

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE
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LITERATURE

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2.1 : Overview of Consumer Behavior

Consumer behavior can be defined as activities people undertake when obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services. (Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2001, p. 6). Simply stated consumer behavior is the study of why people buy.. Studying this behavior is important because when more is known about why people shop and buy certain products; the easier it becomes to develop strategies to influence consumers to buy. More recently, researchers are expanding their scope of research from why people buy. to why and how people consume. (Blackwell et al., 2001). Analysis of consumption behavior represents a broader conceptual framework than buyer behavior does because it includes factors that arise after the purchase process occurs (Blackwell et al., 2001). Ultimately, consumers decide with their money which companies will be successful and which ones will fail. Consumers have the power to make or break products. Products and services are accepted or rejected on the basis of the extent to which they are perceived as relevant to needs and lifestyles (Blackwell et al., 2001). Individuals are fully capable of ignoring everything the market has to say, they are also capable of buying everything they like.

Consumer behavior is an applied science drawing from economics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, statistics, and other disciplines (Blackwell et al., 2001). To understand consumer behavior, researchers must learn what is going on in consumers' heads. They must understand not only why consumers behave the way they do, but also apply that knowledge to product development, advertising, retailing, and other areas of marketing (Blackwell et al., 2001). There are several ways in which researchers measure consumer behavior. Some conduct experiments to determine changes in buyer behavior using focus groups, conducting interviews, or administering questionnaires, others might explore store settings or people's home to better understand how consumers use products or invent ways to solve problems (Blackwell et al., 2001). All studies have one goal in mind and that is to learn more about the consumer and how their mind works. There are many variables that affect consumer behavior, such as age, income, gender, geography and personality. Every consumer is different and because of that, marketers and advertisers must get consumers to think about their product, so they will go out and buy it (Blackwell et al., 2001). The more comfortable a consumer feels

towards the advertiser and /or the marketer, the more likely the consumer is to buy that specific product. There are also many ways to measure consumer behavior. How is this done? Measuring attitudes, purchase intentions and product beliefs are the most common.

Attitude research in consumer behavior field traditionally assumed that attitudes were learned in a fixed sequence, consisting first of the formation of beliefs (cognition) regarding an attitude object, followed by some evaluation of that object (affect) and then some action (behavior) (Solomon, 2004). The consumer's level of involvement in the object also plays a key role on how they form their attitudes. Multi-attribute models are very popular among researchers to measure attitudes because they help break down the complexity of attitudes. One very commonly used multi-attribute model is the Fishbein Attitude Theory.

2.2 : Advertising and Effectiveness of Celebrity-Centered Advertising

One of the most popular forms of advertising is using celebrity endorsers. A recent estimate indicates that the use of celebrity endorsers in the United States has increased from a little over 15% to about 25% of advertisements between 1979 and 1997 (Stephens and Rice, 1998). The celebrity endorser remains a favorite among advertising agencies (Kamins, 1990). Advertising is how consumers learn and communicate information about products. There are many underlying themes associated with advertising such as, the relationship of to the product and the ad, or the persuasion factor of the person in the ad and the consumers to buy or ignore the product. Consumers live in a media.saturated and product.cluttered environment. An adult may see up to 3,000 advertising messages in one day, with over 2 million brands vying for our attention (Hotz, 2005). Celebrities ostensibly have the ability to hold viewers' attention and penetrate the clutter of the multitude of advertising spots that compete for audience attention (Miciak & Shanklin, 1994). So how do consumers choose? The concept of advertising must first be explained.

Advertising is the manner in which consumers become educated in a persuasive and elusive manner about the various products that corporations and other types of businesses have to offer (Harding, 1991). The main goal of advertising from a business standpoint is to generate the sale of products by having consumers relate to messages and claims being made through different advertising mediums (Harding, 1991). These mediums can be television commercials, print ads, billboards, posters, flyers and more recently, product placements on television shows. Advertising affects people in many ways. It can influence everything from

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large corporations to small rural churches (Qualter, 1991). Advertising that is intended to educate the consumer of the products available is done so by explaining and demonstrating the products' attributes. While doing this, benefits are stated to show the consumer how their life would be better if they buy this product (Himmelstein, 1985). Usually the attributes, including the cost, are conveyed to the consumer in a way that persuades the consumer to buy the product (Rossitier & Percy, 1980). Advertising that can arouse feelings, create liking, stir desire, or persuade convincingly can have a greater impact on the consumer; generating sales for that product (Kim, 1992). The bulk of advertising is an attempt to build and strengthen the consumer's conception of what the brand means to them (Kim, 1990). Ultimately, the advertisers want to make their product distinct and so valuable that the consumer will become a repeat buyer. According to Woodside and Taylor (1978), consumers related higher quality products with more heavily advertised products. Purchase intentions were also associated with higher quality nationally, advertised products. They found that advertising may influence the perception of quality in consumers' minds, which in turn may affect their purchase behavior (Woodside & Taylor, 1978). Advertisers must be careful not to confuse the consumer. The greater the number of competing brands advertised in a product category, the greater the likelihood that the target brand and its advertised attributes will be either confused with other product information or simply passed over (Keller, Heckler, & Houston, 1998). When multiple brands are advertised in a specific product category, overlapping themes might become confusing to the consumer, resulting in the consumers forming weak associations with the product and the advertisement (Keller et. al., 1998). Advertisers must find a way to make their advertisement different from the others. One way that this can be done is by using celebrities.

Someone once said "effective advertising- it's a bit like trying to interest a deaf tortoise" (unknown). By glossary terms, 'effectiveness' has been described as 'the degree to which a system's features and capabilities meet the users' needs (Carnegie Mellon Glossary, 2004). This falls apt for the field of advertising too. Effective advertising can be described as a paid form of communicating a message which is persuasive, informative, and designed to influence purchasing behavior or thought patterns, and meets the goals that it set out to do. It is such advertising that welcomes one into the world of advertising in India.

Researchers into the effectiveness of celebrity-centered advertising have appeared in both academic and trade publications (McCracken, 1989; Misra, 1986; DeSarbo and Harshman, 1985; USA Today, 1998). At best the results of their effectiveness have been mixed. Most of the studies tend to highlight the efficacy of the phenomenon with little attention given to why

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celebrity advertising work in some instances and not in others (Misra and Beatty 1990). Assael (1984) suggests that celebrity advertising is effective because of their ability to tap into consumers' symbolic association to aspirational reference groups. Such reference groups provide points of comparison through which the consumer may evaluate attitudes and behavior (Kamins 1990). In advancing reasons why celebrity advertising may be influential, Atkins and Block (1983) assert that celebrity advertising may be influential because celebrities are viewed as dynamic, with both attractive and likable qualities. Additionally, their fame is thought to attract attention to the product or service. However, in a study involving Edge disposable razor advertisements, Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983) found that under high involvement conditions, arguments but not celebrities influenced attitudes, whereas under low involvement conditions, celebrities but not arguments influenced attitudes. This suggests that celebrity influence may be related to the nature of the product rather than the person. Despite mixed findings, three factors seem to be associated with the degree to which celebrity advertising is effective: source credibility, celebrity knowledge and trustworthiness, and celebrity appearance.

Four Traditional Theories of Advertising Effectiveness:

- *Economic*—a rational consumer who consciously considers functional cost-utility information in a purchase decision.
- *Responsive*—a habitual consumer conditioned to thoughtlessly buy through rote, stimulus-response learning.
- *Psychological*—an unpredictable consumer who buys compulsively under the influence of unconscious thoughts and indirect emotions.
- *Social*—a compliant consumer who continually adjusts purchases to satisfy cultural and group needs for conformity.

While these theories have had proponents who defended them as sole explanations of consumer behavior, most marketers now consider them at best only partial explanations. These theories were most topical in the 1950's and can be summarized as follows:

- ***Economic theory*** says consumers act in their own financial self-interest. They look for maximum utility at the lowest cost. Rational, methodical calculation is pre-supposed, so price demand equations are used to calculate aggregate consumer behavior. Consumers must have functional information to make a decision. This old, much-revered theory most

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often applies to commodity items. It is highly respected by economic forecasters and is the only theory widely publicized by U.S. government regulatory agencies.

- **Responsive theory** tells us consumers are lazy and want to buy with minimum effort. They develop habits through stimulus-response learning. The process is non-rational and automatic as repetition builds and then reinforces buying activity for routine products. Information serves a reminder/exposure, rather than thoughtful, purpose.
- **Psychological theory** explains consumer behavior as ego involvement: the personality must be defended or promoted. This is essentially unpredictable, undeliberate and latent as psychic energy flows between the id, ego and super-ego. Implicit product attitudes are more important than functional benefits for the selective products that touch people so deeply. This "hidden persuader" theory is discussed most by militant consumerists.
- **Social theory** describes consumers as basically imitative. People watch what others buy and comply/adjust to get along or be inconspicuous. It's an emotional, insecure behavior. Group role, prestige, status and vanity concerns are involved. Opinion leaders and word-of-mouth communication are important for the visible products affected.

Which theory is right? They all have some truth. *Economic* motives dominate much consumer behavior, especially on expensive products and those with highly functional benefits. But *Responsive* buying also prevails, many routine items require little or no thought, and purchase habits, once established, can serve indefinitely. *Psychological* issues complicate our understanding because many items can have "symbolic" overtones. The same is true of *Social* motives since numerous products have public meaning. Thus, at various times and for different products, each theory might play a part in consideration, purchase and consumption behavior.

While these theories have enough face validity to make them interesting, they lack the specificity to make them practical. Also, which theory to use in a situation and how to blend it with other theories are constant and frustrating problems. Time and the efforts of consumer theorists have moved beyond these simpler explanations to more dynamic notions of how consumers respond to advertising.

2.3 : Endorsement as a Promotional Strategy

In an attempt to communicate the merits of their products or brand, advertisers have often chosen to use endorsement as a promotional strategy. Friedman and Friedman (1979) note that endorsers can be of many types, including the typical consumer, the product class expert and the celebrity. In addition, Daneshvary and Schwer (2000) point out to endorsements by an association. The study of Friedman et al. (1976) concludes that it is perhaps useful for a promoter to use an endorser for his product, rather than employ a comparable advertisement without an endorsement. Furthermore, the paper indicates that the endorser, no matter what type, effected somewhat higher taste expectations, intent-to-purchase and believability than the control advertisement, which was not endorsed. On the other hand, Friedman and Friedman (1979) found that ads using a celebrity spokesperson led to higher ratings of the ad, attitude toward the product, and purchase intention for products involving image or taste, and led to better ad and brand name recall regardless of the product.

Atkin and Block (1983); Petty et al. (1983) and Ohanian (1991) suggest that celebrity endorsers produced more positive attitudes towards advertising and greater purchase intentions than a non-celebrity endorser. On the contrary, Mehta (1994) found that there were no statistically significant differences in attitudes towards advertising, brand and intentions to purchase endorsed brand between celebrity and non-celebrity endorsement situations. However, McCracken (1989) argues that celebrities are different from the anonymous person, because celebrities deliver meanings of extra subtlety, depth, and power. The writer puts forward that celebrities offer a range of personality and lifestyle meanings that the anonymous person cannot provide. The writer refers to the meaning that the celebrity endorser could give to the product that was generated in distant movie, music performances or athletic achievements. Nevertheless, celebrities are still human beings which are in fact highly individualized and complex bundles of cultural values and meanings. In a similar vein, McCracken (1989) contends that even the most heavily stereotyped celebrity represents not a single meaning, but an interconnected set of meanings. The results generally indicate that a celebrity is more effective than a non-celebrity. However, the effectiveness of the celebrity endorser depends, partly, upon the meanings he or she brings to the endorsement process. Hence, celebrity endorsement can be considered as an effective marketing device to transfer cultural meanings to products.

