of retailers who could use different comparative ad formats in different situations. Retailers should continue looking for possible situations where this approach is more effective than the traditional, noncomparative advertising approach. The desirability of this search is supported by the fact that comparative advertising is becoming increasingly popular with manufacturers, and apparently, is effective in some situations.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN PRELIMINARY STUDY  
TO DEVELOP EXPERIMENTAL ADS AND TEST RELIABILITY  
OF ALBAUM-DICKSON SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

## DEPARTMENT STORE QUESTIONNAIRE

DEAR RESPONDENT:

THIS RESEARCH IS BEING UNDERTAKEN FOR EDUCATION PURPOSES ONLY.  
YOUR TIME AND EFFORT IN ANSWERING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WILL BE APPRECIATED.

PLEASE FOLLOW ALL DIRECTIONS CAREFULLY!

THANK YOU.

## PART I - DIRECTIONS:

BELOW IS A LIST OF 29 CHARACTERISTICS THAT MIGHT BE USED TO DESCRIBE  
A DEPARTMENT STORE. YOU ARE ASKED TO INDICATE HOW IMPORTANT EACH OF THESE  
IS TO YOU IN SELECTING A STORE AT WHICH YOU MIGHT SHOP.

INDICATE THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE BY CIRCLING A NUMBER FROM +3 TO -3  
FOR EACH OF THE 29 CHARACTERISTICS. REFER TO THE HEADINGS 'OF MORE  
IMPORTANCE' AND 'OF LESS IMPORTANCE' WHEN YOU DO THE CIRCLING.

CHARACTERISTIC	OF MORE IMPORTANCE				OF LESS IMPORTANCE			
	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
PLEASANT STORE TO SHOP IN	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
SPACIOUS SHOPPING	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
GOOD BUYS ON PRODUCTS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
RIGHT STORE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
FRIENDLY PERSONNEL	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
MANY CLERKS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
GOOD SERVICE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
GOOD STUFF	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
EASY TO FIND ITEMS YOU WANT	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
LOW PRICES	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
WELL SPACED MERCHANDISE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
CLEAN	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
GOOD SALES ON PRODUCTS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	
GOOD SPECIALS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	

## PART I - CONTINUED

CHARACTERISTIC	OF MORE IMPORTANCE				OF LESS IMPORTANCE		
	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
BIG STORE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
ATTRACTIVE STORE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
EASY TO RETURN PURCHASES	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
CONVENIENT LOCATION	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
UNLIMITED SELECTION OF PRODUCTS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
WELL ORGANIZED LAYOUT	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
HELPFUL SALESPEOPLE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
REASONABLE PRICES FOR VALUE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
HEAT	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
FAST CHECKOUT	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
HIGH QUALITY PRODUCTS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
GOOD DISPLAYS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
LOW PRESSURE SALES PEOPLE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
ADS FREQUENTLY SEEN BY YOU	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
ATTRACTS UPPER CLASS CUSTOMERS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3

PLEASE CHECK TO MAKE SURE YOU HAVE CIRCLED ONLY ONE NUMBER FOR EACH OF THE 29 CHARACTERISTICS

IF THERE ARE OTHER CHARACTERISTICS THAT YOU USE TO DESCRIBE A DEPARTMENT STORE, PLEASE WRITE THEM IN THE FOLLOWING SPACES. ALSO MARK THEIR IMPORTANCE BY CIRCLING A NUMBER FROM +3 TO -3.

OTHER CHARACTERISTICS	OF MORE IMPORTANCE				OF LESS IMPORTANCE		
	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
1-----	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
2-----	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
3-----	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
4-----	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3

**PART II - DIRECTIONS:**

BELOW IS ANOTHER LIST OF THE SAME 29 CHARACTERISTICS. THIS TIME THE 29 CHARACTERISTICS ARE PRESENTED IN THE FORM OF OPPOSITES IN THE LEFT AND RIGHT COLUMNS. IN BETWEEN ARE THE SEVEN NUMBERS RANGING FROM +3 TO -3.

CONSIDERING WHAT YOU KNOW, FEEL, OR PERCEIVE TO BE TRUE OF HELK STORES (IN WINSTON-SALEM ONLY), PLEASE INDICATE HOW WELL HELK PERFORMS ON THESE 29 CHARACTERISTICS. DO THIS BY AGAIN CIRCLING A NUMBER FROM +3 TO -3 WHICH BEST DESCRIBES THE SITUATION IN THE LOCAL HELK STORE.

NOTE: DO NOT CIRCLE THE NUMBER ZERO WHEN YOU FEEL YOU DO NOT KNOW FOR SURE. INSTEAD, ANSWER BY CONSIDERING WHAT YOU THINK TO BE TRUE. THE ZERO SHOULD BE CIRCLED ONLY WHEN YOU THINK THE STORE HAS NEITHER GOOD NOR BAD PERFORMANCE ON A SPECIFIC CHARACTERISTIC.

CHARACTERISTIC								CHARACTERISTIC
EASY TO RETURN PURCHASES	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	HARD TO RETURN PURCHASES
ATTRACTIVE STORE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	UNATTRACTIVE STORE
CLEAN	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	DIRTY
HIGH QUALITY PRODUCTS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	LOW QUALITY PRODUCTS
EASY TO FIND ITEMS YOU WANT	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	HARD TO FIND ITEMS YOU WANT
ATTRACTS UPPER CLASS CUSTOMERS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	ATTRACTS LOWER CLASS CUSTOMERS
LOW PRICES	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	HIGH PRICES
CONVENIENT LOCATION	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	INCONVENIENT LOCATION
WELL ORGANIZED LAYOUT	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	UNORGANIZED LAYOUT
GOOD STORE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	BAD STORE
GOOD SERVICE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	BAD SERVICE
NEAT	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	MESSY

PART II - CONTINUED

CHARACTERISTIC								CHARACTERISTIC
PLEASANT STORE TO SHOP IN	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	UNPLEASANT STORE TO SHOP IN
GOOD DISPLAYS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	BAD DISPLAYS
FAST CHECKOUT	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	SLOW CHECKOUT
BRIGHT STORE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	DULL STORE
WELL SPACED MERCHANDISE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	CRAMMED MERCHANDISE
ADS FREQUENTLY SEEN BY YOU	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	ADS INFREQUENTLY SEEN BY YOU
GOOD BUYS ON PRODUCTS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	BAD BUYS ON PRODUCTS
SPACIOUS SHOPPING	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	CROWDED SHOPPING
LOW PRESSURE SALES PEOPLE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	HIGH PRESSURE SALESPEOPLE
BIG STORE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	SMALL STORE
FRIENDLY PERSONNEL	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	UNFRIENDLY PERSONNEL
GOOD SALES ON PRODUCTS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	BAD SALES ON PRODUCTS
UNLIMITED SELECTION OF PRODUCTS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	LIMITED SELECTION OF PRODUCTS
REASONABLE PRICES FOR VALUE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	UNREASONABLE PRICE FOR VALUE
GOOD SPECIALS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	BAD SPECIALS
MANY CLERKS	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	FEW CLERKS
HELPFUL SALESPEOPLE	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3	UNHELPFUL SALESPEOPLE

APPENDIX B  
NONCOMPARATIVE EXPERIMENTAL  
TREATMENT ADVERTISEMENTS

**Belk**

year-'round poplins  
...WITH WARM  
LINERS

Jaunty hoods, tiebelts, plaid liners-  
details that add up to a fresh look in  
any weather. Cotton and Polyester  
poplins from our collection by Calico  
in rust or camel.  
Sizes 5/6 to 15/16.

