

“Would you still buy it if it is controversial?”

The analysis of Serbian and Dutch consumers’ purchase intent of products controversially advertised.

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Abstract

Controversial advertisements have become more prevalent in recent years within marketing fields. Nonetheless, previous examples showed that these advertisements' effects on consumers are either positive or negative, and companies still need to understand how to run controversial advertisements properly, which groups to target, and how. With the lack of literature on this topic, this research aimed to bring insights that could benefit both academic and societal spheres connected to controversial advertising fields.

To answer the research question "*What is the influence of controversial advertisements on Serbian and Dutch consumers' purchase intents of products controversially advertised?*" racist, sexist, and stereotyping controversy types were firstly analyzed. Therefore, the first research goal was to investigate if one type (racism) influences the purchase intent of products controversially advertised more than the other two. Additionally, Hofstede's model was applied to test differences between countries and their cultural dimensions; thus, the second research goal was to investigate if the type of a country influences the purchase intent of these products. Lastly, Serbia and The Netherlands were compared to see if chosen controversy types significantly influence one consumer purchase intent more than the other. These countries were chosen due to personal reasons (the author comes from Serbia but lives in The Netherlands), but more importantly, for being ranked differently on two cultural dimensions used in this research.

The results showed that participants from Serbia had higher purchase intent of products controversially advertised than participants from The Netherlands, hence concluding the second research goal. On the other hand, the chosen controversy type (racism) did not influence the purchase intent significantly more than the other two types. Similarly, these three types together did not influence the purchase intent of one country significantly more than the other. Considering the results received, the conclusion was that controversial advertisements did not influence these two countries.

KEYWORDS: *Controversial Advertisements, Purchase Intent, Serbia, The Netherlands, Hofstede*

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1 Introduction

1.1 Background of Controversial Advertisements

The scene in which the Pope and the Egyptian Imam are hugging and kissing can be seen in a movie parody or a commercial by Benetton (Radaljic, 2011). The Italian-based company shocked the world in 2011 by launching highly controversial advertisements that portrayed politicians and religious representatives kissing each other. The aim of Benetton with these advertisements was to promote unity and call for less global tension and conflict (McGregor, 2011). However, the situation quickly backfired, and these advertisements immediately became a target of wider discontent due to portraying politicians in a way not approved beforehand (Carr, 2020). Some of these advertisements even led to higher escalations, like the one portraying the Pope and the Egyptian Imam, which was abruptly stopped after Benetton had been accused severely by the Vatican City (FoNet, 2011). Nonetheless, like with other controversial advertisements they have run before, Benetton managed to create buzz around the company with this one (Ferboković, 2015).

Controversial advertisements are advertising types known for the ability to provoke or offend one group of consumers (Singh & Chalal, 2020). These advertisements are predominantly launched by companies on purpose, and the key goal here is to attract more attention to a particular product or service or to stimulate specific reactions or discussions in society that would gradually start involving more people (Perić & Savić, 2020). Even from a statistical standpoint, people nowadays are targeted by more than 1500 advertisements, from which only one or two are remembered. Usually, the ones remembered by society are the ones that challenge their views or beliefs. Therefore, companies follow this line of thought and intentionally run advertisements that would catch that person's attention and make the company more visible (Ferboković, 2015). In practice, companies like Benetton, Diesel, FCUK, and Body Shop were the first ones who launch controversial advertisements (Sandikci, 2011). However, if a controversial advertisement is something the company should be running is still being debated within societal circles. On the one hand, some groups criticize companies for running them to challenge more significant societal issues, but others fully support this initiative. All in all, discussions on this topic brought even the focus of academia to it and kickstarted their own discussion (Sandikci, 2011).

A part of that discussion, which was also frequently covered in the literature, is the connection between controversial advertisements and consumers' purchase intent. In their study, Vezina and Paul (1997) found that controversial factors in these advertisements do not

reduce consumers' purchase intent of products advertised. On top of that, Dahl, Frankenberger, and Manchanda (2003) mentioned that controversial advertisements could be a good choice for companies to use as they can intrigue and attract consumers. The controversial advertisement by Nike reflects this argumentation, as it not only influenced younger members of the US society but also contributed to a significant increase in Nike's advertising budget and sales (Patel, 2019). However, some authors also have a negative standpoint on the abovementioned connection. Waller (2004) pointed out several examples from the past that showed how controversial advertisements can fail significantly and decrease consumers' purchase intent of an advertised product.

Furthermore, Singh and Chalal (2020) were highly skeptical of successfully implementing controversial advertisements to promote a product and stimulate consumers' purchase intent to buy that product. Sabri (2017) shared his views and emphasized that controversial advertisements cannot improve consumers' perceptions of the brand and increase their purchase intent of products from those advertisements. Nevertheless, Waller (2004) in his article mentioned that despite controversial advertisements and their outcomes being perceived negatively in existing literature, companies keep on launching them.

1.2 Academic Relevance

Based on the overview from above, it can be concluded that the companies which still plan to launch controversial advertisements need to understand which factors can provoke people and who are the sensitive groups (Waller, 2004). Nonetheless, as Efrat, Souchon, Dickenson, and Nemkova (2021) mentioned, the knowledge needed to run a controversial advertisement and understand its success rate currently needs to be improved. Considering that more clarity will be brought to this lapse in the literature will demonstrate the academic and societal relevance. From an academic standpoint, up-to-date views on this topic and new findings will contribute to an ongoing academic debate on the effect controversial advertisements have on the purchase intent of products controversially advertised and support academia in making new conclusions. Furthermore, Serbia and The Netherlands were chosen for the analysis due to having two different cultures, which will be thoroughly explained later. For now, academia has not placed that much emphasis on analyzing and comparing these two countries on controversial advertisements and their influence on purchase intent. As such, the analysis will enrich and broaden the scope of research on these topics. Finally, measuring controversy based on the adapted version of controversy classification by Waller (2004) and purchase intent based on

the adaptations of works by Esch et al. (2006) and Khadka and Maharjan (2017) will offer new perspectives that can be used in further research.

1.3 Societal Relevance

From a societal standpoint, final findings could be used by international, Serbian, and Dutch advertising companies to understand the analyzed relationship better and to plan new and successful strategies accordingly. Additionally, the analysis will be based on Hofstede's cultural dimensions, as it is claimed that cultural elements and perceptions are enrooted in consumers' motivation to purchase products (Knežević & Bilić, 2015).

The information in previous sub-chapters gave a broader perspective and an indication of the critical focus of the analysis. Furthermore, the final analysis results will demonstrate all the highlighted points contributing to academic and societal relevance. Nonetheless, it will also be essential to guide this analysis so that needed results can be generated, and this will be done by using a suitable research question, which will go along the following lines: "What is the influence of controversial advertisements on Serbian and Dutch consumers' purchase intents of products controversially advertised?"

1.4 Overview of Chapters

The chapter that will follow the introduction will be the literature review. This chapter will thoroughly analyze all the essential concepts for this research from a theoretical perspective. Additionally, the theoretical baseline will support the upcoming discussion on the methodological aspects of this research, after which the analysis will follow. Finally, all the results will be discussed, and a general conclusion will be given in the final chapter of this research.

2 Literature Review

A brief overview of the leading research topics was given in the introduction, while in chapter two, these topics will be covered and analyzed in more depth. The history of controversial advertisements will first be explained, followed by their crucial purpose and delivery methods. Furthermore, types of controversial advertisements deemed by the academia to be the strongest will be introduced, and whether they influence consumers' purchase intent or not will be clarified. The focus will also be on mentioning emotions and their role in controversial advertisements. Lastly, a literature review on Serbian and Dutch cultural dimensions will be done to understand the relation between these cultural types and the purchase intent of respective consumers.

2.1 History of Controversial Advertisements

Moriarty et al. (2012) stated that between the 1960s and 1970s, advertising agencies were going through a renaissance, coming up with advertisements ahead of their time. In the views of Gajić & Golijanin (2016), these advertisements had to fulfill two main objectives; promote socially acceptable products and depict a lavish, high-class lifestyle. Therefore, with these objectives in place, there was almost no space for controversial advertisements to exist or develop.

Gajić & Golijanin (2016) also mentioned that just before the start of this transition, one of the most prominent advertising companies, DDB, concluded that advertising is purely a persuasive technique and ought to be used to target consumer emotions. To explain persuasive delivery, Madni, Abdul Hamid & Rashid (2016) used argumentation by previous authors, implying that this kind of delivery needs to contain all the relevant and solid arguments that people can easily follow and accept. Additionally, it was stated that formulating persuasive delivery in this way allows companies to shape consumer behavior afterward. Furthermore, Gajić & Golijanin (2016) illustrated how another advertising giant, TBA, elaborated on the need for every advertisement to carry a key strength, or a unique selling point, which will allow it to be differentiated from other advertisements. In short, Belch and Belch (2009) briefly explained that TBA understood the term unique selling point as a key advantage that a single company has over its competition, and when offering a product with a unique selling proposition, companies can assist and make not just one, but large numbers of consumers better off after that purchase. However, this was a more comprehensive strategy that companies created to improve their advertising deliveries (Gajić & Golijanin, 2016). With this mindset to move forward and stick to planned strategies, advertising companies eventually brought controversial advertisements into the mix and helped them see the light of day.

In his paper, Kuan (2018) elaborated more on the history of controversial advertisements. He stated that the first traces of these advertisements were seen in the 1970s. Moreover, as soon as their visibility increased, controversial advertisements became a topic of various academic research that aimed to understand them better. Also, the author brought up findings that claimed how controversial advertisements became more prominent after 1973, primarily due to companies trying to bring something new. Nonetheless, Perić and Savić (2020) outlined a critical turning point for controversial advertising when its continuous use was initiated, which took place during the 1980s with the initiatives by Benetton. As described by Arnaud, Tamilla, and Waguespack (2018), Benetton dared to push the borders and depict a positive but unorthodox relationship between the black and white race, which served to represent and allude to their brand motto. The company continued to show its products in controversial ways, and this decision helped other companies to understand that consumers are asking for more unique and controversial visuals (Perić & Savić, 2020). In recent years, Moraes and Michaelidou (2017) pointed to a wide presence of controversial advertisements on different social media channels. Not just that, they became recognizable immediately by online search engines like Google.

2.2 Purpose of Controversial Advertisements

When discussing the nature and purpose of controversial advertisements, Javed and Zeb (2011) interpreted controversial advertisements similarly to previous authors. The two explained that the primary rationale behind companies running them is to shock or offend people watching them. Nonetheless, Theodorakis, Koritos & Stathakopoulos (2014) clarified that consumers are still interested in watching them, based on findings from previous literature. Another important aspect for companies when controversial advertisements come to mind, was brought up by Bachnik and Nowacki (2018). They described how, with controversial advertisements; companies can achieve desired goals while avoiding playing by legal marketing rules. Furthermore, the authors mentioned how these rules were formed to balance the strength of companies and prevent them from creating and running all kinds of advertisements. Finally, the public considers these advertisements innovative, allowing companies to benefit from these views.

2.3 Delivery of Controversial Advertisements

Dahl, Frankenberger & Manchanda (2003) went more into types of controversial deliveries, mainly reflecting sexual or offensive content, unaccepted social behavior or language, and disturbing visuals. Perić and Savić (2020) also analyzed this topic, illustrating controversial

advertisements as something built on explicit gender visuals, topics related to religion, or moral values that usually stick in consumers' thoughts for a more extended period. Similarly, Curtis, Arnaud, and Waguespack (2017) explained that controversial advertisements are a helpful tool for catching the eye of a consumer, as they can cause an emotional reaction in consumers by relying on depictions of taboo and social aspects that are not in line with expected social behavior.

Waller (2004) additionally noted that controversial advertisements could arise if any harmful societal products are shown, such as tobacco, alcohol, or condoms. Discussing this topic, Waller, Fam, and Erdogan (2005) referred to previous literature that claimed the abovementioned products to be considered controversial while adding political topics to that list. However, while Singh and Chalal (2020) did agree with mentioned authors and their main categorization of controversial products, they also described that people from different cultures would not classify these categories on the same level of controversy. In the end, Barnes and Dotson (1990) clarified that showing these products is just one way of creating controversial advertisements, as there are advertisements that can also have a controversial nature if the delivery itself is controversial. Nonetheless, Madni et al. (2016) also revealed the third type of controversial advertisement: the combined use of controversial products and delivery. In their view, this type causes a heavy impact on people watching them.

2.4 Purchase Intent

2.4.1 Product Purchasing

Rezvani, Khosravi, and Ahmad (2012) described the current market as a battle between numerous companies offering consumers plenty of options and products. From a consumer perspective, having a bond with a particular company helps them make a conscious choice to buy their product, also known as purchase intent. In more depth, Spears and Singh (2004) stated that purchase intent is a call for action for an individual consumer to buy something from a particular company, differentiating it from consumer attitudes, being what consumers think about that product. Purchase intent has also been analyzed from a company perspective. Morwitz (2014) in her study mentioned that purchase intent is a vital parameter used in marketing for predicting if a product will be sold and how it will impact consumers. Furthermore,

Morwitz, Steckel, and Gupta (2006) indicated that understanding purchase intent also supports companies in knowing which countries and which groups of consumers to target. Within marketing fields, Curtis et al. (2017) emphasized that these products are mostly offered

through excessive and expensive advertising, where the ideal outcome is to stimulate consumers' purchase intent.

2.4.2 Product Recommendation

As mentioned by Patterson, O'Malley, and Story (2009), a key benefit of using controversial advertisements is spreading the word and discussing a particular brand and its products more frequently. Following this line of thought and linking to other related literature on this topic, Fošnar (2018) explained that a consumer's decision to purchase a product advertised depends a lot on the experiences people had with that product, namely the participant's close friends and family. Moreover, the recommendation that friends, family, and others give to that participant can significantly influence the decision to purchase this product more than the advertisement. Similarly, Sharma et al. (2021) emphasized how companies nowadays have become more reliant on consumer feedback, views, and recommendation of a particular product. In her view, when a consumer recommends a product, it not only indicates the existence of a personal purchase intent but also shows that this recommendation can quickly become circular and reach wider consumer groups.

2.5 Controversy Types

The same author from the previous paragraph, Waller (2004), in his study on controversial advertisements, had to draw conclusions on which controversial factors cause the most negative reaction in people. To understand this better, he gave his participants nine factors they could rank. After analyzing the responses of his participants, he saw that three factors stood out, the racial image being at the top, followed by sexist image and stereotyping of people. Waller and even wider academic circles emphasized the role of these three factors in controversial advertisements. Machova, Huszárík, and Toth (2015) were other authors who wrote on a similar topic, basing their study on understanding the impact of controversial advertisements with racist visuals on chosen case studies. Ting and de Run (2012) saw a similar trend. It explained that visuals related to racist topics were deemed highly controversial by their participants, while the presence of racism in controversial advertisements was also acknowledged by Farrell (2012).

Additionally, Chan et al. (2007) clearly defined racism and sexism as two key negative factors frequently brought up by Western academics. Furthermore, they also emphasized how sexism encapsulates motives of stereotyping. Not just them, Prendergast, Benny, and Phau (2002) pointed out that most of the participants in their study placed sexism at the top of the negative aspects found in controversial advertisements used in this study. Like the three,

Akhter, Abbasi, & Umar (2011) received the same results in their study. Finally, Murji (2006) explained that one of the most famous examples of a controversial advertisement in the UK used offensive visuals of racial stereotyping. It can be concluded that racism, sexism, and stereotyping are frequently present in controversial advertisements.

Furthermore, based on insights from the literature, racism is considered the most controversial type, followed by sexism and stereotyping. In the following sub-chapters, each type will be thoroughly analyzed. However, it will also be seen how the presence of racism, sexism, and stereotyping in advertisements influence consumers' purchase intent.

2.5.1 Racism

Davies (2018) mentioned that academia has struggled to establish one widely agreed-upon way to define racism. However, most of these views outline racism as labeling negative traits to members of one race, which also makes them represented in a bad light. At the beginning of the 2000s in the US, Intravia et al. (2019) explained that racism was a significant issue in society but will remain present in years to come. Ljubenočić (2017) named media as a critical driver for promoting racism but also demonstrated this influence outside of the US. In the author's example, local Taiwanese citizens who never went to the US participated in a survey and portrayed the black race mostly negatively due to media influence in Taiwan mainly promoting this narrative.