On the other hand, some of the most difficult aspects of global marketing to grasp are host countries' cultural 'roadblocks' such as time, space, language, relationships, power, risk,

masculinity, femininity and many others (Mooij 1994; Hofstede 1984). Then again, Kaikati (1987 in Erdogan 1999) believes that celebrities with world-wide popularity can help companies break through many such roadblocks. Thus, celebrity endorsement can be a useful marketing device to enter foreign markets. Furthermore, research suggests that the type of endorser may interact with the type of product endorsed and found that celebrity endorsers are more appropriate where products involve high social and psychological risk (Atkin and Block 1983; Friedman and Friedman 1979; Kamins 1989; Kamins et al. 1989). In addition, Packard (1991) believes that celebrity endorsement strategy is effective in selling products, and services as status symbols since celebrities are individuals of indisputably high status and in endorsements. On the other hand, Callcoat and Phillips (1996) found that consumers are generally influenced by spokespersons if products are inexpensive, low-involving and few differences are perceived among available brands. Walker et al. (1992) conclude that consistency between the endorser's image and the desired product image may be more crucial for a technical, complex and information-dependent product than for a nontechnical, simple, commodity-type product. Although academic conclusions are varied, one can infer that an association must be fashioned between the cultural meanings of the celebrity's world and the endorsed product. The next section will describe the subject of celebrity endorsement in more detail.

2.3.1 : Celebrity Endorsements

A celebrity endorser is an individual who is known to the public (actor, sports figure, entertainer, etc.) for his or her achievements in areas other than that of the product class endorsed. (Friedman & Friedman, 1979, p. 63). Celebrity endorsement is a ubiquitous characteristic of modern marketing (McCracken 1989) Reports from the annual surveys of Forbes magazine reveal that many celebrities earn much more money from their endorsement contracts than from their usual fields of practice (Lane, 1994). T-Mobile paid \$20 million to Catherine Zeta-Jones, and Pepsi has paid tens of millions to land numerous stars including Beyonce, Britney Spears, Puff Daddy, Carson Daily, and Tiger Woods (Schiering, 2003). The widespread and persistent use of celebrities in advertising suggests that they are worth the costs associated with hiring them (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995). Advertisers have long since used endorsements as a promotional strategy to communicate product attributes (Kamins, 1990).. Corporations invest significant amounts of money to align themselves and their products with big name celebrities in the belief that they will (a) draw attention to the

endorsed products/services and (b) transfer image values to these products/services by virtue of their celebrity profile and engaging attributes (Erdogan 1999; Ohanian 1991; O'Mahony and Meenaghan 1998). Moreover, Newsom et al. (2000) believe that celebrities can increase recognition and their presence almost guarantees publicity. Studies findings by Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) and Mathur et al. (1997) emphasised the effectiveness of use of celebrity endorsement. Because of their fame, celebrities serve not only to create and maintain attention, but also achieve high recall rates for marketing communications messages in today's highly cluttered environment (Atkin and Block 1983; Erdogan 1999; Friedman and Friedman 1979; Kamen, et al. 1975; Kamins, et al. 1989; Ohanian 1991; O'Mahony and Meenaghan 1997). Furthermore, Dyer (1988) suggests that the use of a celebrity is one of the most successful ways of gaining the consumer's attention and getting him or her to infer the right message in a limited amount of space and time. Prevailing literature indicates that, millions of dollars are spent on celebrity endorsers each year (Buck 1993; Erdogan 1999; Tripp et al. 1994; Walker et al. 1992). Shimp (2000) notes that around 25% of all US-based commercials utilise celebrities, and according to Kamins (1990), today this advertising approach appears to be on the increase across all media types.

From a UK perspective one in five marketing communications campaigns featured celebrities (Erdogan et al. 2001). In terms of monetary value of celebrity endorsements, Advertising Age (2003) estimated that celebrity income from endorsements can be substantial, for example, Tiger Woods made in the order of US\$ 70 million in 2002 from endorsements and appearances, Michael Jordan earned US\$ 50 million in the same period from endorsements alone. In addition, Buck (1993) suggests that dependence on celebrity endorsements has grown. With the significant amount of money companies invest in celebrity endorsement in order to promote the company, their products and by creating a certain image, it is vital for the industry to be interested in the actual effect of brands using celebrity endorsement. However, who or what is considered to be a celebrity? The following sections will give a theoretical perspective and starts by proposing a comprehensive definition about the topic being discussed, McCracken's (1989) definition has been used as a basis and is to some extent modified to correspond with the objectives of this study; 'any person who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition to endorse a consumer good or service by appearing with it in an advertisement'. This definition is deliberately broad to encompass not only the usual movie and television stars, but also individuals from the world of journalism, sport, politics, business, art and the military. Furthermore, in line with McCracken (1989) the term 'celebrity' is also meant in this study to cover a variety of endorsements, including those in

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the explicit mode ('I endorse this product'), the implicit mode ('I use this product'), and the imperative mode ('You should use this product'), and the co present mode (i.e., in which the celebrity merely appears with the product'). Moreover, it includes a range of endorsement roles, such as cases in which the celebrity is also an expert, is associated with the product in some long term capacity, or has no special knowledge of, or association with, the product in question (Friedman et al. 1976).

Cooper (1984), indicates that the key to using a celebrity in an advertisement is to ensure that the celebrity is well-known enough to get attention, but also will not upstage the product; the product and not the personality has to be the star. One way in which celebrities attract the attention of consumers is by the meanings the celebrity brings to the brand he or she is endorsing, which McCracken (1989) described as the Transfer Meaning Model. According to the model, celebrity's effectiveness as endorsers stem from the cultural meanings in which they are endorsed. It is a three stage model that states the transfer starts at the formation of celebrity image which is then transferred from the celebrity to the product, and finally from the product to the consumer. Distinctions of status, class, gender, age, lifestyle types, and personality types are examples of meanings represented by the vast pool celebrities advertisers have at their disposal (McCracken, 1989). Consumers can perceive these meanings in different ways.

Three documented ways that consumers relate to the meanings that the celebrities can occupy are compliance, identification, and internalization (Kelman, 1956).

Compliance can occur when an individual accepts influence from another person or from a group because he hopes to achieve a favorable reaction from them (Kelman, 1956). The individual may be interested in attaining certain specific rewards or avoiding certain specific punishments that the influencing agent controls (Kelman, 1956). The influencing agent can be the celebrity, and the consumer may be complying with them so he can feel that he has approval of his purchase. When the individual complies, he does what the controlling agent wants him to do or what he thinks the controlling agent wants him to do because he sees this as a way of achieving a desired response from the controlling agent (Kelman, 1956).

Identification can occur when an individual adopts behavior derived from another person or group because this behavior is associated with a satisfying self-defining relationship to this person or group (Kelman, 1956; Cohen & Golden, 1972). The individual actually attempts to

be like the other person; by saying what the other says doing what the other does, wearing what the other person wears, the individual maintains a relationship that is self-satisfying (Kelman, 1956). In this case the person is buying something because he sees the celebrity wearing or promoting it and wants to be just like that celebrity. The consumer thinks that if he/she buys that specific product he/she will either look like or become like the celebrity. Physical attractiveness is one of the main elements found in this process. The individual is not primarily concerned with pleasing others, as in compliance, but is concerned with meeting the controlling agents expectations for his own role performance (Kelman, 1956). Individuals accept influence from an attractive/likeable endorser because of a desire to identify with that person (Kamins & Gupta, 1994). The physical attractiveness factor is one element this study will examine and will be thoroughly explained later in the review.

Internalization can occur when an individual accepts influence because the induced behavior is congruent with his value system (Kelman, 1956). It is the content of the induced behavior that is intrinsically rewarding (Maddox & Rogers, 1980); the individual adopts it because he finds it useful for the solution of a problem, or because he perceives it as inherently conducive to the maximization of his values (Kelman, 1956). Credibility is a major factor here. Typically, when this process occurs the individual will not totally accept the recommendations, but will modify them to fit his own situation (Kelman, 1956). The consumer here will look to the celebrity for expertise, and if he feels that the celebrity is knowledgeable enough he will buy the endorsed product. Advertising using celebrity endorsers must match-up the celebrity's image with the image of the product advertised because that makes the message easier for the consumers to internalize (Kamins & Gupta, 1994). Various types of endorsements by spokespersons attempt to project a credible image to influence consumers favorably toward the product being advertised; those perceived as a credible source have such intrinsic attributes as trustworthiness, expertise, and attractiveness (Dholakia & Sternthal, 1977). It is this process where McCrackens. Meaning Transfer Model is best formed because information from the spokesperson is internalized with the individual's own attitudes and values (Kamins & Gupta, 1994). The source credibility factor is another element that this study will examine and will be thoroughly explained later in the review.

A study conducted by Romer (1978) demonstrated that identification and internalization are independent processes with separate determinants and separate consequences and that attraction toward like things is a function of both identification and internalization. He found that respondents that had positive attitudes also thought the communicator was trustworthy and were attracted toward others who agreed with their position; the more the respondents

agreed with the position, the more trusted the communicator and the more attracted they were to others who agreed with them, thus proving that identification and internalization are independent processes. It also proves that attraction of like things is affected by both identification and internalization. These two processes independently mediated attitude change. All three processes are relevant to the way consumers buy products. How the consumer relates to the celebrity, to the ad, and to the product itself will determine which product they purchase. The celebrity has many roles when endorsing a product; he/she can act as an expert, a spokesperson, a promoter, or just is a pretty face. (Erokan et. al., 2001), adding equity value) to the brand and enhancing the brand's competitive position (Till, 1998). Thus, celebrity's stamp of approval can bring added value to a brand's equity and can create an emotional bond, if the fit is right (Bradley, 1996).

2.3.2 : Implications of Celebrity Endorsement

Sometimes celebrity endorsement can result in negative publicity that has nothing to do with the product or brand. For example, the celebrity's private life may make the news in a way that damages the promotion campaign, such as when the celebrity is engaging in 'bad' behaviors or performance and as a result end the contract. Buck (1993) claims that celebrities lead lives of unimaginable temptations and awesome pressures and there is always a vast discrepancy between the images they project and the live they actually lead. Holloway and Robinson (1995) take the view that there is a risk with personality based advertising, because when a personality suffers adverse public relations exposure, the credibility of the advertising suffers too. In addition, Erdogan's (1999) study found that negative information about the celebrity endorser not only influences consumers' perception of the celebrity, but also the endorsed product. Buck (1993) denotes that more and more marketing managers have seen their brand's reputation threatened by inadequate relationships. This is due to the combination of aggression and inexperience that brand-marketers throw at endorsement deals nowadays. Celebrity endorsement works for a while, but the energy and image diverted to the star endorser saps attention from other product attributes that, in the long haul, count for much more: quality, innovation, convenience and price.

Following table gives an idea about the potential advantages and hazards of hiring a celebrity.