A. Updated trench with cinch back-  
waist for perfect fit with or without  
its button-on plaid liner. Button-on  
hood and collar liner too....\$58.

B. Princess style with cuffed  
sleeves, back pleats, drawstring  
hood. Quilt-lined bodice, plaid-  
lined skirt....\$52.

**PRE-SEASON  
COAT  
EVENT**



And remember...it's best to  
shop Belk Because of our  
friendly personnel and  
excellent service.

**Belk of Hanes Mall  
Open Weekdays 10-9:30, Sun. 1-6**

**Stratford Road  
Phone 768-9200**

# Belk

## sale!...high energy action shoes

Our own brands - therefore your best buys.

Men's 'Anchurst' casuals.  
Laced-to-toe oxford. Kicker bottom.  
Usually \$27 ..... 23.88  
Boat-look tie. Usually \$30 ..... 23.88  
Star-bottom suede & leather. Padded  
collar. Usually \$18 ..... 14.88

Boy's basketball oxfords.  
Our 'Anchurst' padded collar, reinforced  
toes, cushioned insole. Heavy canvas.  
11-8. Usually \$10 ..... 7.88

Boy's and Men's Anchurst Joggers.  
Nylon & suede. Youths. Usually \$1310.88  
Boys' & men's Usually \$14815 ..... 11.88  
Leather & suede. Youth's \$14 ..... 11.88  
Boys' & men's. Usually \$15&18 ..... 12.88

Canvas tennis oxfords. Terry lined,  
padded topline. Men's 'Anchurst'  
Usually \$12 ..... 9.88  
Women's 'Sweetbriar'. Usually \$10. 7.88



## back to school SALE

And remember...two of the best reasons  
for shopping Belk are its reasonable  
prices and good buys.

Belk of Hanes Mall  
Open Weekdays 10-9:30, Sun. 1-6

Stratford Road  
Phone 768-9200



# Belk

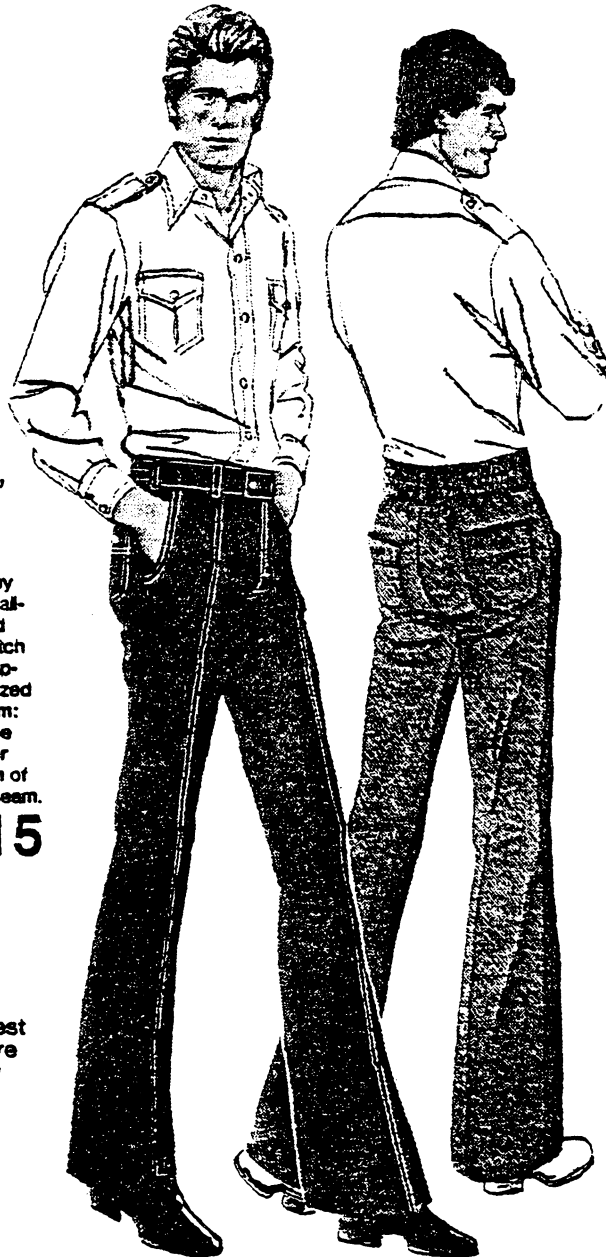
the  
**BOLD  
ONE**

**'New Dimensions'  
elastic-back jean**

From our Bold One collection by Andhurst. Flare legs tapered an all-new way: with double-stitched vertical seam. Rounded back patch pocket buttoned-thru for neat appearance. Move-with-you elasticized back. Prove to yourself our claim: Positively the most comfortable fashion jean ever! Khaki twill or British blue denim, 100% cotton of course. 28-40" waists, 30-34" inseam.

**\$15**

And remember...two of the best reasons for shopping Belk are the fast checkouts and low pressure salespeople.



**Belk of Hanes Mall  
Open Weekdays 10-9:30, Sun. 1-6**

**Stratford Road  
Phone: 768-9200**

# Belk

## Adidas t-shirts...for fun and games

They're the absolute rage, wherever the action is! Brilliant colors, rainbow printing with favorite 'Adidas', the status name in sports gear, right up front. 100% cotton. Sizes S, M, L and XL.

each **\$5**



# back to school SALE

And remember...at Belk, it is easier to find the items you want.

Belk of Hanes Mall  
Open Weekdays 10-9:30, Sun. 1-6

Stratford Road  
Phone 768-9200

APPENDIX C  
COMPARATIVE EXPERIMENTAL  
TREATMENT ADVERTISEMENTS

# Belk

year-'round poplins  
...WITH WARM  
LINERS

Jaunty hoods, tiebelts, plaid liners—details that add up to a fresh look in any weather. Cotton and Polyester poplins from our collection by Calico in rust or camel. Sizes 5/8 to 15/18.

A. Updated trench with cinch back-waist for perfect fit with or without its button-on plaid liner. Button-on hood and collar liner too.....\$58.

B. Princess style with cuffed sleeves, back pleats, drawstring hood. Quilt-lined bodice, plaid-lined skirt.....\$52.

PRE-SEASON  
**COAT  
EVENT**



And remember...it's better to shop Belk than Sears, Thalhimers or JC Penney because our personnel are friendlier and our service is better.\*

\* According to a survey conducted by Reynolds Research, Inc. 1978.