Darrow (2014) clarified that they are degraded, left out, or tokenized when advertising the black race. To explain being left out, Ljubenočić (2017) presented metrics of race representation in TV advertisements, showing that the black race contributes to only 10% of total advertisement blocks, while the Asian race is represented even less. When talking about tokenism, Lehwald (2018) defined it as a common practice in advertising in which a group of people from different races is included so that the advertisement can allude to an equal representation of races. However, she stated that despite doing so, the depiction of these members and their "specific" traits are still subtly racist. Furthermore, Darrow (2014) clarified that when the black race plays the token role, the focus is not placed on them, and it becomes hard to draw any attention due to being outnumbered by white members.

Similarly, Entman and Rojecki (2001) described the unbalanced presence of the black and white race in advertisements, as the black race is usually on the sidelines, while the white race represents a cornerstone of advertisements that people find appealing. Explaining this through real-life examples, Ljubenočić (2017) mentioned that advertisements promoting

everyday products tend to include members of the black race. On the contrary, the promotion of products like cars and credit cards is predominantly advertised by the white race. Considering what academia has said about racism and the evidence that showed frequent presence in advertisements, it can be concluded that this trend will remain in the advertising field. Also, the question that can be raised is whether these advertisements are run intentionally by the companies to attract more consumer attention.

2.5.1.1 Racism and Purchase Intent

The views of academia on the influence of racist advertisements on consumers' purchase intent are mostly aligned. To begin with, Ghani and Ahmad (2015) concluded that racist visuals are predominantly found in controversial advertisements, and these kinds of advertisements negatively influence purchase intent. Maslikhan (2019) also agreed on the negative influence that racist visuals have on companies' image and consumers' purchase intent. Moreover, Petty et al. (2003) explained that companies that continuously avoid including minorities in their advertisements label themselves as companies who are against diversity, which leads to a decreased intent of those minority groups to purchase their products. Similarly, Simpson et al. (2000) highlighted the importance and sensitive nature of racial differences in advertising. In their view, failing to advertise with racial visuals properly will negatively impact consumers' purchase intent. Therefore, the relationship between racism and purchase intent has been outlined in the literature to be primarily negative.

2.5.2 Sexism

According to European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE), sexism mainly revolves around depicting male and female characteristics and their responsibilities in society (EIGE, 2023). Therefore, sexist views can easily lead to wider stereotyping and ranking of male and female populations, intentionally or not, but still significantly impact the two. Nonetheless, EIGE claimed that females are the more common target of sexist views (EIGE, 2023). Similarly, Biglbauer (2019) explained that sexism in media mainly demonstrates females in a negative light and as someone in the shadow of the male population. As such, she discussed how these connotations served as a baseline on which corresponding advertisement narratives were built. Šimac and Klasnić (2021) outlined two main splits of sexism that were recorded in previous literature, old-fashioned and modern. As stated, old-fashioned supported an imbalanced and unequal view of society's female and male population.

On the other hand, modern sexism rejects the presence of inequality between the two. To explain the presence of the former in advertisements, Globan et al. (2018) mentioned that

advertisements from the 1970s generally connected females to household and clothing products, while males were placed next to high-class and luxurious ones, such as cars and banks. In their view, this was done to make female representation inferior to males and undermine their ability to be an equal part of society. However, these authors also claimed that the 1980s represented a turning period, with the female population getting more presence in non-traditional advertisements. Similarly, Day (2004) also brought this argument up by illustrating how a traditional and obedient housewife became advertised as a woman capable of having a successful family and career. Čehulić (2015) clarified that around that period, feminism waves became more assertive, and female strength became connected to their sexuality, which also led to more physically liberal representations of females. However, the intent of doing just that was still damaging to female confidence. As such, this example aligns with the principles of modern sexism. This view has also been shared by Todorović (2013), who stated that equality between female and male populations is widely claimed, but males are more favored in practice.

Nowadays, a dominant trend present in corresponding advertising was described by Lubina and Brkić Klimpak (2014), which mostly boils down to generating a profit by portraying females in sexual ways to promote a product further and attract more consumers. The kind of advertising representation where a person is depicted purely as a sexual object was pointed out by Heldman (2012), who called it sexual objectification. Andersson and Schytt (2017) shared similar views on this topic, emphasizing two forms of sexism represented through advertising, stereotyping, and objectification. Lubina and Brkić Klimpak (2014) also stated that the male population is being served with more intimate and physical representations of females, while the narrative for females is significantly different, primarily pointing to their beauty. Andersson and Schytt (2017) explained that companies continuously and successfully defend these advertisements by claiming that consumers desire to see these visuals, and companies are only ensuring their wishes come true. Therefore, Nelson and Paek (2005) clarified that the growing presence of these advertisement types is maintained, despite potential adverse reactions or effects it can bring.

2.5.2.1 Sexism and Purchase Intent

Compared to a more straightforward influence of racism on purchase intent, the link between the influence of sexism on purchase intent varies, based on the analysis of numerous authors who wrote on this topic. In a brief review of the literature, Andersson and Schytt (2017) mentioned that sexist advertisements negatively impact the purchase intent of some groups in

society. However, it was also clarified that the motivation to buy products from these advertisements increases for other groups. Similarly, Gramazio et al. (2020) clarified that the primary purpose of running a sexist advertisement is to increase consumers' purchase intent but still highlighted that this view is not shared within larger academic groups, who are still indecisive. Furthermore, Lysonski and Pollay (1990) pointed to several studies outlining sexist advertisements' positive or negative influences on consumers' purchase intent. Finally, Trivedi and Teichert (2021) followed a similar thought. As such, the conclusion is that academics have no mutual agreement if these advertisements positively or negatively influence purchase intent. Nonetheless, the influence sexist advertisements have on purchase intent is still recognized.

2.5.3 Stereotypes

Gorham (1999), in his study, questioned if the existence of general and racial stereotyping in media can be deemed essential. In his view, stereotyping became a key point of discussion in this field due to a plethora of literature on this topic being written to promote the agenda further. Furthermore, he claimed stereotypes are widely considered harmful due to being used as a tool by people on higher hierarchical levels to spread fake narratives about people on lower levels. Additionally, Fiske (2017) elaborated on different groups of stereotypes and explained their presence in society. As mentioned, the attributes found in sex and age stereotypes are similar across cultures, while ethnical, racial, and religious stereotypes depend purely on the culture itself. From these categories, gender and racial stereotyping gained more prominence in literature.

In view of Patterson et al. (2009), a large number of advertisements in the past portrayed the male population as assertive and decisive, while the female population only had a limited role in society. This standpoint was also shared by Rasmussen, Dufur, Cope, and Pierce (2021), who described that companies like Nike, in most advertisements, prioritized showing male sportspeople. The two examples, albeit not connected, still show the tendency of global advertisements to include gender stereotyping. Fiske (2017) went into even more detail on this topic and elaborated on ways how female population is being stereotyped. In her view, females who support feminist views, develop their careers and reject male dominance will become a target of stereotypes. As explained by Eckes (2002), the male population is stereotyping this group due to fear and trying to avoid losing dominance. On the other hand, Fiske (2017) also brought up female groups that accept male dominance and decide to follow this gender split but end up being stereotyped for being unwilling to challenge this gender relationship. In her view, females who belong to this group are primarily cheerleaders, secretaries, or housewives.

2.5.3.1 Racist Stereotypes

It is also important to mention another aspect of stereotyping, which includes race. Darrow (2014) in his study elaborated on a very close connection between stereotypes and racism, which he used to form two categories, overt and inferential racism. In his view, the first type demonstrates heavy and direct racist views, such as considering the black race to not behave according to societal rules or to be inferior to the white race. On the contrary, he explained that the inferential type is very discrete and nowadays considered socially accepted, like claiming the Asian race has solid numerical skills. Furthermore, a study on racism and stereotyping was conducted by Johnson and Grier (2012), who concluded that people negatively reacted to advertisements that targeted them with racial stereotypes. On the other hand, these authors claimed that people not being a target of these advertisements mainly had ignorant views.

2.5.3.2 Sexist Stereotypes

Bucaj (2016) described that the practice of judging female beauty was always present, but the male population is also slowly becoming a target of this judgment. In her view, the concept of beauty was constantly changing over time, mostly stemming from traditional, cultural, and religious values. Additionally, the author outlined globalization as a turning point that brought unified beauty parameters. These parameters were explained by Adamović and Maskalan (2011) to be ideal body shapes demonstrated in advertisements that all people should strive to have. As such, Lubina and Brkić Klimpak (2014) clarified that fit female bodies carry the beauty status in advertisements, resembling the ones of models. Therefore, numerous female singers, movie stars, and models star in advertisements to promote beauty products, as mentioned by Čehulić (2015). It is also important to mention that these advertisements primarily target females, and Labaš & Košćević (2014) illustrated how females are represented as ideal, beautiful, and eternally young. However, achieving these representations is almost impossible in their view. Not just that, Adamović and Maskalan (2011) also signaled potential adverse effects these advertisements could have on their mental and physical well-being.

2.5.3.3 Stereotypes and Purchase Intent

The influence of stereotypes on purchase intent is somewhat like the influence of racism on purchase intent. In their study on this topic, Lee et al. (2011) concluded that people who are a target of stereotypical advertisements will have lower intent to purchase products or services advertised. Akestam (2017) also confirmed this view by including multiple authors' views in her study, pointing to a negative connection between these advertisements and consumers' purchase intent. Drake (2017) mostly aligned with these views from a different perspective.

She elaborated on how female groups are targets of advertisements with stereotypes, further lowering their purchase intent of those products. Like her, Sharma and Bumb (2021) referred to previous literature to express the same views. Not just gender, racial stereotypes, and purchase intent were also covered by the authors. Martin et al. (2004) described those non-stereotypical products advertised by respective minority groups recorded higher sales than products advertised by the same minority groups, including common stereotypes of them. As such, the influence of stereotypes on purchase intent, like the one of racism, is primarily negative.

Based on the analysis of previous literature, it can be clearly witnessed that racism, sexism, and stereotyping are the three main controversy types. Not just that, multiple authors claimed that these advertisements also have a solid connection to the purchase intent of controversially advertised products. As Maglajic et al. (2015) brought up, racist visuals are among the most present ones in controversial advertisements, and the effect of these advertisements is predominantly negative. Furthermore, the outcome of using sexist visuals in these advertisements is still considered to be both positive and negative (Hamdan, 2021; Sabri & Obermiller, 2012; Salwani et al., 2019). Finally, stereotyping visuals can have a significant influence on the purchase intent of controversially advertised products, but they are deemed to be the least controversial out of the three (Bermúdez-González et al., 2021; Gordon & Furnham, 2021). What makes this research topic even more exciting and significant is that the literature does not offer a clear comparison between the influences of racist, sexist, and stereotyping visuals on the purchase intent of controversially advertised products. Therefore, this lack of literature was a baseline for generating the first hypothesis, and for results to be as valid as possible, an assumption was taken that among the most controversial ones, racist visuals also have a more significant influence on the purchase intent of controversially advertised products than sexist and stereotyping visuals. Therefore, the first hypothesis was defined in the following way.

H1: Controversial advertisements with racist visuals influence consumers' purchase intent of products controversially advertised more than the other two types of visuals.

2.6 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory

Leonavičiene and Burinskienė (2022) in their article emphasized the overall importance for companies to successfully overcome the challenge of knowing how to deal with societies with different cultures. In their view, learning how each culture works and its characteristics is the critical aspect of this challenge. Similarly, Zhao (2017) commented on this topic from an

advertising perspective and described how companies that build on their knowledge of cultures could have more efficient advertisements in their local markets. Considering this importance, de Mooij and Hofstede (2010) stated that advertising practices became frequently based on cultural dimensions outlined by Hofstede. These cultural dimensions were explained by Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018), who stated that Hofstede was able to capture the cultural values of individuals from many countries, turn them into numerical results, and group all of them in six dimensions. From the six, De Mooij and Hofstede (2010) highlighted the difference between collectivistic and individualistic cultures and the differences in their power distances to be two vital cultural dimensions. As such, these two will also be used for this research.

Firstly, Valaei, Rezaei, and Shahijan (2016) mentioned that cultures could be more individualistic by caring more about their closest people or more collectivistic by putting society first. Moving forward, Mirosavljević & Milovanović (2012) explained that power distance measures people from lower social classes' willingness to accept an unequal power distribution. In essence, higher rates of power distance symbolize cultures closely sticking to a preassigned hierarchy, while cultures with lower rates seek equal power split (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Furthermore, it was discussed that the type of a country and its cultural characteristics could greatly influence consumer behavior (Saglam & Abdulahi, 2021; Mann & Sahni, 2019; Sreen et al., 2018). Similarly, Liu, Cheng, and Li (2009) emphasized that consumers of different cultures and countries react differently to controversial advertisements. Waller et al. (2005) analyzed how countries with different cultural dimensions perceive different types of controversial advertisements to understand this through practical examples. The results received showed that participants chosen from The UK and New Zealand agreed on almost the same types that make an advertisement controversial. Still, their results were not comparable to other chosen group participants from Turkey and Malaysia. Here, it is essential to mention that The UK and New Zealand represent individualistic, low power distance cultural types, while Turkey and Malaysia are collectivistic, high power distance cultures (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Machova et al. (2015) were another group of authors who claimed that collectivistic cultures find controversial advertisements more offensive than individualistic countries.

Going into more detail on these cultural dimensions and controversy types, the study by Waller et al. (2005) highlighted that all the participants found racist visuals controversial, but the participants from the UK and New Zealand found sexist advertisements less controversial than the other group. Not only these authors but Sawang (2010) also conducted a similar study

by choosing more individualistic White Americans and more collectivistic Asian Americans to understand the impact of controversial advertisements with sexist visuals on them, and the results showed that collectivistic participant groups had lower tolerance to these advertisements. Regarding stereotyping, Akestam (2017) analyzed individualistic Swedish culture and concluded that gender stereotyping in advertisements does not positively influence Swedish females.

2.6.1 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory and Purchase Intent

A plethora of literature on controversial advertisements analyzed cultural dimensions and their aspects concerning the purchase intent of controversially advertised products (Sreen et al., 2018). Frequently, the benchmark used for this analysis was Hofstede's model (de Mooij & Hofstede, 2010; de Mooij, 2013). To begin with, Asamoah and Chovancová (2016) explained that cultural values influence consumers from collectivistic cultures and tend to consult each other when making purchases. These values make purchasing more complex (Daniels et al., 2004). On the other hand, individualistic consumers take a more rational and individual approach, making purchasing products more efficient (Asamoah & Chovancová, 2016; Daniels et al., 2004). These differences were evident in online purchasing, where it was proven that the frequency of online purchasing depends on the consumer's culture (Pratesi et al., 2021; Vatanabe et al., 2019).

Not just the first cultural dimension from above, study results by Mann and Sahni (2019) and Aw et al. (2021) also show the noticeably strong influence of power distance dimensions on purchase intent. Furthermore, Zhang et al. (2010) discussed the importance of power distance and its effect on impulsive purchasing choices. Another difference between power distance cultures was covered by Mann and Sahni (2019), who classified high power distance consumers as ones who opt for high-quality purchases.

Analyzing these differences within the advertising sphere, Sawang (2010) stated that not just having a lower tolerance for controversial advertisements with sexist visuals, but participants from collectivistic cultures also showed lower purchase intent for products from these advertisements. Furthermore, Jaber (2015) clarified that Palestine is both a collectivistic and a high power distance culture, which goes in hand with the study by Salem et al. (2019), who revealed that advertisements with stereotyping visuals of females in Palestine do not boost purchase intent of female groups in this country. Additionally, An and Kim (2006) concluded that controversial and offensive visuals differently influence the purchase intent of US and Hong Kong participants. Similarly, Chan et al. (2007) compared participants from China and

Germany who belong to collectivistic and individualistic cultures. The results showed that the purchase intent of Chinese participants was affected more by controversial advertisements than one of the German participants. Finally, Trigo (2019) built his analysis on Hofstede's model and compared participants from individualistic Northern Europe and collectivistic Southern Europe and China. Looking at how controversial advertisements influence their purchase intentions, the outcome of this connection highly relied on these participants' cultures.

All the results from above can lead to a conclusion that how controversial advertisements will be perceived and what the purchase intent of controversially advertised products will strongly depend on the culture of consumers. Therefore, these insights can be used to generate the second hypothesis:

H2: The type of a country has an influence on consumers' purchase intent of products controversially advertised.

