



DISPARAGEMENT AS A PROCESSING STIMULUS FOR HUMOR IN ADVERTISING

*Dr. Irfan Hameed

*Dr. Siraj Jamal Siddiqui

*Dr. Javed Husain
Iqra University, Main Campus, Karachi

ABSTRACT

Purpose -This researchpaper explores the mediating role of attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards the brandin the relationships between disparagement as a processing stimulus for humor in advertising and purchase intention of the customer.

Design/Methodology/Approach -Data has been collected from 202 individuals. Confirmatory factor analysis, structural equationmodeling, moderation and mediation analysis have been applied and a good fit between the data and tested model was observed. As predicted, purchase intention waspositively related withdisparagementand full mediation effect has been found. The results of moderation analysis are quite interesting and have been presented with the help of a chart showing interaction effect.

Findings - Findings provide media agencies with aninsight into the audience emotional consequences in exposure to disparagement used in advertisements. Findings are particularlysalient for national and multinational media agencies inPakistan as well in the other parts of the world.

Originality/Value -This is one of the first studies to provideempirical support for the relationships between disparagement and purchase intentionin Western and non-Western(Pakistani) context.

Keywords : DISPARAGEMENT, HUMOR IN ADVERTISING, PURCHASE INTENTION, ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE ADVERTISEMENT, ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE BRAND.

Jel Classification: F23, M13

*The material presented by the author does not necessarily portray the viewpoint of the editors and the management of the Institute of Business & Technology (IBT)

¹ Dr. Irfan Hameed :irfan_h144@yahoo.com

² Dr. Siraj Jamal :SiddiquiSiraj.j@iqra.edu.pk

³ Dr. Javed Husain :drjaved@iqra.edu.pk

© IBTJBS is published by the Institute of Business and Technology (IBT).
Main Ibrahim Hydri Road, Korangi Creek, Karachi-75190, Pakistan.

Introduction

The type of humor that compares your product with an identified competitor is known as disparagement (Ferguson & Ford, 2008). Disparagement is the act of degrading or victimizing any other party by making fun may be the outcome of aggression (Nabi, Moyer-Guse'e, & Byrne, 2007). Most of the advertisements don't name their rival brands but a good number of advertisements mention the name of their competitors. Advertisers have been noticed showing reluctance in using the names of their competitors (Byer & Cooke, 1985). Some of the experts suggest that instead of using the name of the competitors, it's better to attack on a generic category of competitors. Then the chances of legal action will decrease as you don't attack on any particular brand. Thus advertisers must say "some of the companies" rather than targeting any specific competitor (York, 2009).

The advertisers may not have a direct attack on any competitor with specific attributes like price of the product, its being done in directly competitive advertising. The other major type is indirect attack on competitor by not mentioning the name or any other attribute precisely referring to any competitor. The risk factor of lawsuit is high when referring to a competitor by using brand name or any specific attribute which that brand is lacking, as in reality it might be slightly different. The other type is to attack on competitor without using the price but to show the product. In first case when a competitor's product is being shown with price, you can show clear difference in noticeable terms. The chances are the competitor will respond and a race of counter arguments will start and the reaction of competitor cannot be anticipated, as their response is mostly emotional on such type of advertisements. In the second case when price has not been mentioned then the competitor can't respond on the same grounds and less chances of lawsuit (Beard, 2010).

Talking about the effectiveness of advertising, the directly comparative advertisements are valued higher than non-comparative advertisements (Grewal et al., 1997). The fun element when added in the advertisements doesn't give a vague image of the brand instead generate interest and the message can be executed in light mood (Swami, Weinberger, & Gulas, 2013). There is no particular study focusing on the impact of disparagement by using control variables like message arguments and self monitoring in relationship with purchase intention (Eisend, 2009).

Theoretical Background

Disparagement proved to be more useful for brands where market share was low in the beginning and especially if they compared with a high share brand (Pechmann & Stewart, 1990). Almost twenty five years ago Dro'ge (1989) reasoned that attacking on a competitor engages a consumer more than not attacking any competitor directly. High market share brands have high customer equity, so low share brands typically compare themselves with relative high market share ones (Aaker & Keller, 1990). When compared with the high market share brand the advertisements intrinsic value increases because high market share brands are more familiar to consumers, and usually have more desirable attributes (Pechmann & Ratneshwar, 1991). Ultimately makes audience motivated to listen advertised claim.