**Belk of Hanes Mall**  
Open Weekdays 10-9:30, Sun. 1-6

**Stratford Road**  
Phone 768-9200

# Belk

## sale!...high energy action shoes

Our own brands - therefore your best buys.

**Men's 'Andhurst' casuals.**

Laced-toe oxford. Kicker bottom. Usually \$27 ..... 23.88  
 Boat-look tie. Usually \$30 ..... 23.88  
 Star-bottom suede & leather. Padded collar. Usually \$18 ..... 14.88

**Boy's basketball oxfords.**

Our 'Andhurst padded collar, reinforced toes, cushioned insole. Heavy canvas. 11-6, Usually \$10 ..... 7.88

**Boy's and Men's Andhurst Joggers**

Nylon & suede. Youths. Usually \$1310.88  
 Boys' & men's Usually \$144.15 ..... 11.88  
 Leather & suede. Youth's \$14 ..... 11.88  
 Boys' & mens. Usually \$154.16 ..... 12.88

**Canvas tennis oxfords. Terry lined.**

padded topline. Men's 'Andhurst' Usually \$12 ..... 9.88  
 Women's 'Sweetzner', Usually \$10. 7.88



## back to school SALE

\* According to a survey conducted by Reynolds Research, Inc. 1978.

And remember...two of the best reasons for shopping Belk are its more reasonable prices and better buys than you find at Sears, JC Penney or Thomlins.

**Belk of Hanes Mall**  
 Open Weekdays 10-9:30, Sun. 1-6

**Stratford Road**  
 Phone 768-9200

# Belk

the  
**BOLD  
ONE**

## 'New Dimensions' elastic-back jean

From our Bold One collection by Andhurst. Flare legs tapered an all-new way: with double-stitched vertical seam. Rounded back patch pocket buttoned-thru for neat appearance. Move-with-you elasticized back. Prove to yourself our claim: Positively the most comfortable fashion jean ever! Khaki twill or British blue denim, 100% cotton of course. 28-40" waists, 30-34" inseam.

**\$15**

And remember...two of the best reasons for shopping Belk are the faster checkouts and lower pressure salespeople than you will find at JC Penney, Thommersons or Sears.\*

\*According to a survey conducted by Reynolds Research, Inc. 1978



**Belk of Hanes Mall**  
Open Weekdays 10-9:30, Sun. 1-6

**Stratford Road**  
Phone 768-9200

# Belk

## Adidas t-shirts...for fun and games

They're the absolute rage, wherever the action is! Brilliant colors, rainbow printing with favorite 'Adidas', the status name in sports gear, right up front. 100% cotton. Sizes S, M, L and XL.

each **\$5**



# back to school SALE

\* According to a survey conducted by Reynolds Research, Inc. 1978.

And remember...at Belk, it is easier to find the items you want than at Thalhimer, Sears or JC Penney.\*

**Belk of Hanes Mall**  
Open Weekdays 10-9:30, Sun. 1-6

**Stratford Road**  
Phone 768-9200

APPENDIX D

FINAL STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE USED FOR  
COMPARATIVE AND NONCOMPARATIVE TREATMENT GROUPS



DIRECTIONS: ON THIS PAGE AND THE FOLLOWING PAGE IS A LIST OF 29 CHARACTERISTICS THAT MIGHT BE USED TO DESCRIBE A DEPARTMENT STORE. YOU ARE ASKED TO INDICATE HOW IMPORTANT EACH OF THESE CHARACTERISTICS IS TO YOU IN SELECTING THE TYPE OF DEPARTMENT STORE IN WHICH YOU WANT TO SHOP.

INDICATE THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE BY CIRCLING A NUMBER FROM 1 TO 7 FOR EACH OF THE 29 CHARACTERISTICS. USE THE HEADINGS "OF LESS IMPORTANCE" AND "OF MORE IMPORTANCE" WHEN DECIDING WHICH NUMBER TO CIRCLE.

STORE CHARACTERISTIC	OF LESS IMPORTANCE					OF MORE IMPORTANCE	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FRIENDLY PERSONNEL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GOOD SALES ON PRODUCTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GOOD DISPLAYS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
LOW PRESSURE SALES PEOPLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GOOD STORE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HIGH QUALITY PRODUCTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EASY TO RETURN PURCHASES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EASY TO FIND ITEMS YOU WANT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ADS FREQUENTLY SEEN BY YOU	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
WELL SPACED MERCHANDISE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
WELL ORGANIZED LAYOUT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
UNLIMITED SELECTION OF PRODUCTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HELPFUL SALESPEOPLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CLEAN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PLEASANT STORE TO SHOP IN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GOOD BUYS ON PRODUCTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NEAT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BIG STORE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MANY CLERKS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.

STORE CHARACTERISTIC	OF LESS				OF MORE		
	IMPORTANCE						
LOW PRICES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ATTRACTS UPPER CLASS CUSTOMERS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
REASONABLE PRICES FOR VALUE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SPACIOUS SHOPPING	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ATTRACTIVE STORE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BRIGHT STORE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GOOD SERVICE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GOOD SPECIALS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FAST CHECKOUT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONVENIENT LOCATION	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

YOU HAVE NOW COMPLETED THIS SECTION OF THE SURVEY. CHECK TO BE SURE THAT YOU HAVE CIRCLED ONLY ONE NUMBER FOR EACH CHARACTERISTIC AND THAT YOU HAVE DONE THIS FOR ALL 29 CHARACTERISTICS.

#### DIRECTIONS

ON THE NEXT FOUR PAGES ARE EXACT COPIES OF DEPARTMENT STORE NEWSPAPER ADVERTISEMENTS. THEY ARE OF THE SAME SIZE AND DETAIL, ETC. AS THEY WOULD BE IF THEY APPEARED IN THE LOCAL NEWSPAPER.

YOU ARE ASKED TO READ THEM (NOT YET!) AS YOU WOULD ANY OTHER NEWSPAPER AD. DO NOT ATTEMPT TO MEMORIZE THEM. YOU SHOULD SPEND ONLY WHATEVER TIME IS NECESSARY TO "READ THROUGH" THE COMPLETE ADVERTISEMENT.

AFTER YOU HAVE LOOKED AT THE FOURTH AND LAST ADVERTISEMENT, TURN TO THE PAGE IMMEDIATELY FOLLOWING THAT ADVERTISEMENT AND CONTINUE FOLLOWING THE SURVEY'S DIRECTIONS. DO NOT RETURN TO THE ADVERTISEMENTS AFTER YOU HAVE BEGUN TO ANSWER OTHER QUESTIONS IN THE SURVEY.

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.

DIRECTIONS: ANSWER EACH OF THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY CIRCLING THE LETTER WHICH BEST INDICATES YOUR BELIEF. DO NOT REFER BACK TO THE ADS!!!