The literature that analyses the connection between cultural dimensions, controversial advertisements, and purchase intent of controversially advertised products is scarce. On top of that, there is not enough academic comparison between European countries but between European and Asian countries (Engelbart et al., 2017). As such, several assumptions from existing literature were taken to generate the third and final hypothesis. Firstly, the literature outlined that consumers of different cultural dimensions react differently to controversial advertisements and the purchase intent of those products. Along with that, racist, sexist, and stereotyping visuals were claimed to be the most controversial. Looking at the two countries that will be analyzed, The Netherlands is a highly individualistic culture in which an offensive act reduces one's confidence and provokes feelings of guilt.

On the contrary, Serbian culture is firmly collectivistic, in which an offensive act results in one's reputation getting tarnished (Hofstede Insights, 2023). The Netherlands is also a low power distance culture, which puts more focus on equality and a more fluid and autonomous way of functioning. At the same time, the members of Serbian society tend to follow strict rules and societal structures, making them a part of a higher power distance culture (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

Based on these insights, the idea will be to compare the purchase intents of Serbian and Dutch participants after watching advertisements with racist, sexist, and stereotyping visuals. Relying on their cultural differences and already existing findings that demonstrate the more

significant influence of controversial advertisements on the purchase intent of collectivistic than on individualistic societies, the third hypothesis will be the following:

H3: Controversial advertisements with racist visuals, sexist visuals, and visuals of stereotyping influence the intent of Serbian consumers to purchase products controversially advertised more than the intent of Dutch consumers to purchase products controversially advertised.

3 Methodology

The methodology chapter will first emphasize which research designs were chosen and why. Afterward, this chapter will include all the topics related to sampling, its frame, design, and response. On top of that, concepts relevant to this research will be operationalized, leading to a thorough explanation of the planned experiment and its whole procedure. Finally, this chapter will be closed by pointing out the reliability and validity of this research.

3.1 Research Design

3.1.1 Quantitative Research

When conducting research, the decision to apply either inductive or deductive techniques will set the tone for further development of that research and the results it gives. The inductive approach allows for extracting general conclusions from aspects focused on in that research. In contrast, the deductive approach can unveil new findings stemming from existing ones (Khalid et al., 2012). Putting into perspective, the type of research that follows a deductive approach is called quantitative research, and the one following an inductive approach is qualitative research (Claydon, 2015). This thesis will be built on quantitative research, and below it will be explained why.

With this research type, hypotheses can be generated by analyzing existing theories and later quantified to obtain final findings (Holton III & Burnett, 2005). As such, quantitative research analyzes aspects of society by quantifying them and bringing out patterns that originated from that research (Watson, 2015). Furthermore, due to quantitative research providing results in numbers, this research type predominantly deals with "what" questions, and it allows researchers to understand the characteristics of a particular societal sphere better, their beliefs, and perspectives (Goertzen, 2017). On top of that, the results gained from the analysis of only a tiny part of society can be applied to its full scope (Rahman, 2017).

In this thesis, plenty of literature on the relationship between controversial advertisements and consumer purchase intent was already discussed in previous chapters. Therefore, this research type will unveil new findings using existing theoretical perspectives. The posed research question is also a "what" one, becoming eligible to be answered quantitatively. Along with that, the way participants feel about sexism, racism, and stereotyping in controversial advertisements, along with the impact they are causing, will be shown in the final quantified findings. Furthermore, observing Dutch and Serbian purchase intents of products controversially advertised will be in line with mentioned societal principles of quantitative research.

3.1.2 Experiments

One way to conduct quantitative research is by running an experiment (Holton III & Burnett, 2005). Experiments have been a common practice in advertising analysis as they can clarify if and how much one factor contributes to the existence of another one (Vargas et al., 2017). Experiments can also be used to understand an event's outcome if a previous intervention in it has been or has not been made (Neuman, 2011). When experimenting, the researcher intentionally shapes a set of factors to influence the focal factor of the analysis and generate different results. The former factors are called independent variables, while the latter are dependent (Vargas et al., 2017). Understanding how independent and dependent variables coexist and whether the first impacts the second is generally done in an empirical experiment (Neuman, 2011). Therefore, the relationship between these two variables represents the core purpose of running an empirical experiment (Gersten et al., 2005). Additionally, this experiment type demonstrates a suitable choice for understanding how controversial advertisements as an independent variable influence consumers' purchase intent of products advertised or the dependent variable.

Furthermore, experiments can be built to be either within-subject or between-subject types. The former happens when multiple independent variables influence every participant in that experiment, while in the latter, every participant is influenced by only one variable (Charness et al., 2012). As such, a within-subject experiment gathers all the individuals together, and their reactions are analyzed before and after being influenced by an independent variable. On the contrary, the between-subject experiment is used to split individuals into multiple groups, some of which were influenced by an independent variable and some not, and to receive needed results (Neuman, 2011). In this experiment, the Dutch and Serbian purchase intents before and after seeing chosen controversial advertisements will be tested by merging these participants into one group, according to the guidelines of a within-subject experiment, and presented with the same independent variables. One benefit of using this experiment type is that it will produce statistically correct results (Greenwald, 1976). On top of that, the outcome of a within-subject experiment goes along with the theory it's based on (Charness et al., 2012).

To conclude, Dutch and Serbian participants will be exposed to three controversial advertisements in this experiment containing racist visuals, sexist visuals, and stereotyping visuals. The experiment structure will be based on a 3 x 2 model (Statology, 2021).

3.1.3 Online Experiment Questionnaire

With the development of the Internet, experiments started going beyond the scope of laboratory testing. When conducted online, experiments allow researchers to include broader participant groups, making them cheaper and more efficient while allowing extensions of their duration (Dandurand et al., 2008). Not just the Internet, Covid-19 was also an important event in driving this transition from physical to online based experiments (Buso et al., 2021). As such, online experiments represent a growing trend, providing more flexibility for participants and researchers (Anwyl-Irvine et al., 2021). Considering the prominence of online experiments, this experiment type will also be used in this thesis. Furthermore, it will be based on a questionnaire made in one of the most frequent online experiment platforms, Qualtrics (Arechar et al., 2017).

Online experiment questionnaires also come with numerous advantages. They can be sent out to targeted audiences, and the answers given by participants are immediately accessible and ready for analysis (Wyatt, 2000). Not just that, using bigger groups of participants will also bring more quality to the results received (Nieboer, 2020). What is more, online questionnaires were made to give almost the same feeling to a participant as doing it in person (Leeper, 2018). Finally, numerous academic articles that were brought up in previous chapters and written on the relationship between controversial advertisements and purchase intent included experimental questionnaires. Therefore, combining the above factors resulted in choosing an online experiment questionnaire for this thesis.

3.2 Sample

3.2.1 Sample Frame

The first aspect of sampling that needs to be mentioned is the sampling frame. Country selection will play a vital role in this process, as Serbian and Dutch consumers and their purchase intent of products controversially advertised will be analyzed. Therefore, sampling will be limited to these two countries only. Nonetheless, Dutch and Serbian participants will be chosen regardless of race and religion. Furthermore, age will represent an essential parameter of this sample frame. Compared to previous literature on controversial advertisements, age is included in the analysis more by authors nowadays (Mansour & Eljelly, 2017). Also, age has become vital to marketing and all its activities. In more depth, the age group ranging from 22 to 33 was the most represented in this field, demonstrating significant presence on social media channels and being curious to find news about companies they like on these channels (Fekete-Farkas et al., 2021).

Similarly, members of age groups ranging from 18 to 35 became very prominent players in the market, highly educated, and had high confidence and education skills (Philips & Stanton, 2004). Finally, it was also witnessed that younger generations positively perceive controversial advertisements compared to older ones (Mansour & Eljelly, 2017). Considering all these arguments, the chosen age group for participants from The Netherlands and Serbia will range from 18 to 35.

3.2.2 Sample Design

Regarding sampling design, Erasmus University Rotterdam advised that the number of participants for a between-subject experiment should be 90, containing around 30 participants per group (Janssen & Verboord, 2022-2023). The same lower limit of 30 participants was also recognized in other literature (Hill, 1998). Similarly, Brysbaert (2019) mentioned that the sample size between-subject experiments should be at least 100, while the number drops to around 55 for a within-subject experiment. Therefore, it can be stated that within-subject experiments can have the same outcomes as between-subject ones with twice as fewer participants (Budiu, 2018). Additionally, by having at least 50 participants in a within-subject experiment, 80% power in experimental research is achieved (Brysbaert, 2019). Not just in this article, the same 80% mark is deemed by other academics to represent the success rate of an experiment (Bellemare et al., 2014). Therefore, a within-subject experiment will be used for this research, but it will still contain two groups, participants from The Netherlands and Serbia. By following the guidelines below, the expectation would be to have at least 30 participants from Serbia and The Netherlands, leading to a minimum number of 60 participants ($N = 60$). Moreover, an equal representation of male and female participants is expected to avoid having gender-biased or one-sided results.

Finally, the importance of having a sampling strategy is very high in an academic paper, and the choice can be mainly made between probability and non-probability types. Here, the latter allows anyone from a broader population to be included in this process (Rahman et al., 2022). Therefore, a person conducting the analysis for which the participants are single-handedly chosen represents the primary function of non-probability sampling (Stratton, 2021). As such, the idea will be the same for this thesis, in which two non-probability types of sampling will be used, purposive and snowball. The purposive type is used when the choice of participants stems from an individual's preferences (Klar & Leeper, 2019).

Nonetheless, academia considers this sampling type an ideal choice when cultural matters need to be analyzed, and knowledgeable participants from them can participate in the

research (Tongco, 2007). Furthermore, it allows for generating concrete and detailed answers from desired societal groups (Rai & Thapa, 2015). On the other hand, the snowball sample type gained more prominence due to the ability to involve more participants in research. With this method, participants who fit the scope and purposes of the study can further ask similar participants to be a part of that study and give their answers (Dusek et al., 2015). Additionally, the snowball type can target and cover groups in society with specific characteristics that are challenging to reach (Dragan & Isaic-Maniu, 2013).

3.3 Pre-Test

The decision to conduct a pre-test was twofold. Firstly, participants ranked the level of controversy for all nine chosen advertisements, out of which three were chosen for the main experiment. Furthermore, based on the results, these three were classified as the lowest, medium, and highest controversial advertisements. The pre-test questionnaire used can be found in Appendix A.

At the beginning of the pre-test, the participants were first provided with the definition of controversial advertisements and asked if they were already familiar with this term. The ones who chose "No" were immediately brought to the end of the questionnaire, while the ones choosing "Yes" were able to see nine different controversial advertisements containing either racist visuals, sexist visuals, or visuals of stereotyping. In more detail, the advertisements chosen were from "*Dove*," "*BIC*," "*Burger King*," "*Heineken*," "*Van Heusen*," "*Mr. Clean*," "*Nivea*," "*Nike*," and "*Schlig*." The answers were collected using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." All nine advertisements included in this pre-test were deemed to be controversial by both academic and newspaper articles.

The results collected from participants allowed for completing one more key objective of this pre-test: to have three advertisements classified as either low, medium or highly controversial. An overview of which three advertisements were chosen and the results that backed up this choice will be kept for the upcoming chapter. For now, it is essential to mention that the differences in the levels of controversy will again be tested in the main experiment, this time having the role of a manipulation check.

Regarding the pre-test structure, 20 participants (N = 20) were initially chosen. However, only 18 participants (N = 18) finished this test, as two participants were excluded due to needing to be more familiar with the term controversial advertisements. This number was also in line with the literature findings on this topic, claiming that the pre-test participant number

should be 10 or 10% of the total participants from the primary analysis (Hertzog, 2008). Some authors also used 12 pre-test participants (Julious, 2005). Furthermore, all participants were Serbian and Dutch between 18 and 35 years of age, while the allocation was done using a non-probability purposive sampling type but avoiding the inclusion of family members or friends to obtain unbiased results.

3.4 Main Experiment

3.4.1 Sample

Based on the sample frame of this research, participants in the main experiment were supposed to answer three key sampling characteristics: nationality, age, and gender. Firstly, participants were asked to choose the country they lived in/were coming from. The two possible options were "Serbia" and "The Netherlands." Furthermore, the age target for this research was between 18 and 35. As such, a blank space was given to participants where they could input their ages. Finally, participants could input their gender, and the options given in the English version of the questionnaire were "male," "female," "non-binary/third gender," and "prefer not to say." On the other hand, due to the way how the question related to gender is phrased in Serbian questionnaires, the Serbian version contained "male," "female," and "other" options.

3.4.2 Operationalization

A vital task in a quantitative study is to measure specific topics or aspects that are not initially quantifiable, done through operationalization (Emmerich et al., 2016). Like in all other quantitative studies, several aspects from below will become measurable through operationalization.

3.4.2.1 Manipulation Check

The manipulation check question for this research will stem from the adapted version of the study by Waller (2004), which will be used to measure the level of controversy in chosen advertisements. Here, participants will be able to elaborate on the extent to which they find chosen sexist, racist, and stereotypical advertisements controversial, and this will be done by using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree." The results received will then be compared to understand if statistically significant differences in controversy levels in these advertisements exist and to witness if the manipulation check worked or not.

3.4.2.2 Purchase Intent

The consumers' purchase intent in this research will be measured using a newly created scale. The creation of this scale was based on the adaptation of previous ways how different authors

measure purchase intent. As such, this scale was formed by merging questions related to product purchasing and product recommendation. Firstly, Esch et al. (2006), in their study on consumer purchase intent of products, formulated a question to understand if consumers would keep purchasing a particular product. This question served as an inspiration for including a new question related to product purchasing in the experiment questionnaire. To explain this, after seeing the advertisements from the questionnaire, participants will be asked if they would still purchase the product advertised, and this will be done by using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree.” The same pattern was followed for product recommendations, not just purchasing. The article by Khadka and Maharjan (2017) analyzed multiple aspects of consumer behavior, including purchase intent and the relationship between consumers and companies. In their analysis, participants were asked on a five-point Likert scale if they would recommend a product from this analysis to others (Khadka & Maharjan, 2017). Again, a new question based on this one was included in the experiment questionnaire, asking if participants would recommend products from chosen controversial advertisements to other people, specifically to their friends and family. Like the one above, this question will be asked on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree."

3.4.3 Stimulus Material

The three advertisements chosen for the main experiment questionnaire were the advertisements by “*Dove*,” “*Van Heusen*,” and “*Burger King*.”

In “*Dove*,” the brand's shampoo was advertised by two female models of black and white races. However, this advertisement contained racist visuals since the black female model turned into the white one after using the brand's product. Therefore, the idea of this advertisement and its visuals were meant to depict the racist controversy type to participants.

The advertisement by “*Van Heusen*” demonstrated an imbalanced male-female gender relationship in which the female brought food to her male counterpart, making her look inferior. Additionally, the wordplay used in this advertisement deepened this gap. As such, the sexist visuals and elements in the advertisement by “*Van Heusen*” aligned with the usual representation of sexism and were used to cue participants to understand the advertisement and trigger their reaction.

Finally, the advertisement by “*Burger King*” contained elements of stereotyping. In the advertisement by this global food producer, a Tweet written from their side about a common

stereotype about the female population and their role as a "housewife" was shown. Like with sexist representation, this advertisement was linked closely to the representation of stereotypes in advertisements and explained this controversy type to participants who saw it.

3.4.4 Procedure

The main experiment questionnaire was created on the online platform Qualtrics. It was finalized and launched on May 14th and closed on May 18th. During these four days, all the needed responses from both Serbian and Dutch participants were gathered. Due to having two groups of participants, the questionnaire was offered in Serbian and Dutch languages accordingly. Nonetheless, the structure and core purpose of this questionnaire was the same in both language versions; hence there were no significant differences in questions and meaning, which would trigger different cultural responses or results.

In terms of procedure, the first step was to reach out to initial participants, and this was done by sending the questionnaire link on WhatsApp. The initial participants to whom the questionnaire link was sent and those included in the snowball sampling type received this link on WhatsApp. As such, they were immediately redirected to Qualtrics and the questionnaire's beginning. The first page showed the welcome message, the approximate duration to fill in this questionnaire, and the information related to consent. As mentioned, the complete anonymity of participants was secured while they were asked to fill in this questionnaire honestly and openly. Also, they were able to stop participating at any point. The last information on this page related to navigating Qualtrics and this experiment questionnaire.