Table 2 Pros and Cons of Celebrity Endorsement Strategy.

Potential Advantages	Potential Hazards	Preventive Tactics
Increased attention	Overshadow the brand	Pre-testing and careful planning
Image polishing	Public controversy	Buying insurance and putting clauses in contracts
Brand introduction	Image change and overexposure	Explaining what is their role and putting clause to restrict endorsements for other brands
Brand repositioning	Image change and loss of public recognition	Examining what life-cycle stage the celebrity is in and how long this stage is likely to continue
Underpin global campaigns	Expensive	Selecting celebrities who are appropriate for global target audience, not because they are 'hot' in all market audiences.

Source: Adapted from Erdogan (Journal of Marketing Management, 1999: p. 295)

Furthermore, research point out to the 'vampire' effect, this means that in the non-endorsed advertisement, receivers focused more on the brand and its features whereas in the endorsed situation receivers concentrated on the celebrity in advertising (Holloway and Robinson 1995; Evans 1988; Mehta 1994; Newsom et al. 2000; Rossiter and Percy 1987). Buck (1993) believes that if a company equates their brand with a personality to detriment of its other qualities, the brand will rise and fall according to the appeal of that star. There are no 'win-win' situations in marketing anymore and claims that celebrity endorsement is the shortest-term strategy of all, because celebrities, by definition, are perishable, and so is the aftertaste left behind by a celebrity deal. On the other hand, an interesting alternative that might avoid these implications is given by Shimp (2000); he suggests using endorsements of celebrities who are no longer living. Some of the deceased celebrities are well known and respected by consumers in the target audiences, to whom they appeal and best of all, their use in

advertising is virtually risk free inasmuch as they cannot engage in behaviors that will sully their reputations and resonate adversely to brands they posthumously endorse. Marketing News (1993) gives an example of Marilyn Monroe and she appeared in an advertisement for the Alaska Visitors Association saying, "*The picture may have changed but her beauty hasn't. The same is true of Alaska*". This study proposed this alternative to the marketing experts and in their opinion the dead celebrity was not considered to be a good match with a destination, unless the celebrity was the main reason to visit the destination, e.g. in the case of Graceland, Elvis's home. Another endorsement alternative is given by Dean and Biswas (2001) and Daneshvary and Schwer (2000) they point out to a third party endorsement. Daneshvary and Schwer (2000) suggest that consumers are more likely to adopt behaviour advocated by an association if they identify with the organization (identification). Furthermore, if they perceive the source as credible and as an expert in the products, which it endorses, consumers are likely to purchase the product (internalization). For example, "The Independent" rated the Norwegian south coast as the best holiday area in the world in addition "National Geographic" rated the Norwegian coast as the No.1 tourist target in the world. Furthermore, consumers have the opportunity to interact with the source (through their travel reports) and there is a fit or congruency (the match-up hypothesis by Kamins 1989, 1990) between the source and the product (journalist has actually visited the destination). Thus, a well known travel (journalism) association could be considered to be a useful endorsement device for the promotion of a destination because of their perceived expertise, neutrality and fame. On the other hand, the marketing experts did not see this alternative as an effective endorsement device, because the marketing manager is not able to control the third-party.

It is apparent that academic findings and opinions are mixed and unable to provide any direction to marketers. Moreover, when mismatches occur, the implications for product meaning can be damaging. However, how can one select and maintain the 'right' celebrity among many competing alternatives, and, at the same time manage this marketing device, while avoiding potential risks?

Advantages of Celebrity Endorsement

Celebrity endorsement is a form of advertising that calls upon famous spokespersons that are well known for their achievements in areas other than that of the endorsed product (Friedman & Friedman, 1979). Celebrity endorsement is used to enhance the image of company, product, or brand (Brooks et al., 1998) and to sell corporate products or services (Ambrose, 1992). According to Erdogan, Baker, and Tagg (2001), associating with celebrities is effective when

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a company disseminates new brand images, repositions brands, or introduces new ones as well as promotes established brands. Celebrity endorsers are viewed as highly dynamic with both attractive and likable qualities (Atkin & Block, 1983). The effectiveness of endorsements with emotional ties between consumers and celebrity endorsers has been examined in numerous studies.

Research examining the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers has included, 1) drawing attention to advertising (Atkin & Block, 1983; Dyson & Turco, 1998; Ohanian, 1991); 2) enhancing recall of message and advertising (Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Ohanian, 1991); 3) increasing the value to endorsed products by transferring meaning (Dyson & Turco, 1998) and generating credibility of the product (Stone, Joseph, & Jones, 2003); 4) generating brand awareness (Erdogan et al., 2001; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983,); 5) generating a favorable impact on advertising (Atkin & Block, 1983; Goldsmith, Lafferty, & Newell, 2000; Lafferty, Goldsmith, & Newell, 2002); and 6) generating purchase intention (Ohanian, 1991), although Brooks et al., and Walker, Langmeyer, and Langmeyer (1992) insisted that celebrity endorsement does not necessarily result in purchase intentions. According to Friedman and Friedman (1979), Kahle and Homer (1985), Ohanian (1991), O'Mahony and Meenaghan (1997/98), and Walker et al. (1992), a match between product image and celebrity image is necessary in order for there to be a significant impact or effect from celebrity endorsement.

Disadvantages of Celebrity Endorsement

Negative aspects of celebrity endorsement, on the other hand, are 1) high-cost and 2) high-risk (Dyson & Turco, 1998), and 3) multiple endorsements. One example is Kobe Bryant; he was accused of sexual assault (Hein, 2003; Kang, 2005; Tenser, 2004) after signing a five-year approximately \$40 million endorsements deal with Nike. Nike waited at least two years to utilize Bryant as an endorser (Kang, 2005). Hein (2003) mentioned "celebrity athletes who get 80%-90% of the largest endorsement deals keep ending up on the police blotter or suspended by their leagues" (p. 6). Another concern is the risk of injury to athlete endorses (Hein, 2003). Stone et al. (2003) indicated that advertising in *Sports Illustrated* between 1993 and 1998 featured mostly older and retired athletes, compared to the period between 1983 and 1988. Older athletes' long-term behaviors ensure their future behaviors, and using retired athletes avoids the risk of injury. The third negative aspect is multiple endorsements (Dyson & Turco, 1998). "As the number of products endorsed increases, consumers' perception of celebrity credibility, celebrity likeability and attitude toward the ad become less favorable"

(Tripp, Jensen, & Carlson, 1994, p. 535). As celebrity endorsement increases in popularity, finding a celebrity who exclusively represents a product has been getting more difficult for companies (Dyson & Turco, 1998). As noted by Gray (2003), "using a sports star to promote a product is big business. But if the fit is wrong or the star goes astray, it can prove disastrous" (p. 27).

2.4 : Selecting the Right Celebrity

2.4.1 : Performer "Q" Ratings

As earlier indicated, the selection of the celebrity endorser should be carried out with great care by the marketing manager. One tool to assist him or her in this selection is called the "Performer Q-Ratings". Shimp (2000) notes that this selection method is commercially available from Marketing Evaluations and this firm evaluates approximately 1,500 public figures by mailing questionnaires to a representative national panel of individuals. According to Shimp (2000), individuals are asked to answer two simple questions in these surveys: (1) Have you heard of this person? (2) If you have, do you rate him/her, poor, fair, good, very good or one of your favourites? A celebrity's Q- (quotient) rating is calculated by dividing the percentage of the total sample rating the celebrity as 'one of their favourites' by the percentage of sample who know the celebrity (Shimp 2000). Here is an example. Bill Cosby was known by 95% of the people, of which 45% considered him a favourite. His Q-rating was 47 (45 divided by 95). Rosanne Barr was known by 93%, but favourite of only 15%. Her Q-rating was 16. Basically, the Q-rating reflects a celebrity's popularity among those who recognise the celebrity (Solomon et al. 1999). Rossiter and Percy (1987) believe that knowing a celebrity's Q-rating may not only be beneficial in cases where particular audiences are targeted, but it may also enable companies to save on the cost of hiring a big celebrity name who might not be popular among target audiences. Hence, the Q-rating of celebrities could be an initial filtering layer in selecting celebrity endorsers.

2.4.2 : AHP Model for Rating Celebrities

Using the analytic hierarchy process to develop an overall rating of a celebrity is a new approach to enhance procedures such as the Q-Rating currently in practice. The Q-rating approach has received criticism on its usefulness because it essentially only considers familiarity and likeability of the celebrity. Using the AHP model approach allows users to input judgments as to how they feel about one celebrity compared to another with a specific set of criteria in mind. The model is an improvement over the Q-rating system because it includes a more complete set of attributes and, more importantly, has the ability to capture and analyse trade-offs among those attributes. Another improvement is that as situations change or evolve, the model can be easily updated to capture new information. This allows for celebrities' ratings to change over time and be more accurate given all available information.

The current method used to select celebrity endorsers relies on general likeability or popularity indicators such as Q-ratings. The Performer Q Rating (Q-rating) is compiled by a company in New York called Marketing Evaluations, Inc. A Q-rating is defined by the creators as 'the percentage of those familiar with a personality who rate that personality as "one of my favorites" (on the questionnaire)'. The survey is conducted twice a year and each wave of the survey includes 1800 participants aged six years and above. Marketing Evaluations, Inc. then sells the data to various entities such as television and motion picture studios, public relations professionals, advertisers and agents. Q-ratings are based on a simple ratio of likeability to familiarity, which can lead to a misleading interpretation. If a celebrity is very well-liked by only a small group of people who know them, their Q-rating will be high. In wide-spread advertising, an unknown celebrity is not likely to be very effective as an endorser, no matter how well liked they are among those who know them. However, in spite of the existence of the Q-rating system, most practitioners simply use personal judgment when choosing celebrities for advertising campaigns

(Miciak & Shanklin, 1994).

A more precise indicator of effectiveness is needed. It is imperative that corporations make wise choices when deciding on a spokesperson for their product or service. If practitioners have a reliable model that can assist them in the decision-making process, their decisions will be better informed and more accurate. Choosing a celebrity as an endorser for your product simply because they are the flavor of the month is risky and decidedly unwise.

Thomas Saaty developed the methodology known as the analytic hierarchy process (AHP) in the 1970s; the mathematics and research are fully detailed in the six volume set Fundamentals

of Decision Making and Priority Theory with The Analytic Hierarchy Process, Volumes I–VI of the Analytic Hierarchy Process Series (Saaty, 1994). AHP uses matrix algebra, eigen vectors and pairwise comparisons to aid decision-makers in making decisions. The process structures problems into a hierarchical form by decomposing the problem into its parts and sub-parts. Once the hierarchy is constructed, the decision-maker/expert enters judgments via a pairwise process that allows for the prioritization of the parts and sub-parts. In this paper we create a celebrity-rating model where these parts are the attributes that marketers consider when choosing a celebrity endorser to market a product. The model aims to create a general overall rating for a list of celebrities.

First, the overall attributes are weighted and an intensity scale for each of the attributes is developed so that each of the celebrities can be defined in terms of each attribute. The scales are generally a range from extremely to not very much with the exception of gender, which is male or female. Then, the pairwise process is again used to assess how much more important it is for a celebrity to be, for example, extremely likeable versus not very likeable. How important the given attribute is in the overall model will determine how much more important the differences on the scale for a celebrity might be. Once each of the celebrities' contributions to each attribute is entered, a synthesis is done that mathematically adds each celebrity's weight for each attribute to a final composite rating. This final rating considers the trade-offs among the different attributes and how each celebrity fared with respect to each of those attributes. Each celebrity receives an overall rating synthesizing all of the information based on each attribute considered important to being a celebrity endorser.