- (1) WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING PRODUCTS WAS NOT ADVERTISED?
- A. MEN'S JEANS
  - B. WOMEN'S COATS
  - C. SHOES
  - D. DRESSES
  - E. T-SHIRTS
- (2) IN WHICH CORNER OF THE ADS DID THE BELK STORE LOGO OR SYMBOL APPEAR?
- A. UPPER-RIGHTHAND
  - B. LOWER-LEFTHAND
  - C. UPPER-LEFTHAND
  - D. LOWER-RIGHTHAND
- (3) WHAT HOURS DID THE ADS SAY BELK WAS OPEN ON SUNDAYS?
- A. 1-5 PM
  - B. 12-6 PM
  - C. 1-6 PM
  - D. 12-5 PM
- (4) WAS THE BELK STORE PHONE NUMBER GIVEN IN ALL FOUR ADS?
- A. YES
  - B. NO
- (5) HOW REALISTIC WERE THE ILLUSTRATIONS IN THE ADS?
- A. VERY REAL
  - B. REAL
  - C. UNREAL
  - D. VERY UNREAL
- (6) HAVE YOU SEEN ANY OF THESE ADS BEFORE IN THE WINSTON-SALEM JOURNAL AND SENTINEL?
- A. YES
  - B. NO
- (IF 'YES', WHICH ONE(S)? \_\_\_\_\_)

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.

**DIRECTIONS:**

THE PURPOSE OF THE NEXT SET OF QUESTIONS IS TO MEASURE YOUR IMPRESSIONS OF THE 'BELK' DEPARTMENT STORE LOCATED AT HANES MALL. THIS IS TO BE DONE BY JUDGING THAT STORE ON A SERIES OF 29 DESCRIPTIVE SCALES WHICH ARE PRESENTED IN THE FORM OF OPPOSITES. USE THE SCALES BY CIRCLING A NUMBER FROM 1 TO 7 WHICH BEST REFLECTS YOUR FEELINGS TOWARD THE 'BELK' STORE AT HANES MALL. YOUR CHOICE OF WHICH NUMBER TO CIRCLE DEPENDS UPON THE DEGREE TO WHICH YOU FEEL THE LEFT OR RIGHTHAND DESCRIPTIONS MATCH BELK'S SITUATION.

BE SURE TO CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH OF THE 29 DESCRIPTIVE SCALES AND THAT YOU NEVER CIRCLE MORE THAN ONE FOR EACH INDIVIDUAL SCALE. WORK AT A FAIRLY HIGH SPEED AND DO NOT WORRY OR PUZZLE OVER INDIVIDUAL DESCRIPTIONS.

STORE CHARACTERISTIC	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	STORE CHARACTERISTIC
FRIENDLY PERSONNEL	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNFRITENDLY PERSONNEL
GOOD SALES ON PRODUCTS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD SALES ON PRODUCTS
GOOD DISPLAYS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD DISPLAYS
LOW PRESSURE SALES PEOPLE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HIGH PRESSURE SALESPEOPLE
GOOD STORE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD STORE
HIGH QUALITY PRODUCTS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	LOW QUALITY PRODUCTS
EASY TO RETURN PURCHASES	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HARD TO RETURN PURCHASES
EASY TO FIND ITEMS YOU WANT	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HARD TO FIND ITEMS YOU WANT
ADS FREQUENTLY SEEN BY YOU	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	ADS INFREQUENTLY SEEN BY YOU
WELL SPACED MERCHANDISE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	CRAMMED MERCHANDISE
WELL ORGANIZED LAYOUT	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNORGANIZED LAYOUT
UNLIMITED SELECTION OF PRODUCTS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	LIMITED SELECTION OF PRODUCTS

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE AND CONTINUE ANSWERING THIS QUESTION.

STORE CHARACTERISTIC								STORE CHARACTERISTIC
HELPFUL SALESPEOPLE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNHELPFUL SALESPEOPLE
CLEAN	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	DIRTY
PLEASANT STORE TO SHOP IN	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNPLEASANT STORE TO SHOP IN
GOOD BUYS ON PRODUCTS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD BUYS ON PRODUCTS
NEAT	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	MESSY
BIG STORE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	SMALL STORE
MANY CLERKS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	FEW CLERKS
LOW PRICES	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HIGH PRICES
ATTRACTS UPPER CLASS CUSTOMERS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	ATTRACTS LOWER CLASS CUSTOMERS
REASONABLE PRICES FOR VALUE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNREASONABLE PRICE FOR VALUE
SPACIOUS SHOPPING	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	CROWDED SHOPPING
ATTRACTIVE STORE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNATTRACTIVE STORE
BRIGHT STORE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	DULL STORE
GOOD SERVICE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD SERVICE
GOOD SPECIALS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD SPECIALS
FAST CHECKOUT	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	SLOW CHECKOUT
CONVENIENT LOCATION	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	INCONVENIENT LOCATION

YOU HAVE NOW COMPLETED THIS SECTION OF THE SURVEY. CHECK TO BE SURE THAT YOU HAVE CIRCLED ONLY ONE NUMBER FOR EACH SET OF OPPOSITE STORE CHARACTERISTICS.

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.



VERY  
IMPROBABLE

VERY  
PROBABLE

BELK HAS BETTER BUYS THAN SEARS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK SERVICE IS BETTER THAN THALHIMERS'. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK HAS BETTER BUYS THAN THALHIMERS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK HAS LOWER PRESSURE SALESPEOPLE  
THAN JC PENNEY. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK HAS FASTER CHECKOUTS THAN JC PENNEY. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK HAS MORE REASONABLE PRICES  
THAN THALHIMERS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK PERSONNEL ARE FRIENDLIER  
THAN THALHIMERS'. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK HAS GOOD BUYS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK PERSONNEL ARE FRIENDLY. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK HAS LOWER PRESSURE SALESPEOPLE  
THAN SEARS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK HAS FASTER CHECKOUTS  
THAN THALHIMERS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK HAS FAST CHECKOUTS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

AT BELK IT IS EASIER TO FIND THE  
ITEMS YOU WANT THAN AT THALHIMERS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

AT BELK IT IS EASY TO FIND THE  
ITEMS YOU WANT. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK HAS MORE REASONABLE PRICES  
THAN JC PENNEY. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

BELK PERSONNEL ARE FRIENDLIER  
THAN JC PENNEY'S. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

\*\*\*BE SURE THAT YOU HAVE PLACED AN "X" IN ONE OF THE SEVEN  
INTERVALS FOR EACH STATEMENT.

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.

DIRECTIONS: THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE USED FOR CLASSIFICATION PURPOSES ONLY. THIS IS NECESSARY TO SEE IF DIFFERENT TYPES OF CUSTOMERS ANSWERED THE PREVIOUS QUESTIONS DIFFERENTLY.