Finally, participants were asked if they agreed with all the information from above, and by clicking "I agree," they could continue with this questionnaire. The following page was simple; participants had to fill in the demographics data in the previous "Demographics" sub-chapter. The third one was used to kick off this experiment compared to previous pages. Participants were firstly provided with the definition of controversial advertisements and taught the three most common controversy types in advertisements. To make this definition even easier to understand, a famous controversial advertisement by "Benetton" was placed below the definition. After reading and seeing the advertisements, participants were asked if they understood the meaning and the definition of controversial advertisements. Participants who chose "Yes" were allowed to participate, while those who chose "No" were sent to the end of the questionnaire.

Moreover, participants were supposed to answer to a group of initial questions. The idea was first to understand how participants connect controversial advertisements to their emotions, brand perception, and purchase intent. Furthermore, how controversial they perceive these controversy types to be and how much they can influence their emotions. Of all these questions, only the ones related to purchase intent were the focus of this research. Questions related to emotions, brand perception, and whether stopping these advertisements from being broadcasted was a justified decision were included to distract participants and steer them away from guessing the real purpose of this experiment. As such, the cover story for this experiment was ensured. The same questions were kept on the following page, but they were posed for each advertisement chosen for this experiment. After finishing this part, the initial questions about controversial advertisements in general and their influence on emotions, perception, and purchase intent were brought up again. The same questions were used to understand if the answers would significantly differ after participants had seen the three advertisements. At the end of the questionnaire, participants were thanked for participating and asked one last question to briefly elaborate on the research's primary purpose and fundamental reason. To conclude, the full version of this questionnaire can be found in Appendix C.

3.5 Reliability and Validity

An academic paper's objective and explicit nature is established when reliable and valid. Therefore, these two aspects are essential pieces in academic writing and allow for providing argumentation and results that are concise and accurate (Mohajan, 2017).

In theory, a particular measurement is reliable when the results remain the same, even if the analysis gets repeated multiple times (Krieglstein et al., 2022). To ensure reliability, having a too-homogenous sample, having no balanced questions in terms of difficulty, and needing more questions in quantity must be avoided (Thanasegaran, 2009). Therefore, only age will be considered when choosing participants from The Netherlands and Serbia, while there will be no further clustering of race and gender, avoiding a homogenous sample accordingly. Furthermore, reliability was additionally ensured by including a pre-test. At first, only the views of knowledgeable participants on controversial advertisements were considered. In the end, most participants successfully understood what controversial advertisements are and indicated the level of controversy in these advertisements. As such, the pre-test was clear to participants, which was another critical condition of reliability to be fulfilled (Drost, 2011). This pre-test also helped with understanding how many questions the main experiment should have and how difficult they should be, while globally used 5-point Likert scales were included

to make it easier for academics to repeat this study in the future. Additionally, 5-point Likert scales will also be used in the main experiment.

Before closing the topic of reliability, it is also important to mention another critical challenge that must be avoided: bias. With a reliable study, it is possible to limit the involvement of bias in the analysis (Fitzner, 2007). Nonetheless, relying on purposive and snowball sampling types opens the door for this negative occurrence. However, the former type is still the top choice for academic researchers, while the latter is helpful when non-ordinary topics are analyzed (Acharya et al., 2013). Moreover, nonprobability sampling types generate needed results within advertising fields (Tehrani et al., 2016). Lastly, this sample type is the most adequate for online surveys, and increased use of these surveys contributed to more frequent use of nonprobability sampling by academia (Lenau et al., 2021). Therefore, due to being more accessible to conduct than probability sampling, the nonprobability type became the go-to option for various online market analyses (Gittelman et al., 2015). Finally, it is also essential to include the aspect of sample size in the discussion about reliability. As mentioned, the expected sample size for this research will be 80 ($N = 80$), larger than suggested in the literature analyzed in the previous sub-chapter that dealt with the within-subject design. As such, having more people for this experiment will generate more replies, making the results more reliable.

Moving forward, understanding how closely the analysis measures or captures a particular factor is used to check whether the study is valid. The mentioned validity of a study is two-fold, both external and internal. External validity is achieved if the results can also be applied to other participants or occasions. Moreover, internal validity is fulfilled when the analysis is purely the reason for receiving specific results (Roberts et al., 2006).

The challenge lies in establishing validity when using purposive and snowball sampling types. Firstly, a detailed depiction of the broader population cannot be generated when relying on nonprobability types (McEwan, 2020). Furthermore, having higher rates of purposive sampling in a study cause lower external validity (Andrade, 2020). Similarly, the critical pitfall of the snowball sampling type is its connection to bias (Acharya et al., 2013). Nonetheless, nonprobability sampling types can still be used to explain the general characteristics of the population analyzed. At the same time, their combination with online tools like Qualtrics can reach out to wider groups of people and boost validity levels (McEwan, 2020). Usually, nonprobability types work better with internal validity, but purposive sampling can generate

higher external validity if it covers correct and representative samples (Tongco, 2007). Not just sampling, other structural aspects will also contribute to the increased validity of this study. In the main experiment, independent variables will clearly be explained to participants, so the influence on the dependent one can be as direct as possible.

Furthermore, the participation will be completely anonymous, allowing participants to answer freely and honestly all the questions. Finally, the scales used and how certain variables will be measured chiefly derive from already written academic literature on this topic. By relying on universal measures and values, this research can be replicated multiple times in the future to test and receive new results. Moreover, the ability to do this also increases the validity of this research.

3.6 Data Analysis

Statistical processing and data analysis was done using IBM SPSS (Statistical Package of Social Science) version 28. For this analysis, descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample and answers to the cover story question, independent sample t-tests and repeated measures ANOVA were used for analyzing the manipulation check, three hypotheses, and gender analysis. Finally, the significance value used in this research was 0.05.

4 Results

The results chapter will be kicked off by demonstrating results from the pre-test. Afterward, broader information about the sample response for the main experiment will be shared, along with participants' sociodemographic characteristics such as gender, age, and country of residence. Additionally, more focus will be placed on the analysis, namely on the reliability of key measured variables, manipulation check, cover story results, and results for every hypothesis. Finally, it is essential to mention that questions related to emotions, perception, and the decision to ban these advertisements were not the focus of this research. They were mainly used as cover story questions to steer participants away from guessing the right research goals.

4.1 Pre-Test Results

The total number of participants, 18 ($N = 18$), were all asked to answer the question related to the extent to which they found the advertisements from the pre-test controversial. As such, this pre-test aimed to analyze these replies and choose three advertisements with the lowest, medium, and highest controversy levels. The one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) which was conducted, revealed statistically significant differences between the pre-test advertisements, $F(8, 18) = 4.37, p < .001$. From the advertisements chosen, which are also seen in Table 4.1., Ad 4 by “Dove” and Ad 5 by “Burger King” differed significantly, $p < .001$. Therefore, these two were chosen as the highest and lowest controversial advertisements for the main experiment, judging by their mean values.

On the other hand, Ad 2 by “Van Heusen” did not differ significantly from the lowest controversial one, $p = .175$. Also, it did not differ significantly from the highest controversial one, $p = .604$. Nonetheless, it was still chosen as a medium controversy level advertisement due to its mean value belonging to the medium controversy range. The full results of the one-way ANOVA test can be found in Appendix B.

Table 4.1. *Differences in controversy levels between three chosen pre-test advertisements ($N = 18$)*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Ad 5 (Burger King)	4.39 ^a	0.97
Ad 2 (Van Heusen)	3.67 ^{ab}	1.18
Ad 4 (Dove)	2.67 ^b	1.08

Means with different superscripts differ significantly, $p < .05$

4.2 Sample Response

The total number of participants for the final analysis was 80 ($N = 80$) (Appendix D). Still, the number of initial replies received to this questionnaire was 90 ($N = 90$). However, the results have shown that 10 participants, or 9% of the total participant number, could figure out the

fundamental purpose of this research based on the overview of the answers to the cover story question. The purpose of including this question was to see if participants understood what this research was about. In the end, these ten got excluded from the final count.

Nonetheless, even after excluding 10 participants, the sample size was still 80 ($N = 80$). Furthermore, this number exceeded the initial expectations and fulfilled this research's needed sample size requirements. Despite the initial expectation of having at least 60 participants, the decision to take more participants was to build stronger and more reliable results.

4.3 Cover Story Results

All the participants' thoughts on the purpose of this research can be seen in Chart 4.3. (Appendix D). Most of the participants thought the critical research topic was to understand which advertisement types were the most controversial (17%), followed by the influence of controversial advertisements on consumer behavior (13.75%), influence on the perception of a particular brand (12.50%), and the kind of perception consumers have of controversial advertisements (12.50%). Judging by the fact that only 10 participants out of 80 managed to guess the real purpose of this research, the cover story strategy and questions used for it can be considered successful.

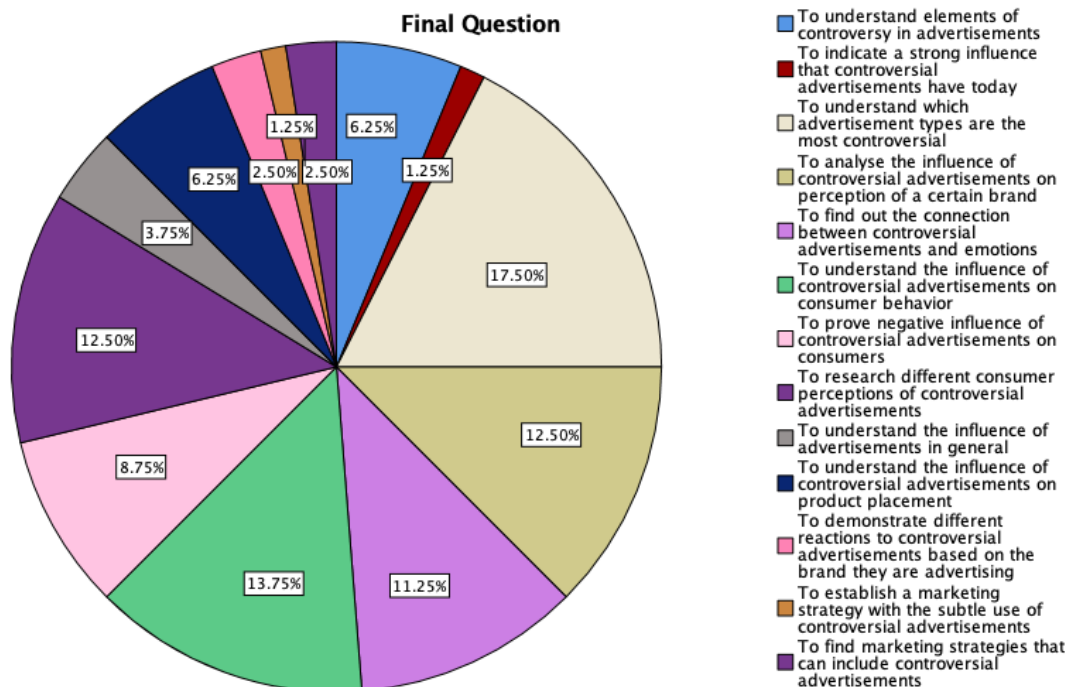


Chart 4.3. Research Goals ($N = 80$)

4.4 Sociodemographic Overview

In terms of the sociodemographic structure of this research, the number of people who participated in the main experiment questionnaire was 80, out of which 41 were female and 39 were male. In contrast, the number of participants from both countries was equal (Table 4.4). Furthermore, the youngest participant was 20 years old, while the oldest was 35, with an average age of 26.75 ($SD = 4.11$). A full sociodemographic overview can also be found in Appendix D.

Table 4.4. *Sociodemographic characteristic of participants (N = 80)*

	Frequency	Percentage [%]
Gender		
Male	39	48.8
Female	41	51.2
Country		
The Netherlands	40	50
Serbia	40	50

4.5 Reliability Analysis

As mentioned in the operationalization sub-chapter, two key variables that were measured in this research were controversy levels and purchase intent. Therefore, reliability analyses were conducted for these two variables.

To begin with, the newly created variable “Manipulation Check” was established by combining a scale that measured the controversy levels of all three advertisements. Before computing this variable in SPSS, the reliability analysis was run, and the value received for Cronbach’s Alpha was $\alpha=0.74$ (Appendix E). Furthermore, the same approach was taken for the variable "Purchase Intent," which was formed by combining two new scales, "Product Purchase" and "Product Recommendation." Firstly, these two variables were tested separately to see if their reliabilities were sufficient. As such, Cronbach's Alpha values received were $\alpha=0.71$ and $\alpha=0.63$, respectively (Appendix E). The next step was to combine the two to form the needed "Purchase Intent" variable. When combined, reliability was tested again, and Cronbach's Alpha value received was $\alpha=0.93$ (Appendix E). As it is claimed by Ursachi et al. (2015) that variables found between the 0.6 and 0.7 levels are deemed to be acceptable, and all the reliability tests for these variables were successful and reliable.

4.6 Manipulation Check

At first, the pre-test was used to compare controversy levels of chosen advertisements and to understand whether statistically significant differences existed. This analysis showed that only the highest and lowest controversial advertisements differed significantly. The same strategy was kept in the main experiment, but this time, it had the role of a manipulation check question. Therefore, the values from Table 4.6. indicate that participants chose advertisement three by “Burger King” to be the most controversial, followed by advertisement two by "Van Heusen" and advertisement one by "Dove."

Furthermore, comparing these controversy levels and investigating if they differed significantly was done by conducting a one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA), which found no statistically significant differences between them, $F(2, 80) = 1.07, p = .347$. Advertisement one and Advertisement two did not differ significantly, $p = .986$. Advertisement one and Advertisement three did not differ significantly, $p = .377$. Finally, advertisements two and three did not differ significantly, $p = .468$. The manipulation check results can also be found in Appendix F.

Table 4.6. *Differences in Controversy Levels – Manipulation Check (N = 80)*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Burger King	4.36 ^a	0.95
Van Heusen	4.17 ^a	1.05
Dove	4.15 ^a	1.00

4.7 Controversy Types and Purchase Intent

This sub-chapter will show the analysis done for the first hypothesis of this research, which aims to investigate the difference in influences of controversial advertisements with racist, sexist, and stereotyping visuals on the purchase intent of products from these advertisements. For these results to be received, the repeated measures ANOVA was conducted, and it revealed that these three controversy types significantly influenced the purchase intent of products from these advertisements, $F(2, 77) = 11.99, p < .001$. Therefore, these three controversy types' influences on the purchase intent of controversially advertised products significantly differed. Additionally, a paired samples t-test was performed to reveal where the mentioned significance was. As seen in Table 4.7., the purchase intent of the product by "Dove" ($M = 2.53, SD = 0.97$) was significantly higher than the purchase intent of the product by "Van Heusen," ($M = 2.08, SD = 0.96$), $t(79) = 4.01, p < .001$. However, this was not the case when compared to the purchase intent of the product by "Burger King," ($M = 2.44, SD = 0.94$), $t(79)$

= .67, $p = .505$ Finally, the purchase intent of the product by "Van Heusen" was also significantly lower than the one the product by "Burger King," $t(79) = -3.75, p < .001$. To conclude, the first hypothesis generated for this research was **H1**: Controversial advertisements with racist visuals influence consumers' purchase intent of products controversially advertised more than the other two types of visuals. Considering that racist and sexist visual differed significantly, but racist and stereotyping did not, the first hypothesis will have to be rejected. Finally, full results of repeated measures ANOVA and paired samples t-test can be found in Appendix G and Appendix H.

Table 4.7. *Controversy Type and Purchase Intent – Hypothesis 1 (N = 80)*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Dove	2.53 ^a	0.97
Burger King	2.44 ^a	0.94
Van Heusen	2.08 ^b	0.96

Means with different superscripts differ significantly, $p < .05$

4.8 Country Type and Purchase Intent

Moving forward, the analysis in this sub-chapter was conducted to understand if significant statistical differences existed between the purchase intent of products controversially advertised and the country from which the participants came. With the results generated from this analysis, the second hypothesis could be accepted or rejected. For these results to be received, an independent samples t-test was conducted, and it revealed a statistically significant difference between the countries and purchase intent, with participants from Serbia showing significantly higher purchase intent of products controversially advertised ($M = 2.52, SD = 0.82$) than participants from The Netherlands ($M = 2.18, SD = 0.66$), $t(78) = -2.06, p < .043$ (Table 4.8.). As previously mentioned, the investigation of the connection between the country type and purchase intent was linked to hypothesis **H2**: The type of a country has an influence on consumers' purchase intent of products controversially advertised. Considering the results above, this hypothesis can be accepted. Additionally, the results of the independent samples t-test can be found in Appendix I.