The processing occurs with humorous along with competitive advertisements more than non-comparative advertisements. This effect occurs when there is moderate involvement; the effect is different for low involvement situations (Pechmann & Esteban, 1994). The audience is more likely to show purchase intention in competitive advertisements when the product requires low to moderate involvement, so, the type of advertisement plays a vital role in enhancing product likeability leading to purchase intention. Directly comparative advertisements are more descriptive than non-comparative advertisements (Priester, Godek, Nayakankuppum, & Park, 2004). This research focuses on the effects of disparagement element used in advertisement have on the consumers processing. The people develop an attitude towards the product and there are many factors which shape or change your behavior. This study incorporates the effect of psychological state of the person and how their response varies with respect to psychological state level. The factors which intervene in the relationship between disparagement and resulting purchase intention.

Disparagement as Stimuli

Talking about the difference in advertising type like disparagement and an advertisement that does not use humor as clue nor compares with other product, no such written published solution exists in terms of their effectiveness. Comparing a low share brand with high share brand creates more brand awareness and when a high share brand is compared with another high share brands the attention level increases (Dianoux, Herrmann, & Zeitoun, 2013). When a high share brand is compared with a low share

brand it does not evoke any further interest of the audience, so it does not addvalue to the high share brand. The results of moderate share brand’s comparison with any other moderate share brand again are much favorable. Pechmannand Stewart (1990) suggested that the low share brand when compared with high share brand evokes the message based processing and leads towards purchase intention. The comparison with well-known brand generatesinterest of the audience as the name has its own associated equity (Tannenbaum, 1955).

Disparagement as a type of humor is used in advertisements and humor is part of current research in advertising as reported by Sparks and Lang (2014). When disparagement is used as stimuli for attracting the consumers they show willingness in purchasing the product. The fun element in comparative advertisements makes it smooth and entertaining at the same time communicating the superiority of your brand over competitors.

H1: Disparagement in advertisements has significantly positive impact on customers Purchase Intention.

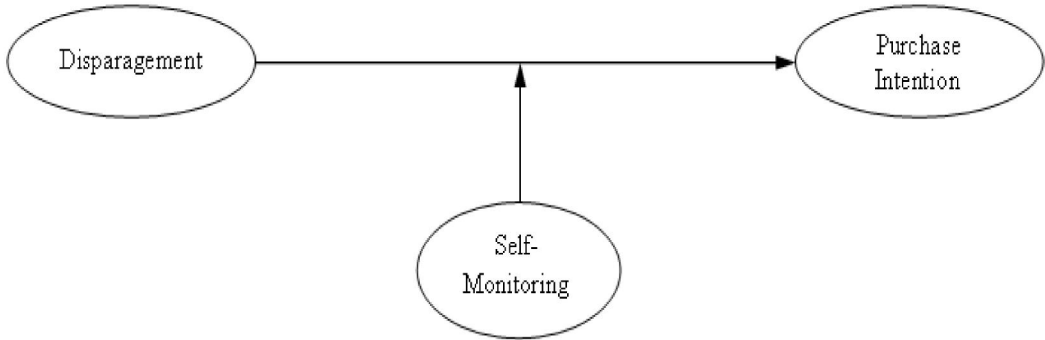


Moderating Role of Self-Monitoring:

Several factors moderate the purchasing pattern of the person like need for cognition, involvement, type of product and self-monitoring (Chattopadhyay & Basu, 1990). The people high in self-monitoring are more concerned about their public image and behave in certain ways in front of others. The people with low self-monitoring don’t as such give weight to their surroundings; they instead deem their behavior right in any situation. When high self-monitors are exposed with any situation their reaction is highly dependent upon their environment (Wang, Solloway, Tchernev, & Barker, 2012). The people high in self-monitoring behave favorably with funny contents in the advertisements and more likely to purchase advertised brand.