(1) MINUTES OF DRIVING TIME BETWEEN YOUR HOME AND HANES MALL.  
       \_\_\_ LESS THAN 10           \_\_\_ 21-30  
       \_\_\_ 11-20               \_\_\_ OVER 30

(2) LENGTH OF TIME YOU HAVE BEEN LIVING IN THE WINSTON-SALEM/  
 FORSYTH COUNTY\*\*  
       \_\_\_ LESS THAN SIX MONTHS     \_\_\_ ONE TO TWO YEARS  
       \_\_\_ SIX TO ELEVEN MONTHS    \_\_\_ OVER TWO YEARS

\*\*IF YOU ARE NOT A RESIDENT OF FORSYTH COUNTY, WRITE IN THE  
 NAME OF YOUR COUNTY OF RESIDENCE \_\_\_\_\_ AND  
 ANSWER THE ABOVE QUESTION RELATIVE TO THAT COUNTY.

(3) SEX: \_\_\_ FEMALE \_\_\_ MALE

(4) AGE: \_\_\_ UNDER 20     \_\_\_ 25-30     \_\_\_ 41-50  
       \_\_\_ 20-24         \_\_\_ 31-40     \_\_\_ OVER 50

(5) MARITAL STATUS: \_\_\_ MARRIED \_\_\_ SINGLE\* \_\_\_ DIVORCED\*  
 \*IF SINGLE OR DIVORCED, GO TO QUESTION # 2.

(6) DOES YOUR SPOUSE WORK? \_\_\_ YES \_\_\_ NO, IF "NO" GO TO QUES.#8.

(7) WHAT IS YOUR SPOUSE'S OCCUPATION? \_\_\_\_\_

(8) DO YOU WORK? \_\_\_ YES \_\_\_ NO

(9) WHAT IS YOUR OCCUPATION? IF LIVING WITH A PARENT OR GUARDIAN,  
 GIVE THE OCCUPATION OF THAT PERSON (USUALLY YOUR FATHER).  
 \_\_\_\_\_

(10) WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING IS THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION YOU  
 HAVE ATTAINED? IF LIVING WITH A PARENT OR GUARDIAN, CHECK  
 THE LEVEL APPROPRIATE FOR THAT PERSON (USUALLY YOUR FATHER).  
 \_\_\_ GRADUATE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING   \_\_\_ PARTIAL HIGH SCHOOL  
 \_\_\_ 4-YR. COLLEGE OR UNIV. GRAD.     \_\_\_ JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL  
 \_\_\_ PARTIAL COLLEGE TRAINING        \_\_\_ LESS THAN SEVEN  
 \_\_\_ HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION         \_\_\_ YEARS OF SCHOOL

(11) CONSIDERING ALL OF THE SHOPPING THAT YOU DO AT DEPARTMENT  
 STORES, WHAT PERCENT OF THAT SHOPPING IS DONE AT 'BELK' OF  
 HANES MALL? ANSWER THIS QUESTION BY SELECTING A PERCENTAGE  
 (%) FROM 0 TO 100 WHICH BEST REFLECTS YOUR ESTIMATE.

\_\_\_\_\_ % (WRITE IN)

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.



- (12) INDICATE YOUR PREFERENCE FOR THE FOLLOWING STORES BY RANK ORDERING THEM. DO THIS BY PLACING A "1" NEXT TO THE NAME OF YOUR MOST FAVORITE STORE, A "2" NEXT TO YOUR SECOND FAVORITE AND SO FORTH UNTIL YOU HAVE RANKED ALL FOUR STORES. (USE THE NUMBERS 1,2,3,4; DO NOT LEAVE ANY OUT)

THALHIMERS                       JC PENNEY  
 BELK                                       SEARS

- (13) INDICATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT BELOW. DO THIS BY CIRCLING ONE OF THE FIVE PHRASES LOCATED BELOW THE STATEMENT.

"I SHOP AT BELK WHEN I NEED AN ITEM I THINK THEY CARRY"

STRONGLY                      STRONGLY  
 AGREE                      AGREE                      NEUTRAL                      DISAGREE                      DISAGREE

- (14) WHAT WAS YOUR FAMILY'S APPROXIMATE TOTAL GROSS INCOME FOR LAST YEAR? AGAIN, IF YOU ARE LIVING WITH PARENTS OR A GUARDIAN, USE THE INCOME FOR THAT FAMILY.

UNDER \$5,000                       \$15,000-\$19,999  
 \$5,000-\$7,999                       \$20,000-\$24,999  
 \$8,000-\$11,999                       \$25,000-\$29,999  
 \$12,000-\$14,999                       \$30,000 AND OVER

- (15) YOUR RACE:  ORIENTAL  BLACK  WHITE  OTHER

- (16) STATE, IN YOUR OWN WORDS, WHAT YOU THINK THE RESEARCHER WAS TRYING TO PROVE IN THIS SURVEY.

\*\*\*\*THIS COMPLETES THE SURVEY. PLEASE CHECK THE LAST 16  
 QUESTIONS TO MAKE SURE NONE HAVE BEEN LEFT UNANSWERED.  
 IF ANY ARE LEFT UNANSWERED, THE USEFULNESS OF YOUR  
 EARLIER ANSWERS IS SEVERLY INJURED.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP IN CONDUCTING THIS SURVEY.

APPENDIX E

FINAL STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE USED FOR CONTROL GROUP

DIRECTIONS: ON THIS PAGE AND THE FOLLOWING PAGE IS A LIST OF 29 CHARACTERISTICS THAT MIGHT BE USED TO DESCRIBE A DEPARTMENT STORE. YOU ARE ASKED TO INDICATE HOW IMPORTANT EACH OF THESE CHARACTERISTICS IS TO YOU IN SELECTING THE TYPE OF DEPARTMENT STORE IN WHICH YOU WANT TO SHOP.

INDICATE THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE BY CIRCLING A NUMBER FROM 1 TO 7 FOR EACH OF THE 29 CHARACTERISTICS. USE THE HEADINGS "OF LESS IMPORTANCE" AND "OF MORE IMPORTANCE" WHEN DECIDING WHICH NUMBER TO CIRCLE.

STORE CHARACTERISTIC	OF LESS IMPORTANCE							OF MORE IMPORTANCE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
FRIENDLY PERSONNEL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
GOOD SALES ON PRODUCTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
GOOD DISPLAYS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
LOW PRESSURE SALES PEOPLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
GOOD STORE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
HIGH QUALITY PRODUCTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
EASY TO RETURN PURCHASES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
EASY TO FIND ITEMS YOU WANT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
ADS FREQUENTLY SEEN BY YOU	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
WELL SPACED MERCHANDISE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
WELL ORGANIZED LAYOUT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
UNLIMITED SELECTION OF PRODUCTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
HELPFUL SALESPEOPLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
CLEAN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
PLEASANT STORE TO SHOP IN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
GOOD BUYS ON PRODUCTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
HEAT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
BIG STORE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
MANY CLERKS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.