One of the key strengths of AHP is that it uses ratio scale measurements, which allows us to make direct comparisons among the celebrities. For example, if a celebrity receives an overall rating of 60 and another a rating of 30, we can state that the first celebrity would be twice as useful as a celebrity endorser as the second.

AHP model for rating celebrities with respect to given criteria After the pairwise information was entered into the AHP model, the model was synthesized. This determined the overall relative importance of each of the major criteria for selecting which celebrities would make the best endorsers. The results are displayed in Table 1. As the results show, credibility was found to be the most important criteria in choosing a celebrity endorser followed by likeability, familiarity and gender in descending order of importance. The sub-criteria of expertise was found to be the most important piece of credibility, with trustworthiness and attractiveness following. The relative weights can also be found in Table 1. Because of the ratio scale measurement that AHP uses, we can make statements about the relative importance

of the criteria with respect to each other. Therefore, we can say that credibility makes up a little over half of the total criteria, with a weight of 53.1%. Likeability is found to be about half as important as credibility, with a weight of 27.7% and familiarity about half of that with a weight of 15.8%. Gender was revealed to be not an important factor, with only about 3.3% of the total criteria.

Once the priorities of the criteria were determined, the next step was to determine how each celebrity fared with respect to each of those criteria. This is done in the ratings data grid. We developed the relative scale for each of the criteria and entered if each celebrity extremely, strongly, moderately, somewhat, or not very much so related to the criteria, with the exception of gender, which is male or female. (See Table 2 for results.)

The numbers were normalized so that the score represents how each celebrity did on a 100-point scale; the celebrity with the highest total rating was given 100% and then the others were derived as a percentage of that rating. As the results above show, Michael Jordon is currently the most qualified celebrity to be a celebrity endorser with Denzel Washington and Patrick Stewart following closely behind. The least qualified celebrity currently is Mark McGwire. Again, due to the flexibility of the AHP model, it can be updated as information about the celebrities changes. For instance, if something unfavorable was to be divulged about Michael Jordon, he could easily drop to the bottom of the celebrity endorsers.

2.4.3 : Models Addressing Major Dimensions for Selecting a Celebrity

1. Source Credibility Model by Hovland et al. (1953)

Credibility is audience perception of both –

- A) Celebrity's Expertise -- it refers to knowledge, experience, skills of endorser.
- B) Trustworthiness -- it refers to honesty, integrity and believability.

To increase 'Credibility', celebrity should be used on 'exclusive basis'. i.e. should not endorse any other product. If the celebrity endorses only one product then consumers are likely to have more favorable attitude and great intention to purchase the product.

2. Source Attractiveness Model by McGuire (1985)

Attractiveness towards a celebrity can be determined through following dimensions:

- A) Friendliness
- B) Likeability
- C) Physical attractiveness (Physique)

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D) Occupation

E) Similarity

-- Attitudinal Similarity --

-- Membership-group Similarity (i.e. Social class)

F) Prestige – is derived from past achievements, reputations, wealth, political power, visibility in the society etc.

G) Familiarity

H) Occupation

3. Celebrity Product Match-up Model by Forkan (1980) and Kamins (1989, 1990)

4. Meaning Transfer Model by McCracken (1989)

2.4.4 : Other Dimensions for the Choice of a Celebrity

1. Power

A) Expert Power

B) Coercive Power

C) Reward Power

D) Legitimate Power

E) Reference Power

F) Charisma

Belch & Belch (2001); Byrne et al. (2003) states that a source has power because he or she can actually administer rewards and punishments to the receiver. Belch & Belch (2001) further states that as a result of this power, the source may be able to induce another person(s) to respond to the request or position he or she is supporting. The power of the source depends on several factors. The source must be perceived as being able to administer positive or negative sanctions to the receiver (perceived control) and the receiver must think the source cares about whether or not the receiver conforms (perceived concern). Another important factor is the receiver's estimate of the source's ability to observe conformity (perceived scrutiny). Source power is very difficult to apply in a non-personal influence situation such as advertising. Generally the communicator in the ad cannot apply any sanctions to the receiver

or determine whether compliance actually occurs. One way of using power in an indirect way is by using an individual with an authoritative personality as a spokesperson. (Ibid)

Source power is better applied in situations involving personal communication and influence. An example of this could be that the sales rep has some power over a buyer if the latter anticipates receiving special rewards or favors for complying with the salesperson. However, the sales reps must be careful in their use of power position, since the long-term relationship with customers can be damaged if power is used in the wrong way. (Ibid)

2.4.5 : Miscellaneous Considerations

According to Shimp (2000), advertising executives in selecting celebrities consider additional factors, such as: (1) how much it will cost to acquire a celebrity's services, (2) the likelihood that the celebrity will get into trouble after an endorsement is established, (3) how difficult or easy he or she is to work with, and (4) how many other brands the celebrity is endorsing. The majority of studies found that attractive celebrity endorsers are not able to influence consumer behavior. On the other hand, several studies found that celebrities are able to create purchase intentions. In light with these academic findings it is safe to argue that celebrity endorsement is more effective than non-celebrity endorsement in generating all desirable outcomes (attitudes towards advertising, and the endorsed brand and intentions to purchase) when celebrities whose public personality match with the products and target audiences, and who have not endorsed products previously.

2.5. : Attitude Formation and Fishbein Attitude Theory

The Fishbein Attitude Theory presents the clearest theoretical explanation of the term .attitude.. According to Fishbein (1967), a person's attitude is a function of his salient beliefs (beliefs that are activated from memory and .considered. by the person in a given situation) at a given point in time. Mitchell & Olson (1981), proved this concept by specifying the relationship between the set of salient beliefs of a concept and an overall evaluation of, or attitude toward, the concept. In turn, attitude, especially attitude toward the act of purchasing a brand (Aact), is presumed to have a casual influence on behavioral intentions (BI). This attitude theory has three main variables: beliefs evaluations/attitudes, and intentions. According to Mitchell & Olson (1981), the basic theoretical proposition of Fishbein's Attitude

Theory is that beliefs *cause* attitude. Because attitude is determined by a set of salient beliefs, changes in attitude must be mediated by changes in those beliefs; therefore to change a person's attitude toward a concept/brand (Ao), one must modify the salient beliefs about that concept. Beliefs can be modified by changing the strength of a salient belief (b1), changing the evaluation of a belief (e1), creating a new salient belief, or making a salient belief nonsalient. Fishbein also proposed that the attitude-belief relationship holds for attitudes toward a specific behavior like buying a product (Mitchell & Olson 1981).

The Fishbein Attitude Theory is a widely used theory, because there are so many different formulas that can be formed using it. Ultimately, it is important to understand not only a consumer's attitude toward the product, but how it is formed. The Fishbein Attitude Theory also breaks down the word .attitude. into two separate constructs, Aad, and AB. This breakdown helps measure attitudes specifically toward the advertisement and the brand. Equally important are consumers. Intent to purchase and their beliefs toward the brand. These three concepts are beneficial to study; however, they are quite different in meaning. Before defining Aad and AB, the concept of the word .Attitude. needs to be introduced.

Attitude

The word .attitude., like many words in the English language, has many meanings. Derived from the Latin *Aptus*, it has on the one hand the significance of .fitness. or .adaptedness. and like its by-form *aptitude* connotes a subjective or mental state of preparation for action (Fishbein, 1967). One of the first places the concept of attitude was tested was in experimental psychology. This lead to many questions about the word attitude, mainly, where the meaningfulness of where attitudes are represented; in the consciousness of brain activity or in the unconscious mind (Fishbein, 1967). Many scientists argue about this topic. Studies are still ongoing and have invaded the realm of social psychology. The definition of the attitude concept has generated a multitude of definitions, but the most widely used one is by Martin Fishbein; .an attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related. (Fishbein, 1967, p. 8). Attitudes can be either positive or negative, depending on how people form them. One of the more famous and popular scales to measure attitudes is the Fishbein Attitude Model. The Fishbein Model is a multiattribute model. These models imply that a consumer's attitude (evaluation) toward an attitude object (Ao) will depend on the beliefs he or she has about several or many attributes of the object (Solomon, 2004). The use of this model states that identifying these specific beliefs and combining them to derive a measure of the consumers. Overall attitude can predict an attitude

toward a product or brand (Solomon, 2004). The Fishbein Attitude Model has been used extensively by consumer researchers since its conception nearly forty years ago (Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2001).

Attitude can be defined as an individual's internal evaluation of an object such as a branded product (Mitchell & Olson 1981). To understand the usefulness of the attitude construct, marketers must develop a clearer understanding of the determinants of attitude formation and change (Mitchell & Olson, 1981). Attitudes have been found to encompass different dimensions, namely accessibility and confidence (Berger & Mitchell, 1989). Attitude accessibility is how available the consumer is to the product they have feelings for; where attitude confidence is regarded as an individual feeling of belief or assurance toward something, such as a product (Berger & Mitchell, 1989). Studies have shown that attitude accessibility and confidence can increase by advertising; it has also been found that if the relationship between attitude accessibility and attitude confidence are positive the accessibility and confidence will increase (Berger & Mitchell 1989). The study by Berger & Mitchell (1989) also showed that advertising can influence more than just the evaluative dimension of the consumers. Attitude when individuals are highly motivated to process brand information, advertising can influence the confidence and the behavior of the consumer.

The attitude concept can be categorized into attitude toward the advertisement (Aad) and attitude toward the brand choice (AB). Aad includes the entire content of the ad, not just the pictorial information, as found by Mitchell & Olson (1981).

Attitude toward the Advertisement

Aad is defined as a predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure situation (Mackenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986). According to Baker and Lutz (1988), Aad may contain both affective reactions (ad-created feelings of happiness) and evaluations (an ad's credibility or informativeness). The advertising function for Aad is not directed at specific products. Attributes/benefits, and the objective is not to influence consumers. Beliefs toward the brand per se (Shimp, 1981). The direction is instead directed towards creating a favorable attitude toward the advertisement in order to leave consumers with a positive feeling after processing the ad (Shimp, 1981). There are two distinct dimensions of Aad, one cognitive and the other emotional (Shimp, 1981). Emotionally, consumers form attitudes toward the ads by consciously processing executional elements (components found in advertisements, such as the endorser, presentation style, color use, and title/font presentation) (Shimp, 1981).

Cognitively, consumers form attitudes resulting from the conscious processing of specific executional elements in the ad, such as the endorser, the copy, the presentation style etc. (Shimp, 1981). Simply stated, Aad may result because the ad evokes an emotional response, such as a feeling of love, joy, nostalgia, or sorrow, without any conscious processing of executional elements (Shimp, 1981). These two dimensions may have different impacts on consumers' attitudes. Mitchell and Olson (1981) conducted an innovative study that posed the question are product attributes the only mediator of brand attitude? They found that brand attitudes are not solely a function of the attribute beliefs that are formed about the brand, but also may be influenced by consumers general liking for the ad itself or the visual stimulus presented in the advertisement.