H2: Self-Monitoring moderates the positive relationship between Disparagement and

Purchase Intention, such that a person low in self-monitoring is more inclined towards purchase intention and vice versa.



Mediating variables (Attitude towards the Advertisement & Attitude towards the Brand)

The executional cues also play an important role in advertising effectiveness and certain factors make the relationship more pronounced like the ability of the person to conceptualize the information for which he is exposed to Batra and Ray (1986). The element of fun in the advertisement makes advertisement more entertaining and communicates the comparative message in a lighter mood. In order to understand effectiveness of the comparison, different types of comparative advertisements need to be studied (MacInnis Moorman, & Jaworski, 1991).

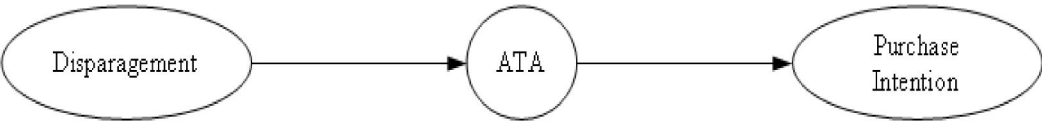
The motivation of the audience is required and the readiness or desire of the recipient to process the information in the advertisement is referred to as motivation (MacInnis et al., 1991). There are some major ways of enhancing audience motivation; firstly to compare with other product with the help of fun element or somehow degrade the competitor. Secondly, the use of a well known celebrity to share the same information.

By adding a simple factor of comparison increases the rating of involvement. The comparative element by the use of humor increases the likeability and leads to favorable attitude towards the advertisement (Chang, 2007a).

The purchase intention is the resulting variable but it is being caused by favorable attitude towards the advertisement (Yi, 1990). Disparagement is being used as stimuli

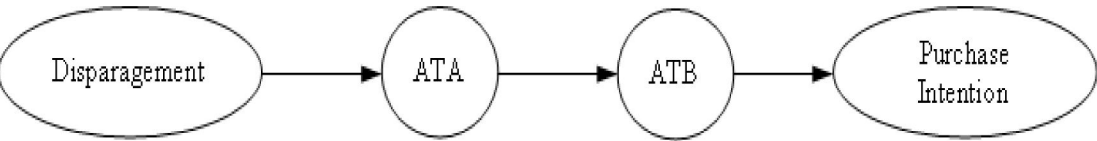
for purchase intention, the usage of mediators make it possible. The latent variable's creates the background for purchase intention (Eisend, 2009), So, disparagement in the advertisement creates favorable image of the advertisement and then it leads the consumer towards purchase intention.

H3: Attitude towards the advertisement mediates the positive relationship between Disparagement and customers Purchase Intention.



Element of disparagement in the advertisement lead towards the favorable attitude towards advertisement, which further leads to purchase intention. This relationship is not as simple as it seems. There are many intervening variables in the model, which are unobserved. One intervening variable might be attitude towards the brand. So, by using Attitude towards the brand as mediator in the model, makes the relationship more pronounced (Zhang & Zinkhan, 2006).

H4: The relationship between Attitude towards the advertisement and Purchase Intention is mediated positively by Attitude towards the brand, when humor type Disparagement is used as predictor of attitude towards the advertisement.

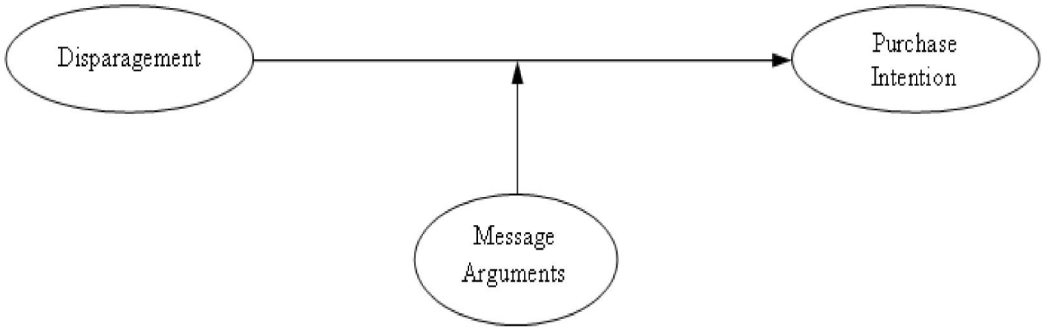


Moderating role of Message Arguments

The information processing has direct impact on persuasion and it requires strong and compelling message arguments in favor of the advertised brand(Chang, 2007a).Advertisements are designed after considering many aspects and the important