STORE CHARACTERISTIC	OF LESS IMPORTANCE				OF MORE IMPORTANCE		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
LOW PRICES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ATTRACTS UPPER CLASS CUSTOMERS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
REASONABLE PRICES FOR VALUE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SPACIOUS SHOPPING	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ATTRACTIVE STORE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
WRIGHT STORE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GOOD SERVICE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GOOD SPECIALS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FAST CHECKOUT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONVENIENT LOCATION	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

YOU HAVE NOW COMPLETED THIS SECTION OF THE SURVEY. CHECK TO BE SURE THAT YOU HAVE CIRCLED ONLY ONE NUMBER FOR EACH CHARACTERISTIC AND THAT YOU HAVE DONE THIS FOR ALL 29 CHARACTERISTICS.

**DIRECTIONS:**

THE PURPOSE OF THE NEXT SET OF QUESTIONS IS TO MEASURE YOUR IMPRESSIONS OF THE 'BELK' DEPARTMENT STORE LOCATED AT HANES MALL. THIS IS TO BE DONE BY JUDGING THAT STORE ON A SERIES OF 29 DESCRIPTIVE SCALES WHICH ARE PRESENTED IN THE FORM OF OPPOSITES. USE THE SCALES BY CIRCLING A NUMBER FROM 1 TO 7 WHICH BEST REFLECTS YOUR FEELINGS TOWARD THE 'BELK' STORE AT HANES MALL. YOUR CHOICE OF WHICH NUMBER TO CIRCLE DEPENDS UPON THE DEGREE TO WHICH YOU FEEL THE LEFT OR RIGHTHAND DESCRIPTIONS MATCH BELK'S SITUATION.

BE SURE TO CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH OF THE 29 DESCRIPTIVE SCALES AND THAT YOU NEVER CIRCLE MORE THAN ONE FOR EACH INDIVIDUAL SCALE. WORK AT A FAIRLY HIGH SPEED AND DO NOT WORRY OR PUZZLE OVER INDIVIDUAL DESCRIPTIONS.

STORE CHARACTERISTIC								STORE CHARACTERISTIC
FRIENDLY PERSONNEL	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNFRIENDLY PERSONNEL
GOOD SALES ON PRODUCTS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD SALES ON PRODUCTS
GOOD DISPLAYS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD DISPLAYS
LOW PRESSURE SALES PEOPLE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HIGH PRESSURE SALESPEOPLE
GOOD STORE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD STORE
HIGH QUALITY PRODUCTS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	LOW QUALITY PRODUCTS
EASY TO RETURN PURCHASES	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HARD TO RETURN PURCHASES
EASY TO FIND ITEMS YOU WANT	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HARD TO FIND ITEMS YOU WANT
ADS FREQUENTLY SEEN BY YOU	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	ADS INFREQUENTLY SEEN BY YOU
WELL SPACED MERCHANDISE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	CRAMMED MERCHANDISE
WELL ORGANIZED LAYOUT	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNORGANIZED LAYOUT
UNLIMITED SELECTION OF PRODUCTS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	LIMITED SELECTION OF PRODUCTS

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE AND CONTINUE ANSWERING THIS QUESTION.

STORE CHARACTERISTIC	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	STORE CHARACTERISTIC
HELPFUL SALESPEOPLE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNHELPFUL SALESPEOPLE
CLEAN	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	DIRTY
PLEASANT STORE TO SHOP IN	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNPLEASANT STORE TO SHOP IN
GOOD BUYS ON PRODUCTS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	BAD BUYS ON PRODUCTS
NEAT	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	MESSY
BIG STORE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	SMALL STORE
MANY CLERKS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	FEW CLERKS
LOW PRICES	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HIGH PRICES
ATTRACTS UPPER CLASS CUSTOMERS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	ATTRACTS LOWER CLASS CUSTOMERS
REASONABLE PRICES FOR VALUE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNREASONABLE PRICE FOR VALUE
SPACIOUS SHOPPING	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	CROWDED SHOPPING
ATTRACTIVE STORE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	UNATTRACTIVE STORE
BRIGHT STORE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	DULL STORE
GOOD SERVICE	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HAD SERVICE
GOOD SPECIALS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	HAD SPECIALS
FAST CHECKOUT	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	SLOW CHECKOUT
CONVENIENT LOCATION	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	INCONVENIENT LOCATION

YOU HAVE NOW COMPLETED THIS SECTION OF THE SURVEY. CHECK TO BE SURE THAT YOU HAVE CIRCLED ONLY ONE NUMBER FOR EACH SET OF OPPOSITE STORE CHARACTERISTICS.

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.



VERY  
IMPROBABLE

VERY  
PROBABLE

HELK HAS BETTER BUYS THAN SEARS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK SERVICE IS BETTER THAN THALHIMERS'. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK HAS BETTER BUYS THAN THALHIMERS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK HAS LOWER PRESSURE SALESPEOPLE  
THAN JC PENNEY. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK HAS FASTER CHECKOUTS THAN JC PENNEY. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK HAS MORE REASONABLE PRICES  
THAN THALHIMERS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK PERSONNEL ARE FRIENDLIER  
THAN THALHIMERS'. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK HAS GOOD BUYS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK PERSONNEL ARE FRIENDLY. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK HAS LOWER PRESSURE SALESPEOPLE  
THAN SEARS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK HAS FASTER CHECKOUTS  
THAN THALHIMERS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK HAS FAST CHECKOUTS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

AT HELK IT IS EASIER TO FIND THE  
ITEMS YOU WANT THAN AT THALHIMERS. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

AT HELK IT IS EASY TO FIND THE  
ITEMS YOU WANT. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK HAS MORE REASONABLE PRICES  
THAN JC PENNEY. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

HELK PERSONNEL ARE FRIENDLIER  
THAN JC PENNEY'S. \_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_\_

\*\*\*BE SURE THAT YOU HAVE PLACED AN "X" IN ONE OF THE SEVEN  
INTERVALS FOR EACH STATEMENT.

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.



DIRECTIONS: THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE USED FOR CLASSIFICATION PURPOSES ONLY. THIS IS NECESSARY TO SEE IF DIFFERENT TYPES OF CUSTOMERS ANSWERED THE PREVIOUS QUESTIONS DIFFERENTLY.