Attitude toward the Brand

Attitude toward the brand, (AB), attempts to influence brand choice by engendering favorable consumer attitudes toward the advertised brand (Shimp, 1981). This concept is achieved by structuring ads to influence consumer's beliefs and evaluations regarding the favorable consequences of consuming the brand (Shimp, 1981). AB includes beliefs formed from the ad brand attribute information and inferences based on ad picture content (Gardner, 1985; Mitchell & Olson 1981). AB mediates the impact of the Aad on intentions in two ways, indirectly or directly (Biehal et al. 1992). Indirectly Aad has an impact on AB, therefore, AB affects the consumers intentions. Thus, AB, which includes beliefs formed from brand attribute information and inferences based on ad picture content (Mitchell & Olson, 1992), mediates the impact of Aad on intention. There is no direct Aad-intention link (Biehal et al., 1992). Directly, Aad and AB have separate influences on consumer's intentions. Forming overall brand evaluations/intentions may be relatively more time consuming and effortful for the consumer to do than making a choice (Biehal et al., 1992). Choices may be formed for one or for several alternatives without a decision actually being made from any of the consumer's attitudes toward the brand (Biehal et al., 1992).

To make choices, consumers may use many types of processes to eliminate certain brands early in their processing by simply comparing the brands (Biehal et al. 1992). The consumer could choose a brand without differentiating between different brands on the basis of AB or even without ever forming an overall brand attitude (Biehal et al., 1992). This concept implies that AB formation may not necessarily be a precursor of brand choice. Direct Aad effects toward brand choice may occur in other ways. When one brand is clearly superior to the other brand based on this processing, Aad may not directly affect brand choice (Biehal et al. 1992).

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Any influence the brand choice has may be indirect via its impact on the acceptance of ad information and the formation of brand beliefs, which are then incorporated in AB, (MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986). However, if two brands are perceived to be very similar overall, it may be difficult for the consumer to discriminate between them (Biehal et al. 1992). If consumers wish to choose the best brand, they may possibly consider other relevant, brand-related information, such as advertisement reactions. Thus, ad liking may have a direct effect on swaying the consumer's choice between two or more similar brands (Biehal et al. 1992). Very little research has been done that examines Aad and its effects either directly or indirectly on brand choice, (Biehal et al., 1992).

Intentions

Intentions are type of judgments about how in the present context, a consumer will behave towards a particular brand. (Biehal et al., 1992, p. 25). Intentions may be based on processing all relevant and available brand information (Biehal et al. 1992). A close relationship between intentions and choice may not always occur; consumers may make choices without completely processing all brand information (Biehal et al. 1992). Consumers may not even form overall evaluations/intentions either, but they may form attitudes toward the brand without making choices (Biehal et al. 1992). One can distinguish intentions and choice when considering how Aad, a predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure situation, affects brand choice. If, during the early stages, consumers use prior attitudes to eliminate brands, they may not form AB.s for those brands (Biehal et al. 1992). This implies that the mediating role of AB will not operate (Biehal et al. 1992). If a consumer uses a noncompensatory process to lead to a final choice without AB formation, Aad will not indirectly affect a consumer's brand choice (Biehal et al. 1992). If this occurs and Aad has any effect on brand choice, it will most likely be direct and not mediated by AB (Biehal et al. 1992).

Purchase intentions, is a topic that has not been widely studied. When paired with advertising, the studies conducted are scarce. Woodside & Taylor (1978), hypothesized that the more the product is advertised the higher quality it has and the more it will be consumed. The more advertised brands are more easily recognizable leading to greater consumption. Woodside & Taylor (1978) found that consumers viewed products that are nationally advertised to be higher in quality, and therefore, its purchase intentions increase. By creating a greater confidence in the quality of a brand, advertising may be more directly related to the purchase decision (Woodside & Taylor 1978). The critical point here is that advertising, and the

amount of advertising, can influence consumers perceptions of quality and may also affect consumer purchase behavior (Woodside & Taylor 1978). Ohanian (1991), whose study will be discussed in more detail later on in this review, found that the expert celebrity endorser elicited higher purchase intentions. The variables of the Fishbein Attitude Theory are all an integral part of consumer behavior. They are interwoven in meaning and formation. There is not much existing research focusing on Attitude toward the advertisement and Attitude toward brand name apparel (Biehal et al., 1992) which is why measuring consumers. Attitudes toward advertised brands will be beneficial. Basically, consumers are finicky, and how they feel about the product or advertisement of the product, will affect if they buy the product or not. Consumers will form beliefs, either prior to learning about the brand or while it is being advertised. Those beliefs, in turn will cause the consumers to form an overall attitude. The formed attitude will lead the consumers to purchase, or have intent-to-purchase the product. The Fishbein Attitude Theory is especially effective when measuring brand names or if a specific advertisement has generated a high consumer response.

2.6 : Models in Celebrity Endorsement Advertising

Theory behind the selection of celebrity endorsers has attracted a considerable amount of academic and practitioner interest. Carl I. Hovland and his associates laid the foundations for this research agenda in the early 1950s with the development of the Source Credibility Model (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Hovland & Weiss, 1951).

Following the initial Source Credibility Model, three additional models have been proposed: the Source Attractiveness Model (McGuire, 1968), the Product Match-Up Hypothesis (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990), and the Meaning Transfer Model (McCracken, 1989).

2.6.1 : Source Credibility Model (Carl Hovland At El. 1953)

Receivers of advertising sometimes accept a message from a spokesperson and sometimes reject the message. What features of the spokesperson, whether celebrity or not, affect attitudes toward the advertising, brand, and purchase intentions? The source credibility model is an outcome of a landmark study undertaken by Carl Hovland and his associates (1953). The source credibility variable model contends that the effectiveness of a message depends on the perceived level of expertise and trustworthiness of an endorser (Hovland & Weiss, 1951). Scholars and practitioners in marketing and advertising have always focused upon the concept

of credibility, when it comes to evaluating advertising effectiveness. "The effectiveness of a communication is commonly assumed to depend to a considerable extent upon who delivers it" (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953, p. 19). Endorser or spokesperson credibility has received considerable attention in the academic literature (e.g., Aronson, Turner and Carismith 1963; Bergin 1962; Bochner and Insko 1966; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Sternthal, Philips and Dholakia 1978). The U.S. research on source credibility has shown that, in most situations, a highly credible source is most effective than a less credible source in influencing audience attitudes and behavioral intentions (Sternthal, Philips and Dholalis, 1978). According to Patzer (1983), the effectiveness of persuasive communication depends mostly on the credibility of the source. Highly credible sources have been found to produce more positive attitude changes toward the position advocated and to induce more behavioral changes than have less credible sources (Ohanian 1991). Due to wide recognition and popularity, celebrities are often viewed as more credible than average people and thus they are expected to have a greater impact on advertising outcome measures through their established credible images (Atkin and Block 1983; Friedman 1984; Ohanian 1990; Petty and Cacciopo 1986).

The Source Credibility Model contends that the effectiveness of a message depends on perceived levels of expertise and trustworthiness of an endorser (Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Hovland et al., 1953; Ohanian, 1991). Information from a credible source (e.g., celebrity) can influence beliefs, opinions, attitudes, and/or behavior through a process called internalization, which occurs when receivers accept a source influence in terms of their personal attitude and value structures (Kelman, 1961). Trustworthiness refers to the honesty, integrity, and believability of an endorser as perceived by the target audience. Expertise is defined as the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions. It refers to the perceived level of knowledge, experience, or skills possessed by an endorser (Hovland et al., 1953). A celebrity who also appears to be an expert has been found to be more persuasive (Speck, Schumann, & Thompson, 1988) and can generate more intentions to make purchase decisions or donate money (Ohanian, 1991). Source credibility has been operationalised as including a variety of dimensions, such as trustworthiness (Applbaum and Anatol 1972; Bowers and Phillips 1967; DeSarbo and Harshman 1985; Hovland, Janis, and Kelley 1953; Whitehead 1968), expertness (Applbaum and Anatol 1972; DeSarbo and Harshman 1985; Hovland et al. 1953; Simpson and Kahler 1980-81; Wynn 1987), dynamism (Applbaum and Anatol 1972; Berlo, Lemert, and Mertz 1969; Simpson and Kahler 1980-81; Whitehead 1968; Wynn 1987), objectivity (Applbaum and Anatol 1972; Whitehead 1968), safety (Berlo et al. 1969), qualification (Berlo et al. 1969), competence (Bowers and Phillips 1967; Whitehead

1968), attractiveness (DeSarbo and Harshman 1985), likability (DeSarbo and Harshman 1985), authoritativeness (McCroskey 1966), character (McCroskey 1966), believability (Simpson and Kahler 1980-81; Wynn 1987), and sociability (Simpson and Kahler 1980-81; Wynn 1987). The problems are that most of these studies did not evaluate the reliability and validity of their scales to measure source credibility and that the different operationalisations made it difficult to compare results across studies. Thus, understanding and defining source credibility in context of advertising and speech communication is often confusing because of the variety of literature available. From the advertising and marketing perspective, credibility can be referred as the extent to which the source is perceived as possessing expertise relevant to the communication topic and can be trusted to give an objective opinion on the subject (Belch and Belch 1994, pp. 189-190; Ohanian 1990).

The source credibility model is an outcome of a landmark study undertaken by Carl Hovland and his associates (1953). They undertook a detailed analysis of the factors underlying the perceived credibility of the source / communicator. They proposed two factors – namely, expertise and trustworthiness – underscore the concept of source credibility.

After extensive literature review and statistical tests performed, Ohanian (1990) proposed a tri-component celebrity endorser credibility scale which is presented the below mentioned table.

Table 3 Tri-component Celebrity Endorser Credibility Scale

Attractiveness	Trustworthiness	Expertise
Attractive-Unattractive	Trustworthy-Untrustworthy	Expert-Not an Expert
Classy-Not Classy	Dependable-Undependable	Experienced-Inexperienced
Beautiful-Ugly	Honest-Dishonest	Knowledgeable-Unknowledgeable
Elegant-Plain	Reliable-Unreliable	Qualified-Unqualified
Sexy-Not Sexy	Sincere-Insincere	Skilled-Unskilled

Source credibility scale by Ohanian (1990)

Trustworthiness : With regard to trustworthiness, it refers to the audience's degree of confidence in, and degree of acceptance of, the speaker and the message (Hovland et al. 1953). Trustworthiness refers to the honesty, integrity, and believability of an endorser as perceived by the consumer. (Erdogan, Baker, & Tagg, 2001, p.40). Trustworthiness includes honesty and believability (Erdogan et al.; Shank, 2004) and integrity (Erdogan et al.).

Ambrose (1992), Erdogan et al., and Friedman and Friedman (1979) mentioned that expertise and trustworthiness influenced receivers through internalization, one of Kelman's social-influence processes that occurs when receivers accept the source's information because characteristics like honesty, sincerity, expertise, and behavior were congruent with the receivers' value structure (Kelman, 1961). Trustworthiness refers to the consumer's confidence in the source for providing information in an objective and honest manner. For e.g., Most of us would consider a good friend trustworthy on most matters.