aspect out of them is the arguments used in the particular advertisement. In some cases after watching the advertisement people are unable to understand the features and even for which product it was made for. So the selection of the words and the arguments are important.

H5: The positive association of Disparagement with customers Purchase Intention is strengthened by message argument, such that compelling message argument moderates the association positively and vice versa.



Method

Participants and Design

The data has been gathered with the help of a close ended questionnaire by using purposive (unrestricted sampling method. Two hundred and two individuals have been targeted for the purpose of data collection. The experimental study design required a large number of respondents sitting together, this were only possible in class room setting, so they were targeted in their class rooms after seeking permission from their instructor. The respondents were given a questionnaire and were asked to answer question about their self-monitoring level. Once they were through with the first part of the instrument, they were exposed to the two advertisements where disparagement was used as stimuli. After showing the advertisements they were asked to answer the

questions related to other variables used in the study.

Selection of advertisements

The advertisements with high humor level helps to overcome the issue of external validity and the analysis of two or more advertisements helps in generalizing of findings(Sasser & Koslow, 2008). The advertisements have been selected after careful observation related to the element of disparagement and later on selected advertisements were shown to the faculty members involved in teaching courses related to business and marketing discipline.

Plot of Advertisement number 1

Pepsi is being showed as attacking on his major competitor Coca-Cola. The advertisement has been filmed in a restaurant where Pepsi and Coca-Cola’s van driver meet by accident. They develop a sense of familiarity and offer their drinks to each other. The person from Coca-Cola refuses to give back Pepsi as he liked the taste. The person from Pepsi insists for taking it back and ultimately throws other person on window glass and he falls outside breaking glass. The advertisement portrays dominating image of Pepsi upon its Competitor Coca-Cola. The slogan appearsin the end “NOTHING ELSE IS A PEPSI”.

Plot of Advertisement number 2

This advertisement features the scene of a school function where children’s are performing on stage in different costumes. The parents start to capture images by using their devices like iPhone, ipad, Samsung, but they were not satisfied by the quality of image. Striving for the better quality image, the users of Apple and Samsung devices start fighting like anything. Then ultimately a couple is being shown using NOKIA Lumia having 41 megapixels camera. In one advertisement Nokia attacks its two major competitors and claimed that Nokia reinvented zoom and is far away from this kind of childish fight as in between Apple and Samsung.

Measures

Perceived Humor

Perceived humor’sitems were adopted from Zhang (1996) with a = .91 (Not Humorous/Humorous, Not Funny/Funny, Not Playful/Playful, Not Amusing/Amusing, And Not Dull/Dull).

Purchase Intention

Purchase intention’sitems were adopted from Zhang (1996) with a = .89 (Unlikely-Likely, Improbable-Probable, Impossible-Possible).

Self-Monitoring

This scale was originally developed by Synder (1974) having 25 questions in it and they were supposed to be answered in true false. Lennox and Wolfe (1984) attempted to cover up the deficiencies in the original scale and came up with the modified scale of 13 items.

Attitude towards the brand (ATB)

The items for Attitude towards the brand (ATB) have been adopted from Cho and Stout (1993) with a = .84 (Favorable / Unfavorable, Nice / Awful, Unappealing / Appealing, Useful / Useless, Satisfactory / Unsatisfactory).

Attitude towards the advertisement (ATA)

The items for Attitude towards the advertisement (ATA) have been adopted from Cho and Stout (1993) with a = .87 (Pleasant /Unpleasant, Likable / Unlikable, Unfavorable / Favorable, Persuasive / Unpersuasive, Informative / Uninformative, Believable / Unbelievable, Effective / Ineffective).