Table 4.8. *Country Type and Purchase Intent – Hypothesis 2 (N = 80)*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
The Netherlands	2.18 ^a	0.66
Serbia	2.52 ^b	0.82

Means with different superscripts differ significantly, $p < .05$

4.9 Controversy Types and Purchase Intent in Serbia and The Netherlands

Finally, this sub-chapter was written to show the results received for the third hypothesis of this research, which covered the interaction effect between the two hypotheses. As such, the goal was to investigate if controversy types influence the purchase intent of participants from one country more than that of participants from the other. To understand if this hypothesis can be accepted or rejected, repeated measures ANOVA was conducted again, and it did not reveal a significantly higher influence of these controversy types on the purchase intent of participants from one country than on the purchase intent of participants from the other $F(2, 77) = 1.51, p = .228$. Therefore, controversy types were not a variable that would have a significantly different influence on the two purchase intents. Nonetheless, an independent samples t-test was done to understand the influences of these controversy types individually. The results in Table 4.9 show that Serbian participants ($M = 2.81, SD = 0.94$) had higher purchase intent of the product by “Dove” than Dutch participants ($M = 2.24, SD = 0.93$), $t(78) = -2.75, p = .007$. On the other hand, no significant difference in the purchase intent of product by “Burger king” was witnessed between Serbian participants ($M = 2.24, SD = 1.01$) and Dutch participants ($M = 1.91, SD = 0.85$), $t(78) = -1.56, p = .123$. Finally, the same pattern was witnessed in the purchase intent of product by “Van Heusen,” between Serbian ($M = 2.50, SD = 1.04$) and Dutch participants ($M = 2.38, SD = 0.70$), $t(78) = -.58, p = .565$. As such, only controversial advertisements with racist visuals had significantly different influences on the purchase intents of the two groups. To conclude, the assumption that was taken in the third hypothesis was **H3**: Controversial advertisements with racist visuals, sexist visuals, and visual of stereotyping influence the intent of Serbian consumers to purchase products controversially advertised more than the intent of Dutch consumers to purchase products controversially advertised. Nonetheless, considering the results above, the third hypothesis, like the first one, must be rejected. Lastly, the full results of the repeated measures ANOVA and an independent samples t-test can be found in Appendix G and Appendix J.

Table 4.9. *Controversy Types and Purchase Intent in Serbia and The Netherlands – Hypothesis 3 (N = 80)*

	The Netherlands (N=40)		Serbia (N=40)		<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Dove ^a	2.24	0.93	2.81	0.94	.007
Burger King ^b	1.91	0.85	2.24	1.01	.565
Van Heusen ^b	2.38	0.70	2.50	1.04	.123

Means with different superscripts differ significantly, $p < .05$

4.10 Additional Analysis

For additional analysis done, another sub-chapter was added. Even though these variables were not brought up in the literature review or methodology, the results pointed out some interesting insights that could be used for future research. As such, the analysis between controversy types, purchase intent, and gender will be presented below. These results were received using an independent samples t-test and revealed several significant differences between genders. Firstly, male participants perceived racist visuals to be less controversial ($M = 2.33, SD = 0.69$) than female participants ($M = 2.67, SD = 0.69$), $t(78) = -2.21, p = .030$. Also, for sexist visuals, male participants perceived them as less controversial ($M = 3.35, SD = 0.65$) than female participants ($M = 3.80, SD = 0.64$), $t(78) = -3.11, p = .003$. Like the two, stereotyping visuals were less controversial for the male group ($M = 3.40, SD = 0.88$) than the female group ($M = 4.07, SD = 0.66$), $t(78) = -3.86, p < .001$. Lastly, male participants showed higher purchase intent of these products ($M = 2.59, SD = 0.82$) than female participants ($M = 2.11, SD = 0.62$), $t(78) = 2.94, p = .004$. The overview of these differences can also be found in Table 4.10. Considering the results received, the male population scored lower on all controversy types and purchase intent than females, and these insights will be additionally emphasized in the following chapter. Finally, the results for the independent samples t-test done can be found in Appendix K.

Table 4.10. *Controversy Types, Purchase Intent and Gender – Additional Analysis (N = 80)*

	Male (N=39)		Female (N=41)		<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Racism ^a	2.33	0.69	2.67	0.69	.030
Sexism ^b	3.35	0.65	3.80	0.64	.003
Stereotypes ^c	3.40	0.88	4.07	0.66	<.001
Purchase Intent ^d	2.59	0.82	2.11	0.62	.004

Means with different superscripts differ significantly, $p < .05$

5 Discussion and Conclusions

Witnessing how consumers' interest in traditional advertising started declining, advertisers established a new trend and moved toward using controversial advertisements more. After the advertisements by Benetton, who are deemed to be the pioneers of controversial advertising, many renowned brands worldwide began building their marketing campaigns on the use of controversial advertisements (Kuan, 2018; Sandikci, 2011). As such, one crucial goal outlined for this strategy was for brands to create more buzz around their products, and by making their advertisements more remarkable than the ones from their competitors, the idea was to leave an imprint on consumers (Patterson et al., 2009).

Despite these efforts, controversial advertisements are still sparking a debate on the extent to which their influence can change consumers' perception of a brand and their intent to purchase products controversially advertised. The literature frequently discussed this topic, and the views still need to be revised. On the one hand, authors like Sabri (2017) and Singh and Chalal (2020) firmly opposed how they perceive controversial advertisements. In their view, these advertisements negatively influence consumer purchase intent of products controversially advertised. On the other, Waller (2004) and Parry et al. (2013) pointed to a positive effect of these advertisements on brand perception and increased sales of products controversially advertised. Due to different views on this topic, a conclusion derived from multiple articles was first to understand which consumer groups can find these advertisements highly offensive and how to run these advertisements and achieve desired goals properly (Perić & Savić, 2020).

Nonetheless, Efrat et al. (2021) clarified that understanding this approach is what needs to be added to the literature. With this literature gap in place, the insights obtained from this research could benefit both academic and societal spheres linked to this topic. Also, to explain why this could be the case, an overview will be given on the outcomes of three generated hypotheses and the links these outcomes have with previous literature.

Firstly, the general goal of the first hypothesis was to compare the influence of three controversy types on the purchase intent of controversially advertised products. Here, a plethora of authors emphasized the frequency of racist visuals in controversial advertisements and the most substantial influence they have on the purchase intent mentioned above (Waller, 2004; Machova et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2016; Farrell, 2012; Ghani & Ahmad, 2015). However, the results from this research have shown that this was different. Additionally, an

interesting finding was that sexist visuals had a more substantial influence than stereotyping visuals but lower than racist ones, which indeed aligns with literature views on the mixed influences that this controversy type has (Andersson & Schytt, 2017; Gramazio et al., 2020; Lysonski & Pollay, 1990; Trivedi & Teichert, 2021). Finally, the influence of stereotyping visuals on purchase intent was lower than two other controversy types, hence not in line with literature findings claiming that it carries significance (Bermúdez-González et al., 2021; Gordon & Furnham, 2021). These results can be interpreted in different ways; on the one hand, they bring a new balance of power between the three controversy types, something not seen in the literature before. On the other hand, the first hypothesis was rejected, and the results only partially reflected the literature findings on which it was based. Due to this, the outcome could have been better when looking through the validity lenses.

Unlike the first hypothesis, the results for the second hypothesis were more straightforward. Namely, participants from The Netherlands and Serbia came from different cultural dimensions, but their purchase intent of controversially advertised products differed significantly. Therefore, no more considerable discrepancies were witnessed from what multiple authors claimed (An & Kim, 2006; Chan et al., 2007; Trigo, 2019). Having a second hypothesis that was confirmed by showing how cultural dimensions differently influence the perception and purchase intent of controversially advertised products also contributed to the reliability and validity of this research.

The results generated for the interaction effect captured in the third hypothesis also gave some interesting insights. However, these results cannot be thoroughly compared to previous literature, as a limited comparison between controversy types, cultural dimensions, and purchase intent was made in Europe (Engelbart et al., 2017). However, many authors firmly supported the view that collectivistic cultures have a more negative perception of these advertisements and decreased purchase intent of products from them (Choi & Miracle, 2004; Machova et al., 2015; Sağlam & Abdullahi, 2021; Sawang, 2010). On the contrary, this analysis revealed that participants from Serbia had higher purchase intent of products advertised by all three controversy types. Nonetheless, these results did not differ significantly from the purchase intent of Dutch participants; hence the existence of a different overview from the one outlined in the literature on this topic cannot be fully claimed. Like with the first one, the rejection of the third negatively impacted the validity of this study.

When formulating research hypotheses, it is crucial to have extensive and available literature that can be used as a baseline. However, existing literature that combines all the variables and critical aspects of this research was scarce, making hypothesis generation more challenging. The three formulated hypotheses combined literature insights and assumptions taken from them. In the end, two of them were rejected as they brought results contrary to literature views and impacted this study's validity. Another impact on validity came from the outcome of the manipulation check, and the reason for this is that a successful manipulation check contributes to the validity of a study (Fiedler et al., 2021).

Nevertheless, several factors still positively influenced the reliability of this study, namely the consistency of controversy levels. It was seen from the pre-test, and the main experiment results that these levels were ranked similarly by participants included in smaller and bigger sample sizes. Finally, the critical variables measured and used for this research all had Cronbach's alpha values above the needed threshold outlined by the academia, thus making them reliable.

5.1 Study Limitations

Despite a significant contribution to the existing literature on controversial advertisements and the purchase intent of products controversially advertised, the conducted research also had its limitations.

Firstly, one limitation of this study was the unsuccessful manipulation check due to not finding any significant differences between the three controversy levels. Since this research was within the scope of a master's thesis, the selection of advertisements for the experiment was purely based on not choosing the ones that were too controversial or too explicit. Therefore, visuals showing explicitly violent, sexist, or socially unacceptable behavior were greatly avoided. Additionally, showing participants these kinds of visuals could have offended some of them. Still, showing more controversial advertisements would likely lead to different results and significant differences between these controversy levels. With this outcome, the manipulation check could have been successful, and the reliability and validity of this study were further demonstrated and confirmed.

Another limitation of this study was the previous popularity of the three advertisements; very famous brands made them, and they were circulating on social media platforms for some time. As such, some participants might have already seen these advertisements before and built pre-defined views and standpoints on these advertisements. Due to this, some of their answers

could have been biased, threatening this study's validity. Another impact on the validity of this research was the inability to fully monitor and prevent participants from consulting each other while filling in the answers. In this scenario, the answers given would not be entirely objective. To maintain an objective level of this research, the same procedure of filling in the experiment questionnaire for all the participants was established, and no communication with participants about their participation was made beforehand. Additionally, securing objectivity would also positively reflect on the validity of this study.

Keeping a homogenous sample regarding participants' age and gender was both a positive and a limitation. On the one hand, comparing the same number of participants from The Netherlands and Serbia belonging to the same age and gender group contributed to highly valid results. The reliability was also secured since repeating the study in the future with keeping these demographic parameters should yield the same results. Nonetheless, the equal split of gender and age does still not represent an entirely accurate demographic picture of Serbia and The Netherlands. Conducting a study that would not have a homogenous sample would lead to even more valid results. However, it would hurt the reliability of the study as comparing broader and different demographic parameters will offer different results. Finally, the participants from Serbia are ethnically and racially homogenous, with similar cultural values. On the contrary, the participants from the Netherlands were not autochthonously Dutch but also belonged to different religions and nations, with higher differences in cultural values. Therefore, the broader cultural milieu of participants also improved the study's validity but reduced its reliability.

Linking to the previous paragraph, despite the prominence of Hofstede's model and its imprint on the literature about culture and its dimensions, more of its shortcomings are slowly being revealed. Authors like Beugelsdijk, Maseland, and van Hoorn (2015) clarified that Hofstede's model was based on information gathered during the late 1960s and early 1970s. Therefore, it only represents a partially valid model nowadays for judging and labeling the cultural dimensions of a country. Moreover, the economic progress made by developing and emerging countries, along with their proximity to developed countries, is not linked to developments in cultural characteristics. Therefore, the results could be distorted from reality, specifically for Serbia as a country currently on this journey. With all these insights, Hofstede's model can also be considered a limitation of this study. Nevertheless, it is still a widely used model, and it can be easily applied to generate new received and compare them with the ones from this study, hence pointing to the reliability of this research.

5.2 Future Suggestions

If similar research is going to be conducted in the future, several suggestions for the new model can be given. As a starting point, if three advertisements for every controversy type are shown, it will be essential to use more controversial advertisements. Furthermore, the pre-test can also contain a higher number of advertisements, giving participants more options to rate, leading to the selection of even more representative advertisements. Additionally, this would contribute to more substantial validity of that research and improved results, specifically regarding manipulation checks.

An additional aspect that future researchers can consider is the bigger sample size. Not just further strengthening the validity and reliability of that study, but it also gives more room for additional comparisons. Participants can be asked if they are already familiar with the advertisements chosen for that study, and the ones that replied affirmatively could be excluded from further consideration. Similarly, if asked beforehand, the ones who vocalized their high purchase intent of products from controversial advertisements even before seeing the ones chosen for the research can also be excluded. Lastly, choosing participants that are not familiar with each other would also be a way to reduce the level of bias and cooperation in answering the experiment questions.

The results for the connection between gender, controversy types, and purchase intent can also be used to suggest how to build a future research model. Comparing Serbia and The Netherlands, the participants differed significantly for each key variable of this research. On top of that, the male population was the one that had a milder reaction to controversial advertisements than the female one. Therefore, these insights can be used as a baseline for further analysis of controversial advertisements and genders globally and between these two countries. Including also gender in the mix gives a more realistic demographic overview of these countries. Finally, gender results are also backed up by literature findings, and the one by De Souza (2020) mentioned that besides cultural dimensions, age, and gender are of essential value. Additionally, another connection to results on gender is that the literature claims that female participants are more sensitive to offensive content from controversial advertisements (De Souza, 2020; Singh & Chalal, 2020).

It is also important to mention that having similar pre-test and main experiment results regarding controversy levels and using new scales built on corresponding ones from the literature increased the reliability of this study. Using this baseline as a guideline, future researchers can replicate the model and build their research direction on top of it.

To conclude with Hofstede's model, the way to avoid potential pitfalls and shortcomings could be to involve more countries with corresponding values for analyzed cultural dimensions. Not just contributing to the validity of that study but having countries that are highly multi-ethnic or multi-racial could be split into a couple of participant groups that can be compared to each other or participants from other countries. Also, to keep the research scope open, an idea could also be to expand the number of cultural dimensions analyzed, making a suitable cross-comparison study.

5.3 Academic and Societal Relevance

This sub-chapter will be used to outline the contribution of this research to academic and societal spheres.

The research proved that there is no universal modern or a pattern that helps controversial advertisements influence the purchase intent of products controversially advertised. On the contrary, multiple demographic and cultural factors, with consumers' previous experiences, are causing an individual reaction. Therefore, controversial advertisements should not be directed toward the general population but rather at a particular consumer group, including a clear definition of its characteristics.

Moreover, what is essential to be pointed out is the limited number of articles in the literature that analyzed the importance of recommending the purchase of products controversially advertised to other people. Therefore, this research also included this variable as part of a more significant variable called purchase intent. Considering the important role of the variable product recommendation, a piece of advice would be to use this variable in the future when purchase intent is tested. Additionally, the advice that can be extracted from this study is for companies to closely monitor how consumers react to their products on social media and other communication platforms. With this overview, they can understand better if consumers are positively or negatively talking about their product or even recommending their family and friends to purchase it.

The hypothesis that contributes the most to academic and societal spheres is the third hypothesis. As a first step, Hofstede's model clearly outlined that The Netherlands is an individualistic, low power distance culture. On the contrary, Serbia is a collectivistic, high power distance culture. Relying on previous authors who clarified that a difference exists between the purchase intent of products controversially advertised between these two cultural types, the direction was taken for the third hypothesis, indicating that Serbian participants'

purchase intent is more influenced by these advertisements than one of the Dutch participants. However, the results did not prove this assumption, and several reasons exist. Firstly, the gap in the literature on the connection between these variables in Europe, Serbia, and The Netherlands tends to mislead authors when formulating their hypotheses. Therefore, this study can be used to fill in that gap on an academic level. Secondly, as mentioned in the limitations sub-chapter, Serbia is undergoing significant economic and cultural development, which brings the country closer to individualistic countries in Europe. Considering the higher prominence controversial advertisements will have in the future, and the further development of these countries, wider academic circles can use these findings as a stepping stone to investigate this topic more deeply.