Giffin (1967) reviewed the concept of trust, in a tour of the centuries from Aristotle to King, and concluded that what Aristotle called "ethos," and what Hovland, Janis, and Kelly (1953) called "source credibility," are the same concept: a listener's trust in a speaker. Terms like "favorable disposition," "acceptance," "psychological safety," and "perceived supportive climate" are often mentioned as favorable outcomes of trust (Giffin 1967). Numerous studies have supported the effect of communicators' trustworthiness on changing audience's attitudes. For example, Miller and Baseheart (1969) examined the impact of source trustworthiness on the persuasibility of fear-arousing communications. They found that when the communicator was perceived to be highly trustworthy, an opinionated message was more effective than a non-opinionated one in changing attitudes. Further, Friedman and Friedman (1976), and Friedman, Santeramo, and Traina (1979) after investigating several correlates of trustworthiness have concluded that celebrities who are liked will also be trusted. A high correlation existed between celebrity's trustworthiness and a respondent's perceived similarity to the source, source's expertise, and source's attractiveness.

To summarize, trustworthiness of the communicator (celebrity) is an important construct in persuasion and attitude-change research. Hence, a single item commonly used to measure the trustworthiness will be inappropriate. A series of items need to be explored to define the construct of trustworthiness.

Expertise : With regard to expertise of the message source, it refers to the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions (Hovland, Janis, and Kelly, 1953; Erdogan et. Al., 2001, p.40). Expertise is the level of knowledge, experience or skills the endorser possesses (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953). Expertise consists of knowledge, skills, and special experience (Shank, 2004). It is the knowledge that the communicator seems to possess to support the claims made in the advertisements. For e.g., Athletes, doctors, lawyers etc. should be appropriate endorsers of products and services related to their profession. The dimension is also referred to as "authoritativeness"

(McCroskey 1966), “competence” (Whitehead 1968), “expertness” (Applbaum and Anatol 1972), and “qualification” (Berlo, Lemert, and Mertz 1969). This dimension can also be understood through various adjectives like “trained-untrained,” “informed-uninformed,” and “educated-uneducated”. Persuasive communication researches focusing upon source expertise have concluded that the source’s perceived expertise has a positive impact on attitude change (Horai, Naccari, and Fatoullah 1974; Maddux and Rogers 1980; Mills and Harvey 1972; Ross 1973). Further, Crisci and Kassino (1973) have conducted a study to investigate the effect of the perceived expertise of the communicator (“Dr.” versus “Mr.”) and the strength of advice (positive versus neutral) on the behavioral compliance. It was found that the respondents’ compliance with the source’s recommendations directly varied with the perceived level of expertise and the strength of advice. Crano (1970) conducted an experiment by manipulating the dimensions of expertise and found that respondents exposed to an expert source exhibited more agreement with the advocated position than did those exposed to a low-expertise source.

The majority of empirical evidence has shown that a more credible message source is more persuasive (Bannister 1986; Fireworker and Friedman 1977; Friedman and Friedman 1979; Kamen, Azhari, and Kragh 1975; Lirtzman and Shuv-Ami 1986; Maddux and Rogers 1980; Moore, Hausknecht, and Thamodaran 1986; Sternthal, Dholakia, and Leavitt 1978). Further research has concluded that highly credible sources induce more behavioral compliance than do less-credible sources (Ross 1973; Woodside and Davenport, Jr. 1974, 1976). However, one should recognize and internalize that highly credible sources are not always effective than less-credible sources. Especially when, the audience is already favorably predisposed to the message, a less-credible source can induce greater persuasion than can a highly credible source (Sternthal, Dholakia, and Leavitt 1978). A recent study by Goldsmith, Lafferty, and Newell (2000) found that endorser credibility had its strongest effect on attitudes toward the advertisement, whereas corporate credibility had its strongest influence on attitudes toward the brand.

Non Celebrity Studies

Dholakia & Sternthal, (1977) hypothesized that the higher the source’s credibility, the more persuasive they are. They used a bill that was pending in the U. S. Senate at the time of this study, and employed a lawyer and a layman person with an interest in being a lobbyist to be the spokesperson for the study. They found that the lawyer was perceived as the more credible source, thus being perceived to be more trustworthy (Dholakia & Sternthal, 1977). McGinnies

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& Ward (1980) manipulated a source's expertise and trustworthiness to assess the impact of each of these components on the communicator's persuasiveness. Their findings indicated that a source that was perceived to be both an expert and trustworthy generated the most opinion change. Research investigating source expertise in persuasive communication generally has indicated that a source's perceived expertise has a positive impact on attitude change (Horai et al., 1974; Maddux & Rogers, 1980; Mills & Harvey, 1972).

Celebrity Studies

Most of the studies done on this variable have included a combination of noncelebrities and celebrity endorsers. Friedman, Termini and Washington (1976) studied four types of endorsers: the celebrity, the typical consumer, the professional expert, and the company president. The study compared ads with endorsers to an ad with no endorser to see which was more effective in an advertisement. The product they used was a fictitious type of wine. They found that any endorser, no matter what type, brought higher taste expectations, intent-to-purchase and believability than the ad with no endorser (Friedman et. Al., 1976). Another study that focused solely on the trust factor was done by Friedman, Santeramo, and Traina (1978). They sampled two populations and two types of celebrities (a celebrity who has done endorsements, and a celebrity that has not). Study one used undergraduate students, whereas study two used members of a civic group with an average age of 45. Both studies showed that awareness correlated with trust; celebrities that were perceived as having constant media coverage, were trusted more than celebrities not in the constant spotlight (Friedman et. Al., 1978). This finding suggests that consumers who constantly see a celebrity in the media feel a greater connection with them than a celebrity that is not. Friedman and Friedman (1979) designed another study that attempted to determine whether or not the effectiveness of the endorser type is dependent upon the type of product being endorsed. Twelve print ads using the four types of endorsers mentioned above, promoted a fictitious brand name for costume jewelry, a vacuum cleaner, and a box of chocolates (Friedman & Friedman, 1979). They found that a endorser/product interaction occurred. The celebrity endorser was given the highest rating for the costume jewelry. Also, consumers. Evaluations of the ads. Believability varied according to the product/endorser combinations (Friedman & Friedman, 1979).

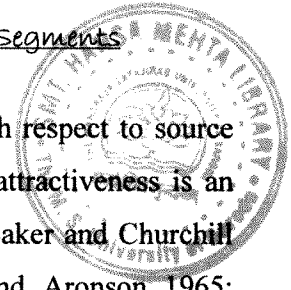
Atkin and Block (1983) proposed that a celebrity endorser will have a greater impact on responses, be more credible, and create more favorable attitudes toward the product than a non-celebrity. A whisky magazine ad featuring Telly Savalas, a newspaper beer ad featuring Happy Hairston and another whisky magazine ad featuring Cheryl Tiegs, were all compared

to non-celebrity versions of the same ads (Atkin & Block, 1983). For all age groups the celebrity figure was perceived as more competent, trustworthy, and rated more positively than the noncelebrity versions (Atkin & Block, 1983). Freiden (1984) developed a study that measured whether or not consumer attitudes generated by advertising would differ depending on the type of spokesperson, the gender of the spokesperson, and the age of the respondents. Four types of endorsers were used: a celebrity, a CEO, a typical consumer and an expert; two different age groups were measured: an adult sample and a college age sample, and the product used was a color television set (Freiden, 1984). The results showed that the type of consumer used in advertising can affect consumer response: the celebrity generated the best results in the category likeability, but not in the categories of product quality, ad trustworthiness, and spokesperson knowledgeably (Freiden, 1984). Gender did not significantly affect consumer attitudes, but age did affect attitude (Freiden, 1984). For this study, since celebrities can be perceived to be an expert of clothing, their expertise of the brand they are endorsing will be measured. Since everyone wear clothes, it would be hard to test that factor. Past studies that have been discussed earlier used products that made it easier to measure expertise. Clothing is objective, so the brand of clothing will be measured instead.

2.6.2 : Source Attractiveness Model (Mcguire, 1985)

The source attractiveness model is a component of “source valence” model of McGuire (1985). The concept of attractiveness is that the source of the information must be familiar, likeable, and similar to the receiver for effective advertising (McGuire, 1985). Shank (2004) mentioned that attractiveness was usually associated with both physical beauty and nonphysical characteristics such as personality, lifestyle, and intellect. The process through which attractiveness influenced receivers was explained by identification, another of Kelman’s social influence processes which occurs when receivers accept the attractive source’s information because of a desire to identify with such endorsers (Ambrose, 1992; Erdogan et al.; Friedman & Friedman, 1979). In previous studies, source credibility was mainly divided into two dimensions: the source credibility model, including expertise and trustworthiness (Hovland et al.) and the source attractiveness model (McGuire, 1968).

The Source Attractiveness Model contends that the effectiveness of a message depends on the *similarity, familiarity, and likeability* of an endorser (McGuire, 1968) (own italics). *Similarity* is defined as a supposed resemblance between the source and the receiver of the message, *familiarity* as knowledge of the source through exposure, and *likeability* as affection for the



source as a result of the source's physical appearance and behavior. With respect to source attractiveness, research has come to a general conclusion that physical attractiveness is an important cue in an individual's initial judgment of another individual (Baker and Churchill 1977; Chaiken 1979; Joseph 1982; Kahle and Homer 1985; Mills and Aronson 1965; Widgery and Ruch 1981). A review in this dimension has revealed that the construct of attractiveness is not uni-dimensional and that there are myriad definitions used to operationalise attractiveness. For e.g., the construct has been defined both in terms of facial and physical attractiveness (Baker and Churchill 1977; Cabellero and Solomon 1984; Patzer 1983), with physical attractiveness operationalized in terms of model attractiveness (attractive-unattractive); (Baker and Churchill 1977; Kahle and Homer 1985), Chicness (Mills and Aronson 1965), sexiness (Steadman 1969), or sexualness and likability (Maddux and Rogers 1980). Joseph (1982) undertook an exhaustive review regarding physically attractive communicators' impact on opinion change, product evaluation, and other dependent measures. It was concluded that attractive (versus unattractive) communicators are consistently liked more and have a positive impact on products with which they are associated. Joseph's findings are very similar to those of others, endorsing that increasing the communicator's attractiveness enhances positive attitude change (Simon, Berkowitz, and Moyer 1970; Kahle and Homer 1985).

Advertisers tend to prefer using physically attractive spokespersons/models to using unattractive ones, based on the belief that physically attractive persons are more liked, and thus should be more effective in inducing favorable responses to the advertised brand. Research on physical attractiveness of the source message in fact tends to show results consistent with the idea that higher attractiveness may result in greater social influence. For instance, physically attractive (versus unattractive) persons often receive more cooperation and assistance from others (Benson, Karabenick, and Lerner 1976), are more likely to be hired (Cash, Gillen, and Burns 1977; Dipboye, Fromkin, and Wiback 1975), and are more likely to be treated leniently when in legal difficulty (Solomon and Schopler 1978; Storck and Sigall 1979). It was found that higher source attractiveness led to higher verbal and behavioural compliance (Debevec, Madden, and Kernan 1986), more agreement (Snyder and Rothbart 1971, male source), and more liking for the source (Snyder and Rothbart 1971, male sources). In addition, physical attractiveness of the source was found to contribute to attitude change toward various issues, products, and advertisement-based evaluations (Caballero and Pride 1984; Chaiken 1979; Horai, Naccari, and Fatoullah 1974; Kahle and Homer 1985).