Message Arguments

The items for message arguments have been adopted from Andrews and Shimp (1990) with $\alpha = .85$ (Unpersuasive / Persuasive, Not Believable / Believable, Not Forceful / Forceful, Irrelevant / Relevant, Not Effective / Effective, Not Compelling / Compelling).

Results

Initial data screening included missing value analysis, detection of aberrant values and assessing the normality of data. There were maximum four missing values in SM_1 which is not a huge percentage keeping in view the sample size of 202 respondents. So we computed the missing values and no aberrant values were detected. The data met the assumption of quasi normality.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The items retained in the CFA analysis were used in this analysis. All the variables showed adherence to that factor analysis. The correlation of all the variables is presented in the table below.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics and Correlations

		PI	PH	ATA	ATB	MA	SM
PI	Pearson Correlation	1					
PH	Pearson Correlation	.411	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000					
ATA	Pearson Correlation	.678	.511	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000				
ATB	Pearson Correlation	.657	.371	.640	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000			
MA	Pearson Correlation	.690	.363	.754	.627	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		
SM	Pearson Correlation	.205	.300	.293	.191	.190	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000	.000	.007	.007	
Mean		5.2750	5.3566	5.1378	5.3791	5.1213	5.3984
Standard Deviation		1.26629	1.16172	1.00551	1.16632	1.00319	.75710

Testing Hypotheses

The hypothesis 1 of the study highlighted that Disparagement in advertisements has significantly positive impact on customers Purchase Intention. The results of the regression analysis revealed that Perceived humor significantly predicted purchase intentions ($\beta = .411$, $p < .001$). Hence our hypothesis was supported by the data.

Table 2: Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.876	.385	7.468	.000
	PH	.448	.070	.411	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PI

Hypothesis 2 stated that self-monitoring moderates the positive relationship between Disparagement and Purchase Intention, such that a person low in self-monitoring is more inclined towards purchase intention and vice versa. For testing moderation we used the method of Baron and Kenny (1986). But the steps involved in checking of moderation (i.e. mean centering predictor and moderator variable, creating interaction term, and running hierarchical regression analysis) were not performed manually.

The results of the analysis shown in the table below highlighted that SM significantly moderated the relationship between PH and PI as the effect of interaction term was found to be significant (Unstandardized $\beta = -.1454$, $p < .10$). The effect of moderation in this analysis is categorized as pure moderation as the moderator variable (i.e. SM) itself has non-significant effect on the dependent variable.

Table 3: Modprobe

Variable	B	SE	t statistic	Significance (p)
Constant	5.3132	.0834	63.6738	.000
PH	.3936	.0744	5.2939	.001
SM	.1349	.1124	1.1998	.232
Interact (PHxSM)	-.1454	.0794	-1.8307	.069

For further probing the interaction effect we developed the graph of the moderation effect. The graph below clearly shows that two lines are interacting and crossing each other, which highlights that when PH is low, and the person is low in self-monitoring then the PI will also be low. And if advertisement is high in PH, but the SM is low, then the PI will be high.