Moreover, companies and advertising agencies from Serbia and The Netherlands can consider these results when building new marketing strategies. Knowing appropriate strategies for running controversial advertisements is precisely what the literature has been missing so far, and having a more detailed overview of how to use controversial advertisements can contribute to the rapid growth of marketing fields worldwide. Still, the final advice that can be given to academia and companies is to approach the topic of controversial advertisements and consider the individual, demographic, and cultural values of the population being targeted by them carefully and thoughtfully.

5.4 Conclusion

Despite a growing trend of companies and advertising agencies using controversial advertisements in their marketing campaigns, academia, and the public still need to focus more on this topic. Therefore, this research aimed to exploit this gap and bring new findings to the table by answering the question, "What is the influence of controversial advertisements on Serbian and Dutch consumers' purchase intent of products controversially advertised?" To give a final answer to this question, the influence of controversial advertisements, in this case racist, sexist, and stereotyping ones, on Serbian and Dutch purchase intent of products controversially advertised had to be revealed. The results showed that controversial advertisements with racist visuals did not significantly influence purchase intent more than those from the other two controversy types. On the other hand, a country's cultural dimensions indeed influence the purchase intent mentioned. Finally, when influenced by visuals from three controversial types, the purchase intent of Serbian and Dutch participants was similar. Based on these findings, the influence of controversial advertisements on Serbian and Dutch consumers' purchase intent of products controversially advertised was not found.

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Appendix

Appendix A: Pre-Test Survey

Controversial Advertisements Pre-Test

Start of Block: Intro

Intro Dear respondent,

Thank you for your interest in this research! I am inviting you to fill in a short questionnaire, in which you will be presented with nine controversial advertisements and one related scenario.

The questionnaire will take approximately five minutes to fill in. Please answer each question carefully and honestly. There are no right or wrong answers.

CONFIDENTIALITY OF DATA

All research data remain completely confidential and are collected in anonymous form. There will be no identification and no foreseeable risks or discomforts associated with participating in this research.

VOLUNTARY

If you now decide not to participate in this research, this will not affect you. If you decide to cease your cooperation while filling in the questionnaire, this will in no way affect you either. You can cease your cooperation without giving reasons.

FURTHER INFORMATION

If you have questions about this research, in advance or afterwards, you can contact:
Naum Grbic
456675ng@student.eur.nl

End of Block: Intro

Start of Block: Check

Consent If you understand the information above and freely consent to participate in this study, click on the "I agree" button below to start the questionnaire

I agree (1)

I do not agree (2)

Skip To: The end of survey if I do not agree is selected

End of Block: Check

Start of Block: Block 2

Definition Part I - Controversial Advertisements

Controversial advertisements are an advertising type known for the ability to provoke or offend one group of consumers. Usually, these advertisements are showing offensive content, disturbing content and unaccepted social behavior

Please indicate if you are familiar with the term "Controversial Advertisements"

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: The end of survey if No is selected

End of Block: Block 2

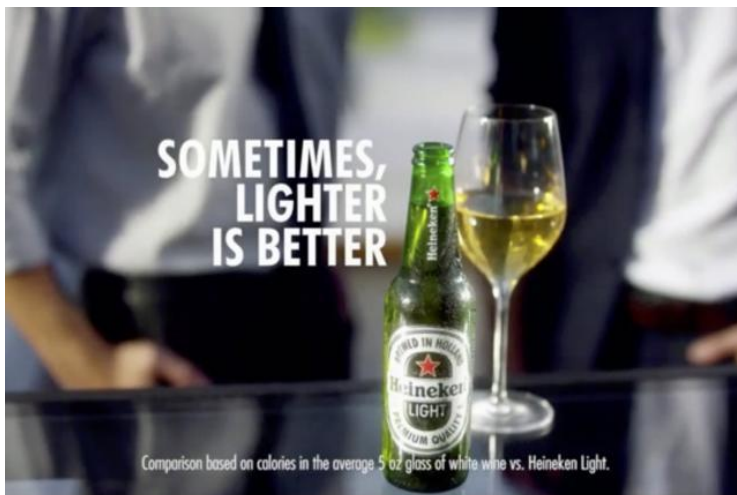
Start of Block: Prep

Q5 If yes, you will now be presented with nine different controversial advertisements and asked to share your perspective on how controversial they are

End of Block: Prep

Start of Block: Controversial Ads

Ad 1 Controversial Advertisement - Heineken



Question 1 I consider this advertisement to be controversial

- 1 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - 2 - Disagree (2)
 - 3 - Neutral (3)
 - 4 - Agree (4)
 - 5 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

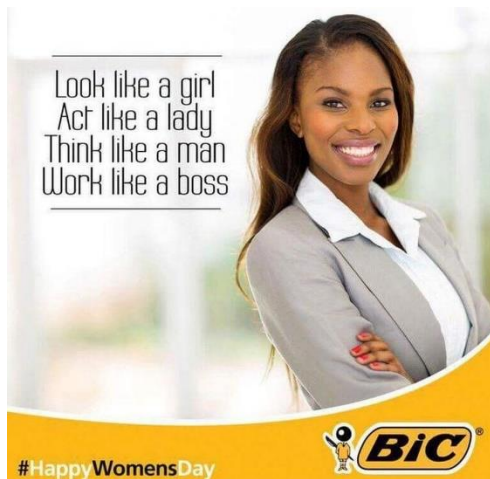
Ad 2 Controversial Advertisement - Van Heusen



Question 2 I consider this advertisement to be controversial

- 1 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - 2 - Disagree (2)
 - 3 - Neutral (3)
 - 4 - Agree (4)
 - 5 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad 3 Controversial Advertisement - BIC



Question 3 I consider this advertisement to be controversial

- 1 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - 2 - Disagree (2)
 - 3 - Neutral (3)
 - 4 - Agree (4)
 - 5 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad 4 Controversial Advertisement – Dove



Question 4 I consider this advertisement to be controversial

- 1 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - 2 - Disagree (2)
 - 3 - Neutral (3)
 - 4 - Agree (4)
 - 5 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad 5 Controversial Advertisement - Burger King



Question 5 I consider this advertisement to be controversial

- 1 - Strongly Disagree (1)
- 2 - Disagree (2)
- 3 - Neutral (3)
- 4 - Agree (4)
- 5 - Strongly Agree (5)

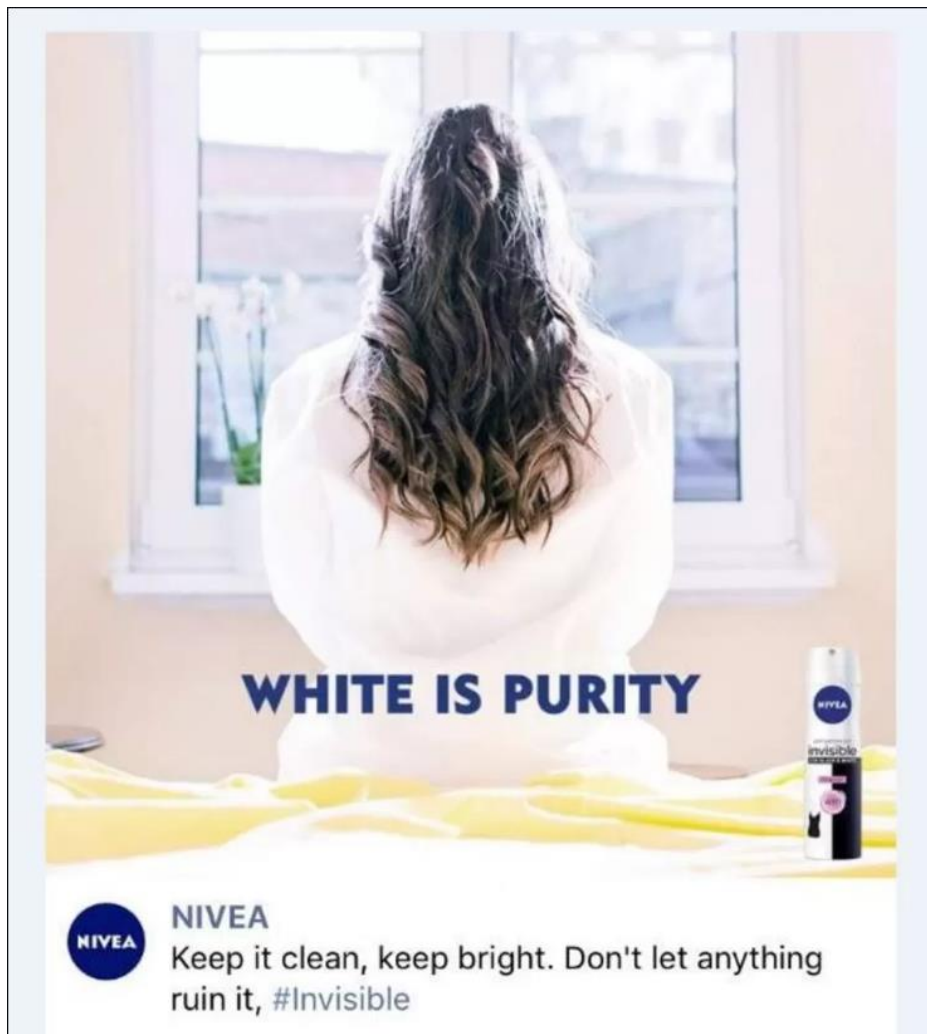
Ad 6 Controversial Advertisement - Mr.Clean



Question 6 I consider this advertisement to be controversial

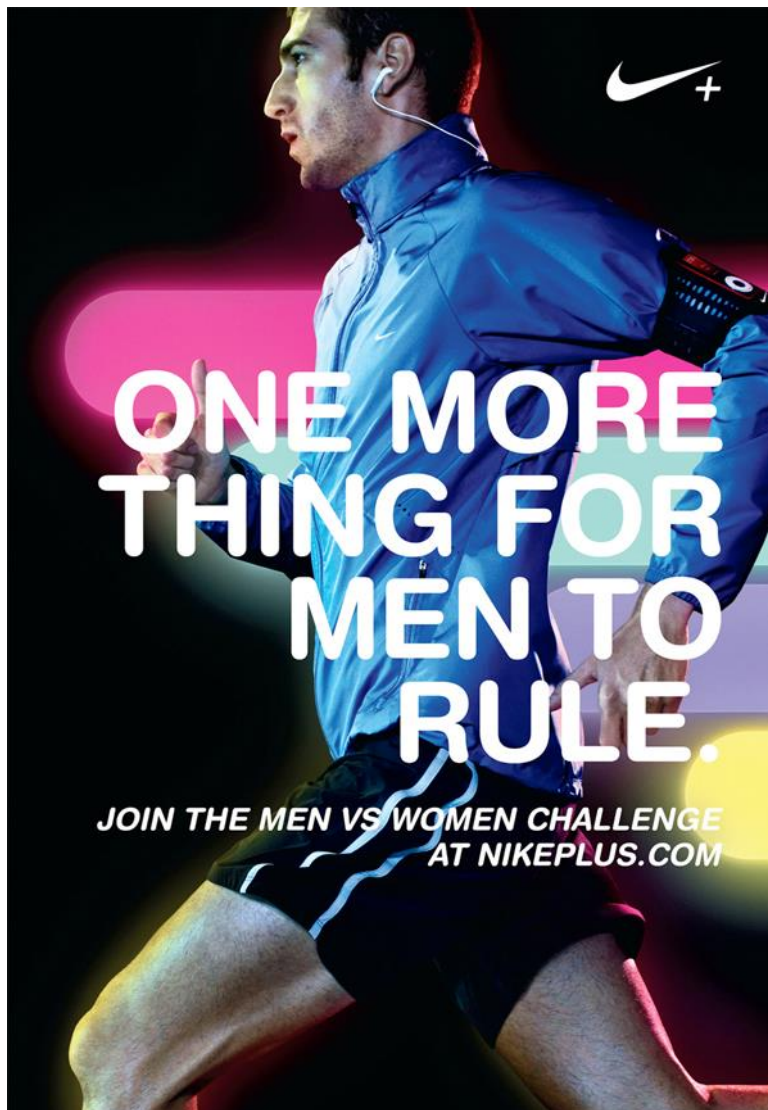
- 1 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - 2 - Disagree (2)
 - 3 - Neutral (3)
 - 4 - Agree (4)
 - 5 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad 7 Controversial Advertisement – Nivea



Question 7 I consider this advertisement to be controversial

- 1 - Strongly Disagree (1)
- 2 - Disagree (2)
- 3 - Neutral (3)
- 4 - Agree (4)
- 5 - Strongly Agree (5)



Question 8 I consider this advertisement to be controversial

- 1 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - 2 - Disagree (2)
 - 3 - Neutral (3)
 - 4 - Agree (4)
 - 5 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad 9 Controversial Advertisement - Schlig



Question 9 I consider this advertisement to be controversial

- 1 - Strongly Disagree (1)
- 2 - Disagree (2)
- 3 - Neutral (3)
- 4 - Agree (4)
- 5 - Strongly Agree (5)

End of Block: Controversial Ads

Appendix B: Pre-Test Results

Descriptives

Answers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Heineken	18	4.2778	1.01782	.23990	3.7716	4.7839	1.00	5.00
Van Heusen	18	3.6667	1.18818	.28006	3.0758	4.2575	1.00	5.00
BIC	18	4.0556	1.21133	.28551	3.4532	4.6579	1.00	5.00
Dove	18	2.6667	1.08465	.25565	2.1273	3.2061	1.00	5.00
Burger King	18	4.3889	.97853	.23064	3.9023	4.8755	1.00	5.00
Mr. Clean	18	4.0000	1.28338	.30250	3.3618	4.6382	1.00	5.00
Nivea	18	3.1111	1.02262	.24103	2.6026	3.6196	1.00	5.00
Nike	18	3.9444	1.05564	.24882	3.4195	4.4694	2.00	5.00
Schlig	18	3.6111	1.28973	.30399	2.9697	4.2525	1.00	5.00
Total	162	3.7469	1.22252	.09605	3.5572	3.9366	1.00	5.00

ANOVA

Answers

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	44.790	8	5.599	4.374	<.001
Within Groups	195.833	153	1.280		
Total	240.623	161			

ANOVA Effect Sizes^a

		Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
Answers	Eta-squared	.186	.053	.255
	Epsilon-squared	.144	.003	.217
	Omega-squared Fixed-effect	.143	.003	.216
	Omega-squared Random-effect	.020	.000	.033

a. Eta-squared and Epsilon-squared are estimated based on the fixed-effect model.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Answers

Tukey HSD

(I) Advertisement	(J) Advertisement	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Heineken	Van Heusen	.61111	.37712	.792	-.5756	1.7978
	BIC	.22222	.37712	1.000	-.9645	1.4089
	Dove	1.61111*	.37712	.001	.4244	2.7978
	Burger King	-.11111	.37712	1.000	-1.2978	1.0756
	Mr. Clean	.27778	.37712	.998	-.9089	1.4645
	Nivea	1.16667	.37712	.058	-.0200	2.3533
	Nike	.33333	.37712	.994	-.8533	1.5200
	Schlig	.66667	.37712	.703	-.5200	1.8533
Van Heusen	Heineken	-.61111	.37712	.792	-1.7978	.5756
	BIC	-.38889	.37712	.982	-1.5756	.7978
	Dove	1.00000	.37712	.175	-.1867	2.1867
	Burger King	-.72222	.37712	.604	-1.9089	.4645
	Mr. Clean	-.33333	.37712	.994	-1.5200	.8533
	Nivea	.55556	.37712	.866	-.6311	1.7422
	Nike	-.27778	.37712	.998	-1.4645	.9089
	Schlig	.05556	.37712	1.000	-1.1311	1.2422
BIC	Heineken	-.22222	.37712	1.000	-1.4089	.9645
	Van Heusen	.38889	.37712	.982	-.7978	1.5756
	Dove	1.38889*	.37712	.009	.2022	2.5756
	Burger King	-.33333	.37712	.994	-1.5200	.8533
	Mr. Clean	.05556	.37712	1.000	-1.1311	1.2422
	Nivea	.94444	.37712	.238	-.2422	2.1311
	Nike	.11111	.37712	1.000	-1.0756	1.2978
	Schlig	.44444	.37712	.960	-.7422	1.6311
Dove	Heineken	-1.61111*	.37712	.001	-2.7978	-.4244
	Van Heusen	-1.00000	.37712	.175	-2.1867	.1867
	BIC	-1.38889*	.37712	.009	-2.5756	-.2022
	Burger King	-1.72222*	.37712	<.001	-2.9089	-.5355
	Mr. Clean	-1.33333*	.37712	.015	-2.5200	-.1467
	Nivea	-.44444	.37712	.960	-1.6311	.7422
	Nike	-1.27778*	.37712	.024	-2.4645	-.0911
	Schlig	-.94444	.37712	.238	-2.1311	.2422
Burger King	Heineken	.11111	.37712	1.000	-1.0756	1.2978
	Van Heusen	.72222	.37712	.604	-.4645	1.9089
	BIC	.33333	.37712	.994	-.8533	1.5200
	Dove	1.72222*	.37712	<.001	.5355	2.9089