Attractiveness has become an influential factor in the increasing use of celebrities as endorsers (Baker and Churchill 1977; DeSarbo and Harshman 1985; Patzer 1983).

Most television and print ads use physically attractive people because many studies have shown that consumers tend to form positive stereotypes about such people (Ohanian, 1991). Studies have shown that attractive people are more successful in changing beliefs than their unattractive counterparts (Kamins, 1990; Till & Busler, 1998; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Ohanian, 1991; Chaiken, 1979; Baker & Churchill, 1977; Petrosius & Crocker, 1989; Horai, Naccari, & Fatoullah, 1974). In an exhaustive review by Joseph (1982), he summarized the experimental evidence in advertising and related disciplines regarding physically attractive communicators' impact on opinion change, product evaluations, and other dependent measures. He concluded that attractive versus unattractive communicators are consistently liked more and have a positive impact on products with which they are associated.

Non-Celebrity Studies

Baker and Churchill (1977) conducted a study that measured the physical attractiveness of both male and female models in print advertisements of perfume/cologne/aftershave and found that the more attractive the model, the higher the rating of the advertisement. This finding suggests that people look at the physical qualities of the advertiser to determine whether they like the ad or not. Chaiken (1979) conducted a field study that employed both attractive and unattractive communicators to persuade people to take an opinion survey and found that the attractive communicators elicited greater agreement from respondents than their unattractive counterparts. This study also showed that people thought the attractive communicators were more friendly, better speakers and smarter than their unattractive counterparts (Chaiken, 1979). Petrosius and Crocker (1989) conducted a more in-depth study that focused on the physical attractiveness, race, and sex of the spokesperson and how those elements impacted the respondents. Perceptions of the ad and the product (soap and pens) being advertised. They found that physical attractiveness influenced the respondents' overall liking of the ad and affected their willingness to purchase the product. More specifically, the ad (print) with the more physically attractive spokesperson resulted in a more positive attitude toward the ad and a greater willingness to purchase that product. Horai et al. (1974), manipulated expertise and physical attractiveness orthogonally and found that the two manipulations contributed independently to producing agreement with the communicator's position.

Celebrity Studies

Kahle & Homer (1985) conducted a study using celebrities that measured their physical attractiveness, their likeability, and their involvement in the products (Edge razors) they were endorsing, and then measured attitude and purchase intentions. Print advertisements were used, eleven real and one fictitious. Their results correspond with the previous studies showing that the more likeable and attractive the celebrity the more favorable attitudes consumers had toward the ad and the product; it also showed consumers. Had greater purchase intentions for that product (Kahle & Homer, 1985). Ohanian (1991) performed a study that calculated the physical attractiveness, expertise, and trustworthiness of a celebrity on a respondent's intent to purchase. The celebrity/products used for this study were: Linda Evans promoting new perfume, Madonna promoting a new line of designer jeans, John McEnroe promoting a new line of tennis rackets, and Tom Selleck promoting a new brand of cologne. Ohanian found that the type of celebrity used can affect consumers. Attitudes toward the ad and toward the product, as well as consumers. Purchase intentions for the endorsed product. Different celebrities elicit different meanings to different people. Physical attractiveness and trustworthiness of a celebrity were not significantly related to intent to purchase, but expertise was; gender and age of respondents had no significant effect on their intent to purchase (Ohanian, 1991). This finding suggests that most advertisements use physically attractive celebrities; consumers have become accustomed to seeing pretty people in advertisements. Since expertise was the most significant factor in this study, findings indicated that people related to expert celebrity endorsers more than physically attractive ones. Ohanian (1991) suggests that for celebrity spokespersons to be truly effective, they should be knowledgeable, experienced, and qualified to endorse a product. Till and Busler (1998) conducted a study that focused on celebrity physical attractiveness and how that affects the respondents attitude toward the endorsed brand. They used a pen and mens. Cologne as the products, with a fictitious name and endorser. They showed respondents either attractive pictures of the made up celebrity or unattractive pictures. They found that when the attractive pictures were shown, the brand attitude and purchase intention were significantly higher, irrespective of the product type (Till & Busler, 1998).

2.6.3 : Celebrity-Product Match-Up Model, Forkan (1980), (Kahle and Homer, 1985) and Kamins (1989, 1990)

The Product Match-Up Hypothesis literature maintains that the celebrity's image and the image of the product should be congruent for effective advertising (Forkan, 1980; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990). The determinant of the match between celebrity and brand depends on the degree of perceived "fit" between brand and celebrity image (Misra & Beatty, 1990). Advertising a product or service via a celebrity whose image is highly congruent with the organization leads to greater celebrity believability compared with a situation in which there is low congruence (Kamins & Gupta, 1994). According to McCracken (1989), celebrity endorsements are special examples of a more general process of meaning transfer. In this process, there is a conventional path for the movement of cultural meaning in consumer societies.

This process involves three stages: the formation of celebrity image, transfer of meaning from celebrity to product, and finally from product to consumers. McCracken's (1989) Model of Meaning Transfer may at first seem a merely theoretical concept, but its application to real life was demonstrated by two studies by Langmeyer and Walker (1991a, 1991b). Their studies demonstrated that symbolic meanings possessed by celebrities (Cher, Madonna, and Christie Brinkley) transferred to the endorsed brand/product (Scandinavian Health Spas, bath towels, and blue jeans).

The match-up hypothesis proposes that a celebrity endorser may enhance product- and advertisement-based evaluations if the characteristics of the product are congruent, on an attractiveness basis or some other bases, with the image portrayed by the celebrity. For example, it predicts that when a celebrity's physical attractiveness matches up with an attractiveness-related product, there will be a positive impact on product and advertisement evaluations. On the other hand, when the product is not related to users' attractiveness, there will be a minimal impact of celebrity attractiveness on product and advertisement evaluations. Evidence from studies of Baker and Churchill (1977), Friedman and Friedman (1979), Joseph (1982), Kahle and Homer (1985), and Peterson and Kerin (1977) is consistent with this hypothesis. The Match-up hypothesis generally suggests that the message conveyed by the image of the celebrity and the image of the product should converge in effective advertisements and implies a need for congruency between product image and celebrity image on an attractiveness basis. (Kamins, 1990, p. 5). It suggests that the visual imagery contained in the advertisement conveys information over and above the information contained in

explicit verbal arguments (Rossiter & Percy, 1980). According to Kahle and Homer (1985), when a celebrity's physical attractiveness is congruent with the product they are endorsing, the match-up hypothesis would predict a positive impact on the product and the advertisement evaluations; if there is incongruence, those evaluations would decline. This finding may be particularly true for products that enhance beauty which are endorsed by celebrities. Consumers may believe that the product plays a role in their own attractiveness (Kamins, 1990).

Kamins (1990) decided to test this hypothesis using a celebrity endorser. He used the celebrities Tom Selleck and Telly Savalas, and a car and a computer for products, in a print ad (Kamins, 1990). Results showed that the celebrity had higher credibility with consumers, and a more positive attitude toward the ad was formed by consumers, which is consistent with other studies (Kamins, 1990). Kamins extended his findings in another study. Kamins and Gupta (1994) found that the higher the degree of congruency between the types of endorsers and the product advertised, the greater the believability of the endorser. The linkage between congruence and endorser/advertiser believability was only present for the celebrity endorser (Kamins & Gupta, 1994). Overall, the study implied that congruence between product and celebrity endorser has the potential to be an important factor in advertising. A higher degree of congruency between product and celebrity image resulted in enhanced endorser believability and attractiveness as well as significantly more favorable attitudes and purchase intentions toward the product. Till & Busler (1998) measured candy bars and energy bars with an actor and an athlete, to determine which combination had the best fit. The actor/candy bar and the athlete/energy bar was suggested as the best fit, and they proposed that the expertise dimension may be more useful than attractiveness when matching endorsers with brands. According to Walker et. Al., (1992), when selecting a celebrity endorser, advertisers should consider not only the product attributes that are to be established, but also the broader meanings associated with the endorser. Although the endorser may have certain attributes that are desirable for endorsing the product, they may also have associated attributes that are inappropriate for the product as well. The main point in using a celebrity endorser is to get the consumer to purchase the product. It is important to know what role the celebrity's attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise have on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions.

Existing literature related to the product match-up model proposes that messages conveyed by the celebrity image and the product should be congruent for effective advertising (Forkan, 1980; Kahle and Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990). The determinant of the match between

celebrity and brand depends on the degree of perceived “fit” between brand and celebrity image (Misra and Beatty, 1990). Advertising a product via a celebrity whose image is highly congruent with the brand leads to greater advertiser and celebrity believability compared with a situation in which there is low congruence (Kamins and Gupta, 1994). Most of the empirical work on the match-up hypothesis has focused on the physical attractiveness of the celebrity endorser. Attractive celebrities like Madonna, Cindy Crawford, Aishwarya Rai, etc., are extensively used to personal care products like toilet soaps, shampoo, skin and hair conditioners, cosmetics etc. some significant match-up studies have focused upon a match between a celebrity and a product based on physical attractiveness (Kahle and Homer 1985; Kamins 1990). Specifically, the match-up hypothesis predicts that attractive celebrities are more effective when endorsing products used to enhance one’s attractiveness invoking “social adaptation theory,” Kahle and Homer (1985) argue for a match-up explanation of their findings, showing more favorable brand attitude when the product (razor blades) was paired with an attractive (rather than unattractive) celebrity endorser.

In support of the match-up hypothesis, Misra and Beatty (1990) found that recall and affect toward the brand were enhanced when the celebrity and the brand were matched. Kamins, in 1990 study, tested the match-up hypothesis by pairing either an attractive (Tom Selleck) or unattractive (Telly Savalas) celebrity with either a product used to enhance one’s attractiveness (luxury car) or a product not used to enhance one’s attractiveness (home computer). He found that for an attractiveness-related product (a luxury car), a physically attractive celebrity (Tom Selleck) enhanced spokesperson credibility and attitudes toward the advertisement, relative to a physically unattractive celebrity (Telly Savalas). However, for an attractiveness-unrelated product (a home computer), the physically attractive celebrity had no effect on measures of the spokesperson, the product, and the advertisement relative to the physically unattractive celebrity.

In another study, Kamins and Gupta (1994) examined the congruence between image type and the advertised product from an identification (i.e., when the audience accept the source’s influence due to their desire to identify with the source) and internalization (i.e., when the audience take in the source’s influence and make it an integral part of their attitudes or beliefs) perspective in a 2 (celebrity versus non-celebrity spokesperson) x 2 (higher versus lower congruence between spokesperson image and the product) experiment. The results showed that for a celebrity spokesperson, higher congruence for the spokesperson-product combination led to higher perceived believability and attractiveness of the spokesperson and a more positive product attitude. For a non-celebrity spokesperson, however, degree of

congruence had no effect on the dependent measures. Furthermore, Erdogan, Baker, and Tagg (2001) found that when choosing celebrity endorsers, British advertising agency managers considered various criteria, for example, celebrity-target audience match, celebrity-product match, overall image of the celebrity, cost of hiring the celebrity, celebrity trustworthiness, controversy risk, celebrity familiarity, celebrity prior endorsements, celebrity likeability, risk of celebrity overshadowing the brands, the stage of celebrity life cycle, celebrity expertise, celebrity profession, and celebrity physical attractiveness. The importance of these criteria depended on the product type, suggesting that managers considered the match-up between the celebrity and the product type.