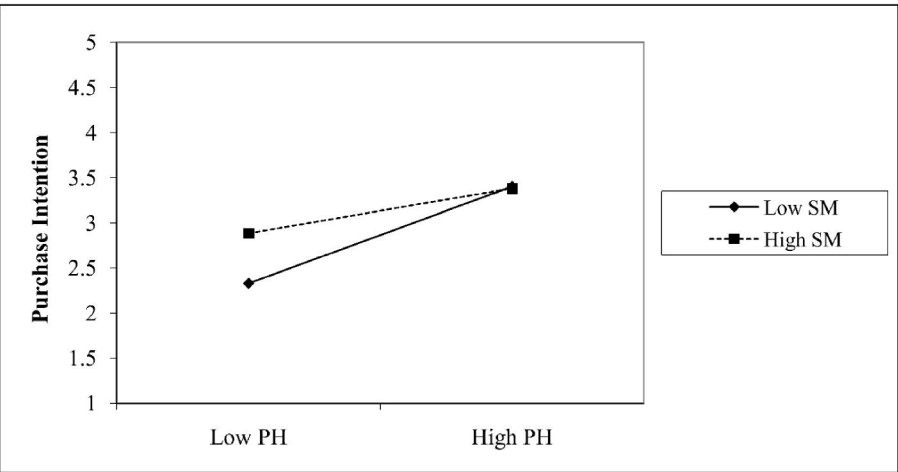


Figure 1: Moderation Results

Figure 1: Moderation Results

Hypothesis 3 stated that Attitude towards the advertisement mediates the positive relationship between Disparagement and customers Purchase Intention. Baron and Kenny (1986)’s approach has been most prevalent for assessing the mediation.

The results shown in table below highlighted that both a (Unstandardized $\beta = .4420$, $p < .001$) and b (Unstandardized $\beta = .7981$, $p < .001$) path are significant and also the indirect effect of independent variable (through mediator) is also significant which supports our hypothesis. Further if we look at the direct effect (c prime) which is insignificant (Unstandardized $\beta = .0951$, $p > .05$), highlighting a fully mediated relationship.

Table 4: Indirect

Relationship	Unstandardized effect	SE	t	z	P
PH->ATA (a path)	.4420	.0526	8.4000	--	.000
ATA->PI (b path)	.7981	.0759	10.5167	--	.000
Total effect (c path)	.4479	.0703	6.3741	--	.000
Direct effect (c prime)	.0951	.0657	1.4479	--	.149
Indirect effect (through mediator)	.3528	.0536	--	6.5862	.000

The hypothesis 4 stated that the relationship between Attitude towards the advertisement and Purchase Intention is mediated positively by Attitude towards the brand, when humor type Disparagement is used as predictor of attitude towards the advertisement. The results revealed that ATB fully mediated the relationship between ATA and PI as the indirect effect was significant (Unstandardized $\beta = .3048$, $p < .001$). Hence the hypothesis was supported.

Table 5: Indirect

Relationship	Unstandardized effect	SE	t	z	p
ATA->ATB (a path)	.7422	.0630	11.7748	--	.000
ATB->PI (b path)	.4107	.0676	6.0773	--	.000
Total effect (c path)	.8543	.0654	13.0563	--	.000
Direct effect (c prime)	.5494	.0784	7.0092	--	.000
Indirect effect (through mediator)	.3048	.0562	--	5.4246	.000

Hypothesis 5 stated that the positive association of Disparagement with customers Purchase Intention is strengthened by message argument, such that compelling message argument moderates the association positively and vice versa. The results highlighted that MA does not work as a moderator on the relationship between PH and PI. Instead MA has a strong impact on PI so it can be proposed as a focal predictor of purchase intention alongside PH. Our hypothesis 5 was not supported by the results of the analysis.

Table 6: Modprobe

Variable	B	SE	t statistic	Significance (p)
Constant	5.3025	0.652	81.3729	.000
PH	.1818	.0594	3.0585	.003
MA	.7765	.0676	11.4919	.000
Interact (PHxMA)	-.0652	.0418	-1.5603	.120

General Discussions

The research supports this assumption that the advertisements that cite the name of the competitors at the same time make fun of them in their advertisements have an impact on the consumers. The usage of these elements makes the advertisement compelling and the probability of the consumer likability increases. Though the results might be facing certain limitations still the methodological condition when we compare with the existing work shows a great deal of validity. The study used two real time television advertisements and the exposure to them was also realistic. The advertisements were comparable to any advertisement of the international standard; they were shown to respondents without making any modification in the content or what so ever. The results of the study might reveal some of the similarities with the existing studies but they also extend existing studies in several ways.

The brand that targets a particular competitor makes more obvious that in which category what are the major rivals and how this product is superior from others in the same

industry. The message of the advertisement when used together with humor makes the advertisement more entertaining and makes it more compelling. In the study of Dro'ge (1989) the competitive advertisements were studied but she hasn't measured the processing level or occurrence of processing. Muehling et al. (1990) compared the outcome of comparative and non-comparative advertisements and he concluded that people were more focused, paid more attention and had more recall when they were exposed to comparative rather than non-comparative advertisement. The lacking in his study was he haven't studied the impact of this more recall on persuasion in terms of purchase intention. However Chang (2007b), in his study suggested that this brand awareness level has impact on male rather than female but he hadn't tested this thing. Finally, the brand that want to show its superiority on a competitors brand on any specific attribute with strong message arguments should cite its competitors in a funny and more acceptable manner, even if the brand wants to attract loyal customers of the high share brand.