	Mr. Clean	.38889	.37712	.982	-.7978	1.5756
	Nivea	1.27778*	.37712	.024	.0911	2.4645
	Nike	.44444	.37712	.960	-.7422	1.6311
	Schlig	.77778	.37712	.503	-.4089	1.9645
Mr. Clean	Heineken	-.27778	.37712	.998	-1.4645	.9089
	Van Heusen	.33333	.37712	.994	-.8533	1.5200
	BIC	-.05556	.37712	1.000	-1.2422	1.1311
	Dove	1.33333*	.37712	.015	.1467	2.5200
	Burger King	-.38889	.37712	.982	-1.5756	.7978
	Nivea	.88889	.37712	.315	-.2978	2.0756
	Nike	.05556	.37712	1.000	-1.1311	1.2422
	Schlig	.38889	.37712	.982	-.7978	1.5756
Nivea	Heineken	-1.16667	.37712	.058	-2.3533	.0200
	Van Heusen	-.55556	.37712	.866	-1.7422	.6311
	BIC	-.94444	.37712	.238	-2.1311	.2422
	Dove	.44444	.37712	.960	-.7422	1.6311
	Burger King	-1.27778*	.37712	.024	-2.4645	-.0911
	Mr. Clean	-.88889	.37712	.315	-2.0756	.2978
	Nike	-.83333	.37712	.405	-2.0200	.3533
	Schlig	-.50000	.37712	.922	-1.6867	.6867
Nike	Heineken	-.33333	.37712	.994	-1.5200	.8533
	Van Heusen	.27778	.37712	.998	-.9089	1.4645
	BIC	-.11111	.37712	1.000	-1.2978	1.0756
	Dove	1.27778*	.37712	.024	.0911	2.4645
	Burger King	-.44444	.37712	.960	-1.6311	.7422
	Mr. Clean	-.05556	.37712	1.000	-1.2422	1.1311
	Nivea	.83333	.37712	.405	-.3533	2.0200
	Schlig	.33333	.37712	.994	-.8533	1.5200
Schlig	Heineken	-.66667	.37712	.703	-1.8533	.5200
	Van Heusen	-.05556	.37712	1.000	-1.2422	1.1311
	BIC	-.44444	.37712	.960	-1.6311	.7422
	Dove	.94444	.37712	.238	-.2422	2.1311
	Burger King	-.77778	.37712	.503	-1.9645	.4089
	Mr. Clean	-.38889	.37712	.982	-1.5756	.7978
	Nivea	.50000	.37712	.922	-.6867	1.6867
	Nike	-.33333	.37712	.994	-1.5200	.8533

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Answers

Tukey HSD^a

Advertisement	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Dove	18	2.6667		
Nivea	18	3.1111	3.1111	
Schlig	18	3.6111	3.6111	3.6111
Van Heusen	18	3.6667	3.6667	3.6667
Nike	18		3.9444	3.9444
Mr. Clean	18		4.0000	4.0000
BIC	18		4.0556	4.0556
Heineken	18		4.2778	4.2778
Burger King	18			4.3889
Sig.		.175	.058	.503

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 18.000.

Controversial Advertisements Questionnaire

Start of Block: Welcome

Intro Dear respondent,

Thank you for the interest shown in this research!

I am inviting you to fill in a short questionnaire. This questionnaire will take approximately eight minutes to fill in.

Please answer each question carefully and honestly. There are no right or wrong answers.

CONFIDENTIALITY OF DATA

All research data remain completely confidential and are collected in an anonymous form. There will be no identification and no foreseeable risks or discomforts associated with participating in this research.

VOLUNTARY

If the information from above is clear and you would like to participate in this research, please click on the "I agree" button below.

Clicking on the arrow in the bottom right corner will bring you to the next page of this questionnaire.

Please remember to fill in all the information required before moving on, as going back to previous questions is not possible.

Finally, if you now decide not to participate in this research, this will not affect you. If you decide to cease your cooperation while filling in the questionnaire, this will in no way affect you either. You can cease your cooperation without giving reasons.

FURTHER INFORMATION

Should you have any questions about the research or this questionnaire, you can send an e-mail to the following e-mail address:

456675ng@student.eur.nl

Naum Grbic

Consent Please click on the "I agree" button to proceed.

- I agree (1)
- I do not agree (2)

End of Block: Welcome

Start of Block: Personal Information

Nationality You live in:

- The Netherlands (1)
 - Serbia (2)
-

Age How old are you?

Gender What is your gender?

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Non-binary / third gender (3)
- Prefer not to say (4)

End of Block: Personal Information

Start of Block: Part I

Definition Part I - Controversial Advertisements

Controversial advertisements are an advertising type in which either a product or the advertisement itself can provoke or offend one group of consumers:

In majority of cases, the following content can be seen in these advertisements:

- 1) *Racism* - Offensive representation of members belonging to a certain race;
- 2) *Sexism* - Representation of male dominance and gender inequality
- 3) *Stereotypes* - Offensive and socially unaccepted representation of a social group and its characteristics (race, religion, gender...), propagated by dominant groups in society

Below you can see a very famous controversial advertisement by the Italian brand "Benetton".



After reading the definition and seeing an example of a controversial advertisement, please answer if you understood what these advertisements are.

Yes (1)

No (2)

Emotion - General "Controversial advertisements have an influence on my emotions."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Perception - General "Controversial advertisements have an influence on my perception of a certain brand."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Purchase Intent "Controversial advertisements can influence my decision to purchase a product from those advertisements."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Racism - General "I find advertisements with elements of racism to be controversial."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Sexism - General "I find advertisements with elements of sexism to be controversial."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Stereotype - General "I find advertisements with elements of stereotyping to be controversial."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Racism/Emotions "Advertisements with elements of racism evoke my emotional reaction."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Sexism/Emotions "Advertisements with elements of sexism evoke my emotional reaction."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Stereotyping/Emotion "Advertisements with elements of stereotyping evoke my emotional reaction."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

End of Block: Part I

Start of Block: Part II

Examples Part II - Examples of Controversial Advertisements

The advertisements below by Dove, Burger King and Van Heusen were all claimed to be controversial, due to containing either racist, sexist or elements of stereotyping. Therefore, they all became a target of huge public criticism.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Ad #1 - Main Controversial Advertisement #1 - Shampoo advertisement by "Dove".



Ad #1 – Manip.Check. "I find the advertisement by Dove to be controversial."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #1 - Racism "The advertisement by Dove contains elements of racism."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #1 - Sexism "The advertisement by Dove contains elements of sexism."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly agree (5)
-

Ad #1 - Stereotyping "The advertisement by Dove contains elements of stereotyping."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #1 - Emotions "The advertisement by Dove evoked my emotional reaction."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #1 - Perception "The advertisement by Dove changed my perception of the brand."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #1 - Intent "I would buy the product advertised by Dove after watching this advertisement."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #1 - Intent 2 "I would recommend the product advertised by Dove to my family/friends."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

"Due to consumers negatively reacting to the advertisement by Dove, regulatory bodies in Europe stopped broadcasting this advertisement. You find this decision to be a justified one."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Ad #2 - Main Controversial Advertisement #2 - Tie Advertisement by "Van Heusen".



Ad #2 – Manip.Check. "I find the advertisement by Van Heusen to be controversial."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #2 - Racism "The advertisement by Van Heusen contains elements of racism."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #2 - Sexism "The advertisement by Van Heusen contains elements of sexism."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #2 - Stereotyping "The advertisement by Van Heusen contains elements of stereotyping."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #2 - Emotions "The advertisement by Van Heusen evoked my emotional reaction."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #2 - Perception "The advertisement by Van Heusen changed my perception of the brand."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #2 - Intent "I would buy the product advertised by Van Heusen after watching this advertisement."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #2 - Intent 2 "I would recommend the product advertised by Van Heusen to my family/friends."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

"Due to consumers negatively reacting to the advertisement by Van Heusen, regulatory bodies in Europe stopped broadcasting this advertisement. You find this decision to be a justified one."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Ad #3 - Main Controversial Advertisement #3 - Product advertisement by "Burger King"



Ad #3 – Manip.Check. "I find the advertisement by Burger King to be controversial."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Ad #3 - Racism "The advertisement by Burger King contains elements of racism."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #3 - Sexism "The advertisement by Burger King contains elements of sexism."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #3 - Stereotyping "The advertisement by Burger King contains elements of stereotyping."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #3 - Emotions "The advertisement by Burger King evoked my emotional reaction."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #3 - Perception "The advertisement by Burger King changed my perception of the brand."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #3 - Intent "I would buy the products advertised by Burger King after watching this advertisement."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Ad #3 - Intent 2 "I would recommend the products advertised by Burger King to my family/friends."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

"Due to consumers negatively reacting to the advertisement by Burger King, regulatory bodies in Europe stopped broadcasting this advertisement. You find this decision to be a justified one."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

End of Block: Part II

Start of Block: Part III

Conclusion Part III - Conclusion

In the concluding part of this questionnaire, please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:

Emotions - Final "Controversial advertisements have an influence on my emotions."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Perception - Final "Controversial advertisements have an influence on my perception of a certain brand."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
-

Intent - Final "Controversial advertisements can influence my decision to purchase a product from those advertisements."

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

End of Block: Part III

Start of Block: Conclusion

Thank you very much for participating!

Please write down in one sentence what you think the purpose of this research was.

End of Block: Conclusion

Appendix D: Sociodemographic Overview and Cover Story Results

Statistics

		Country	Gender
N	Valid	80	80
	Missing	0	0

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Respondent	80	1.00	80.00	40.5000	23.23790
Country	80	1.00	2.00	1.5000	.50315
Age	80	20.00	35.00	26.7500	4.11696
Gender	80	1.00	2.00	1.5125	.50300
Valid N (listwise)	80				

Country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	The Netherlands	40	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Serbia	40	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	80	100.0	100.0	

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	39	48.8	48.8	48.8
	Female	41	51.2	51.2	100.0
	Total	80	100.0	100.0	

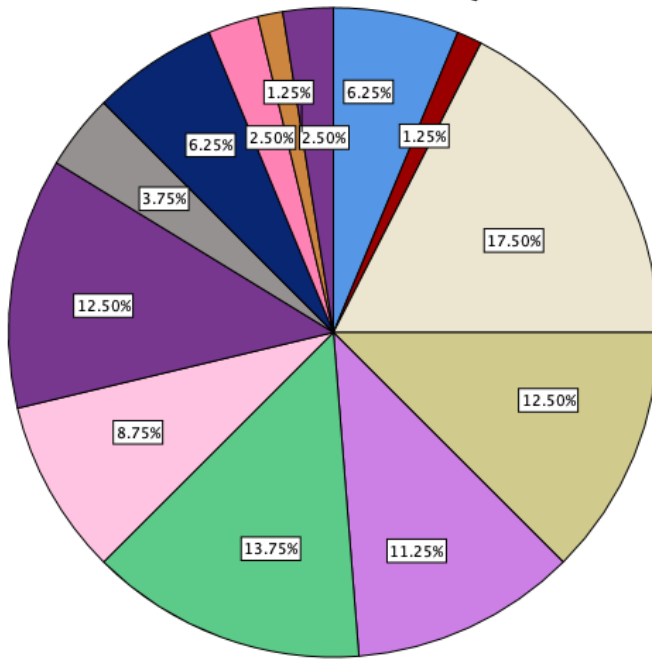
Statistics

Final Question

N	Valid	80
	Missing	0

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	To understand elements of controversy in advertisements	5	6.3	6.3	6.3
	To indicate a strong influence that controversial advertisements have today	1	1.3	1.3	7.5
	To understand which advertisement types are the most controversial	14	17.5	17.5	25.0
	To analyse the influence of controversial advertisements on perception of a certain brand	10	12.5	12.5	37.5
	To find out the connection between controversial advertisements and emotions	9	11.3	11.3	48.8
	To understand the influence of controversial advertisements on consumer behavior	11	13.8	13.8	62.5
	To prove negative influence of controversial advertisements on consumers	7	8.8	8.8	71.3
	To research different consumer perceptions of controversial advertisements	10	12.5	12.5	83.8
	To understand the influence of advertisements in general	3	3.8	3.8	87.5
	To understand the influence of controversial advertisements on product placement	5	6.3	6.3	93.8
	To demonstrate different reactions to controversial advertisements based on the brand they are advertising	2	2.5	2.5	96.3
	To establish a marketing strategy with the subtle use of controversial advertisements	1	1.3	1.3	97.5
	To find marketing strategies that can include controversial advertisements	2	2.5	2.5	100.0
	Total	80	100.0	100.0	

Final Question



- To understand elements of controversy in advertisements
- To indicate a strong influence that controversial advertisements have today
- To understand which advertisement types are the most controversial
- To analyse the influence of controversial advertisements on perception of a certain brand
- To find out the connection between controversial advertisements and emotions
- To understand the influence of controversial advertisements on consumer behavior
- To prove negative influence of controversial advertisements on consumers
- To research different consumer perceptions of controversial advertisements
- To understand the influence of advertisements in general
- To understand the influence of controversial advertisements on product placement
- To demonstrate different reactions to controversial advertisements based on the brand they are advertising
- To establish a marketing strategy with the subtle use of controversial advertisements
- To find marketing strategies that can include controversial advertisements

Appendix E: Reliability Analysis

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	80	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	80	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.735	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Ad 1 - Controversy Level	8.5375	3.188	.489	.729
Ad 2 - Controversy Level	8.5125	2.734	.610	.586
Ad 3 - Controversy Level	8.3250	3.083	.584	.622

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	80	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	80	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.709	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Ad 1 - Product Purchase	4.6000	3.357	.435	.733
Ad 2 - Product Purchase	5.1000	2.876	.637	.477
Ad 3 - Product Purchase	4.7250	3.265	.521	.628

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	80	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	80	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.626	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Ad 1 - Product Recommendation	4.4250	2.855	.315	.689
Ad 2 - Product Recommendation	4.8250	2.298	.561	.340
Ad 3 - Product Recommendation	4.4750	2.531	.443	.514

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	80	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	80	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's	
Alpha	N of Items
.928	2

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Product Purchase	2.2875	.539	.872	.
Product Recommendation	2.4042	.691	.872	.

Appendix F: Manipulation Check

Descriptives

Manipulation Check

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Advertisement 1 (Dove)	80	4.1500	1.00757	.11265	3.9258	4.3742	1.00
Advertisement 2 (Van Heusen)	80	4.1750	1.05272	.11770	3.9407	4.4093	1.00
Advertisement 3 (Burger King)	80	4.3625	.95790	.10710	4.1493	4.5757	1.00
Total	240	4.2292	1.00708	.06501	4.1011	4.3572	1.00

Descriptives

Manipulation Check

	Maximum
Advertisement 1 (Dove)	5.00
Advertisement 2 (Van Heusen)	5.00
Advertisement 3 (Burger King)	5.00
Total	5.00

ANOVA

Manipulation Check

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.158	2	1.079	1.065	.347
Within Groups	240.238	237	1.014		
Total	242.396	239			

ANOVA Effect Sizes^{a,b}

		Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
Manipulation	Eta-squared	.009	.000	.041
Check	Epsilon-squared	.001	-.008	.032
	Omega-squared Fixed-effect	.001	-.008	.032
	Omega-squared Random-effect	.000	-.004	.016

- a. Eta-squared and Epsilon-squared are estimated based on the fixed-effect model.
- b. Negative but less biased estimates are retained, not rounded to zero.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Manipulation Check
 Tukey HSD

(I) Advertisement	(J) Advertisement	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Advertisement 1 (Dove)	Advertisement 2 (Van Heusen)	-.02500	.15919	.986	-.4005	.3505
	Advertisement 3 (Burger King)	-.21250	.15919	.377	-.5880	.1630
Advertisement 2 (Van Heusen)	Advertisement 1 (Dove)	.02500	.15919	.986	-.3505	.4005
	Advertisement 3 (Burger King)	-.18750	.15919	.468	-.5630	.1880
Advertisement 3 (Burger King)	Advertisement 1 (Dove)	.21250	.15919	.377	-.1630	.5880
	Advertisement 2 (Van Heusen)	.18750	.15919	.468	-.1880	.5630

Manipulation Check

Tukey HSD^a

Advertisement	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
Advertisement 1 (Dove)	80	4.1500
Advertisement 2 (Van Heusen)	80	4.1750
Advertisement 3 (Burger King)	80	4.3625
Sig.		.377

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 80.000.