Associative Learning and Match-up Effects

Associative learning theory is a useful framework for understanding match-up effects. Associative learning is a mechanism by which links or relationships between concepts can be established (Klein 1991; Martindale 1991). An associative network structure of memory consists of patterns of nodes (concepts) linked together (Anderson 1976, 1983). In the context of endorsements, both the endorser and brand represent units connected to other units based on our experiences with the brand and the endorser. These connections represent our association set for the brand and the endorser. Even attitude, our evaluation of the brand and the celebrity, is considered an element of our association sets (Berger and Mitchell 1989; Fazio, Powell and Williams 1989; Fazio et al. 1986; Judd et al. 1991; Noffsinger, Pellegrini and Brunell 1983). Indeed, Fazio et al. (1989) define attitude as the “association” between an object and the evaluation of the object. By repeated pairings of the brand and endorser, the brand and endorser become part of each other’s association set.

An important variable in driving how easily an associative link is built between two concepts (such as a brand and an endorser) is belongingness, relatedness, fit, or similarity. Generally, the more similar two concepts are, the more likely the two concepts will become integrated within an associative network (e.g., Garcia and Koelling 1966; Hamm, Vaitl and Lang 1989; Rozin and Kalat 1971). It is this associative link, a perceived connection between a brand and an endorser, that drives predicted endorser effects. This theoretical perspective is consistent with hypothesizing by other researchers interested in match-up effects who propose the importance of “congruence” (Kamins 1990; Lynch and Schuler 1994), “fittingness” (Kanungo and Pang 1973), “appropriateness” (Solomon, Ashmore and Longo 1992), and “consistency” (Walker, Langmeyer and Langmeyer 1992).

2.6.4 : Meaning Transfer Model (Grant McCracken, 1989)

McCracken (1989) addressed the endorsement process from a cultural perspective. He argued that the endorsement process depends upon the symbolic properties of the celebrity endorser and the celebrity served the endorsement process by taking on the meanings that then carry from advertisement to advertisement. McCracken has described the Celebrity Endorsement process as a special instance of a more general meaning transfer (McCracken 1986; McCracken 1989). In the model, cultural meanings move through a conventional path to individual consumers. Meanings begin as something inherent and resident in the culturally constituted, physical, and social world (McCracken 1986). Meanings move from culturally constituted world to consumer goods through advertising and fashion systems and then it is transferred to individual consumer through the efforts of the consumer. Thus, meaning keeps on circulating in the consumer society (McCracken 1986; McCracken 1989).

McCracken (1989)'s meaning transfer theory has direct implications for the celebrity endorsement process. He argues that for the purpose of communication, a celebrity has a set of fictional roles and when consumers respond to celebrity's specific characteristic, they are in fact responding to a very particular set of meanings. A celebrity is a persuasive communicator not only because of being attractive or credible but also because he/she has made up certain meanings the consumer finds compelling and useful (McCracken 1989). The effectiveness of the endorser depends upon the meanings he or she brings to the endorsement process.

McCracken (1989) has described the whole Meaning Transfer Process in three stages. As shown in Figure 1 in the initial stage, the meanings generated from distant movie performances, political campaigns, or athletic achievements and performance, reside in celebrities themselves. In the second stage, meanings are transferred to the product through advertisement and the endorsement process. In the third stage the meanings are transferred from the product to the consumer where the properties of the product become the properties of the consumer (McCracken 1989).

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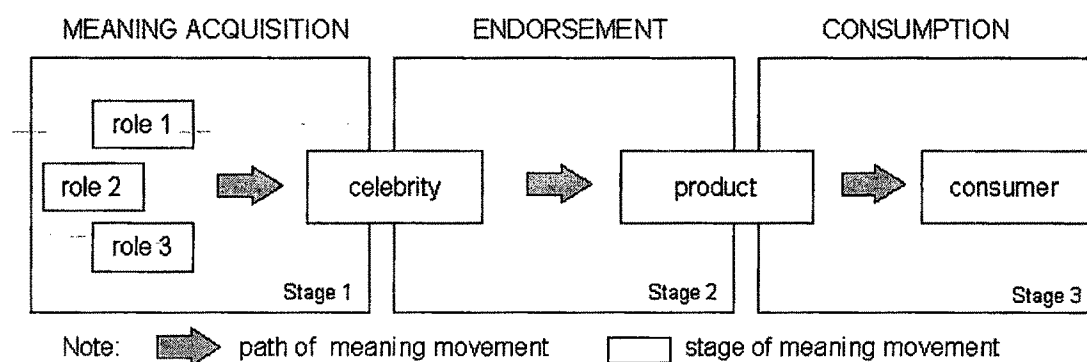


Fig.7 Meaning Transfer in the Endorsement Process

Source : Adapted from McCracken 1989

Some scholars (Atkin and Block 1983; McCracken 1986, 1988, 1989; Mick 1986; O'Guinn, Faber, Curiar, and Schmitt 1989; Sherry and McGrath 1989; Stern 1988) propose that celebrity endorsers embody symbolic meanings that transcend those directly contained in them. McCracken (1989) suggests that celebrity endorsements are examples of a meaning transfer process. Meaning resides in the physical and social world constituted by the prevailing culture. It then moves from the culturally constituted world to consumer goods via advertising and fashion systems and then from consumer goods to individual consumers' life via the efforts of the consumers. Celebrity endorsement plays an important role in this transfer. The meaning first resides in the celebrity. It is then transferred to a product when the celebrity endorses a product in an advertisement. Finally, the meaning is moved from the product to the consumer.

In line with the meaning transfer model, Langmeyer and Walker (1991) showed that a celebrity (Cher) possessed symbolic meanings and passed on these meanings to the endorsed product (Scandinavian Health Spas). The unendorsed product (bath towels) tended to have symbolic meanings that were diffuse and undifferentiated relative to the more dimensionalised and unique symbolic meanings of the endorsed product. The celebrity endorser appeared to focus attention on a narrow range of associations with the product, which were consistent with his or her presence.

2.6.5 : The TEARS Model (Shimp, 2003)

Shimp (2003) also claims that there are two general attributes, credibility and attractiveness that play an important role when selecting an endorser. He has created a model called the TEARS model shown in Table 4 .

Credibility :

The general attribute 'Credibility', consists of two central features: Trustworthiness and Expertise.

Table 4 The TEARS Model (Modified version)

THE TEARS MODEL
TRUSTWORTHINESS <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Believable- Dependable- Someone to be trusted
EXPERTISE <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Knowledge- Experience- Skills
ATTRACTIVENESS PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Looks- Behavior
RESPECT <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Accomplishments- Results- Personal qualities
SIMILARITY <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Gender- Age- Ethnicity- Social class

Source: Adapted from Shimp (2003) p. 295 – 300; Martin (1996) p. 28 - 43

Trustworthiness :

The Trustworthiness component in the TEARS model, refers to believability, honesty, integrity of a source; someone who can be trusted. Endorser need to establish that they are not attempting to manipulate the audience and that they are objective in their presentations. By doing this, they establish themselves as trustworthy and therefore, credible. A celebrity gains the audience's trust through the life he or she lives professionally (on the sport field) and personally which is available for everyone to read about in mass media. Advertisers can benefit from the value of trustworthiness by selecting endorsers who are regarded as being honest, believable, and dependable person.

Expertise :

The second feature of endorser credibility is expertise, the 'E' term of the TEARS model. Expertise refers to the knowledge, experience, or skills that an endorser possesses as they relate to the communications topic. Hence, athletes are perceived as experts when it comes to endorsement of sports-related products. It is important that an endorser is being perceived as an expert because then he or she is more persuasive in changing audience opinions than an endorser who is not perceived as possessing the same characteristic.

Attractiveness :

The second general attribute 'Attractiveness', consists of three central ideas: Physical attractiveness, Respect and, Similarity.

- Physical attractiveness

Physical attractiveness, the A component in the TEARS model refers to how the endorsers' looks, behavior or other personal traits.

- Respect

The R in the TEARS model stands for the quality of being admired due to one's personal qualities and accomplishments. Hence, athletes are respected for their athletic prowess and accomplishments in their sport. A respected celebrity is also generally liked and this respect/likeability factor may serve to enhance brand equity because of the positive effect the consumers may get towards the brand by the association with the endorser.

- Similarity

The last component of attractiveness and also the S term in the TEARS model refers to how the endorser matches with the audience in terms of age, gender, ethnicity social class etc. Similarity is an important attribute because it is easier for a consumer to relate to an endorser who shares the same characteristics as themselves. In general a celebrity endorser is perceived as more trustworthy the more he or she matches the audience in terms of distinct characteristics. If the audience perceives the celebrity as trustworthy this promotes more favorable attitudes toward the advertised brand. (Ibid)

2.6.6 : The FREDD Principle (Young & Rubricum)

FRED is a short form created by Young & Rubricum that stands for familiarity, relevance, esteem, and differentiation. The FRED principle is a result from Y & R study on why brands succeed and fail. The principles from Y & R study have been applied by Miciak & Shankling (1994) when studying celebrity endorsers. However, they have added another attribute to the list and FRED becomes FREDD where the last D stands for Deportment.

- Familiarity

The most important thing to keep in mind when selecting a celebrity to endorse a product/brand is that the celebrity is easy to recognize, likable, and friendly. This does not mean that the celebrity has to be recognized by everyone; rather, the endorser must be recognized by the intended target audience.

- Relevance

The advertisers have to evaluate whether there is a fit between the celebrity and the product. The celebrity has to have the image, reputation, and appearance that fit with the product he or she is endorsing. There also has to be a pertinent fit between the celebrity and target audience. Some consumers want to be like the celebrity while others already feel like they are like the celebrity.

- Esteem

This selection principle include that the celebrity must have personal credibility and be held in high regard by the target audience. For athlete endorsers it is winning that contributes to esteem.

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- Differentiation

A major reason for using celebrity endorsers is to cut through the massive advertising clutter. When comparing to the average person, of course, the celebrity is different. However, it is important to consider how the celebrity will come across when compared with other highprofile people. It is in this regard that an endorser needs to be distinctive.

- Deportment

Although a company has found a celebrity that can measure up well on familiarity, relevance, esteem, and differentiation he or she can still fail on the deportment. Embarrassing behavior that offends customers is a very big risk for the company. The corporate and/or product image can become associated with a celebrity endorser's disputatious public actions, which can damage the companies/products reputation.

2.7 : Summation of Literature Review

There are myriad ways to measure consumer behavior; there are countless influences that affect brand consumption, but one of the most intriguing is through the celebrity endorsement process. This relatively new phenomena is a rapidly growing business, that spills into every avenue of the market. For this reason, celebrity endorsements of brand name apparel should be studied more closely. As consumers are inundated with celebrity advertisements in every day life, it would be beneficial to know how they think, feel, and react to this very fashionable trend. So the purpose of this study was to examine how a celebrity adds equity to the product/brand being endorsed, will it help researchers learn how consumers really feel about celebrities in advertising and how that is related to their attitudes toward the advertised product and their intent to purchase the advertised product. Using the variables of 1) physical attractiveness, 2) source credibility (of the endorser), and 3) celebrity/brand congruency (match-up/fit), will help researchers understand what factors consumers look for when forming attitudes towards celebrities.