- (1) MINUTES OF DRIVING TIME BETWEEN YOUR HOME AND HANES MALL.  
       \_\_\_ LESS THAN 10       \_\_\_ 21-30  
       \_\_\_ 11-20           \_\_\_ OVER 30
- (2) LENGTH OF TIME YOU HAVE BEEN LIVING IN THE WINSTON-SALEM/  
 FORSYTH COUNTY\*\*  
       \_\_\_ LESS THAN SIX MONTHS       \_\_\_ ONE TO TWO YEARS  
       \_\_\_ SIX TO ELEVEN MONTHS       \_\_\_ OVER TWO YEARS
- \*\*IF YOU ARE NOT A RESIDENT OF FORSYTH COUNTY, WRITE IN THE  
 NAME OF YOUR COUNTY OF RESIDENCE \_\_\_\_\_ AND  
 ANSWER THE ABOVE QUESTION RELATIVE TO THAT COUNTY.
- (3) SEX: \_\_\_ FEMALE \_\_\_ MALE
- (4) AGE: \_\_\_ UNDER 20.   \_\_\_ 25-30   \_\_\_ 41-50  
       \_\_\_ 20-24       \_\_\_ 31-40   \_\_\_ OVER 50
- (5) MARITAL STATUS: \_\_\_ MARRIED \_\_\_ SINGLE\* \_\_\_ DIVORCED\*  
 \*IF SINGLE OR DIVORCED, GO TO QUESTION # 8.
- (6) DOES YOUR SPOUSE WORK? \_\_\_ YES \_\_\_ NO, IF "NO" GO TO QUES.#8.
- (7) WHAT IS YOUR SPOUSE'S OCCUPATION? \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) DO YOU WORK? \_\_\_ YES \_\_\_ NO
- (9) WHAT IS YOUR OCCUPATION? IF LIVING WITH A PARENT OR GUARDIAN,  
 GIVE THE OCCUPATION OF THAT PERSON (USUALLY YOUR FATHER).  
 \_\_\_\_\_
- (10) WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING IS THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION YOU  
 HAVE ATTAINED? IF LIVING WITH A PARENT OR GUARDIAN, CHECK  
 THE LEVEL APPROPRIATE FOR THAT PERSON (USUALLY YOUR FATHER).  
 \_\_\_ GRADUATE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING   \_\_\_ PARTIAL HIGH SCHOOL  
 \_\_\_ 4-YR. COLLEGE OR UNIV. GRAD.   \_\_\_ JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL  
 \_\_\_ PARTIAL COLLEGE TRAINING       \_\_\_ LESS THAN SEVEN  
 \_\_\_ HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION       \_\_\_ YEARS OF SCHOOL
- (11) CONSIDERING ALL OF THE SHOPPING THAT YOU DO AT DEPARTMENT  
 STORES, WHAT PERCENT OF THAT SHOPPING IS DONE AT 'BELK' OF  
 HANES MALL? ANSWER THIS QUESTION BY SELECTING A PERCENTAGE  
 (%) FROM 0 TO 100 WHICH BEST REFLECTS YOUR ESTIMATE.

\_\_\_\_\_ % (WRITE IN)

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.

- (12) INDICATE YOUR PREFERENCE FOR THE FOLLOWING STORES BY RANK ORDERING THEM. DO THIS BY PLACING A "1" NEXT TO THE NAME OF YOUR MOST FAVORITE STORE, A "2" NEXT TO YOUR SECOND FAVORITE AND SO FORTH UNTIL YOU HAVE RANKED ALL FOUR STORES. (USE THE NUMBERS 1,2,3,4; DO NOT LEAVE ANY OUT)

<u>      </u>	THALHIMERS	<u>      </u>	JC PENNEY
<u>      </u>	BELK	<u>      </u>	SEARS

- (13) INDICATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT BELOW. DO THIS BY CIRCLING ONE OF THE FIVE PHRASES LOCATED BELOW THE STATEMENT.

"I SHOP AT BELK WHEN I NEED AN ITEM I THINK THEY CARRY"

STRONGLY				STRONGLY
AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	DISAGREE

- (14) WHAT WAS YOUR FAMILY'S APPROXIMATE TOTAL GROSS INCOME FOR LAST YEAR? AGAIN, IF YOU ARE LIVING WITH PARENTS OR A GUARDIAN, USE THE INCOME FOR THAT FAMILY.

<u>      </u>	UNDER \$5,000	<u>      </u>	\$15,000-\$19,999
<u>      </u>	\$5,000-\$7,999	<u>      </u>	\$20,000-\$24,999
<u>      </u>	\$8,000-\$11,999	<u>      </u>	\$25,000-\$29,999
<u>      </u>	\$12,000-\$14,999	<u>      </u>	\$30,000 AND OVER

- (15) YOUR RACE:        ORIENTAL        BLACK        WHITE        OTHER

- (16) STATE, IN YOUR OWN WORDS, WHAT YOU THINK THE RESEARCHER WAS TRYING TO PROVE IN THIS SURVEY.

\*\*\*\*THIS COMPLETES THE SURVEY. PLEASE CHECK THE LAST 16 QUESTIONS TO MAKE SURE NONE HAVE BEEN LEFT UNANSWERED. IF ANY ARE LEFT UNANSWERED, THE USEFULNESS OF YOUR EARLIER ANSWERS IS SEVERLY INJURED.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP IN CONDUCTING THIS SURVEY.

APPENDIX F

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARIES FOR GROUP  
CLAIM BELIEF DIFFERENCES ACCORDING TO  
AGE, SEX, INCOME AND STORE LOYALTY

TABLE 26F  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARIES FOR  
GROUP CLAIM BELIEF DIFFERENCES BY AGE

Claim Number	24 yrs & under		25 yrs & over	
	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.
1	1.187	.312	.477	ns
2	.803	ns	1.071	.347
3	.024	p<.05 <sup>a</sup>	2.836	.064
4	.975	ns	3.719	.028
5	1.360	.264	3.351	.039
6	2.167	.123	4.035	.021
7	.229	ns	3.095	.050
8	.040	p<.05 <sup>a</sup>	.017	ns
9	1.599	.210	2.300	.106
10	4.302	.018	4.446	.104
11	.184	ns	3.273	.042
12	.030	p<.05 <sup>a</sup>	1.219	.300
13	1.815	.171	1.810	.169
14	.975	ns	2.096	.128
15	.199	ns	3.155	.047
16	.969	ns	1.971	.145
17	.757	ns	1.403	.251
18	.482	ns	7.048	.001
19	.393	ns	.390	ns
20	.378	ns	2.334	.102
21	.850	ns	1.384	.256
22	.761	ns	2.399	.096
23	.633	ns	7.019	.001
24	.129	ns	.183	ns
25	.098	p<.10 <sup>a</sup>	.826	ns
26	.301	ns	2.460	.091
27	.854	ns	5.204	.007
28	.075	p<.10 <sup>a</sup>	.506	ns

NOTE: ns - denotes insignificance at .10 level  
a - denotes that reciprocal property of F-ratio is significant