Limits and suggestions for further research

The limitations are mentioned below as they also give guidance for most of the related conceptual studies and in depth analysis in the field of humorous comparative advertisements (Disparagement). Firstly the generalization of this research requires great amount of carefulness. The research focused on the effect of a brand like Nokia had on audience by making a directly competitive humorous advertisement against Apple and Samsung. The second was of Pepsi targeting its major rival Coca-Cola, the processing of the advertisement and its resulting effect was noticed incorporating certain factors. The people who have watched the advertisement and responded in favor of the advertised brand, they further can be studied in corresponding researches. The research can be extended by creating a simulated market where the results of the respondents should be recorded by noticing their actual purchase behavior, because the people who respond favorably on paper their actual behavior might be different. The purchase behavior is dependent upon many psychological factors.

Secondly, the scenario of advertisement was only concerned about the name of the brand in case of Pepsi, without giving any further information about product features within the product category (Pillai & Goldsmith, 2008). Future research should be

conducted by considering any specific feature of the product in the advertisement and then the behavior of the respondents can be noticed (Rathneshwar, Warlop, Mick, & Seeger, 1997). The two major factors like situation of consumption and the self concept of the individual can also be taken in to account (Fei, 2008). The work published in this area is still minimal, which indicates that a great deal of work is ahead to be done. It is however believed that in order to understand consumer responses the understanding of brand information processing is essential, under this interesting concept of disparagement.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT:

This research was partially supported by Iqra University, Main Campus, and Karachi, Pakistan. I thank to my colleagues who provided insight and expertise that greatly assisted the research, although they may not agree with all of the interpretations of this paper. I also thank to Mr. Siraj Jamal Siddiqui and Mr Javed Husain from Iqra University, Main Campus, and Karachi for assistance with particular technique, methodology, for comments that greatly improved the manuscript.

I would also like to show our gratitude to my institute of business & technology, Karachi, Pakistan for sharing their pearls of wisdom with us during the course of this research. I am also thankful to (Mr. Siraj Jamal Siddiqui and Mr Javed Husain) for their comments on an earlier version of the manuscript.

REFERENCES:

- Aaker, D. A. & Keller, K. L. (1990). Consumer evaluations of brand of brand extensions. *Journal of Marketing*, 54(1), 27-41.
- Andrews, J. C., & Shimp, T. A. (1990). Effects of Involvement, Argument Strength, and Source Characteristics on Central and Peripheral Processing of Advertising. *Psychology and Marketing*, 7(3), 195–214.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.

- Batra, R., & Ray, M. L. (1986). Situational effects of advertising repetition: the moderating influence of motivation, ability, and opportunity to respond. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12, 432-445.
- Beard, F. (2010). Comparative advertising wars: an historical analysis of their causes and consequences. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 30(3), 270-286.
- Byer, W. J., & Cooke, E. F. (1985). Comparative advertising's dilemma: how to attack the competition without alienating his customer. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 2(3), 67-71.
- Chang, C. (2007a). Diagnostic advertising content and individual differences: testing a resource-matching perspective with a Taiwanese sample. *Journal of Advertising*, 36(3), 75-84.
- Chang, C. (2007b). The relative effectiveness of comparative and noncomparative advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, 36(1), 21-35.
- Chattopadhyay, A., & Basu, K. (1990). Humor in advertising: The moderating role of prior brand evaluation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 27(4), 466–476.
- Cho, H. G., & Stout, P. A. (1993). An extended perspective on the role of emotion in advertising processing. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 20, 692–697.
- Dianoux, C., Herrmann, J., & Zeitoun, H. (2013). Comparative advertising: citing or not the leading brand and its price. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 30(4), 345–354.
- Droge, C. (1989). Shaping the route to attitude change: central versus peripheral processing through comparative versus noncomparative advertising. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 26(2), 193-204.
- Eisend, M. (2009). A meta-analysis of humor in advertising. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 37(2), 191–203.
- Fei, X. (2008). The moderating effects of product involvement on situational brand choice. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 25(2), 85-94.