Appendix G: Repeated Measures ANOVA for Hypotheses 1 and 3

Within-Subjects Factors

Measure: MEASURE_1

ContTypeandPurchIntent	Dependent Variable
1	PIAD1
2	PIAD2
3	PIAD3

Between-Subjects Factors

Country	Value Label	N
1.00	The Netherlands	40
2.00	Serbia	40

Descriptive Statistics

	Country	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Purchase Intent - AD 1	The Netherlands	2.2375	.93361	40
	Serbia	2.8125	.93841	40
	Total	2.5250	.97403	80
Purchase Intent - AD 2	The Netherlands	1.9125	.84647	40
	Serbia	2.2375	1.01266	40
	Total	2.0750	.94165	80
Purchase Intent - AD 3	The Netherlands	2.3750	.88252	40
	Serbia	2.5000	1.04391	40
	Total	2.4375	.96251	80

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices^a

Box's M	4.239
F	.677
df1	6
df2	44080.302
Sig.	.668

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.^a

a. Design: Intercept + Country

Within Subjects Design: ContTypeandPurchIntent

Multivariate Tests^a

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
ContTypeandPurchIntent	Pillai's Trace	.237	11.989 ^b	2.000	77.000	<.001	.237
	Wilks' Lambda	.763	11.989 ^b	2.000	77.000	<.001	.237
	Hotelling's Trace	.311	11.989 ^b	2.000	77.000	<.001	.237
	Roy's Largest Root	.311	11.989 ^b	2.000	77.000	<.001	.237
	ContTypeandPurchIntent * Country	Pillai's Trace	.038	1.508 ^b	2.000	77.000	.228
	Wilks' Lambda	.962	1.508 ^b	2.000	77.000	.228	.038
	Hotelling's Trace	.039	1.508 ^b	2.000	77.000	.228	.038
	Roy's Largest Root	.039	1.508 ^b	2.000	77.000	.228	.038

a. Design: Intercept + Country

Within Subjects Design: ContTypeandPurchIntent

b. Exact statistic

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity^a

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi- Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon ^b		
					Greenhouse- Geisser	Huynh- Feldt	Lower- bound
ContTypeandPurchIntent	.892	8.838	2	.012	.902	.934	.500

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.^a

a. Design: Intercept + Country

Within Subjects Design: ContTypeandPurchIntent

b. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ContTypeandPurchIntent	Sphericity Assumed	9.108	2	4.554	8.859	<.001
	Greenhouse-Geisser	9.108	1.804	5.048	8.859	<.001
	Huynh-Feldt	9.108	1.868	4.876	8.859	<.001
	Lower-bound	9.108	1.000	9.108	8.859	.004
ContTypeandPurchIntent * Country	Sphericity Assumed	2.033	2	1.017	1.978	.142
	Greenhouse-Geisser	2.033	1.804	1.127	1.978	.147
	Huynh-Feldt	2.033	1.868	1.088	1.978	.145
	Lower-bound	2.033	1.000	2.033	1.978	.164
Error(ContTypeandPurchIntent)	Sphericity Assumed	80.192	156	.514		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	80.192	140.739	.570		
	Huynh-Feldt	80.192	145.718	.550		
	Lower-bound	80.192	78.000	1.028		

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source		Partial Eta Squared
ContTypeandPurchIntent	Sphericity Assumed	.102
	Greenhouse-Geisser	.102
	Huynh-Feldt	.102
	Lower-bound	.102
ContTypeandPurchIntent * Country	Sphericity Assumed	.025
	Greenhouse-Geisser	.025
	Huynh-Feldt	.025
	Lower-bound	.025
Error(ContTypeandPurchIntent)	Sphericity Assumed	
	Greenhouse-Geisser	
	Huynh-Feldt	
	Lower-bound	

Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source	ContTypeandPurchInt ent	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ContTypeandPurchIntent	Linear	.306	1	.306	.460	.500
	Quadratic	8.802	1	8.802	24.283	<.001
ContTypeandPurchIntent * Country	Linear	2.025	1	2.025	3.042	.085
	Quadratic	.008	1	.008	.023	.880
Error(ContTypeandPurchIntent)	Linear	51.919	78	.666		
	Quadratic	28.273	78	.362		

Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source	ContTypeandPurchInt ent	Partial Eta Squared
ContTypeandPurchIntent	Linear	.006
	Quadratic	.237
ContTypeandPurchIntent * Country	Linear	.038
	Quadratic	.000
Error(ContTypeandPurchIntent)	Linear	
	Quadratic	

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

		Levene	df1	df2	Sig.
		Statistic			
Purchase Intent - AD 1	Based on Mean	.023	1	78	.879
	Based on Median	.035	1	78	.851
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.035	1	77.360	.851
	Based on trimmed mean	.015	1	78	.904
Purchase Intent - AD 2	Based on Mean	.808	1	78	.371
	Based on Median	.346	1	78	.558
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.346	1	68.420	.559
	Based on trimmed mean	.609	1	78	.438
Purchase Intent - AD 3	Based on Mean	.500	1	78	.482
	Based on Median	.562	1	78	.456
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.562	1	72.289	.456
	Based on trimmed mean	.483	1	78	.489

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.^a

a. Design: Intercept + Country

Within Subjects Design: ContTypeandPurchIntent

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Transformed Variable: Average

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	1320.704	1	1320.704	798.823	<.001	.911
Country	7.004	1	7.004	4.236	.043	.052
Error	128.958	78	1.653			

1. Grand Mean

Measure: MEASURE_1

Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
2.346	.083	2.181	2.511

Estimates

Measure: MEASURE_1

Country	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
The Netherlands	2.175	.117	1.941	2.409
Serbia	2.517	.117	2.283	2.750

Pairwise Comparisons

Measure: MEASURE_1

(I) Country	(J) Country	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
The Netherlands	Serbia	-.342*	.166	.043	-.672	-.011
Serbia	The Netherlands	.342*	.166	.043	.011	.672

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Measure: MEASURE_1

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	2.335	1	2.335	4.236	.043	.052
Error	42.986	78	.551			

The F tests the effect of Country. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Estimates

Measure: MEASURE_1

ContTypeandPurchIntent	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2.525	.105	2.317	2.733
2	2.075	.104	1.867	2.283
3	2.438	.108	2.222	2.653

Pairwise Comparisons

Measure: MEASURE_1

(I) ContTypeandPurchIntent	(J) ContTypeandPurchIntent	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	.450*	.112	<.001	.227	.673
	3	.088	.129	.500	-.169	.344
2	1	-.450*	.112	<.001	-.673	-.227
	3	-.362*	.097	<.001	-.555	-.170
3	1	-.088	.129	.500	-.344	.169
	2	.362*	.097	<.001	.170	.555

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's trace	.237	11.989 ^a	2.000	77.000	<.001	.237
Wilks' lambda	.763	11.989 ^a	2.000	77.000	<.001	.237
Hotelling's trace	.311	11.989 ^a	2.000	77.000	<.001	.237
Roy's largest root	.311	11.989 ^a	2.000	77.000	<.001	.237

Each F tests the multivariate effect of ContTypeandPurchIntent. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

*4. Country * ContTypeandPurchIntent*

Measure: MEASURE_1

Country	ContTypeandPurchInt ent	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
The Netherlands	1	2.238	.148	1.943	2.532
	2	1.913	.148	1.619	2.206
	3	2.375	.153	2.071	2.679
Serbia	1	2.813	.148	2.518	3.107
	2	2.238	.148	1.944	2.531
	3	2.500	.153	2.196	2.804

Appendix H: T-Test for Hypothesis 1

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Purchase Intent - AD 1	2.5250	80	.97403	.10890
	Purchase Intent - AD 2	2.0750	80	.94165	.10528
Pair 2	Purchase Intent - AD 1	2.5250	80	.97403	.10890
	Purchase Intent - AD 3	2.4375	80	.96251	.10761
Pair 3	Purchase Intent - AD 2	2.0750	80	.94165	.10528
	Purchase Intent - AD 3	2.4375	80	.96251	.10761

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Significance	
				One-Sided p	Two-Sided p
Pair 1	Purchase Intent - AD 1 & Purchase Intent - AD 2	80	.450	<.001	<.001
Pair 2	Purchase Intent - AD 1 & Purchase Intent - AD 3	80	.272	.007	.015
Pair 3	Purchase Intent - AD 2 & Purchase Intent - AD 3	80	.588	<.001	<.001

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t
					Lower	Upper	
Pair 1	Purchase Intent - AD 1 - Purchase Intent - AD 2	.45000	1.00505	.11237	.22634	.67366	4.005
Pair 2	Purchase Intent - AD 1 - Purchase Intent - AD 3	.08750	1.16862	.13066	-.17256	.34756	.670
Pair 3	Purchase Intent - AD 2 - Purchase Intent - AD 3	-.36250	.86410	.09661	-.55480	-.17020	-3.752

Paired Samples Test

		Significance		
		df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p
Pair 1	Purchase Intent - AD 1 - Purchase Intent - AD 2	79	<.001	<.001
Pair 2	Purchase Intent - AD 1 - Purchase Intent - AD 3	79	.253	.505
Pair 3	Purchase Intent - AD 2 - Purchase Intent - AD 3	79	<.001	<.001

Paired Samples Effect Sizes

			Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Pair 1	Purchase Intent - AD 1 -	Cohen's d	1.00505	.448	.216	.676
	Purchase Intent - AD 2	Hedges' correction	1.01472	.443	.214	.670
Pair 2	Purchase Intent - AD 1 -	Cohen's d	1.16862	.075	-.145	.294
	Purchase Intent - AD 3	Hedges' correction	1.17986	.074	-.143	.291
Pair 3	Purchase Intent - AD 2 -	Cohen's d	.86410	-.420	-.647	-.190
	Purchase Intent - AD 3	Hedges' correction	.87242	-.416	-.641	-.188

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the sample standard deviation of the mean difference.

Hedges' correction uses the sample standard deviation of the mean difference, plus a correction factor.

Appendix I: T-Test for Hypothesis 2

Group Statistics

	Country	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PurchaseIntent	The Netherlands	40	2.1750	.66125	.10455
	Serbia	40	2.5167	.81545	.12893

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance	
						One-Sided p	Two-Sided p
PurchaseIntent	Equal variances assumed	2.529	.116	-2.058	78	.021	.043
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.058	74.807	.022	.043

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
				Lower	Upper
PurchaseIntent	Equal variances assumed	-.34167	.16600	-.67214	-.01119
	Equal variances not assumed	-.34167	.16600	-.67236	-.01097

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
PurchaseIntent	Cohen's d	.74236	-.460	-.903	-.015
	Hedges' correction	.74960	-.456	-.894	-.015
	Glass's delta	.81545	-.419	-.864	.032

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Appendix J: T-Test for Hypothesis 3

Group Statistics

	Country	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Purchase Intent - AD 1	The Netherlands	40	2.2375	.93361	.14762
	Serbia	40	2.8125	.93841	.14838
Purchase Intent - AD 2	The Netherlands	40	1.9125	.84647	.13384
	Serbia	40	2.2375	1.01266	.16012
Purchase Intent - AD 3	The Netherlands	40	2.3750	.88252	.13954
	Serbia	40	2.5000	1.04391	.16506

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance One-Sided p
Purchase Intent - AD 1	Equal variances assumed	.023	.879	-2.747	78	.004
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.747	77.998	.004
Purchase Intent - AD 2	Equal variances assumed	.808	.371	-1.557	78	.062
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.557	75.621	.062
Purchase Intent - AD 3	Equal variances assumed	.500	.482	-.578	78	.282
	Equal variances not assumed			-.578	75.899	.282

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means				
		Significance	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
		Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Purchase Intent - AD 1	Equal variances assumed	.007	-.57500	.20930	-.99168	-.15832
	Equal variances not assumed	.007	-.57500	.20930	-.99168	-.15832
Purchase Intent - AD 2	Equal variances assumed	.123	-.32500	.20869	-.74046	.09046
	Equal variances not assumed	.124	-.32500	.20869	-.74067	.09067
Purchase Intent - AD 3	Equal variances assumed	.565	-.12500	.21614	-.55529	.30529
	Equal variances not assumed	.565	-.12500	.21614	-.55548	.30548

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Purchase Intent - AD 1	Cohen's d	.93601	-.614	-1.061	-.164
	Hedges' correction	.94514	-.608	-1.051	-.162
	Glass's delta	.93841	-.613	-1.068	-.150
Purchase Intent - AD 2	Cohen's d	.93327	-.348	-.789	.095
	Hedges' correction	.94237	-.345	-.781	.094
	Glass's delta	1.01266	-.321	-.763	.125
Purchase Intent - AD 3	Cohen's d	.96659	-.129	-.568	.310
	Hedges' correction	.97601	-.128	-.562	.307
	Glass's delta	1.04391	-.120	-.558	.320

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Appendix K: Additional Analysis (Gender)

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Racism	Male	39	2.3333	.69248	.11089
	Female	41	2.6748	.68915	.10763
Sexism	Male	39	3.3504	.64865	.10387
	Female	41	3.7967	.63630	.09937
Stereotypes	Male	39	3.4017	.88251	.14132
	Female	41	4.0732	.66463	.10380
Purchase Intent Total	Male	39	2.5897	.81546	.13058
	Female	41	2.1138	.62298	.09729

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance	
						One-Sided p	Two-Sided p
Racism	Equal variances assumed	1.572	.214	-2.210	78	.015	.030
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.210	77.761	.015	.030
Sexism	Equal variances assumed	.012	.913	-3.106	78	.001	.003
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.105	77.621	.001	.003
Stereotypes	Equal variances assumed	3.360	.071	-3.856	78	<.001	<.001
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.829	70.554	<.001	<.001
Purchase Intent Total	Equal variances assumed	2.820	.097	2.942	78	.002	.004
	Equal variances not assumed			2.923	71.090	.002	.005

Independent Samples Test

t-test for Equality of Means

		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
				Lower	Upper
Racism	Equal variances assumed	-.34146	.15451	-.64907	-.03386
	Equal variances not assumed	-.34146	.15453	-.64912	-.03380
Sexism	Equal variances assumed	-.44632	.14368	-.73236	-.16028
	Equal variances not assumed	-.44632	.14375	-.73252	-.16012
Stereotypes	Equal variances assumed	-.67146	.17412	-1.01810	-.32482
	Equal variances not assumed	-.67146	.17534	-1.02112	-.32181
Purchase Intent Total	Equal variances assumed	.47592	.16176	.15388	.79796
	Equal variances not assumed	.47592	.16284	.15124	.80061

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Racism	Cohen's d	.69078	-.494	-.938	-.048
	Hedges' correction	.69751	-.490	-.929	-.047
	Glass's delta	.68915	-.495	-.944	-.041
Sexism	Cohen's d	.64235	-.695	-1.144	-.241
	Hedges' correction	.64861	-.688	-1.133	-.239
	Glass's delta	.63630	-.701	-1.162	-.233
Stereotypes	Cohen's d	.77843	-.863	-1.319	-.401
	Hedges' correction	.78602	-.854	-1.306	-.397
	Glass's delta	.66463	-1.010	-1.496	-.514
Purchase Intent	Cohen's d	.72318	.658	.206	1.106
Total	Hedges' correction	.73023	.652	.204	1.096
	Glass's delta	.62298	.764	.291	1.229

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.