TABLE 27F  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARIES FOR  
GROUP CLAIM BELIEF DIFFERENCES BY SEX

Claim Number	Female		Male	
	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.
1	.699	ns	1.147	.433
2	.465	ns	2.528	.086
3	.253	ns	2.414	.096
4	1.134	.246	4.846	.010
5	1.711	.189	2.494	.088
6	3.375	.040	2.965	.067
7	.247	ns	1.863	.161
8	.056	$p < .10^a$	.755	ns
9	3.994	.023	.829	ns
10	3.524	.035	6.365	.003
11	1.054	.354	1.450	.240
12	1.232	.298	2.005	.141
13	1.790	.175	2.327	.103
14	.384	ns	1.584	.211
15	.199	ns	4.591	.013
16	.657	ns	1.661	.196
17	.608	ns	2.187	.118
18	.969	ns	5.657	.006
19	1.313	.276	1.509	.209
20	1.139	.326	2.181	.119
21	1.703	.190	.932	ns
22	.027	$p < .05^a$	3.282	.042
23	2.178	.121	4.488	.014
24	.445	ns	1.532	.222
25	1.138	.327	1.673	.193
26	1.977	.147	.908	ns
27	1.363	.263	3.863	.024
28	1.869	.162	1.294	.279

NOTE: ns - denotes insignificance at .10 level  
a - denotes that reciprocal property of F-ratio is significant

TABLE 28F  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARIES FOR  
GROUP CLAIM BELIEF DIFFERENCES BY INCOME

Claim Number	\$14,999/yr & less		\$15,000/yr & more	
	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.
1	.024	p<.05 <sup>a</sup>	1.288	.281
2	.771	ns	2.369	.099
3	.256	ns	3.561	.032
4	2.612	.081	1.894	.156
5	1.296	.280	3.652	.030
6	5.733	.005	2.600	.078
7	.330	ns	2.640	.077
8	.040	p<.05 <sup>a</sup>	.343	ns
9	2.875	.063	1.079	.344
10	4.825	.011	4.179	.018
11	.243	ns	6.128	.003
12	.037	p<.05 <sup>a</sup>	1.144	.323
13	2.212	.118	1.782	.174
14	.602	ns	.939	ns
15	.126	ns	3.104	.050
16	1.067	.347	1.477	.234
17	1.527	.225	2.731	.070
18	.648	ns	6.125	.003
19	.301	ns	.231	ns
20	.200	ns	1.541	.220
21	1.226	.300	1.388	.255
22	3.301	.043	2.338	.102
23	2.296	.109	7.563	.001
24	.798	.454	2.301	.106
25	1.729	.185	.998	ns
26	1.096	.340	1.227	.298
27	2.884	.063	2.413	.123
28	.385	ns	.358	ns

NOTE: ns - denotes insignificance at .10 level.  
a - denotes that reciprocal property of F-ratio is significant

TABLE 29F  
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARIES FOR  
 GROUP CLAIM BELIEF DIFFERENCES BY STORE LOYALTY

Claim Number	Nonloyal		Loyal	
	F-ratio	F-prob.	F-ratio	F-prob.
1	.458	ns	.793	ns
2	1.305	.277	.589	ns
3	1.245	.294	.832	ns
4	4.371	.016	1.465	.237
5	1.659	.197	2.813	.066
6	2.603	.081	3.009	.055
7	2.272	.110	.985	.378
8	.008	p<.05 <sup>a</sup>	.656	ns
9	.604	ns	2.531	.086
10	3.750	.028	3.406	.038
11	1.436	.244	1.241	.295
12	.493	ns	.145	ns
13	3.826	.026	.484	ns
14	1.054	.353	.582	ns
15	4.586	.013	.011	p<.10 <sup>a</sup>
16	2.629	.077	.326	ns
17	2.844	.064	.168	ns
18	5.202	.008	1.678	.193
19	.039	p<.05 <sup>a</sup>	.083	p<.10 <sup>a</sup>
20	2.083	.132	.080	p<.10 <sup>a</sup>
21	.644	ns	1.932	.151
22	.272	ns	3.337	.040
23	3.020	.055	4.163	.019
24	.129	ns	.331	ns
25	.213	ns	.468	ns
26	.383	ns	4.032	.021
27	3.372	.040	2.937	.059
28	.073	p<.10 <sup>a</sup>	.774	ns

NOTE: ns - denotes insignificance at .10 level  
 a - denotes that reciprocal property of F-ratio is significant

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THE EFFECTS OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING  
ON THE DEPARTMENT STORE IMAGE:  
AN EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS

by

Douglas Jacob Lincoln

(ABSTRACT)

Introduction

Manufacturers have recently been using comparative advertising for the apparent purpose of producing clearer and more favorable brand images. A number of empirical studies have measured the effects of manufacturer sponsored comparative advertising and identified some situations where it is more effective than noncomparative advertising. However, no study has addressed the feasibility of retail sponsored comparative advertising.

Statement of the Problem

The importance of store image to the retailer is well documented. Advertising plays an important role in the development and enhancement of store images. Despite this, very few guidelines exist to aid retailers in their search for advertising approaches which will produce favorable store images.

Therefore, this study dealt with store image. It explored the degree to which store image was enhanced when a retailer employed comparative advertising.

Methodology

An after-only with control group experimental design was utilized to generate data measuring the relative effects of North Carolina department store sponsored comparative and noncomparative advertising.

A preliminary study facilitated development of four mock comparative and noncomparative newspaper advertisements. Together, the ads stressed sponsoring store superior performance across seven store image attributes (easy to find items you want, friendly personnel, reasonable prices, good buys, good service, fast checkout, and low pressure salespeople). Comparative ads claimed sponsoring store superior performance on these seven attributes over three competing stores.

Three dependent variables were used to measure comparative and noncomparative advertising effects. These variables were: (1) overall store image as measured by a multiattribute attitude model, (2) performance evaluations of the seven advertised attributes and (3) belief levels for claims made in experimental ads.

The study hypothesized noncomparative, comparative and control group differences in these dependent variables. Analysis of variance was used in conjunction with the Scheffe' multiple comparison test procedure to identify significant group differences.

### Results and Conclusions

The results of hypotheses testing produced the following major findings:

Hypothesis 1 No significant group differences in overall store images.

Hypothesis 2 No significant group differences on: low pressure salespeople, good buys on products, good service, reasonable prices for value, and fast checkouts attributes.

Comparative advertising significantly less effective than current advertising (control group scores) for "easy to find items you want" attribute.

Noncomparative advertising significantly less effective than current advertising for "friendly personnel" attribute.

Hypothesis 3

Noncomparative advertising significantly more effective than comparative advertising for 9 out of 28 ad claims and significantly more effective than current advertising on four claims.

Comparative advertising significantly less effective than current advertising for three claims.

Hypothesis 4

In general, noncomparative advertising was significantly more effective than comparative advertising promoting attributes and making claims aimed at specific segments as defined by age, sex, income and store loyalty.

In a smaller number of situations, the noncomparative approach was significantly more effective than current advertising.

The results of hypotheses testing clearly showed comparative advertising producing effects significantly less favorable than noncomparative or current advertising. Whether or not significant group differences existed, noncomparative advertising consistently produced effects more favorable than comparative or current advertising. Although it has limitations, this study strongly concludes that retailers should avoid the use of comparative advertising.