Ferguson, M. A., & Ford, T. E. (2008). Disparagement humor: A theoretical and empirical review of psychoanalytic, superiority, and social identity theories. *International Journal of Humor Research*, 21(3), 283-312.

Grewal, D., Kavanoor, S., Fern, E. F., Costley, C., & Barnes, J. (1997). Comparative versus noncomparative advertising: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing*, 61(4), 1-15.

Lennox, R. D., & Wolfe, R. N. (1984). Revision of the self-monitoring scale. *Journal of personality and Social Psychology*, 46(6), 1349-1364.

MacInnis, D. J., & Jaworski, B. J. (1989). Information processing from advertisements: toward an integrative framework. *Journal of Marketing*, 53(4), 1-23.

MacInnis, D. J., Moorman, C., & Jaworski, B. J. (1991). Enhancing and measuring consumers' motivation, opportunity, and ability to process brand information from ads. *Journal of Marketing*, 55, 32-53.

Muehling, D. D., Stoltman, J. J., & Grossbart, S. (1990). The impact of comparative advertising on levels of message involvement. *Journal of Advertising*, 19(4), 41-50.

Nabi, R. L., Moyer-Guse'e, E., & Byrne, S. (2007). All Joking Aside: A Serious Investigation into the Persuasive Effect of Funny Social Issue Messages. *Communication Monographs*, 74(1), 29-54.

Pechmann, C., & Esteban, G. (1994). Persuasion processes associated with direct comparative and noncomparative advertising and implications for advertising effectiveness. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 2(4), 403-432.

Pechmann, C., & Stewart, D. W. (1990). The effects of comparative advertising on attention, memory, and purchase intentions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17(2), 180-191.

Pillai, K. G., & Goldsmith, R. E. (2008). How brand attribute typicality and consumer commitment moderate the influence of comparative advertising. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(9), 933-941.

Priester, J. R., Godek, J., Nayakankuppum, D. J., & Park, K. (2004). Brand congruity and comparative advertising: when and why comparative advertisements lead to greater elaboration. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 14(1-2), 115-123.

Rathneshwar, S., Warlop, L., Mick, D. G., & Seeger, G. (1997). Bene?t salience and consumers' selective attention to product features. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 14, 245-259.

Sasser, S. L., & Koslow, S. (2008). Desperately seeking advertising creativity: Engaging an imaginative "3Ps" research agenda. *Journal of Advertising*, 37(4), 5-20.

Snyder, M. (1974). The self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30, 526-537.

Sparks J. V., & Lang, A. (2014). Mechanisms Underlying the Effects of Sexy and Humorous Content in Advertisements. *Communication Monographs*, 1-29.

Swani, K., Weinberger, M. G., & Gulas, C. S. (2013). The Impact of Violent Humor on Advertising Success: A Gender Perspective. *Journal of Advertising*, 42(4), 308-319.

Tannenbaum, P. H. (1955). The indexing process in communication. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 19(3), 292-302.

Wang, Z., Solloway, T., Tchernev, J. M., & Barker, B. (2012). Dynamic motivational processing of anti marijuana messages: Coactivation begets attention. *Human Communication Research*, 38(4), 485-509.

Yi, Y. (1990). Cognitive and Affective Priming Effects of the Context for Print Advertisements, *Journal of Advertising*, 19, 40-48.

York, E. B. (2009). The gloves are off: more marketers opt for attack ads. *Advertising Age*, 80(19), 4.

Zhang, Y. & Zinkhan, G. (2006). Humor in Television Advertising: Does Audience Involvement Matter? *Journal of Advertising*, 35(4), 113-127.

Zhang, Y. (1996). Responses to humorous advertising: The moderating effect of need for cognition. *Journal of Advertising*, 25(1), 15–32.